

WORK AND NON-WORK ADJUSTMENT OF MEXICAN SKILLED MIGRANTS IN AUSTRALIA

Fabiola Barba Ponce

MA. Management and Social Development, Universidad de Guadalajara

BA (Psych) Hons, Instituto Tecnológico y de Estudios Superiores de Occidente

ITESO



MACQUARIE
University
SYDNEY • AUSTRALIA

Macquarie University, Department of Psychology

Submitted June 2017 for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

(Organisational Psychology)

Table of Contents

List of Tables	iv
List of Figures	vi
Abstract	viii
Candidate Statement	x
Conference Papers Arising From Thesis	xi
Acknowledgements	xii
Chapter 1: Overview of Research on Skilled Migrant Adjustment	1
Skilled Migrants	1
Mexican Skilled Migrants in Australia	4
Skilled Migrant Adjustment	7
Gaps in Current Understanding of Skilled Migrant Adjustment	9
Overview of Thesis	14
Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework for Understanding Skilled Migrants' Adjustment	17
A Cross-cultural Adjustment Model for Skilled Migrants	17
The TWA as a Theoretical Base for the Model	20
The Role of Support in Skilled Migrants	34
The Outcomes of Fit: Adjustment and Intention to Leave	36
Mediation Pathways in Proposed Model	40
Chapter 3: Methodology	43
Procedures	43
Participants	46
Measures	52

Control Variables.....	57
Chapter 4: Cross-sectional Results of P-E fit and the Adjustment Model in Mexican Skilled Migrants	60
Method.....	60
Results	65
Qualitative Data Analysis.....	71
Discussion.....	79
Strengths and Limitations of This Study	84
Conclusion	85
Chapter 5: Longitudinal Results: Effect of P-E fit, Support and Adjustment in Mexican Skilled Migrants' Intention to Leave Australia.	87
Part One: Method	87
Part One: Results	91
Part One: Discussion	100
Part Two: Post-Hoc	104
Part Two: Results	106
Part Two: Discussion.....	109
Limitations and Implications of This Study	110
Conclusion.....	111
Chapter 6: Mexican Adjustment Trends Over Time.....	113
Method.....	116
Results	122
Discussion.....	141
Strengths and Limitations of This Study	151
Conclusion.....	153
Chapter 7: General Discussion.....	154

Overview of Thesis Aims	154
Summary of Results	154
Implications for Theory	156
Implications for Practice.....	160
Strengths and Limitations.....	165
Future Research	171
General Conclusion	175
Appendices.....	226
Appendix 1: Ethics Approval	226
Appendix 2: Information Consent	228
Appendix 3: Items in English and Back-translated into Spanish	229
Appendix 4: Factor Loadings for Study One and Items for Longitudinal Analysis	240
Appendix 5: Correlations Table for Raters and Migrants in Key Variables.....	244
Appendix 6: Factor Loadings for Time Two and Three.....	246

List of Tables

Chapter 3

Table 1. *Demographic Characteristics of Respondents from Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3* 50

Table 2. *Alpha Values for all Variables in the Study*..... 59

Chapter 4

Table 3. *Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Alpha Reliabilities in the Current Sample*..... 67

Table 4. *Unstandardised Path Coefficients and Bootstrap Confidence Intervals for all the Direct Effects in the Saturated Model*..... 69

Table 5. *Translation of the 25 Most Repeated Words in Relation to the Work Environment* . 75

Table 6. *Most Repeated Words in the Non-work Environment Context* 79

Chapter 5

Table 7. *Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Alpha Reliabilities in the Longitudinal Sample*..... 93

Table 8. *Standardised Path Coefficients for Control Variables on Mediators and Outcome Variables in the Mediation Model*. 98

Table 9. *Unstandardised Bootstrap Confidence Intervals for the Indirect Effects*..... 99

Table 10. *Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses of P-E fit work T1, at Non-work T1 and Support from Australian on Adjustment T1, Moderator Variables, and Their Interactions*
..... 107

Chapter 6

Table 11. *Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Alpha Reliabilities in the Current Sample*..... 124

Table 12. *Model Comparisons of Latent Growth Curves for the Three Types of Adjustment*128

Table 13. <i>Summary of Best-Fitted Growth Curves Models for P-E fit and the Three Adjustment types (n = 154)</i>	129
Table 14. <i>Model Comparisons of Latent Growth Curves for the two types of P-E Fit</i>	134
Table 15. <i>Unstandardised Correlations Among Multivariate Latent Factors of Adjustment Types</i>	135
Table 16. <i>Unstandardised Regression Coefficients for Control Variables and Predictors to Intercept and Slope Growth Factors of Adjustment.</i>	139
Table 17. <i>Unstandardised Regression Coefficients on Intention to Leave in the Linear Models</i>	141

List of Figures

Chapter 2

Figure 1. In-country adjustment variables from Black et al's model 1991 18

Figure 2. The Person-Environment fit model for skilled migrants. 20

Chapter 4

Figure 3. Path analysis results of the hypothesised model.....70

Figure 4. Word cloud of the 100 most repeated words at work 74

Figure 5. Word cloud of the 100 most repeated words in the non-work context. 78

Chapter 5

Figure 6. Hypothesised longitudinal mediation model..... 95

Figure 7. Significant standardised path coefficients in the mediation model..... 97

Figure 8. Interaction effect P-E fit work on work adjustment Time 2 at high and low levels (\pm 1 SD) of P-E fit culture. 108

Figure 9. Interaction effect P-E fit culture on non-work adjustment Time 2 at high and low levels (\pm 1 SD) of P-E fit work 108

Chapter 6

Figure 10. Univariate latent growth model for skilled migrants' adjustment 119

Figure 11. Univariate conditional model for the prediction of latent growth factors for skilled migrants' adjustment..... 121

Figure 12. Univariate conditional model for the outcome of latent growth factors for skilled migrants' adjustment..... 122

Figure 13. Best-fitted growth curves for the three adjustment types. 130

Figure 14. Exploratory growth curves for the three adjustment types divided by groups: < 1 year living in Australia and > 1 years 132

<i>Figure 15.</i> Comparative growth curves for the P-E fit variables (dotted lines) and work and non-work adjustment types (solid lines).	133
--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----

Abstract

This thesis examines quantitative data on adjustment in work and non-work domains for a sample of Mexican skilled migrants in Australia. While the literature on adjustment in situations of international mobility has expanded in recent decades, the specific study of skilled migration has lagged behind, despite the fact that it accounts for a growing sector of the globalised workforce. This study addresses that gap, furnishing new data on a specific group of skilled migrants in Australia and offering a robust theoretical framework for its interpretation. Dawis and Lofquist's (1984) Minnesota Theory of Work adjustment is employed as a guide for developing a framework to understand adjustment. Black and Stephens's (1989) influential model of tripartite adjustment, including work, non-work and interaction adjustment, is used to identify the types of adjustment examined. The proposed framework includes demands-abilities (D-A) fit and needs-supplies (N-S) fit in both work and non-work environments as predictors of adjustment, with the additional variable of social support. Intention to leave Australia is considered the outcome moderated by these predictors.

In its first three chapters, this thesis presents an introduction to skilled migration, the theoretical underpinnings for the understanding of migrants' adjustment and the methodology applied for the three-wave longitudinal study. Detailed explanation of the sample and discussion of the challenges in surveying small and geographically-dispersed populations precede the three empirical chapters.

Cross-sectional analyses show support for the proposed model, demonstrating that fit at work, fit with the culture and social support by host nationals (Australians) relate to the tripartite model of adjustment proposed by Black and Stephens (1989). Qualitative data indicate that Mexican skilled migrants consider the most challenging aspects of adjusting to their work and non-work life in Australia to be finding their first job, making friends and networking, having their immediate family a long way away and having difficulties with Australian English.

Longitudinal analysis examines the mediation effect of adjustment in the relationship between P-E fit work, P-E fit culture and support from Australians and the three types of adjustment. Drawing on data collected over three waves, the results demonstrate that neither P-E fit work nor support predicted adjustment across time. Furthermore, the mediational effect of adjustment only applied to the relationship between P-E fit culture and intention to leave. However, post-hoc analyses indicated that when skilled migrants experienced high levels of P-E fit culture, there was a positive effect of P-E fit work upon work adjustment. By including non-work variables, this study highlights the importance of considering environments other than work when studying international adjustment and its outcomes.

The third analysis considered the time-dependent nature of adjustment via latent growth modelling (LGM). While work and interaction adjustment showed a positive linear growth over the course of the study, skilled migrants' non-work adjustment plateaued after six months. In addition, only P-E fit work was shown to be a significant predictor of the acceleration of its corresponding adjustment trajectory.

The final discussion outlines the implications for theory and practice, along with strengths, limitations and suggestions for future research. Overall, the findings of this thesis contribute to the adjustment literature by providing scholars with new information in the understanding of the process experienced by growing skilled migrant populations.

Candidate Statement

This thesis does not contain material that has been submitted for publication. Except where indicated by specific reference, the work submitted is the result of my own investigation and the views expressed are my own. No portion of the work presented has been submitted in substance for any other degree or award at this or any other university or institution. Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee approval was obtained for this research and all survey data was collected in line with this approval (Reference: 5201400317).

Signed:

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of a stylized 'J' followed by a horizontal line and a small vertical stroke at the end.

Date: 28 June 2017

Conference Papers Arising From Thesis

Barba Ponce, F. (2013, November). Mexican migrants' adjustment in Australia. Paper presented at the Sydney Postgraduate Psychology Conference. Sydney, New South Wales.

Barba Ponce, F. (2015, August). If only fitting in was as easy as I thought: the experience of Mexicans adjusting to life in Australia. Paper presented at the SURCLA seminar series at the Department of Latin American Studies, University of Sydney. Sydney, New South Wales.

Barba Ponce, F., & Griffin, B. (2016, August). The theory of work adjustment applied to Mexican migrants in Australia: towards a more holistic model of overseas adjustment. Paper presented at the 23rd Congress of the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology. Nagoya, Japan.

Acknowledgements

My sincere thanks goes to Barbara Griffin, my supervisor, for her expert guidance of this project. I can't thank her enough for her hard work and dedication, especially in the final stretch. I also thank my Associate Supervisor, Julie Fitness, whose timely comments on my drafts, and whose personal touch, being a '*skilled migrant*' herself, brought a valuable perspective to the research.

I am grateful to a number of mentors at Macquarie who '*supplied*' the perfect resources to fit my '*needs*' in this candidature: Dr. Ren Yi, who modelled perseverance, Professor Sakkie Pretorius, for his inspirational leadership, and Professor Richie Howitt, whose door was always open with a solution for any problem.

My colleagues in the Department of Psychology have provided help with honing the '*abilities*' I've needed for the '*demands*' of this project. Special thanks must go to my statistics angels Eric Delle, Alissa Beath and Piers Bayl-Smith, who have been eternally patient.

'*Social support*' has been shown to be a critical part of the process of international mobility, and I have found wonderful friends in the members of my PhD office and other PhD candidates: thank you for the tea and sympathy! Special thanks to Macquarie staff, Juliet Lum and Avril Moss, who always went out of their way to look after me.

My experiences interacting with locals have made all the difference to my personal process of '*adjustment*'. Terrie Norman and Edward Aguirre have been like family to me, *gracias de corazón*! I am so thankful for Fr Paul Fyfe's wisdom and warm heart, despite the distance. The members of the rainbow chat kept things in perspective with experimental baking

and theatre shows (an extra thanks to Claire Drake, who did a heroic final proof-read). I am especially grateful to Vek Lewis, who has long been one of my most important and treasured interlocutors on cross-cultural issues and has informed so much about my life as a migrant in Australia.

I would be grossly overweight if it was not for my partner Catherine, whose packed lunches were the envy of level 4 and 5, C3A. I could not have finished my PhD without her, and most importantly, I would not be able to call Australia home. You could say that Catherine has been the factor moderating my *'intention to leave'*! I also want to mention my family, 'Los Poncianos' – even if after four years they still haven't grasped the time difference between here and Mexico, they have always been there for me, and I appreciate all the phonecalls night and day!

Finally, I could not be more grateful to, and inspired by, the participants of this study, the Mexican skilled migrants. Their generosity to share their lives is the basis for this research, and I hope that its conclusions will support the successful *'tenure'* of this growing, vibrant community.

A mi madre y a mi padre

Chapter 1: Overview of Research on Skilled Migrant Adjustment

This thesis offers a longitudinal study of adjustment in Mexican skilled migrants in Australia. Drawing on the Minnesota Theory of Work Adjustment (henceforth TWA; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), I propose a framework for understanding adjustment over time, looking at three main types: work, non-work and interaction adjustment (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991). Further, I examine the links between adjustment, Person-Environment fit, and intention to leave, testing to see if predictive relationships across time can be established.

In this introductory chapter, I provide an overview of the topic of skilled migrants and the specific context of Mexican skilled migrants. I then highlight gaps in existing research in this area, I provide the original contribution of this PhD thesis, followed by an outline of the remaining thesis chapters.

Skilled Migrants

The accelerated process of globalisation is allowing more people to migrate to work and live in other countries (Peltokorpi, 2008). Within the fields of organisational psychology and international management, there is increasing awareness of the different forms of migration and international experiences (e.g., organisational expatriate, skilled migrant, refugee) that might impact performance in workplaces. However, with the present instability of global movement patterns and the constant evolution of these different forms, the definition of ‘migrant’ is in flux and this lack of clarity is reflected in the literature (Baruch, Dickmann, Altman, & Bournois, 2013). The United Nations (2013) defines ‘migrant’ as an individual moving from one geographical location to another, different from the usual place of residing or where they were born. While this definition is generic enough to hold true for most migrant individuals, it does not make distinctions between those migrants who are forced to move due to war, famine, or natural disasters (e.g., refugees and exiles), and other forms of migration, for example,

expatriates or skilled migrants, both of whom typically choose to move from their home country.

Skilled migrants, the focus of the current thesis, differ from expatriates in three main characteristics: motivation, working challenges, and amount of support (Andresen, Bergdolt, Margenfeld, & Dickmann, 2014). The motivation for international mobility is directly related to intended length of stay. For instance, an organisation's expatriate is defined as "an individual who go overseas to accomplish a job-related goal" (Ones & Sinangil, 2001, p. 425). Since these kinds of assignments are requested by the companies that organisational expatriates work for, oftentimes their stay in the host country is temporary (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010). For example, Peltokorpi (2008) identified expatriates who stayed for periods from six to five years and returned to their home country upon completion. Skilled migrants, conversely, are those who voluntarily choose to move to a different country in search of better career opportunities (Zikic, Bonache, & Cerdin, 2010), some with the additional aim of escaping political, social or economic challenges in their country of origin (Massey & Bartley, 2005). Skilled migrants are therefore less transient than expatriates.

Working challenges are typically of a different nature for expatriates and skilled migrants, mainly because expatriates move for a pre-arranged, specific position with a clearly-determined set of responsibilities (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010). These positions are often high status and tend to be paired with structured career paths (Abdul Malek et al., 2015; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009). By contrast, skilled migrants, despite being quite highly qualified, do not have the support of an organisation as they make their transition into a new work environment (Malik, Cooper-Thomas, & Zikic, 2014). They must contend with factors such as a lack of recognition for education obtained overseas, a potential downgrading of previous work experience since local experience is usually privileged (Aten, Nardon, & Isabelle, 2016; Barba Ponce, 2013), and in some cases discriminatory labour market dynamics

and recruitment practices (Hellgren, 2015; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). Depending on how successfully these challenges can be met, a skilled migrant may endure long waiting periods for work, have to lower their standard of employment (Markovizky & Doron, 2011) by accepting jobs that are below the level of their acquired training and abilities, or be unable to obtain employment at all.

The quantity and quality of available support also distinguishes expatriates from skilled migrants. Since expatriates' decision to relocate is made by their employer, the international move typically comes with generous compensation packages and financial and practical support (X. Wang & Jordache, 2005). These supplementary resources facilitate integration and adjustment to the new host country (Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994; Takeuchi, 2010). Skilled migrants do not have access to such external support, so decoding and adjusting to the new country's norms and processes requires them to draw exclusively on their own economic and educational resources (Vazquez Maggio, 2013).

Clarifying the differences between expatriates and skilled migrants is critical given that developed nations are increasingly turning to skilled migrants in order to maintain prosperity and relevance in the changing world economy (Ariss & Syed, 2011; Ariss, Vassilopoulou, Ozbilgin, & Game, 2013). From 1990 to 2010, the highly-skilled portion of global migration grew at a rate of 130%, registering a total of 28 million skilled migrants residing in the OECD countries (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) in 2010 (Kerr, Kerr, Özden, & Parsons, 2016). The destinations of at least 70% of these skilled migrants were Canada, the United Kingdom, the USA and Australia.

Skilled migrants have become a key asset for the Australian workforce (Peiperl & Jonsen, 2007), as demonstrated by the constant upward trend in numbers as a percentage of total visas granted. In fact, qualified professionals now comprise the majority of new arrivals to Australia (Australian Government, 2016). In the 2010-2011 period, the Australian

Government granted 113,725 skilled migration visas representing 60% of the total of permanent visas granted (Australian Government, 2010). During the 2015-2016 period, the Australian Government approved 128,550 skilled migration visas accounting for 68% of permanent entries, with the remaining 32% split between family reunion (57,440) and humanitarian schemes (13,750) (Markus, 2016). The 2016-17 migration plan (Australian Government, 2015) explicitly states that it seeks high-quality migrants whose skills and attributes can contribute directly to Australia's economic well-being. In the understanding that skilled migrants may choose their destination country based on expectations for work and life quality, Australia aims to promote its skilled migration program as one that offers both attractive job opportunities and a high quality of life for migrants willing to contribute to the country's growth.

Mexican Skilled Migrants in Australia

The proportion of Australians born overseas is steadily increasing, accounting for 28% of the population in 2015 (ABS, 2016). Since the eradication of the 'White Australia Policy' in the 1970s, migrants are now arriving in greater numbers from countries outside of the British Isles and Western Europe (as compared to previous generations of migrants) (Elder, 2007; Lewis, 2009). The largest share of this diversification is accounted for by arrivals from China, India, the Philippines and, at a lesser but steadily increasing rate, Latin America. Most migrants from South America (e.g., Chile, Uruguay, and Argentina) and Central America (e.g., El Salvador and Nicaragua) arrived in the 1960s and 1970s, predominantly as refugees, driven from their countries of origin by the rising tide of dictatorships and the associated financial and social fallout (Jupp, 2001; Mejía, 2015). More recently, highly skilled migrants from other areas of Latin America (e.g., Mexico, Venezuela, Colombia, and Brazil) have migrated to establish permanent residency in Australia.

The number of Mexican migrants, a relatively new group in Australia, has been increasing slowly since the 1990s (Commonwealth of Australia, 2008), with a steep upward

trend observable since 2001 (Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011). There has been a particularly sharp increase in Mexican arrivals since 2011, showing an 80.5% increase in the period between the 2006 and 2011 census. In 2011 (the last census for which reliable data are available), there were 3255 Mexican migrants in Australia, of whom 81.7% had studied at a tertiary level. Their median age was 33 years and they were fairly balanced in terms of gender (47.9% males). The most current statistics (Commonwealth of Australia, 2014) report an estimated total of 4680 Mexicans in Australia, indicating a further increase of approximately 40% over just three years.

However, Mexicans who are migrating to Australia are a different group of migrants compared to those bound for the USA. Jorge Durand, an expert in Mexico-USA migration studies, recognises “Australia as a new destination for a sector of Mexicans that does not generally migrate, belongs to the professional middle and middle-low classes, with high human capital, thus having many different elements to those who move to the USA” (J. Durand, personal communication, 1 November 2012). Migration scholars have explained the phenomenon as an example of ‘brain drain’, arguing that talented individuals are motivated to leave Mexico for social, political and economic reasons, or a combination of the three (Castaños-Lomnitz, 2004; Marstucelli & Leyva, 2007). Castaños-Lomnitz, Masturcelli and Leyva further stress that the growth of information technologies has increasingly brought the values and expectations of Latin Americans into line with more developed countries, making migration seem aspirational and accessible. This has facilitated the rise of third-party, for-profit migration agents, who prey on this demographic by flooding social media with targeted communications advertising Australia to potential migrants, promoting the high quality of life and remuneration available (Villafranco, 2016).

Another factor influencing the new wave of Mexican migration to Australia is the worsening of the political situation in Mexico since 2006 (Elliott, 2011). The Mexican

government's ongoing 'Guerra contra el narcotrafico' (war against narco-trafficking) that began with the election of President Felipe Calderon in 2006 (Grillo, 2011) has led to a massive escalation in violence, frequent kidnappings and demands for ransom, resulting in a widespread climate of fear (Mercille, 2011; O'Neil, 2009). The net impact has been an increasingly polarised society, economic decline, and overall insecurity, with limited access to well paid jobs (Barba Ponce, 2013; Parody, 2009). The effects of this are being felt by middle-class Mexicans, who are not only the group most frequently targeted by organised crime, they also tend to be economically privileged and skilled enough to migrate to countries such as Canada or Australia (Atondo Guzman, 2011; Vazquez Maggio, 2013).

Qualitative studies (Parody, 2009 and Vazquez Maggio, 2013) report that Mexican skilled migrants are driven by the desire to improve their quality of life (most aim for white-collar jobs), with some additionally motivated by the opportunity for increased interaction with citizens from around the globe. One might imagine that the high level of motivation typically exhibited by skilled migrants in overcoming new barriers (Zikic et al., 2010) would translate into these Mexican skilled migrants reporting positive outcomes. However, there is qualitative evidence (Barba Ponce, 2013) to show that Mexicans migrating to Australia do not necessarily adjust well, either to their work situations or to Australian culture in general.

In my master's thesis (Barba Ponce, 2013), a qualitative study, Mexican participants referred to various struggles pertaining to the general life sphere, including adjusting to public services like the health and educational systems, and accepting that entertainment and social life in Australia is regulated by a higher consumption of alcohol than in Mexico. In relation to the social sphere, they reported difficulty in interacting with and building significant relationships with Australians. Furthermore, they frequently reported a lack of adjustment in the work environment, including difficulty with the recruitment process, underemployment and

difficulty adapting to the general workplace culture and methods of working in Australia. This lack of adjustment led some participants to consider returning to Mexico.

Although data on the specific number of Mexicans permanently leaving Australia is not available, anecdotal evidence from this earlier Masters thesis and informal verbal reports obtained through the author's conversations with Mexicans employed in Australia suggest early departure is not uncommon. More generally, data from the Australian Government Department of Immigration and Border Protection (2017) indicate that in 2012-2013, 52.7% of permanent departures were people born overseas, a figure likely at least in part comprised of skilled migrants returning home. These data further demonstrate that although the majority of total permanent departures left after five years or more of living in Australia, a not insignificant portion (11.5%) left after fewer than two years, reporting homesickness and family issues as the predominant reason for departure.

Skilled Migrant Adjustment

There is to date no holistic framework for studying the adjustment of skilled migrants, with the result that the migrant worker's sphere is an under-theorised field of study (Ariss, Koall, Özbilgin, & Suutari, 2012). This lack of attention is problematic, especially because skilled migrants now comprise an increasing share of the global workforce, providing an alternative to the well-known costs of expatriate assignments (Black & Gregersen, 1999). The literature on expatriate experience alone is not sufficient to explain skilled migrant adjustment, since there are important differences in managing expatriates and migrants and different outcomes in terms of their cross-cultural adjustment patterns. It is now becoming essential to understand the lives and work adjustment of skilled migrants in order that organisations use their cultural, social and economic resources to greatest effect.

This thesis adapts some of the concepts of adjustment long-studied in the expatriate literature, which has provided a framework for understanding the complexities of individuals'

performance on overseas assignments. The most traditional approach in this cross-cultural adjustment literature suggests that there are three types of adjustment that expatriates experience in the host country: work; non-work (or general); and interaction adjustment (Black et al., 1991).

Work adjustment refers to an individual's level of overall comfort within the work environment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). When work adjustment is positive, it reflects high levels of personal satisfaction regarding different job responsibilities, expectations, performance standards, and work values (Black, 1988; Edwards & Cooper, 1990; Kristof, 1996). Work-adjusted individuals demonstrate performance at a high level, at the same time as showing understanding of which past work habits and behaviours are appropriate and which must be adapted to be more suitable for the new country (Black, 1988). In terms specific to the TWA, (Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1968), work adjustment is demonstrated not only by satisfactory performance but also by the individual having high job satisfaction.

Beyond the work setting, skilled migrants, similar to expatriates, have to adjust to the host society at large (Haslberger & Dickmann, 2016). On the basis of the general adjustment concept for expatriates proposed by Black (1988) and Black and Stephens (1989), skilled migrants' non-work adjustment can be operationalised as the degree of psychological satisfaction regarding everyday life aspects of the host country environment, such as food, shopping, housing conditions, entertainment, and healthcare facilities. Over time, non-work adjusted migrants are those who have learnt and shown mastery of how general life, institutions, and services are managed in the new country (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Reiche, Kraimer, & Harzing, 2011). As a result, there is a positive adjustment towards better functioning (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

Interaction adjustment is the third type of adjustment relevant to international mobility. Regardless of one's ethnicity or cultural background, individuals have an inherent motivation

to maintain and create relationships with others (Grant & Berry, 2011; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). As newcomers in a society (Malik et al., 2014), skilled migrants typically aim to belong, to be accepted and to have interactions with members of the host culture (Berry, 2005). Drawing on the concept of interaction adjustment proposed by Black (1988) and Black and Stephens (1989) in the expatriate literature, skilled migrants' interaction adjustment can be operationalised as the comfort associated with socialising with host-country nationals, both inside and outside of work. Like expatriates, skilled migrants who are adjusted in the interaction sphere are those who have built new local networks, increased their social and cultural capital, and feel comfortable interacting with host country nationals (Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2006; Black, 1988; Peltokorpi, 2008).

Of the three adjustment facets (work, non-work and interaction), Black et al. (1991) note that interaction adjustment is the most challenging. The essential reason for this is that interaction adjustment is time-dependent, since social networks develop slowly and tend to require the acquisition of new mental maps and rules, which can differ across cultures (Westcott & Vazquez Maggio, 2015). Since communication patterns and social practices are mostly taken for granted by its members, they are often not explicit or easy to identify for someone unfamiliar to that society (Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001).

Although interaction adjustment is the most obviously time-dependent, all three adjustment types, including work and non-work adjustment, evolve and develop over time, responding to a gradual process of learning and becoming accustomed to the host country culture (e.g., Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2006; Peltokorpi, 2008). It is therefore essential that adjustment is studied longitudinally.

Gaps in Current Understanding of Skilled Migrant Adjustment

There are several approaches that seek to explain the psychological processes associated with international mobility. Skilled migrants have been looked at predominantly under the

rubric of ‘brain gain’ (skilled individuals gained by the host countries), and its inverse, ‘brain drain’ (loss for the sending countries) (Baruch, Budhwar, & Khatri, 2007). This perspective has contributed to understanding of macro-contextual matters such as the socio-economic impact of skilled migration on sending countries, and conversely the benefits for receiving countries (Kalyanram, Gopalan, & Kartik, 2014), while also helping explain aspects of the motivation behind migration, identifying as key factors improved opportunities for social and economic advancement. (Thorn, Inkson, & Carr, 2013).

However, this perspective is limited because it focuses on macro factors, rather than providing understanding at the individual level (Ariss & Syed, 2011). Cross-cultural psychology studies have responded by exploring the psychological impact international adjustment has on wellbeing, mental health and the socio-cultural sphere (e.g., Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Rana-deuba, 2000), as well as looking at family and individual economic factors that are part of a migrant’s motivation (e.g., Markovizky & Doron, 2011; Ward et al., 2001). The cross-cultural paradigm has contributed to understanding of international mobility by explaining the positive impact of support given to immigrants by the receiving countries, the role of the immigrants’ cultural identity as compared to that of the receiving culture, and the influence that personality has on socialisation in the receiving host culture (Ward et al., 2001; Ward, Leong, & Low, 2004). Other cross-cultural studies such as Schofield et al. (2011) have suggested that mental health problems and lack of adjustment are related to unemployment (or low salaries if employed), increased contact with the criminal justice system, and personal relationship difficulties.

Although the cross-cultural psychology literature has been prolific in dealing with the non-work sphere of the migrant (Edgar, 2014; Gila Markovizky, Hadas Doron, & Sarid, 2011; Ward & Chang, 1997; Ward & Masgoret, 2006), it has two disadvantages: firstly, that it has failed to adequately address the work environment at the individual level, one of the most

important dimensions of a migrant's life (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), and secondly, that cross-cultural studies have dealt predominantly with other categories of migrant, such as refugees or undocumented migrants. This means that the careers of skilled migrants as a specific group remain significantly under-studied (Ariss, 2010), despite the fact that skilled migrants, by definition, are motivated principally by their careers.

The relevance of considering both work and non-work spheres seems evident from expatriate research, which has shown that adjustment is one of the most important factors related to success or failure when living and working overseas (e.g., Abdul Malek, Budhwar, & Reiche, 2015; Pattie & Parks, 2011). Although there are important differences between expatriates and skilled migrants, the expatriate literature (which includes the newly emerging self-initiated expatriate, for a detailed review see Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen, & Bolino, [2012]) might be useful for explaining the adjustment process in skilled migrants. Its utility as a starting point has to be measured against some of the gaps and limitations of applying its findings to a different migrant group, which I outline in the following points.

In general there is now a greater distinction made between expatriates and other kinds of migrants (e.g., Cerdin & Selmer, 2013; Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013), but skilled migrants remain ill-defined as a unique group. The term 'migrant' is often understood to relate to characteristics such as being unprivileged, unskilled, and less educated (Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013) in comparison with expatriates. The consequence of this perception is that skilled migrants tend to be considered as 'second class expatriates,' that is, expatriates with less agency. This ignores the reality that skilled migrants are by definition free agents who have demonstrated their capacity to cross organisational and national borders (Inkson & Myers, 2003), and tend therefore to be more motivated in their adjustment process than other migrants, and especially expatriates (Malik et al., 2014; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). Skilled migrants'

adjustment and outcomes may therefore differ substantially from those in the expatriate literature, requiring dedicated attention and study.

Moreover, with few exceptions (e.g., Agullo and Egawa, 2009, with Indian workers in Japan, Ariss, 2010, with Lebanese migrants in Paris, and Barba-Ponce, 2013, with Mexicans in Australia), most international adjustment literature draws its samples from groups of individuals whose countries of origin are developed countries (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Thorn et al., 2013). The relative lack of study of those from less developed countries offers a significant opening for research. Ariss and Crowley-Henry (2013) stress that there is still a need to increase understanding of diverse contexts, with different ethnicities and the national context of the host country taken into consideration. The research conducted for this thesis responds to this by basing its sample on a different population to the predominant Western or Asian samples.

A third limitation of the existing literature is the tendency to base analyses on either cross-sectional or qualitative data, with a corresponding lack of quantitative or longitudinal analysis (e.g., Ariss, 2010; Ramboarison-Lalao, Al Ariss, & Isabelle Barth, 2012; Van den Bergh & Du Plessis, 2012). The effect is that causal explanations have been limited: Tharenou (2015), for example, reported that only 6% of 80 articles included in her meta-analytic sample were longitudinal. Since longitudinal analysis can help to establish causation, this analysis follows a longitudinal design, further incorporating latent growth modelling to model the adjustment trajectories for the three types of adjustment.

Original contributions of this PhD to the current state of knowledge

As a summary, this thesis aims to contribute in three ways to the state of knowledge on skilled migrants and their adjustment process. First, it argues for the use of TWA as a strong theory for understanding skilled migration: re-contextualising and expanding its applicability beyond traditional vocational contexts. That is, despite the fact that TWA was initially

developed for and within an occupational and rehabilitation context, this PhD project demonstrates that the theory is salient for the study of international mobility and, notwithstanding its age, has continuing valency and relevance, even in addressing the structures of the changing work order.

Second, this thesis works with a distinctive and under-represented sample that reflects the growing trend of skilled migration from less-developed nations. The use of this sample is novel since previous research on international adjustment has focused mostly on expatriates and international students (eg., Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003) and mostly with populations in Japan or China (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; X. Wang & Kanungo, 2004). Until recent years, little has been done with skilled migrants, and of this group of studies, few have focused on skilled migrants from developing nations. This study uses the findings from the expatriate literature as its backdrop for understanding international mobility, but localises it with a distinctive sample that addresses more current trends in global migration patterns.

Third, it offers an integrative analysis of both work and non-work domains, where previous literature has tended to focus on one or the other (eg, Takeuchi, Wang, & Marinova, 2005). This is important since the adjustment of skilled migrants depends on more than simply their skills and capacities: migrants are also individuals who must negotiate daily life. This study integrates both these aspects for a more comprehensive view of adjustment.

Fourth, this study contributes to an understanding of the dynamic component of adjustment, taking into account how different types of adjustment may change over time. Since most studies focus on only one single environment (work, non-work or social), there has been little opportunity to consider possible interrelations between these different domains over time (Firth, Chen, Kirkman, & Kim, 2014; Lance, Vandenberg, & Self, 2000). This study looks at all three as dynamic, building a more comprehensive picture of the potential predictors of change. (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010).

Overview of Thesis

This thesis applies Dawis and Lofquist's (1984) TWA to develop a predictive model of skilled migrant adjustment over time. Chapter Two reviews the TWA, a robust theory that has been used to explain work adjustment in a variety of contexts such as vocational and career development (Dawis, 2005), personal counselling (Dawis & Lofquist, 1993), and adjustment to retirement (Hesketh, Griffin, & Loh, 2011). A person-environment fit theory, the TWA focuses on the fit between a person's abilities and needs with the environment's demands and supplies. I develop a model that includes this form of fit in both the work and non-work context. I also explain the inclusion of interaction adjustment in the model, not as an example of fit *per se*, but as an important aspect of the process of international mobility. Chapter Two also includes a discussion on the measurement of fit. Although TWA proponents advocate for indirect measurement of fit, this method raises issues in small samples particularly in assessing fit across multiple time points. As discussed in Chapter Two, I chose instead to use a measure of direct fit.

The original TWA considers satisfaction and tenure to be the key indicators of adjustment. Others have extended these adjustment 'outcomes' to include variables such as wellbeing, commitment, intention to leave, and coping performance (Eggerth, 2008; Hesketh et al., 2011; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). For this study I use overall measures of adjustment taken from the expatriate literature, as well as intention to leave Australia, where adjustment acts as the mediator between P-E fit and intention to leave.

Chapter Three describes the methodology and the sample characteristics for all the empirical chapters. First, I provide an explanation of the statistical procedures used in panel data, then give a detailed description of the self-report measurement scales and procedures for language adaptation. Further, I report general information on recruitment procedures involved in the collection of data at three time-points across one year (approximately six months apart).

The sample was comprised of 154 Mexican skilled migrants to Australia, with a mean age of 37 years and with an average tertiary educational level. To describe the characteristics of the sample, I link information about the Mexican population in Australia with previous research and accessible demographic data such as the Australian census.

Chapter Four presents initial support for the proposed model based on cross-sectional results from the Time 1 data. Here I include factor analysis showing that demands-abilities (D-A) and needs-supplies (N-S) fit yielded one overall category of P-E fit for work and one for P-E fit culture. Although this merger (of D-A with N-S fit) was unexpected, the cross-sectional results found that fit at work was related to work adjustment, that fit with culture was related to non-work adjustment, and that support from Australians was associated with skilled migrants' interaction adjustment. These initial results support the need for considering all forms of adjustment.

Chapter Five presents longitudinal results of an analysis of data from all three time points. This chapter is divided into two sections. Part One includes the rationale for, and the results of, the mediational path analysis. It reports that Time 2 non-work adjustment mediated the effect of P-E fit culture at Time 1 on Time 3 intention to leave; the hypothesised mediation effects of work adjustment and interaction adjustment, however, were not significant. Part Two includes a post-hoc test of the interaction effect between P-E fit work and P-E fit culture. Significant moderation effects were found, and their implications for the study of skilled migrants are discussed.

Chapter Six extends current understanding of skilled migrant adjustment by utilising advanced latent growth modelling (LGM) to identify the shape and form of the trajectories of skilled migrants' adjustment. As expected, both work and interaction adjustment followed a positive linear growth over time spent in Australia. Non-work adjustment, by contrast, showed an increase over the first six months before plateauing towards the second half of this study. In

addition, P-E fit work, P-E fit culture, and support from Australians were tested as predictors of the conditional LGM models and intention to leave as an outcome of the trajectories. P-E fit work at Time 1 predicted the acceleration of the work adjustment trajectory. There was no significant effect of P-E fit culture or support from Australians on adjustment trajectories, nor were any of the trajectories related to intention to leave. Discussion and implications for further studies with skilled migrants complete this chapter.

Chapter Seven concludes this thesis with an overall summary of the results followed by a discussion of the theoretical implications of extending the use of the TWA in the understanding of skilled migrants' adjustment. Managerial and career counselling implications are included in order to offer practical utility for professionals and future skilled migrants. A discussion of the limitations of accessing small, dispersed, and migrant communities is presented before offering final suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework for Understanding Skilled Migrants' Adjustment

This chapter presents a model for understanding skilled migrants' adjustment based on the TWA (Dawis & Loftquist, 1984). First, I provide a brief explanation of the contributions of the expatriate literature, in particular Black et al.'s (1991) influential tripartite international adjustment model. I provide an overview of the TWA and an explanation of the most common methods of measurement for the TWA variables, followed by a discussion of the role of support from host nationals in the proposed framework. The chapter includes the hypotheses to be tested in this thesis.

The Tripartite Expatriate Adjustment Model

This thesis draws on the tripartite model developed by Black et al. (1991) for explaining adjustment in expatriates. Early in the 1990s, when Black and colleagues were developing their model, the internationalisation of the workplace was becoming more and more evident. Increasing numbers of individuals, mostly from North America and other Western cultures, were being deployed to overseas assignments in foreign countries, with the concurrent expectation that the individual would thrive in the new culture (Black, 1988). With significant numbers of American expatriates (up to 40%) leaving assignments earlier than planned, the high cost to firms of sending and further repatriating their workers, stimulated research into the phenomenon of international adjustment (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Copeland & Griggs, 1985).

The Black et al. (1991) model explained the process of adjustment and variables involved in its success or failure by drawing on knowledge from the existing literature on domestic onboarding and adjustment. This model integrated Black's (1988) previous research on factors that exist prior to departure, but nevertheless influence international adjustment. In that study, Black proposed that international adjustment was comprised of two facets: the

adaptation to work and the adaptation to general life. This notion helped to establish the basis of the model, that adjustment overseas is not an unitary concept (Black & Gregersen, 1991), but rather comprises degrees of adjustment to several scenarios simultaneously. The authors developed a scale that intended measuring both work and general adjustment, but in fact unexpectedly, the items loaded onto three dimensions: work adjustment, general adjustment to the culture, and adjustment to interactions with host-country nationals (Kraimer, Bolino, & Mead, 2016).

Further work differentiated the pre-departure and in-country variables affecting the outcomes of expatriates (Black & Gregersen, 1991). Pre-departure information helped to explain, for example, the impact of uncertainty on adjustment (on the understanding that greater predictability in the adjustment scenario would improve adjustment outcomes). For the purposes of the present study, Black and Gregersen's (1991) focus on in-country variables is more relevant, as this allowed discussion of the impact of individual differences and specific types of receiving environments. An extraction of the 'in-country adjustment' variables can be seen in Figure 1.

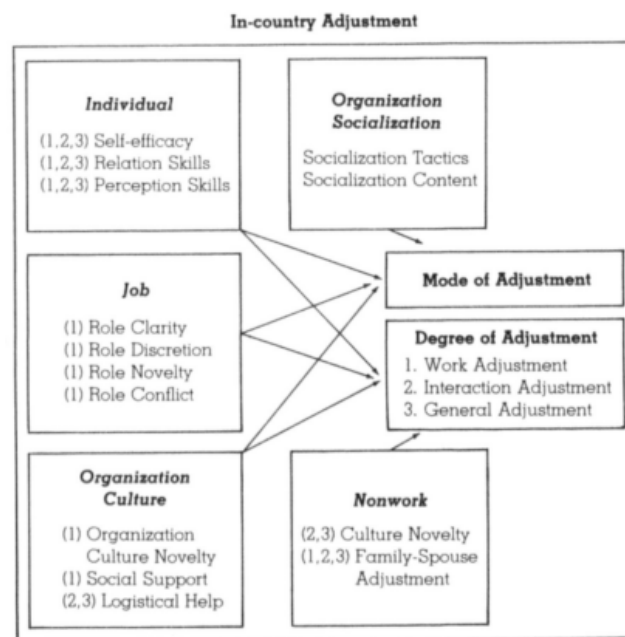


Figure 1. In-country adjustment variables from Black et al's model 1991

Given that Black et al.'s (1991) model had its origins in human resources management, the notion that characteristics of the job, such as role flexibility, would predict adjustment shows how the model took its inspiration from that of Dawis & Lofquist (1984). In fact, one of Black's previous studies dealing with expatriates in Japan (1988) tapped into the different modes of adjustment outlined in the TWA as applied in vocational and rehabilitation studies, arguing that individuals either change their behaviours or change their new roles to match better the role expectations. This shows how the two models, Black et al.'s tripartite adjustment and the TWA, can be integrated in the explanation of international mobility.

A Cross-cultural Adjustment Model for Skilled Migrants

To explain skilled migrants' adjustment to new countries, I propose a mediational model consisting of the two major environment contexts of work and non-work, with the addition of the interpersonal context. Adjustment in these three contexts is predicted by P-E fit, with the outcome of adjustment being intention to leave the host nation (Australia in this instance). The theoretical underpinnings are drawn mainly from the TWA (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), complemented by the previously explained tripartite adjustment model proposed by Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou (1991) commonly used in expatriate literature.

As shown in the graphic representation of this thesis' proposed model (Figure 2), the use of the TWA provides a parsimonious and integrative model that explains adjustment in terms of demands-abilities (D-A) fit and needs-supplies (N-S) fit (Hesketh & Griffin, 2005). The integration of work, non-work, and interaction adjustments from Black et al.'s model allows for the inclusion of the most important environments with which a skilled migrant interacts.

Although I do not consider support from Australians as an indicator of fit *per se*, its inclusion as an example of interaction adjustment with host country nationals, drawing on Black et al.'s (1991) model, allowed me to account for the important social aspect of international

mobility (Jasinskaja-Lahti, 2006; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001; Takeuchi, 2010). This makes the overall proposal a strong, theory-based, integrative model for the explanation of adjustment to international environments.

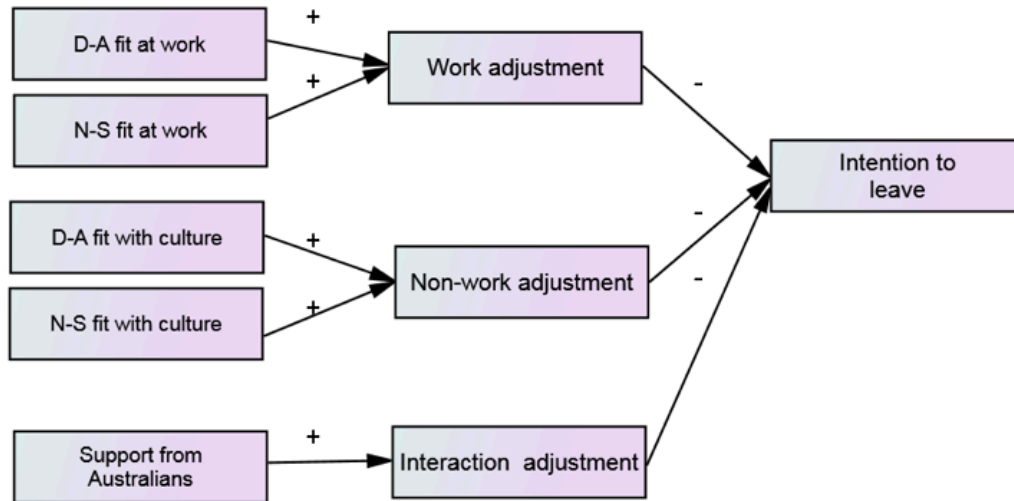


Figure 2. The Person-Environment fit model for skilled migrants.

The TWA as a Theoretical Base for the Model

In the context of increasing workforce globalisation, countries with skills shortages and migrants with the required skills are now having more and more opportunities to interact. When an individual is given access to or allowed to stay in a country (e.g., in the form of a skilled migrant visa), it is usually because the assessed individual has been deemed to fit with the country's requirements. Further, it supposes that reinforcers available in the host country are attractive enough for that individual to move (or if already living in the country, then attractive enough to decide to stay). In turn, countries expect that the individual will respect the established rules and comply with the society's values, thereby contributing positively to the host society. Given appropriate conditions in the host environment and the skilled migrant's matching set of required abilities and values, skilled migrants are a resource that can contribute to the advancement of a society's social and economic goals.

This reciprocal migrant-host country relationship suggests that adjustment relates to the compatibility of an individual's characteristics and that of his/her environment. In other words, an individual does not behave in isolation from their environment, and it is implausible to attempt to understand one without the other (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Models underlying this interaction are known in the organisational/industrial and Human Resources (HR) literature as Person-Environment (P-E) fit theories. Such perspectives argue that people are differentially compatible with the environments in which they interact (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; A.M. Saks & Ashforth, 1997), making both the person (P) and the environment (E) variables of interest for explaining behaviour and outcomes. The most important proposition of P-E theories, however, resides in the match (fit), or lack thereof, between variables, as opposed to the variables P or E by themselves (Caplan, 1987; Dawis, 2005; Kristof, 1996). P-E fit is thus a state of compatibility or of joint values in which the attributes of P are commensurate with the attributes of E (Harrison, 2007). The commensurate aspect is especially important, since without it, as Edwards, Caplan, and Van Harrison (1998) explain, "it is impossible to determine proximity of the person and the environment to one another, and the notion of P-E fit becomes meaningless" (p.31).

One of the most prominent P-E fit theories outlined in the literature is the TWA (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Lofquist & Dawis, 1969), from which the model for this study is drawn. The TWA was originally conceived in response to the findings from the Minnesota Work Adjustment Project (Dawis, Lofquist, & Weiss, 1968), a federally-funded project focused on vocational rehabilitation of disabled individuals adjusting to work during the 1960s-70s. The project identified the significant changes to physical, mental and emotional abilities following disability and its disruptive consequences to work (Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1964), especially for those returning from the Second World War (Eggerth, 2008). The approach taken

was to measure the level of disruption in the ability-requirement correspondence by comparing post-disability data with an individual's previous full-capacity working situation.

Although its origins are in vocational behaviour and rehabilitation (Dawis et al., 1964), the TWA is an empirically-supported framework that has been used to explain adjustment in a range of contexts, such as retirement (Hesketh et al., 2011), career (Eggerth, 2008) and even personal relationships counselling (Dawis & Lofquist, 1993). It has been adopted in a smaller amount of literature to explain adjustment and tenure in situations similar to skilled migrants, such as overseas assignments in expatriates (Breiden, Mohr, & Mirza, 2006; Newman, Bhatt, & Gutteridge, 1978). Breiden et al., (2006) found, for example, that mismatches between career opportunities and expected benefits have a negative effect on satisfaction and work adjustment in expatriate managers, for example where income does not increase as anticipated, or if career prospects end up being less than what had been foreseen when they accepted the role.

TWA has also been applied in an exploratory qualitative study with ten Latino workers (Eggerth & Flynn, 2011). The authors found that TWA provided a strong theoretical foundation for explaining Latino workers' identification of reinforcers and rewards available for them at work, and this was then able to be used as a reference point to further extrapolate on Latino migrant workers' adjustment more generally. Lazarova et al. (2010), meanwhile, have worked with a similar model based on job demands-resources theory to explain the influences of work and family life in expatriates. Their results report that expatriates' adjustment is intrinsically related to their partner's adjustment, which can lead to a negative outcome if the working individual adjusts but the partner does not. On the positive side, expatriates with partners were found to have better adjustment overall and further this was shown to have a positive cross-over effect in the engagement of the expatriate in the work and the family context.

As can be seen by the above studies, the TWA remains relevant to today's world of work despite the fact that it was first developed in the early 1960s, in response to a working

context that was vastly different from today's globally connected one. Today, for example, video chat connects employers with potential employees across the globe, making remote interviews for job selection possible, and human capital recruitment is now heavily influenced by social media, rather than paper-based assessments (Richardson & McKenna, 2003). As individuals migrate and increased mobility pushes a transfer of skills across borders, retention of capital remains critical for organisations. Here, the TWA's foundation in P-E fit theories provides a useful theoretical background.

The TWA supplies a structural foundation for assessing fit at any one time, while also providing the basis for measuring and predicting dynamic change (Hesketh & Griffin, 2005). The structural foundation focuses on the match between people and job as a snapshot. The structural side of TWA explains the simple static measure of the individual's resources and the work environment by explaining the specified description of the fit between person and environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1976). The dynamic component of the theory explains the interrelationship taking place when individuals seek and maintain fit (Dawis, 2005). This dynamic aspect of TWA assists with understanding adjustment as a continuous process, rather than a single outcome to be arrived at in a given time-frame. It further provides understanding of what happens when persons and environments initiate behaviours to achieve, maintain and re-achieve adjustment, and how these adjustment behaviours are reflected in increased satisfaction and performance (Hesketh & Griffin, 2005).

According to the TWA, "the achievement by an individual of correspondence (fit) in his or her environment results in adjustment, that is, the individual's satisfaction and satisfactoriness" (i.e., seen as satisfactory by the environment) (Lofquist & Dawis, 1991, p. 37). A joint function of satisfactoriness and satisfaction (two primary indicators of adjustment) is tenure. In other words, time in the environment is an indicator of person-environment fit, as

well as being a reflection of this ongoing relationship. According to these authors, it is therefore possible to predict turnover by assessing which individuals are not shown to be adjusted.

One less explored aspect of the theory is its potential for moderation effects, which later researchers took up in more detail, looking at cultural variables as moderators to predict TWA outcomes (Fitzgerald & Rounds, 1993; Rounds & Hesketh, 1994; Tinsley, 1993). The TWA's potential for moderation is understood in the fact that satisfaction moderates the relationship between satisfactoriness and ability requirements (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Given that the purpose of this study is the exploration of work and non-work adjustment, and how integral these are for the skilled migrant, considering moderating effects for each environment is of potential relevance.

The TWA also deals with adjustment styles, eg. flexibility, perseverance, activeness and reactiveness (Dawis, 2002), which can be considered an aspect of acculturation. Acculturation refers to the attitudes that individuals take to adapt to the host country, which may take the form of assimilation, separation, integration or marginalisation (Berry, 1997). While highly relevant to the adjustment process, acculturation attitudes deal with questions of cultural identity and the behaviours undertaken to align oneself with a new environment (Farzamian, 2009), whereas this study deals with the overall levels of fit between person and environment, without implying or measuring behaviour change at the individual level in relation to cultural identity in the new country.

The simplicity and symmetry of the relationship between P and E is one of the main strengths of the TWA, making it a theory suitable for general and broad application (Hesketh & Griffin, 2005). It should be noted that while the authors of the TWA set forth both the structural and dynamic components of adjustment, this study focuses only on the structural, using this to explain the fit between skilled migrants' characteristics and the characteristics of the host country they have migrated to.

Skilled migrants' demands-abilities fit

The TWA identifies the aspects of the P-E relationship that explain adjustment. For the TWA, this fit relation is observed between the individual and his or her environment, adjustment being the degree of compatibility of match between them (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). The TWA states that both person and environments have their own, yet commensurate components. Individuals bring to their jobs (and other 'environments') abilities (e.g., professional skills, problem solving ability etc.), which are then used to perform tasks required at work (or in a non-work environment). When the environment's demands are fulfilled, fit is more likely to exist (Swanson & Schneider, 2013).

In the TWA, P is considered as a responding organism characterised as having behavioural reactions to reinforcers present in E (Dawis et al., 1964). The more opportunities for behavioural responses over time, the more possibilities there are for interacting with the different environments. As an individual develops, cognitive, affective, motor, physical and sensory perceptual skills are manifested in increasingly complex ways, allowing the person to begin to test or try out different ways of interacting with their environment (Dawis, 2005; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Specific reinforcers in the environment become associated with specific responses of the individual. On the basis of an individual's repetition, modification and refining of the responses required and generated by the environment, sequences of behaviour then create what the TWA authors term 'skills'.

Skills are specific to the individual and tend to develop easily (Hesketh & Griffin, 2005). The more opportunities a person has for using these skills over time across different environments (e.g., work and social life), the larger the repertoire of responses the individual has for meeting environmental demands. In turn, skills that individuals repeat more frequently tend to become more stable, making individuals especially proficient in that task. Because an individual's skill repertoire gradually becomes not only exceptionally complex, but also unique

with respect to other individuals, the researcher can therefore expect to find different outcomes for different people in the same environments. For example, two skilled migrants from the same country, with the same profile and profession, can arrive to the same host country and find that one adjusts while the other struggles. This is a clear example of where individual character traits and skills can play a role.

Since the number of skills that individuals possess is vast, the description of behaviour and its measurement is complex. The TWA proposed an economical measurement solution by grouping individuals' responses into dimensions comprised of similar skills, giving origin to the concept of abilities (Dawis, 2005). Abilities are understood as sets of learned and collected skills over a lifespan, which condition the individual's response to the demands of their environments (Swanson & Schneider, 2013).

Following the principle of symmetry, environments have requirements of P in order that necessary tasks are completed. Further, environments (E) have a set of stimulus conditions that guide behaviours (Dawis, 2005), and these are typically framed from the point of view of the employer, i.e. tasks to be performed, tools and materials used, titles and compensations (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). These environment requirements provide cues that influence individuals as to when and how a response or the use of a skill is necessary; these are referred to as skill requirements. Just as P varies from individual to individual because of skills diversity, E also varies because there are so many kinds of skills required, and so many different types of job environments : one or more attributes in P needs to be matched to a similar set of attributes in E to achieve fit. The use of reference dimensions to control for these is called ability requirement (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). P-E fit theorists (e.g., Edwards, 1991) define this match as demands-abilities fit (D-A fit), which involves the satisfaction of the demands of the environment by the abilities (i.e., knowledge, skills, energy) of the person (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006; Nolan & Morley, 2014).

The demands on skilled migrants' abilities

It is a given that migration is accompanied by disruption to the individual's normal life, often involving a complete reorientation of the individual's skills to new demands, both at work and outside work. Dawis and Lofquist (1993) recognised that P-E fit interactions happen beyond work in a wide variety of other domains, such as communities and families. I argue that for skilled migrants, there are two major subset environments of D-A fit when moving to another country: the D-A at work and the D-A with the host country's culture. These two new environments which the migrant interacts with are likely to have new sets of rules and practices that differ from their own country (Bar-Yosef, 1968).

Despite the fact that skilled migrants are typically well-equipped with the professional skills demanded by host countries, there are a number of immediate obstacles to using these skills when they arrive, including the need to secure a job that matches local demands, and the subsequent need to familiarise themselves with different norms, customs, language, and working practices of the host country work environment (Reynolds & Constantine, 2007).

When individuals experience high D-A fit at work, it is easy for them to know what are the appropriate behaviours, actions and codes of conduct in their jobs (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In the international context, good D-A fit means that expatriates experience high levels of comfort with the processes and values of the new country's work environment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009), which tends to increase work adjustment. This relationship has been found, for example, in Nolan and Morley's (2014) study of expatriate individuals in Ireland, where in a mixed sample of mostly African, Middle-Eastern, and South-East Asian doctors, D-A fit was found to significantly predict work adjustment. These authors' results further showed that individuals who felt their abilities and skill set matched the requirements of the job positions increased their levels of work adjustment. Therefore, it can be implied that by assessing fit between the skilled migrants and their job it is possible to obtain predictions related to their

future work adjustment levels. I therefore predict, as illustrated in Figure 2, that D-A fit at work will lead to work adjustment.

Evidently, working in a foreign country encompasses other environments beyond just the professional, and as Black (1988) has argued, these domains can be markedly different. The non-work environment may be just as demanding for the migrant, since life in the new country will require them to use their general life abilities to cope with the day-to-day challenges of the receiving society. Since different countries have developed along varied historical, economic and especially cultural paths, with culture being that which reflects “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations” (House, Hages, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004, p. 15), skilled migrants may be ignorant of procedures, structures and rules underlying day to day activities in the new society. Migrants also arrive to their host countries with an internalised series of affective representations learned in their home societies, for example: ideas about what defines home, what constitutes the minimal acceptable standard of living, and what are appropriate and desirable behaviours. They bring emotional and cognitive frameworks that are shaped by conditions in their home country (Parkes, 1988), for example, how to deal with and anticipate climate, responses to landscape or urban environment, and what abilities to call on when dealing with institutions and systems. These may differ from the mental maps and frameworks used by locals in the host society.

Even so, migrants’ previously-acquired skills can be useful, or even essential, in navigating this new context. For example, if driving a car in a new country requires a migrant to pass a driving test to obtain a local drivers licence, the migrant will have to make use of previously acquired numerical, general learning and eye-and coordination abilities to provide a match with the level of regulation required in the host country. Further, when skilled migrants experience high D-A fit with the culture, they are more likely to understand what the

appropriate behaviours, actions and codes of conduct are for navigating general life in the host country, and they will be more comfortable engaging in essential tasks, such as shopping for groceries, catching public transport, and dealing with bureaucracy. High levels of fit reflects a high degree of ease navigating the life environment (Takeuchi, Marinova, Lepak, & Liu., 2010). Based on these observations, I propose to conceptualise a skilled migrant's D-A fit with culture as the match between acquired abilities and cultural aspects of the host country. I expect that high levels of D-A fit with culture will lead to levels of psychological comfort, familiarity, and harmony with general life in the new country environment (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Oh et al., 2014), thus increasing skilled migrant's non-work adjustment.

Skilled migrants needs-supplies

The TWA proposes that it is not only environments that have demands, but also that individuals require certain needs to be fulfilled or reinforced by their environment (Griffin & Hesketh, 2003). When studying an individual's adjustment, Dawis and Lofquist (1984) points out that it is necessary to study both abilities and needs dimensions. The capacity of an environment that is most important for P is its ability to supply reinforcers. When there is a maximum level of correspondence, Dawis and Lofquist (1976) postulate that individuals experience satisfaction. In other words, when the person's needs are fulfilled by what the environment supplies, fit is more likely to exist, resulting in adjustment (Swanson & Schneider, 2013).

Dawis and Lofquist (1991) explain that the formation of needs starts from birth, becoming broader and more complex with age and experience. The TWA groups sets of major psychological needs into dimensions called values (Dawis, 2002) (Rounds, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1987), identifying six major (but not exhaustive) categories: achievement (the feeling of accomplishment from the use of one's abilities), altruism (helping others and existing in community with others), autonomy (enjoying independence and a sense of control), comfort

(feeling comfortable and having a correlative lack of stress), safety (having a stable, ordered, and predictable work environment), and status (being recognised for one's position, traits or abilities). This establishment of categories of values stems from the idea that, for the most part, individuals live in relatively stable environments where their stimulus conditions do not vary much (although if a major shift in the environment occurs, changes in needs may sometimes result).

Every environment has a different set of reinforcers and the process underlying psychological need fulfilment is relative to the amount of a resource or reward perceived to be supplied by the environment (French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982). Given the interactional perspective of the TWA, the comparison between the psychological needs (i.e., desires, values, and goals) of the person and the environmental supplies that serve as rewards for needs is known as needs–supplies (N-S) fit (Edwards et al., 2006). Similar to D-A fit, the measurement of N-S fit shows whether a person and the environment are a good match.

Skilled migrant's satisfaction of needs

For skilled migrants, N-S fit happens both at work and outside work, when dealing with the overall cultural environment. Most work environments establish their own working conditions, reinforcement systems, rewards and incentives contingent upon the individual's performance (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Some reinforcers such as salary, retirement plans and fringe benefits offered in the new work environment may differ from the country of origin. Other reinforcers aiming to satisfy psychological needs can be intrinsically related to the nature of the tasks performed under conditions particular to the country. Skilled migrants also may encounter different managerial and working practices in comparison with their country of origin, which then affects their levels of N-S fit at work.

The GLOBE project (House, Hages, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) has identified key differences in work culture across countries. For example, Mexican work environments

appear to differ from Australian work environments in terms of a higher incidence of in-group collectivism, since Mexico's managerial practices promote the idea that productivity and cohesion are a product of honouring family as a nourishing, protective and supportive structure (Hofstede, 1980; Howell et al., 2007; Vazquez Maggio, 2013). This idea underpins practices where males are the expected patriarch, maintaining superiority over their submissive female counterparts. Drost and Von Glinow (1998) have argued that this cultural tendency has reflected in the hierarchical structure of Mexican organisations, where managers typically lead with authoritarian and paternalistic styles. Cultural factors can also influence the values that employees bring into the workplace, in the sense that strong paternalistic attitudes in Mexico may lead to employees having unrealistic ideas about job security or being looked after by their superiors (Howell et al., 2007).

Although Ashkanasy (2008) argues that the presence of significantly more egalitarian or non-hierarchical practices in Australian organisations is debatable, it is fair to assume that the authoritarian and paternalistic styles common to Latin American working culture may create a lack of fit in Australia, with its strong cultural belief in the 'fair go'. As depicted in Figure 2, the proposed framework includes N-S fit at work leading to work adjustment.

Migration and cross-cultural transitions literature have long documented the impact of both home and host culture influences on international mobility process. Researchers (e.g., Aycan, 1997; Berry, 1997; Van Oudenhoven, Ward, & Masgoret, 2006; Ward & Chang, 1997) have explored attitudes towards the receiving culture, satisfaction with general standard of life, and the obtainment of culturally-relevant skills and practices as factors leading to adjustment. Although host societies may all provide a certain minimum standard, migrants' non-work adjustment depends largely on their needs, and on the resources available from the hosting societies to fulfil these (Markovizky & Doron, 2011). N-S fit with culture is expected to predict non-work adjustment.

The logic for the expected subsets of relationships between D-A and N-S and adjustment in the proposed framework is well-supported in both the managerial and expatriate literature (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Edwards et al., 2006; Lyons, Brenner, & Fassinger, 2005; Reiche et al., 2011; Tinsley, 2000; Van Vianen, De Pater, Kristof-Brown, & Johnson, 2004). This literature shows that high levels of fit will lead to successful adjustment, and individuals who fit with their environments will tend to experience positive adjustment (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Conversely, low levels of fit may result in low levels of adjustment, resulting in individuals who struggle or perceive a lack of familiarity in the new environment.

Measuring fit for skilled migrants

The measurement of fit has been a topic of much debate in psychology literature. The measurement of fit is, at its core, the match between individuals and various aspects of environments (Kristof-Brown, 2000), so it is critical to determine which aspects of the environment a skilled migrant needs to adjust to (Hippler, 2006). As such, the level at which fit is measured (or the focus of fit) can vary, with researchers extending the concept of correspondence to specialised work dimensions in which individuals fit with the working environment. Tom's (1971) Person-Organisation (P-O) fit study suggested that the most successful individuals during recruitment are those who share the organisation's values, while Edwards (1991) and Kristof (1996) measured Person-Job (P-J) fit as the relationship between individuals and their job positions. Dawis and Lofquist (1984) and Lofquist and Dawis (1969) focused on Person-Vocation (P-V) fit concerning the matching of individual's needs, abilities, and interests with the demands and supplies of careers and vocations.

Following the qualitative results of previous studies with skilled Mexican migrants in Australia (Barba Ponce, 2013; Vazquez Maggio, 2013), for this thesis I consider two broad environments: fitting with the new work environment, and fitting with the new host country culture. For the first, I refer to the level of fit between skilled migrants' abilities and needs and

the demands and supplies of the host country job's environment. For the second I refer to the degree of fit between skilled migrants' skills and values with what is required to adjust to the host country's culture. The inclusion of these two environments is by no means to be considered comprehensive.

In addition to the focus on what aspect of the environment is measured, there is debate about whether to assess P and E separately and then to evaluate fit *indirectly*, or to assess *direct* evaluations of fit (meaning to assess both together as a correspondence of individual perception). There is also disagreement about whether or not the measures need to be objectively assessed, versus asking the person directly about their perceptions.

Indirect measures of fit assess person and environment separately and the fit is calculated from the relationship between them. Edwards, Caplan, and Van Harrison (1998) have argued that P and E should ideally be assessed separately when the conceptualisation of fit aims for exact correspondence as well as commensurate compatibility, or where anything aside from a perfect match is not considered fit. In this case, P is usually assessed by self-report or by more objective assessments of skill, and E can be assessed by third-party or self-reports (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Even though Dawis and Lofquist's (1984) TWA model can be distinguished from general interactionist models in its use of this indirect commensurate measurement, it has been noted that most researchers look at fit as a less restrictive concept of general compatibility (Kristof, 1996), and exact fit correspondence is rarely supported (Edwards, 1993).

Direct assessments of fit tend to be used when P-E fit is conceptualised, as it is in the TWA, as a general compatibility. This form of measurement asks the person to report perceptions of how they fit with E, so P determines whether or not they are compatible (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Perceived fit can thus be defined by a direct assessment of compatibility (French, Rogers, & Cobb, 1974; Kristof, 1996). An example of this direct assessment is the

commonly-used P-J Fit scale (Cable & DeRue, 2002), which measures how well the job fulfils the individuals requirements and needs (N-S fit), and how well the job's demands mirror the migrant's skills and abilities (D-A fit).

There are advantages and disadvantages of using direct fit measurements. Contrary to the more restrictive measures (indirect), where anything that is not an exact match is considered misfit, direct measures allow to see P-E fit occurring at a wide range of levels (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Oh et al., 2014). It is also a more proximal determinant of attitudes and behaviour outcomes (e.g., intention to leave) than indirect measures (Cable & Judge, 1996; A.M. Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). Compared to other measurements, direct fit recognises the importance of self-perception in influencing individuals' assessment of and reaction to their environments (Nisbett & Ross, 1983).

However, because direct fit relies on people's perceptions of environments, the P-E relationships can be subject to distortions due to a lack of access to objective information and their overlaps with affect perceptions (Edwards et al., 1998). Due to the nature of an absolute difference between the perceived person and the environments, direct measures do not allow one to assess the dimension of comparison between the two (Edwards et al., 2006), thus not enabling identification of individual characteristics of P or E or the direction of their difference.

In consideration of these factors, indirect measures of fit are often seen as the superior method, but they do require larger samples to detect interaction effects Edwards, Caplan, and Van Harrison (1998). Therefore, given the unexpected sample size for the current study, and in view of the complexity of analysing indirect fit longitudinally, I chose to use direct measures of fit in this study.

The Role of Support in Skilled Migrants

While support is not an example of fit, it is important to consider in relation to this model because of the significant body of expatriate literature showing how interaction with

host-country locals contributes to interaction adjustment (Takeuchi, 2010). In simple terms, support is the action of providing resources that the receiver needs (House, 1981). It has been shown that where there is a lack of social network to assist with the needs associated with international mobility, migrants focus their efforts on generating this social support by attempting to integrate with the people around them (X. Wang & Jordache, 2005).

There is extensive literature on expatriate support, albeit mostly that provided by their sending organisations (e.g., Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2013; Kawai & Strange, 2014; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001), with evidence for its positive impact on adjustment to foreign environments and reduction of turnover intentions. Organisational support varies tremendously in quantity and quality and can range from logistical help such as arranging visas, obtaining working permits and finding a home (Wu & Ang, 2011), to informational and emotional assistance, such as providing information on how to accomplish bureaucratic tasks or showing empathy and understanding of the hurdles of migration when they become overwhelming (Farh, Bartol, Shapiro, & Shin, 2010).

If support from host country nationals is instrumental in expatriates succeeding in their objectives (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005; Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2013; Feitosa et al., 2013), then it is likely to be all the more so for skilled migrants, given that logistical support such as visa procedures or home reallocation is unlikely to be provided by locals.

Developing supporting networks in the international context is a complex and laborious process. For example, Cohen et al. (2000) argue that the objective support resources one receives matter less for adjustment than how the individual perceives that support. In their proposed model of networking, support, and adjustment with expatriates, Farh et al. (2010) suggest that host nationals' supporting actions can be translated into better adjustment only when the individual actually views those actions as supportive. For instance, if recipients

perceive support as patronising or insensitive, this may enhance negative emotions such as frustration and disappointment (Mantai, 2017).

Given the appropriate circumstances, then, it appears possible that support from locals translates into adjustment (Olsen & Martins, 2009). In fact, the long tradition of social support in previous migration research (Barry, Bunde, Brock, & Lawrence, 2009; Jasinskaja-Lahti, 2006; Sinacore, Mikhail, Kassan, & Lerner, 2009) reports that migrants benefit from building close ties with and being recipients of emotional support from locals. Social support facilitates the development of local networks and the acquisition of social skills affecting positively their interaction adjustment with the host culture (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Jun, Lee, & Gentry, 1997). Further, an individual's understanding of various aspects of the new environment (e.g., social etiquette and expected behavior) can be further facilitated by mentoring and coaching practices, especially from locals (Andresen et al., 2014; Haslberger & Vaiman, 2013). This enlarges the opportunities for social interactions, which strengthens relationships and increases feelings of acceptance into the system (Bourhis, Montreuil, Barrette, & Montaruli, 2009), in turn making further interactions with locals more likely.

Social interactions with host nationals can further assist the migrant to develop positive feelings towards the host environment (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009), which may lead, for example, to greater ease in decoding the new job's demands (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002; Froese, Peltokorpi, & Ko, 2012). With the presence of people from the host society in the migrant's network it is possible to develop a more accurate awareness of the behaviours expected from them and by other members of society (Abdul Malek et al., 2015), which also contributes to positive feelings of belonging, therefore reducing their intention to leave.

The Outcomes of Fit: Adjustment and Intention to Leave

According to the TWA, the ultimate product of fit is adjustment. From Dawis and Lofquist's (1984) perspective, adjustment reflects a mutual responsiveness between both D-A

and N-S fit, with adjustment being a primary indicator of the degree of reciprocal satisfaction between P and E. Other models explaining adjustment in relation to international mobility tend to be more broad in definition. In the intercultural relationships literature, for example, adjustment has been conceptualised as either psychological, with a focus on subjective wellbeing such as depression, anxiety and stress, or sociocultural, focusing on behavioural competencies (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Chang, 1997; Ward & Kennedy, 1993; Ward, Okura, Kennedy, & Kojima, 1998). Within the expatriate literature (e.g., Black & Gregersen, 1999; Haslberger, 2005; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009) adjustment is the most frequently studied outcome variable, given the cost and effectiveness implications when adjustment is lacking (Takeuchi, 2010).

Over recent decades, the model proposed by Black et al., (1991) has been one of the most widespread frameworks of cross-cultural adjustment utilised in organisational research (Hechanova et al., 2003). Although Black et al.'s approach has been criticised for its lack of theoretical basis (Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004; Thomas & Lazarova, 2006), their three-factor model remains a useful foundational perspective. Drawing on these authors, I conceptualise skilled migrants' adjustment as the degree of psychological comfort and familiarity with different aspects of a foreign environment (Black & Mendenhall, 1991). While acknowledging that Black et al.'s model is not exhaustive in relation to all facets of international adjustment (Lazarova & Thomas, 2012), I follow the lead of expatriate literature in employing its tripartite view of adjustment, considering work and non-work adjustment as the most salient domains, but including interaction adjustment as an important additional component of the international mobility process.

Work adjustment. Work adjustment for skilled migrants is understood as the result of the individual's D-A and N-S fit with the host country's work environment. When a migrant's knowledge and set of skills meet the job environment's requirements and when needs are being

met within the work environment, it is expected that skilled migrants will achieve positive work adjustment. Drawing from the expatriate literature, skilled migrants' work adjustment can be conceptualised as the level of comfort regarding different job responsibilities, expectations and performance standards, and work values (Black, 1988; Edwards & Cooper, 1990; Hechanova et al., 2003; Kristof, 1996). In the TWA's terms, (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) work adjustment is then the process by which individuals seek and maintain fit with their work environments, indicated by high job satisfaction and high performance. Work-adjusted skilled migrants not only demonstrate performance at a high level in terms of the requirements of their work roles, they also show understanding of which past habits and behaviours are appropriate versus those which must be adapted in order to be more suitable for the new country (Black, 1988).

Non-work adjustment. Skilled migrants' non-work adjustment reflects their level of familiarity and comfort with the host culture, embracing aspects of general living conditions like entertainment, food, healthcare, housing, and shopping (Black, 1988). During this adjustment process, migrants learn how to manage daily life, institutions, and services in the new country. As a result, there is a positive adjustment towards better functioning (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Thus, interaction with this environment is important not only because it is required to satisfy basic needs, but also because it simultaneously provides information about and mastery of the general host culture (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Reiche et al., 2011).

Culturally-adjusted individuals tend to exhibit satisfaction with the host culture and a willingness to allow for new behaviours, norms, and rules to be added to the foundation brought from their home cultures (Church, 1982). Research conducted with migrants has shown that individuals who are well-adjusted to the non-work setting experience feelings of satisfaction with living in the new country (Markovizky & Doron, 2011).

Interaction adjustment. Regardless of one's ethnicity or cultural background, individuals have an inherent motivation to maintain and create relationships with others (Ryff

& Keyes, 1995) both in non-work (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002; Hendrickson, Rosen, & Aune, 2011) as well as in working environments (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999). Skilled migrants ultimately aim to belong, to be accepted, and to have interactions with members of the host culture (Berry, 2005). As social interactions are relevant to migrant's new life in the host country, interaction adjustment is the third type of adjustment relevant to international mobility.

Drawing on the concept of interaction adjustment from expatriate literature proposed by Black (1988) and Black and Stephens (1989), skilled migrants' interaction adjustment can be operationalised as the measurement of the comfort associated with socialising with host-country nationals, both inside and outside of work (Black et al., 1991; Black & Stephens, 1989). From the three adjustment facets (work, non-work and interaction), Black et al. (1991) notes that interaction adjustment is the most challenging. In studies with expatriates in Japan, Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) suggested that interaction adjustment was the lowest of the three types because of negative attitudes toward foreigners in Japan. This assumption relates to the generally-observed premise that in particular host societies not receptive to migrants, the impact on adjustment can be rather negative (Polek, Wöhrle, & Van Oudenhoven, 2010).

Interaction adjustment, together with work and non-work adjustment, is a time-related process involving learning and becoming accustomed to the host country culture (e.g., Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2006; Peltokorpi, 2008). The motivation of migrants to interact constantly with locals over time allows space for building new social networks at the same time as receiving progressively more positive feedback on their behaviour (Black, 1988; Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2006; Peltokorpi, 2008).

Intention to leave. For the TWA, the maximum indicator of how long P interacts with E is tenure (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Tenure, then, is an outcome of work adjustment, an expression of the period of time for which the relationship endures, ending with either voluntary departure or employer termination (Hesketh & Griffin, 2005). The measurement of tenure has

been extended to a variety of forms such as intention to leave (the variable used in this thesis), organisational commitment, and withdrawal behaviours (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Intention to leave translates to cognitions about quitting a job or leaving the organisation. This is an important variable to consider, since intention to leave influences more objective forms of decision-making to exit the organisation or countries, such as the actual decision to leave (Delle & Elikem, 2013) (even though intention to leave is not the same as leaving). Given that poor tenure is so costly for companies, expatriate literature has long been interested in exploring the relationship of intention to leave with low work adjustment (see Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005).

Mediation Pathways in Proposed Model

As illustrated in Figure 2, the model developed for this research proposes that measurements of D-A fit and N-S fit of skilled migrants at work will be positively related to work adjustment and that D-A fit and N-S fit of skilled migrants with culture will be positively related to non-work adjustment. Likewise, social support will be related to interaction adjustment. In other words, the correspondence between P and E will translate into feelings of comfort, achievement and satisfaction. The extent to which this correspondence happens over time can be observed in the levels of work, non-work and interaction adjustment.

All three types of adjustment are expected to predict intention to leave. Studies in the expatriate literature focusing on withdrawal intention have taken place since the 1990s, following on from the problem of premature returns from assignments as a result of individuals failing to adjust (Kraimer, Bolino, & Mead, 2016). Overall, studies (e.g., Feldman & Thompson, 1993; Guzzo et al., 1994; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; M. Wang & Takeuchi, 2007) have found that expatriates who have high satisfaction with their job and living conditions, along with high fulfilment of their expectations about the receiving organisation's supporting practices (i.e., high adjustment), were less likely to report withdrawal cognitions (e.g., Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; M. Wang & Takeuchi, 2007). Other studies with expatriate samples (Farh et al., 2010;

Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011; Peltokorpi, 2008) found that well-adjusted individuals tend to remain in their hosting organisations. In fact, Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, and Luk's (2005) meta-analytic review of 66 studies about antecedents and consequences of international adjustment presented strong evidence that withdrawal cognitions were predicted by the three types of adjustment proposed by Black et al. (1991). It is therefore plausible to expect that migrants who are well adjusted at work as well as in the non-working environment, as well as being relatively comfortable interacting with locals, are highly likely to remain in the country.

These relationships indicate that adjustment will mediate the relationship between P-E fit and intention to leave. In a recent study, Dahling and Librizzi (2015) measured job satisfaction as an outcome of P-E fit among a group of employees from different cultural backgrounds (eg., African-Americans, Latinos and Asian-Americans) located in the USA. The authors found that good Person-Job fit resulted in positive relationships with job satisfaction. Additionally, they identified that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between P-E fit and turnover intention.

Given these results, I expect that culturally-adjusted skilled migrants will experience the host country as a good place to live, leading to higher comfort, achievement and satisfaction. This will positively impact on intention to remain in the country.

Hypotheses

Integrating the TWA and the adjustment model by Black et al., (1991), the proposed model sets forth the following hypotheses regarding the adjustment of migrants in Australia:

H1: D-A fit and N-S fit at work will have a positive relationship with work adjustment.

H2: D-A fit and N-S fit with culture will have a positive relationship with non-work adjustment.

H3: Social support provided by Australians will have a positive relationship with interaction adjustment.

H4: Work adjustment, non-work adjustment and interaction adjustment will negatively predict intention to leave Australia.

H5: The relationship between the predictors (P-E fit variables at work, P-E fit variables with culture, and social support provided by Australians) and intention to leave Australia will be mediated by the associated adjustment variables.

This chapter has reviewed the foundations of the TWA and the literature that sustains the theory behind the model for testing, outlining the applicability of this theoretical framework for explaining the underlying components of adjustment in skilled migrants. The following chapter outlines the methods and scales used to test the hypotheses proposed above, as well as describing the recruitment strategies used to obtain a sample. This is followed by a discussion of the characteristics of the sample.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter describes the methods used in this study to examine the adjustment of Mexican migrants to Australia. The study involved data collections at three time-points (approximately six months apart); in the following empirical chapters I will report findings from cross-sectional (Time 1) and longitudinal (Time 2 and Time 3) analyses, without repeating the methodological information presented here. In this chapter, I present a brief discussion of the procedures employed including the implications of studying small populations, along with an explanation of how the sample was recruited. I then include a description of the participants, followed by discussion of the potential generalisability of the sample based on previous research and accessible demographic data. Finally, I present a justification for the use of self-report, longitudinal procedures and research measures.

Procedures

This research project involved cross-sectional and longitudinal tests of a proposed model of skilled migrant adjustment (see Figure 2). Following Ployhart and Ward's (2011) recommendations regarding the number of data points needed for conducting longitudinal research, data were collected on three measurement occasions: from May to June 2014 (Time 1: T1), November to December 2014 (Time 2: T2), and May to June 2015 (Time 3: T3). Data from individual participants were matched across time by use of self-generated unique identification codes. The length of time between waves of data collection was considered carefully, since results in longitudinal studies tend to change with varying periods of time between collection waves (Sandefur & Tuma, 1987). Lysgaard (1955), for example, found that feelings of euphoria amongst migrants can register in higher levels straight after mobilisation, but this deteriorates quickly as a result of the individual confronting the reality of acculturation demands. Higher levels of depression, meanwhile, have been observed in migrants during the

first 10-12 months of residence (Parkes, 1988; Pollock, 1989). As such, there is no absolute consensus on appropriate time lags (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010), and Taris (2000) explains that the ideal number of waves and time lags should be chosen based on theory. In practice, final decisions may often be dictated by factors such as resource availability, as was the case here, where the use of three waves of data collection with lags of approximately six months was chiefly determined by the external constraints imposed on the research (PhD candidature). However, it is worth noting that these lags and data waves are consistent with procedures used in similar studies with expatriates (Wang & Takeuchi, 2007; Ward, Okura, Kennedy, & Kojima, 1998).

The efficient collection of data was made more difficult by the geographical dispersion of Mexican migrants in Australia. The use of paper-based questionnaires or interviews would have been impractical, costly, and time-consuming (Ahern & Brocque, 2005; Cantrell & Lupinacci, 2007). Internet-based questionnaires have been increasingly and successfully used by researchers in psychology, especially with the rapid growth of households having internet. (Hall, 2008), examples being election polls, emails with surveys attached and web-administrated platforms. Moreover, the nature of this sample, being skilled migrants, suggested a high level of computer literacy, making internet collection of data a practical and sensible methodology, likely to maximise response rates. Given the available resources and the obstacles, this study used the Qualtrics web administrated platform to host on-line surveys as the most efficient means of data collection.

Ethics approval

Ethical approval for the conduct of this research was granted by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) (Human Sciences and Humanities). Participants were informed that completing the questionnaire was voluntary and that they could

withdraw at any point without further implications (See Appendix 1 and 2). Confidentiality and privacy were also guaranteed.

Sample recruitment

Spanish-speaking communities are a minority in Australia, and especially the Mexican community, which comprises just 4,680 members. Since only 1953 of Mexicans living in Australia aged 15 years and over are employed (Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011), a large part of this population was automatically excluded from consideration for this study. A significant difficulty associated with conducting studies in communities with such small numbers in countries like Australia is the implementation of effective recruitment strategies, particularly given the dispersion of the target population over a large geographical area.

The use of various internet-based social networks, particularly Facebook, has been common in recent studies to facilitate the enrolment of hard-to-reach groups. Studies such as Barba Ponce, (2013) with a sample of 44, Ünlü Ince, Cuijpers, Van't Hof, & Riper (2014) who recruited a total sample of 94 individuals and Vazquez Maggio, (2013) with a total sample of 293. For this study, participants were recruited using the snowballing sample technique (Edwards, Ribbens, & Gillies, 1999), targeting Mexican migrant populations residing in Australian cities via existing Facebook groups, for example, *Mexicanos en Australia*, *Mexicanos en Sydney*, their sister groups in Melbourne, Adelaide, Brisbane, Tasmania and Perth, and *Latinos en Australia*. A specific Facebook group and a web page to encourage participation were designed for the study. Additionally, paper invitations were posted in Mexican restaurants and in public locations, and a description of the study, along with the link to the on-line survey, was published in the June and July 2014 monthly electronic newsletters produced by the Mexican Embassy. Key leaders of community groups with links to Mexicans, Latinos or Spanish speakers were also contacted via email and asked to forward the invitation

to their distributions lists. Further, respondents were invited to forward the call to participate to their Mexican friends living in Australia.

Once recruited into the study, various steps were taken to maximise the response rate for each wave of data collection. As recommended by Cook et al. (2000), confirmed participants were sent emails notifying data collection time with the web-based link for the survey. As response rates tend to be higher during working hours (Ployhart & Ward, 2011), notices were also posted on the study's website and Facebook groups during these time periods and on Sunday nights (during which this platform registers an increase of users in Australia). Principles for ethical use of multiple reminders were followed to reduce potential perceptions of harassment (Schirmer, 2009). For example, reminders were sent only to non-respondents, thus reducing the aggravation to those who had already responded. For all communications channels, information on the relevance of the study was provided as clear and easy reading. It should be noted, however, that because some participants belonged to several Facebook groups associated with Mexicans living in Australia, they may have been exposed to these reminders on more than one occasion.

Participants

The inclusion criteria for participation in the study were being aged 18 or over, being employed, and not holding any kind of student or Diplomatic visa. The reason for the latter exclusion is that individuals who are sent to Australia by the Mexican government as expatriates tend to have generous compensation packages and reallocation plans and are therefore not typical of a skilled migrant population. Likewise, most students have at least some family and economic support. In addition, given their more transient status (Ward et al., 2001), both diplomats' and students' stay is generally temporary, making them atypical for a study on migration adjustment (Wang & Jordache, 2005). By excluding these two visa categories, the remaining sample qualify as skilled migrants, combining those who applied in the skilled

migration stream and those who applied as qualified migrants after arriving first to study in Australia. This reflects the 2011 Census Data, which reported that the majority of Mexican arrivals in the previous five years had arrived in the skilled migration or family streams.

The demographic characteristics of Time 1 respondents were compared, wherever possible, with those of the known population of Mexican migrants in Australia, in an attempt to indicate the representativeness of the sample. While researchers such as Vazquez Maggio (2013) have compared the demographic characteristics of migrant samples with national databases such as the Australian Census, Australian law protects access to federal data obtained from 'easily identified populations', due to their small numbers. Mexicans fall into this category, making comparisons with public domain estimates difficult. Nevertheless, gender and age distributions were compared to available information on the sample population; education and tenure are mentioned, although measurement levels used in this study differ from government data.

Gender. Of the 154 Mexican migrants who responded at Time 1, 59.10% were female. In comparison to available nationwide data (Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011) this sample is close to representative of the Mexican population living in Australia regarding gender (52.1% females). It is also consistent with recent research highlighting the growing participation of women in migration (Ho, 2006; Mahler & Pessar, 2006; Wilson, 2009).

Age. The mean age of participants was 36.72 years (SD= 7.69 years), slightly higher than that registered by the 2011 Australian Census (33 years), but still very close to the predominant age bracket (30-34) of all 3,255 Mexican-born residents recorded in that census. Further, this sample is only slightly below the 39 years global average age for international migration and shows similarities with data in Oceania as an area hosting an almost equal proportion of female and male migrants (United Nations, 2015).

Education. More than half of the Time 1 respondents (62.3%) held a Bachelor's degree; almost a third held a Master's degree (19.5%), and a few (3.2%) held Doctoral degrees.

Marital and family status. Of the participants, 14.2% were single, 75.7% were married or had a partner, and the remaining 10.3% were divorced or separated. 77.2% of those in a married or de facto relationship reported that their spouse lived with them in Australia. Almost half of the participants (45.5%) reported having an Australian partner; 31.9% had a Mexican partner, and the remainder (22.7%) reported having a partner from some other part of the world such as South Africa, Scotland, or the Philippines. These percentages largely reflect Australia's recent migration policies, which emphasise family reunion, as well as attracting skilled, talented and highly qualified individuals (Findlay, 1994). In this study's sample, over half (55.8%) were childless, and of those who had children, most (90%) had all of them living with them in Australia. This is consistent with a recent study of Mexicans residing in Australia (Vazquez Magio (2013) which found that four out of ten respondents had children, with 89.7% of those with children reporting that their children lived with them.

Geographical dispersion. Participants lived in major cities and regional centres in Australia (30.5% in NSW, 37.7% in Victoria, 5.2% in ACT, 10.4% in SA, 5.2% in WA, 8.4% in Queensland, 1.3% in Tasmania and 0% in NT). With respect to years living in Australia (tenure), 2.8% had been in Australia less than a year, 9.3% one to two years, 38.3% two to five years, 33.6% five to ten years, 13.1% ten to twenty years, and 2.8% had been in Australia for more than two decades. Tenure shows similarities with national data indicating that of the total Mexican-born migrants in Australia at the 2011 Census, 22% arrived between 2001 and 2006 and 48.4% arrived between 2007 and 2011 (Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011). Most of the current study's sample had a visa that implied an extended time stay in the country (43.5% permanent residents, 40.9% citizens), with only 15.6% indicating they were temporary residents. Just over half the sample (57.8%) had previous experience living overseas.

Employment status and income. The majority of participants (63.6%) indicated that they were employee/team members; 24% were employed in middle management, and the remaining 12.4% identified as senior managers or above. Only 51.9% reported that their qualifications from Mexico were recognised when seeking employment in Australia; 14.4% stated that they had needed to undertake further training because their Mexican qualifications were not recognised, and 33.6% either worked in a lower level job than when in Mexico or they had needed to change work industry. With respect to income, 41.8% of participants reported an annual income below \$55,000; 43.3% reported an income between \$55,000 and \$100,000, and 13.4% earned over \$100,000 (the remaining percentage did not respond to this question).

Table 1 reports the demographic description of respondents across all three waves of data collection, including the full panel data. At T2, there was a 75.3% response rate. Only two participants reported they had left Australia at T2 and another two at T3. As a result of website creation, there was less drop-off at T3, with the total response rate from Time 2 being 74.7%.

Perhaps not surprisingly, there was an increase in citizenship status over the three data collections, which corresponds directly to years living in the country. Employment status and demographics remained constant across the three data collections.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents from Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3

Statistic Description	T1 %	T2 %	T3 %	Panel data
Total survey responses ^a	154	116	115	104
Age ^b	36.85 (SD=8.15)	37.10 (SD=7.69)	37.53 (SD=7.93)	37.92 (SD=7.77)
Gender				
Females	53.3	53	53.8	52
Males	46.7	47	46.3	48
Marital Status				
Single	14	13.3	15	14.7
Married/couple	75.7	77.1	75	74.7
Divorced or separated	10.3	9.6	10	10.7
Migration Status				
Citizen	43.9	47	57.5	60
Permanent resident	44.9	43.4	33.8	33.3
Temporary Resident	11.2	7.2	8.8	6.7
Tenure in Australia				
Zero to 1 years	2.8	2.4	2.5	2.7
One to two	9.3	7.2	7.5	6.7
Two to five	38.3	34.9	40	37.3
Five to ten	33.6	37.3	33.8	36
More than ten	13.1	15.7	13.8	14.7
More than twenty	2.8	2.4	2.5	2.7
Employment status				
Full time	71.96	80.7	78.8	81.3
Part time	27.77	16.8	18.3	16
Unemployed	0	2.4	2.5	2.7
Work Position				
Business Owner/Director	11.3	6.1	5	5.3
Senior Manager	.9	2.4	7.5	2.7
Middle manager/team leader	23.6	24.4	22.5	24
Team member or employee	64.2	67.1	70	68

Note. ^a = number of cases; ^b = means in years.

Panel data

From the initial 154 respondents at the first collection point, 104 completed surveys over all three data collections (67.5% of T1 participants). This response rate is comparable with studies of expatriates (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Caligiuri, 2000b; X. Wang & Jordache, 2005). To ensure that the non-responders did not constitute a unique population segment, an analysis of variance using a dummy-coded variable was performed. The value of 1 was assigned to those Time 1 respondents who completed T2 data collection, and 0 to those T1 respondents who did not. I also compared those who stayed in Australia with those who were no longer residing in the country at T2.

With respect to demographic data, migrants who had dropped out at T2 had spent less time living in the country than continuing migrants at T1. There were no significant differences in the fit, the support, the non-work and interaction adjustment variables, although work adjustment T1 was significantly higher ($M = 5.00$, $SD = .00$) $t(113) = -8.86$, $p = .001$ for skilled migrants who did not remain in the study at T2 compared to those who stayed ($M = 4.30$, $SD = .83$). For the primary outcome variable intention to leave, there were no significant differences. Nevertheless, the means were higher for those who left Australia ($M = 3.66$, $SD = 1.74$) compared to the stayers ($M = 1.73$, $SD = 1.00$), providing some validity for the self-reported intention to leave variable.

Similar results were found when comparing those who responded in T1 and T2 but left at T3. Work adjustment T1 was significantly higher ($M = 4.29$, $SD = .84$) $t(110) = -8.83$, $p = .001$ for skilled migrants who did not remain in the study at T3 compared to those who stayed ($M = 5.00$, $SD = .00$). Intention to leave did not have significant differences at T3. However, the lack of statistically-significant mean differences between groups on measured variables does not necessarily imply that attrition has affected variances or correlations (Goodman & Blum, 1996).

With regards to missing data, the approach suggested by Little and Rubin (1987) was used to explore the distribution of missingness (eg. Missing Completely at Random MCAR). Missing data are problematic as the reduction of cases impacts the validity of results in terms of potentially decreasing statistical power (Hedeker, Gibbons, & Waternaux, 1999). Repeated measure studies, such as the design in this thesis, provide the advantage of being able to partially recover the missing data given the levels of correlation between the variables collected at different data points (Schafer & Graham, 2002). All the studies in this thesis were modelled using the efficient technique maximum likelihood (ML), which allows for a maximization of partially missing data (e.g. one item non responded) by recovering from all the available data points (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Muthén & Muthén, 2015). More detailed descriptions of how this was handled are presented in the results section of each of the study's empirical chapters.

Measures

All three data collections relied predominantly on self-report questionnaires. In order to mitigate the potential for different levels of English competency affecting outcomes, and in order to maintain conceptual accuracy of the constructs, all the survey items were presented in Spanish. Translation from English used the translation/back-translation procedure recommended by Ardila (2000) and Werner and Campbell (1970). Bilingual Australians, sensitive to the nuances and subtleties of Mexican Spanish and English, were employed as translators. The online survey instrument was piloted with an initial five Mexican skilled migrants who provided some minor suggestions in the phrasing of items to increase clarity and relevance for those who have migrated to Australia. A copy of the questionnaire items and its translations is presented in Appendix 3. Coefficient alphas for each measure at each time is reported in Table 2.

Exclusive use of self-report data in organisational research has been criticised as it can falsely increase the strength of some relationships, and common method bias is also a concern (Crampton & Wagner III., 1994; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). A major aim of the longitudinal research data presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 was to minimise these concerns, since longitudinal studies provide a more rigorous research design that allows for the separation of predictors from outcomes (Chan, 1998; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

Another method of validating indicators of skilled migrants' adjustment that does not rely on self-report is to collect the ratings of observers, such as family members (typically the spouse) or friends and/or work colleagues. This mitigates against common method biases and was used in this thesis. This practice is consistent with previous studies on adjustment (Cable & Judge, 1996; Wang, Zhan, McCune, & Truxillo, 2011; Wu & Ang, 2011). Further, as posited by Dawis and Lofquist (1984) in the TWA, responses of individuals can vary markedly from those of observers. It is suggested that more objective reference points can be achieved by collecting data that allows both self-report and objective report to be compared (e.g., a manager rating a migrant's performance). However, the opportunity to use observer ratings in the current study was limited.

First, the range of work industries and work locations for Mexicans in Australia is so diverse that requesting participants to ask for performance ratings from their supervisors was considered impractical. Second, previous research on Mexican migrants in Australia (Barba Ponce, 2013) has reported that migrants are conscious of maintaining their jobs, especially since they independently manage their international mobility and have often faced difficulty obtaining these jobs in the first place (Malik et al., 2014). It was therefore considered likely that migrants would perceive asking employers for job or adjustment ratings as carrying a risk of jeopardising their positions. Third, obtaining ratings from someone outside the work environment assumes that the participant has at least one other person within their social

networks willing to collaborate with the project. It is possible that Mexicans are subject to the same factors as those demonstrated in acculturation research studies (e.g., Finch & Vega, 2003; Jasinskaja-Lahti, 2006; Pan & Carpio, 2013), which show that social networks may be harder to achieve for migrants who live in areas with a preponderance of native-born residents who may not share similar experiences, practices, or cultural values.

Despite all these limitations, participants were still requested to voluntarily nominate a colleague at work and their spouse (if in a relationship) or a close friend to provide ratings of perceived adjustment outcomes. Instructions specified the non-mandatory completion of this step as well as an optional English or Spanish version should they need it. As expected, there was a very weak response with only 13 work ratings at Time 1 and 36 ratings of cultural adjustment.

Predictor scales

Demands Abilities Fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002). This 2-item measure of perceived D-A fit was used to measure fit for both the work environment and the non-work/ Australian cultural environment. An example item for work-fit was: 'The match between the demands of my work and my personal skills is very good.' The culture-fit item was: 'The match between my personal skills and the demands or requirements for adjusting to the Australian culture is very good.' The participants rated these items on 5-point Likert-type scales from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Needs Supplies fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002). This 2-item measure of perceived N-S fit was used to measure fit for both the work domain and the non-work/ Australian cultural environment. An item for work fit was: 'There is a good fit between what my work offers me and what I am looking for in a job' and an item for cultural fit was: 'There is a good fit between what Australian culture offers me and what I am looking for in a place to live'. The respondents rated these items on 5-point Likert-type scales from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Social Support. This was measured using Wang and Jordache's (2005) perceived social support scale applied specifically to support from locals (i.e., Australian nationals). For the purpose of this study, the original 12 items targeting supervisors/management were removed, leaving a final six-item scale that was adapted for work and non-work environments. Following a double column format like Smith, Peterson, and Schwartz (2002), respondents answered each item twice, once referring to support from Australian nationals at work and once to support from Australians in non-work environments. For brevity and readability in dense figures I will refer to this as 'Support Australians' across this study. Samples of the items include: [Australians] 'Helped you out in a difficult situation, even though they were busy', 'Let you know that you did something well' and 'Could be counted on to comfort you when you were very upset'. Participants evaluated the frequency of support they had received based on 5-point Likert-type scales from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*all the time*). The items were combined to form one support scale (for more detail refer to Appendix 4 with the factor loadings for the items).

Adjustment measures

Work adjustment. This was measured using two items from Black and Stephens' (1989) scale. These items asked how adjusted the participant was to 'specific job responsibilities' and 'performance standards and expectations at work'. Item ratings were based on 5-point Likert-type scales, ranging from 1 (*not adjusted at all*) to 5 (*very well adjusted*).

Non-work adjustment. This was assessed using the seven items from Black and Stephens' (1989) general adjustment scale asking about non-work adjustment to factors such as 'cost of living', 'housing conditions' and 'health care facilities and services'. Respondents were asked to evaluate the items on 5-point Likert-type scales, ranging from 1 (*not adjusted at all*) to 5 (*very well adjusted*).

Interaction adjustment. This was measured using six adapted items from Black and Stephens' (1989) interaction adjustment scale assessed in both work and non-work

environments. An example item was: 'I socialise with Australians'. Respondents were asked to evaluate the items on 5-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a great extent*).

Survey-based open questions. At the end of the survey two open questions were added to collect information on adjustment. The questions were as follows: 'Compared to Mexico, what has been the most challenging aspect of working in Australia?' The same question was asked for 'living in Australia'. Respondents were given open space to type whatever they wanted referring to that particular setting. For those who left the country in the subsequent data collections, the voluntary question 'Tell us what were the reasons for you to leave Australia' was also added. Table 2 reports the alpha values for the total scale, but it should be noted that a later factor analysis performed in Chapter Four yielded two factors separating work and non-work, which provided a better fit for the data.

Other-reported performance. A colleague and a spouse or close friend evaluated the skilled migrants' performance in work and non-work settings using the performance scale from Van Dyne and LePine (1998). The three items included, 'this person performs the tasks that are expected as part of the job' and 'this person is managing well at doing the tasks that are expected as part of living in Australia'. Raters responded to performance items for the skilled migrant on five-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 5 (*strongly agree*).

Adjustment outcomes

Self-reported intention to leave Australia. This outcome was measured at every wave of data collection with four items from the Withdrawing Cognitions scale (Hom & Griffeth, 1991). A sample item was 'I frequently find myself thinking about leaving Australia'. Participants responded to intention to leave items based on 5-point Likert-type scales, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Other-reported intention to leave. A colleague and a spouse or close friend evaluated the skilled migrant's intention to leave using similar items to the ones reported above. Items were adjusted to 'this particular person intends to go back to Mexico earlier than he/she had planned' and 'this particular person is asking his/her friends/contacts about work/life possibilities back in Mexico.' Raters responded to their colleague/spouse's intention to leave on five-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Control Variables

Tenure in the country is a proxy for exposure to the new country's customs, given that longer tenure provides greater opportunities for work and socialisation, and increased ability to navigate through society (Salant & Lauderdale, 2003; Zlobina, Basabe, Paez, & Furnham, 2006). Tenure in Australia was dummy coded into 0 (< 5 years) and 1 (> 5 years) following research that has indicated an active link between increased adjustment and tenure of over five years in the new country (Wong-Rieger & Quintana, 1987). Stays over 5 years tend to accrue increased health and civic benefits associated with changing visa status, for example, those with citizenship status (waiting periods of above 5 years) are entitled to government-funded benefits and have voting obligations. In order to conduct analysis comparable to previous research done with Latino migrants, the same tenure brackets as those used in these prior studies were followed. (Lebrun, 2012).

Language proficiency is also likely to facilitate improved ease of daily errands, access to care, and utilisation of services, along with providing individuals with social and work opportunities in the host country (Florsheim, 1997; Lebrun, 2012; Peltokorpi, 2008). Accordingly, participants self-reported their language proficiency, using a 4-point scale: 1 (*minimal*), 2 (*basic*), 3 (*proficient*) and 4 (*fluent*).

Since previous experience overseas has been shown to relate to non-work adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Parker & McEvoy, 1993), participants were asked if they had

any previous experience living overseas, with yes and no responses. Similarly, since the presence of a spouse has been explored in research as one of the relevant factors affecting expatriates' adjustment (Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Takeuchi, 2010; Van Erp, Van der Zee, Giebels, & Van Duijn, 2013), participants were asked to report their marital status. Participants who were married or in a relationship were further required to report whether their partners were Australian, Mexican or other, considering that the role of host locals impacts levels of adjustment (Feitosa et al., 2013).

Participants were also asked to report characteristics unique to them, and which may also have affected their adjustment, such as visa status and level of education prior to migration (Raghuram, Luksyte, Avery, & Macoukji, 2012). Examples of the categories included temporary resident and Australian citizen. The item about education required participants to select the appropriate level, choosing from High school or less; TAFE, Diploma; Bachelors degree; Masters; PhD.

Since migration motivation and tenure intention play a factor in migration adjustment (Castles, 2010; Mejía, 2015), participants were asked to nominate their original intention in coming to Australia and how long they planned to stay, with example responses such as 'to live permanently'; 'temporarily but hoping to settle here'; 'temporarily but open to stay or leave'; and 'to live temporarily with hopes to return to Mexico'.

Finally, participants were asked to identify their work status and job position in Australia, choosing between options such as 'full time', 'part-time' and 'casual,' and selecting the best match for their position between 'business owner/director'; 'senior manager', 'middle manager or team leader', or 'team member or employee'. This was in order to identify the employment related variables that may affect satisfaction and adjustment in the new setting (Berry, 1997; Eggerth & Flynn, 2010), since unlike expatriates, who often have high status positions that follow a structured career path (Abdul Malek et al., 2015; Peltokorpi and Froese,

2009), skilled migrants do not necessarily assume a position comparable to the one they left in their home country.

Measurement reliabilities

As shown in Table 2, all measures across the three time points demonstrated acceptable reliability with alpha values ranging from .79 or greater.

Table 2. Alpha Values for all Variables in the Study

Construct	α T1	α T2	α T3
P- E fit work	.89	.90	.87
P- E fit culture	.88	.91	.91
Support from Australians	.91	.94	.94
Work adjustment	.90	.92	.96
Non-work adjustment	.90	.92	.91
Interaction adjustment	.88	.89	.89
Intention to leave	.95	.91	.96

Statistical software

A combination of software tools were used for analysing the data: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (IBM, 2013), Analysis of a Moment Structures (AMOS) module of SPSS (Arbuckle, 2011) and MPlus. While SPSS and AMOS were sufficient for the early analyses, they were not considered ideal for the more complex longitudinal modelling. This change also reflects the availability of training, time constraints over the course of the candidature, and my development in statistical skills.

In the following chapter, I present the results of the initial cross-sectional testing supporting the model, along with qualitative data gleaned from the sample described in this chapter.

Chapter 4: Cross-sectional Results of P-E fit and the Adjustment Model in Mexican Skilled Migrants

This chapter reports on an initial cross-sectional testing of the hypothesised relationships between skilled migrants' perceived fit in the Australian cultural context and their adjustment, guided by the theoretical framework of the TWA (Dawis & Loftquist, 1984). As discussed in previous chapters, adjustment is defined as the ongoing process of achieving familiarity and psychological comfort in the new environment. During this process, skilled migrants embark on an continual process of learning about what is expected in the new cultural context and how to fulfil these expectations (Black & Stephens, 1989). Adjustment encompasses the new work environment, the general life or non-work environment, and social interactions with locals in the new country. The following hypotheses were tested in these cross-sectional analyses:

H1: D-A fit and N-S fit at work will have a positive relationship with work adjustment.

H2: D-A fit and N-S fit with culture will have a positive relationship with non-work adjustment.

H3: Social support provided by Australians will have a positive relationship with interaction adjustment.

Method

Participants

The profile of the Mexican skilled migrants who responded at Time 1 ($N = 154$) is described in full in Chapter Three.

Measures

The variables reported in this chapter include D-A and N-S fit variables both at work and with culture, support from Australians, and the three proposed types of adjustment: work,

non-work and interaction adjustment. A brief qualitative analysis of the open questions is also included. Further details of the measures are presented in Chapter Three.

Data analysis procedure

Prior to cross-sectional analysis, the data were screened for outliers and normality, in line with the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Results of Shapiro tests found non-work adjustment, interaction adjustment and work adjustment residuals to be normally distributed ($p > .001$). The data were then screened based on ungrouped data procedures (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) for univariate and multivariate outliers. Three cases were identified as univariate outliers and three were identified through Mahalanobis distance as multivariate outliers. After dummy coding for univariate outliers and running preliminary analyses with and without them, the results did not vary significantly; the original data set of 154 cases was therefore maintained.

To examine the factor structure of the measures used in this study, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with Varimax rotation was used. Initial results yielded nine factors explaining 76.9% of the variance (KMO= .795; Bartlett's test $p < 0.05$). Items loading on more than one factor were removed and the analysis was repeated, which yielded eight factors. The removed items were those related to support from Australians at work: a) 'helped you out in a difficult situation', b) 'let you know that you did something well', c) 'were concerned about your wellbeing'. The final eight factor solution had no cross loadings higher than 0.4 and explained a 75.9% of the variance (KMO= .809; Bartlett's test $p < 0.05$). The results suggested that the four D-A and N-S fit scales formed two factors: one overall P-E fit work factor and one overall P-E fit culture factor. Social support provided by Australians formed one overall factor, reflecting the original structure. Contrary to what theory would dictate (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005), interaction adjustment formed two factors, loading onto work and non-work domains independently. Refer to Appendix 4 for factor loadings; for alpha values of the final variables for this chapter, see Table 3.

The hypotheses were tested using path analysis, which was conducted using the Analysis of a Moment Structures (AMOS) module of SPSS (Arbuckle, 2011). Path analysis was chosen over multiple regression techniques for three reasons. First, this technique provides a robust analysis with model testing for multiple dependent variables, as well as adding the covariates of the variables needed in the equation. Second, it provides an overall model fit index, as well as providing coefficients for total direct effects (i.e., direct effects of the PE fit at work to work adjustment). Third, path analysis using data collected at Time 1 would maintain consistency with the analyses used later on for the longitudinal data (see Chapter Five). Structural equation modelling (SEM) was rejected because this method is based on covariances, and the results are less stable when estimated from small samples (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). As SEM is a large sample technique, its use with the sample in this study ($N=154$) would have compromised power (Rigdon, Schumacker, & Wothke, 1998).

Screening and cleaning data

Prior to data analysis, I checked for error in values that may have fallen outside the range of possible values for the variables. Results of Shapiro tests for normality found the work adjustment residuals were not normally distributed ($p < .001$) with identification of two univariate outliers. Comparing preliminary analyses with and without these outliers, found the results did not vary significantly. Additional data transformation was performed as per Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). However, attempts to transform work adjustment did not successfully improve its distribution. Given the similarity in results, and to avoid hindering interpretation that can occur after transformation of variables (Weston & Gore, 2006), the original work adjustment data were used.

Lack of normality in the data with small to medium samples sizes are very common (Peter M. Bentler & Yuan, 1999). Maximum likelihood estimation was used to calculate the model parameters including path coefficients and variance estimates. The statistical level of

significance was set to .05 in all tests. Chi-square was used to test the hypothesised model. The likelihood ratio effectively tests the null hypothesis for goodness of fit of the model, and statistical significance was determined at $p = .05$. Four fit indices were used in this study:

1) The CMIN or χ^2 statistic (lack of significance = acceptable fit). However, a lack of normally distributed variables is known to produce inflated chi square values and increase the possibility of a rejection of a well-fitting model. As work adjustment was negatively skewed, the chi-square results should be viewed with some level of caution. According to Bentler and Yuan (1999), this caution is important because it is possible that, given the small sample size, the χ^2 estimators are not stable. The Bentler Comparative Fit index (Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999) is thus included to improve robustness of results.

2) The Bentler Comparative Fit index (CFI), which is not too sensitive to sample sizes (Fan et al., 1999). Bentler's CFI values should be larger than .93.

3) The Goodness of Fit (GFI) indicator, with values greater than .90 indicating a good fit of the model (B.M. Byrne, 1994).

4) The Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), where any value not exceeding .08 is considered acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

Because small and non-normal distributions can yield biased estimates, the hypothesised effects on the measures were tested by using the bootstrapping approach suggested by Hayes (2013). This method uses repeated resampling during analyses to generate an empirical representation of the sampling distribution. Effects were tested for significance by computing 5000 bootstrapped samples, and then determining the 95% bias-corrected (BCB) percentile confidence intervals (CI).

AMOS does not provide pairwise bootstrapped results nor GFI indices from partially full data sets. The alternative is to run listwise analyses where the program removes cases that have one or more missing values based on the assumption that data are missing completely at

random (MCAR) (Schafer & Graham, 2002). This is problematic as depletion of cases can mean a substantial loss of subjects and therefore power. For example, those skilled migrants who were unemployed at Time 1 automatically lacked responses for the work-related variables. Even so, listwise ($N = 107$) with bootstrapped and pairwise ($N = 154$) analyses were run. The only significant differences between the two analyses were in the demographic control variables, such as tenure in the country predicting work adjustment ($r=.18, p < .05$) and non-work adjustment ($r=.26, p < .001$), and language proficiency, which was significant across all types of adjustment except interaction adjustment at work. Since ultimately no differences between significant outcomes were found in terms of the key targeted variables, it was decided to report only those individuals ($N = 107$) who had complete work and non-work data sets. Listwise and bootstrap data analyses are therefore the only analyses included in this chapter.

Age, gender, and prior experience overseas have emerged in previous research as being related to cross-cultural adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992; Takeuchi, 2010) among both expatriates and migrants (Adler, 1987; Napier & Taylor, 1995). Further, previous longitudinal studies have identified marital status, migration motivations (e.g., to settle permanently) and visa status to be significantly related to work adjustment and intention to leave overseas assignments (e.g., Raghuram et al., 2012; Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Van Erp et al., 2013). Therefore, analyses that included these additional control variables were conducted to examine whether they had any influence on the outcomes. Since there was no significant effect recorded for any of the above control variables, only the results of analyses that controlled for tenure in Australia and language proficiency – control variables which were significant – are reported. This allowed the prevention of over-fitting the model, avoiding potential error and increasing overall statistical power (Murphy, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

This cross-sectional quantitative analysis was complemented with a content analysis of the text (Miles & Huberman, 1994) from open questions that asked respondents about adjustment at work and their new life in Australia (as detailed in Chapter Three). Content analysis methodology allows for systematically evaluating qualitative data (Mayring, 2000). These kinds of integrated designs, combining quantitative and qualitative data, have been used by other scholars (e.g., Findlay & Li, 1999; Maggio, 2013) with migrant populations. I used a directed approach to content analysis which allows for deductive reasoning from theory about variables of interest (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). This reasoning was grounded in a previous study (Barba Ponce, 2013), in which migrants reported difficulties adjusting in both work and non-work environments.

Incorporating the above two open questions into the survey provided a more holistic and comprehensive perspective, minimised some of the limitations imposed by using single methods, and enabled different aspects of the phenomenon to emerge (Creswell, 2007; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Hall, 2008; Punch, 2005). First, data in Spanish were entered into the NVivo software, followed by data reduction to identify themes, clusters and patterns that shared commonality (Krippendorff, 1980). Then the most frequently repeated topics (in Spanish) were displayed in clouds (see Figures 4.2 and 4.3), corresponding to a translated list of the top 20 most frequently reported themes in both work and non-work settings (Tables 4.3 and 4.4). Finally, themes and translated quotes from participants were integrated with the quantitative results to help put them into context and to add depth to the understanding of migrant adjustment.

Results

Descriptive statistics

The means, standard deviations, zero-order correlations and internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for all variables in the study are shown in Table 3. All measures

demonstrated acceptable reliability (α values .79 or greater). As expected from the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, the control variables, tenure in Australia and language proficiency, were significantly correlated with all adjustment outcomes, with the exception that tenure was not significantly associated with interaction adjustment at work ($r = .10, p > 0.05$).

Notably, all significant relationships between the variables were in the expected direction, showing small and moderate-sized correlation coefficients. The P-E fit variables correlated more highly with outcomes in the matching domain (work or non-work), with the exception of P-E fit culture, which correlated slightly higher with interaction adjustment at work compared with the non-work context. These patterns, together with no observed multicollinearity, provided initial support for the hypotheses.

Other-reported non-work adjustment showed a medium and positive correlation with skilled migrants' self-reported non-work adjustment ($r = .39, p < 0.05$), and with interaction adjustment in the non-work environment ($r = .54, p < 0.05$). There was a very low number of responses on other-reported work performance ($N=12$), but it was positively related ($r = .23$), albeit not significantly, to skilled migrants' self-reported work adjustment. Overall, as suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) and by Vazire (2010), obtaining these results from multiple sources provided some evidence of the validity of the self-reports and assisted to minimise concerns about common method variance.

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Cronbach Alpha Reliabilities in the Current Sample

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Tenure in Australia	.48	.50									
2. Language proficiency	3.74	.46	.33**								
3. P-E fit work	3.89	.98	.21*	.19*	.89						
4. P-E fit culture	4.10	.78	.12	.16	.21*	.88					
5. Support from Australians	3.67	.81	.14	.31**	.23**	.50**	.91				
6. Work adjustment	4.32	.82	.26**	.21*	.44**	.23*	.17	.83			
7. Non-work adjustment	4.01	.77	.39**	.36**	.32**	.44**	.35**	.57**	.90		
8. Interaction adjustment work	4.20	.80	.10	.25**	.27**	.43**	.51**	.12	.26**	.79	
9. Interaction adjustment non-work	3.84	.95	.26**	.39**	.06	.40**	.49**	.02	.32**	.50**	.91

Note. $n = 154$. Reliability coefficients are in italics on the diagonal. Tenure in Australia scale: 0 = less than 5 years, 1 = over 5 years. Language proficiency on 4-point scale.

* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Hypothesis testing

Before examining the best fit for the data, a saturated or just-identified model was specified to test the differentiated effects on adjustment outcomes from the context-related variables (i.e., work vs. non-work). This just-identified model was fitted to illustrate the specificity of the outcomes and the matching principle of TWA. First, direct paths were drawn from P-E fit work, P-E fit culture, and support from Australians to all the adjustment outcomes (e.g., P-E fit work with work, non-work, interaction at work and interaction at non-work adjustments) with the outcomes measuring for error. As these type of models yield a trivially perfect fit (Arbuckle, 2011), an over-identified model (constraining those non-significant paths) was then run to test the hypotheses and achieve the best fit to the data (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982).

With all variables in the model, there was no evidence that tenure in the country related significantly to any of the adjustment variables (Table 4). Nevertheless, when testing pairwise ($N = 154$), tenure significantly predicted work adjustment ($b = .17, p < .05$) and non-work adjustment ($b = .26, p < .001$). Using pairwise depletion, language proficiency was also significantly associated with work adjustment ($b = .18, p < .05$), non-work adjustment ($b = .25, p < .001$) and interaction adjustment non-work ($b = .27, p < .001$). Using listwise depletion, language proficiency was only correlated with interaction adjustment in the non-work context.

In line with predictions, the unstandardised path coefficients and bootstrap confidence intervals in the saturated model (Table 4) supported the context-specific effects on skilled migrants' adjustment. Perception of fit at work was only significantly associated with skilled migrants' work-related outcomes, and while perception of fit with culture was related to the non-work related variables, it was also significantly associated with interaction adjustment at work. Likewise, support from Australians was only related to interaction adjustment.

Table 4. *Unstandardised Path Coefficients and Bootstrap Confidence Intervals for all the Direct Effects in the Saturated Model*

Predictor	Work adjustment		Non-work adjustment		Interaction adjustment at work		Interaction adjustment at non-work	
	Estimate	95% CI (BCB)	Estimate	95% CI (BCB)	Estimate	95% CI (BCB)	Estimate	95% CI (BCB)
Tenure	.11	[-.069, 0.331]	.10	[-.053, 0.263]	-.08	[-.279, 0.099]	.10	[-.084, 0.297]
Language proficiency	-.00	[-.240, 0.203]	.08	[-.100, 0.266]	.12	[-.090, 0.365]	.23*	[0.048, 0.406]
P-E Fit work	.34**	[0.116, 0.563]	.14	[-.054, 0.375]	.17*	[-.019, 0.409]	-.09	[-.283, 0.106]
P-E fit culture	.06	[-.260, 0.306]	.35**	[0.158, 0.537]	.26*	[0.029, 0.504]	.30**	[0.095, 0.531]
Support Australians	.12	[-.197, 0.496]	.14	[-.059, 0.343]	.21†	[-.009, 0.488]	.29**	[0.067, 0.527]

Note. $n = 107$, unstandardised estimates are reported.

CI = Confidence Intervals; BCB = bias-corrected bootstrap.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$; † $p < .05$, in the non-bootstrap estimates.

The over-identified model was specified to test Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. Results yielded three indicators suggesting satisfactory fit [$\chi^2 = 9.499$, d.f. = 5, $p > 0.01$, CFI = 0.980, GFI = 0.981] and a marginal Root-Mean-Square error a little bit above acceptable value (RMSEA = 0.092). Figure 3 illustrates the model with standardised path coefficients which ranged in magnitude from .22 to .39.

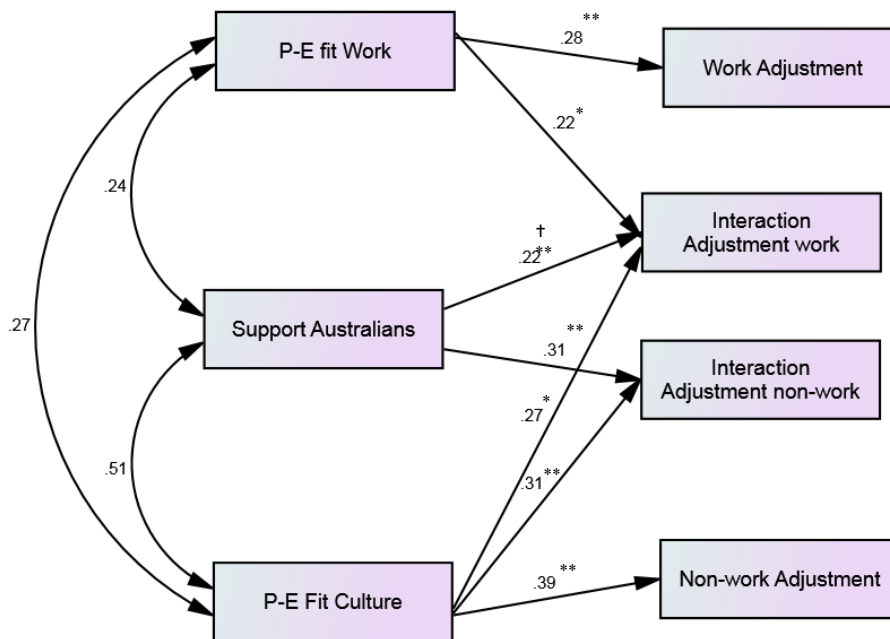


Figure 3. Path analysis results of the hypothesised model

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$, † $p < .05$, in the non-bootstrap estimates.

With three good fit indicators and a marginal RMSEA, close to goodness of fit, these results provide evidence for the overall appropriateness of the measurement model used in testing the study hypotheses.

Overall there was strong support for P-E fit work having a significant positive relationship with skilled migrants' work adjustment, therefore Hypothesis 1 is supported. It was also related to

interaction adjustment at work (less strongly). Similarly, P-E fit culture was positively related to adjustment outside of work, thus Hypothesis 2 is supported. It too was associated with interaction adjustment both outside of work and at work (with a slightly weaker value for the latter).

Support from Australians showed differences in significance with skilled migrants' interaction outcomes. In the bootstrap results it was positively associated only with skilled migrants' interaction adjustment at non-work, however, non-bootstrap results indicated significance with the work setting as well. Hypothesis 3 is thus supported, but less clearly so. Consistent with the prior analysis, these results suggest that P-E fit at work, P-E fit culture, and support from Australians are significantly related to the different adjustment outcomes. This constrained model accounted for 13% of the variance in work adjustment, 24% of the variance in non-work adjustment, 30% of variance in interaction adjustment at work, and a 40% variance in the skilled migrants' ratings of interaction adjustment at non-work.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Of the participants tested at Time 1, 119 responded to the question 'Compared to Mexico, what are the most difficult things about working in Australia?' (56% females), while 143 responded to the question 'Compared to Mexico, what are the most difficult things about living in Australia?' (58% females).

Overall, respondents reported complications in locating their first job, lack of recognition of their overseas skills, the challenge of getting used to general working procedures and the implications of the distance between Mexico and Australia. The Spanish testimonies translated into English in the section that follows provide rich examples of some of the experienced adjustment into both work and non-work environments.

Work environment experiences

Despite the fact that many Mexican migrants arrived under the ongoing Australian government strategic policy targeting proficient populations to fill a shortfall of skills (Department of Immigration and Citizenship, 2011; VECCI, 2007), interviews revealed that a lack of ‘Australian experience’ was an obstacle to filling specific roles. Further, respondents indicated that there was a need to adjust their CVs to re-word their skills, experience, and previous studies in Mexico in order to appear a good match with potential employers. Good examples illustrating this process of breaking into the Australian working environment and how the participant adjusted are provided by the following two cases:

Participant A, 48-year-old male:

As an immigrant the beginning is the most difficult, because they ask you for experience in Australia and it is a bit frustrating, once you have found the first job it is a little bit less difficult. Something that makes it difficult is compiling a catchy CV that companies get interested in, as there are many tasks and skills in Mexico that are useless here. A great advantage is that age is not a condition that makes it more difficult [to be hired].

Participant B, 30-year-old female:

[Challenges included] *Finding a job, the process of understanding what kind of CV they are after and that in Mexico we are jacks of all trades and here they want specialised people. Here they do not know and they don't care if you went to TEC [a prestigious and elite Mexican University], they want you to have specific experience and ideally in Australia, but hey, how do you get that? I have friends who without payment volunteered for 6 months*

so they could get a job, others within one week found a job in IT. Once inside a job, it is just adjusting to the office, but that happens with any new job.

Although the majority of the participants reported having a proficient or fluent level of English, 27% revealed that language is a source of difficulty. Responses included phrases such as “*English is difficult*” and “*it has been difficult to understand Australian English. It is full of slang and very bad pronunciation.*” Responses also highlighted the need to adjust to different attitudes in the work environment, especially in socialisation and perceptions of Australian work attitudes:

Participant C, 44-year-old male:

The language, the culture and the responsibilities... Australians are very lazy in comparison with Mexicans: they work less, or they do not take responsibility for anything, they only think about how to delegate their task to others. It is exhausting, very exhausting to be working around Australians. I don't even understand how they have a first world country.

Participant D, 32-year-old female:

The work environment... In Mexico, in the jobs I have had, you build very strong connections in a short time! You could make friends very easily! It's the opposite in Australia, it has been difficult for me to break that obstacle. Everyone is nice at work here, but it has been hard for me to make friends. I have not been able to achieve this, but little by little I am creating networks.

For more details, refer to the word cloud (Figure 4) that demonstrates the 100 most mentioned words in relation to the work environment (Spanish) and the top 25 translated into English compiled in Table 5. For the word cloud, the size of the word reflects the number of times that the word was mentioned; the bigger the word, the more it was stated. Apart from ‘Mexico’ and ‘Australian’, the biggest topics reflected in the participants’ responses were ‘work/employment’, ‘experience’, ‘language’, and ‘difficult’.



Figure 4. Word cloud of the 100 most repeated words at work

Table 5. *Translation of the 25 Most Repeated Words in Relation to the Work Environment*

Word (Spanish)	Word (English translation)	Count
Trabajo, empleo	Work, job or/and employment	89
México	Mexico	29
Tener, tengo	To have, having	29
Idioma, Inglés	Language, English	29
Australia	Australia	25
Experiencia	Experience	25
Difícil	Hard, struggle	24
Labores	Tasks	22
Australiano	Australian (referred to or related to)	18
Mucho	A lot	17
Encontrar	To find	13
Hacer	To do, to make	13
Gente	People	12
Trabajar	To work	12
Forma	Ways (as in procedures)	10
Oportunidad	Opportunities	9
Tiempo	Time	9
Conseguir	To obtain	8
Cosas	Things	8
Primer	First	8
Cultura	Culture	8
Entender	To understand	7
Estudiar	To study	7
Tener en cuenta	Realising	7
Demonstrar	To prove, to show	6

Non-work environment experiences

The findings on non-work adjustment resonated with previous literature, which identifies Mexico as a traditional society with family as a strong value (Hofstede, 1980; Howell et al., 2007). The word ‘family’ was most frequently mentioned, with the majority making comments such as “*my family is far, very far away*”, along with the challenges the distance was seen to procure, especially since immediate and extended family members are a trusted source of support.

Participant E, 42-year-old male:

Family life is much more distant and sometime non-existent, support from family and friends is very different and there is no clear material or moral support (on many occasions).

Participant F, 37-year-old female:

We are used to socialise at least once a week with friends, and daily with family members (nuclear or extended family members), we help each other and support each other in all sorts of aspects regardless of the time or the distance. In Australia, life is more structured and planned, friends and family have to adapt to a calendar to visit or to spend time together. To me, that is the hardest part to adjust to.

Apart from family, the most frequently mentioned topics involved comparisons between both countries in relation to food and the struggles to find the correct ingredients to make the complex and rich recipes from Mexico. Some (14%) linked this with the elevated cost of life and services, with Australia being regarded as a more expensive place to live.

Participant G, 43-year-old female:

The cost of living is so high, especially in property. My husband and I have good jobs and a good income and even so, it took us 7 years to be able to buy a house.

Participant B, 30-year-old female:

On a daily basis, I find it very hard not to have a 'muchacha' [house cleaner, usually female] (that knows how to cook) and not to have a chauffeur!!!! Obviously because I

don't earn enough money to pay what those services cost here, but in Mexico it makes your life easier to arrive to a tidy house.

Interaction and socialisation experiences

Participants frequently reported themes relating to friendship and the difficulties around socialising and building close relationships with Australians. Interestingly, employment was also a frequently repeated topic in the non-work section, especially for women. Participants living in regional centres ($N = 22$) reported work struggles associated with the remoteness, isolation and the stigma of the 'foreigner' in these environments, which are less multicultural than capital cities.

Participant H, 39-year-old female:

At the beginning making friends, Australians are more reserved than 'gringos' [term used in Mexico to refer to Americans], but with perseverance they are sweeties and more honest and open than 'gringos'.

Participant I, 43-year-old female:

Friendships in Mexico are more close, your friends are your family and they are keeping an eye on you all the time. In Australia, even though I have lots of friends, it is not the same kind of relationship, they are more distant. I also see this with my boyfriend's friends and he is Australian.

Participant K, 33-year-old female

I don't feel accepted by Australians, they barely talk to me and they give me looks and I don't know what is the reason... It is uncomfortable for me to hear Australians saying bad

Table 6. Most Repeated Words in the Non-work Environment Context

Word (Spanish)	Word (English translation)	Count
Familia	Family	81
Lejos, distancia	Far, distance	44
México	Mexico	29
Estar	To be	28
Difícil	Struggle, hard	26
Tener	To have	25
Australia	Australia	25
Trabajo	Job, employment	24
Mucho	A lot	16
Gente	People	15
Vivir	To live	15
Culturas	Cultures	14
Mexicana	Mexican	13
Costo	Cost of	12
Comida	Food	11
Encontrar	To find	11
Aspecto	Aspect	10
Hacer	To do, to make	8
Veces	Sometimes, at times	8
Idioma	Language	8
Siento	To feel, to perceive	8
Diferente	Different	8
Australiana	Australian	8
Tiempo	Time	7
Experiencia	Experience	7

Discussion

This cross-sectional study examined and tested for a model of international adjustment by looking at the work and the non-work contexts in which Mexican skilled migrants in Australia interact. The model tested three adjustment types: work, non-work and interaction, predicted by P-E fit work, P-E fit in the non-work context, and the impact of support provided by host nationals

(Australians) respectively. Moreover, I collected and analysed qualitative data that asked participants to report their perceptions of the most challenging situations they had experienced in the work and the non-work environments. The findings support the tradition proposed by interactionist psychologists who argue that individuals may perceive themselves differentially compatible with various environments (e.g., P-E at work and P-E fit culture; Kristof-Brown and Guay, [2011]).

The results showed an important association between P-E fit work and migrants' work adjustment. This association was characterised by migrants' perceptions of comfort with their workplace values as well as with their set of skills. At work, since it is expected that migrants respond to job requirements by using their specific skills needed for the task assigned (Cable & Edwards, 2004), the adjustment that follows probably comes about because workplaces provide rewards that will satisfy different migrants' needs (e.g., wages, prestige, professional growth, socialisation with colleges). Because the majority of the sample reported education levels at or above bachelor's degree, low levels of fit perceptions could be due to the high levels of under-employment among highly-skilled migrants (Crowley-Henry & Ariss, 2016).

On the basis of the evidence collected in their qualitative responses to the work environment, it seems fair to suggest that lower fit could be related to the need for high specialisation, different working practices and the struggles faced in forming relationships with colleagues at work. Accentuated lower fit may also result from migrants' expectations of Australia as a bountiful nation with plenty of job opportunities being violated upon arrival (Negy, Schwartz, & Reig-Ferrer, 2009). The fact that participant discourses reported the difficulties related to a lack of 'Australian experience' as a hurdle to obtaining a job is mirrored in the findings of D'Netto and Sohal (1999), who explain that access to employment can be more difficult in Australia for new

arrivals than in other countries because recruiters often privilege Australian work experience over the skills relevant to the position. Discrepancy between expectation and reality may be intensified for those residing in Australian regional centres, which have historically provided even less opportunities, benefits and support than the cities (Pritchard & McManus, 2000). This in turn makes it harder for migrants to find their first job, particularly one that fits with their qualifications.

Taken together with the qualitative results, the findings of this build upon those of previous studies conducted with skilled migrant populations in Australia (Barba Ponce, 2013; Coronado, 2003; Mujumdar, 2008; Vazquez Maggio, 2013). The responses that contain examples of Mexican skilled migrants undermining or criticising their Australian colleagues (e.g., calling them lazy) reflect the assertion of migration literature that in order to cope with adjustment and the tension to assimilate to the host culture, migrants may develop cognitive defence mechanisms in the form of a devaluation of the host society, which in turn provides a sense of relative self-worth and self-enhancement (Markovizky & Doron, 2011).

As identified in the proposed model, P-E fit work was not related to non-work adjustment. These results suggest that although optimal match is important in the context of work, migrants' adjustment to activities and performance in day-to day tasks is not adversely affected by their perceptions of fit at work. By contrast, P-E fit culture was positively related to non-work adjustment but not to work adjustment, such that migrants who perceived they were equipped with problem-solving and skills thought they coped with general living conditions fairly well.

There was also a positive relationship found between P-E fit culture and interaction adjustment in both settings. Unless Mexican migrants have significant numbers of family members or friends living in Australia, social interaction with host nationals is inevitable. It is therefore extremely likely that as soon as a migrant arrives, they immediately begin to interact with locals,

with positive degrees of social interaction taking place when the migrant perceives that the host nationals endorse similar values as them (e.g., hard work, social justice and equity) (Hechanova et al., 2003; Vianen, 2000). The positive relationship that emerged between P-E fit culture and interaction adjustment at work may also be because P-E fit culture indicates familiarity with local matters and with day-to-day events and routines performed, providing the migrant with topics for social interactions at work beyond job-related topics. These results align with research conducted by Takeuchi, Yun, and Tesluk (2002), which found that life domains in expatriates have the ability to spill over into the work domain.

The positive association between perceived support from Australians and interaction adjustment supports the findings of previous research, which has outlined that the provision of general information about working and interacting with locals in the new country has positive impacts on expatriates' adjustment (e.g., Jasinskaja-Lahti, 2006; X. Wang & Jordache, 2005; Wu & Ang, 2011). However, even if there is little by way of support provided directly from an organisation or an institution, migrants will attempt to socially integrate with, and generate social support from, the people around them (Cerdin, Diné, & Brewster, 2013; Halvorsen, Treuren, & Kulik, 2014). Given that migrants naturally seek out those who they believe to be most knowledgeable about the host society, (Carragher, Sullivan, & Crocitto, 2008; Nebus, 2006) those with at least surface-level indicators of expertise such as dominant ethnicity, local accent, years living in the host country or holding a position in a company (Farh et al., 2010) are often preferred.

Of all the predictors, support from Australians obtained the weakest results, a finding that may be explained in part from the qualitative data. That is, whilst it may be that a large number of participants interacted with host nationals who were not especially receptive to migrants, resulting in an overall negative impression (Polek et al., 2010), it is more likely that Mexicans have different

expectations of social interactions to that of Australians. Frequent mentions of ‘family’ by the respondents illustrate previous research showing that Mexicans rank group and family values particularly highly (Howell et al., 2007, 2008). One result of this is that new social relationships may seem less supportive by comparison.

Control variables only showed significant correlations with adjustment outcomes, but were not significant (except for language proficiency) in the path analysis. The lack of results might be related to the listwise deletion. The significant correlations between adjustment and tenure supports previous studies (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Froese, Peltokorpi & Ko, 2012) suggesting that fit improves over time as employed migrants’ skills develop (Brown, 2002). Additionally, as tenure increases, migrants learn and accept the goals and values of their new work place (Kristof, 1996).

The only significant path with language proficiency and interaction adjustment aligns with the results from studies such as that conducted by Ravasi, Salamin, and Davoine (2015). Adjustment problems are often related to communication and language skills, and because of the particularly low levels of Spanish speakers in Australia (Barba Ponce, 2013), having a basic competence in English is imperative for Mexicans to engage successfully in social interactions. Further, language proficiency was positively correlated with all adjustment outcomes. These associations are supported by qualitative data referring to migrants’ difficulties in understanding host nationals and their disappointment in failing to express clearly what they intended. Such disappointments in the context of achieving desired interactional outcomes has also been associated with lower work adjustment (Skuja & Joy Norton, 1982) and with interaction adjustment problems in expatriate populations (Ravasi et al., 2015).

Strengths and Limitations of This Study

Since moving to a different country inevitably entails adjusting to both the work and the non-work context (Farh et al., 2010), this proposed model supports a holistic view for the skilled migrant. Further, this study is based on the TWA, in which Dawis and Lofquist (1984) argue that individuals interact at work and in other major environments, such as daily life. One of the major strengths of this study is the fact that it creates a broad-reaching basis for understanding what adjustment for skilled migrants looks like in two key domains. The open questions allowed for the collection of a more detailed picture corresponding to the specifics of adjustment in both environments.

Although the model is inherently robust, the results reported in this chapter must be viewed in light of three main limitations. First, because a cross-sectional design was used to examine the relations of P-E fit and support on migrants' adjustment, causal direction cannot be inferred (Maxwell & Cole, 2007; Spector, 1994; Wu & Ang, 2011). The very nature of adjustment is that it happens over time and therefore the measurement of relationships with adjustment should be investigated over time (Black & Stephens, 1989). One of the aims of the longitudinal analysis presented in the next chapter was to address these concerns, given that longitudinal analysis provides a more rigorous research design that allows separation of predictors from outcomes (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

The second limitation of this study involved the use of self-report data, which can falsely increase the strength of some relationships; common method bias is also a concern (Crampton & Wagner III., 1994; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). However, the results showed that other-reported indicators of adjustment (i.e., migrants' partner or co-worker ratings of performance and adjustment) were correlated with self-reported adjustment, which adds validity to the self-reported

results. Although external raters also have limitations – it is possible, for example, that workers do not feel confident sharing their intentions to leave with co-workers – the high level of correlation between participant and external rater responses shows a good level of reliability. For extra information on these correlations please refer to Appendix 5.

The third limitation relates to the fact that the relatively small sample size limited the statistical power required to identify strong effect sizes (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). To mitigate this setback, a bias-corrected boot-strap confidence interval was performed to increase the chance of producing an accurate significance of estimates (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). In terms of the qualitative data, it is important to note that the perceptions of some participants could potentially have been biased, as the migrant individual can often be sensitive to perceptions of discrimination or being stereotyped by locals. Also, the open questions were presented as a voluntary part of the questionnaire at the end of the full set of items; the repeated short responses and the few examples of more positive experiences might have resulted because participants were tired or decided not to respond, even though they had experienced positive adjustment outcomes.

Conclusion

Previous adjustment research in the organisational psychology literature (e.g., Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003; Onosu, 2012; Rose, Ramalu, Uli, & Kumar, 2010; M. Wang & Takeuchi, 2007; Ward, Okura, Kennedy, & Kojima, 1998) has focused mostly on students and expatriates and typically only in academic and work environments. By contrast, studies within cross-cultural and social psychology have usually focused on cultural adjustment of migrant samples with lower levels of skill (e.g., Bar-Yosef, 1968; Florsheim, 1997; Markovizky & Samid, 2008; Polek et al., 2010; Shim & Schwartz, 2007), therefore giving minimal attention to work adjustment in highly skilled individuals. While international adjustment has been looked at

extensively in the context of international management literature, the vast majority of these studies have looked at expatriates, excluding alternative categories of international experience and leaving a gap in the understanding of skilled migrants (Ariss et al., 2012). The present study contributes to this body of literature by addressing skilled migrant adjustment from a holistic perspective. It is also significant in that it deals with an under-studied sample, underlining that not all skilled migrants come from highly-developed countries and that many are now drawn from the middle classes of developing countries (Ariss et al., 2013).

The findings of this chapter have shown that the TWA foundation of this model provides a strong theoretical basis to explain predictors of international adjustment. Further, this chapter's results establish the background for subsequent chapters, in which I address the significant knowledge gap resulting from the paucity of studies (and within these few, mostly qualitative, e.g., Ariss, Vassilopoulou, Ozbilgin, & Game [2013]) that attend to the predictors and outcomes of skilled migrants' adjustment.

Chapter 5: Longitudinal Results: Effect of P-E fit, Support and Adjustment in Mexican Skilled Migrants' Intention to Leave Australia.

Chapter Four presented the cross-sectional analysis of Time 1 data for the proposed model testing three types of migrant adjustment: work, non-work, and interaction adjustments. The next step in this research program was to test the longitudinal effects using data collected at three points in time (T1, T2 and T3) across a one-year period, testing H1-H5.

Testing these hypotheses longitudinally forms Part One of this chapter. On the basis of these results, detailed below, I then conducted a set of post-hoc exploratory analyses, which I present in Part Two.

Part One: Method

Participants

The participant profile for the Mexican migrants who responded at Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3 is described in full in Chapter Three.

Measures

The variables reported in this section include data in T1, T2 and T3 related to P-E fit work, P-E fit culture, support from Australians and the three proposed types of adjustment (work, non-work, and interaction). For the outcome variable intention to leave, data were collected at three time points. However, in order to reduce control variables and increase the power of the overall model (Murphy, 2010), only the data from T1 and T3 were used in the measurement reported in this chapter. Description of the measures is provided in Chapter Three with means, standard deviations and coefficient alphas reported in Table 7 below.

Screening and cleaning data

Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson's (1998) recommendation for data screening procedures were followed prior to data analysis. With descriptive statistics, I checked for error in values that may have fallen outside the range of possible values for the variables at Times 2 and 3 given that Time 1 data were already screened for the cross-sectional analysis. The data were then screened based on ungrouped data procedures (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) to identify for univariate and multivariate outliers. No cases were identified through the Mahalanobis distance index.

Data analysis procedure

To maintain consistency with procedures used in analysing the cross-sectional data, factorial validity was determined for T2 and T3 variables. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with Varimax rotation in SPSS 22.0 was used. Results for T2 yielded the expected seven factors (two P-E fit variables, support, three adjustment variables, intention to leave) explaining 77.3% of the variance ($KMO = .83$; Bartlett's test $p < 0.05$). For T3 the same number of factors were obtained, explaining 77.5% of the variance ($KMO = .82$; Bartlett's test $p < 0.05$). In comparison with T 1 EFA, T2 and T3 results showed no common factor solution across data sets, as is expected in repeated measures studies (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). One consistent factor structure for the three waves of data was necessary to perform the longitudinal analysis. This meant that interaction adjustment was now treated as one factor rather than two (as in Chapter Three). Since the small sample translated into insufficient power, data did not allow for a strong measurement equivalence/ invariance of the kind typically achieved by using bootstrap confidence intervals with bigger data sets (Cheung & Lau, 2012). To mitigate this shortcoming, 'List-and-delete' procedures were followed by choosing to remove the noninvariant items from the measures (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989; Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). Two items were deleted from non-work adjustment, one from interaction adjustment and one from intention to leave. For the EFA results of T2 and T3, as well as a final list

of items used in this longitudinal analysis, please refer to Appendix 4 and 6. Correlations between the final factors and alpha values are presented in Table 7.

Data were screened for normality in order to meet assumptions of multivariate analysis. Results of Shapiro tests showed intention to leave residuals at T1 and T3 to be non-normally distributed ($p < .001$) therefore normality assumption was rejected. Steps for a transformation of positively skewed values were applied then analyses run with the transformed data (Hair, Black, et al., 1998). However, because this yielded similar results, the original data were maintained for ease of interpretation.

Notwithstanding efforts to provide reasonable incentives for participation, missing data were inevitable in this longitudinal study. Since missing data has probabilistic and mathematical meaning (Baraldi & Enders, 2010), the relationships between measured variables and the probability of missing data were taken into account. According to Rubin's (1976) classification, missing data mechanisms can be of three types. The first is missing completely at random (MCAR), meaning that missing data on a variable x is unrelated to other variables in the model and to the values of x itself. Another mechanism is missing at random (MAR), in which the missingness is related to other variables in the model, but not to the underlying values of the incomplete variable. The third mechanism is when data is missing not at random (MNAR). As noted by Baraldi and Enders, (2010), empirical testing for MCAR has historically not worked very well, as it has low power and is more likely to detect random estimates. Therefore, since MAR and MNAR include unobserved data, it is impossible to confirm the underlying mechanisms that are operating (Baraldi & Enders, 2010).

In light of this, MPlus Version 7.4 (L. K. Muthén & Muthén, 2015) was chosen to test the hypotheses. This statistical package deals with MCAR and MAR data under full information

maximum likelihood (FIML). Estimation of parameters is achieved by using all information present in the data and, in the MAR cases, it allows the missing patterns to relate to observed covariates and observed outcomes (J. Wang & Wang, 2014). Further, Baraldi and Enders (2010) and Arbuckle (1996) confirm that FIML is superior to traditional approaches for dealing with missing data (e.g., pairwise deletion, and mean imputation), because it is less punishing on statistical power already weakened due to sample reduction, and it is more efficient in reducing biased estimates significantly. Thus, as per Schafer and Graham's (2002) suggestion, in order to produce more accurate estimates with the missing data in T2 and T3 measures were modelled with an FIML by assuming that the data were missing at random (Little & Rubin, 1987).

The longitudinal path model was specified with the inclusion of variables from three data waves (T1, T2, and T3), following the logic of longitudinal research (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). In light of the unexpected low number of valid responses ($N=78$) and in order to further extend the power of the overall model, intention to leave was measured at two data points instead of three (i.e., T2 was excluded). As suggested by Murphy (2010), this commonly used method of exclusion enabled an increase in the sensitivity of the data by enlarging the sample size, thereby obtaining more precise statistical estimates. Bootstrapping procedures were then run to test for direct and indirect mediation effects. The bootstrap approach has become the preferred method in recent decades for testing mediation, especially benefiting studies with small samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Thus, direct and indirect effects are reported on the basis of the confidence intervals obtained from bootstrap iterations rather than a significance test (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

Analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run with the categorical demographic variables (level of education prior to migration, tenure intention, previous experience living overseas, migration status, work status, job position, gender and marital status) to examine whether these control

variables had any influence on intention to leave at Time 3. There was a statistically significant difference in level of education prior to migration $F(5, 103) = 1.981, p < .001$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Turkey HSD test indicated the only significant difference was between the mean score for those with high school or less ($M = 3.00, SD = 2.31$) and those with a Master's degree ($M = 1.41, SD = .87$). There was also a significant effect for original intention to migrate, $F(3, 104) = 3.440, p < .001$. Post-hoc Turkey HSD test indicated that the mean score for those who came intending to live in Australia permanently ($M = 1.460, SD = .952$) was significantly different from those who came temporarily but were open to stay or leave ($M = 2.092, SD = 1.223$). Despite these results reaching statistical significance, the effect size was only .09 for education level and .11 for the migration intention. Furthermore, none of these variables were significant when tested in the overall model, thus in aiming for a parsimonious model, longitudinal results are reported without these categorical variables.

However, because previous studies on expatriates have consistently suggested age, tenure, and English proficiency as having potential effects on adjustment variables (Gong & Fan, 2006; Takeuchi, Wang, et al., 2005; Vazquez Maggio, 2013), these were included in the longitudinal analysis as covariates. Contrary to the cross-sectional results, age showed significant correlations with outcome variables in the longitudinal data. Tenure in Australia was dummy coded (as per the cross-sectional analysis). Based on the lack of significant variances in English proficiency across time, competency in English at T1 was used.

Part One: Results

Descriptive statistics

The means, standard deviations, zero-order correlations and internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for all variables in the study are reported in Table 7. Correlation values between the

dependant variables were not so high as to be problematic in terms of their effects on the path analysis (McArdle & Epstein, 1987). The coefficients were in the expected direction, suggesting that the hypothesis testing was valid. Additionally, results indicated that multicollinearity was not a problem. Notably, all measures demonstrated acceptable reliability (α values .83 or greater).

In most psychology studies, any given variable measured at Time 1 correlates with itself when measured at a later time (Judge & Hurst, 2008), which explains the high auto-correlations present across time in the adjustment variables as well as intention to leave. The P-E fit variables correlated more highly to outcomes in the matching domain (work or non-work). Unlike P-E fit work, P-E fit culture and support from Australians correlated significantly with all the variables of interest for the mediation hypothesis. As the concept of mediation implies change (Maxwell & Cole, 2007), the mediator variables and the outcome were expected to change over time. In line with this, adjustment means showed growth over time and demographics variables were significantly correlated with most of the predictors, mediators and outcome variables, with the exception of age that had a significant correlation only with intention to leave T3 ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$). Apart from the work variables at T1, these patterns provided initial support for testing the hypothesised mediation model.

Table 7. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Alpha Reliabilities in the Longitudinal Sample

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>14</i>
1. Age	36.66	7.73														
2. Tenure in Australia ^a	.48	.50	.36**													
3. Language proficiency	3.74	.46	-.032	.31**												
4. P-E fit work T1	3.86	1.01	.07	.22*	.17	.90										
5. P-E fit culture T1	4.11	.78	.09	.11	.16	.19*	.88									
6. Support Australians T1	3.78	.75	-.05	.12	.24**	.30**	.49**	.92								
7. Work adjustment T1	4.30	.82	.21*	.25**	.22*	.45**	.21*	.24**	.89							
8. Non-work adjustment T1	4.02	.79	.16	.39**	.33**	.26**	.40**	.39**	.50**	.86						
9. Interaction adjustment T1	4.01	.81	.05	.22*	.36**	.21*	.44**	.55**	.10	.33**	.83					
10. Work adjustment T2	4.35	.81	.08	.21*	.36**	.17	.33**	.20	.59**	.56**	.18	.92				
11. Non-work adjustment T2	4.17	.73	.08	.33**	.32**	.07	.51**	.44**	.49**	.70**	.45**	.67**	.88			
12. Interaction adjustment T2	4.16	.76	.17	.31**	.26**	.12	.37**	.47**	.26*	.36**	.69**	.14	.46**	.84		
13. Intention to leave T1	1.78	1.07	-.07	-.25**	-.30**	.00	-.50**	-.39**	-.24**	-.35**	-.18*	-.40**	-.45**	-.29**	.93	
14. Intention to leave T3	1.63	1.63	-.19*	-.18	-.19*	-.00	-.35**	-.38**	-.22*	-.17	-.38**	-.31**	-.31**	-.25*	.46**	.92

Note. $n = 154$. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients are in italics on the diagonal.

a 1 = "less than 5 years", 0 = "more than 5 years". * $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

Hypothesis testing

I conducted an analysis of power using Computing Power and Minimum Sample Size for RMSEA (Preacher & Coffman, 2006) with a null RMSE set at 0.05 and an alternative RMSE set at 0.80. The power to detect a significant deviation from the null model was estimated to be 0.28. The estimated sample size required to achieve the recommended power of 0.8 (Cohen, 1992) would have been $N = 256$. In keeping with this, it is likely that the lack of expected findings in the model can be attributed to a limited sample size ($N = 78$).

A mediation model was specified with the inclusion of three data waves' (T1, T2 and T3) variables for three reasons: to follow a longitudinal logic, to measure change across time and to properly address causality research. Some researchers report longitudinal studies with separation of time between independent variables from dependent variables, however this only reduces common method bias (Cole & Maxwell, 2003). To capture the dynamic nature of the variables and their interrelationships, it is necessary to collect repeated measures over time from the same units of observation (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). This allows variables to be linked over time, and their inter-variable differences can then be used for prediction (Singer & Willett, 2003; Bollen & Curran, 2006).

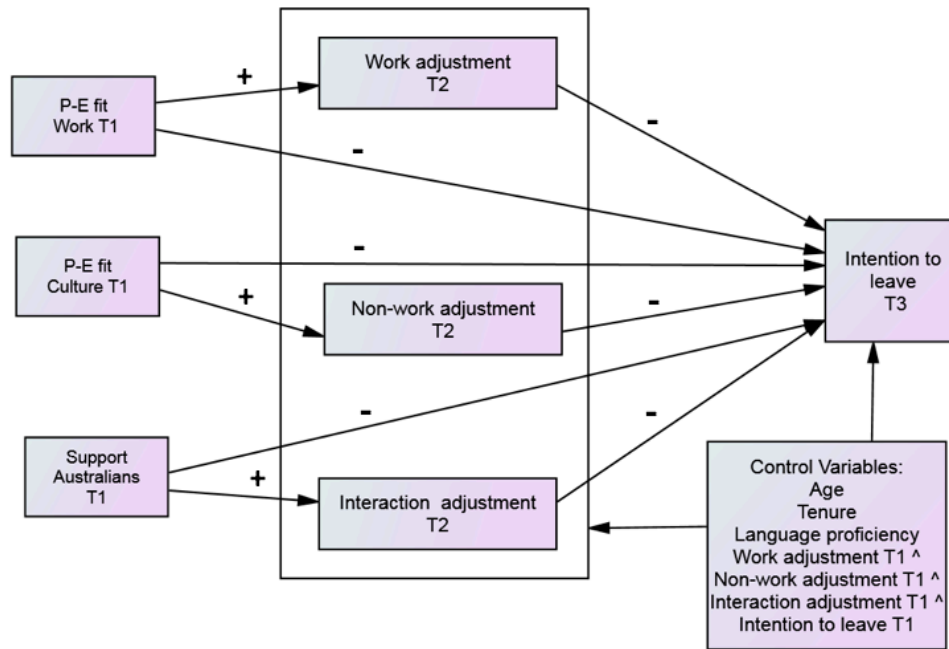


Figure 6. Hypothesised longitudinal mediation model

Note. + = positive relationship; - = negative relationship.

Therefore, to further test the hypotheses, the structural paths were specified as illustrated in Figure 6. Baseline adjustment variables (work adjustment T1, non-work adjustment T1 and interaction adjustment T1) and demographic variables (age, tenure in Australia and English proficiency) were controlled as covariates on their corresponding mediators and simultaneously to the outcome variable.

The significant standardised path coefficients of the model are presented in Figure 7 and are described as follows. First, P-E fit work T1 was not related to T2 work adjustment at ($\beta = -.12$, $p > .05$). This non-significant relationship indicates that regardless of the migrants' levels of fit at work, their work adjustment cannot be predicted by P-E fit work alone (when all other variables are accounted for). In addition, work adjustment at T2 was not related to intention to leave ($\beta = 0.49$, $p > .05$).

Second, perceptions of support provided by Australians at T1 was also not significantly related to interaction adjustment at T2 ($\beta = 0.08, p > .05$). The lack of a significant relationship indicates that migrants' interaction adjustment is not a function of perceived support from host nationals (when all other variables are accounted for). In addition, T2 interaction adjustment was unrelated to T3 intention to leave Australia ($\beta = -.18, p > .05$). In a similar manner to the work-related variables, interaction adjustment does not mediate the relationship between migrants' P-E fit work and intention to leave Australia.

Third, P-E fit culture at T1 was positively related to non-work adjustment at T2. Given that baseline non-work adjustment T1 was controlled in the model, this positive relationship indicates that migrants who had higher fit with Australian culture reported more improvement in their non-work adjustment over time. In turn, non-work adjustment at T2 was negatively related to intention to leave at T3. Having controlled for intention to leave at T1, this negative relationship shows that by increasing migrants' non-work adjustment levels, their intention to leave Australia is significantly reduced.

Given that only the non-working variables were significant, Hypothesis 2 is therefore supported and Hypothesis 4 is partially supported (in the non-work domain). Because the work and support variables were not shown to be significant, Hypotheses 1 and 3 are rejected in this study. The effects of the controlled covariates are summarised in Table 8.

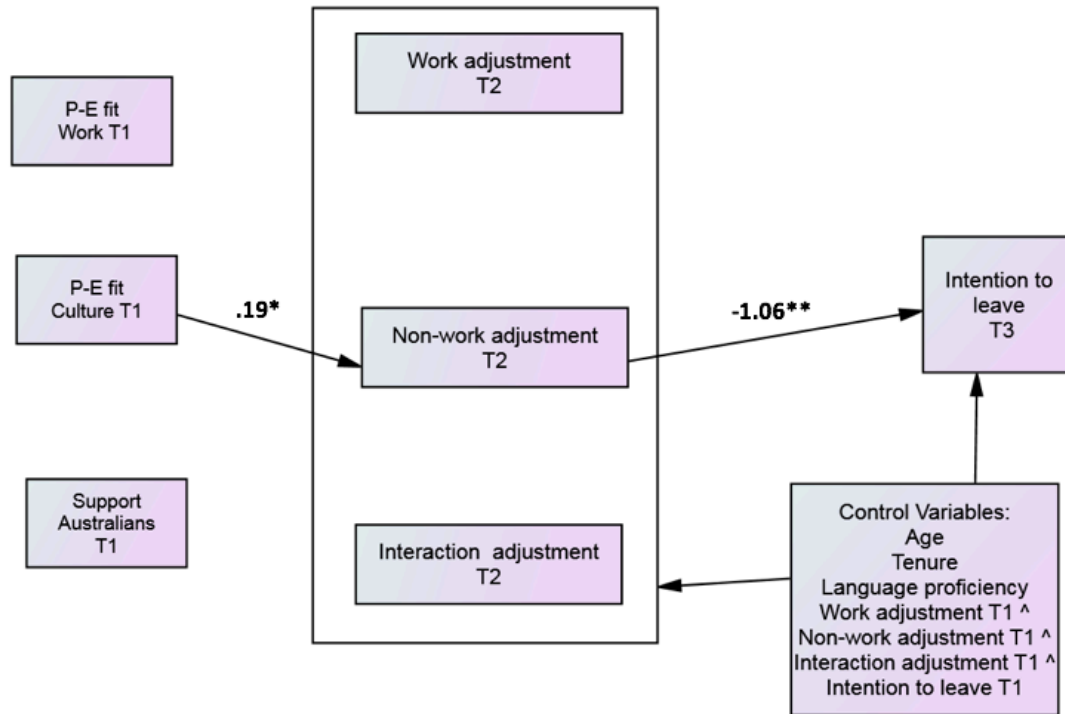


Figure 7. Significant standardised path coefficients in the mediation model

Note. Only significant paths are reported. For the purpose of brevity, standardised path coefficients for the control variables are shown in Table 8. ^ = controlled only to their corresponding mediator.

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

Table 8. *Standardised Path Coefficients for Control Variables on Mediators and Outcome Variables in the Mediation Model.*

Control variable	Mediators			Outcome
	Work adjustment	Non-work adjustment	Interaction adjustment	Intention to leave
	T2	T2	T2	T3
Age	.00	-.00	.00	-.02
Tenure	-.30	.03	-.10	-.30
Language proficiency	.50	.21	.01	.05
Work adjustment T1	.48**	^	^	.00
Non-work adjustment T1	^	.60**	^	.60*
Interaction adjustment T1	^	^	.66**	-.18
Intention to leave T1	-.19**	-.12	-.12	.23

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$; ^ = no path was drawn.

Testing indirect effects

The hypothesised indirect effects were tested by obtaining confidence intervals (CI) using a bootstrap approach. Table 9 shows the 95% bootstrap (CI) obtained from 1,000 bootstrapped samples. In line with the previously reported results, work adjustment did not mediate the relationship between migrants' P-E fit work and intention to leave Australia, and similarly, interaction adjustment did not mediate the relationship between migrants' P-E fit work and intention to leave Australia. With this longitudinal data Hypotheses 1 and 3 were rejected, and Hypothesis 4 was only partially supported; bootstrapped results partially supported Hypothesis 5 by showing that the negative relationship between migrants' P-E fit culture and intention to leave Australia is fully mediated by migrants' non-work adjustment. The longitudinal model accounted for 38% of the variance in work adjustment, 62% of the variance in non-work adjustment, 52% of changes in interaction adjustment, and 55% of the variance in the migrants' ratings of intention to leave.

Table 9. *Unstandardised Bootstrap Confidence Intervals for the Indirect Effects*

Predictor	Mediator	Estimate	Intention to leave T3
			95% CI (PB)
P-E fit work T1	Work adjustment T2	-.01	[-.257, 0.137]
P-E fit culture T1	Non-work adjustment T2	-.20	[-.607, -.006]
Support Australians T1	Interaction adjustment T2	0.003	[-.082, 0.133]

Note. Unstandardised estimates are reported. CI = Confidence Intervals; PB = Percentile bootstrap.

Part One: Discussion

This first set of results tested the proposed model based on the TWA using longitudinal data collected from Mexican skilled migrants residing in Australia. The hypothesised model proposed that work, non-work, and interaction adjustments mediated the relationship between migrants' P-E fit work, P-E fit culture, and support from Australians with their intention to leave the country. The data showed support for the mediation effects of non-work adjustment in the relationship between P-E fit culture and intention to leave. The findings for work and support variables, meanwhile, were contrary to expectations and did not support the mediation models proposed by the TWA.

This lack of significant results could be due to a combination of factors. First, although there is no consensus on the implications of sample size in the use of Path analysis and SEM techniques (Weston & Gore, 2006), there is agreement that small samples may not hold enough statistical power to identify significant results (Schafer & Graham, 2002). Kline (1998) suggested that 10 to 20 participants per estimated parameter would suffice. Following this guideline, the longitudinal model including demographic and baseline variables would have needed to estimate at least 28 parameters and have had a sample higher than 280 across time. Despite all efforts to maintain a high level of respondents across the whole study, the final number of participants in the panel data (74) was rather small. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that there were significant results for the non-work domain.

Moreover, since individuals interact with many types of environments (e.g., work, home, and social life; Lofquist & Dawis [1991]), it is virtually impossible to consider them all as having an equal level of importance in individuals' lives (Glatzer, 1991). The scale used to measure adjustment assigned equal weights to all environmental factors, therefore preventing the capturing

of these differences. As Hippler, Caligiuri, Johnson, and Baytalskaya (2014) have determined, “it is the interaction between degree of adjustment to a particular facet and degree of importance of this facet that influences more distal outcomes” (p. 1941). Perhaps, migrants in this sample found the non-working environment to be more salient than the work environment, thus registering enough variance to allow prediction of non-work adjustment and intention to leave values, but not enough to detect work adjustment or interaction adjustment and their influence on intention to leave.

A second reason for a lack of significant results could relate to multicollinearity (Weston & Gore, 2006). It is possible that in the light of a small sample, P-E fit culture made P-E fit work redundant, and therefore an accurate estimate of the relationship between P-E fit work and work adjustment could not be calculated. In addition, the high bivariate correlation between baseline work adjustment T1 and work adjustment T2 suggests possible multicollinearity, thus having the same redundancy effect (Kline, 2005).

A third reason could be related to the characteristics of the sample participants, especially in relation to cultural values. Despite the vast amount of research on the accepted assumption that adjustment acts as a mediator (M. Wang & Takeuchi, 2007), most of this research has been conducted with students and expatriates within the academic or the international working environments, leaving a limited number of studies that have examined this phenomenon in migrants working within local host contexts.

Further, research in this area has mostly focussed either on Western expatriate samples such as Americans or Europeans adjusting to Eastern countries (e.g., Jenkins & Mockaitis, 2010; Kirkman, Chen, Kim, & Farh, 2010; Peltokorpi, 2008; Searle & Ward, 1990) or vice versa, where Eastern student populations find themselves adjusting to Western nations (e.g., Li & Gasser, 2005;

Toyokawa & Toyokawa, 2002). Apart from exploratory or qualitative studies with Latinos in the United States (Eggerth & Flynn, 2011; Shtivelband, 2014), Latin Americans have either been neglected in sampling or the sample size has been so small that it has not accounted for cultural differences, thus lacking both representation and cross-culturally validated application of the TWA's principles. Since this study's sample was comprised solely of Mexican migrants, it is possible that the relationship between P-E fit work with work adjustment and with intention to leave related to spill-over effects of fit with the specific cultural and demographic factors of the host country. For instance, if the prevailing culture's value is to be laid-back, migrants whose values are a good fit may adjust better in both work and non-work domains than migrants who do not identify with this value. This lack of fit with the culture in the latter group may in turn block adjustment, the mechanism underlying migrants' intention to leave, a possibility which is followed up in Part Two of the current chapter.

The non-significant path coefficient between perceived support from Australians and interaction adjustment at a later date may be attributed to several factors. One relates to the conditions in which support from Australians was provided. In his contact hypothesis, Allport (1954) argued that not all situations are either sufficient or appropriate for inter-group interaction, as in certain circumstances these interactions might be harmful and create social exclusion by accentuating stereotypes associated with the out group. Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) report that the best conditions for successful inter-group interactions involve positive contact with several members of both groups, common goals, cooperation, and equal status. Thus, while some migrants may have reported high support provided specifically from just one Australian, other migrants could have reported low support provided by several Australians. Recalling participants' responses

from Chapter Four, in which migrants reported struggles to form friendships and build close ties with locals, we can see this pattern exemplified.

Skilled migrants could also have had high levels of interaction with a very diverse group of individuals or migrants from countries other than Mexico and not exclusively socialised in groups of host nationals. These findings are in concordance with Mantai (2017), who found among a sample of international doctoral students in Australia that students who were not of an Australian or New Zealander background had success in building social ties and support networks with other international students, but difficulty in socialisation with Australian nationals, who they perceived to be disinterested in forming relationships with them.

This significant full mediation of non-work adjustment in the P-E fit culture and intention to leave supports the contention of the TWA that “the achievement by an individual of correspondence in his or her environment results in adjustment, that is, satisfaction by an individual and satisfactoriness of the individual” (Lofquist & Dawis, 1991, p. 37). Migrants fitting with Australian culture at T1 would naturally have experienced more familiarity with performing tasks necessary to navigate daily life in the country, thus reporting higher levels of non-work adjustment over time. The increased adjustment in the non-work domain may have enabled migrants to develop an understanding of Australian daily life practices and local cultures, as well as to acquire or master the skills necessary for effective adjustment to the new host environment. These results reiterate those from Nolan and Morley (2014), who were able to predict levels of non-work adjustment in a sample of expatriate doctors in Ireland by analysing their perceptions of good fit. The results of this study confirm, as did those of Morley, Heraty, and Collings (2006), that by looking at the fit of individuals and their environment on international assignments, it may be feasible to make predictions regarding the level of general adjustment involved in international

mobility. This in turn provides strong support for the application of the TWA to an understanding of skilled migrants' adjustment.

The anticipated negative relationship between non-work adjustment and intention to leave found in this study echoes the expatriate literature, which has reported premature returns from international assignments as the result of individuals failing to adjust (e.g., Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005; M. Wang & Takeuchi, 2007; X. Wang & Jordache, 2005). It is noteworthy that skilled migrants, who, unlike expatriates are not provided with relocation plans by a hosting organisation (such plans make it simpler for the expatriate to leave), still seem to report higher intention to leave. These results are contrary to migration literature, which sustains that migrants lacking fit can be forced to adjust to their new host country and even remain there long-term because of a lack of employment opportunities or austere political or social circumstances in their place of origin (Elliott, 2011; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). Skilled migrants, contrary to these less-skilled migrant samples, might perceive possible misfit as an unnecessary 'cost' of re-settling (Van Vianen et al., 2004). This is because skilled migrants possess levels of credentials and skills that can be of use in other countries, skills which may lead, when applied in another context, to a better overall fit or a more promising long-term opportunity (Vance, 2005). Overall, the mechanism via non-work adjustment was one of the major contributors to skilled migrants' intention to leave. The current study demonstrates the advantage of testing the TWA in a hitherto unexplored migrant group, integrating the measurement of P-E fit culture as antecedents for skilled migrants' outcomes.

Part Two: Post-Hoc

Testing for moderation effects

In light of the lack of an observable relationship between P-E fit work T1 and work adjustment T2, the significant correlation between P-E fit non-work T1 and work adjustment T2

(Table 7) suggested the possibility that the fit variables might be acting as moderators of each other's effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986), since correlations are one of the assumptions of moderators. Scholars such as Takeuchi et al. (2002) have explored the spill-over effects of work and non-work variables on satisfaction outcomes. The authors found that expatriates' non-work variables (e.g., cross-cultural understanding) contributed to the predictions of overall job satisfaction. In the context of the TWA, moderation effects in the observed relationship among the theory's variables are considered. Proposition VI of the TWA (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) refers to the moderating effect of satisfaction in the relationship between satisfactoriness and ability requirements; Proposition V states that satisfactoriness is a moderator of the relationship between satisfaction and value-reinforcer correspondence (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), or as stated in Swanson and Schneider (2013, p. 31), 'prediction of a person's satisfactoriness is moderated by his or her satisfaction'.

While fitting with another country's set of values has not been directly studied in the TWA framework, Fitzgerald and Rounds (1993), Rounds and Hesketh (1994) and Tinsley (1993) have proposed the addition of cultural variables as moderators predicting the TWA outcomes. For example, Rounds and Hesketh (1994) investigated the influence of group status discrimination (e.g., ethnicity, sexual orientation or gender) both as mediator and moderator predicting work satisfaction. The authors found that the perception of discrimination was a significant moderator of the relationship between fit variables and tenure, thus concluding that the prediction of this relationship would be more difficult in the presence of discriminatory practices in the workplace. It is possible that over time, fitting with the culture may facilitate the effect of skilled migrants' alignment with their working environment, and likewise, fitting at work may increase the positive effect of fitting with the culture. Therefore, it was hypothesised that:

H7: The effect of P-E fit work on work adjustment will be moderated by P-E fit culture in that P-E fit work will only have a positive effect for those who also have high P-E fit culture.

H8: The effect of P-E fit culture on non-work adjustment will be moderated by P-E fit work in that P-E fit culture will have a stronger positive effect for those who also have high P-E fit work.

Hierarchical multiple regression, run in SPSS, was used to test the hypotheses, and interactive terms were created by multiplying the standardised scores of the fit variables. Since the pathway between support and adjustment has been well established in the expatriate literature, and additionally since support is not part of the TWA framework, I found no obvious reason to further explore that relationship in terms of potential moderators.

Part Two: Results

Results of the hierarchical multiple regressions analyses presented in Table 10 show that T1 P-E fit work was moderated by T1 P-E fit culture in predicting work adjustment at T2. To explore the form of the significant interaction effects, predicted values for T2 work adjustment were plotted for low (-1 SD from the mean) and high (1 SD from the mean) values of P-E fit work and with culture. Tests of the significance of simple slopes were conducted using procedures described in Aiken and West (1991). As illustrated in Figure 8, the results revealed a significant positive relationship between P-E fit work and work adjustment only when skilled migrants had high levels of P-E fit culture ($t = 2.15, p < .05$), unlike those with low P-E fit culture ($t = -.78, p > .050$). Hypothesis 7 is thus supported.

Likewise, T1 P-E fit culture was moderated by T1 P-E fit work in predicting non-work adjustment at T2. The post-hoc test of the significance of simple slopes (Figure 9) revealed that the

relationship between P-E fit culture and non-work adjustment is stronger for those individuals with higher P-E fit work, $t = 5.62$, $p < .001$ than for those with lower P-E fit work, $t = 2.19$, $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 8 is thus supported.

Table 10. *Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses of P-E fit work T1, at Non-work T1 and Support from Australian on Adjustment T1, Moderator Variables, and Their Interactions*

Variable	Model R	Model R^2	ΔR^2	F (ch) df	B	SE B	β
Outcome: Work adjustment T2							
Step 1: P-E fit work T1	.35	.12	.10	5.46 (2, 78) **	.09	.08	.11
P-E fit culture T1 ^m					.25	.08	.31**
Step 2: P-E fit work T1	.40	.16	.13	3.91 (1, 77) *	.07	.08	.09
P-E fit culture T1					.27	.08	.33**
P-E fit work X P-E fit with Culture					.17	.09	.20*
Outcome: Non-work adjustment T2							
Step 1: P-E fit culture	.51	.26	.24	14.73 (2, 82)**	.38	.07	.51**
P-E fit work ^m					-.01	.07	-.02
Step 2: P-E fit culture	.57	.33	.31	8.71 (1, 81)**	.40	.06	.54**
P-E fit work					-.03	.06	-.04
P-E fit work X P-E fit with culture					.21	.07	.27**

Note. $n = 154$, unstandardised estimates are reported.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$. T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2.

^m = moderator in the equation.

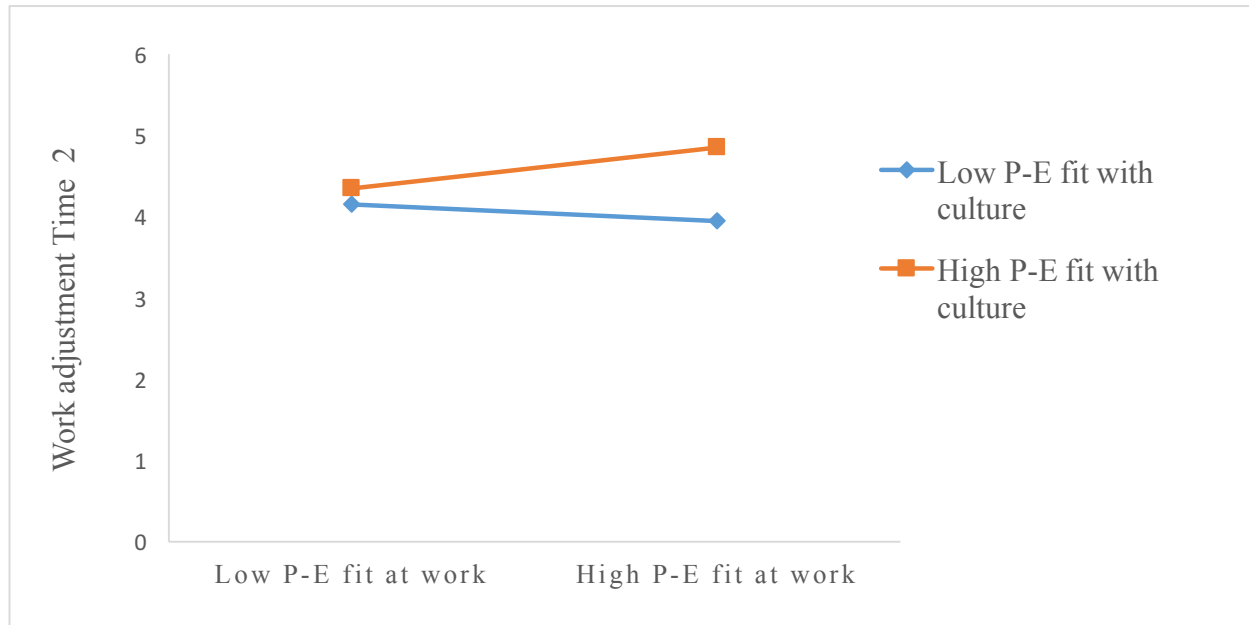


Figure 8. Interaction effect P-E fit work on work adjustment Time 2 at high and low levels (± 1 SD) of P-E fit culture.

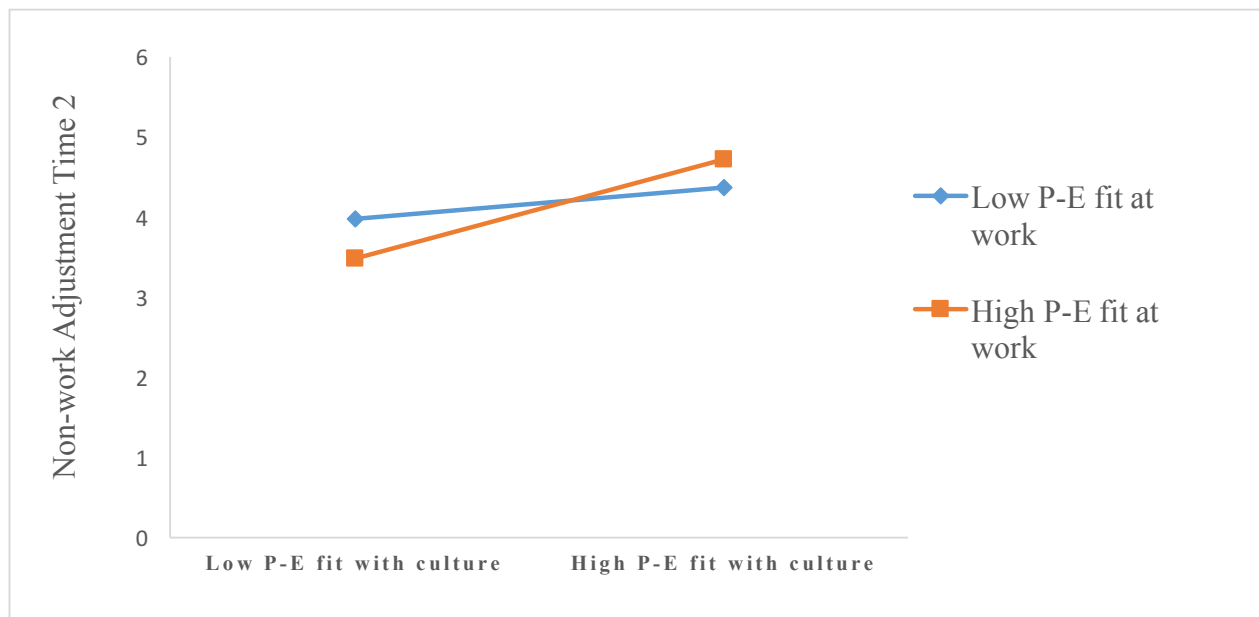


Figure 9. Interaction effect P-E fit culture on non-work adjustment Time 2 at high and low levels (± 1 SD) of P-E fit work

Part Two: Discussion

Perhaps the most important contribution of this study lies in the post-hoc test reported above, which found an alternative explanation for the non-significant relationship between P-E fit work and work adjustment. In recent years, expatriate literature has adopted Black's (1988) adjustment concept, and has thus expounded the idea that levels of expatriates' fit can themselves predict international assignment adjustment (such as that proposed in Part One). However, the post-hoc finding of P-E fit work, which predicted work adjustment only in the presence of high fit with the host country, reveals yet another aspect that aligns with the TWA, and clarifies the importance of incorporating both culture fit and work fit in understanding adjustment.

In the context of international mobility, congruence between skilled migrants' abilities and the demands of a job and the perception of good N-S fit at work was not a sufficient antecedent for higher levels of skilled migrants' psychological comfort, familiarity and performance expectations in the new country's work environment. This post-hoc analysis aligned with the original propositions within the TWA stating that P-E fit moderates the relationship between fit variables and the TWA outcomes (Dawis & Lofquist, 1993; Martin Jr & Swartz-Kulstad, 2000). Further, these post-hoc results also echo later investigations of the TWA models (Fitzgerald & Rounds, 1993; Rounds & Hesketh, 1994; Tinsley, 2000). By hypothesising that fit at work alone would not necessarily predict adjustment and that culture fit would be a factor, this study, using a sample that was different to that favoured in expatriate studies, aims to address methodological limitations in the existing literature. As such, it adds to the growing body of research extending the applicability of the TWA with diverse populations, such as Latino and Black migrants in the United States and LGBT populations (Eggerth, 2008; Eggerth & Flynn, 2011; Lyons, 2003; Velez & Moradi, 2012).

These findings also demonstrate the spill-over effects of both work and non-work environments in the skilled migrant's life. The work-family conflict literature has a long history of research into how the events of daily life affect work and vice versa (Kraimer et al., 2001; Lazarova et al., 2010). When the demands of one environment are incompatible with demands in another, the conflict can have effects on the satisfactoriness of one or both environments (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Kopelman, Greenhaus, Connolly, Greenhaus, & Kopelman, 1983).

Limitations and Implications of This Study

Although the findings of this study contribute new knowledge to the existing migration literature, the inherent strengths should be viewed alongside its limitations. In particular, the sample size was rather small, therefore limiting the statistical power required to identify significant results (Hair, Anderson, et al., 1998). The fact that statistically-significant relationships were found suggests that this was not a major problem in this study, at least for the relationships with non-work adjustment and intention to leave, although I acknowledge that low power means that there may have been other existing relationships that were potentially too weak to be detected.

To ensure enough variance for all the relationships present in the model (work and support with adjustment), future studies may need to secure larger migrant samples, which may be difficult to achieve without extending the sampling to skilled migrants other than Mexican nationals in Australia. This would help address another key limitation, that of generalisability, by widening the findings to more than one country group. Further limitations related to the inability of this study to measure personality variables that might impact on adjustment, such as flexibility (Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003) and cultural empathy (Earley & Ang, 2003), and the emphasis on support from locals,

which may not account for the varied forms of support and interactions available in a multicultural society. Both of these limitations will be discussed in more depth in Chapter Seven.

The results show that the understanding of a migrant population's adjustment is more complex than direct relationships suggest. The mediation results echoed migrant and expatriate literature (e.g., Wang & Takeuchi, 2007) confirming the centrality of migrants' adjustments as process variables during the migration to and settling into a foreign country. The post-hoc findings contribute towards a better understanding of the roles of P-E fit work and P-E fit culture, as well as adjustment and its operational capability on the success of international mobility.

This study is significant for advancing conceptual models of migrants' adjustment. It is especially relevant to those interested in extending the cross-cultural application of the TWA (Dawis et al., 1964; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) to populations beyond Western samples adjusting to international assignments (Rose et al., 2010; M. Wang & Takeuchi, 2007) and Asian students (Li & Gasser, 2005) adjusting to international education. As advised by Tinsley (1993), and tested by Rounds and Hesketh (1994), it is recommended that cultural variables are taken into account before assessing the relations between correspondence, satisfaction, and satisfactoriness, because of their potential impact on the relationships present in the TWA.

Conclusion

In this chapter I have discussed the implications of the results gleaned from the longitudinal data, and proposed a more comprehensive model for explaining the mechanisms by which adjustment operates. The conclusion drawn was that non-work adjustment is the mechanism by which P-E fit culture and intention to leave operate, confirming the mediation proposed in the TWA. The post-hoc analysis further confirmed the importance of including both work and non-work environments, since it is only when high levels of P-E fit culture are present that P-E fit work

predicts work adjustment. In the following chapter, I will expand this discussion to analyse how adjustment operates over time.

Chapter 6: Mexican Adjustment Trends Over Time

In Chapter Four, cross-sectional results examining the proposed model showed the importance of considering adjustment in both work and non-work domains for skilled migrants. The longitudinal results presented in Chapter Five showed that adjustment is the mechanism by which skilled migrants' fit with culture predicts intention to leave Australia, and that adjustment at one point in time is related to later intention to leave. Using the same data collected at three equidistant points in time (T1, T2 and T3) across a one-year period, this chapter tests the dynamic aspect of adjustment, which unfolds and varies over time.

Since adjustment is likely to improve over time in a host country (Dawis & Lofquist, 1978), in this chapter I test Hypothesis 6 which proposes that, during the period of this study, skilled migrants' adjustment types (work, non-work and interaction) would follow a positive linear trajectory, increasing over time spent living in Australia. Given the relatively short period of the study and because of the potential for ceiling effects in the measures, I expect that initial levels for each of the skilled migrant's adjustment types (the intercepts) will be negatively related to speed of change in their corresponding adjustment types (slopes), in that skilled migrants with higher initial adjustment will experience a slower subsequent increase over time.

This chapter tests for the predictors and outcomes of the three types of adjustments as hypothesised in the proposed model, but captured over longer term trajectories. This chapter will also briefly examine the trajectories of both P-E fit work and with culture as an exploratory comparison with the work and non-work trajectories. Although it might be expected that adjustment improves as fit increases (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), it is proposed that different adjustment types may not increase at the same rate.

Past Research on Trajectories of Change on Similar Populations

Right after Dawis and Lofquist published the TWA, the authors started formulating work adjustment as a dynamic process that unfolds as a function of tenure in the environment (Dawis, 2005). By looking at adjustment over time, it was possible to develop the theory in more complex ways and extract new knowledge of how individuals change and perform over time (Ployhart, Holtz, & Bliese, 2002).

The adjustment literature has long followed the ‘U-curve model,’ which sustains that adjustment follows a U-curve shape that passes through four stages (‘honeymoon,’ ‘culture shock,’ ‘adjustment,’ and ‘mastery’). These stages move through the initial excitement of being exposed to a new culture, followed by a dip when encountering difficulties with regards to cultural differences, and ending with a recovery stage in which individuals are capable of managing and mastering the new culture (Torbiorn, 1982). The adjustment and culture-shock literature has relied heavily on this model despite the common criticism that it focuses on too many intrapersonal variables, thereby muting the importance of the interpersonal variables related to international adjustment (Arthur, 1997).

More recently, newer studies have been reconsidering the expected shape and have proposed and found models that suggest linear growth. Although there are only a few of these studies, they are tapping into explaining the why, how and when of changes in adjustment and of similar variables such as job satisfaction, which have unique influences on turnover decisions. (Chen, Ployhart, Cooper-Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011).

In fact, researchers are more recently exploring these changes over time using latent growth curve modeling. For example, with monthly data collections over 9 months in a study with expatriates, Zhu, Wanberg, Harrison, and Diehn (2016) found positive growth over time, with

adjustment beginning to level off on average at approximately 6 months. Furthermore, expatriates who had previous work experience in the host country started with a higher initial adjustment than individuals without such experience, and had flatter growth trends over time. They discovered that those expatriates who adjusted faster to work were less likely to have strong turnover intentions.

Longitudinal research with international students has reported a similar positive linear growth in adjustment. For example, Hechanova-Alampay, Beehr, Christiansen, and Horn (2002) explored the predictors of this linear growth and found that high levels of self-efficacy were related positively to initial levels of adjustment. Chen, Ployhart, Cooper-Thomas, Anderson, and Bliese (2011) were also interested in temporal changes in job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Their results showed that the changes over time in job satisfaction related to the changes in turnover intentions over time, thus they concluded that systematic change over time in one variable can also predict changes in other variables. They further also showed that the rate in which turnover intentions increased was able to predict actual objective turnover.

Given that newcomers, expatriates and international students are exposed to cross-cultural contexts when moving overseas, we can expect that migrants are also likely to follow a similar trajectory of adjustment, improving in a positive direction over time in a host country. As a result, we proposed Hypothesis 6 stating that that during the period of this study:

H6: Skilled migrant adjustment (work, non-work and interaction) will increase in a positive direction across time.

Method

Participants

The participant profile for the Mexican migrants who responded at Time 1, Time 2 and Time 3 ($N = 154$) is described in full in Chapter Three.

The variables reported in this chapter are also described in Chapter Three:

P-E fit. The two types of P-E fit (at work and with culture) were assessed at each of Times 1, 2 and 3.

Adjustment. The three types of adjustment (work, non-work and interaction adjustment) were assessed at each of Times 1, 2 and 3.

Outcome. Intention to leave measured at Time 3 and its corresponding baseline collected at Time 1 was used as a control.

Control variables. Tenure in Australia and language proficiency (assessed at Time 1) were included as control variables, as both had shown relevance to adjustment in previous expatriate literature (e.g., Florsheim, 1997; Lebrun, 2012; Peltokorpi, 2008; Salant & Lauderdale, 2003; Zlobina et al., 2006).

Data analysis procedure

Adjustment trajectories were estimated with growth curve modelling, which refers to the methods used for the estimation of inter-individual variability allocated in intra-individual trajectories of change, or as Curran, Obeidat, and Losardo (2010) explain, “growth models attempt to estimate between-person differences in within-person change” (p. 2). In recent literature, analysis of longitudinal data has become increasingly complex (e.g., Curran & Hussong, 2003; Lance, Vandenberg, & Self, 2000; Way, Reddy, & Rhodes, 2007), with researchers choosing a number of different methods. However, it should be noted that no single procedure has proven

definitive, since selection of method is closely dictated by the exigencies of different research questions (Duncan & Duncan, 2009). Traditionally, analysis of repeated measures data (e.g., analysis of variance and multivariate analysis of variance) is based on a static representation of the variable, which relies on mean changes for its significance. Naturally, this means that the differences among individuals are left as error variances, excluding the capacity of these variances to give valuable information about change (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010).

Linear Growth Model (LGM) has increasingly been used in psychology research as an analytical framework useful for the understanding of growth trajectories (e.g., Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, & Stinglhamber, 2005; Chan & Schmitt, 2000). The use of LGM for the understanding of skilled migrants' trajectories provides several advantages over more traditional models. First, it allows the use of partially missing data, which are inevitable when conducting longitudinal research (Schafer & Graham, 2002). Second, it allows the researcher to test the adequacy of the hypothesised growth form (Duncan & Duncan, 2004). If, for example, the adjustment trajectories are represented by several straight lines for the skilled migrants' sample, the results should show individual differences in the initial adjustment levels (intercept) and the rate of change (slopes) of those straight lines. Third, LGM is flexible with non-normally distributed repeated measures, allowing the researcher to correct for errors in the observed variables (Duncan & Duncan, 2009). Fourth, LGM permits multivariate growth modelling (McArdle, 1988; Meredith & Tisak, 1990). This is important because it allows the researcher to assess trends of several constructs simultaneously, in order to further map the relationship between the intercepts and the slopes within and across constructs (Y. Liu, Mo, Song, & Wang, 2016; Song, Liu, Shi, & Wang, 2017). For example, it is possible that skilled migrants with positive work adjustment trends are likely to also experience positive non-work adjustment trends. This method captures such a

correlation that was further tested in this chapter. Finally, LGM enables the researcher to fit conditional growth models that examine covariates, which can have a significant effect on the rate of change (Curran et al., 2010). This last point was necessary in the present study for the testing of predictors (e.g., P-E fit work) of adjustment trends, as well as for their outcome (intention to leave).

Assessing trajectories, or individual change over time, requires at least three waves of data (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010). Because measurement equivalence for each adjustment variable has been established (see Chapter Five), latent growth curve modelling is justified. As Chan (1998) explains, the construct that individuals are being measured on maintains the same precision across time, thus enabling meaningful direct interpretations in the analysis of individuals' trajectories. For the purposes of this analysis, outlier screening and missing data were previously determined in the data set; for more detailed information, refer to Chapter Five in the 'data analysis procedure' section. The LGM analyses presented in this chapter involved four steps: best model fitting, latent factors correlating, fitting conditional latent growth models including predictors, and conditional models including outcome of trajectories. All steps were performed in the statistical package MPlus Version 7.4 (L. K. Muthén & Muthén, 2015) under FIML (Meredith & Tisak, 1990). As Muthén, Kaplan, and Hollis (1987) suggest, this method accommodates the appropriate handling of missing data in latent variable frameworks.

First, I determined the basic form of growth trajectory for each adjustment type following latent growth model techniques used in previous organisational research (e.g., Chan & Schmitt, 2000; Song, Liu, Shi, & Wang, 2017). Since there were only three waves of data, the most suitable mathematical model to represent change over time was a linear trajectory (Way et al., 2007). Figure 10 shows a graphical representation of the proposed linear growth model. To establish the most adequate change trajectory in each of the three adjustment variables, the following possible

univariate models were fitted: linear growth model, freely-estimated growth model, and monotonic growth model. In all three of these growth models, the intercept factor loadings were fixed at 1 (Chan, 1998).

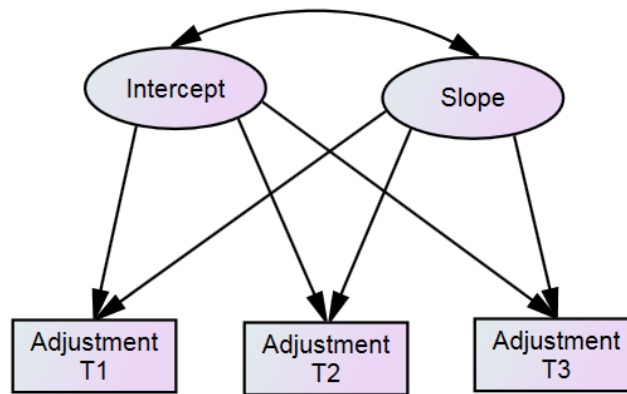


Figure 10. Univariate latent growth model for skilled migrants' adjustment
Adapted from Chan and Schmitt (2000), p. 196.

Note. T1, T2 and T3 = Time point collection.

As recommended by Duncan and Duncan (2009), the loadings of the slope factor for equidistantly collected data were fixed as $[0, 1, 2]$. For the freely-estimated growth model, the last slope factor T3 was not fixed, allowing variations from the linear change trend to be detected and change to be examined (Curran et al., 2010). If the freely-estimated model fit the data better than the linear growth model, the possibility that the latent growth was monotonic was examined. In order to fit the monotonic change model, the factors' loadings on the slope of Time 2 and Time 3 adjustment were set to be the same on the basis of the freely-estimated model. As suggested by Liu et al. (in press), "if the freely-estimated model does not significantly differ from the monotonic

change model in terms of model fit, then the observed reverse of the growth trend is unlikely to be meaningful and the change trend is indeed monotonic” (p. 15).

As LGM follows structural equation modelling (SEM) procedures, interpretation for model fitting was used in this step. The following fit indices were used to assess model fit: the chi-square goodness of fit test, the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), the Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), standardised root mean square residual (SRMR; Bentler, 1995), Akaike information criterion (AIC) (Akaike, 1974), Bayes information criterion (BIC) (Schwarz, 1978), and sample-size adjusted Bayesian information criterion (SSBIC) (Sclove, 1987). Based on these model fit indices, the best fitting growth curve model was selected for each adjustment variable. The next steps of analyses were based on the best-fitted models. Further, due to the small sample size, fitting models for testing predictors of trajectories was performed separately from the trajectories’ outcome models.

The second step estimated the correlations among the latent slopes factors of the three types of adjustment to investigate if changes in one slope were related to changes in the others. Consistent with Liu et al. (2016) and Way et al. (2007), correlation coefficients were estimated by fitting the three best-fitting models simultaneously, which allowed all latent factors to correlate with each other. In the third step, I fitted three univariate conditional models of the relevant adjustment variable (Muthén & Curran, 1997) with predictors as follows: P-E fit work for the intercept and slope of work adjustment, P-E fit culture for the non-work adjustment, and support from Australians for the intercept and slope of interaction adjustment. Direct effects were specified and freely estimated, provided that the growth factor variance had been found to depart significantly from zero in the univariate models (Chan & Schmitt, 2000).

The fourth and last step included regressing Time 3 intention to leave on the latent intercept factors and the latent slope factors of each of the three adjustment variables. These analyses controlled for intention to leave baseline (Time 1), as well as tenure in Australia coded into a bivariate (less than 5 years living in Australia/ 5 or more years in Australia) and English language proficiency measured at Time 1. The final models predicting trajectories of adjustment and the outcomes of trajectories are presented in Figures 11 and 12 respectively. With regard to the P-E fit variables, only Step 1 described above was conducted.

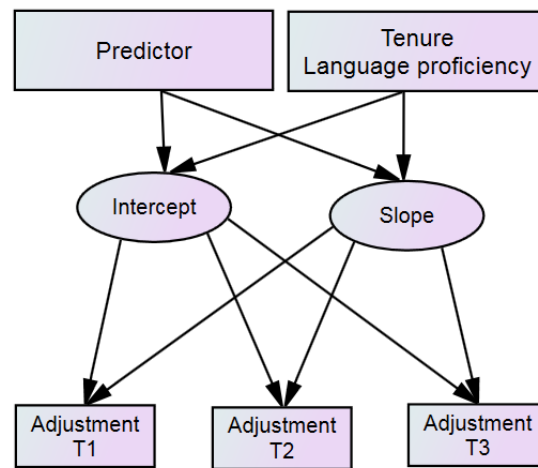


Figure 11. Univariate conditional model for the prediction of latent growth factors for skilled migrants' adjustment

Adapted from Muthén and Curran (1997), p. 375.

Note. T1, T2 and T3 = Time point collection.

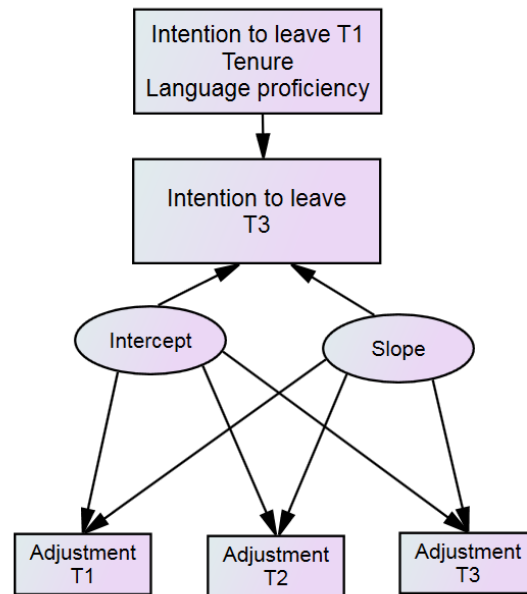


Figure 12. Univariate conditional model for the outcome of latent growth factors for skilled migrants' adjustment

Adapted from Muthén and Curran (1997), p. 378.

Note. T1, T2 and T3 = Time point collection.

Results

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics, zero-order correlations and internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for all variables in the study are reported in Table 11. The coefficients were in the expected direction, enabling hypothesis testing. Results indicated that multicollinearity was not a problem.

The overall observed means of each of the adjustment variables showed an initial increase at Time 2, but there was an unexpected small reduction six months later at Time 3. Correlation values were not so high as to be problematic in terms of their effects on the analysis of trajectories (McArdle & Epstein, 1987). For example work adjustment T1 was mildly associated to work adjustment T2 ($r = .59$, $p > 0.05$) and with T3 ($r = .56$, $p > 0.05$).

The P-E fit variables and support showed low to moderately-high correlations with their three respective Time 3 adjustment variables, used for the analysis of trajectories. Since variables collected in Time 1 and Time 2 have been covered in Chapters Four and Five, they are not discussed here. Overall, the pattern of results provided initial support for testing the hypothesised latent growth models (see Figures 9 to 11).

Table 11. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Alpha Reliabilities in the Current Sample

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Tenure in Australia ^a	-	-	-								
2. Language proficiency	3.74	.46	.31**	-							
3. P-E fit work T1	3.86	1.01	.22*	.17	.90						
4. P-E fit work T2	3.89	.92	.14	.04	.56**	.89					
5. P-E fit work T3	3.86	.87	.13	.02	.49**	.60**	.86				
6. P-E fit culture T1	4.11	.78	.11	.16	.19*	.21*	.19	.88			
7. P-E fit culture T2	4.21	.77	.18	.10	.19	.39**	.20*	.67**	.90		
8. P-E fit culture T3	4.13	.76	.18*	.17	.21*	.20*	.36**	.63**	.74**	.90	
9. Support Australians T1	3.78	.75	.12	.24**	.30**	.01	.10	.49**	.29**	.43**	.92
10. Work Adjustment T1	4.30	.82	.25**	.22*	.45**	.33**	.44**	.21*	.28**	.31**	.24**
11. Work Adjustment T2	4.34	.82	.21*	.36**	.17	.32**	.28**	.33**	.40**	.37**	.20
12. Work Adjustment T3	4.26	.93	.31**	.36**	.23*	.28**	.20*	.36**	.30**	.35**	.34**
13. Non-work Adjustment T1	4.01	.79	.39**	.33**	.27**	.22*	.32**	.39**	.35**	.35**	.39**
14. Non-work Adjustment T2	4.19	.73	.33**	.32**	.07	.16	.07	.51**	.54**	.51**	.44**
15. Non-work Adjustment T3	4.12	.72	.30**	.28**	.25*	.30**	.18	.37**	.37**	.45**	.43**
16. Interaction Adjustment T1	4.01	.81	.22*	.36**	.21*	-.07	.01	.44**	.30**	.41**	.55**
17. Interaction Adjustment T2	4.18	.76	.31**	.26**	.12	.15	.10	.37**	.33**	.36**	.47**
18. Interaction Adjustment T3	4.13	.76	.25**	.17	.30**	.14	.23*	.32**	.31**	.35**	.51**
19. Intention to leave T1	1.78	1.07	-.25**	-.30**	.00	-.09	-.02	-.50**	-.49**	-.38**	-.39**
20. Intention to leave T3	1.65	1.07	-.18	-.19*	-.00	.09	.04	-.35**	-.45**	-.41**	-.38**

continued

Table 11 (continued)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>16</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>19</i>	<i>20</i>
1. Tenure in Australia ^a											
2. Language proficiency											
3. P-E fit work T1											
4. P-E fit work T2											
5. P-E fit work T3											
6. P-E fit culture T1											
7. P-E fit culture T2											
8. P-E fit culture T3											
9. Support Australians T1											
10. Work Adjustment T1	<i>.89</i>										
11. Work Adjustment T2	<i>.59**</i>	<i>.92</i>									
12. Work Adjustment T3	<i>.56**</i>	<i>.58**</i>	<i>.96</i>								
13. Non-work Adjustment T1	<i>.51**</i>	<i>.56**</i>	<i>.52**</i>	<i>.85</i>							
14. Non-work Adjustment T2	<i>.49**</i>	<i>.70**</i>	<i>.56**</i>	<i>.70**</i>	<i>.88</i>						
15. Non-work Adjustment T3	<i>.45**</i>	<i>.56**</i>	<i>.73**</i>	<i>.65**</i>	<i>.68**</i>	<i>.87</i>					
16. Interaction Adjustment T1	<i>.10</i>	<i>.18</i>	<i>.19</i>	<i>.32**</i>	<i>.45**</i>	<i>.37**</i>	<i>.83</i>				
17. Interaction Adjustment T2	<i>.26*</i>	<i>.16</i>	<i>.15</i>	<i>.36**</i>	<i>.44**</i>	<i>.26**</i>	<i>.69**</i>	<i>.84</i>			
18. Interaction Adjustment T3	<i>.19</i>	<i>.19</i>	<i>.16</i>	<i>.26**</i>	<i>.30**</i>	<i>.31**</i>	<i>.58**</i>	<i>.66**</i>	<i>.84</i>		
19. Intention to leave T1	<i>-.24**</i>	<i>-.40**</i>	<i>-.26*</i>	<i>-.35**</i>	<i>-.45**</i>	<i>-.31**</i>	<i>-.18*</i>	<i>-.29**</i>	<i>-.05</i>	<i>.93</i>	
20. Intention to leave T3	<i>-.22*</i>	<i>-.12</i>	<i>-.16</i>	<i>-.17</i>	<i>-.32**</i>	<i>-.23*</i>	<i>-.38**</i>	<i>-.26**</i>	<i>-.18</i>	<i>.46**</i>	<i>.92</i>

Note. $n = 154$. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients are in italics on the diagonal.

* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed. a = Bivariate: Less/more than 5 years living in Australia.

For model testing, I first applied the growth model techniques to the model change in each type of adjustment and selected the best fitting from the three tested models as per Chan and Schmitt (2000). I tested growth models for each type of adjustment, starting with the estimated linear growth model, followed by the freely-estimated growth model. If these two first models differed, I then tested for the monotonic change model. Based on comparison of fit indices and parsimony, I selected the best fitting model from the possible models.

The summary of model fit indices of the three adjustment type latent growth models estimated for skilled migrants is presented in Table 12. Since standardisation equates means and variances, it is impossible to study trajectories using standardised variables (Meredith & Tisak, 1990; Rovine & Von Eye, 1991). Therefore, unstandardised estimates are presented in Table 13 as a summary of the best-fitting growth curves models for the three adjustment variables. Figure 13 displays these growth curves representing estimates of the average true intercepts and slopes for each of the adjustment types (Y. Liu et al., 2016). Figure 15 compares growth curves for the work and non-work fit variables.

Work adjustment growth trajectory. The chi-square difference test for nested model comparisons suggested that the linear growth model had the same fit to the data as the freely-estimated growth model ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 3.29, p > .05$). Despite the fact that the freely-estimated model did not differ from the monotonic change either ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = .197, p > .05$), I considered a monotonic change only if the linear growth model differed from the freely-estimated. In addition, because the linear growth model already provided a good model fit, following the rule of parsimony I retained the linear growth model over the freely-estimated model as the best fitting model to describe the latent growth in work adjustment. According to the model parameter estimates in Table 13 and the plotted trajectory in Figure 13, the slope factor mean was not significant, ($M = -.001, p > .05$). As

shown in the pattern of fitted means (Figure 13), the levels of work adjustment were relatively high in all three time points. Thus, the negligible rate of change in the means across time can most likely be attributed to a ceiling effect due to the rating format used to obtain responses on work adjustment. Ceiling effects can happen when the instrument fails to provide enough categories to capture the variance in favourable responses (Hessling, Traxel, & Schmidt, 2004).

The fact that the variance of the intercept (.69, $p < .01$) and slope (.12, $p < .01$) factors were significantly different from zero (See Table 13), indicates that there were inter-individual differences in the initial status and rate of change of work adjustment. In other words, participants were different in terms of their level of adjustment at the beginning of the study and the rate at which they adjusted to the work environment across the period of this study.

Table 12. Model Comparisons of Latent Growth Curves for the Three Types of Adjustment

	χ^2	DF	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC	SSBIC
Work adjustment									
<i>Linear growth model</i>	<i>3.36</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>0.98</i>	<i>0.97</i>	<i>0.07</i>	<i>0.16</i>	<i>750.75</i>	<i>770.71</i>	<i>748.56</i>
Freely-estimated growth	0.07	1	1.00	1.03	0.00	0.00	748.78	772.37	747.06
Monotonic change model	0.27	2	1.00	1.03	0.00	0.02	746.97	767.61	745.47
Non-work adjustment									
Linear growth model	4.96	2	0.97	0.96	0.09	0.17	725.99	747.34	725.18
Freely-estimated growth	0.61	1	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	723.63	748.03	722.71
<i>Monotonic change model</i>	<i>2.02</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>1.00</i>	<i>1.00</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.09</i>	<i>723.04</i>	<i>744.39</i>	<i>722.23</i>
Interaction adjustment									
<i>Linear growth model</i>	<i>4.41</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>0.98</i>	<i>0.97</i>	<i>0.08</i>	<i>0.14</i>	<i>710.79</i>	<i>731.91</i>	<i>709.75</i>
Freely-estimated growth	0.89	1	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.01	709.27	733.41	708.09
Monotonic change model	2.56	2	0.99	0.99	0.04	0.10	708.94	730.06	707.91

Note. Models with the best model fit were marked in bold and italic. χ^2 = Chi-square, CFI = Comparative fit index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis index, RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation, SRMR = Standardised root mean square residual, AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayes information criterion, SSBIC = Sample-size adjusted Bayesian information criterion.

Non-work adjustment growth trajectory. The results suggest that the freely-estimated model is significantly better than the linear growth model ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.35, p < .05$); also, the freely-estimated model did not significantly differ from the monotonic change model ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 1.41, p > .05$). Therefore, I retained the monotonic change model as the best-fitting model to describe the latent growth in non-work adjustment. According to the model parameter estimates in Table 13 and the plotted trajectory in Figure 13, it appears that non-work adjustment increased over a period of 6 months, but then appeared to plateau.

Table 13. *Summary of Best-Fitted Growth Curves Models for P-E fit and the Three Adjustment types (n = 154)*

Variable	Mean of Intercept	Mean of Slope	Variance of Intercept	Variance of Slope	Cov (I, S)
Work adjustment	4.30**	-.01	0.69**	0.12**	-.16**
Non-work adjustment	4.015**	0.10*	0.62**	0.21**	-.23**
Interaction adjustment	3.99**	0.06*	0.68**	0.09**	-.14**
P-E fit work	3.85**	-.00	1.02**	0.41**	-.44**
P-E fit culture	4.11**	0.05	0.61**	0.27**	-.22**

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Cov (I, S) = the covariance between intercept and slope.

Further, as reported in Table 13, the variances of the intercept factor (.62, $p = .01$) and the slope factor (.21, $p = .01$) were both significantly different from zero, indicating that there were inter-individual differences in both the initial status and the trend across time of non-work adjustment. Lastly, the correlation between the intercept and slope factor for non-work adjustment ($\rho = -.23, p = .01$) was moderate and negative, suggesting that those with greater non-work adjustment at Time 1 tended to have less positive growth in non-work adjustment over time.

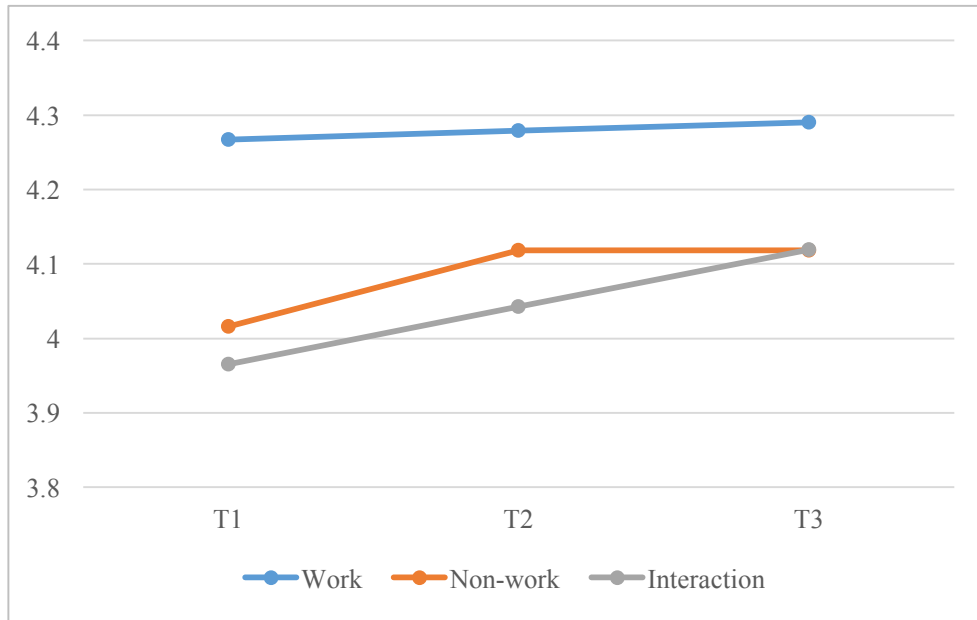


Figure 13. Best-fitted growth curves for the three adjustment types.

Note. T1, T2 and T3 = Time point collection.

Interaction adjustment growth trajectory. The results suggest that the linear growth model had the same fit to the data as the freely-estimated growth model ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 3.51, p > .05$). As with work adjustment, the freely-estimated model did not differ from the monotonic change either ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = .197, p > .05$). Therefore, on the basis of parsimony and fit, the linear growth model was retained over the freely-estimated model as the best fitting model to describe the latent growth in interaction adjustment. By the model parameter estimates in Table 13 and the plotted trajectory in Figure 13 it seems that interaction adjustment increased over the period of this study. The fact that the variance of the intercept factor (.68, $p = .01$) and the slope factor (.09, $p = .01$) were both significantly different from zero indicates that there were inter-individual differences in both the initial status and the change of interaction adjustment. Similar to non-work adjustment, the

correlation between the intercept and slope factors for interaction adjustment was negative and significant ($\phi = -.14$ $p = .01$), indicating that participants who felt better adjusted to interacting and socialising with host nationals at the beginning of this study tended to improve at a slower rate than those who initially perceived themselves to be less socially adjusted.

Overall, these results support Hypothesis 6 for the work and interaction adjustment trajectories, stating that skilled migrants' adjustment would increase in a positive direction across time. Hypothesis 6 was partially supported for the non-work adjustment trajectory, which plateaued after an initial rise. Results in Table 13 further show that acceleration in the three adjustments was faster for those with lower initial levels than for those who began the study already highly adjusted. This supports the hypothesis that initial levels for each of the skilled migrant's adjustment types (the intercepts) would be negatively related to speed of change in their correspondent adjustment types (slopes), that is, skilled migrants with higher (lower) initial adjustment would experience a slower (faster) subsequent increase over time.

However, given that the participants in this study were at different points in their adjustment trajectory due to having arrived in Australia at different times, I conducted two exploratory analyses comparing migrants who had lived for less than a year in the country ($N = 10$) with those who had lived here for more than one year. This was to control for possible differences according to tenure: naturally, those who had just arrived might show different adjustment trajectories to those who had five or ten years in Australia. There were no significant differences between the two groups, although this may have been due to sample size: participants with less than one year living in Australia did show steeper initial changes in most forms of adjustment (see Figure 14).



Figure 14. Exploratory growth curves for the three adjustment types divided by groups: < 1 year living in Australia and > 1 years

Note. W Adj = Work adjustment, NW Adj = Non-work adjustment, Int Adj = Interaction adjustment. T1, T2 and T3 = Time point collection.

P-E fit trajectories

The summary of model fit indices of the two P-E fit latent growth models is presented in Table 14. The chi-square difference test for nested model comparisons suggested that the linear growth model was significantly different to the freely-estimated model ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.64, p < .05$). The freely-estimated model did not differ from the monotonic change ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 4.64, p > .05$). Therefore, on the basis of parsimony and fit, the freely-estimated model was chosen as the best

fitting model to describe the latent growth in P-E fit culture. The comparative plotted trajectories in Figure 15 show that P-E fit work and work adjustment followed a similar linear trajectory, in the sense that they continued to increase during the time of the study.

For P-E fit culture, the chi-square difference test for nested model comparisons suggested that the linear growth model was significantly different to the freely-estimated one ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 10.14$, $p < .01$). Since the freely-estimated model did not differ from the monotonic change ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 0.05$, $p > .05$) and on the basis of parsimony and fit, the freely-estimated model was chosen as the best fitting model. Figure 15 shows that P-E fit culture and non-work adjustment followed a similar trajectory in the sense that it initially increased, then flattened after T2.

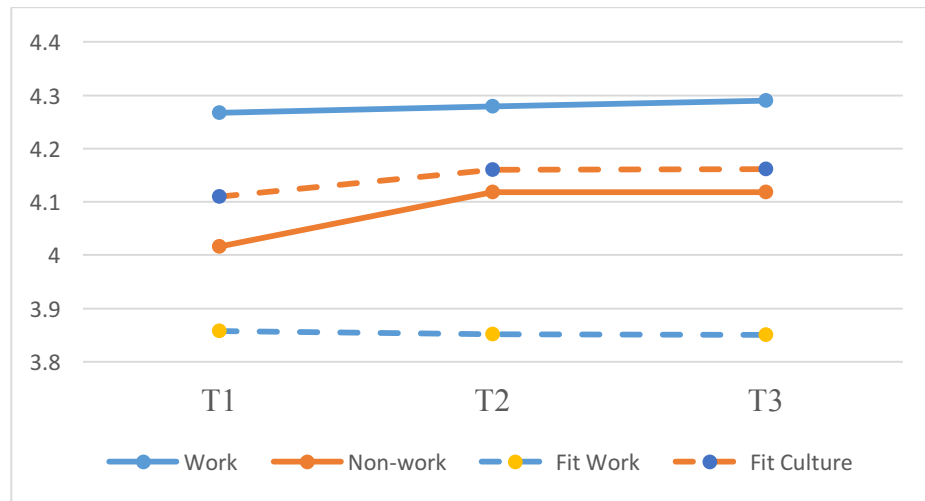


Figure 15. Comparative growth curves for the P-E fit variables (dotted lines) and work and non-work adjustment types (solid lines).

Note. T1, T2 and T3 = Time point collection

Table 14. *Model Comparisons of Latent Growth Curves for the two types of P-E Fit*

	χ^2	DF	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC	BIC	SSBIC
P-E fit work									
Linear growth model	4.64	2	0.96	0.94	0.09	0.15	821.93	842.77	820.62
<i>Freely-estimated growth</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1.00</i>	<i>1.03</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>819.29</i>	<i>843.10</i>	<i>817.79</i>
Monotonic change model	0.73	2	1.00	1.02	0.00	0.05	818.02	838.86	816.71
P-E fit culture									
Linear growth model	11.84	2	0.93	0.90	0.17	0.28	758.14	779.62	757.46
<i>Freely-estimated growth</i>	<i>1.70</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>0.99</i>	<i>0.98</i>	<i>0.06</i>	<i>0.01</i>	<i>750.00</i>	<i>774.55</i>	<i>749.23</i>
Monotonic change model	1.75	2	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.54	748.05	769.53	747.37

Note. Models with the best model fit were marked in bold and italics. χ^2 = Chi-square, CFI = Comparative fit index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis index, RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation, SRMR = Standardised root mean square residual, AIC = Akaike information criterion, BIC = Bayes information criterion, SSBIC = Sample size-adjusted Bayesian information criterion.

Comparing adjustment trajectories

Because the latent factors (intercepts and slopes) of the three adjustment variables showed significant inter-individual variances, it is possible that initial levels and change rate patterns of different types of adjustment could co-vary with each other. Therefore, I estimated the correlations among the latent intercept and slope factors of the best fitting growth models for the three adjustments. As seen in Table 15, initial status of work adjustment was positively related to initial status of non-work adjustment ($\varphi = .38$ $p < .01$), but negatively correlated with the slope factors of both work ($\varphi = -.20$ $p < .01$) and non-work adjustment ($\varphi = -.12$ $p < .01$). Initial status of non-work adjustment was positively related to initial status of interaction adjustment ($\varphi = .24$ $p < .01$). In addition, the slope factor of non-work adjustment was significantly correlated with the slope factor of work adjustment ($\varphi = .11$ $p < .05$) but not with the slope factor of interaction adjustment.

Table 15. *Unstandardised Correlations Among Multivariate Latent Factors of Adjustment Types*

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Work adjustment intercept	.				
2. Non-work adjustment intercept	.38**	.			
3. Interaction adjustment intercept	.10	.24**	.		
4. Work adjustment slope	-.20**	-.02	.00	.	
5. Non-work adjustment slope	-.12**	-.24**	.00	.11**	.
6. Interaction adjustment slope	-.01	-.05	-.14**	.00	.01

Note. $n = 154$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Predictors of skilled migrant adjustment trajectories

To further examine the effect of the significant individual variation in initial status and growth over time on skilled migrants' adjustment types, the intercept and the slope factors of each of the three adjustment types, as per best univariate fitting models discussed above, were regressed on the relevant P-E fit or support variable (see Table 16 for the structural parameter estimates of the direct effects for each control variable and corresponding predictors to the intercepts and slope growth factors). Estimates of the proportion of variance (R^2) for each growth factor accounted for by the predictor were also included (Willett & Sayer, 1994). Because the three adjustment types followed a positive (i.e., increasing) linear trajectory, a positive estimate associated with the predictors and the latent factors in adjustment here indicates a steeper rate of change. A negative association in relation to slopes means a *slower* rate of change.

Previous research on expatriates and migrants (Adler, 1987; Napier & Taylor, 1995) has found that age, gender, prior experience overseas, visa status (e.g., permanent vs. temporary resident) and immigration motivation (e.g., to settle permanently) are related to non-work adjustment (Castles & Miller, 2004; Kirkman et al., 2010; Markus, 2016; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Peltokorpi, 2008; Searle & Ward, 1990). Therefore, analyses that included these additional control variables were conducted to examine whether they had any influence on the adjustment trends. I obtained similar estimates with and without their inclusion in the analysis. Thus, with the aim of increasing statistical power, and to avoid over-fitting the model and therefore causing error due to the inclusion of many covariates (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), final estimates and the results of analyses were controlled solely for tenure in Australia and language proficiency.

After controlling for tenure and language proficiency, the impact of P-E fit work on work adjustment latent factors indicated a medium, positive, significant effect size in the intercept factor

($\phi = .32$ $p < .01$) and a significant, negative, small effect size in the work adjustment change rate ($\phi = -.12$ $p < .01$), suggesting that skilled migrants with higher P-E fit work started with high levels of work adjustment, but had a lower increase in work adjustment over time in comparison to those who started with lower work adjustment levels. This indicates that P-E fit work positively relates to initial levels of work adjustment but negatively relates to the speed of change in skilled migrants' work adjustment.

As shown in Table 16, after considering control variables, there was a significant, positive, medium effect of P-E fit culture on the intercept factor of non-work adjustment ($\phi = .34$; $p < .01$), although there was no significant association between P-E fit culture and speed of change over time ($\phi = .04$; $p > .05$). That is, skilled migrants who had higher P-E fit culture were initially more adjusted to living in Australia. However, fitting with the culture did not affect the rate of increase in their non-work adjustment over time. That is, P-E fit culture was positively related to initial levels of work adjustment, but not to the non-work adjustment trend.

Finally, after controlling for tenure and language proficiency, there was a medium, positive effect from support provided by Australians on the intercept of interaction adjustment ($\phi = .52$; $p < .01$), but no evidence of association between support provided by Australians and rate of increase in interaction adjustment over the time of this study ($\phi = -.05$; $p > .05$). That is, skilled migrants with higher support from Australians were initially better adjusted to interacting with host nationals, but the support provided by Australians did not affect skilled migrants' rate of increase in interaction adjustment over time.

Overall, the associations found between the predictors and the three adjustment variables at initial status (i.e., predictor-intercept associations) were of medium effect size, reflecting the initial cross-sectional results. The inclusion of the set of control and predictors explained the initial

status variance by 22%, 30% and 39% for work, non-work and interaction adjustment respectively. As these percentages show, the set of variables including control and predictors were of close to equal importance in predicting inter-individual differences in initial status across the three adjustments. Conversely, the associations between the set of variables – including predictors and control – and rate of change in the three adjustments (i.e., predictor-slope associations) were significant for work adjustment only, with the variables in the model explaining the variance in rate of change to a similar extent (25%). That is, the group of variables in the work model helped to explain the growth of work adjustment in skilled migrants.

Table 16. *Unstandardised Regression Coefficients for Control Variables and Predictors to Intercept and Slope Growth Factors of Adjustment.*

Predictors	Estimate	SE	R ²
Initial work adjustment ^a			
Tenure	.23	.15	
Language proficiency	.07	.19	
Fit at work T1	.32**	.07	.22**
Work adjustment change ^a			
Tenure	-.10	.09	
Language proficiency	.41**	.13	
Fit at work T1	-.12**	.05	.25*
Initial non-work adjustment ^b			
Tenure	.38**	.11	
Language proficiency	.33**	.13	
Fit with culture T1	.34**	.07	.30**
Non-work adjustment change ^b			
Tenure	-.14	.11	
Language proficiency	.11	.13	
Fit with culture T1	.04	.06	.03
Initial interaction adjustment ^c			
Tenure	.20	.12	
Language proficiency	.50**	.17	
Support from Australians T1	.52**	.08	.39**
Interaction adjustment change ^c			
Tenure	-.04	.06	
Language proficiency	.17	.09	
Support from Australians T1	.05	.04	.10

Note. a: n = 114. b: n = 137. c: n = 123. * p < .05, ** p < .01.

Outcome of skilled migrants' adjustment trajectories

Utilising the best-fitting univariate growth curve models for skilled migrants' adjustment types, I regressed the outcome (intention to leave) on the latent intercepts and latent slopes. Control variables included tenure, language proficiency and baseline intention to leave (Time 1). The work, non-work and interaction models accounted for 25%, 27% and 27% respectively of the total variances on intention to leave at Time 3 of this study.

As reported in Table 17 (unstandardised coefficients), neither work nor non-work adjustment intercepts or slopes were significantly related to intention to leave after controlling for tenure, language proficiency and baseline intention to leave. Further, although the intercept of interaction adjustment was significantly related to skilled migrants' intention to leave in the new country ($\phi = -.33$; $p < .05$), the slope of this adjustment factor was not significantly related to intention to leave.

Table 17. *Unstandardised Regression Coefficients on Intention to Leave in the Linear Models*

Predictors	Estimate	SE	R ²
Work adjustment ^a			
Tenure	-.12	.23	
Language proficiency	-.24	.28	
Intention to leave T1	.50**	.12	
Intercept	1.72	1.19	
Initial status (intercept)	.02	.18	
Change trend (slope)	.31	.48	
Residual	.96**	.14	.25**
Non-work adjustment ^b			
Tenure	-.14	.23	
Language proficiency	-.16	.27	
Intention to leave T1	.41**	.13	
Intercept	3.06*	1.33	
Initial status (intercept)	-.33	.22	
Change trend (slope)	-.86	.51	
Residual	.89**	.15	.27**
Interaction adjustment ^c			
Tenure	-.06	.22	
Language proficiency	-.01	.27	
Intention to leave T1	.48**	.11	
Intercept	2.55*	1.26	
Initial status (intercept)	-.40*	.19	
Change trend (slope)	-.20	.59	
Residual	.89**	.13	.27**

Note. a: n = 120. b: n = 124. c: n = 121. * p < .05, ** p < .01.

Discussion

The primary purpose of this chapter was to report the results of analyses of longitudinal dynamic change in skilled migrant adjustment to international environments over a year-long period. Adjustment was conceptualised and measured based on the three types proposed by Black and Mendenhall (1991): work adjustment, non-work adjustment and interaction adjustment. In

addition, specific antecedents to change trends in the three types of adjustment were specified, as well as one outcome of these three trends. I also examined the P-E fit trajectories.

Change trends of skilled migrants' adjustment

Of the three adjustment trends, both work and interaction adjustment trajectories followed a positive linear growth over time spent in Australia. Conversely, skilled migrants' non-work trajectories showed an increase of their adjustment over the first six months, but then the growth plateaued towards the second half of this study. This finding is at variance with previous migration research, which suggests that socio-cultural adaptation and management of daily life typically has a steady linear improvement with time (Berry, 2005).

In terms of work adjustment, the results demonstrated that although the trajectory showed the expected positive growth, there was only a small improvement over time. The positive work adjustment growth is consistent with the theoretical discussion presented in Chapter Two involving the TWA's assumption of individuals increasing their adjustment as a function of tenure in the environment (Dawis, 2005). This finding is also consistent with results showing similar increases of work adjustment over time in expatriate samples. For example, Zhu, Wanberg, Harrison, and Diehn (2016), who recently surveyed expatriates for nine months after their arrival in the host country, reported that work adjustment grew over the period of the study. Zhu et al. (2016) based their adjustment model on uncertainty reduction theory (Berger & Calabrese, 1975), concluding that expatriates' uncertainty reduced as they learnt to deal with the differences and ambiguities of their new work environment, thereby increasing their adjustment levels over time.

In this study the work adjustment trajectory had only a small improvement over time, therefore having really small effects under guidelines from Cohen (1992). There are two factors that might explain these small increments. First, skilled migrants in this sample started off with

relatively high work adjustment levels on the 5-point scale ($M = 4.30$, $SD = .82$), so the results may reflect a ‘ceiling effect’ (Locke, 1969). Second, it is possible that participants of this study were over-skilled and finding their jobs easy, thus reporting small increments in work adjustment over time. An illustrative example is Participant L, a 32 year-old female, who reported in the qualitative questions in relation to adjusting to work in Australia: *‘The fact that my work experience is overseas, I mean, not in Australia, had meant I’ve had to take on positions with a lot less responsibilities than the positions I used to hold back in Mexico.’* Being a ‘skilled migrant’ implies a predetermined good fit with regard to demands/abilities, since individuals are matched by their skills to their job. This makes it likely that such participants were over-skilled, although the needs/supplies aspect of fit (and hence adjustment) may also not have been good, leading to at least some room for improved adjustment.

Alongside the work adjustment trajectory, the results in relation to the interaction adjustment trend also supported the hypothesised positive growth over time. The positive growth trajectory fits the TWA notion of steadily increasing levels of adjustment as individuals spend time interacting with the environment (Dawis, 2005). The reason for this continuous growth is related to the inherently progressive nature of social interactions. Socialising takes time to develop into networks, through more and more frequent interactions (Clarke, 2005). From the TWA perspective, socialising also depends on skilled migrants’ affiliating personalities and characteristics (e.g., values around friendship, social norms, interaction expectations) corresponding with those from the host nationals. To add to the equation, host nationals also need to show interest in interacting with foreigners in order for relationship to develop (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002). This observation is reflected in qualitative data reported in Chapter Four, as seen in the following interview extract: *“at the beginning making friends, Australians are more reserved than ‘gringos’* [term used in

Mexico to refer to Americans] *but with perseverance they are sweeties and more honest and open than 'gringos'.* Theoretically, these findings are consistent with recent formulations about similar socialisation processes unfolding over time – friendship-building taking a long time both – for migrants (e.g., Vazquez Maggio, 2013; Westcott & Vazquez Maggio, 2015) and expatriates during international assignments (e.g., Farh, Bartol, Shapiro, & Shin, 2010; Zhu et al., 2016)

Interestingly, initial interaction adjustment levels were the lowest of the three adjustment types, but their growth trend was shown to be the steepest. This is consistent with Black et al. (1991), who argue that of the three adjustments, interaction is the most challenging. The results are also similar to those in expatriate adjustment literature (e.g., Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Ravasi, Salamin, & Davoine, 2015), which show interaction adjustment to be the lowest of the three types, albeit in these cases there were only static, cross-sectional measures of adjustment.

In comparison with host nationals, who have set groups of friends, or even expatriates who already have some social networks put in place by their organisations (Kraimer et al., 2001), migrants are in a more disadvantaged position with regard to their socialisation process (Scheff, 2000). Skilled migrants are new members of Australian society who have left most, if not all, of their social resources and networks behind (Barba Ponce, 2013; Portes, 1995). Given these circumstances, it is expected that their initial levels of interaction with locals are likely to be low, therefore resulting in room for improvement in the socialisation sphere over time. This is further demonstrated by expatriate studies (e.g., Caligiuri, 2000), which show that interactions with local people allow expatriates to start building social capital (e.g., learning who knows what, who can become a trustworthy source of information and support), and achieve personal and social acceptance (Beaverstock, 2011; Kennedy, 2004). These benefits may motivate newcomers to seek out such resources and therefore improve more rapidly in interaction adjustment.

Other disciplines studying global mobility from an economic or sociological view have found similar results. Westcott and Vazquez Maggio (2015) explored skilled migrants in Australia and their relationship-building dynamics. The authors concluded that individuals with no or minimal acquaintances in the new country were more likely to value highly the process of creating new social contacts in comparison to those with established social networks. The process of active relationship-building aided their participants by reducing feelings of social isolation and growing their sense of being supported and socially accepted by members of the host society, thereby improving their well-being.

As mentioned at the beginning of this discussion, skilled migrants' non-work trajectories only partially supported the hypothesis of adjustment following a positive growth. The increase of non-work adjustment at the beginning of the study, followed by a plateau towards the second half of the study, is consistent with the theoretical discussion in Chapter Two. More specifically, it relates to Hesketh and Griffin's (2005) argument of the TWA having a firm grounding in learning theory. As such, individuals experience the biggest growths at the beginning of a new situation, but then the amount of new knowledge being assimilated starts to level off, along with adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Ebbinghaus, 1985).

The results suggest that once skilled migrants reached their maximum knowledge of the non-work environment they entered a 'mastery' phase, during which their non-work adjustment plateaued. While work skills may transfer quite readily from one work context to another (leading to high initial levels of adjustment and a flatter, more gradual trajectory of growth), the different ways of approaching day-to-day activities in the new context, as well as figuring out the cost of living, access to housing, health care facilities, services, transport, and shopping (Black & Stephens, 1989), represent critical skills that are likely to be quite new for the migrant, requiring quick

adjustment for basic survival (Zlobina et al., 2006). This explains the rapidity of the first six months' growth (which was strongest for those who had been in Australia for less than one year). The plateau would then indicate a level of mastery of daily living conditions, which in most countries tend to remain constant.

This phenomenon may conceivably be accentuated in Australia, which historically has tended towards a risk-averse or slow rate of policy and procedural change (White, 1992). This means that once skilled migrants achieve understanding of basic activities and services, there is no immediate need for further non-work adjustment. Indeed, the TWA proposal that individuals are driven towards the achievement and the maintenance of adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) further explains why skilled migrants first grew and then tapered in terms of their non-work adjustment. Since most expatriate literature is based on static measures of adjustment (for exceptions see Firth, Chen, Kirkman, & Kim, 2014; Zhu et al., 2016), this chapter's results are of particular interest. They are consistent with the concept proposed by Black and Gregersen (1991), Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou (1991), Gong and Fan (2006), and Wang and Takeuchi (2007), that expatriates' adjustment to foreign environments relates to an underlying social learning process by which, over time, individuals gradually accumulate knowledge, mastery of social norms and a nuanced understanding of the host country.

Although exploratory in nature, there were steeper initial changes in work adjustment for skilled migrants with less than a year living in Australia, with this group then appearing to decline in adjustment. Despite the fact that this group was very small ($N = 10$), the average decline in work adjustment echoes the classic inverted U-curve trajectory (Black, 1988; Lysgaard, 1955) cited extensively in the expatriate and migration literature. This approach posits that adjustment follows several stages from arrival: the 'honeymoon' (1-3 months) with feelings of excitement, euphoria

and increased adjustment; the ‘culture-shock’ phase (3-15 months), corresponding to a decrease in adjustment and well-being; and the final stage, ‘recovery and mastery’ (16 months and onwards), with a gradual increase in wellbeing and knowledge of the new environment.

These exploratory results with skilled migrants in this sample can be fitted to the first two stages of this curve, but it is important to note that empirical tests of the U-curve (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005) have been met with strong criticism, due to the fact that these arguments are not supported by theory (Kraimer, Bolino, & Mead, 2016). Specifically, in relation to this chapter’s exploratory results, Black and Mendenhall (1991) argue that the U-curve perspective is mostly descriptive, and has little theoretical value in terms of explaining why the honeymoon happens, the factors that extend or limit it and why time must necessarily pass before culture shock sets in. Considering this sample size ($N = 10$), and the fact that graphs were based solely on mean values, these results should be considered with caution.

The results of this analysis supported the proposal that skilled migrants with higher initial adjustment will experience a slower subsequent increase over time. Overall, it shows that although skilled migrants improved across all three types over time, initial levels of adjustment were negatively related to rate of adjustment. This is consistent with the theoretical discussion of the TWA contained in Chapter Two. Since an individual’s inner drive is to achieve adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), initial levels will have implications for the skilled migrant’s experienced trajectory of adjustment. Those skilled migrants who started with lower levels of adjustment had more room for improvement, and were therefore more likely to be motivated to adjust. This group consequently experienced steeper adjustment over time in comparison with those that started the study with higher levels of adjustment. These results are supported by Zhu, Wanberg, Harrison, and Diehn’s (2016) recent findings, namely that the early positive slope is steeper among

expatriates who begin their international assignment with low adjustment, and that those who start their assignment with higher adjustment tend to hold that high level over time. Theoretically, this chapter's trajectories are also consistent with Ashford and Nurmohamed's (2012) recent formulations, in which *average adjustment* progressed over time before reaching a plateau, while at the level of the *individual migrant* patterns of adjustment were varied, according to individual and contextual factors.

Covariation of the change trends

The analysis in this chapter found that work and non-work adjustment were positively associated. Skilled migrants who had steeper increasing trends in their work adjustment also tended to have steeper trends in their non-work adjustment, although the cross-sectional nature of the change trends (i.e., each measured simultaneously) precludes making inferences about causality between trends. Similar findings (albeit using static measures and cross-sectional data) have been reported in adjustment studies with other approaches such as the work-family conflict (Elder, 2007) and the leader-member exchange (Kraimer et al., 2001) in expatriate samples. In these studies, the authors found reciprocal crossovers in expatriates' adjustment (e.g., work roles and daily life tasks).

Although there is no consensus in the expatriate literature about whether there are two or three types of adjustment (Kraimer et al., 2016), the lack of correlations between the interaction adjustment trend and the other two (work and non-work) supports Black and Stephens' (1989) argument that interaction with locals is a uniquely important type of adjustment. Together, the findings of Chapter Five and Six underscore the importance of examining the associations between different adjustment types and clearly show that adjustment is not a static construct, thus demonstrating that any analysis assessing their mutual influence should account for the dynamic nature of adjustment processes.

In addition to adjustment trends, P-E fit work and P-E fit culture trajectories was shown to have similar a trajectory shape to its corresponding adjustment type. This positive growth responds to the notion of correspondence in the TWA, stating that fit will increase as a function of tenure in the environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1978).

Antecedents to adjustment trends in skilled migrants

Based on the understanding that static measures of P-E fit can predict adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), it was expected that P-E fit at Time 1 would predict both the initial status (intercept) and rate of change (slope) of work and non-work adjustment trajectories. This study's results supported this hypothesis for the work adjustment trend, but not for the non-work or interaction adjustment trends. Skilled migrants' P-E fit work was positively related to initial levels of work adjustment, but significantly negatively related to change rate across time. Skilled migrants reporting high fit at work had high levels of work adjustment at the beginning of the study. Since their adjustment levels were close to a threshold (Dawis & Lofquist, 1978), their rate of change was shallower over a one-year period in comparison to those with low fit at work. On the other hand, those reporting low fit at work had low levels of work adjustment at the beginning of the study. Since they had more room for improving fit at work before reaching the work adjustment threshold, their rate of change in adjustment was steeper.

Empirically, these results are similar to samples not only with expatriates, but also with domestic and international sojourners (Hechanova-Alampay et al., 2002). In addition to finding a positive linear growth in their sample adjustment, Hechanova-Alampay, Beehr, Christiansen, and Horn (2002) found that high levels of self-efficacy (high sense of confidence in the ability to accomplish a task) related positively to levels of adjustment collected at the beginning of their study, but subsequently, at the third data point, this changed to a negative association.

Additionally, as shown in other studies (e.g., Peltokorpi, 2008; Zlobina et al., 2006), English level in this sample of skilled migrants had a positive role in their work adjustment growth rate. Although Australia is a multicultural country, Spanish-speaking communities remain small (Barba Ponce, 2013) and Spanish is not spoken by many host nationals. It therefore follows that language fluency is a consideration of particular importance in this context.

Contrary to expectations, neither P-E fit culture nor support from Australians predicted the non-work or interaction trajectories' rate of change, although they were associated with initial levels of adjustment (refer to Chapter Four for a detailed discussion of associations with T1 data.) Given that in Chapter Five the linear prediction between P-E fit culture and non-work adjustment was supported, and further strengthened by the moderation effect of P-E fit work, it is possible that P-E fit culture may predict the rate of non-work adjustment when moderated by values in P-E fit work. Given the sample size and statistical power required for the SEM approach followed in this analysis, it was decided not to test for moderations. It is also likely that there are other factors not examined in this study that may impact rate of change. For example, Zhu et al. (2016) found that previous culture-specific work experience negatively predicted the slope of non-work adjustment in expatriates, while Hechanova-Alampay et al. (2002) showed that the amount of time sojourners (international students) spent with host nationals predicted adjustment changes.

Outcome of skilled migrants' adjustment trends

It was hypothesised that steeper increase in adjustment trends over the duration of this study would reduce a skilled migrant's intention to leave Australia, but this was not supported for any of the adjustment trajectories. The lack of significant results may have been due to limited variance in the trajectories and outcome or because the duration of the study was only one year. In addition, the reduced longitudinal sample may not have had enough statistical power to identify significant

results (Schafer & Graham, 2002). Slower adjustment over two or three years may be a better predictor of intention to leave.

Strengths and Limitations of This Study

The two key strengths of this study are its longitudinal design, and the use of latent growth modelling to identify trajectories and predictors. The longitudinal design with three data waves enabled the assessment of change both within and between individuals (Way et al., 2007), thus extending traditional longitudinal analysis as reported in Chapter Five. The fact that LGM utilises the means and the error variances of the outcomes provided important information about change (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010), such as identifying the direction in which skilled migrants adjust to international experiences. The LGM model also enabled exploration of the variables capable of producing effects on the rate of development (Duncan & Duncan, 2009). Since traditional models tend to have less statistical power in comparison with LGM (B. O. Muthén & Curran, 1997), this methodology captured the influences of fit at work with the changes in work over time, a scenario that could not have been captured with only the static measure analysis of Chapter Five.

Nevertheless, while this study provides important data regarding the dynamic component of adjustment of skilled migrants unfolding over time, it does have several limitations. Being confined to just one year of data collection (given the restrictions of doctoral candidature), there were obvious constraints set in terms of being able to follow skilled migrants after more than one year, which would have allowed for exploration of different shapes of adjustment trajectories. For example, it is possible that interaction adjustment begins to plateau similarly to non-work adjustment, only later in time. Once skilled migrants have established sufficient networks with locals, it is possible that they progress to socialising with individuals of other nationalities, therefore resulting in a plateau for their interaction adjustment with host nationals. Unlike other

groups of migrants in Australia (e.g., Vietnamese), extending interactions with nationals from other cultures is a value particularly exhibited with Mexicans (Vazquez Maggio, 2013). Therefore, following up for a longer period could perhaps have shown different trajectory shapes.

Even though one of the strengths of this study was having longitudinal data, which enabled detection of adjustment trends and tested for predictors and outcomes (Y. Liu et al., 2016), it was not possible to establish causal inferences more specifically between growth curves. The reason for this was that the adjustment data used to model the growth trends were collected at the same time points (Ferrer & McArdle, 2010). When such latent growth curves (e.g., work adjustment slope and non-work adjustment slope) are modelled simultaneously, covariances are not strong for causal inference (S. Liu, Luksyte, Zhou, Shi, & Wang, 2015) due to common method biases. Causal inference amongst slopes therefore requires time separation between data collections per adjustment type (Chan, 1998).

The third limitation concerns recruitment and certain particularities of this sample group. Other analyses of growth in organisational psychology studies (Lance et al., 2000; Song et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2016) have recruited participants even before departure. Unlike those models, the participants of this study were recruited together irrespective of their tenure in Australia and it was not possible to start the measurement exactly from arrival in the country. Therefore, the trends do not reflect the average shape from arrival, but average shape of a mixed tenure sample. Future studies could, for example, fit in Markov models (Sonnenberg & Beck, 1993) that measure repetitive events and time dependence by including more data points over longer periods of time; this would enable time before and after one year to be modelled more precisely.

Conclusion

This chapter has examined the dynamic aspect of the tripartite adjustment in skilled migrants. By assessing the trajectories of work, non-work and interaction adjustment over time, I have been able to show that each adjustment type progresses according to a differently-shaped path, contradicting the traditional U-shape modelled in migration literature. The fact that P-E fit work explained the acceleration of work adjustment over time further showed that an analysis based on differences among individuals is able to provide valuable information about change over time, above and beyond that provided by static measures. Overall, these findings underscore the importance of looking at both static measures and individual variances over time in order to arrive at a comprehensive understanding of skilled migrants' adjustment.

Chapter 7: General Discussion

Overview of Thesis Aims

The study presented in this thesis had three aims in the exploration of the skilled migrant's adjustment process. First, it argued for the use of the TWA as a strong and theoretically-based perspective to account for skilled migrants' adjustment in terms of their P-E fit. Second, it aimed to demonstrate the importance of including both work and non-work domains and their relevance to skilled migrants. Third, since cross-cultural adjustment is a process that occurs over time (Black et al., 1991), this study aimed to show how the application of a longitudinal design could clarify changes in predictor and outcome variables and show the shape and direction of adjustment trajectories.

Summary of Results

Overall, the proposed model showed the applicability of the TWA's conceptual basis to the explanation of skilled migrant adjustment. In terms of the work domain, the cross-sectional results presented in Chapter Four showed that fit at work (in a measure that included both the D-A and N-S perspectives) was associated with adjustment levels at work in skilled migrants. Although the longitudinal data did not yield significant results for the work-related variables, there was partial support in the post-hoc analysis for the relationship between fit at work at Time 1 and work adjustment at Time 2. Specifically, moderation analyses revealed that P-E fit work was only a predictor of work adjustment when there was high fit with the host country. This post-hoc finding is of importance, since it is one of few studies to demonstrate the interactions proposed in the TWA (Dawis et al., 1964). It further clarifies the relevance of incorporating both culture fit and work fit in understanding international adjustment.

Chapter Six, which looked at adjustment trajectories, showed that the direction of work adjustment is positive across time. The conditional models showed that P-E fit work also predicted the acceleration of change over time. The results demonstrated that skilled migrants with lower levels of P-E fit work at the beginning of this study had accelerated work adjustment due to having greater overall room for improvement.

Turning now to the non-work environment, both the cross-sectional results and the longitudinal analysis demonstrated that overall P-E fit culture (with both D-A and N-S fit included in the measure) was associated with skilled migrant's non-work adjustment. Non-work adjustment is the mechanism moderating the relationship between P-E fit culture and intention to remain in Australia, supporting the TWA in positing that the relationship between P-E fit and tenure outcomes is mediated by adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). However, contrary to the predictions of linear positive growth, non-work adjustment levelled off through the second half of this study, suggesting that adaptation to general life in Australia tends to stabilise after a certain threshold. Despite the fact that none of the trajectories predicted intention to leave, the correlation of the work and non-work trends, alongside their moderation effects, lent support to the importance of including the non-work sphere in models predicting adjustment in skilled migrants.

The inclusion of interaction adjustment in the model was not matched with a corresponding fit variable, but was still considered meaningful enough to be included. Nevertheless, whilst support from Australians was associated with interaction adjustment cross-sectionally, it was not a significant predictor of levels of interaction adjustment across time (curiously, since in the qualitative analysis of content offered in Chapter Four, friendship, relationships, and interaction were identified as critical components of a skilled migrant's life in Australia.) However, interaction adjustment did show the steepest positive linear growth of the three types. That is, the more

Mexican skilled migrants were exposed to and interacted with locals in Australia, the more their interaction adjustment grew. The mere fact of continued interaction over time led to adjustment, above and beyond the support that was measured at static intervals, contrary to the initial hypothesis.

Implications for Theory

This thesis proposed that the TWA can be applied as a strong theoretical framework for explaining skilled migrants' adjustment to new countries, extending the application of this theory beyond the previously-studied domains of rehabilitation, personal counselling and retirement settings (e.g., Dawis & Lofquist, 1993; Hesketh, Griffin, & Loh, 2011). Given the interdependence and constant interaction of P and E in this framework, the inclusion of fit indicators assisted in exploring the components underlying adjustment (Hippler et al., 2014), an approach that has not been as popular in the expatriate literature built around Black et al.'s (1991) model.

The examination of the moderation between fit at work and fit in the non-work environment presented in Chapter Five further contributes to the understanding of factors capable of changing the basic relationships in the TWA. This follows Fitzgerald and Rounds (1993), Rounds and Hesketh (1994) and Tinsley (1993) who have drawn attention to the potential of moderation within the TWA. The findings of this thesis suggest that the relationship between P-E fit work and work adjustment is dependent on skilled migrants' level of P-E fit culture, thus providing support for these researchers' proposals to expand the TWA theoretical framework.

With the proposal of a more advanced work and non-work adjustment model rooted in P-E theories and the application of the TWA's robust theoretical perspective, this thesis contributes to the growing skilled migration literature in providing what is, to my knowledge, the first applied P-E theory-based predictive model of international adjustment dealing with skilled migrant populations. Indeed, during the course of this study, Haslberger and Dickmann (2016) argued

persuasively for the use of the TWA in the understanding of international adjustment, outlining its applicability to populations subject to international mobility such as self-initiated expatriates. Its use here is therefore not only timely and justified, but also particularly relevant to the increasing international management and career literature relating to skilled migrants.

Skilled migrant literature advancement

The inclusion of work and non-work domains in a single analysis provides a more complete picture of the major environments with which a skilled migrant interacts when living and working overseas. Understanding the combined effect of both these environments contributes to the recent and growing focus on the importance of developing HR management strategies and policies to facilitate transfer and utilisation of the knowledge and skills of skilled migrants (Ariss & Syed, 2011; Malik et al., 2014; Zikic, 2015). This is especially important given that skilled migrants are considered a ‘forgotten minority’ (Binggeli, Dietz, & Krings, 2013), with most literature on adjustment to international experiences having been tested on expatriates or international students. This study thus caters directly to this emerging population and contributes to the understanding of the influences of local cultural values and practices on individuals taking on international experiences, and on their overseas outcomes. Any future research ought to include both the work and non-work environments, since together they provide the nuances that are critical to consider when facilitating adjustment to life in other countries and ultimately migrants’ retention in the host country.

Adjustment trajectories understanding

This study analysed three types of adjustment (i.e., work, non-work and interaction), considering them as a complete part of the international adjustment experience. This is an approach contrary to most existing literature, which tends to explain adjustment trends by focusing on one

type only. For instance, Firth et al. (2014) and Lance et al. (2000) focused on work adjustment only; Way et al. (2007) focused on adjustment at a school level, and only Zhu et al. (2016) (who in any case focused mainly on work adjustment) included a minor section explaining and integrating the other two areas of the tripartite conceptualisation of adjustment. These researchers' contribution to the literature is still considerable, although by focusing on only one area they inevitably overlook important information relating to other types of adjustment that could be salient, owing to a range of individual differences and contextual factors (Hippler et al., 2014). The analysis of adjustment trends from the perspective of the complete triad (Black & Stephens, 1989) is consistent with a growing recognition by scholars that a holistic theoretical and methodological framework adapted to understanding the careers of skilled migrants is now both essential and long overdue (Ariss, Koall, Özbilgin, & Suutari, 2012).

Moreover, the analysis trajectories in this thesis contribute to what Guo and Ariss (2015) identify as "a paucity of research in what precisely engages international migrants in their work abroad" (p. 1292). Understanding how, when and why adjustment happens with skilled migrants would contribute to designing effective government policies in countries that aim to not only to attract but also retain these talented skilled migrants. The longitudinal exploration of all three adjustment types is therefore significant, by contributing to an obvious gap in the adjustment literature and advancing understanding of dynamic constructs, including the duration in which adjustment grows before it plateaus and the timing at which changes show during these six months, thereby showing a different shape than the U-shape curve traditionally assumed in the migration literature (Ward et al., 1998). It also helps extrapolate those potential predictors of change (Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010) such as initial levels of P-E fit at work, which in this case helped explained the rate of change in work adjustment.

Overall, the analysis of trajectories showed that there are substantial variations amongst individuals' adjustment paths, and that there are also different shapes and forms that correspond to the adjustment types, which, despite the time constraints of a one-year-period, were still able to be provisionally captured in this study. It is clear that more comprehensive data collection over a longer time period capturing a variety of adjustment trajectories experienced by different individuals in different circumstances would be well-placed to expand on this research question.

In particular, the comparison of short and long time lags between data collections may prove a promising avenue for research, since short and long periods likely vary results. For example, short periods with, say, monthly data collection are likely to show different shapes in the trajectories, because they will not register change occurring from longer-term significant events (Markovizky & Samid, 2008). Extending the time lag to longer than a year could respond to questions such as: when does adjustment follow linear growth? For how long? And why might it change over time? Since trajectories have been shown to make unique contributions to behavioural outcomes beyond predictive variables (Zhu et al., 2016), the inclusion of data collected over longer lags may allow for analysis of meaningful patterns over time. For example, it may lead to future exploration of outcomes such as objective measures of actual early departure, an event which may not occur in the short time allocated to an average research project. More specifically, data collection that occurs over a longer time period and at more frequent intervals will potentially enable researchers to capture flattened growth trends once certain thresholds of work and interaction adjustment are reached. Extending the duration of data collection can therefore help researchers achieve a consensus on whether cross-cultural adjustment follows a traditional 'U' curve (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Ward et al., 1998), a linear trajectory, or a linear trajectory that flattens out later, such as that recorded in this study.

Implications for Practice**For managers**

Since skilled migrants account for a growing segment of the global workforce, labour markets are drawing increasingly on international talent, and yet this valuable human capital is often under-utilised. A report specific to Australia has shown that migrant employees from an English-speaking background leave their jobs at a rate 20% higher than non-migrant employees, while the rate jumps to 33% if the migrant is from a non-English-speaking background (Shah, 2009). Given these sobering statistics, it is now more timely and important than ever that managers improve their understanding of how skilled migrants adjust to their new country, both at work and beyond.

Employers taking on skilled migrants as part of their workforce could begin by understanding that migrants' work adjustment is dependent not just on having skills and needs fitting at work, but also on their psychological comfort with the country. Managerial practice would benefit from a better understanding of how skilled migrants are not only required to cope with their work arrangements, but also the challenges of changed general living conditions (Ariss, 2010), and usually without significant support. While traditionally beyond the scope of HR practice, consideration of non-work elements may improve work adjustment and extend tenure, and therefore maintain and even grow the investment in hiring skilled migrants for Australian organisations. For example, companies might fund attendance at support programs that aim to increase the understanding of procedures and routines needed to live in the country (e.g., how to accurately submit the yearly tax declaration, or how to access different entertainment activities, services or social activities). Managers could also work on implementing an organisational culture that fosters cooperation, collaboration and peer support for a diverse workforce (Hicks-Clarke &

Iles, 2000; Kochan et al., 2003). If managers were to implement such practices, perhaps the skilled migrant could improve their match to their non-work environment based on the abilities and values brought from home, therefore adjusting more smoothly and quickly (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). This in turn should increase migrants' satisfaction at work (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), thereby reducing turnover (Dawis & Lofquist, 1978). Indeed, Baruch, Dickmann, Altman, and Bournois (2013) have argued as much, writing that by increasing knowledge about the particular circumstances and challenges accompanying international talent, companies and businesses will ultimately be better positioned to effectively target and manage performance, career management and retention in their varied workforces.

For career counsellors and psychologists

The findings of this study have implications for career development and counselling (Lofquist & Dawis, 1991). Practitioners should be ready to support skilled migrants' understanding of self and the environment in terms of the fit between skills and needs (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), which may ultimately assist the migrant to reach and maintain optimal adjustment in the new country. Practitioners could also assist migrants to recognise and select environments which they feel would meet their needs and provide a more positive fit (Lyons, 2003). Practical career advice may take the form of practitioners assisting skilled migrants to identify the skills brought from overseas and understand how to translate them to the needs of the new country's job market. Such support could have a positive impact on skilled migrants' ability to enter the workforce, find optimal occupations or even to change jobs or industries in order to better align with their skills or preferences. Because securing and keeping employment is imperative for skilled migrants (Malik et al., 2014), practitioners need to be able to identify behaviours and skills that will help them gain and maintain employment, and even progress in their careers once employed. By understanding

the impact of the life environment on the work domain, skilled migrants may make better-informed decisions in terms of their choice of neighbourhood, city or state to live in, resulting in a better fit.

For future skilled migrants

The findings of this study, although based solely on a sample of Mexican migrants in Australia, are still likely to have relevance to skilled individuals from other nations wanting to migrate to Australia. The exploration of the three types of adjustment proposed here provides a useful framework that may help skilled migrants consider that international mobility adjustment is more complex than a functional response to skilled shortages in the host country, and involves many personal adjustment processes. The narratives provided in Chapter Four emphasise that, alongside ensuring a fit of their skills with the host labour market, skilled migrants must be prepared to navigate life outside work and interaction with host nationals. Understanding the norms and values of daily life in the new culture, or even solving common everyday problems or errands, can take skilled migrants significant amounts of time, effort, and energy. Skilled migrants need to be informed that if they fail to adjust to general life, it is likely that this lack of adjustment will impact negatively on their intention to stay in the country, even if they are highly skilled and well-suited to the professional capacities of the new work environment.

Skilled migrants also need to initiate and maintain successful friendships (Westcott & Vazquez Maggio, 2015) in order to achieve adjustment and wellbeing in the new context. Socialising with locals (and understanding the cultural values involved in doing so) similarly tends to require a great deal of time and investment (Takeuchi, 2010). Unlike expatriates, who can turn to their supervisors to solicit information on socialising and the host culture (Nolan & Morley, 2014), skilled migrants, who arrive without employment, friends or family, usually need to start developing their social networks by themselves. Skilled migrants need to be prepared for this, as

well as equipped with the knowledge that communication and language capacity in spoken form are often more challenging than the English-language skills tested by commonly used methods, such as the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Indeed, the results of this study indicated that although most of the demographics variables were not significant, English level prior to arrival *was* significant and had a direct impact on speed of work adjustment (see Table 16). Prospective migrants would be advised to place more emphasis on learning, practicing, and increasing their exposure to the diversity of Australian accents, slang and idiom, and to temper their expectations that high scores in exams like IELTS will translate into an immediate ability to communicate effectively.

The prospective migrant will be better equipped if they know what to expect upon arrival and how their own adjustment could possibly evolve over time. By having this information, skilled migrants could consider making their own preparations to stand in for the lack of organisational support and local networks available to expatriates, and may consider devoting time before departure to the enhancement of personal skills that may accelerate their adjustment and impact favourably on their work and life outcomes.

For advocates

The implications of the study also extend to advocates and individuals acting in the interests of those who are not yet skilled migrants, but who hold sufficient qualifications and skills to migrate to Australia, especially those considering doing so under the categories of ‘Employer Sponsored’, ‘General Skilled’, ‘Business Skilled’ and ‘Temporary Work Skilled’. According to the Migration Agent Activity Report (2016) migration agents lodged 83%, 34%, 62% and 73% of these visa types respectively in the first quarter of 2017 alone. In many cases, immigration agents are the main point of contact for prospective migrants. Currently, the practice of agents seldom includes

advice on consideration of general life factors, traditions and customs, and how to improve adjustment in the new country. Most seem either to be unaware of the huge variation of migrant adjustment experiences or deliberately ignore these issues, neglecting to share with their clients that the process of adjustment is more complicated than merely having a visa granted and relocating to Australia (Barba Ponce, 2013).

Failing to provide the whole picture before migration is problematic because a lack of complete information about the new environment translates into greater potential for an improper assessment of fit from the migrant's perspective. Achieving fit with the host country will depend not only on migrants' individual skills corresponding to the country's requirements, but also with the migrants' values, practices, customs and the supplies available with regards to the new environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1993). The poorer the degree of correspondence between these variables when choosing the destination country, the worse the fit experienced by the skilled migrant in the new environment upon arrival, resulting in a longer and more difficult process of adjustment, if indeed it happens at all. It has therefore been argued (D'Netto & Sohal, 1999; Payne, 2016; SBS, 2016; Vazquez Maggio, 2013) that policy makers ought to regulate migration practitioners and require that they provide within their services more detailed information on general life factors, for example, the difficulty of job seeking when lacking Australian experience, the particularities of social dynamics, and clear information on the values expounded by the society (Payne, 2016). Perhaps, these practitioners could encourage migrants to join voluntary work roles to build their 'Australian experience,' or, if they work for a transnational company with an Australian branch, to search for an opportunity of potential transfer where their experience can be immediately recognised.

Strengths and Limitations

This research had several strengths. First, the inclusion of skilled migrants across a range of employment sectors recommends it over other organisational studies that utilise a field-based design (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003), which are typically restricted to one field of work (Zhu et al., 2016). Second, while the vast majority of literature on international adjustment is built on cross-sectional data that does not allow clear inferences to be made regarding causative effects (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005), the longitudinal design used in this study went some way to identifying the causative relationship amongst the variables, thereby capturing what Dawis and Lofquist (1984) refer to as the constant change of adjustment.

Third, Hippler et al. (2014) have highlighted the importance of developing international adjustment studies that consider environmental domains relevant to their participants. Since this thesis is the continuation of a qualitative study previously conducted with Mexican skilled migrants (Barba Ponce, 2013), I was able to build an approach and model that responded to areas of adjustment already identified as relevant to the research population.

Fourth, with the exception of a few intentionally female-focused studies (e.g., Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002; Linehan, 2002; Van den Bergh & Du Plessis, 2012), most expatriate literature tends to utilise male-dominated samples. This is a significant omission, especially given the growing parity of women in migration trends, (Ho, 2006; Mahler & Pessar, 2006; Wilson, 2009) with females now accounting for almost half of the total number of migrants worldwide (United Nations, 2015). Although gender did not ultimately show any significant results on the variables of interest, this study was novel in terms of its inclusion of an almost gender-balanced sample, with a little more than half the sample being female (59%). This responds to Guo and Ariss' (2015) call for a deeper consideration of gender-related issues in the HR management of international migrants

literature, and further contributes to debunking the false stereotype of women migrants as unskilled dependants who follow their highly specialised partners (Kofman, 2000); a finding which has implications for migration literature more broadly.

As with all studies, this thesis also has potential shortcomings, some arising from the nature of this sample. First, since the findings on adjustment derive from a sample of only Mexican skilled migrants, it is possible that these results may apply specifically to this particular migrant group (or perhaps to other Latin American groups). Because elements of experience prior to migration evidently impact the outcomes of migration (Ward et al., 2001), it cannot be automatically assumed that they extend to other skilled migrant groups, especially given the variety of countries that contribute to Australia's skilled migration program. However, despite this constraint, the findings offer provisional guidelines for exploring the adjustment of groups of skilled migrants in the future, and provide a model for a larger study that may extend these observations to other populations.

The second limitation refers to particularities of this study's data. Despite the fact that technological advances have facilitated access to globally-dispersed research populations (Murphy, Dean, Hill, & Richards, 2011), it is inevitable that recruiting using social media for enrolment potentially incurs some biases. Not all skilled migrants are social media users, and conversely not all social media users arrived as skilled migrants, leading to difficulties in accessing the full population via this exclusive method. In an effort to expand the net of recruitment and help mitigate this problem, I placed announcements in the Mexican embassy monthly newsletter and made contact with key informants and leaders of the various Mexican regional communities, but it is difficult to know how effectively this extended recruitment.

Given the size and accessibility of the Mexican population in Australia this was a mixed sample, in the sense that several categories of international mobility were likely represented in the

recruited group. For example, the sample may have included some individuals who came to Australia as students initially, but who over the period of their course or internship, received job offers that enabled them to stay upon completion of their degree, transforming them into skilled migrants (Beine, Docquier, & Rapoport, 2006). As Andresen, Bergdolt, Margenfeld, and Dickmann (2014) have noted, the psychological development and career paths of these individuals are important for research and probably merit their own category, although these transitions are much more difficult to capture. Future research should continue to compare different types of internationally mobile individuals, especially in terms of transitions and the possible effects on their adjustment.

This was also a mixed sample in terms of tenure in the country. Since longer tenure increases opportunities for foreigners to learn expected behaviours (Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun, & Lepak, 2005), skilled migrants who had been in Australia longer were more likely to register higher levels of adjustment in comparison with the newly arrived. This is of special importance because although exploratory in nature, the work adjustment trend showed a different trajectory shape for those who had been in the country for less than one year. Further studies should consider measuring adjustment from arrival, as it is in the moment of most dramatic change that adjustment could register its lowest levels.

One further limitation is the use of a two-item scale for measuring P-E fit variables. In choosing this, the aim was reducing participant burden and mitigating potential for participants to be overwhelmed by the number of questions (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). However, it is acknowledged that this approach does not capture as many aspects of fit as more items might have (Gardner, Cummings, Dunham, & Pierce, 1998). In the context of this study, it represents a suitable

compromise capturing more sub-aspects of fit within each environment, and is consistent with the approach taken in previous organisational literature (Nagy, 2002; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000).

Previous research on adjustment has typically utilised self-report measures (Black & Stephens, 1989; Ramalu, Rose, Kumar, & Uli, 2010; Searle & Ward, 1990). Self-reports and the associated risk of common method biases influencing the results is a significant concern (Spector, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012), but in order to mitigate these biases and to more accurately identify the causal determinants and consequences of adjustment, this study used a longitudinal design to separate the independent variable from the dependent as per Chan (1998). Additionally, extra data was collected from sources other than the migrant consistent with previous studies (Cable & Judge, 1996; Wang, Zhan, McCune, & Truxillo, 2011; Wu & Ang, 2011) in order to validate the self-reported adjustment outcome measure. Although Fleenor, Smither, Atwater, Braddy, and Sturm (2010) have shown that this practice doesn't necessarily eliminate biases and inaccuracies, correlational analyses of the adjustment at work and at non-work from third-party raters showed consistency with the skilled migrants' responses (see Appendix 5). Moreover, of those few participants that reported having left Australia, their intention to leave had been significantly higher than those who did not, strengthening the validation of the self-reports. In open questions, two out of the four that left stated reasons for their departure, one reporting 'looking for better work opportunities' in another country that was not Mexico, and another citing personal circumstances back home.

An additional limitation concerning the data was the statistical power given the small initial size of the sample and the sample attrition over the time of this study (Hair, Anderson, et al., 1998). Although large, diverse sample sizes are obviously desirable, it can be difficult to access a large number of skilled migrants in any one country (Caligiuri, 2000b), especially if the goal is to recruit

them exactly from arrival. Despite this, the advancement of statistical packages assisted in mitigating the concern by dealing with the data under FIML and using bias-corrected boot strap confidence intervals, which allowed for more accurate confidence effects (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; L. K. Muthén & Muthén, 2015).

A further limitation of this thesis relates to the number of factors measured. The understanding of skilled migration and adjustment is likely to vary in relation not only to individual differences but also to macro factors such as socio-political, cultural, and historical aspects. Changes in the host country migration policy can also impact skilled migrants' adjustment (Phinney, Horenczyk, Liebkind, & Vedder, 2001). For example, the impending abolition of the Australian 457 Temporary Skilled Migration visa (Australian Broadcasting Corporation, 2017) could impact on institutional and organisational practices by what Ariss and Crowley-Henry (2013, p. 88) have described as "the unspoken motives of institutions managing the different forms of labour migration" (p. 88). The effects of policy changes and reversals on skilled migrants' adjustment could manifest in either an exaggerated self-report of fit (with the migrant accelerating their efforts to achieve adjustment in order to retain their job, linked to their visa), or reduced expectation of fit (with the migrant accepting less personal satisfaction in the hope of demonstrating good work adjustment, also seen as good performance at work). Strong work adjustment in such circumstances could assist temporary residents with keeping employment, while at the same time helping them seek visa alternatives in order to achieve permanent residency status.

A further macro factor not studied was the role of intercultural contact, which offers a socio-political view of the processes underlying cultural encounters between foreigners and host nationals. According to Amir's (1969) perspective of contact hypothesis, some cultures are inherently more appealing to another culture, which ultimately affects the quality of interactions with locals in both

the work and the non-work environment. In addition to this, discriminatory or anti-discriminatory policies and political discourses around national identity in the host country can affect interactions between migrants and host nationals, because of the way in which they direct local attitudes towards migration in general as well as for and against particular migrant groups. A salient recent example is the adjustment of skilled Mexican migrants in the USA, which is likely to be affected by the change in national policy headed by the Trump administration (Ramos, 2017), alongside other minority groups residing in the USA (Iyer, 2017). There is little doubt that the inclusion of macro-level variables such as attitudes toward ethnic and cultural out-groups in future research will enhance the understanding of adjustment and its outcomes.

The size of the diaspora in the host nation relating to a particular migrant group may also influence adjustment outcomes (Beine, 2010). In other words, the presence and history of a migrant group in the host country can facilitate or hinder the adjustment of their newly arrived members. Being part of a migrant community may, in some circumstances, accelerate a migrant's inclusion as a productive and favourable member in the new society, but for other individuals, it can delay the development of learning how to cope with the new host country, thereby negatively affecting their adjustment process. Because established groups can provide pre- and post relocation support (e.g., housing) and assistance with employment (Ward et al., 2001), it is possible that studying the adjustment of skilled Mexican migrants in the USA would offer different conclusions, since Mexicans are a more established ethno-cultural community within that host nation (Durand & Massey, 2010). Naturally, results would be similar to that hypothesised above if studying more established communities in Australia such as the Italians, Greeks or Chinese. Cross-cultural adjustment and international management literature may certainly stand to benefit if more macro-

level elements of host countries are taken into account when measuring expatriate adjustment (Ravasi et al., 2015).

Future Research

Although I was able to support empirical understanding of adjustment from the P-E perspective, this study was based only on Mexican skilled migrants in Australia. While adjustment experiences may be similar for other skilled migrants, these findings could not be generalised. Equally, host countries other than Australia may present different circumstances that alter and influence adjustment. Previous studies (Ferner, Quintanilla, & Varul, 2001; Selmer, 2001) have found that differences between cultural backgrounds as well as cultural differences between home and host country affect expatriates' adjustment. The research outcomes should be read with caution in terms of extrapolating them to migrants from other countries, or the circumstances of Mexican migrants in countries other than where this study took place.

In order to increase generalisability, future research should investigate adjustment of skilled migrants of different groups to a range of destination countries (Breiden et al., 2006). It would be particularly interesting to extend this study to other Spanish speakers in Australia, such as the Chilean or other culturally similar (e.g., other Latin-Americans) groups who have been in Australia for more decades in comparison to Mexican nationals. Logically, skilled migrants who have connections to a similar well-established cultural group may exhibit an increased likelihood of success and greater speed in adjusting. If this is empirically supported in the future, this may help extend the generalisability of these results to Hispanic populations in Australia. Along the same lines, future research could include explorations of other well-established groups and whether they adjust in the same manner along the dimensions explored in this study. It could be possible that

these groups adjust faster to some dimensions but slower in others, perhaps due to being immersed in their own cultural group, which could reduce interaction with host country nationals.

Consistent with the interactive approach, future research should consider other characteristics of both environments and person in determining the extent to which key variables might affect skilled migrants' adjustment. On the environment side, it will be important to determine key events and policies that might affect skilled migrant's adjustment, while the inclusion of comparative indices of leadership and societal cultural values of 62 countries like those proposed in the GLOBE project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta, 2004) could aid with contextualising and measuring similarities and differences between HR practices from the perspective of both sender and receiving environment and the complexity of the effects of culture on leadership and organisational effectiveness (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012).

Additionally, socio-political situations in both the home and the host country could act as one of the so-called 'push-pull' factors identified by Khosa and Kalitanyi (2015), impacting on skilled migrant's adjustment and their intention to remain living abroad, in the sense that changes in one or other context may lead the migrant to perceive their current situation as more or less favourable. It is possible, for example, that home countries improve their labour and political conditions while skilled migrants are living abroad. This, combined with the pull of returning to family, is one of the most common reasons given for intention to return (Hugo, Rudd, & Harris, 2001). It can also be the other way around, that conditions get worse in the receiving country, in which case individuals may move home or move from one developed country to another developed one (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

Other macro-variables might relate to employment and certification policies in the host countries. It is common for migrants to experience delays in or denial of recognition of their qualifications, limiting their job options and sometimes their immediate inclusion in the workforce upon arrival (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015; Rodriguez, & Mearns, 2012). Specifically, access to employment in Australia has been shown to be even more difficult than in comparable other countries because of a near-universal requirement for Australian work experience, which is often privileged in recruitment strategy over relevant skills and experience gained elsewhere (D'Netto & Sohal, 1999).

Future studies on migration adjustment utilising the P-E fit perspective should further account for the cultural diversity present in host countries that have multicultural policies. It is possible that in multicultural nations, a large part of migrants' support comes from other migrants, especially given that other migrants might be perceived to be empathetic having lived through the same struggles (Farh et al., 2010), thus leading to interaction adjustment. It would therefore be useful to measure not only support and interaction adjustment with host locals, but also with other migrants.

With regard to the TWA and its P-E fit interactional perspective, there is room for further investigation in terms of the differences in adjustment style amongst individuals, which have been characterised as either proactive, reactive or tolerant (Griffin & Hesketh, 2003). The importance of studying these dimensions in future studies is linked to their ability to moderate the way in which skilled migrants experience adjustment by the type of behaviour they enact. If there is a lack of adjustment, some skilled migrants will proactively look to change the environment to facilitate better adjustment (Dawis, 2005), perhaps by proposing new working procedures or creating different positions at work that fit better with procedures familiar from the home country. On the

other hand, a migrant may be more reactive, and look to change their own behaviour in order to improve fit (Lawson, 1993), such as taking up new courses or specialising in their area, re-taking English classes to get adjusted to the Australian accent or modifying their social behaviours to come across as more culturally-familiar to Australians. It is also possible that some skilled migrants with high levels of flexibility will tolerate a lack of adjustment to the new country but remain living there (Nguyen & Benet-Martinez, 2013; Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003).

Migrants share similarities to new employers in the context of organisations in the sense of both being new arrivals to environments. The newcomer employee literature explaining the use of proactive behaviours for adjustment (Ashford & Black, 1996; Saks, Gruman, & Cooper-Thomas, 2011) could therefore be useful in explaining adjustment in the skilled migrants context. With the inclusion of adjustment styles, future longitudinal research could contribute to the understanding of when, how and what type of behaviours are most frequent in skilled migrant populations.

The TWA's discussion of adjustment styles (eg. flexibility, perseverance, activeness and reactiveness (Dawis, 2002) may be well paired with the acculturation literature in order to give further insights. Acculturation, as (Berry, 1997) explains, refers to the attitudes that individuals take to adapt to the host country, which may take the form of assimilation, separation, integration or marginalisation. Future exploration of this literature could, for example, help in explaining when and in what circumstances skilled migrants either absorb the new culture and become *assimilated* (Berry, 1997) usually with support from host nationals playing an important role (Lu, Samaratunge, & Hartel, 2015), or adopt an attitude of *separation*, whereby the tendency is towards a strong retention of their cultural identity (Berry, 2001). In the latter example, the relationship between support from locals and the prediction of interaction adjustment may be less important.

In a similar way, future studies may benefit with the inclusion of cross-cultural personality traits relevant to international experience outcomes (Caligiuri, 2000a; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012). Since other research with expatriates has shown that high levels of cultural empathy and sociability impact positively on their interaction adjustment, with these traits facilitating relationships and interactions with others who are culturally different (Earley & Ang, 2003), the addition of personality as a variable could potentially augment the range of moderators affecting international mobility adjustment.

General Conclusion

The key contribution of the research presented in this thesis lies in its holistic approach, whereby adjustment is addressed in the context of both work and non-work environments, the two most salient domains in which skill migrants interact. This research adds to the current body of literature on international mobility by introducing and validating predictors and outcomes of adjustment to international experiences in populations other than expatriates. Findings suggests that P-E fit work and P-E fit culture are distinct and valid constructs, with the latter at least exerting meaningful impact on distal outcomes such as intention to leave the country via adjustment. Furthermore, the findings show that P-E fit with the host culture plays an important moderator role in predicting work adjustment. As such, countries and organisations interested in maximising and retaining highly-qualified migrants in their workforce should consider the role of both environments in determining adjustment and therefore intentions to stay. Finally, this thesis demonstrated that adjustment trajectories' direction is environment-specific. While skilled migrants were shown to have a positive adjustment growth, timing for reaching a plateau seemed to be dependent on the environment in which adjustment was taking place. Taken together, the findings of this thesis provide new information for migration, international HR and organisational

psychology scholars on the process of adjustment experienced by the growing skilled migrant populations in the workforces of developed countries.

Reference List

- Abdul Malek, M., Budhwar, P., & Reiche, B. S. (2015). Sources of support and expatriation: a multiple stakeholder perspective of expatriate adjustment and performance in Malaysia. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(2), 258–276. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2014.937968>
- Adler, N. J. (1987). Pacific basin managers: A “Gaijin”, not a Women. *Human Resource Management*, 26(2), 169.
- Agullo, B., & Egawa, M. (2009). International careers of Indian workers in Tokyo Examination and future directions. *Career Development International*, 14(2), 148–168. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13620430910950755>
- Ahern, K., & Brocque, R. L. E. (2005). Methodological issues in the effect of attrition: simple solutions for social scientists, 17(1), 53–69. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X04271006>
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. (Sage, Ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: Thousand Oaks.
- Akaike, H. (1974). A New Look at the Statistical Model Identification. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, 19(6), 716–723. <http://doi.org/10.1109/TAC.1974.1100705>
- Allport, G. W. (1954). The Nature of prejudice. *Canadian Psychology*. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0708-5591.35.1.11>
- Amir, Y. (1969). Contact hypothesis in ethnic relations. *Psychological Bulletin*, 71(5), 319–342. <http://doi.org/10.1037/h0027352>
- Andresen, M., Bergdolt, F., Margenfeld, J., & Dickmann, M. (2014). Addressing international mobility confusion – developing definitions and differentiations for self-initiated and assigned expatriates as well as migrants. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*.

- Taylor & Francis. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.877058>
- Arbuckle, J. L. (1996). Full information estimation in the presence of incomplete data. In G. A. Marcoulides & Schumacker, R.E. (Eds.), *Advanced structural equation modeling: Issues and techniques* (pp. 243–277). Mahwah, NJ.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Arbuckle, J. L. (2011). IBM SPSS Amos 20 User's guide. Microsoft Corporation.
- Ardila, A. (2000). Testing Hispanic populations. *Texas Psychologist*, 25–30.
- Arends-Tóth, J. V., & Van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2006). Assesment of psychological acculturation: Choices in designing an instrument. In D. L. Sam & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of acculturation* (pp. 142–160). Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Ariss, A. Al. (2010). Modes of engagement: migration, self-initiated expatriation, and career development. *Career Development International*, 15(4), 338–358. <http://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/MRR-09-2015-0216>
- Ariss, A. Al, & Crowley-Henry, M. (2013). Self-initiated expatriation and migration in the management literature: Present theorizations and future research directions. *Career Development International*, 18(1), 78–96. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13620431311305962>
- Ariss, A. Al, Koall, I., Özbilgin, M., & Suutari, V. (2012). Careers of skilled migrants: towards a theoretical and methodological expansion. *Journal of Management Development*, 31(2), 92–101. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02621711211199511>
- Ariss, A. Al, & Syed, J. (2011). Capital mobilization of skilled migrants: A relational perspective. *British Journal of Management*, 22(2), 286–304. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2010.00734.x>
- Ariss, A. Al, Vassilopoulou, J., Ozbilgin, M., & Game, A. (2013). Understanding career

- experiences of skilled minority ethnic workers in France and Germany. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(6), 1236–1256.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2012.709190>
- Arthur, N. (1997). Counselling Issues with International Students. *Canadian Journal of Counselling*, 31.
- Ashford, S. J., & Black, J. S. (1996). Proactivity during organizational entry: The role of desire for control. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(2), 199–214. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.81.2.199>
- Ashford, S., & Nurmohamed, S. (2012). From past to present and into the future: A hitchhiker's guide to the socialization literature. In *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Socialization*. Oxford University Press.
- Ashkanasy, N. M. (2008). The Australian enigma. In J. S. Chhokar, F. C. Brodbeck, & R. J. House (Eds.), *Culture and leadership across the world: The GLOBE book of in-depth studies of 25 societies* (pp. 299–333). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
<http://doi.org/10.4324/9780203936665>
- Aten, K., Nardon, L., & Isabelle, D. (2016). Making sense of foreign context: Skilled migrant's perceptions of contextual barriers and career options. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 16(2), 191–214. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1470595816660119>
- Atondo Guzman, N. (2011). *La (re)configuración de la identidad cultural de los profesionistas mexicanos migrantes en Canadá. (Maestría Maestría)*. Universidad de Guadalajara.
- Australia, M. I. of. (2015). *Planning the Migration Programme for 2016-17*.
- Australian Broadcasting Corporation. (2017). Government abolishing 457 visas, Malcolm Turnbull says. Retrieved May 5, 2017, from <http://www.abc.net.au/news/2017-04-18/government->

abolishing-457-visas/8450310

Australian Government. (2010). *Trends in Migration : Australia 2010 – 11 Annual submission to the OECD 's Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI). Policy.*

Australian Government. (2016). *Migration Agent Activity Report. Quarterly report on the provision of immigration assistance in Australia.*

Australian Government, & Department of Immigration and Border Protection. (2017). Emigration from Australia. Retrieved April 21, 2017, from <https://www.border.gov.au/about/corporate/information/fact-sheets/05emigration>

Aycan, Z. (1997). Expatriate adjustment as a multifaceted phenomenon: individual and organizational level predictors. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(4), 434–456. <http://doi.org/10.1080/095851997341540>

Baker, J. C., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1971). The Assignment of American Executives Abroad: Systematic, Haphazard or Chaotic? *California Management Review*, 13(3), 39–44. <http://doi.org/10.2307/41164292>

Bar-Yosef, R. W. (1968). Desocialization and Resocialization : The adjustment process of immigrants, 2(3), 27–45.

Baraldi, A. N., & Enders, C. K. (2010). An introduction to modern missing data analyses. *Journal of School Psychology*, 48(1), 5–37. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2009.10.001>

Barba Ponce, F. (2013). *La integración a la política multicultural y el bienestar social de los inmigrantes mexicanos en Australia. (The integration to multicultural policy and the social wellbeing of Mexican immigrants in Australia).* Unpublished master's thesis. Universidad de Guadalajara. Guadalajara, Mexico.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social The

- Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173–1182. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173>
- Barry, R. A., Bunde, M., Brock, R. L., & Lawrence, E. (2009). Validity and utility of a multidimensional model of received support in intimate relationships. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 23(1), 48–57. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0014174>
- Baruch, Y., Budhwar, P. S., & Khatri, N. (2007). Brain drain : Inclination to stay abroad after studies. *Journal of World Business*, 42, 99–112. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2006.11.004>
- Baruch, Y., Dickmann, M., Altman, Y., & Bournois, F. (2013). Exploring international work: types and dimensions of global careers. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(12), 2369–2393. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.781435>
- Beaverstock, J. V. (2011). Servicing British expatriate “talent” in Singapore: Exploring ordinary transnationalism and the role of the “expatriate” club. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 37(5), 709–728. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2011.559714>
- Beine, M. (2010). Diaspora effects in international Migration (Vol. 2010).
- Beine, M., Docquier, F., & Rapoport, H. (2006). Measuring international skilled migration : New estimates controlling for age of entry. *International Migration*. Centre for research and analysis of migration.
- Bentein, K., Vandenberg, R., Vandenberghe, C., & Stinglhamber, F. (2005). The role of change in the relationship between commitment and turnover: A latent growth modeling approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(3), 468–482. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.3.468>
- Bentler, P. M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(2), 238–246.

- Bentler, P. M. (1995). EQS structural equations program manual. Multivariate software.
- Bentler, P. M., & Yuan, K.-H. (1999). Structural Equation Modeling with Small Samples: Test Statistics. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 34(2), 181–197.
<http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327906Mb340203>
- Berger, C. R., & Calabrese, R. J. (1975). Some explorations in initial interaction and beyond: Toward a developmental theory of interpersonal communication. *Human Communication Research*, 1(2), 99–112. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1975.tb00258.x>
- Berry, J. W. (1997). Immigration, acculturation, and adaptation. *Applied Psychology*, 46(1), 5–34.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/026999497378467>
- Berry, J. W. (2001). A Psychology of Immigration. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(3), 615–631.
<http://doi.org/doi:10.1111/0022-4537.00231>
- Berry, J. W. (2005). Acculturation: Living successfully in two cultures. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 29(6 SPEC. ISS.), 697–712.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2005.07.013>
- Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Luk, D. M. (2005). Input-Based and Time-Based Models of International Adjustment : Meta-Analytic Evidence and Theoretical Extensions, 48(2), 257–281.
- Binggeli, S., Dietz, J., & Krings, F. (2013). Immigrants: A forgotten minority. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 6(1), 107–113. <http://doi.org/10.1111/iops.12019>
- Black, J. S. (1988). Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19(2), 277–294.
- Black, J. S., & Gregersen, H. B. (1991). Antecedents to cross-cultural adjustment for expatriates in Pacific Rim assignments. *Human Relations*. <http://doi.org/10.1177/001872679104400505>

- Black, J. S., & Gregersen, H. B. (1999). The Right Way to Manage Expats. *Harvard Business Review*, 77(2), 52–63. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bth&AN=1613179&site=bsi-live>
- Black, J. S., Gregersen, H. B., & Mendenhall, M. E. (1992). *Global assignments: Successfully expatriating and repatriating international managers*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. (1991). The U-curve adjustment hypothesis revisited: A review and theoretical framework. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 22(April), 225–247.
- Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. (1991). Toward a comprehensive model of international adjustment: An integration of multiple theoretical perspectives. *Academy of Management Review*, 16, 291–317. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1991.4278938>
- Black, J. S., & Stephens, G. K. (1989). The Influence of the spouse on American expatriate adjustment and intent to stay in Pacific Rim overseas assignments. *Journal of Management*, 15(4), 529–544. <http://doi.org/10.1177/014920638901500403>
- Bourhis, R. Y., Montreuil, A., Barrette, G., & Montaruli, E. (2009). Acculturation and immigrant host community relations in multicultural settings. In S. Demoulin, J.-P. Leyens, & J. Dovidio (Eds.), *Intergroup misunderstanding: Impact of divergent social realities* (pp. 39–61). New York: Psychology Press.
- Breiden, O., Mohr, A. T., & Mirza, H. R. (2006). An empirical test of a correspondence model of expatriate managers' work adjustment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(11), 1907–1925. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585190601000105>
- Byrne, B. M. (1994). *Structural equation modeling with EQS and EQS/Windows*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Byrne, B. M., Shavelson, R. J., & Muthén, B. (1989). Testing for the equivalence of factor

- covariance and mean structures: The issue of partial measurement invariance. *Psychological Bulletin*, 105(3), 456–466. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.105.3.456>
- Cable, D. M., & DeRue, D. S. (2002). The convergent and discriminant validity of subjective fit perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(5), 875–884. <http://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.87.5.875>
- Cable, D. M., & Edwards, J. R. (2004). Complementary and supplementary fit: a theoretical and empirical integration. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 822–34. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.5.822>
- Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A. (1996). Person–Organization fit, job choice decisions, and organizational entry. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67(3), 294–311. <http://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1996.0081>
- Caligiuri, P. (2000a). Selecting expatriates for personality characteristics: A moderating effect of personality on the relationship between host national contact and cross-cultural adjustment. *Management International Review*40, 40(1), 61–80. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40835867>
- Caligiuri, P. (2000b). The Big five personality characteristics as predictors of expatriate desire to terminate the assignment and supervisor-rated performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 53, 67–88.
- Caligiuri, P., & Lazarova, M. (2002). A model for the influence of social interaction and social support on female expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(5), 761–772. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585190210125903>
- Cantrell, M. A., & Lupinacci, P. (2007). Methodological issues in online data collection. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 5(60), 544–549. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04448.x>
- Cao, L., Hirschi, A., & Deller, J. (2013). Perceived organizational support and intention to stay in

- host countries among self-initiated expatriates: the role of career satisfaction and networks. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(14), 2013–2032. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.870290>
- Caplan, R. D. (1987). Person-environment fit theory and organizations: Commensurate dimensions, time perspectives, and mechanisms. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 31(3), 248–267. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791\(87\)90042-X](http://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(87)90042-X)
- Carraher, S. M., Sullivan, S. E., & Crocitto, M. M. (2008). Mentoring across global boundaries: An empirical examination of home- and host-country mentors on expatriate career outcomes. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39(8), 1310–1326. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400407>
- Castañón-Lomnitz, H. (2004). La migración de talentos en México. In UNAM (Ed.), . Mexico.
- Castles, S. (2010). Understanding global migration : A social transformation perspective. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 36(30), 1565–1586. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2010.489381>
- Castles, S., & Miller, M. (2004). *La era de la migración. Movimientos internacionales de migración en el mundo moderno*. Zacatecas, Mexico: México: Miguel Ángel Porrúa, UAZ, Cámara de Diputados LIX Legislatura, Fundación Colosio, Secretaría de Gobernación, Instituto Nacional de Migración.
- Cerdin, J.-L., Diné, M. A., & Brewster, C. (2013). Qualified immigrants' success: Exploring the motivation to migrate and to integrate. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 45(2), 151–168. <http://doi.org/10.1057/jibs.2013.45>
- Cerdin, J.-L., & Selmer, J. (2013). Who is a self-initiated expatriate? Towards conceptual clarity of a common notion. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. Taylor &

- Francis. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.863793>
- Chan, D. (1998). The conceptualization and analysis of change over time: An integrative approach incorporating longitudinal mean and covariance structures analysis (LMACS) and multiple indicator latent growth modeling (MLGM). *Organizational Research Methods*, 1(4), 421–483.
- Chan, D., & Schmitt, N. (2000). Interindividual differences in intraindividual changes in proactivity during organizational entry: a latent growth modeling approach to understanding newcomer adaptation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(2), 190–210. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.2.190>
- Chen, G., Ployhart, R. E., Cooper-Thomas, H. D., Anderson, N., & Bliese, P. D. (2011). The Power of Momentum : A New Model of Dynamic Relationships Between Job Satisfaction Change and Turnover Intentions. *The Academy of Management*, 54(1), 159–181. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2011.59215089>
- Cheung, G. W., & Lau, R. S. (2012). A Direct Comparison Approach for Testing Measurement Invariance. *Organizational Research Methods*, 15(2), 167–198. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1094428111421987>
- Church, A. T. (1982). Sojourner adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 91(3), 540–572. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.91.3.540>
- Clarke, N. (2005). Detailing transnational lives of the middle: British working holiday makers in Australia. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 31(2), 307–322. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1369183042000339945>
- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(1), 155–159. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.112.1.155>
- Cole, D. A., & Maxwell, S. E. (2003). Testing mediational models with longitudinal data:

- Questions and tips in the use of structural equation modeling. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 112(4), 558–577. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-843X.112.4.558>
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2008). *Australia: Number of Mexico-born, 1901 to 2006*.
- Commonwealth of Australia. (2014). *Estimated resident population by country of birth*. Retrieved from http://stat.abs.gov.au/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=ERP_COB#
- Cook, C., Heath, F., & Thompson, R. L. (2000). A meta-analysis of response rates in web- or internet-based surveys. Educational and psychological measurement. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 60(6), 821–836. <http://doi.org/10.1177/00131640021970934>
- Copeland, L., & Griggs, L. (1985). *Going International: How to Make Friends and Deal Effectively in the Global Marketplace*. New York: Random House.
- Coronado, G. (2003). Crossing borders and transforming identities. Encountering diasporic mexicanness in Australia. *Humanities Research*, 10(3), 112–134. Retrieved from <http://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&btnG=Search&q=intitle:CROSSING+BORDERS+AND+TRANSFORMING+IDENTITIES:+encountering+diasporic+mexicanness+in+Australia#0>
- Corp, I. (2013). IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Mac. Armonk, NY.
- Crampton, S. M., & Wagner III., J. A. (1994). Percept-percept inflation in microorganizational research: An investigation of prevalence and effect. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(1), 67–76. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.1993.10317060>
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches* (Third). London: Sage. <http://doi.org/10.4135/9781849208956>
- Crowley-henry, M., & Ariss, A. Al. (2016). Talent management of skilled migrants : propositions and an agenda for future research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*.

<http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2016.1262889>

- Curran, P. J., & Hussong, A. M. (2003). The use of latent trajectory models in psychopathology research. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 112*(4), 526–544. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-843X.112.4.526>
- Curran, P. J., Obeidat, K., & Losardo, D. (2010). Twelve frequently asked questions about growth curve modeling. *Journal of Cognitive Development, 11*(2), 121–136. <http://doi.org/10.1080/15248371003699969>.Twelve
- D’Netto, B., & Sohal, A. S. (1999). Human resource practices and workforce diversity: an empirical assessment. *International Journal of Manpower, 20*(8), 530–547. <http://doi.org/10.1108/01437729910302723>
- Dahling, J. J., & Librizzi, U. a. (2015). Integrating the theory of work adjustment and attachment theory to predict job turnover intentions. *Journal of Career Development, 42*(3), 215–228. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0894845314545169>
- Dawis, R. V. (2002). Person-Environment correspondence theory. In D. and associates Brown (Ed.), *Career choice and development* (4th ed., p. 560). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass A Wiley Company.
- Dawis, R. V. (2005). The Minnesota theory of work adjustment. In S. D. Brown & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Career Development and Counselling: Putting theory and research to work* (pp. 3–23). Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. (1964). *Minnesota studies in vocational Rehabilitation: XV A theory of work adjustment*. Minesota, U.S.A.: University of Minnesota Press.
- Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1976). Personality style and the process of work adjustment.

- Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 23(1), 55–59. <http://doi.org/10.1037//0022-0167.23.1.55>
- Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1978). A note on the dynamics of work adjustment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 12(1), 76–79. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791\(78\)90008-8](http://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(78)90008-8)
- Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1984a). *A Psychological theory of work adjustment. An individual-differences model and its applications*. Minnesota, U.S.A.: University of Minnesota Press.
- Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1984b). *A Psychological Theory of Work Adjustment Chp. 4*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1993). From TWA to PEC. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. <http://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1993.1037>
- Dawis, R. V., Lofquist, L. H., & Weiss, J. D. (1968a). A Theory of work adjustment (a revision). In *Minnesota studies in vocational rehabilitation: XXiii* (pp. 2–14).
- Dawis, R. V., Lofquist, L. H., & Weiss, J. D. (1968b). *A theory of work adjustment (A revision)*. (*Minnesota studies in vocational rehabilitation No. 23.*). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.
- Delle, E., & Elikem, M. (2013). The Influence of National Culture on Expatriate Work Adjustment , Intention to Leave and Organizational Commitment. *Journal of Business and Management*, 5(19), 62–69.
- Department of Immigration and Citizenship. (2011). *Mexico community information summary*. Retrieved from https://www.dss.gov.au/sites/default/files/documents/02_2014/mexico.pdf
- Doherty, N., Richardson, J., & Thorn, K. (2013). Self-initiated expatriation and self-initiated expatriates: Clarification of the research stream. *Career Development International*, 18(1), 97–112. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13620431311305971>
- Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dastmalchian, A., & House, R. (2012). GLOBE: A twenty

- year journey into the intriguing world of culture and leadership. *Journal of World Business*, 47(4), 504–518. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2012.01.004>
- Drost, E., & Von Glinow, M. A. (1998). Leadership behaviour in Mexico: Etic Pjilosophies-Emic practices. In T. . Scandura & M. G. Serapio (Eds.), *Research in international business and international relation* (pp. 3–29). JAI Press.
- Duncan, T. E., & Duncan, S. C. (2004). An introduction to latent growth curve modeling. *Behavior Therapy*, 35(2), 333–363. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0005-7894\(04\)80042-X](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0005-7894(04)80042-X)
- Duncan, T. E., & Duncan, S. C. (2009). The ABC’s of LGM: An introductory guide to latent variable growth curve modeling. *Social and Personality Psycholy Compass*, 3(6), 979–991. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2009.00224.x>.The
- Durand, J., & Massey, D. S. (2010). New world orders: Continuities and changes in Latin American Migration. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 630(1), 20–52. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0002716210368102>
- Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. H. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Stanford, CA: Stanford Business Books.
- Ebbinghaus, H. (1985). Ueber das Gedächtnis.
- Edgar, B. (2014). An intergenerational model of spatial assimilation in Sydney and Melbourne, Australia. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 40(3), 363–383. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2013.830890>
- Edwards, J. R. (1991). Person-job fit: A conceptual integration, literature review, and methodological critique. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1991, Vol. 6.
- Edwards, J. R. (1993). Problems with the use of profile similarity indices in the study of congruence

- in organizational research. *Personnel Psychology*, 46(3), 641–665.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1993.tb00889.x>
- Edwards, J. R., Cable, D. M., Williamson, I. O., Lambert, L. S., & Shipp, A. J. (2006). The phenomenology of fit: Linking the person and environment to the subjective experience of person-environment fit. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(4), 802–827.
<http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.4.802>
- Edwards, J. R., Caplan, R. D., & Van Harrison, R. (1998). Person-Environment fit theory: Conceptual foundations, emperical evidence, and directions for future research. In C. L. Cooper (Ed.), *Theories of organizational stress* (pp. 28–67). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Edwards, J. R., & Cooper, C. L. (1990). The Person-Environment fit approach to stress: Recurring problems and some suggested solutions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 11(October), 293–307. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030110405>
- Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: a general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods*, 12(1), 1–22. <http://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.12.1.1>
- Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (1999). Work and family stress and well-being: An examination of person-environment fit in the work and family domains. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 77(2), 85–129. <http://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1998.2813>
- Edwards, R., Ribbens, J., & Gillies, V. (1999). Shifting boundaries and power in the research process: the example of researching “step-families.” In J. Seymour & P. Bagguley (Eds.), *Relating intimacies: Power and resistance* (pp. 13–42). London: Palgrave Macmillan UK.
http://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-349-27683-7_2
- Eggerth, D. E. (2008). From theory of work adjustment to person environment correspondence

- counseling: Vocational psychology as positive psychology. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 16(1), 60–74. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1069072707305771>
- Eggerth, D. E., & Flynn, M. a. (2010). When the third world comes to the first: Ethical considerations when working with Hispanic immigrants. *Ethics & Behavior*, 20(3–4), 229–242. <http://doi.org/10.1080/10508421003798968>
- Eggerth, D. E., & Flynn, M. a. (2011). Applying the theory of work adjustment to Latino immigrant workers: an exploratory study. *Journal of Career Development*, 39(1), 76–98. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0894845311417129>
- Elder, C. (2007a). *Being Australian: narratives of national identity*. Crows Nest: Allen & Unwin.
- Elder, C. (2007b). *Being Australian Narratives of national identity*. Allen & Unwin.
- Elliott, T. (2011, February 12). Mexicans seek sanctuary in Australia. Retrieved from <http://www.smh.com.au/national/mexicans-seek-sanctuary-in-australia-20110211-1aqq6.html>
- Fan, X., Thompson, B., & Wang, L. (1999). Effects of sample size, estimation method, and model specification on structural equation modeling fit indexes. *Structural Equation Modeling*.
- Farh, C. I. C., Bartol, K. M., Shapiro, D. L., & Shin, J. (2010). Networking abroad: A process model of how expatriates form support ties to facilitate adjustment. *Academy of Management Review*. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2010.51142246>
- Farzaman, F. (2009). *Cross-cultural adjustment among immigrant executives*. The University of British Columbia.
- Feitosa, J., Kreutzer, C., Kramperth, A., Kramer, W. S., Salas, E., Vromans, P., Mol, S. (2013). Interpersonal affect and host country national support of expatriates An investigation in China. *Journal of Global Mobility: The Home of Expatriate Management Research*, 1(2), 72–91.

- Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JGM-09-2012-0010%5Cnhttp://dx.doi.org/10.1108/%5Cnhttp://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JGM-02-2013-0011>
- Feldman, D. C. ., & Tompson, H. B. . (1993). Expatriation, repatriation, and domestic geographical relocation: An empirical investigation of adjustment to new job assignments. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(3), 507–529.
- Ferner, A., Quintanilla, J., & Varul, M. Z. (2001). Country of origin effects, host-country effects, and the management of HR in Multinationals: German companies in Britain and Spain. *Journal of World Business*, 36(2), 107–127.
- Ferrer, E., & McArdle, J. J. (2010). Longitudinal modeling of developmental changes in psychological research. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 19(3), 149–154. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0963721410370300>
- Finch, B. K., & Vega, W. A. (2003). Acculturation stress, social support, and self-rated health among Latinos in California article. *CEUR Workshop Proceedings*, 5(Ju;;y), 109–117. <http://doi.org/10.1023/A>
- Findlay, A. M. (1994). *Population migration and the changing world order*. (W. T. S. Gould & A. M. Findlay, Eds.). Chichester, New York, Brisbane: John Wiley & Sons.
- Findlay, A. M., & Li, F. L. N. (1999). Methodological issues in researching migration. *The Professional Geographer*, 51(1), 50–59.
- Firth, B. M., Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., & Kim, K. (2014). Newcomers abroad : Expatriate adaptation during early phases of international assignments. *The Academy of Management*, 57(November), 280–300. <http://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0574>
- Fitzgerald, L. F., & Rounds, J. (1993). Women and work: Theory encounters reality. In W. Walsh & S. Osipow (Eds.), *Career counseling for women* (pp. 327–354). Hillsdale, NJ.: Erlbaum.

- Fleenor, J. W., Smither, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Braddy, P. W., & Sturm, R. E. (2010). Self-other rating agreement in leadership: A review. *Leadership Quarterly*, 21(6), 1005–1034.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.10.006>
- Florsheim, P. (1997). Chinese adolescent immigrants: Factors related to psychosocial adjustment. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 26(2), 143–163. Retrieved from
<http://www.scopus.com/inward/record.url?eid=2-s2.0-0031502590&partnerID=tZOtx3y1>
- French, J. R. ., Rogers, Jr., W., & Cobb, S. (1974). Adjustment as person-environment fit. In G. V. Coelho, D. A. Hamburg, & J. E. Adamas (Eds.), *coping and addaptation*. New York: BASic Books.
- French, J. R. P., Caplan, R. D., & Harrison, R. Van. (1982). *The mechanisms of job stress and strain*. London: Wiley.
- Froese, F. J., & Peltokorpi, V. (2011). Cultural distance and expatriate job satisfaction. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 35(1), 49–60.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2010.10.002>
- Froese, F. J., Peltokorpi, V., & Ko, K. A. (2012). The influence of intercultural communication on cross-cultural adjustment and work attitudes: Foreign workers in South Korea. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 36(3), 331–342.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2011.09.005>
- Gardner, D. G., Cummings, L. L., Dunham, R. B., & Pierce, J. L. (1998). Single-Item Versus Multiple-Item Measurement Scales- An Empirical Comparison.pdf. *Education and Psychological Measurement*, 58(6), 898–915.
- Gila Markovizky, Hadas Doron, & Sarid, M. (2011). Family stress and psychological adjustment among welfare and non welfare immigrants. In Alexandra M. Columbus (Ed.), *Advances in*

- Psychology Research* (Volume 80, pp. 137–157). New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Glatzer, W. (1991). Quality of life in advanced industrialized countries: the case of West Germany. In F. Strack, M. Argyle, & N. Schwarz (Eds.), *Subjective well-being: an interdisciplinary perspective* (pp. 261–279). Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press.
- Gong, Y., & Fan, J. (2006). Longitudinal examination of the role of goal orientation in cross-cultural adjustment. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91, 176–184. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.176>
- Goodman, J. S., & Blum, T. C. (1996). Assessing the non-random sampling effects of subject attrition in longitudinal research. *Journal of Management*, 22(4), 627–652. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(96\)90027-6](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(96)90027-6)
- Grant, A. M., & Berry, J. W. (2011). The necessity of others is the mother of invention: Intrinsic and prosocial motivations, perspective taking, and creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(1), 73–96. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2011.59215085>
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3), 255–274. <http://doi.org/10.3102/01623737011003255>
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(1), 76–88.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2003). When work and family collide: Deciding between competing role demands. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 90(2), 291–303. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-5978\(02\)00519-8](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-5978(02)00519-8)
- Griffin, B., & Hesketh, B. (2003). Adaptable behaviours for successful work and career adjustment. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 55(2), 65–73.

- Grillo, I. (2011). *El Narco: Inside Mexico's criminal insurgency*. Dexter, Michigan: Bloomsbury Press.
- Guo, C., & Ariss, A. Al. (2015). Human resource management of international migrants: current theories and future research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. Taylor & Francis. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1011844>
- Guzzo, R. A., Noonan, K. A., & Elron, E. (1994). Expatriate managers and the psychological contract. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 79(4), 617–626.
- Hair, J. ., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis A Global Perspective* (Seventh). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Hall, R. (2008). *Applied social research: Planning, designing and conducting real-world research*. South Yarra, Vic.: Palgrave macmillan.
- Halvorsen, B., Treuren, G. J. M., & Kulik, C. T. (2014). Job embeddedness among migrants: fit and links without sacrifice. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(10), 1298–1317. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2014.990399>
- Harrison, D. A. (2007). *Pitching fits in applied psychological reserach: Making fit methods fit theory*. New York: Erlbaum.
- Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P. (2004). Going places: Roads more and less traveled in research on expatriate experiences. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 23(November 2014), 199–247. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301\(04\)23005-5](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301(04)23005-5)
- Haslberger, A. (2005). Facets and dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation: refining the tools.

- Personnel Review*, 34(1), 85–109. <http://doi.org/10.1108/00483480510571897>
- Haslberger, A., & Dickmann, M. (2016). The correspondence model of cross-cultural adjustment: exploring exchange relationships. *Journal of Global Mobility*, 4(3), 276–299.
- Haslberger, A., & Vaiman, V. (2013). Talent management of self-initiated expatriates: A neglected source of global talent. In V. Vaiman, D. G. Collings, P. Sparrow, & R. S. Schuler (Eds.), . London: Palgrave Macmillan. <http://doi.org/10.1057/9780230392809>
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis*. New York: The Guilford Press. Latest.
- Hechanova-Alampay, R., Beehr, T. A., Christiansen, N. D., & Horn, R. K. Van. (2002). Adjustment and strain among domestic and international student sojourners.pdf. *School Psychology International*, 23(4), School Psychology International, 23, 458–474.
- Hechanova, R., Beehr, T. A., & Christiansen, N. D. (2003). Antecedents and consequences of employees' adjustment to overseas assignment: A meta-analytic review. *Applied Psychology*, 52(2), 213–236. <http://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00132>
- Hedeker, D., Gibbons, R. D., & Waternaux, C. (1999). Sample Size Estimation for Longitudinal Designs with Attrition: Comparing Time-Related Contrasts Between Two Groups. *Journal of Educational and Behavioral Statistics*, 24(1), 70–93. <http://doi.org/10.3102/10769986024001070>
- Hellgren, Z. (2015). Immigrant integration as a two-way process: Translating theory into practice, (23), 30.
- Hendrickson, B., Rosen, D., & Aune, R. K. (2011). An analysis of friendship networks, social connectedness, homesickness, and satisfaction levels of international students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 35(3), 281–295.

<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2010.08.001>

Hesketh, B., & Griffin, B. (2005). Work adjustment. In W. W.B. & M. L. Savickas (Eds.), *Handbook of Vocational Psychology*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hesketh, B., Griffin, B., & Loh, V. (2011). A future-oriented retirement transitiona adjustment framework. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79(2herske), 303–314.

<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.03.008>

Hessling, R., Traxel, N., & Schmidt, T. (2004). Ceiling Effect. In M. S. Lewis-Beck, A. Bryman, & Tim Futing Liao (Eds.), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods*. (p. 107). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications. <http://doi.org/10.4135/9781412950589.n102>

Hicks-Clarke, D., & Iles, P. (2000). Climate for diversity and its effects on career and organisational attitudes and perceptions. *Personnel Review*, 29(3), 324–345.

<http://doi.org/10.1108/09574090910954864>

Hippler, T. (2006). *Another scandal in Bohemia? A look back on how we measure expatriate adjustment*. (M. J. Morley, H. N., & D. J. Collings, Eds.). Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.

Hippler, T., Caligiuri, P. M., Johnson, J. E., & Baytalskaya, N. (2014). The development and validation of a theory-based expatriate adjustment scale. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. Taylor & Francis. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.870286>

Ho, C. (2006). Migration as feminisation? Chinese women's experiences of work and family in Australia. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 32(3), 497–514.

<http://doi.org/10.1080/13691830600555053>

Hofstede, G. (1980). Motivation, leadership, and organisation: do American theories apply abroad? [http://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616\(80\)90013-3](http://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(80)90013-3)

Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. (1991). Structural equations modeling test of a turnover theory: Cross-

- sectional and longitudinal analyses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(3), 350–366.
- House, J. S. (1981). *Work stress and social support*. Michigan: Addison-Wesley. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/2027/mdp.39015071886035>
- House, R. J., Hages, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations. The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. California: Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Howe-Walsh, L., & Schyns, B. (2010). Self-initiated expatriation: Implications for HRM. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(2), 260–273. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585190903509571>
- Howell, J. P., De la Cerda, J., Martinez, S. M., Bautista, J. A., Ortiz, J., Prieto, L., & Dorfman, P. (2008). Societal culture and leadership in Mexico - A portrait of change. In *Culture and leadership across the world. The GLOBE book of In-depth studies of 25 societies*. New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Howell, J. P., De la Cerda, J., Martínez, S. M., Prieto, L., Bautista, J. A., Ortiz, J., ... Méndez, M. J. (2007). Leadership and culture in Mexico. *Journal of World Business*, 42(4), 449–462. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2007.06.006>
- Hsieh, H.-F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1049732305276687>
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1998). *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications*. (R. H. Hoyle, Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hugo, G., Rudd, D., & Harris, K. (2001). *Emigration from Australia economic implications*.
- Inkson, K., & Myers, B. A. (2003). The big OE: self-directed travel and career development. *Career Development Inter*, 8(4), 170–181. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13620430310482553>
- Iyer, D. (2017). Trump’s condemnation of hate crimes doesn’t go nearly far enough. Retrieved

- May 10, 2017, from <http://edition.cnn.com/2017/03/01/opinions/trump-congress-hate-crime-speech-iyer/>
- James, L. R., Mulaik, S. A., & Brett, J. M. (1982). *Causal analysis: Assumptions, models and data*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Jasinskaja-Lahti, I. (2006). Perceived discrimination, social support networks, and psychological well-being among three immigrant groups. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 37(3), 293–311. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0022022106286925>
- Jenkins, E., & Mockaitis, A. (2010). You're from where? The influence of distance factors on New Zealand expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(15), 2694–2715. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2010.528653>
- Jokisaari, M., & Nurmi, J.-E. (2009). Change in newcomers supervisor support and socialization outcomes after organizational entry. *The Academy of Management*, 52(3), 527–544.
- Judge, T. a, & Hurst, C. (2008). How the rich (and happy) get richer (and happier): relationship of core self-evaluations to trajectories in attaining work success. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(4), 849–63. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.93.4.849>
- Jun, S., Lee, S., & Gentry, J. W. (1997). The effects of acculturation on commitment to the parent company and the foreign operation. *International Business Review*, 6(5), 519–535. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0969-5931\(97\)00019-X](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0969-5931(97)00019-X)
- Jupp, J. (Ed.). (2001). *The Australian people : an encyclopedia of the nation, its people and their origins*. New York; Oakleigh, Vic: Cambridge.
- Kalyanram, K., Gopalan, R., & Kartik, K. (2014). *Handbook of Career Development. Handbook of Career Development*. Springer. <http://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-9460-7>
- Kawai, N., & Strange, R. (2014). Perceived organizational support and expatriate performance:

- understanding a mediated model. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. Taylor & Francis. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2014.884615>
- Kennedy, P. (2004). Making global society: friendship networks among transnational professionals in the building design industry. *Global Networks*, 4(2), 157–179.
- Kerr, S. P., Kerr, W., Özden, Ç., & Parsons, C. (2016). *Global talent flows. Journal of Economic Perspectives* (Vol. 30).
- Khosa, R. M., & Kalitanyi, V. (2015). Migration reasons, traits and entrepreneurial motivation of african immigrant entrepreneurs: Towards an entrepreneurial migration progression. *Journal of Enterprising Communities*, 9(2), 132–155. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JEC-07-2014-0011>
- Kirkman, B. L., Chen, G., Kim, K., & Farh, C. I. C. (2010). When does cross-cultural motivation enhance expatriate effectiveness? A multilevel investigation of the moderating roles of subsidiary support and cultural distance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(5), 1110–1130.
- Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling: Methodology in the social sciences*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford.
- Kochan, T., Bezrukova, K., Ely, R., Jackson, S., Joshi, A., Jehn, K., ... Thomas, D. (2003). The effects of diversity on business performance: Report of the diversity research network. *Human Resource Management*, 42(1), 3–21. <http://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.10061>
- Kofman, E. (2000). The invisibility of skilled female migrants and gender relations in studies of skilled migration in Europe. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 6(1), 45–59. [http://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-1220\(200001/02\)6:1<45::AID-IJPG169>3.0.CO;2-B](http://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1220(200001/02)6:1<45::AID-IJPG169>3.0.CO;2-B)
- Kopelman, R. E., Greenhaus, J. H., Connolly, T. F., Greenhaus, J. H., & Kopelman, R. E. (1983).

- A model of work, family, and interrole conflict: A construct validation study. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 32(2), 198–215. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(83\)90147-2](http://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(83)90147-2)
- Kraimer, M., Bolino, M., & Mead, B. (2016). Themes in expatriate and repatriate research over four decades: What do we know and what do we still need to learn? *Annu. Rev. Organ. Psychol. Organ. Behav*, 3, 83–109. <http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-041015-062437>
- Kraimer, M. L., Wayne, S. J., & Jaworski, R. A. a. (2001). Sources of support and expatriate performance: the mediating role of expatriate adjustment. *Personnel Psychology*, 54(1), 71–99. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2001.tb00086.x>
- Krippendorff, K. (1980). *Content analysis. An introduction to its methodology*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L. (2000). Perceived Applicant Fit: Distinguishing Between Recruiters' Perceptions of Person-Job and Person-Organization Fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 53, 643–671. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2000.tb00217.x>
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., & Guay, R. P. (2011). Person-Environment fit. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol 3, pp. 3–50). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. <http://doi.org/10.1037/12171-001>
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2), 281–342. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.00672.x>
- Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-Organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, 49, 1–49. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1996.tb01790.x>

- Lance, C. E., Vandenberg, R. J., & Self, R. M. (2000). Latent growth models of individual change: The case of newcomer adjustment. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 83(1), 107–140. <http://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.2000.2904>
- Lawson, L. (1993). Theory of work adjustment personality constructs. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. <http://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1993.1029>
- Lazarova, M. B., & Thomas, D. C. (2012). Expatriate adjustment and performance revisited. *Handbook of Research in International Human Resource Management*, 297–319. <http://doi.org/10.4337/9781849809184.00020>
- Lazarova, M., Westman, M., & Shaffer, M. A. (2010). Elucidating the positive side of the work-family interface on international assignments: a model of expatriate work and family performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 35(1), 93–117. Retrieved from <https://ldapsso.esade.edu/cgi-bin/ldapsso/ldapssodis.cgi?http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&AuthType=cookie,url,ip,uid&db=edswss&AN=000273460300005&site=eds-live&scope=site>
- Lebrun, L. A. (2012). Effects of length of stay and language proficiency on health care experiences among immigrants in Canada and the United States. *Social Science & Medicine (1982)*, 74(7), 1062–72. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2011.11.031>
- Lewis, V. (2009). Australia: Realidades e imaginarios de un pais continente (p. 9).
- Li, A., & Gasser, M. B. (2005). Predicting Asian international students' sociocultural adjustment: A test of two mediation models. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 29(5), 561–576. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2005.06.003>
- Linehan, M. (2002). Senior female international managers: empirical evidence from Western Europe. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(5), 802–814.

<http://doi.org/10.1080/09585190210125930>

- Little, R. J., & Rubin, D. B. (1987). *Statistical analysis with missing data*. New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Liu, S., Luksyte, A., Zhou, L., Shi, J., & Wang, M. (2015). Overqualification and counterproductive work behaviors: Examining a moderated mediation model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, (36), 250–271.
- Liu, Y., Mo, S., Song, Y., & Wang, M. (2016). Longitudinal analysis in occupational health psychology: A review and tutorial of three longitudinal modeling techniques. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 65(2), 379–411. <http://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12055>
- Liu, Y., Shi, J., & Wang, M. (n.d.). Use of proactive socialization tactics and socialization outcomes: A latent growth modelling approach to understanding newcomers socialization process, 1–58.
- Locke, E. A. (1969). What is job satisfaction? *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 4(4), 309–336. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(69\)90013-0](http://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(69)90013-0)
- Lofquist, L. H., & Dawis, R. V. (1969). *Adjustment to work*. New York: Appleton–Century–Crofts.
- Lofquist, L. H., & Dawis, R. V. (1991). *Essentials of person environment correspondence counseling*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.
- Lu, Y., Samaratunge, R., & Hartel, C. E. J. (2015). Predictors of acculturation attitudes among professional Chinese immigrants in the Australian workplace. *Journal of Management and Organization*. <http://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2015.19>
- Lyons, H. Z. (2003). *A moderated model of the job satisfaction and turnover intentions of African-American employees: Investigating the role of perceptions of fit and racial climate in the theory of work adjustment*. University of Maryland.

- Lyons, H. Z., Brenner, B. R., & Fassinger, R. E. (2005). A Multicultural test of the theory of work adjustment: Investigating the role of heterosexism and fit perceptions in the job Satisfaction of Lesbian, Gay, and Bisexual Employees. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 52(4), 537–548. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.52.4.537>
- Lysgaard, S. (1955). Adjustment in a foreign society: Norwegian Fulbright grantees visiting the United States. *International Social Science Bulletin*, (7), 45–105.
- Mahler, S. J., & Pessar, P. R. (2006). Gender matters: Ethnographers bring gender from the periphery toward the core of migration studies. *International Migration Review*, 40(1), 27–63. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1747-7379.2006.00002.x>
- Malik, A. R., Cooper-Thomas, H. D., & Zikic, J. (2014). The neglected role of cultural intelligence in recent immigrant newcomers' socialization. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 14(2), 195–213. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1470595813507245>
- Mantai, L. (2017). *Social support and identity development in the Journey from PhD 'student to 'researcher and beyond*. Doctoral thesis, Macquarie University.
- Markovizky, G., & Doron, H. (2011). *Psychological adjustment to immigration. Individual and family aspects*. New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Markovizky, G., & Samid, Y. (2008). The process of immigrant adjustment: The role of time in determining psychological adjustment. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 39(6), 782–798. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0022022108323790>
- Markus, A. (2016). *Mapping social cohesion. The Scanlon Foundation surveys 2015*. Caulfield East, Victoria, Australia. Retrieved from <http://www.monash.edu/mapping-population/public-opinion/social-cohesion-report>
- Marsh, H. W., & Hocevar, D. (1985). Application of Confirmatory Factor Analysis to the Study of

- Self-Concept: First-and Higher Order Factor Models and Their Invariance Across Groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, 97(3), 562–582. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.97.3.562>
- Marstucelli, J., & Leyva, C. M. (2007). La migracion del talento en Mexico. *Universidades*, (sept-dic), 3–14.
- Martin Jr, W. E., & Swartz-Kulstad, J. L. (Eds.). (2000). *Person-environment psychology and mental health: Assessment and intervention*. Routledge.
- Massey, D. S., & Bartley, K. (2005). The changing legal status distribution of immigrants: A caution. *International Migration Review*, 39(2), 469–484. <http://doi.org/doi:10.1111/j.1747-7379.2005.tb00274.x>
- Maxwell, S., & Cole, D. (2007). Bias in cross-sectional analyses of longitudinal mediation. *Psychological Methods*, 12(1), 23–44. <http://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.12.1.23>
- Mayring, P. (2000). Qualitative content analysis. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 1(2), 1–10. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04569.x>
- McArdle, J. J. (1988). Dynamic but structural modeling of repeated measures data. In J. R. Nesselroade & R. B. Cattell (Eds.), *Handobook of multivariate experimental psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 561–614). N.Y., Plenum.
- McArdle, J. J., & Epstein, D. (1987). Latent growth curves within developmental structural equation models. *Wiley on Behalf of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 58(1), 110–133.
- Mejía, G. (2015). Language usage and culture maintenance: a study of Spanish-speaking immigrant mothers in Australia. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 4632(March), 1–17. <http://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2015.1029931>
- Mercille, J. (2011). Violent narco-cartels or US hegemony ? The political economy of the “war on

- drugs” in Mexico. *Third World Quarterly*, 32(9), 1637–1653.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/01436597.2011.619881>
- Meredith, W., & Tisak, J. (1990). Latent curve analysis. *Psychometrika*, 55(1), 107–122.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analisis* (Second). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Morley, M., Heraty, N., & Collings, D. (2006). *New directions in expatriate research*. New York, NY: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Mujumdar, S. (2008). *Work stress in Australian professionals: The role of culture, gender and work-family conflict*. University of Adelaide.
- Murphy, J., Dean, E., Hill, C. A., & Richards, A. (2011). Social media, new technologies, and the future of health survey research. In *The 10th conference on health survey research methods* (pp. 231–241). Retrieved from http://scholar.google.com.my/scholar?start=90&q=%22Jorge+Diaz-herrera%22&hl=en&as_sdt=2000#3
- Murphy, K. R. (2010). Power analysis. In G. R. Hancock & Ralph O. Mueller (Eds.), *The reviewer’s guide to quantitaitive methods in Social Sciences*. New York: Routledge.
- Muthén, B., Kaplan, D., & Hollis, M. (1987). On structural equation modeling with data that are not missing completely at random. *Psychometrika*, 52(3), 431–462.
http://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-61779-555-8_27
- Muthén, B. O., & Curran, J. P. (1997). General longitudinal modeling of individual differences in experimental designs: A latent variable framework for analysis and power estimation. *Psychological Methods*, 2(4), 371–402. <http://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.2.4.371>
- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (2015). *Mplus. Statistical analysis with latent variables. User’s*

- guide* (Seventh). Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén.
- Nagy, M. S. (2002). Using a single-item approach to measure facet job satisfaction. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75(1), 77–86.
<http://doi.org/10.1348/096317902167658>
- Napier, N. K., & Taylor, S. (1995). *Western women working in Japan: Breaking corporate barriers*. Quorum Books.
- Nations, U. (2013). International Migration Report 2013. *United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Population Division*, 1. <http://doi.org/ST/ESA/SER.A/346>
- Nebus, J. (2006). Building collegial information networks: A theory of advice network generation. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(3), 615–637.
<http://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.2006.21318921>
- Negy, C., Schwartz, S., & Reig-Ferrer, A. (2009). Violated expectations and acculturative stress among U.S. Hispanic immigrants. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 15(3), 255–264. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0015109>
- Newman, J., Bhatt, B., & Gutteridge, T. (1978). Determinants of expatriate effectiveness: A theoretical and empirical vacuum. *Academy of Management Review*, 3(3), 655–661.
<http://doi.org/10.5465/AMR.1978.4305937>
- Nguyen, A. M. D., & Benet-Martinez, V. (2013). Biculturalism and adjustment: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 44(1), 122–159.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0022022111435097>
- Nisbett, R., & Ross, L. (1983). Human Inference : Strategies and shortcomings of social judgment. *Philosophical Review*, 92(3), 462–465.
- Nolan, E. M., & Morley, M. J. (2014). A test of the relationship between person–environment fit

- and cross-cultural adjustment among self-initiated expatriates. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(11), 1631–1649.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.845240>
- O’Neil, S. (2009). The real war in Mexico: How democracy can defeat the drug cartels. *Foreign Affairs*, 88(4), 63–77. <http://doi.org/Article>
- Oh, I.-S., Guay, R. P., Kim, K., Harold, C. M., Lee, J.-H., Heo, C.-G., & Shin, K.-H. (2014). Fit Happens globally: A meta-analytic comparison of the relationships of Person-Environment fit dimensions with work attitudes and performance across East Asia, Europe, and North America. *Personnel Psychology*, 67(1), 99–152. <http://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12026>
- Olsen, J. E., & Martins, L. L. (2009). The effects of expatriate demographic characteristics on adjustment: a social identity approach. *Human Resource Management*, 48(2), 311–328. <http://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20281/abstract>
- Ones, D. S., & Sinangil, H. K. (2001). Expatriate management. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial, work & organizational psychology. Personel psychology* (pp. 424–443).
- Onosu, O. G. (2012). *A qualitative analysis of challenges facing expatriate worker coming to the United States*. Indiana University of Pennsylvania. Retrieved from [dspace.iup.edu/bitstream/handle/2069/1885/Oghenebruphiyo %2528Gloria%2529 Onosu %2528Thesis%2529.pdf?sequence=1](http://dspace.iup.edu/bitstream/handle/2069/1885/Oghenebruphiyo%2528Gloria%2529Onosu%2528Thesis%2529.pdf?sequence=1)
- Pan, S. W., & Carpiano, R. M. (2013). Immigrant density, sense of community belonging, and suicidal ideation among racial minority and white immigrants in Canada. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health*, 15(1), 34–42. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10903-012-9657-8>
- Parker, B., & McEvoy, G. M. (1993). Initial examination of a model of intercultural adjustment.

- International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 17(3), 355–379. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767\(93\)90039-B](http://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767(93)90039-B)
- Parkes, M. C. (1988). Bereavement as a psychological transition: Processes of adaptation to change. *Journal of Social Issues*, 44(3), 53–65. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.1988.tb02076.x>
- Parody, V. P. (2009). From Mexico to Australia: A feasible change in mexican migration pattern? De México a Australia: ¿Un cambio factible en el patrón de la migración mexicana? *Iberofórum. Revista de Ciencias Sociales de La Universidad Iberoamericana.*, Año IV(8), 1–14.
- Pattie, M., & Parks, L. (2011). Adjustment, turnover, and performance: the deployment of minority expatriates. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(May 2014), 2262–2280. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.580195>
- Payne, S. (2016). Finding work can be an uphill battle for skilled migrants. Retrieved June 13, 2017, from <http://www.sbs.com.au/news/article/2016/06/10/finding-work-can-be-uphill-battle-skilled-migrants>
- Peiperl, M., & Jonsen, K. (2007). Global careers. In H. Gunz & M. Peiperl (Eds.), *Handbook of Career Studies* (pp. 350–372). Sage. <http://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412976107.n18>
- Peltokorpi, V. (2008). Cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates in Japan. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(9), 1588–1606. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585190802294903>
- Peltokorpi, V., & Froese, F. J. (2009). Organizational expatriates and self-initiated expatriates: who adjusts better to work and life in Japan? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(5), 1096–1112. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585190902850299>

- Peltokorpi, V., & Froese, F. J. (2012). The impact of expatriate personality traits on cross-cultural adjustment: A study with expatriates in Japan. *International Business Review*, 21(4), 734–746.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2011.08.006>
- Pettigrew, T. F., & Tropp, L. R. (2006). A meta-analytic test of intergroup contact theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90(5), 751–783. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.90.5.751>
- Phinney, J. S., Horenczyk, G., Liebkind, K., & Vedder, P. (2001). Ethnic identity, immigration, and well-being: An interactional perspective. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(3), 493–510.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00225>
- Ployhart, R. E., Holtz, B. C., & Bliese, P. D. (2002). Longitudinal data analysis: Applications of random coefficient modeling to leadership research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(4), 455–486. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(02\)00122-4](http://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00122-4)
- Ployhart, R. E., & Vandenberg, R. J. (2010). Longitudinal research: The theory, design, and analysis of change. *Journal of Management*, 36(1), 94–120.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309352110>
- Ployhart, R. E., & Ward, A.-K. (2011). The “Quick start guide” for conducting and publishing longitudinal research. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 26(4), 413–422.
<http://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-011-9209-6>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control It. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 63(1), 539–569. <http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-120710-100452>
- Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-report in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of Management*, 12(4), 531–544.

<http://doi.org/10.1177/014920638601200408>

- Polek, E., Wöhrle, J., & Van Oudenhoven, J. P. (2010). The role of attachment styles, perceived discrimination, and cultural distance in adjustment of German and Eastern European immigrants in the Netherlands. *Cross-Cultural Research: The Journal of Comparative Social Science*, 44(1), 60–88. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1069397109352779>
- Pollock, G. H. (1989). On migration-voluntary and coerced. *Annals of Psychoanalysis*, 17, 145–158.
- Portes, A. (1995). *Economic sociology of immigration, The: Essays on networks, ethnicity, and entrepreneurship*. Russell Sage Foundation.
- Preacher, K. J., & Coffman, D. L. (2006). Computing power and minimum sample size for RMSEA.
- Pritchard, B., & McManus, P. (Eds.). (2000). *Land of discontent*. Sydney: UNSW Press.
- Punch, K. F. (2005). *Introduction to social research. Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. (Second). London: Sage.
- Raghuram, A., Luksyte, A., Avery, D. R., & Macoukji, F. (2012). Does your supervisor stress you out? How support influences sex differences in stress among immigrants. *Journal of Career Development*, 39(1), 99–117. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0894845310377499>
- Ramalu, S. S., Rose, R. C., Kumar, N., & Uli, J. (2010). Personality and expatriate performance: The mediating role of expatriate adjustment. *The Journal of Applied Business Research*, 26(6), 113–122.
- Ramboarison-Lalao, L., Al Ariss, A., & Isabelle Barth. (2012). Careers of skilled migrants: understanding the experiences of Malagasy physicians in France. *Journal of Management Development*, 31(2), 92–101. <http://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/MRR-09-2015-0216>
- Ramos, J. (2017). Jorge Ramos tells Donald Trump why he can't just say he's deporting immigrants

- that are criminals. Retrieved May 10, 2017, from <https://www.jorgeramos.com/en/jorge-ramos-tells-donald-trump-cant-just-say-hes-deporting-immigrants-criminals/>
- Ravasi, C., Salamin, X., & Davoine, E. (2015). Cross-cultural adjustment of skilled migrants in a multicultural and multilingual environment: an explorative study of foreign employees and their spouses in the Swiss context. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(10), 1335–1359. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2014.985328>
- Reiche, B. S., Kraimer, M. L., & Harzing, A.-W. (2011). Why do international assignees stay? An organizational embeddedness perspective. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 42(4), 521–544. <http://doi.org/10.1057/jibs.2011.5>
- Reynolds, A. L., & Constantine, M. G. (2007). Cultural adjustment difficulties and career development of international college students. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 15(3), 338–350. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1069072707301218>
- Richardson, J., & McKenna, S. (2003). International experience and academic careers: What do academics have to say? *Journal of Service Management*, 32(6), 774–795. <http://doi.org/10.1108/MBE-09-2016-0047>
- Rigdon, E. E., Schumacker, R. E., & Wothke, W. (1998). A comparative review of interaction and nonlinear modeling. In R. E. Schumacker & G. Marcoulides (Eds.), *Interaction and Nonlinear Effects in Structural Equation Modeling* (pp. 1–16). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Riusala, K., & Suutari, V. (2000). Expatriation and careers: perspectives of expatriates and spouses. *Career Development International*, 5(2), 81–90. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13620430010318945>
- Rose, R. C., Ramalu, S. S., Uli, J., & Kumar, N. (2010). Expatriate performance in international assignments: The role of cultural intelligence as dynamic intercultural competency.

International Journal of Business and Management, 5(8), 76–85.

Rounds, J., Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1987). Measurement of Person-Environment fit and prediction of satisfaction in the theory of work adjustment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 31(3), 297–318. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791\(87\)90045-5](http://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(87)90045-5)

Rounds, J., & Hesketh, B. (1994). The theory of work adjustment. Unifying principles and concepts. In M. L. Savikas & R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Convergence in career development theories* (pp. 117–1186). Palo Alto, CA: CPP Books.

Rovine, M. J., & Von Eye, A. (1991). *Applied computational statistics in longitudinal research*. San Diego: Academic Press computational statistics in longitudinal research.

Rubin, D. B. (1976). Inference and missing data. *Biometrika*, 63(581–592).

Ryan, A. M., & Kristof-Brown, A. (2003). Focusing on Personality in Person-Organization fit research Unaddressed Issues. In A. M. Ryan & M. R. Barrick (Eds.), *Personality and work: Reconsidering the role of personality in organizations* (p. 365). Jossey-Bass. Retrieved from <http://www.al-edu.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/BarrickRyan-eds-Personality-and-Work.pdf#page=112>

Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(4), 719–27. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7473027>

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (1997). A longitudinal investigation of the relationships between job information sources, applicant perceptions of fit, and work outcomes. *Personnel Psychology*, 50(2), 395–426. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1997.tb00913.x>

Saks, A. M., Gruman, J. A., & Cooper-Thomas, H. (2011). The neglected role of proactive behavior and outcomes in newcomer socialization. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79(1), 36–46.

- <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2010.12.007>
- Salant, T., & Lauderdale, D. S. (2003). Measuring culture: A critical review of acculturation and health in Asian immigrant populations. *Social Science and Medicine*, 57(1), 71–90. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-9536\(02\)00300-3](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-9536(02)00300-3)
- Sandefur, G. D., & Tuma, N. B. (1987). How data type affects conclusions about individual mobility. *Social Science Research*, 16, 301–328. <http://doi.org/0049-089X/87>
- SBS. (2016). Many with different visas, different look struggle for work _ SBS News. Retrieved June 10, 2017, from <http://www.sbs.com.au/news/article/2016/08/25/many-different-visas-different-look-struggle-work>
- Schafer, J. L., & Graham, J. W. (2002). Missing data: Our view of the state of the art. *Psychological Methods*, 7(2), 147–177. <http://doi.org/10.1037//1082-989X.7.2.147>
- Scheff, T. J. (2000). Shame and the social bond: A sociological theory. *Sociological Theory*, 18(1), 84–99. <http://doi.org/10.1111/0735-2751.00089>
- Schirmer, J. (2009). Ethical issues in the use of multiple survey reminders. *Journal of Academic Ethics*, 7(1), 125–139. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10805-009-9072-5>
- Schofield, D. J., Shrestha, R. N., Percival, R., Passey, M. E., Callander, E. J., & Kelly, S. J. (2011). The personal and national costs of mental health conditions : impacts on income , taxes , government support payments due to lost labour force participation. *BMC Psychiatry*.
- Schwarz, G. (1978). Estimating the Dimension of a Model. *The Annals of Statistics*, 6(2), 461–464. <http://doi.org/10.1214/aos/1176344136>
- Sclove, L. S. (1987). Application of model selection criteria to some problems in multivariate analysis. *Psychometrika*, 52(3), 333–343.
- Searle, W., & Ward, C. (1990). The prediction of psychological and sociocultural adjustment

- during cross-cultural transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14(4), 449–464. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767\(90\)90030-Z](http://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767(90)90030-Z)
- Selmer, J. (2001). Who wants an expatriate business career? In search of the cosmopolitan manager. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 1(2), 173–185.
- Shaffer, M. A., & Harrison, D. A. (1998). Expatriates' psychological withdrawal from international assignments: Work, nonwork, and family influences. *Personnel Psychology*, 51, 87–118. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1998.tb00717.x>
- Shaffer, M. A., Kraimer, M. L., Chen, Y.-P., & Bolino, M. C. (2012). Choices, challenges, and career consequences of global work experiences: A review and future agenda. *Journal of Management*, 38(4), 1282–1327. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206312441834>
- Shah, C. (2009). *Determinants of job separation and occupational mobility in Australia*. Center for the Economics of Education and Training. Melbourne, VIC. Retrieved from <http://www.monash.edu/education/non-cms/centres/ceet/docs/workingpapers/wp66-shah09.pdf>
- Shim, Y. R., & Schwartz, R. C. (2007). The Relationship between degree of acculturation and adjustment difficulties among Korean immigrants living in a Western society. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 35(4), 409–426. <http://doi.org/10.1080/03069880701593516>
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: new procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7(4), 422. <http://doi.org/10.1037//1082-989x.7.4.422>
- Shtivelband, A. (2014). *Applying the theory of work adjustment to recent and non-recent latino immigrant workers*. Colorado State University.
- Sinacore, A., Mikhail, A. M., Kassan, A., & Lerner, A. (2009). Cultural transitioning of Jewish

- immigrants: Education, employment and integration. *International Journal for Educational and Vocational Guidance*, 9(3), 157–176. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10775-009-9166-z>
- Singer, J. D., & Willett, J. B. (2003). *Applied longitudinal data analysis*. USA: Oxford University Press.
- Skuja, I., & Joy Norton. (1982). Counseling English-speaking expatriates in Tokyo. *International Social Work*, (25), 30–42.
- Smith, P. B., Peterson, M. F., & Schwartz, S. H. (2002). Cultural values, sources of guidance and their relevance to managerial behaviour. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33(2), 188–208. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0022022102033002005>
- Song, Y., Liu, Y., Shi, J., & Wang, M. (2017). Use of Proactive Socialization Tactics and Socialization Outcomes: A Latent Growth Modeling Approach to Understanding Newcomer Socialization Process. *Academy of Management Discoveries*, 3(1), 42–63. <http://doi.org/10.5465/amd.2014.0142>
- Sonnenberg, F. A., & Beck, J. R. (1993). Medical decision making Markov models in medical decision making: A practical guide. *Med Decis Making*, 13, 322–338. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0272989X9301300409>
- Spector, P. E. (1994). Using self-report questionnaires in OB research : A comment on the use of a controversial method. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(5), 385–392.
- Statistics, A. B. of. (2016). Overseas born Aussies highest in over a century. Retrieved April 1, 2017, from [http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/lookup/3412.0Media Release12014-15](http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/lookup/3412.0Media+Release12014-15)
- Steiger, J. H. (1990). Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 25(2), 173–180. <http://doi.org/10.1207/s15327906mbr2502>

- Swanson, J. L., & Schneider, M. (2013). Minnesota theory of work adjustment. In S. D. Brown & Robert W. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counseling: putting theory and research to work* (Second, p. 31). Wiley.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (Sixth Edit). Edinburgh Gate: Pearson Education Limited.
- Takeuchi, R. (2010). A critical review of expatriate adjustment research through a multiple stakeholder view: Progress, emerging trends, and prospects. *Journal of Management*, 36(4), 1040–1064. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206309349308>
- Takeuchi, R., Marinova, S. V, Lepak, D. P., & Liu., W. (2010). A model of expatriate withdrawal-related outcomes: Decision making from a dualistic adjustment perspective. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20(8610), 144–157. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2009.06.003>
- Takeuchi, R., Tesluk, P. E., Yun, S., & Lepak, D. P. (2005). An integrative view of international experience. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(1), 85–100. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.15993143>
- Takeuchi, R., Wang, M., & Marinova, S. V. (2005). Antecedents and consequences of psychological workplace strain during expatriation: A cross-sectional and longitudinal investigation. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(4), 925–948. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=buh&AN=18807652&loginpage=Login.asp&site=ehost-live>
- Tharenou, P. (2015). Researching expatriate types: the quest for rigorous methodological approaches. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 25(2), 149–165. <http://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12070>
- Tharenou, P., & Caulfield, N. (2010). Will I stay or will I go? Explaining repatriation by self-

- initiated expatriates. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(5), 1009–1028.
- Thomas, D. C., & Lazarova, M. (2006). Expatriate adjustment and performance: a critical review. In G. K. Stahl & I. Björkman (Eds.), *Handbook of research in international human resource management*. (pp. 176–196). <http://doi.org/10.4337/9781845428235>
- Thorn, K., Inkson, K., & Carr, S. (2013). New constructs for the prediction of self-initiated international mobility: An exploratory study. *Journal of Pacific Rim Psychology*, 7(1), 24–35. <http://doi.org/10.1017/prp.2013.3>
- Tinsley, D. J. (1993). Extensions, elaborations, and construct validation of the theory of work adjustment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 43, 67–74.
- Tinsley, H. E. A. (2000). The congruence myth: An analysis of the efficacy of the Person–Environment fit model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 56(2), 147–179. <http://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1999.1727>
- Tom, V. R. (1971). The role of personality and organizational images in the recruiting process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 6(5), 573–592. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0030-5073\(71\)80008-9](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0030-5073(71)80008-9)
- Toon W. Taris. (2000). *A primer in longitudinal data analysis. A primer in longitudinal data analysis*. London: Sage. <http://doi.org/10.4135/9781849208512.n1>
- Torbiorn, I. (1982). *Living abroad: Personal adjustment and personnel policy in the overseas setting*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Toyokawa, T., & Toyokawa, N. (2002). Extracurricular activities and the adjustment of Asian international students: A study of Japanese students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 26(4), 363–379. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0147-1767\(02\)00010-X](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0147-1767(02)00010-X)
- Tucker, L. R., & Lewis, C. (1973). A reliability coefficient for maximum likelihood factor analysis.

- Psychometrika*, 38(1), 1–10. <http://doi.org/10.1007/BF02291170>
- United Nations. (2015). *International migration wallchart 2015*. United States of America. Retrieved from www.unpopulation.org
- Ünlü Ince, B., Cuijpers, P., Van't Hof, E., & Riper, H. (2014). Reaching and recruiting Turkish migrants for a clinical trial through Facebook: A process evaluation. *Internet Interventions*, 1(2), 74–83. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.invent.2014.05.003>
- Van den Bergh, R., & Du Plessis, Y. (2012). Highly skilled migrant women: A career development framework. *Journal of Management Development*, 31(2), 142–158. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02621711211199485>
- Van Dyne, L., & LePine, J. a. (1998). Helping and voice extra-role behaviors: Evidence of construct and predictive validity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(1), 108–119. <http://doi.org/10.2307/256902>
- Van Erp, K. J. P. M., Van der Zee, K. I., Giebels, E., & Van Duijn, M. a. J. (2013). Lean on me: The importance of one's own and partner's intercultural personality for expatriate's and expatriate spouse's successful adjustment abroad. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23(April 2014), 706–728. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2013.816088>
- Van Oudenhoven, J. P., Ward, C., & Masgoret, A. M. (2006). Patterns of relations between immigrants and host societies. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30(6), 637–651. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2006.09.001>
- Van Vianen, A. E. M., De Pater, I. E., Kristof-Brown, A. L., & Johnson, E. C. (2004). Fitting in: Surface and deep-level cultural differences and expatriates' adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(5), 697–709. <http://doi.org/10.2307/20159612>

- Vance, C. M. (2005). The personal quest for building global competence: A taxonomy of self-initiating career path strategies for gaining business experience abroad. *Journal of World Business*, 40(4), 374–385. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2005.08.005>
- Vandenberg, R. J., & Lance, C. E. (2000). A Review and Synthesis of the Measurement Invariance Literature: Suggestions, Practices, and Recommendations for Organizational Research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 3(1), 4–70. <http://doi.org/10.1177/109442810031002>
- Vazire, S. (2010). Who knows what about a person? The self-other knowledge asymmetry (SOKA) model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 98(2), 281–300. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0017908>
- Vazquez Maggio, M. L. (2013). *Migration of Mexicans to Australia (Doctoral dissertation)*. UNSW.
- VECCI, V. E. C. of C. and I. (2007). *Victorian Skills Survey*. Melbourne.
- Velez, B. L., & Moradi, B. (2012). Workplace support, discrimination, and person–organization fit: Tests of the theory of work adjustment with LGB individuals. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 59(3), 399–407. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0028326>
- Verquer, M. L., Beehr, T. A., & Wagner, S. H. (2003). A meta-analysis of relations between person-organization fit and work attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 63(3), 473–489. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791\(02\)00036-2](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00036-2)
- Vianen, A. E. M. (2000). Person-Organization fit: The match between newcomers' and recruiters' preferences for organizational cultures. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(1), 113–149. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2000.tb00196.x>
- Villafranco, G. (2016). Australia busca mexicanos para que ganen 82,000 pesos al mes (Australia looks for Mexicans wanting to earn 82,000 pesos montly). Retrieved April 30, 2017, from

<https://www.forbes.com.mx/trabaja-en-australia-y-gana-en-promedio-82000-pesos-al-mes/>

Wang, J., & Wang, X. (2014). *Structural Equation Modeling*.

<http://doi.org/10.1080/10705511.2014.935842>

Wang, M., & Takeuchi, R. (2007). The role of goal orientation during expatriation: a cross-sectional and longitudinal investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(5), 1437–1445.

<http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.5.1437>

Wang, M., Zhan, Y., McCune, E., & Truxillo, D. M. (2011). Understanding newcomers' adaptability and work-related outcomes: testing the mediating roles of perceived P-E Fit variables. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1), 163–189. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01205.x>

Wang, X., & Jordache, P. (2005). Work adjustment and job satisfaction of Filipino immigrant employees in Canada. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 22(3), 243–254.

Retrieved from

<http://search.proquest.com/docview/204891525/fulltextPDF/6FEB059448FC418APQ/1?accountid=12219>

Wang, X., & Kanungo, R. N. (2004). Nationality, social network and psychological well-being: Expatriates in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(4–5),

775–793. <http://doi.org/10.1080/0958519042000192942>

Wanous, J. P., Reichers, A. E., & Hudy, M. J. (1997). Overall job satisfaction: how good are single-item measures? *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(2), 247–252.

<http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.2.247>

Ward, C., Bochner, S., & Furnham, A. (2001). *The psychology of culture shock* (Second). Sussex: Routledge.

- Ward, C., & Chang, W. C. (1997). "Cultural fit": A new perspective on personality and sojourner adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 21(4), 525–533.
[http://doi.org/10.1016/S0147-1767\(97\)00023-0](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0147-1767(97)00023-0)
- Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1993). Where's the "culture" in cross-cultural transition? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 24(2), 221–249. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0022022193242006>
- Ward, C., Leong, C.-H., & Low, M. (2004). Personality and sojourner adjustment: An exploration of the big five and the cultural fit proposition. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 35(2), 137–151. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0022022103260719>
- Ward, C., & Masgoret, A. M. (2006). An integrative model of attitudes toward immigrants. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30(6), 671–682.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2006.06.002>
- Ward, C., Okura, Y., Kennedy, A., & Kojima, T. (1998). The U-curve on trial: A longitudinal study of psychological and sociocultural adjustment during cross-cultural transition. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 22(3), 277–291. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S0147-1767\(98\)00008-X](http://doi.org/10.1016/S0147-1767(98)00008-X)
- Ward, C., & Rana-deuba, A. (2000). Home and host culture influences on sojourner adjustment, 24, 291–306.
- Way, N., Reddy, R., & Rhodes, J. E. (2007). Students' perceptions of school climate during the middle school years: Associations with trajectories of psychological and behavioral adjustment. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 40(3–4), 194–213.
<http://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-007-9143-y>
- Werner, O., & Campbell, D. T. (1970). Translating, working through interpreters, and the problem of decentering. *A Handbook of Method in Cultural Antropology.*, 398–420.

- Westcott, H., & Vazquez Maggio, M. L. (2015). Friendship, humour and non-native language: Emotions and experiences of professional migrants to Australia. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 9451(November), 1–13. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2015.1064764>
- Weston, R., & Gore, P. A. J. (2006). A brief guide to structural equation modeling. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 34(5), 719–751. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0011000006286345>
- White, C. M. (1992). *Mastering risk: environment, markets and politics in Australian economic history*. USA: Oxford University Press.
- Willett, J. B., & Sayer, A. G. (1994). Using covariance structure analysis to detect correlated and predictors of individual change over time. *Psychological Bulletin*, 116(2), 363–381.
- Wilson, T. D. (2009). *Women's migration networks in Mexico and beyond* (1st ed.). Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press.
- Wong-Rieger, D., & Quintana, D. (1987). Comparative acculturation of southeast asian and Hispanic immigrants and sojourners. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 18(3), 345–362. <http://doi.org/0803973233>
- Wu, P.-C., & Ang, S. H. (2011). The impact of expatriate supporting practices and cultural intelligence on cross-cultural adjustment and performance of expatriates in Singapore. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(13), 2683–2702. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.599956>
- Zhu, J., Wanberg, C. R., Harrison, D. A., & Diehn, E. W. (2016). Ups and downs of the Expatriate experience understanding work adjustment trajectories and career outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101(4), 549–568. <http://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000073>
- Zikic, J. (2015). Skilled migrants' career capital as a source of competitive advantage: implications for strategic HRM. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(10),

1360–1381. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2014.981199>

Zikic, J., Bonache, J., & Cerdin, J.-L. (2010). Crossing national boundaries: A typology of qualified immigrants' career orientations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(5), 667–686. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.705>

Zlobina, A., Basabe, N., Paez, D., & Furnham, A. (2006). Sociocultural adjustment of immigrants: Universal and group-specific predictors. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 30(2), 195–211. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2005.07.005>

Appendices

Appendix 1: Ethics Approval


Office of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Research)

Research Office
C5C Research HUB East, Level 3, Room 324
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY NSW 2109 AUSTRALIA

Phone +61 (0)2 9850 7850
Fax +61 (0)2 9850 4465
Email ethics.secretariat@mq.edu.au

07 May 2014

Associate Professor Barbara Griffin
Department of Psychology
Faculty of Human Sciences
Macquarie University
NSW 2109

Dear Associate Professor Griffin

Re: "Work and Non Work Adjustment of Mexican immigrants in Australia"

Thank you for your recent correspondence. The Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) (Human Sciences and Humanities) reviewed your response via the online review system.

This research meets the requirements set out in the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (2007) and your application has been approved.

Details of this approval are as follows:

Reference No: 5201400317

Approval Date: 07 May 2014

This letter constitutes ethical approval only.

The following documentation have been reviewed and approved by the HREC (Human Sciences and Humanities):

Documents reviewed	Version no.	Date
Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Application	2.3	Jul 2013
Response from A/Prof Griffin addressing feedback from HREC review		22 Apr 2014
Recruitment Invitation		
Rater nomination email		
Follow-up Email		
Participant Information & Consent Form		
Appendix 1		

Please ensure that all documentation has a version number and date in future correspondence with the Committee.

Standard Conditions of Approval:

1. Continuing compliance with the requirements of the *National Statement*, which is available at the following website:

<http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/book/national-statement-ethical-conduct-human-research>

2. Approval is for five (5) years, subject to the submission of annual reports. Please submit your reports on the anniversary of the approval of this protocol.

3. All adverse events must be reported to the HREC within 72 hours.

4. Proposed changes to the protocol must be submitted to the Committee for approval before implementation.

It is the responsibility of the Chief investigator to retain a copy of all documentation related to this project and to forward a copy of this approval letter to all personnel listed on the project.

Please do not hesitate to contact the Ethics Secretariat should you have any questions regarding your ethics application.

The HREC (Human Sciences and Humanities) wishes you every success in your research.

Yours sincerely



Dr Karolyn White

Director, Research Ethics & Integrity

Chair, Human Research Ethics Committee (Human Sciences and Humanities)

This HREC is constituted and operates in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council's (NHMRC) National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) (the National Statement) and the CPMP/ICH Note for Guidance on Good Clinical Practice.

Appendix 2: Information Consent



Department of Psychology
Faculty of Human Sciences
MACQUARIE UNIVERSITY NSW 2109
Phone: +61 (02) 9850 9012
Fax: +61 (02) 02 9850 8062
Email: barbara.griffin@mq.edu.au

Chief Investigator's / Supervisor's Name: A/Professor. Barbara Griffin
Associate Investigator: Ms Fabiola Barba Ponce

Information Form

Name of Project: work and non-work adjustment of Mexican immigrants in Australia

You have been nominated to provide some information about a Mexican colleague/friend who is participating in a study about how Mexican immigrants to Australia adjust to both work and non-work aspects of living in this country. The main objective of this study is to identify the factors and processes that lead to good adjustment because there is evidence that Mexicans migrating to Australia don't necessarily adjust well, either to their work situations or to the Australian culture in general.

The study is being conducted by Fabiola Barba Ponce to meet the requirements of a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) under the supervision of A/Prof Barbara Griffin, Department of Psychology at Macquarie University.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete a confidential five to ten minute survey where you will be rating the adjustment to Australia of the Mexican participant who nominated you. This person will not know whether or not you choose to complete the survey and your answers will only ever be seen by the two university researchers, A/Professor Barbara Griffin and Ms Fabiola Barba Ponce.

The results of the research will only be reported in averages so no individual can be identified.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to start the survey, you are free to withdraw at any time. Completion of the survey will be taken as consent.

The Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee has approved the ethical aspects of this study. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

I have read and understand the information about this study. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence.

Appendix 3: Items in English and Back-translated into Spanish

A list of the variable scales and items used in this thesis is shown below. The scales are laid out in five categories: demographic variables, predictors of adjustment, adjustment type, outcome of adjustment and outcomes as reported by raters.

Demographic Variables

- | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Do you consider yourself to be a Mexican? | Do you have children? |
| <input type="radio"/> Yes | <input type="radio"/> Yes |
| <input type="radio"/> No (end of the survey) | <input type="radio"/> No |
| Are you in Australia under a Student visa or a diplomatic visa? | Do they live in Australia? |
| <input type="radio"/> Yes (end of the survey) | <input type="radio"/> Yes |
| <input type="radio"/> No | <input type="radio"/> No |
| | <input type="radio"/> Some live here, some live in Mexico |
| | <input type="radio"/> None of the above |
| What is your age? | What was your level of education prior your arrival in Australia? |
| <input type="checkbox"/> _____ Years | <input type="radio"/> Elementary education |
| Gender | <input type="radio"/> Secondary school |
| <input type="radio"/> Male (1) | <input type="radio"/> High school |
| <input type="radio"/> Female (2) | <input type="radio"/> Technical accreditation (Certificate/Diploma) (from TAFE) |
| <input type="radio"/> I prefer not to answer (3) | <input type="radio"/> Bachelor University Degree |
| Where do you live? | <input type="radio"/> Masters |
| <input type="radio"/> New South Wales | <input type="radio"/> Doctoral degree |
| <input type="radio"/> Victoria | <input type="radio"/> Other _____ |
| <input type="radio"/> ACT | |
| <input type="radio"/> South Australia | In order to get employment related to your Mexican qualifications in Australia, which of the following is most accurate? |
| <input type="radio"/> Western Australia | <input type="radio"/> No further training required - Mexican qualifications were recognised |
| <input type="radio"/> Tasmania | <input type="radio"/> Undertook extra training because Mexican qualifications were NOT recognised - NOW working in a SIMILAR job as you were in Mexico |
| <input type="radio"/> Northern Territories | <input type="radio"/> Undertook additional training but now working in a LOWER level job than you were in Mexico |
| <input type="radio"/> Queensland | <input type="radio"/> Needed further training, but was unable to get this - now working in a different job |
| Where do you live-b? | <input type="radio"/> This does not apply to me |
| <input type="radio"/> Capital city | |
| <input type="radio"/> Large regional town | |
| <input type="radio"/> Small rural town | |
| What is your marital status? | |
| <input type="radio"/> Single | |
| <input type="radio"/> Married or Defacto | |
| <input type="radio"/> Unmarried couple | |
| <input type="radio"/> Separated or Divorced | |
| <input type="radio"/> Widowed | |
| Where is your partner from? | |
| <input type="radio"/> Australia | |
| <input type="radio"/> Mexico | |
| <input type="radio"/> Other _____ | |

What was your original intention in coming to Australia?

- ☐ To live permanently in Australia
- ☐ To live in Australia temporarily but hoping to settle here if possible
- ☐ To live in Australia temporarily but with an open mind either about staying permanently or returning
- ☐ To live in Australia temporarily with a view to returning to Mexico

What is your migration status at this point in time?

- ☐ Refugee (end of survey)
- ☐ Temporary resident
- ☐ Permanent resident
- ☐ Citizen
- ☐ Other _____

When you first arrived in Australia, how long did you plan to stay?

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☐ One to two years
- ☐ Two to five years
- ☐ Five to ten years
- ☐ Indefinite

How long have you been living in Australia?

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☐ One to two years
- ☐ Two to five years
- ☐ Five to ten years
- ☐ Ten to twenty years
- ☐ More than twenty years

Do you have any previous experience living overseas?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

How would you describe your level of English competency?

	Minimal	Basic	Proficient	Fluent	Does not apply
In your workplace	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In your non-work context	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Which is your current work status?

- ☐ Full time
- ☐ Part time
- ☐ Casual
- ☐ Freelance
- ☐ Unemployed

Where does your current job position fits better?

- ☐ Business owner/ Director
- ☐ Senior manager
- ☐ Middle manager or team leader
- ☐ Team member or employee

How many hours a week do you work?

- ☐ _____ hours

What is your annual income?

- ☐ Below \$30,000
- ☐ \$30,000 to \$54,999
- ☐ \$55,000 to \$74,999
- ☐ \$75,000 to \$99,999
- ☐ \$100,000 to \$149,999
- ☐ \$150,000 to \$199,999
- ☐ \$200,000 or over
- ☐ I prefer not to respond

Predictors of Adjustment

D-A and N-S fit scales (Cable & DeRue, 2002). English version

How strongly do you agree with the following in terms of your WORK	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The match between the demands of my work and my personal skills is very good	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my work places on me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is a good fit between what my work offers me and what I am looking for in a job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

How strongly do you agree with the following in terms of NON- WORK/LIVING IN AUSTRALIA	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The match between my personal skills and the demands or requirements for adjusting to the Australian culture is very good	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that adjusting to the Australian culture places on me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is a good fit between what Australian culture offers me and what I am looking for in a place to live	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Living in Australia gives me just about everything that I want in terms of a place to live	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

D-A and N-S fit Scales Back-translated Spanish Version

Qué tanto estás de acuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones sobre tu TRABAJO?	Totalmente en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Neutral	De acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo
La coincidencia entre mis habilidades personales y las exigencias de mi trabajo, es muy buena	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mis habilidades personales y mi educación corresponden bien con las exigencias de mi trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hay una buena correspondencia entre lo que busco en un trabajo y lo que mi trabajo actual me brinda	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mi trabajo actual me brinda casi todo lo que busco en un trabajo ideal	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Social support scale back-translated Spanish version.

[illegible]

Adjustment Type

Tripartite adjustment scale from Black and Stephens (1989)

Indicate how adjusted you think you are to the following	Not adjusted at all	Somewhat adjusted	Moderately adjusted	Well adjusted	Very well adjusted
WORK					
Specific responsibilities at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Performance standards and expectations at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NON-WORK					
Living conditions in general	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Housing conditions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Food	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Shopping	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cost of living	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entertainment/recreation facilities/opportunities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Health care facilities and services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
We would like to know the extent you...	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	To a great extent
INTERACTION					
Socialise with Australians at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speak with Australians at work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Build significant relationships with Australians	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Interact on a day-to-day basis with Australians	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speak with Australians outside work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Tripartite Adjustment Scale from (Black & Stephens, 1989) Back-translated to Spanish

Indica cuán ajustado consideras estar a lo siguiente	Nada ajustado	Mínimamente ajustado	Moderadamente ajustado	Bien ajustado	Muy bien ajustado
TRABAJO					
Responsabilidades específicas en el trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Estándares de desempeño y expectativas en el trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
VIDA FUERA DEL TRABAJO					
Condiciones de vida en general	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Condiciones relacionadas a la vivienda	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Comida	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Compras en general	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Costo de vida	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Entretenimiento y actividades de esparcimiento	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Servicios e infraestructura de salud	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Dínos en que medida tu ...	Nunca	Raramente	Algunas veces	Muy seguido	Todo el tiempo
INTERACTION					
Socializas con Australianos en el trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hablas con Australianos en el trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Construyes relaciones significativas con Australianos	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Interactúas en el día a día con Australianos	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hablas con Australianos fuera del trabajo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey-Based Open Questions

1. Compared to Mexico, what has been the most challenging aspect of working in Australia?
2. Compared to Mexico, what has been the most challenging aspect of living in Australia?

Outcome of Adjustment

Self-reported intention to leave Australia (Hom & Griffeth, 1991)

How much do you agree with the following?	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
It is very likely that I will actively do something about going back permanently to Mexico in the next year	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am asking my friends/contacts about work/life possibilities back in Mexico	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I frequently find myself thinking about leaving Australia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I intend to go back to Mexico earlier than I had planned	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Self-reported intention to leave Australia (Hom & Griffeth, 1991) Back-translated to Spanish

Qué tanto estás de acuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones?	Totalmente en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	Neutral	De acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo
Es muy probable que tome acciones encaminadas a regresar permanentemente a México en el siguiente año	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Le estoy preguntando a mis amigos/contactos sobre trabajo/oportunidades de vida si regreso a México	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Me encuentro frecuentemente pensando en irme de Australia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tengo la intención de regresar a México antes de lo que había planeado	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other Adjustment Outcomes as Reported by Raters at Work

Tell us the extent to which you agree with the following about your Mexican co-worker:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
This person fulfils the responsibilities specified in his/her job description	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This person performs the tasks that are expected as part of the job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This person meets performance expectations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This person adequately completes responsibilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Tell us the extent to which you agree with the following about your Mexican co-worker:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I think that it is very likely that this person will actively do something about going back permanently to Mexico in the next year	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This person is asking his/her friends/contacts about work/life possibilities back in Mexico	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This person talks frequently about leaving Australia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think this person intends to go back to Mexico earlier than he/she had planned	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other Adjustment Outcomes as Reported by Raters at Non-work

As far as you can tell about your Mexican partner/friend's overall adjustment to Australia, to what extent do you agree with the following	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
This person is adjusting well to living in Australia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This person is managing well at doing the tasks that are expected as part of living in Australia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This person adequately completes everyday life responsibilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Tell us the extent to which you agree with the following about your Mexican partner/friend	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I think that it is very likely that this person will actively do something about going back permanently to Mexico in the next year	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This person is asking his/her friends/contacts about work/life possibilities back in Mexico	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This person talks frequently about leaving Australia	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think this person intends to go back to Mexico earlier than he/she had planned	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix 4: Factor Loadings for Study One and Items for Longitudinal Analysis

Factor Loadings For Exploratory Factor Analysis With Varimax Rotation of this study scales

Item	Scale							
	Social support	Non-work Adj.	Intention to leave	P-E work	P-E culture	Interaction Adj. non-work	Work Adj.	Interaction Adj. work
The match between the demands of my work and my personal skills is very good	.078	.167	-.053	.843	-.054	-.074	.042	.109
My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my work places on me	.080	.147	-.067	.879	-.023	-.014	.042	.100
There is a good fit between what my work offers me and what I am looking for in a job	.121	.122	.119	.863	.178	.081	.101	.010
The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job	.129	.087	.106	.784	.165	.020	.255	.029
The match between my personal skills and the demands or requirements for adjusting to the Australian culture is very good	.203	.161	-.161	.115	.738	.229	.173	.164
My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that adjusting to the Australian culture places on me	.226	.130	-.056	.058	.783	.139	.008	.242
There is a good fit between what Australian culture	.195	.242	-.190	.068	.779	.090	-.041	.025

offers me and what I am looking for in a place to live								
Living in Australia gives me just about everything that I want in terms of a place to live	.242	.250	-.165	.039	.764	.028	-.070	-.040
Australians at work have loaned you or given you something that you needed	.570	.122	.094	.206	.015	-.077	.072	.387
Australians at work gave you information about how to get things done	.684	.205	.140	.093	-.156	.009	.047	.184
Could count on Australians at work to comfort you when you were very upset	.689	.287	-.033	.133	.051	-.067	.071	.194
Australians outside work have helped you out in a difficult situation, even though they are busy	.740	.073	-.240	.074	.222	.285	.006	.033
Australians outside work have let you know that you did something well	.765	.024	-.149	.084	.245	.146	.037	-.015
Australians outside work have loaned you or given you something that you needed	.713	.164	-.178	.061	.231	.238	.005	.021
Australians outside work were concerned about your wellbeing	.768	.028	-.219	-.034	.223	.281	-.056	-.007

Australians outside work have given you information about how to get things done	.729	.005	-.182	.084	.209	.209	.043	.065
Could count on Australians outside work to comfort you when you were very upset	.756	.026	-.207	-.003	.191	.184	-.093	.060
Specific responsibilities at work	.044	.184	-.009	.095	-.017	-.072	.933	.043
Performance standards and expectations at work	-.001	.149	.007	.308	.042	-.022	.896	-.031
Living conditions in general*	.069	.814	-.068	.274	.207	.041	.004	-.115
Housing conditions	.024	.763	-.097	.217	.100	.150	.110	-.029
Food	.170	.739	-.023	-.116	.080	.079	.023	.255
Shopping	.006	.839	-.005	.020	.078	.031	.025	.133
Cost of living	.067	.810	-.093	.213	.033	-.007	.041	.087
Entertainment recreation facilities opportunities*	.119	.712	-.057	.042	.243	.052	.107	.010
Health care facilities and services	.277	.703	.047	.060	.084	.111	.140	-.139
Socialise with Australians at work*	.250	.033	.038	.170	.183	.286	-.081	.776
Speak with Australians at work	.308	.140	-.084	.124	.262	.347	.123	.636
Interact on a day-to-day basis with Australians	.251	.081	-.076	-.014	.045	.874	-.017	.129

Speak with Australians outside work	.209	.119	-.064	.003	.148	.892	.008	.095
Built significant relationships with Australians outside work*	.325	.173	.026	-.018	.220	.753	-.135	.173
It is very likely that I will actively do something about going back permanently to Mexico in the next year	-.133	-.053	.926	.020	-.111	-.070	.052	-.010
I am asking my friends/contacts about work/life possibilities back in Mexico	-.081	-.042	.958	.022	-.076	-.031	.046	-.034
I frequently find myself thinking about leaving Australia	-.258	-.105	.821	.032	-.244	-.025	-.058	.090
I intend to go back to Mexico earlier than I had planned	-.165	-.052	.916	.010	-.080	-.022	-.053	-.028

Note. Factor loadings > .40 are in boldface. Adj.=Adjustment;

*Items excluded in longitudinal data analysis.

Appendix 5: Correlations Table for Raters and Migrants in Key Variables

Correlations										
		Work Adjustment T1	Interaction Adjustment Work T1	Rater Work Performance T1	General Adjustment T1	Interaction Adjustment Non-Work T1	Rater Non-Work Performance T1	Intention to Leave T1	Rater Work Intention to Leave T1	Rater Non-Work Intention to Leave T1
Work Adjustment T1	Pearson Correlation	1	.129	.237	.570**	.026	.465*	-.196*	.218	-.199
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.165	.457	.000	.782	.017	.034	.495	.329
Interaction Adjustment Work T1	Pearson Correlation	.129	1	-.097	.265**	.508**	.165	-.112	-.133	-.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.165		.752	.003	.000	.411	.218	.664	.784
Rater Work Performance T1	Pearson Correlation	.237	-.097	1	.157	.329	-.341	-.599*	-.421	-.396
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.457	.752		.609	.273	.408	.030	.152	.331
General Adjustment T1	Pearson Correlation	.570**	.265**	.157	1	.326**	.399*	-.297**	.349	-.213
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.609		.000	.019	.000	.242	.227
Interaction Adjustment Non-Work T1	Pearson Correlation	.026	.508**	.329	.326**	1	.543**	-.148	-.186	-.164
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.782	.000	.273	.000		.001	.073	.543	.353
Rater Non-Work Performance T1	Pearson Correlation	.465*	.165	-.341	.399*	.543**	1	-.264	.531	-.202
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.411	.408	.019	.001		.131	.176	.252
Intention to Leave T1	Pearson Correlation	-.196*	-.112	-.599*	-.297**	-.148	-.264	1	.665*	.672**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.034	.218	.030	.000	.073	.131		.013	.000
Rater Work Intention to Leave T1	Pearson Correlation	.218	-.133	-.421	.349	-.186	.531	.665*	1	.505
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.495	.664	.152	.242	.543	.176	.013		.202
Rater Non-Work Intention to Leave T1	Pearson Correlation	-.199	-.055	-.396	-.213	-.164	-.202	.672**	.505	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.329	.784	.331	.227	.353	.252	.000	.202	

n= 154., **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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

Correlations										
		Work Adjustment T1	Interaction Adjustment Work T1	Rater Work Performance T1	General Adjustment T1	Interaction Adjustment Non-Work T1	Rater Non-Work Performance T1	Intention to Leave T1	Rater Work Intention to Leave T1	Rater Non-Work Intention to Leave T1
Work Adjustment T1	Pearson Correlation	1	.099	.225	.541**	-.026	.211	-.190	.219	-.049
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.309	.460	.000	.787	.323	.050	.473	.822
Interaction Adjustment Work T1	Pearson Correlation	.099	1	-.097	.251**	.514**	.071	-.099	-.133	.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.309		.752	.009	.000	.741	.312	.664	.919
Rater Work Performance T1	Pearson Correlation	.225	-.097	1	.157	.313	-.341	-.545	-.421	-.396
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.460	.752		.609	.298	.408	.054	.152	.331
General Adjustment T1	Pearson Correlation	.541**	.251**	.157	1	.279**	.150	-.333**	.349	-.167
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.009	.609		.004	.484	.000	.242	.436
Interaction Adjustment Non-Work T1	Pearson Correlation	-.026	.514**	.313	.279**	1	.444*	-.230*	-.144	-.243
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.787	.000	.298	.004		.030	.017	.638	.252
Rater Non-Work Performance T1	Pearson Correlation	.211	.071	-.341	.150	.444*	1	-.091	.531	-.146
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.323	.741	.408	.484	.030		.673	.176	.495
Intention to Leave T1	Pearson Correlation	-.190	-.099	-.545	-.333**	-.230*	-.091	1	.575*	.843**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.050	.312	.054	.000	.017	.673		.040	.000
Rater Work Intention to Leave T1	Pearson Correlation	.219	-.133	-.421	.349	-.144	.531	.575*	1	.505
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.473	.664	.152	.242	.638	.176	.040		.202
Rater Non-Work Intention to Leave T1	Pearson Correlation	-.049	.022	-.396	-.167	-.243	-.146	.843**	.505	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.822	.919	.331	.436	.252	.495	.000	.202	

n=107, **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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

Appendix 6: Factor Loadings for Time Two and Three

Factor Loadings For Exploratory Factor Analysis With Varimax Rotation of Time Two scales

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PFIT ABI W T2 The match between the demands of my work and my personal skills is very good					.738		
PFIT ABI W T2 My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my work places on me					.837		
PFIT VAL W T2 There is a good fit between what my work offers me and what I am looking for in a job					.897		
PFIT VAL W T2 The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job					.841		
PFIT ABI NW T2 The match between my personal skills and the demands or requirements for adjusting to the Australian culture is very good			.636				
PFIT ABI NW T2 My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that adjusting to the Australian culture places on me			.684				
PFIT VAL NW T2 There is a good fit between what Australian culture offers me and what I am looking for in a place to live			.519				
PFIT VAL NW T2 Living in Australia gives me just about everything that I want in terms of a place to live			.641				
Support W T2 Aus Helped you out in a difficult situation, even though they are busy				.573			
Support W T2 Aus Let you know that you did something well				.803			

Support W T2 Aus Loaned you or gave you something that you needed		.728
Support W T2 Aus Were concerned about your wellbeing		.730
Support W T2 Aus Gave you information about how to get things done		.722
Support W T2 Aus Could be counted on to comfort you when you were very upset	.510	.496
Support NW T2 Aus Helped you out in a difficult situation, even though they are busy	.823	
Support NW T2 Aus Let you know that you did something well	.775	
Support NW T2 Aus Loaned you or gave you something that you needed	.846	
Support NW T2 Aus Were concerned about your wellbeing	.857	
Support NW T2 Aus Gave you information about how to get things done	.839	
Support NW T2 Aus Could be counted on to comfort you when you were very upset	.874	
Work Adjust_1 T2 -Specific responsibilities at work	.819	
Work Adjust_2 T2 -Performance standards and expectations at work	.780	
General Adjust_1 T2 -Living conditions in general	.814	
General Adjust_2 T2 -Housing conditions	.822	
General Adjust_3 T2 -Food	.734	
General Adjust_4 T2 -Shopping	.786	
General Adjust_5 T2 -Cost of living	.763	
General Adjust_6 T2 -Entertainment recreation facilities opportunities	.811	
General Adjust_7 T2 -Health care facilities and services	.711	

Interac Adjust W T2 Aussies Socialise with		.813
Interac Adjust W T2 Aussies Speak with		.754
Interac Adjust W T2 Aussies Build significant relationships with		.745
Interac Adjust NW T2 Aussies Interact on a day-to-day basis with		.809
Interac Adjust NW T2 Aussies Speak with		.804
Interac Adjust NW T2 Aussies Built significant relationships with	.473	.646
Intent to stay_1 T2- It is very likely that I will actively do something about going back permanently to Mexico in the next year		-.813
Intent to stay_2 T2- I am asking my friends contacts about work life possibilities back in Mexico		-.845
Intent to stay_3 T2- I frequently find myself thinking about leaving Australia		-.811
Intent to stay_4 T2-I intend to go back to Mexico earlier than I had planned		-.824

Note. Only factor loadings > .40 are shown. Adjust.=Adjustment;

Factor Loadings For Exploratory Factor Analysis With Varimax Rotation of Time Three Scales

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PFIT ABI W T3 The match between the demands of my work and my personal skills is very good							.836
PFIT ABI W T3 My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my work places on me							.825
PFIT VAL W T3 There is a good fit between what my work offers me and what I am looking for in a job							.821
PFIT VAL W T3 The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job							.778
PFIT ABI NW T3 The match between my personal skills and the demands or requirements for adjusting to the Australian culture is very good						.795	
PFIT ABI NW T3 My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that adjusting to the Australian culture places on me						.818	
PFIT VAL NW T3 There is a good fit between what Australian culture offers me and what I am looking for in a place to live						.779	
PFIT VAL NW T3 Living in Australia gives me just about everything that I want in terms of a place to live						.666	

Support W T3 Aus Helped you out in a difficult situation, even though they are busy	.791	
Support W T3 Aus Let you know that you did something well	.749	
Support W T3 Aus Loaned you or gave you something that you needed	.813	
Support W T3 Aus Were concerned about your wellbeing	.786	
Support W T3 Aus Gave you information about how to get things done	.740	
Support W T3 Aus Could be counted on to comfort you when you were very upset	.669	.416
Support NW T3 Aus Helped you out in a difficult situation, even though they are busy	.460	.716
Support NW T3 Aus Let you know that you did something well	.443	.767
Support NW T3 Aus Loaned you or gave you something that you needed		.838
Support NW T3 Aus Were concerned about your wellbeing		.802
Support NW T3 Aus Gave you information about how to get things done		.744
Support NW T3 Aus Could be counted on to comfort you when you were very upset		.757
Work Adjust_1 T3 -Specific responsibilities at work	.848	

Work Adjust_2 T3 -Performance standards and expectations at work	.827		
General Adjust_1 T3 -Living conditions in general	.768		.462
General Adjust_2 T3-Housing conditions	.813		
General Adjust_3 T3 -Food	.647		
General Adjust_4 T3 -Shopping	.846		
General Adjust_5 T3 -Cost of living	.802		
General Adjust_6 T3 -Entertainment recreation facilities opportunities	.664		.448
General Adjust_7 T3 -Health care facilities and services	.734		
Interac Adjust W T3 Aussies Speak with		.678	
Interac Adjust W T3 Aussies Socialise with	.472	.621	
Interac Adjust W T3 Aussies Build significant relationships with		.674	
Interac Adjust NW T3 Aussies Interact on a day-to-day basis with		.850	
Interac Adjust NW T3 Aussies Speak with		.851	
Interac Adjust NW T3 Aussies Built significant relationships with		.726	
Intent to stay_1 T3- It is very likely that I will actively do something about going back permanently to Mexico in the next year			.888
Intent to stay_2 T3- I am asking my friends contacts about work life possibilities back in Mexico			.935

Intent to stay_3 T3- I frequently find myself thinking about leaving Australia	.822
Intent to stay_4 T3-I intend to go back to Mexico earlier than I had planned	.870

Note. Only factor loadings > .40 are shown. Adjust.=Adjustment;