ORGANISATIONAL ANTECEDENTS OF EXPATRIATE PERFORMANCE: AUSTRALIAN EXPATRIATES IN SPECIAL ADMINISTRATIVE REGIONS OF CHINA

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

by

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September 2009

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS i

LIST OF TABLES vii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS xi

DECLARATION xiii

ABSTRACT xiv

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION 1

The Importance of Expatriates in a Globalising World 2

Purpose and Objectives 6

Context – Macau and Hong Kong 7

Structure of Thesis 9

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND FRAMEWORK 11

Definitions of Performance 11

Organisation's Tactical Goals – Performance of Individual Expatriates 12

Organisation's Strategic Goals – Internationalisation of the Organisation through Management and Organisational Development 16

A Theory of Performance 19

Performance Models – Conceptual Studies 23

Performance Models – Empirical Studies 29

Conceptual Framework 35

Antecedents of Expatriate Performance 39

Selection 48

Preparation and Training 52

Support 55

Repatriation 58

Cross-Cultural Adjustment 59

Measures of Cross-Cultural Adjustment 72

Psychological Contracts 89

Measures of Psychological Contract 102

Summary of Literature Critique 105

Conclusion 107

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY 109

Design 109

Purposes of Mixed Method Design 110

Additional Rationales for the Qualitative Approach 112

Purposes of the Quantitative Study 113

Integration of Qualitative and Quantitative Studies 113

Qualitative Survey 115

Samples 116

Instrument 121

Procedure 122

Methods of Analysis 124

Coding and Thematic Analysis 124

Potential Researcher Bias 127

Quantitative Survey 128

Survey sample 130

Measures and Instrument Scoring 138

Data Collection Procedures 153

Response Rate Acceptability 157

Response Rates in Cross-National Surveys 158

Response Rates in Expatriate Literature 159

Response Rates in the Expatriate Literature in Hong Kong and Macau 160

Worthiness of Studies with Low Response Rates 162

Method of Analysis 171

Ethical Considerations 172

Summary 173

CHAPTER FOUR: PERFORMANCE SCALE DEVELOPMENT. 175

Pilot Study. 176

Sampling 176

Measures 177

Pilot Study – Sample and Measure 183

Interview Data 189

Summary – Sample, Instrument, and Procedure 189

Interview Data - Content Analysis 190

Interview Data – Findings 194

Expatriate Performance Scale Item Generation 218

Survey Final Administration: Reliability and Validity Analysis 231

Sample 231

Methods of Analysis 235

Triangulation – SME Categorisation, Survey Data and Theory 259

Expatriate Specific Performance Dimensions 261

Limitations 266

Summary 268

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS AND RESULTS 271

Preliminary analysis 271

Univariate Outliers 272

Normality 273

Linearity 275

Multivariate Outliers 275

Missing Data 276

Testing of Hypotheses 285

Regression Analyses for predictive effects hypotheses 1 to 6 299

Mediating Effects 315

Moderating Effects 347
Summary of Results 368
Summary 376
CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION 379
Performance 379
Antecedents 388
Selection 389
Training 392
Practical support 393
Informative support 396
Affective support 397
Career relevance 398
Contributions to knowledge 400
Cross-cultural Adjustment 401
Stage of Adjustment 404
Effort to adjust 406
Cross-cultural adjustment summary 407
Control variables 408
Contributions to knowledge 414
Psychological Contract Violation 417
Summary 423
Career Commitment 424
Expatriates 426
Definition of Expatriate 426
Contributions to Knowledge 427
Final Model 428
Implications for Theory 431
Expatriate Specific Performance Dimensions 431

Performance versus Adjustment 432
Adjustment Mediators and methods of analysis 433
Types of adjustment 434
Psychological Contract Breach and Violation 434
Implications for Practitioners 436
Limitations 439
Design 439
Sample representativeness 444
Methods of Analysis 445
Judgement 446
Number of tests 447
Generalisability 448
Future Research Directions 449
Antecedents 449
Confirm factor structure of expatriate performance 451
General Living Adjustment 452
Other Predictors - Commitment and Satisfaction 453
Organisational Level Performance 454
Longitudinal Data Gathering 454
Sample – Independent Expatriates and Others 456
Summary of Contributions and Conclusion 459
REFERENCES 462
APPENDICES 495
Appendix A – Interview questions 496
Appendix B – Consent Form 498
Appendix C – Demographic questions 499
Appendix D – Expatriate questionnaire 500
Appendix E – Supervisor questionnaire 512

Appendix F – Response rates: 43 empirical studies..... 518

Appendix G - Language and previous experience as they relate to components of performance. 521

Appendix H – Bootstrapping for mediation 526

Appendix I - The Moderating Role of Psychological Contract Type: Analysis using breach scales 528

Appendix J – Moderated regression analysis: the moderating role of career commitment 531

Appendix K – Hierarchical regression analysis: selection as a predictor of cross-cultural adjustment 545

Appendix L – Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Training as a Predictor of Cross-Cultural Adjustment 546

Appendix M – Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Mentoring as a Predictor of Cross-Cultural Adjustment 547

Appendix N – Cronbach alpha reliability estimates, factor correlation coefficients and descriptive statistics 548

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Campbell's Theory of Performance - Performance Factor Model 22

Table 2 Borman and Motowidlo's (1997) taxonomy of contextual performance compared with Campbell's performance factors 24

Table 3 Borman and Brush's taxonomy of managerial performance 27

Table 4 Caligiuri's Theory of Expatriate performance 31

Table 5 Empirical studies of links between expatriate management inputs and performance 41

Table 6 Empirical studies of links between expatriate management inputs and success in an expatriate assignment 45

Table 7 Cultural distance from Australia - based upon Hofstede's indices 60

Table 8 Overlaps between independent and dependant variables: cross-cultural adjustment and performance 71

Table 9 Cross-cultural adjustment facets founded on Black's 1988 model 74

Table 10 Overlaps between cross-cultural adjustment and performance criteria dimensions 76

Table 11 Demographic characteristics of respondents 120

Table 12 Expatriate performance framework node structure for coding 125

Table 13 Description of the sample of expatriate respondents (N=106) 131

Table 14 Description of the sample of supervisor respondents (N=27) 133

Table 15 Strength of relationships to performance - determining sample size 137

Table 16 Response rates by mail-out 156

Table 17 Response rates by category of study in expatriate studies 160

Table 18 Correlates with age - Pearson Correlation 166

Table 19 t-test for equality of means 170

Table 20 Sample items from the Expatriate Performance Scale 185

Table 21 Scale reliabilities of the performance and importance of performance components 188

Table 22 Themes and sub-themes coded from interview responses 192

Table 23 Performance components and item content coded from interview responses220

Table 24 Communalities of performance items 234

Table 25 Performance items: degree of skew and kurtosis..... 236

Table 26 Performance item outlier amendments..... 237

Table 27 Component correlation matrix 243

Table 28 Principal components factor analysis of 32 performance items with oblique rotation..... 246

Table 29 Structure matrix, initial eigenvalues, percentage of variance, cummulative percentage of variance and correlation matrix of 32 performance items..... 249

Table 30 Reliability statistics for the 6 performance sub-scales 253

Table 31 Correlation Coefficients between Position and Performance Components .. 255

Table 32 Correlation Coefficients between Gender and Performance Components.... 257

Table 33 Criterion related validity: correlations between raters on performance components 259

Table 34 Significant correlations with components of performance..... 287

Table 35 Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients 288

Table 36 Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis – Direct effects..... 303

Table 37 Significant indirect and mediating effects: bootstrapping indirect effect, confidence intervals and the first three Baron and Kenny (1986) conditions of mediation. 325

Table 38 Unique mediator contrast estimates. 330

Table 39 Mediated hierarchical multiple regression analysis – violation mediating the relationships between expatriate management inputs and performance. 340

Table 40 Moderated Regression Analysis: psychological contract fulfilment and violation on performance 350

Table 41 Moderated Regression Analysis: The Nature of the Psychological Contract and Violation on Performance 356

Table 42 Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment..... 362

Table 43 List of Hypotheses and their Outcomes from the Hierarchical Regression Results 369

Table 44 Response rates reported in 43 empirical studies on expatriates..... 518

Table 45 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Coefficients between Variables 521

Table 46 Multiple hierarchical regression analysis – language and previous experience. 522

Table 47 Indirect effects of psychological contract violation 526

Table 48 Moderated Regression Analysis: The Nature of the Psychological Contract and Violation on Performance 528

Table 49 Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment..... 531

Table 50 Selection considerations predicting the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment 545

Table 51 Training and training rigour predicting the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment 546

Table 52 Mentoring predicting the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment 547

Table 53 Cronbach alpha reliability estimates, factor correlation coefficients and descriptive statistics – importance of performance components to organisational goals 548

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Expatriate Performance Conceptual Framework..... 38

Figure 2. Definition of adjustment terms..... 68

Figure 3. The flow-on effect of perceived unmet obligations..... 93

Figure 4. Age composition of sample and Australian Chamber of Commerce Hong Kong and Macau members. 165

Figure 5. Organisational position composition of sample and Australian Chamber of Commerce Hong Kong and Macau members..... 167

Figure 6. Family composition of sample and Australian Association members..... 169

Figure 7. Layout of the measures for (a) performance components and (b) importance of performance components..... 179

Figure 8. Simple mediation effect. 320

Figure 9. The intervening roles of interaction adjustment combining results from bootstrapping and Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach..... 333

Figure 10. The intervening roles of work adjustment combining the results from Bootstrapping and Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach. 334

Figure 11. Expatriate performance conceptual framework..... 429

Figure 12. Final model of the antecedents of expatriate performance of Australians in the Special Administrative Regions of China..... 430

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of the thesis would not have been accomplished without the support of a great number of people. Firstly, my supervisor Dr Ross Donohue has been the most stabilising and supportive influence on this journey. From each and every meeting I have come away with new challenges and insight. The new-found confidence in my writing ability is mostly due to his praise and guidance; never shall I knowingly write a 'turgid' sentence again. Most of all, I have always been confident that I would finish those discussions with Ross knowing exactly what I needed to achieve next. I shall miss having those conversations and being guided by his pursuit of excellence and exacting requirements. Ross, thank-you for trusting in me and letting me experience those 'dragons' that you warned me against – we did it.

My first supervisor, Professor Phyllis Tharenou, set me off in the right direction. I could not have hoped for a better start to a PhD and thank her for taking me on. I will not forget Phyllis' review of that first draft of the literature review. It was a shock to the system but a process through which I learnt much that is to be learnt about being a research academic. I cannot hope to follow in Phyllis' footsteps but I am glad of the opportunity to stand in her shadow for a moment.

I wish also to thank all of those individuals who responded to the surveys, participated in the interviews, and helped me gain access to more respondents. The data collection process was the most difficult part of the study, and each and every person that took the time to respond lessened the burden. I especially thank those who offered additional comments and insights which gave me a deeper understanding of the changing nature of expatriation and the specific dimensions that were important to Hong Kong and Macau.

I also greatly appreciate the advice and comments from Dr Brian Cooper on those difficult analytical questions. Little does Brian know how I agonised and

researched for months in order to justify some decisions that I made along the way. Brian is a very hard task master and having him to answer to, even if only as an imaginary audience, has built rigour into my arguments.

To my family – it's been a long road and, at times, purposefully so. At one stage I realised that it would be a longer journey or I would miss out on seeing my boy and girl grow up. We moved to Macau to be together as a family after a year of me being a pseudo-single mother from hell. The adjustments that we all had to make over that time gave me a deeper understanding and appreciation of the issues that expatriates deal with. My performance certainly did suffer in a number of the roles I perform. To, Ben, thank-you for suffering in silence and letting me get on with it.

To my nonagenarian parents who are still with me, you are my everything.

DECLARATION

This thesis contains no material that has been accepted for an award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other institution. To the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of this thesis.

This research was funded by a Faculty of Business and Economics Postgraduate Research Scholarship, a Monash Postgraduate Travel Grants Award and Department of Management Higher Degree by Research stipends for data collection and residency.

Approval was duly obtained from The Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans at Monash University to collect data for this research under application numbers 2004/877 and 2006/932LIR.

Signed:…… [redacted] ……..

Dated:……30th September, 2009…

ABSTRACT

This research aimed to determine the relationships between proposed antecedents to the expatriate management process and performance outcomes of Australian expatriates working on assignment in Hong Kong and Macau. There have been a number of calls from both within the expatriate and the general performance literatures for the development of a comprehensive model of performance and for it to be empirically tested for a better understanding of the components of performance. Thus, this study sought to (a) clarify the definition and operationalisation of job performance in the expatriate environment and (b) test a model of expatriate performance which included intervening variables of cross-cultural adjustment, psychological contract violation, and career commitment. Campbell's (1990) multi-factor framework of performance was used to provide a clear definition and theoretical foundation.

Data were collected in two main studies in the Special Administrative Regions of China, Hong Kong and Macau. Qualitative data were collected from 20 Australian expatriates and their supervisors, and quantitative data were collected through administration of survey questionnaires to 106 Australian expatriates and 24 supervisors. A performance scale was developed utilising both inductive and deductive procedures through pilot studies, subject matter expert surveys, and a final questionnaire. The results of exploratory principal components analysis indicated that there were six components of performance. These components were then utilised as the criteria to test direct and indirect hypothesized relationships to organisational antecedents and intervening variables.

The major findings of the results of a series of hierarchical regression analysis (including moderated and mediated analyses) were that practical and informative support were related to some components of performance. Interaction adjustment was

the only adjustment type that directly related to the performance components although work adjustment and interaction adjustment played influential roles as intervening variables. In addition, the proposition that relational psychological contract type strengthened the negative relationship between psychological contract violation and performance was generally supported.

This research makes three major contributions: (a) the development of a measure of expatriate performance within an overall framework; (b) the clarification of a definition and delineation between performance and adjustment which tests adjustment as a mediator rather than an ultimate criterion measure and (c) the exploration of relationships between a number of organisational support mechanisms and individual components of performance.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

There has been an increasing globalisation of industry and the workforce, indicated amongst others, by global Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) flows, the size of the sales of foreign affiliates of trans-national organisations, and the growth in the number of employees of trans-national organisations. World FDI combined inflows and outflows have increased 850% between 1990 and 2007 and sales of foreign affiliates of trans-national organisations have increased by 510% over the same period. These foreign affiliates employed 81 million employees in 2007, up from 57 million in 2004 and 25 million in 1990 (United Nations Centre for Trade and Development, 2008, p.4). Within this globalising world Australia relies on business with Asia for economic prosperity. Over the 10 years to 2002, seven of Australia's top ten trading partners have been in the East Asian/Oceania region at 42.6% of overall trade in 2001/02 (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2003). By the fiscal year 2007/2008 the same indicator had increased slightly to 46.8% (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2009, p.53). The Australian Government has highlighted the relationship with China as an important foreign policy objective (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2003). This is manifest in the commencement in 2005 of the negotiations with China towards a Free Trade Agreement which recommenced in April 2008 after slow progress in 2007. This is Australia's fifth Free Trade Agreement after New Zealand, Singapore, Thailand and the United States of America. China is the world's third largest country (Austrade, 2005) and the fastest growing economy with expanding economic and security influence throughout the world (De Santis, 2005). China's economy was the world's seventh largest measured in Gross Domestic Product in 2004 and fourth largest in 2007 (World Bank, 2008). It became the second largest economy within Asia in 2004 and surpassed the United Kingdom in 2006 (World Bank, 2005a). It is ranked, however, as the largest Asian economy on a purchasing power parity basis (World Bank, 2005b).

China is economically and also politically important to Australia as a trading and investment partner. It replaced Japan as Australia's largest source of goods and services in 2004 (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2005) and Australia's largest trading partner in late 2007 (Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2008). This change is unsurprising considering the growth in trade between Australian and China at a yearly average for the five years from 2000 at 20%.

China may also act as a conduit to enable stronger relationships within Asia in the future due to China's importance to those countries as it strengthens its economic and intra-regional policy leadership role in Southeast Asia (De Santis, 2005). As an example of China's regional influence, its growth in trade with the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) has also been at 20% per annum since 1990 (De Santis) which has been facilitated by a raft of bilateral agreements between China and its neighbours (Fukuyama, 2005). China encourages multilateral cooperation via China's proposed East Asian Community and the so called ASEAN-plus-3 (the 10 ASEAN members plus China, Japan, and South Korea) amongst other mechanisms (De Santis).

The Importance of Expatriates in a Globalising World

Considering globalisation and Australia's reliance on effective communication with its partner nations, Australian industry needs to be aware of the issues which will affect the successful utilisation of human resources in other countries and across cultural boundaries. This is even more important given the growth in, and importance of, service and knowledge industries (OECD, 2003). These industries rely upon the communication of ideas rather than the transport of product. People become not only the managers of the resources, production, and delivery systems but the resources, producers, and often the modes of delivery. There is an inseparability of production and consumption within these industries (Bouquet, Hebert, & Delios, 2003). Human resources in our rapidly

globalising service and technologically oriented business environments have therefore become crucial assets. The performance of people in this globalising and knowledge rich age is an important determinant of business success (Handler, Lan, & Maher, 1997).

Australia's reliance on success in international markets, particularly Asia, highlights the importance of employees' performance in that context. It is not merely the organisational performance of Australian firms in this environment which is important to the future development of Australia's position in the global marketplace, but the way in which individual Australians are engaging in the global economy which is crucial to the position Australian plays in transnationalism. Australians are working overseas in ever increasing numbers and consist of a select group of people with high levels of education and income. The largest group of Australian expatriates is based in Hong Kong (Hugo, Rudd, & Harris, 2003). Given the importance of greater China for Australia's continued economic growth and the size of the Australian expatriate population undertaking work in the area, it is the performance of Australia's human resources, not organisations, within the Chinese cross-cultural context which is the subject of this research.

As one of the ways to manage staff internationally, successful expatriation offers companies a competitive edge required in this era of global competition (Aycan, 1997a). It also offers expatriates skills in an international environment and an understanding of the complexities of international markets as well as networks necessary for top management in trans-national organisations (Carpenter, Sanders, & Gregersen, 2000; Levy, Beechler, Taylor, & Boyacigiller, 2007; Perkins & Hendry, 2001). Under-performance, or failure, in expatriate assignments has great costs: financial costs, loss of company reputation, and business opportunities (Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Dowling & Welch, 1988; Guzzo, 1996; Naumann, 1992). Expatriate employees can experience loss

of confidence (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) or career opportunities and this influences the willingness of others to accept overseas assignments (Aycan, 1997a; Stroh, 1995).

Of the various ways to manage human resources and staff international organisations, the expatriate assignment is still the most common method utilised and has continued to rise over a period of some years (GMAC, 2003, 2008; PriceWaterhouse Coopers, 2005). Although growth is not forecast at the previous levels, it is still expected to increase regardless of the financial crisis (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2009). The anticipated growth in expatriates in China at 50% over 2005 and 2006 has continued to be particularly strong (GMAC, 2008), even as the growth in assignments to Western Europe and North America appear to have slowed (PriceWaterhouse Coopers, 2005). Indeed, reliance upon expatriates has been shown to increase the more service orientated an industry becomes (Bouquet et al., 2003). Therefore continued assignment growth in China is expected as the economy develops and recovers as it is currently the top emerging destination for expatriates (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2009).

The definition of an expatriate appears to be changing as is evidenced by the variety of definitions observable in the literature as follows. An expatriate may be defined as any individual who relocates to a country other than the home country for purposes of work or study for more that six months on a temporary and voluntary basis (Aycan & Kanungo, 1997). To distinguish from self-employed individuals or students, an expatriate has been defined by Arthur and Bennett (1995) as any employee who relocates from his home base to an international location within the same or affiliated firm and sets up temporary residence in the host country. It appears that this conventional definition is no longer as apt as it once was. There is evidence available that a wider variety of assignment types is being utilised more readily (Fenwick, 2004) such as localisation of expatriates to local terms and conditions, permanent transfers,

and commuter assignments (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2009; PriceWaterhouse Coopers, 2005). There are also a growing number of self-selected expatriates such as independent expatriates (Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004; Hipsher, 2008; Richardson & Mallon, 2005) and long term global managers (Suutari, 2003). With particular relevance to Australian expatriates, Hutchings found that her sample differed noticeably; "this cohort's experience of an international posting differs markedly from the traditional expatriate experience in that increasing numbers of Australians working in China have self-selected." (Hutchings, 2005, p.563). In his book Hipsher (2008) focused on these self-selected members of the mobile global workforce. Although these expatriates are less accessible to researchers than the traditional expatriate, Hipsher suggested that they are growing in number for more than economic reasons and that many move overseas as a lifestyle choice. This was confirmed in a qualitative study of 30 academic expatriates (Richardson & Mallon, 2005).

The growing evidence suggests that the form and substance of expatriation is changing. Even amongst multinational companies a lower percentage are being transferred to and from the parent company: The latest Global Relocation Trends Survey (GMAC, 2008) found that an historical low of only 56 percent of expatriates were transferred from headquarters. Taking into consideration this possible trend towards a wider range of expatriate type and calls for research to include these (Thomas, Lazarova, & Inkson, 2005), a more encompassing definition of expatriates based upon Arthur and Bennett's is utilised here (1995). An expatriate is defined as any individual who relocates from his/her home base to an international location for business or work purposes and sets up temporary residence in the host country. This definition encompasses third country nationals (TCNs) as well as parent country nationals (PCNs); the difference being a function of the similarity or otherwise of the origins of the employing multinational corporation (MNC) and the expatriate (Harrison

et al., 2004). The above definition has been deliberately chosen to allow the inclusion of a wide variety of expatriates employed or contracted by local and foreign organisations, and working for small to medium size enterprises with international interests.

Purpose and Objectives

There are elements of expatriate management which are generally acknowledged within the expatriate literature to be important pre-requisites for high performance of the expatriate and the success of the assignment. It is the defining of these elements and the explanation of their relationship to performance through the study of expatriates in China's Special Administrative Regions (Hong Kong and Macau) that are amongst the aims of this research. With emphasis on the practical contributions that this research can make to the management of expatriates, it focuses on the potential impact of organisational approaches to expatriate management. Aycan stated that "expatriate management practices by organisations are expected to have repercussions on … performance outcomes" (Aycan, 1997a, p.2). She suggested that too much emphasis has been placed upon examining expatriation at the individual level. This research contributes to the body of literature on organisational level antecedents as perceived by expatriates.

The two research questions which guide this research are: (a) How is the performance of expatriates measured by the expatriate and the supervisors? and (b) What is perceived to assist or hinder expatriate performance? The definition of expatriate performance requires a clarification as various definitions and operationalisations have been utilised in the expatriate literature to date (Deller, 1997; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005) and there has been confusion between performance and other constructs such as cross-cultural adjustment which need exploration and a theoretical foundation in order to be able to differentiate between them (Thomas & Lazarova,

2005). There are still calls for research into expatriate performance models which define performance and examine the relationships between performance, cross-cultural adjustment and other predictors (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2008). This research heeds those continued calls.

Context – Macau and Hong Kong

The Special Administrative Regions of China were chosen as the context of this research for a number of reasons. They share similar colonial histories and are thus often used as a springboard into mainland China by overseas companies. They are more economically advanced than most other areas of China with free market economies openly encouraging foreign enterprise. Macau is increasing in importance for Australian interests particularly in the gambling (The Economist, 2009) and construction industries, and Hong Kong is an international financial centre and home to regional headquarters of large international companies. Thus the number of foreign firms and foreign workers is relatively large in these two regions which given the small area minimises the logistic problems inherent in data gathering. The high utilisation of English also provides ease of access in the data gathering phase for independent research such as this.

Since the entry into Macau of large Las Vegas style casino operators in 2002 after the expiry of the former casino monopoly, Macau has become known as the Las Vegas of the East and has already overtaken that city in gaming turnover. Until September 2008, with the double jeopardy to the economy of the global financial crisis and the visitor restrictions imposed upon Guangdong province independent visitors by the Chinese Mainland government, it was attracting investors, gamblers, travellers, and job-seekers from all over the world. This offered great opportunities for expatriates in the casino, construction and hospitality industries. Australian gaming executives are

knowledgeable in casino start ups due to a “home grown” and an understanding of the Asian gaming market. Construction and theme development expertise, hotel, and food and beverage management are areas in which Australian expatriates excel in Macau (Edwards, 2007). The number of Australians temporarily working and living in Macau has increased by 450% from 2001 to June 2008 to approximately 994 (0.18 percent of the Macau population). During the period from the 2001 census to the 2006 by-census the number of Australians in Hong Kong increased from 9,505 to approximately 10,190 (0.15 percent of the Hong Kong population) (Census and Statistics Department Hong Kong, 2008).

Both Macau and Hong Kong have the same status as Special Administrative Regions (SARs) of China. These regions were handed back to China at approximately the same time from their former colonial masters: Macau from Portugal in December 1999 and Hong Kong from Great Britain in June 1997. However, as the Australian population figures in the respective regions suggest, Hong Kong has had a longer history of actively encouraging foreigners to live and work there. Macau’s high per capita income is indicative of more developed nations but is due to income from the one sector, gaming. The region is just beginning to open up to foreign professional and managerial expertise. This has implications both for the type of expatriate Australians working in the respective SARs and also upon the systems and infrastructure available to support them. Hong Kong has mature bureaucracies, financial infrastructure and a community accustomed to relating to foreign workers and professionals. The institutions and infrastructure were developed to encourage investment with the aim of becoming the most open economy in the world (Holmes, 2008). Hong Kong’s colonial past has left a legacy of social support mechanisms from clubs and societies to domestic help which all contribute to making it a relatively easy, although expensive, environment in which to work and live (ECA International, 2007).

Structure of Thesis

This first chapter has presented the context of the thesis and has offered justification for examining the performance of Australian expatriates in the Special Administrative Regions of China.

Chapter 2 presents a discussion of criterion measures in the expatriate and performance literatures. The major concern here is the clarification of performance and the distinction between job performance other expatriate assignment success constructs. It also reports on a number of variables that have been theorised to be related to expatriate outcomes and places them in the context of a model incorporating intermediate variables such as cross-cultural adjustment and psychological contract violation. The cross-cultural adjustment and psychological contract literatures are reviewed with particular emphasis upon the historical development of the theory and operationalisations made available to date. This focus was taken in order to determine the most appropriate measures for the final study as well as to justify their roles in the model.

The methodology utilised in the research is reported in Chapter 3. It presents the rationale for the use of a mixed methodology from a pragmatic perspective and proceeds by detailing the samples, the instruments used, the procedures and the methods of analysis presented in the following Chapters 4 and 5. The methodology used in the qualitative study is reported prior to the section on the quantitative study. The latter discusses the difficulties inherent in collecting data in the SARs context and offers some reasons for the response rates achieved.

Chapter 4 reports on the process employed for the development of the performance scale used to measure the criterion in the research. It first presents a pilot study of the performance scale and then reports on the analysis of the qualitative data

collection from 20 Australian expatriates and their supervisors. At this stage another intervening variable, career commitment, is offered as an attempt to explain some findings not consistent with the literature. Finally, the series of choices in the path towards the final selection of the component structure is described in the section on the administration of the final performance scale. The rationale for the absence of items measuring any expatriate specific performance components is also argued here. The process described in this chapter determines the final choice of six scales of performance which were used in the analysis to test the relationships between antecedent variables and the six (rather than eight as hypothesised) components of performance described in the expatriate performance model.

Chapter 5 reports on the series of regression analyses to test the seven main hypotheses presented in Chapters 2 and 4. The first section investigates the assumptions required to be met for regression analysis and details the steps taken to ensure that the data comply. Hierarchical regression analyses, mediated, and moderated regression analyses are presented in separate sections which also reports upon whether the sub-hypotheses under the seven main hypotheses were supported. The hypotheses and whether there was evidence to support each is summarised in table format at the end of Chapter 5.

The final chapter integrates the findings from the hypotheses testing and the literature to report on the contributions that this research offers to the domain. Theoretical and practical implications are offered along with the limitations inherent in the research. Recommendations for future research efforts are presented in the final section.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND FRAMEWORK

Chapter 2 reviews the relevant expatriate and other literatures which relate to performance. Thus this chapter first focuses on definitions of success and performance and builds upon Campbell's taxonomy of performance (1990) to clarify the criterion. A conceptual framework is then suggested which includes antecedents to performance, and the potential intervening variables of cross-cultural adjustment and psychological contract as the basis for the proposed hypotheses.

One of the criteria for the choice of the antecedents in this research was that they needed to be under the control of the organisation. Thus the focus is on organisational antecedents rather than individual level ones such as personality, skills and traits. This criterion was set so that the research findings could potentially inform organisations of expatriate management interventions that variously predict components of performance. The intervening variables, however, consist of individual responses to the environment.

Definitions of Performance

Performance is defined in various ways in the wider performance literature. As such there is little common understanding of what performance is which makes for difficulty in measuring, predicting and explaining the phenomenon (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993). Various terms are also used in the expatriate literature (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997). What performance actually is and how it is defined have not been rigorously clarified in the research to date (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Deller, 1997; Mol, Born, Willemsen, & Van Der Molen, 2005). Success, lack of failure, poor performance, effective performance, and successful performance are some of the terms used when discussing outcomes of various expatriate management practices. Conflicting definitions and usage of various terms to signify similar concepts has created confusion. Sagiadellis & D'Netto (1997, p. 2) stated that a "comprehensive model of success is

missing", and Caligiuri's (1997) suggestion that future studies should clarify what is meant by adjustment as opposed to performance indicate the need for clarity of definition when examining performance.

The definitions of performance used in the expatriate literature can be placed into two categories (Torbiörn, 1994): the performance of the individual on assignment which can be seen as functional or tactical, and organisational performance (Lee, 2005; Rahim, 1983; Ronen, 1989) in creating an internationally integrated organisation, which can be viewed as strategic (Kobrin, 1994). This first category is the area of concern for this research. The second type of performance builds upon successfully managing the first and is an area ripe for an expansion of the research. Work at the organisational level is starting to be undertaken by authors such as Lin (2005) who attempted to link the performance of expatriates with organisational performance, and of more recent times more discussion centring around the role that global staffing plays in creating competitive advantage (Collings, Scullion, & Dowling, 2009).

Organisation's Tactical Goals – Performance of Individual Expatriates

Kraimer and Wayne (2004) offered a summary list of expatriate success constructs which have been examined in the literature. These constructs include remaining in the assignment until the end of the term, adjusting to living conditions, and performing well on the job. These authors also offered an additional construct of organisational commitment which has been less well researched as a success criterion. Variations of these constructs have been described and used in empirical studies but it is argued here that most of performance constructs considered to date may not reliably measure the outcomes directly attributable to the expatriate, or may be viewed as independent variables related to other performance constructs (Porter & Tansky, 1999).

Many empirical studies have defined performance as *finishing the assignment* (Caligiuri, 1997; Farid & Buda, 1998; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Zeira & Banai, 1985).

The presumption is that expatriates must stay the entire predetermined or expected length of the assignment to be successful. Being retrenched, returned to home base, or resigning from the post before the expected timeframe is viewed as failure. As a measure, this is readily accessible but does not allow for situations when an individual may stay the length of the assignment although he or she fails to achieve the goals of the assignment (Caligiuri, 1997; Harzing, 1995), or even cuts short an assignment due to the expatriate achieving the goals ahead of the expected time frame. It also ignores an expatriate leaving the assignment for personal reasons unrelated to job performance or even the employment environment (Aycan & Kanungo, 1997). Reasons for curtailing the assignment need to be determined before it can be deemed a failure.

Another concern with measures of early return is that there are a number of barriers to premature return even when an expatriate may be desirous of such (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005). These barriers may include the lack of position available elsewhere, negative career implications, and financial and emotional investment in the local environment. Turnover data are also difficult to capture (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black & Gregersen, 1990; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). Measures of *withdrawal cognitions* have been used as an alternative indicator of lack of success in the assignment (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999). The variable taps attitudinal responses to the expatriate experience such as thoughts and plans of quitting the assignment (Shaffer & Harrison). These attitudinal responses are both highly correlated with other attitudinal response such as satisfaction (Black & Gregersen, 1990, Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002) and are predictive of behavioural responses such as leaving the assignment (Black & Gregersen, 1990). Even though thoughts of leaving the assignment may be indicative of other problems it is only when these problems have an impact upon work related outcomes that practitioners may see value in determining the existence of withdrawal cognitions.

Achieving expected outcome (Caligiuri, 1997) or *on the job effectiveness* (Guzzo, 1996) would appear to be a more suitable measure. Measures of performance outcomes, however, need to allow for a broad range of expectations held by the many stakeholders involved. There may be task or technical expectations held simultaneously by the parent company and the local company (Oddou, 1991). The parent and local company expectations may differ, potentially causing conflict (Brewster & Scullion, 1997) and confusion as to which set of expectations should be met. In addition, the outcome may be determined by external factors that relate little to the effort and skill of the expatriate.

Rather than address the definition of performance, some authors have discussed the reasons for *failure* (Forster, 1992; Hays, 1974; Tung, 1982; Zeira & Banai, 1985). Zeira and Banai defined failure as premature return but Tung merely related failure to the inability to function effectively. Yet again, there are a variety of definitions in use and terms are used interchangeably. Hays offered evidence to suggest that the relative importance of determinants in avoiding failure is not the same as those related to insuring success (1974).

Another definition used is lack of *adjustment to foreign country or culture* which has been linked to the desire to terminate the assignment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Caligiuri, 1997; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). Caligiuri used this definition to express one of her three criteria of expatriate success. The other two criteria used were completion of the assignment and superior-rated performance. In her process model of expatriate acculturation, Aycan (1997a) suggested that performance and commitment were indicators of adjustment. Rather than being an end in itself, as some authors suggested (Black, 1988; Caligiuri, 1997; Caligiuri & Tung, 1999; Sanchez, Spector, & Cooper, 2000), it is perhaps more appropriate to view adjustment as an input and a predictor of individual performance in a role (Ones &

Viswesvaran, 1997; Porter & Tansky, 1999; van der Bank & Rothmann, 2006). Caligiuri (1997) found that although the three criteria were distinct, the relationships found between cross-cultural adjustment, and both desire to terminate ($r = -.33$, $p<.01$) and self-rated performance ($r = .37$, $p<.01$) offer support for cross-cultural adjustment being a predictor of performance. Kraimer and Wayne (2004) hypothesised that cross-cultural adjustment was a primary level outcome of stressors and support mechanisms. In turn, they suggested that cross-cultural adjustment was related to performance, although they only found support for a mediating effect of overall adjustment in the relationship between the antecedents and intentions to complete the assignment in this particular study. In an earlier study based upon a model incorporating support from spouses, supervisors and the company at both the parent and local levels, Kraimer, Wayne, and Jaworski (2001) offered support for work and interaction adjustment mediating two dimensions of performance. Kraimer and Wayne (2004) increased Caligiuri's list of expatriate criteria by adding *organisational commitment* but this too was found to be a primary level outcome which mediated another performance construct. Black and Gregersen's (1992a) study found that expatriates who were not adjusted tended to perform poorly. Much of the non-empirical work in the literature also makes an implied link between successful adjustment and good performance (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) and thus it appears that cross-cultural adjustment would be better placed as a predictor of performance than a definition of performance.

Job performance is therefore the last construct left for consideration but is important as it is this construct which is at the heart of organisational performance in this globalising and human resource focused economic environment. Job performance is a difficult construct to define, operationalise, and measure. The difficulties are evidenced by the lack of studies in the expatriate literature which give consideration to

performance theory (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005). Performance theory suggests that performance is multi-faceted (Campbell, 1990). The literature recommends that researchers utilse more objective (Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood, & Bolino, 2002; Scullen, Mount, & Judge, 2003) and reliable (Conway, 1996) methods of measurement than can be obtained from self-reports. Multiple source data are recommended in order to remove artifactual correlations caused by common method variance and response bias (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Studies by Caligiuri (1997), Kraimer and colleagues (2001), and Parker and McEvoy (1993) are notable in that they each built upon empirically tested theory to present a framework of relationships between various antecedents and expatriate performance. The first two studies utilised data collected from multiple sources and offer the foundation for some of the arguments presented in this research.

Organisation's Strategic Goals – Internationalisation of the Organisation through Management and Organisational Development

Although not the main focus of this research, the benefits which accrue to an organisation by virtue of an integrated system to retain the learning that both individuals and organisations can gain from an international assignment are briefly summarised. The discussion then moves to the theoretical framework upon which the measure of performance has been based.

It has been suggested in the literature that enhanced skills obtained from a foreign assignment are a benefit to the company and the individual (Guzzo, 1996; Oddou, 1991; Rahim, 1983). The term *management development* has been used to describe this reiterative process whereby individual knowledge and skills are used to develop future managers. (For the sake of clarity, it is called international management development here.) This development beyond the concept of performance of the individual in a role to include the performance of the organisation in utilising the skills

and knowledge of expatriates has increased in popularity in the research (Carpenter et al., 2000; Collings et al., 2009). The concept focuses on the strategic role of the expatriate and the fit between international human resource management (IHRM) and the overall strategic goals of an organisation. International management development is a longer-term goal than performance of the one expatriate assignment.

When assessing an individual's performance in the role it may be that the ability of an expatriate to contribute to the overall organisational learning and future international management development is a relevant factor. The performance of the organisation in its ability to support the expatriate and create an environment in which the expatriate's knowledge and accumulated experience from the assignment is valued is beyond the scope of this research. It may, however, be an important input into the expatriate management process. Thus it can be seen that a successful international management development process helps expatriates perform who, in turn, contribute to that process creating a virtuous cycle.

Retention of repatriates is yet another measure of the success of an assignment, but perhaps this is not dependent upon the individual as much as the ability of the organisation to manage and support the assignment (Paik, Segaud, & Malinowski, 2002; Perkins & Hendry, 2001). The greatest predictor of repatriate retention is the existence of career development plans (Stroh, 1995), and career opportunities available upon returning home relative to those available outside the company (Stahl, Chua, Caligiuri, Cerdin, & Taniguchi, 2007). A company's appreciation of global experience and the existence of career planning were the most important determinants of retention in a number of studies (Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001). These career related factors are under the control of the organisation. If international management development is managed appropriately lower turnover should be the outcome (Stahl et al., 2007). Retention of

repatriates can be seen as an outcome of successful programs but also indicates that the organisation manages expatriate assignments well.

Another indication of a well managed expatriate program, which is sometimes cited as a goal in itself, is the *willingness of the expatriate to relocate again* (Napier & Peterson, 1991). This willingness depends upon the career plan of the individual and the organisational strategy. It is an outcome of a successful assignment and the management development practices of the firm. Together with retention, willingness to relocate by employees is an indication that the expatriate programs in place are perceived as successful which encourages others to undertake a posting overseas.

The latter definitions of performance as discussed above and seen in the literature, being international management development, and its indicators, retention of repatriates, and willingness to relocate again, are viewed in this research as inputs to the expatriate management process rather than part of a definition of performance. An expatriate's contribution to the long-term organisational objectives of management development may, however, be included in the definition of an individual expatriate's performance.

As can be seen from the previous discussion of the performance definitions in the literature, definitions are often haphazard, terms are either not defined or not defined rigorously, and are without a theoretical basis, with the outstanding exception of Caligiuri (1997) who delved into the performance literature to build a theory of expatriate performance. Prior to commencing research on performance it is necessary to build a definition of performance grounded in theory and then define and select measures that are applicable to the context of Australian expatriates in the Special Administrative Regions of China.

A Theory of Performance

Two methods commonly utilised in the performance literature to measure the performance construct are The Classic Model and that given the term Performance Factor Models in this current research. The Classic Model is by far the most frequently applied (Campbell et al., 1993). It aims to employ objective measures such as sales volume for sales representatives or numbers of articles published by academics as the ultimate criterion measure of the general factor of performance, and seeks to remove subjective evaluations (Anderson & Oliver, 1987 cited in Bergeron, 2007; Siders, George, & Dharwadkar, 2001). This is analogous to the outcome based reward system (Bergeron, 2007) and best lends itself to measurement of task or technical performance. The behaviour based reward system, on the other hand, evaluates the process or the behaviour and can thus cope with more ambiguous work contexts and can more readily take into account contextual and managerial behaviours (Bergeron, 2007) which are more relevant to the expatriate context.

Within the general performance literature dealing specifically with prediction of performance, there is strong argument that performance does not consist of just one ultimate criterion but can be broken down into a variety of performance factors that can then be measured separately (Campbell, 1990). The ability to separate performance into components offers greater clarity of understanding of the antecedents of each performance factor relevant to the groups or individual being studied as was evidenced by Williams and Anderson (1991) in their study differentiating three factors of performance and their respective antecedents. It has been suggested that the predictability of selection criteria on performance outcomes is advanced through this dissection of performance (Aycan, 1997a; Campbell et al., 1993). Beyond the general performance and selection research, this theoretical enhancement to the predictability of performance outcomes could be extended to the expatriate performance domain. It is

suggested here that breaking performance into separate performance factors may assist in the understanding of the relationship between various inputs (which includes selection) to the expatriate management process and expatriate performance outcomes. Ones and Viswesvaran (1997) suggested that this conceptualisation of performance is valuable to the definition and measurement of expatriate performance. With this in mind, a number of empirical and conceptual studies that offer ways to break performance down into components (Borman & Brush, 1993; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Caligiuri, 1997; Campbell, 1990; Sinangil & Ones, 2003) are discussed in order to select a theoretical model as a foundation for exploring the relationships between various inputs into the expatriate management process (or antecedents) and expatriate performance outcomes.

Here the models from these studies have been grouped under the name Performance Factor Models based upon the content of Campbell's "Suggested Model of Performance" (1990) which was subsequently re-titled "A Theory of Performance" (Campbell et al., 1993). Campbell's Performance Factor Model allows for performance to consist of a variety "of things" (Campbell et al., 1993, p.42) that people are expected to do in their job and enables performance measurement in situations that do not readily lend themselves to quantitative and/or objective methods. Indeed Campbell stated that the search for objective methods is a non-issue as performance is itself evaluated behaviour.

Campbell (1990) made distinctions between the terms performance, effectiveness, and productivity. Performance is behaviour or action that is relevant to an organisation's goals. Unlike the Classic Model which measures the results of performance, Campbell distinguished performance from consequences of action because those consequences can be influenced by externalities out of the control of the individual. This is supported by Viswesvaran and Ones who argued that organisational

records of specific acts or output tend to have more contamination than judgemental assessment (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). An example of contamination effect can be found in Hesketh and Neal (1999) in their discussion regarding the changing nature of work. They suggested that if choosing a new technology were under the control of the individual it would be incorporated in the consideration of their performance, but if not under the individual's control "technology differences would function as a source of criterion contamination" (Campbell, 1999, p. 413). Performance is neither effectiveness, which is an evaluation of the results (outcomes of performance), nor productivity which is defined as the amount of effectiveness in relation to the cost of achieving that effectiveness (Campbell, 1990).

Campbell's (1993) model breaks down performance into eight categories of activities that people are expected to undertake in their jobs which he called 'factors'. These are listed and described in Table 1.

Table 1

Campbell's Theory of Performance - Performance Factor Model

Performance Factors	Description
1. Job specific task proficiency	a) Core substantive and technical tasks b) Job specific performance behaviour
2. Non-job specific task proficiency	a) Other general tasks not specific to a particular job
3. Written and oral communication	a) Oral or written presentations b) Ability to communicate ideas
4. Demonstrating effort	a) Degree of commitment b) Personal discipline to work under adverse conditions
5. Maintaining Personal Discipline	a) Avoidance of substance abuse, infractions of law or rules, absenteeism
6. Facilitating peer and team performance	a) Support peers b) Help with problems c) Training co-workers d) Facilitation of group function e) Good model/example f) Keep group goal orientated g) Reinforce participation by others
7. Supervision/leadership	a) Behaviour directed at influencing performance of subordinates b) Face to face interpersonal interaction and influence c) Set goals for subordinates d) Teach more effective methods e) Model appropriate behaviours f) Reward and punish appropriately
8. Management/administration	a) Articulating goals b) Organising people c) Organising resources d) Monitoring progress e) Help solve problems f) Control expenditure g) Obtain additional resources

Not all of these factors are relevant across all jobs but Campbell suggested that this list is comprehensive and at the highest level can describe every occupational job (1993). As such, other performance factor models should be able to be absorbed within Campbell's model and either broaden our understanding of Campbell's model or assist in categorising Campbell's factors at a higher level.

In the following sections four theoretical models are discussed in terms of their contribution to the understanding of performance criteria. The first two are conceptual works from the general performance literature that offer theories of performance. The third and fourth studies are from the expatriate performance literature and offer models upon which empirical research has been based.

Performance Models – Conceptual Studies

Firstly, within the performance literature focusing on selection and predictors, Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997) argued that, selection criteria should embrace more than just task activities (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). They defined task performance as "proficiency with which people perform activities which are formally recognised as part of their jobs and contribute to the technical core directly or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 73). Contextual performance is defined as activities which "contribute to organizational effectiveness in ways that shape organizational, social and psychological context" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p.100). Contextual activities include helping and cooperating with others, following organisational procedures and support organisational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Borman and Motowidlo's model is similar to Campbell's in that the dimensions were specifically developed to represent categories of behaviour meant to serve as performance criteria for use in selection research (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997)

The following Table 2 presents Borman and Motowidlo's deductively developed taxonomy of contextual performance with the inclusion of task performance in order to show the possible matches with the factors from Campbell's theory (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).

Table 2
Borman and Motowidlo's (1997) taxonomy of contextual performance compared with Campbell's performance factors

Performance Factor	Description – sub-categories	Matches Campbell's factor:
TASK PERFORMANCE	Formally recognised as part of job that contributes to technical core	1. Job specific task proficiency, 2. Non-job specific task proficiency, 3. Written and Oral communication, 7. Supervision/leadership, 8. Management/administration
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE		4. Demonstrating Effort, 5. Maintaining Personal Discipline, 6. Facilitating peer and team performance
1. Persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort	a) Perseverance and conscientiousness	4. Demonstrating Effort,
	b) Extra effort	4. Demonstrating Effort.
2. Volunteering to carry out tasks that are not formally part of own job	a) Suggesting organisational improvements	6. Facilitating peer and team performance
	b) Initiative and taking extra responsibility	4. Demonstrating Effort,
	c) Constructive suggestions	6. Facilitating peer and team performance
	d) Developing oneself	4. Demonstrating Effort,
3. Helping and cooperating with others	a) Assisting/helping co-workers	6. Facilitating peer and team performance
	b) Assisting/helping customers	6. Facilitating peer and team performance
	c) Organisational courtesy	6. Facilitating peer and team performance
	d) Lack of complaining	5. Maintaining Personal Discipline,
	e) Altruism	6. Facilitating peer and team performance
4. Following organisational rules and procedures	a) Following orders and regulations and respect of authority	5. Maintaining Personal Discipline, 5. Maintaining Personal Discipline,
	b) Complying with organisational values and policies	5. Maintaining Personal Discipline,
	c) Conscientiousness	4. Demonstrating Effort,
	d) Meeting deadlines	6. Facilitating peer and team performance
	e) Civic Virtue	
5. Endorsing, supporting and defending organisational objectives	a) Organisational loyalty	4. Demonstrating Effort,
	b) Concern for unit objectives	6. Facilitating peer and team performance
	c) Staying during hard times	4. Demonstrating Effort,
	d) Protecting the organisation	6. Facilitating peer and team performance

It appears from this cursory matching that Campbell's factors can be readily divided into Task and Contextual factors wherein factors 1, 2, 3, 7, and 8 are Task Factors and 4, 5, and 6 are Contextual Factors. Indeed, it was found that Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) agreed with the matching of dimensions and factors depicted in Table 2. Motowidlo and Schmit (1999) however linked the final dimension, "Endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives" to Campbell's management/administration factor which is conceptualised as Task Performance in this study. The endorsing activities were allocated to Contextual Performance in Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit's theoretical article (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Thus, there still appears to be some confusion in the literature as to what work behaviours constitute the various work components.

However, in combination the two models appear to contribute to one another. Borman and Motowidlo's (1997) taxonomy offers a higher level structure to Campbell's model – a suggestion offered by Campbell himself (1999) in an apparent reconsideration of his initial stance (Campbell, 1990) that his eight factors offered the highest level of factorial hierarchy. In turn, Campbell's factors may be seen to augment the description of Borman and Motowidlo's Task and Contextual factors. Motowidlo and colleagues suggested Task and Contextual performance factors as a beginning "to identify and define underlying dimensions of behavioral episodes that make up the performance domain" (Motowidlo et al., 1997, p.72). Thus, these models may be used together as a theoretical basis to measure and categorise components of expatriate performance, and require empirical testing which is said to be lacking in the literature (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Caligiuri, 1997; Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005; Thomas & Lazarova, 2005).

Borman and Motowidlo's (1997) theory has particular applicability to modern organisations and to expatriates in the Chinese context. Borman and Motowidlo

strengthen their theory with evidence that supervisors evaluate performance equally on task and contextual bases. They further went on to envisage that in the future contextual performance will become even more important for organisational effectiveness as personal effort in a growing competitive world, team based work, and customer contact and service are increasingly crucial to organisations (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

It is argued here that contextual activities will be important for expatriates in the Special Administrative Regions of China due to the cultural emphasis on in-group belonging and more open ended and long term sets of obligations (Hui, Lee, & Rousseau, 2004). Contextual activities are common to many more jobs than task activities (Campbell, 1990) particularly in the Chinese environment where the expectation of citizenship-type behaviours are not necessarily dependent upon the perceived distributional justice within the work environment but determined by the expectations of the relationships between people based upon hierarchical roles within an organisation (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997).

Another theory which breaks performance down into various components and is cited regularly in the literature is Borman and Brush's (1993) taxonomy of Managerial Performance Requirements comprised of 18 factors. These were derived from an integration of various studies, both published and unpublished, and based mainly upon critical incidents across a range of industries. It is interesting to note that each of the 18 factors can also be subsumed into Campbell's (1990) factor list and again this model assists in broadening the explanation of Campbell's eight factors. In the following Table 3 the 18 Factors have been numbered as in Borman and Brush's taxonomy but these have been ordered as per Campbell's system to indicate the additional descriptors that can be added to that model.

Table 3

Borman and Brush's taxonomy of managerial performance

Performance Factor	Task/contextual categorisation as suggested by Borman & Motowidlo (1993)	Matches Campbell's factor:
6. Technical proficiency	Task	1. Job specific task proficiency
7. Administration and paperwork	Task	2. Non-job specific task proficiency
17. Selling/influencing	Task	3. Written and oral communication
12. Persisting to reach goals	Contextual	4. Demonstrating effort
14. Organisational commitment	Contextual	
4. Communicating effectively and keeping others informed	Contextual	6. Facilitating peer and team performance and 7. Supervision/leadership
8. Maintaining good working relationships	Contextual	6. Facilitating peer and team performance and 7. Supervision/leadership
2. Guiding, directing, motivating subordinates	Task	7. Supervision/leadership
3. Training, coaching and developing subordinates	Contextual	
16. Delegating	Task	
1. Planning and organising	Task	8. Management/administration
5. Representing organisation to customers and public	Contextual	
9. Coordinating subordinates and other resources	Task	
10. Decision making/problem solving	Task	
11. Staffing	Task	
13. Handling crises and stress	Task	
15. Monitoring and controlling resources	Task	
18. Collecting and interpreting data	Task	

It should be noted that in their discussion of the 18 Borman and Brush dimensions (1993), Borman and Motowidlo (1993) also indicated that the dimensions may be arranged under the task or contextual performance taxonomy (see Table 3). Their categorisation is based upon the similarities between the managerial dimensions and the contextual dimensions derived deductively from theory which was not specific to managerial performance domains. Maintaining good working relationships; training, coaching, and developing subordinates; and representing the organisation to customers and the public may be part of the managerial responsibilities which contribute indirectly to the technical core (the definition of task performance) but for others in the work place these activities may be discretionary and activities undertaken by employees to support the organisational environment. It is not surprising, therefore, that these three managerial performance dimensions have been categorised as contextual by Borman and Motowidlo but also fit into Campbell's (1990) dimensions which have been categorised as task performance dimensions in this current study. Contextual and task performance dimensions may differ depending upon the nature of the employee's job responsibilities and managerial or non-managerial status. Conway provided evidence that the distinction between the two types of performance is clearer for non-managerial personnel than for managers (Conway, 1996).

Allowing for the above qualifications, the majority of Borman and Brush's managerial performance factors match with Campbell's (1990) factor 7 (Supervision/Leadership) and factor 8 (Management/administration) which clearly pertain to management activities - a point with which Campbell agreed (1999). As such, although the Borman and Brush's taxonomy offers additional descriptors for the managerial and supervision factors of Campbell's model it does not offer any further insight into the possible overall structure of performance.

Another potentially confounding influence and particularly applicable to this research, given the sample of Australians in China, is a culturally derived definition of what constitutes task and contextual performance. Lam, Hui, and Law (1999) found from their comparison of employee and supervisor dyads in Japan, Hong Kong, the United States, and Australia that some categories of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (which are generally accepted to be contextual performance) were more likely to be expected as part of the job in the higher power distance countries of Japan and Hong Kong than they were in the United States or Australia. Univariate test statistics indicated that courtesy and sportsmanship were rated differently between nations with $F(3, 854) = 3.24$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2 = .01$ for courtesy and $F(3, 854) = 5.81$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2 = .02$ for sportsmanship. Japanese and Hong Kong participants gave higher scores than Australians and Americans for sportsmanship being an expected part of the job, and higher than Australians for courtesy being an expected part of the job. Such cultural differences in definitions of performance may further blur the categories of performance as suggested in the theoretical models above.

For models offering additional categories to the composition of performance the following theoretical models tested through empirical work are presented.

Performance Models – Empirical Studies

There are two empirical studies in the expatriate literature that have attempted to create models of expatriate performance based upon Performance Factor Model theories. Sinangil and Ones' (2003) Job Performance Dimensions were compiled from theoretically based studies (Campbell, 1990; Viswesvaran, 1993). They did not offer an explanation to how or why the specific dimensions had been selected but report reliability coefficients of between .84 and .96 for each dimension. The nine dimensions were adjustment of foreign business practices, establishing and maintaining business contacts, technical competence, working with others, communicating and persuading,

initiative and effort, personal discipline, interpersonal relations, productivity, and overall job performance. With an almost one dimension for one factor match their model also fits well into Campbell's Performance Factor Model with the exception of three dimensions: (a) adjustment to foreign business practices, (b) establishing and maintaining business contact, and (c) productivity.

It is argued here and later in this study that adjustment is not performance but is either an antecedent of performance or a mediator of other antecedents. Adjustment to a new environment (to understand behavioural norms and act accordingly, interpret messages and be accepted by others) is a requirement of performance given that performance is an evaluated behaviour and is evaluated by others within a cultural context (Caligiuri & Day, 2000). The second dimension that does not fit into Campbell's (1990) model, establishing and maintain business contact, could be consistent with Campbell's job specific task proficiency factor or even the non-job specific task proficiency factor, rather than a separate item. Finally, the productivity item does not fit into Campbell's factor list as Campbell defined productivity as a measurement of the results of performance; it is not always under the control of the individual. For these reasons the Sinangil and Ones' (2003) job performance dimensions do not offer additional insight into the performance construct.

The second author to be discussed here who created a theory of expatriate performance in her empirical study is Caligiuri (1997). Much of her framework is based upon theories of Borman and Motowidlo (1993) and Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, and Sager (1993) referred to above. Caligiuri broke performance down into four dimensions: Technical Performance, Contextual/Pro-social Performance, Contextual/ Managerial Performance, and Expatriate Specific Dimensions as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Caligiuri's Theory of Expatriate performance

Caligiuri's Performance Factors	Matches with Campbell's factors
Technical Performance	1. Job specific task proficiency
Contextual/Pro-social Performance	
Organisational commitment	4. Demonstrating effort
Motivation	*Not defined as a factor by Campbell*
Carrying out additional tasks	4. Demonstrating effort
Facilitating peer and team performance	6. Facilitating peer and team performance.
Maintaining personal discipline	5. Maintaining personal discipline
Contextual/Managerial Dimensions	
Maintaining good working relationships	6. Facilitating peer and team performance & 7. Supervision/leadership
Training, coaching, developing subordinates	7. Supervision/leadership
Representing organisation to customers and the public	8. Management/administration
Communicating effectively	3. Written and oral communication
Expatriate Specific Dimensions	
Replacement planning	8. Management/administration
Transferring information	3. Written and oral communication
Establishing good relationships with host nationals	6. Facilitating peer and team performance & 7. Supervision/leadership
Fostering commitment to organisation in the subsidiary	6. Facilitating peer and team performance & 7. Supervision/leadership
Language and culture proficiency	3. Written & oral communication

In the main, Caligiuri's (1997) performance theory is a composite of Borman and Brush (1993), Borman and Motowidlo (1993), and Campbell's models (1993). This

is the first performance theory to have been developed specifically for expatriates in the literature. Caligiuri's taxonomy has been cited but only a shortened versions used (consistent with Borman and Motowidlo's categorisation of task and contextual performance in most cases) as the theoretical foundation for empirical studies (Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Kraimer et al., 2001; Selmer, Lauring, & Feng, 2009; Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, & Ferzandi, 2006).

Caligiuri raised a potential problem in the division of the contextual dimensions into pro-social and managerial. There is a blurring of task and contextual factors when measuring the performance of managers (also discussed above in relation to Borman and Brush's [1993] 18 factors of managerial performance). Training, coaching and developing subordinates and representing the organisation to customers and the public are certainly performance factors which could form part of a managerial job specification and therefore may be viewed as task performance factors in the managerial context. When these activities are not part of the formal work role, as when performed by technical or non-managerial staff, these factors may be viewed as contextual performance factors. Indeed, Caligiuri cited training host nationals on new technologies within her discussion of task dimensions. Scullen et al. (2003) also mentioned this problem of allocating, what they term, managerial human skills (similar to Campbell's factors of facilitating peer and team performance and Supervision/leadership) into the task or contextual performance categories. They argued that due to these skills being based upon personality rather than cognitive abilities, and the factors being consistent with Borman and Motowidlo's definition of contextual performance, that indeed they should be categorised as contextual. They did however acknowledge that definition is arbitrary and cited Coleman and Borman's position that these decisions depend "largely on the construct definition intended by the author" (2000, p. 41). This suggests that

further investigation is required to more readily categorise performance factors under the task and contextual performance taxonomy.

Caligiuri's (1997) expatriate specific dimensions, although particularly pertinent to expatriate assignments and offer insight into the added complexity of tasks required by expatriates on assignment, could be subsumed under Campbell's model. Replacement planning is a staffing and training activity which is managerial in nature (Campbell's factor 8), transferring information between parent and subsidiary could match the written and oral communication factor (factor 3), establishing good relationships with host nationals may be part of facilitating peer, team and subordinate performance (factors 6 and 7) as may fostering commitment to the organisation in the subsidiary. The other expatriate specific dimension of language and culture proficiency may not of itself be a performance factor but could be seen to enable some of the factors and is therefore considered an antecedent in this context.

Caligiuri (1997) found the correlations among her performance dimensions, as rated by supervisors and peers, to be so high that she questioned the uniqueness of the four dimensions. Indeed, in a later study Caligiuri and Day (1999) used three dimensions rather than four and the factor analysis placed some items into dimensions not hypothesized in the 1997 study. Nor were the item dimensionality hypotheses stated in this later study which suggests that perhaps the hypothetical factor loadings were not consistent with the subsequent findings of the factor analysis presented. This indicates that, as a scale, more consideration needs to be given to the items comprising the dimensions to improve factorial validity and internal consistency. Caligiuri suggested that part of the explanation for the correlations in the 1997 study may be halo error (the overall performance perception may have influenced the supervisor's and peer's ratings on the individual dimensions) given that the respondents could distinguish between technical performance and the other dimensions. Viswesvaran and Ones (2000)

suggested that there is cumulative empirical evidence that there are correlations across performance dimensions which show that up to 50% of the variance is shared across different dimensions of performance. They suggested that rather than this being caused by a halo effect that there is a general factor in performance assessments which is substantively meaningful (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000, p.223) but which at the same time does not detract from the usefulness of performance dimensions. Campbell and associates (1993) stated that the true score correlations between the eight factors in his model can be assumed to be small enough to consider them distinct. Further, each component should show "differential correlations with predictor variables" (Campbell, 1990, p.710). He also acknowledged that, given that cognitive ability and conscientiousness are related to most performance factors, it is unsurprising that factors are correlated (Campbell, 1999). Citing earlier literature over five decades assessing construct validity of performance measures, Scullen and colleagues (2003) advised that relatively little evidence has been found for discriminant validity across measures of performance. It appears from these divergent views and evidence that further research may be required to increase confidence in the job performance factors being distinguishable enough to ensure construct validity, if this is at all possible given historical evidence to the contrary. Others have indeed called for the need to empirically test the above suggested model (Arthur & Bennett, 1997; Conway, 1996; Scullen et al., 2003) so that agreed upon definitions for the measurement of performance are available for practitioners and researchers alike (Borman & Brush, 1993; Campbell, 1999).

It is suggested from this discussion of the various Performance Factor Models that Campbell's (1990) eight factor model divided into task and contextual factors as shown in Table 2 may be a useful foundation for performance definition and measurement of an individual expatriate in China. It appears to incorporate all of the components offered by Caligiuri (1997), Sinangil and Ones (2003), and Borman and

Brush's (1993) models and is assisted by Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) higher level break down of the performance construct into task and contextual performance. The fact that Caligiuri (1997) and Sinangil and Ones (2003) have extensively borrowed from Campbell's Performance Factor Model in their own theoretical construction lends weight to its underlying strength and applicability in the definition and measurement of job performance. Scullen et al. (2003) tested a similar performance framework with Borman and Motowidlo's Task and Contextual Performance dimensions as higher order performance dimensions and four factors as the lower order dimensions. Lending further support for Campbell's model (1990), Scullen et al. (2003) and Conway (1996) suggested that it, amongst others, be employed to test whether there are finer grained distinctions of performance.

This research will utilise Campbell's (1990) eight factors as the basis for the measurement of performance as rated by expatriates and their supervisors. It may be that not all of the factors are relevant to all expatriate assignments but rather than exclude any of the factors for no theoretical reason it is preferable to consider all factors in the initial stages of the research.

The dual purposes of this study are to, firstly, explore a multi-factorial model of expatriate performance and to, secondly, examine the elements which may be antecedent to the aforementioned job performance factors within expatriate assignments in the Special Administrative Regions of China (SARs) and thus the following framework is offered which attempts to link the antecedents and performance factors.

Conceptual Framework

The model presented in Figure 1 asserts that selection methods, preparation and training, and ongoing support are antecedent to expatriate performance. Support for these relationships comes largely from empirical studies in the expatriate literature (Anderson, 2001; Caligiuri, 1997, 2000a; Caligiuri & Tung, 1999; Farid & Buda, 1998;

Kraimer et al., 2001; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Sagiadellis & D'Netto, 1997; Stroh, 1995; Tung, 1982), most of which have been developed from theoretical or conceptual studies (Caligiuri; Farid & Buda; Kraimer et al.; Parker & McEvoy; Sagiadellis & D'Netto). The other set of relationships depicted in the model suggests that cross-cultural adjustment and psychological contract violation, or fulfilment, as mediators, may influence the effect of the relationship between the antecedents and performance, and may also of themselves be causes. Support for these relationships comes from the psychological contract and cross-cultural adjustment literatures respectively. Parker and McEvoy proffered a model of antecedents and consequences of adjustment where performance is listed as a consequence of adjustment. Ashford and Taylor also proposed that various stressors and facilitating factors will impact upon adjustment (acculturation in their paper) and that level of adaptation will then determine secondary outcomes such as performance (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). It is interesting to note that Parker and McEvoy raised the relationship between adjustment and performance as a potential one. It is surprising that this relationship has not been tested before Parker and McEvoy's work, especially considering the breadth of earlier research on adjustment, and the attraction of the intuitive logic that performance should be an outcome of cross-cultural adjustment. They partially tested their model and found empirical evidence to confirm the relationship with performance.

The psychological contract literature, dealing with psychological contract violation, offers evidence that psychological contract violation can affect performance outcomes detrimentally (Robinson, 1996). Each of the constructs hypothesised to be antecedent to performance will be discussed in the following sections, commencing with cross-cultural adjustment due to the richness of literature available on this construct. Antecedents will be discussed last as these are not only viewed as predictors

of performance but are believed to influence both cross-cultural adjustment and psychological contract violation.

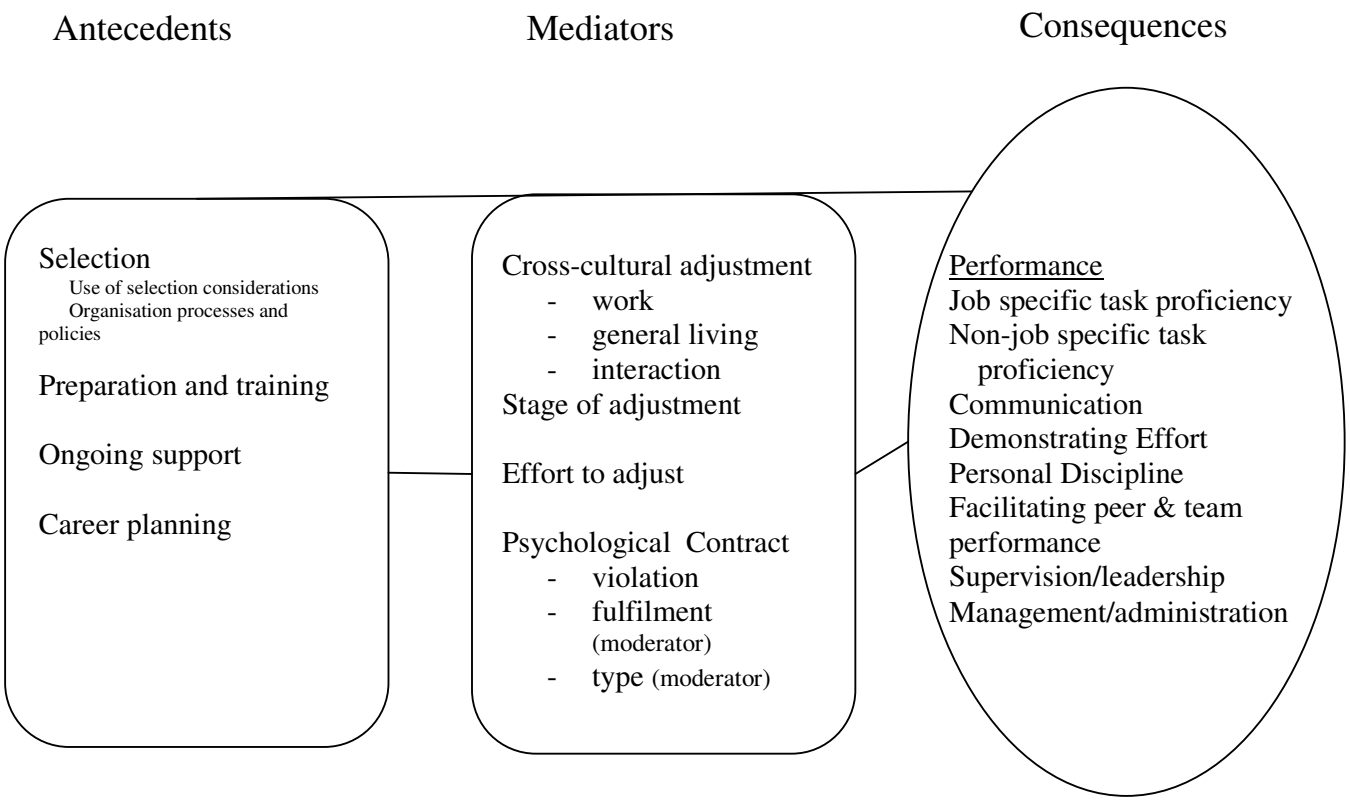

Figure 1. Expatriate Performance Conceptual Framework

Antecedents of Expatriate Performance

Returning to Campbell's factor model, but beyond its utilisation in defining and guiding the measurement of performance, it is further applicable to this study in that it offers an explanation as to what constitutes performance and what might be lacking when performance is not satisfactory. An individual's scores on each of Campbell's factors differ from that of other employees and are determined by only three determinants: (a) knowledge about facts and things, termed declarative knowledge; (b) knowledge about how things are done and skills to do them, termed procedural knowledge and skills; and (c) motivation to act, motivation to expend effort and motivation to persist, termed motivation (Campbell et al., 1993).

Therefore, performance and specific to this research, expatriate performance is the outcome of these three determinants which are, in turn, influenced by a myriad of inputs into the expatriate management process. It is necessary to understand the types of inputs (or antecedents of expatriate performance) used in the expatriate management process that are found in the literature to date to better determine which of those antecedents relates to the individual performance factors applicable to the measurement of performance of the Australian expatriate workforce in Special Administrative Regions of China.

Thus, in addition to clarifying the definition of performance through analysis of the factors of performance as discussed earlier, clarification of what constructs may be antecedent to performance is an important goal of this study. There have been attempts to identify variables which contribute to expatriate assignment success and/or performance (Adler, 1983; Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Black et al., 1991; Black & Stephens, 1989; De Cieri, Dowling, & Taylor, 1991; Hays, 1971; Tung, 1982). Although the Black Mendenhall and Oddou model (1991) has been extensively applied to the cross-cultural adjustment domain in the expatriate literature

and more recently applied to expatriate performance studies (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005), to date there does not appear to have evolved a comprehensive taxonomy of antecedents which is generally agreed upon to be indispensable to the study of expatriate performance (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005).

Table 5 lists some influential empirical studies that offer a number of variables which appear to have a relationship with job performance. Job performance is defined carefully in these empirical studies (Caligiuri, 1997, 2000a; Kraimer et al., 2001; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Shaffer et al., 2006) using theoretical or conceptual frameworks. As a comparison and in order to offer further constructs which might be antecedent to job performance, Table 6 offers a list of other empirical studies which either do not define performance as rigorously (Anderson, 2001; Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Sagiadellis & D'Netto, 1997; Tung, 1982) or do so using other terms such as premature departure (Farid & Buda, 1998), retention (Stroh, 1995), or cross-cultural adjustment (Caligiuri & Tung, 1999); or use definitions of success within an expatriate assignment which do not conform to job performance as defined by Campbell (1990) as being the outcome of the three determinants.

Table 5

Empirical studies of links between expatriate management inputs and performance

Authors	Samples	Antecedents linked to performance	Performance measured by:
Caligiuri, 1997	115 expatriates (43% response). 82 expatriate supervisors (30% response). 87 expatriate peers (30% response) from a US multinational	Three criteria of expatriate success were found to be distinct: 1. Completion of assignment, *2.* Cross-cultural adjustment and *3. Performance on assignment*. However, desire to terminate the assignment was negatively related to cross-cultural adjustment. *Contextual, managerial & expatriate specific performance* were negatively correlated with desire to terminate in self-reported data. There was no relationship between *technical performance* and cross-cultural adjustment. *Overall performance, contextual, managerial* & *expatriate specific performance* were positively correlated with cross-cultural adjustment (self-rated).	Supervisor rated: ▪ Overall performance ▪ Contextual/managerial performance ▪ Contextual/prosocial performance ▪ Expatriate specific performance ▪ Completion of assignment ▪ Cross-cultural adjustment
Caligiuri, 2000	143 expatriates (51% response) and 94 supervisors (66% response) from a US multinational	Personality characteristics ***extroversion***, ***agreeableness***, and ***emotional stability*** were negatively related to desire to terminate. ***Conscientiousness*** was positively related to supervisor rated *performance*.	Supervisor rated performance using an adapted in-house instrument
Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005	8,474 respondents in meta-analysis of 66 studies	***Adjustment*** uniquely affected *overall performance* above and beyond job satisfaction. ***Three types of adjustment*** acted as moderators in relationships between ***cultural novelty, coworker support and role clarity,*** and *overall performance*. ***General adjustment*** acted as a moderator in the relationship between ***logistical support*** and *contextual performance*.	Expatriate and multiple sources ratings. Performance variables in the 66 studies were coded to task performance, relationship performance and overall performance.

(table continues)

Table 5 (continued)

Empirical studies of links between expatriate management inputs and performance

Authors	Samples	Antecedents linked to performance	Performance measured by:
Harrison and Shaffer, 2005	171 expatriates, 126 spouses and 104 colleagues (14% response). 108 expatriate-spouse pairs, 101 expatriate-colleague pairs and 70 expatriate-spouse-colleague triads.	***Passive task neglect***, ***active task avoidance*** and ***leader–team exchange*** predicted task completion. Relationship building was influenced by ***time to proficiency*** and ***leader–team exchange***. ***Passive task neglect***, ***time to proficiency*** and ***leader–team exchange*** affected *overall performance*	Expatriate, spouse and work colleague ratings. Task completion, relationship building and overall performance based upon Caligiuri's items (1997)
Kraimer et al., 2001	339 expatriates (58% response), 278 supervisors (48% response) and 213 expatriate-supervisor dyads (37% response) from 3 US based companies.	***Perceived organisational support*** was positively related to expatriate adjustment (to work, the country & interaction which in turn positively affected *task and contextual performance*. **Support from the *leader/member exchange*** had a positive effect on *task & contextual performance*.	Supervisor rated: ▪ Task performance ▪ Contextual performance
Kraimer and Wayne, 2004	339 expatriates (58% response), 278 supervisors (48% response) and 230 expatriate-supervisor dyads from 3 US based companies	***Role Ambiguity, Role Novelty*** and ***Culture Novelty*** were found to be negatively related to *Task Performance*. ***Lack of language fluency, cultural novelty*** *and* ***Perceived Organisational Support relating to adjustment*** were negatively related to *Contextual Performance*. ***Lack of free*** choice was negatively and ***Perceived Organisational Support relating to Career*** was positively related to Intentions to Complete the assignment. ***Expatriate adjustment*** was related to and mediated relationships with Intentions to complete the assignment.	▪ Supervisor rated task performance ▪ Supervisor rated contextual performance ▪ Intentions to complete the assignment

(table continues)

Table 5 (continued)

Empirical studies of links between expatriate management inputs and performance

Authors	Samples	Antecedents linked to performance	Performance measured by:
Mol, Born, Willemsen, and Van Der Molen, 2005	4,046 respondents in meta-analysis of 30 studies	**Extraversion**, **emotional stability**, **agreeableness**, and **conscientiousness** *predicted* job performance. **Cultural sensitivity** *and* **local language ability** *were also related to* job performance.	Multiple source ratings. Performance variables in the 30 studies were aggregated to produce overall performance estimates.
Parker and McEvoy, 1993	169 expatriates in 12 countries (63% response rate)	***Work adjustment*** positively related to *work performance*. ***General living adjustment*** was negatively related to *work performance*.	Expatriate self-rated: ▪ overall work performance ▪ Ability to get along with others ▪ Ability to complete the assignment on time ▪ Quality of performance
Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, and Ferzandi, 2006	3 studies: Study 1. 206 expatriates/spouses/colleagues in Hong Kong (15% response rate Study 2. 309 Korean expatriates in 22 countries. Study 3. 150 Japanese assignees in 20 countries at predeparture and 71 expatriates at time 2 (47% response rate).	"***Intellectance***", ***cultural flexibility***, and ***people orientation*** predicted *task performance*. ***Intellectance***, ***people orientation*** and ***ethnocentrism*** (negatively) predicted *contextual performance*. ***Work adjustment*** mediated the relationships between ***intellectance*** and ***people orientation*** with *task performance*	Self-rated (and supervisor rated for study 1) contextual and task performance.

(table continues)

Table 5 (continued)

Empirical studies of *links between expatriate management inputs and performance*

Authors	Samples	Antecedents linked to performance	Performance measured by:
Sinangil and Ones, 1997	*220 expatriate and coworker dyads in Turkey (49% response rate)*	Self-reported ***adjustment*** was the best correlate with coworker rated *overall performance* and with the *9 dimensions of performance*.	Co-worker rated 9 dimensions of performance.

Note: Antecedents are ***in bold italics.*** Performance measures utilising multi-factorial conceptualisations or multi-item measures are in *italics and underlined.* Other terms of success used are also underlined.

Table 6

Empirical studies of links between expatriate management inputs and success in an expatriate assignment

Authors	Samples	Antecedents linked to performance variables	Measurement of performance used
Anderson, 2001	From Australian private sector organisations 6 senior HR staff (60% response) & 49 repatriates (49.5% response). From Australian public sector organisations 4 senior HR staff (80% response) & 42 repatriates (35% response). From Australian religious organisations 5 senior HR staff (84% response) & 49 repatriates (46.2% response).	Private sector organisations rated ***selection*** and ***preparation*** as important to the success of an expatriate assignment. The public sector organisations rated ***selection*** to be the most important for success. The religious organisations rated ***selection***, ***preparation***, and ***management*** most important for success. ***Repatriation*** was rated the least important factor towards success by all sectors.	▪ Success of an expatriate assignment
Arthur and Bennett, 1995	338 international assignees for 45 MNCs from 20 countries. Organisational response rate <3%. Subject response rate 95%	Five factors were perceived by expatriates to contribute to assignment success. 1. Family situation 2. Flexibility/adaptability 3. job knowledge and motivation 4. relational skills **5.** Extra –cultural openness	▪ 54 expatriate performance attributes perceived to be important to international assignment success (based upon Ronen, (1989).

(table continues)

Table 6 (continued)

Empirical studies of links between expatriate management inputs and success in an expatriate assignment

Authors	Samples	Antecedents linked to performance variables	Measurement of performance used
Caligiuri and Tung, 1999	98 expatriates (35% response) from a US multinational	Two of Hofstede's work values, ***high uncertainty avoidance*** and ***masculinity***, in the host country negatively affect cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate women. Lower self-rated ***cultural adjustment*** did not appear to affect the supervisor rated *performance* of expatriate women	▪ Desire to terminate the assignment ▪ Cross-cultural adjustment ▪ Supervisor rated performance
Farid and Buda, 1998	134 US human resource executives (52% response)	***Selection*** was positively related to ***Career Development***, and ***Career Development*** was negatively related to early return. ***Decision making autonomy*** was negatively related to early return.	▪ Early return
Sagiadellis and D'Netto, 1997	112 expatriates from Australian companies (18.7% response).	***Willingness to relocate***, ***role clarity*** and perceived ***career paths*** had a significant effect on expatriate success.	▪ Expatriate success (no details given as to how the variable was operationalised)
Stroh, 1995	51 US human resource specialists with international or expatriate interests (total response rate unknown)	The ***corporate value of the overseas assignment***, ***career development*** and ***corporate turbulence*** were significant predictors of retention	▪ Repatriate turnover

(table continues)

Table 6 (continued)

Empirical studies of links between expatriate management inputs and success in an expatriate assignment

Authors	Samples	Antecedents linked to performance variables	Measurement of performance used
Tung, 1981	80 vice-presidents of foreign operations in US firms which operated overseas (27% response).	The most important reasons for an expatriate's failure to function effectively were, in order: 1. ***Inability of spouse to adjust*** 2. ***Inability of expatriate to adjust*** 3. ***other family problems*** 4. ***Expatriate's personality*** 5. ***Inability to cope with assignment responsibilities*** 6. ***Expatriate's lack of technical competence*** 7. ***Expatriate's lack of motivation*** ***Rigor of selection and training*** was negatively correlated with <u>expatriate recall</u> or <u>dismissal</u>.	▪ Number of expatriates recalled or dismissed ▪ "Failure" or "poor performance abroad".

Note: Antecedents are ***in bold italics.*** Performance measures utilising multi-factorial conceptualisations or multi-item measures are in <u>*italics and underlined.*</u> Other terms of success used are also <u>underlined.</u>

Many of the empirical and theoretical studies which have focused on the expatriate management process based their discussion on the expatriate cycle of selection, preparation and training, ongoing management and support, and repatriation (Anderson, 2001; Brewster & Scullion, 1997; De Cieri et al., 1991; Harris & Moran, 1996; Oddou, 1991; Scullion & Brewster, 2001) and discussed the consequences of the management of elements of the expatriate cycle. There are other classification systems that are in use particularly in the adjustment literature which are based upon (a) stressors: support factors, situation stressors, and role stressors (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004); and (b) factors: individual (Black, 1988; Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) or personal factors (De Cieri et al., 1991); outside or contextual factors (Parker & McEvoy, 1993); non-work (Black & Gregersen, 1991a) or cultural factors (De Cieri et al., 1991); and job (Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992b; Shaffer, Harrison, & Gilley, 1999), organisational (Parker & McEvoy, 1993) or work related (Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003) factors. The expatriate life-cycle has been chosen here to organise the variables found in the literature.

Selection

Selection is one way that an organisation can directly control the individual level factors that affect performance (Parker & McEvoy, 1993). As understanding grows as to what the individual level predictors of expatriate outcomes are through work from researchers such as Caligiuri (2000a, 2000b; 2000), Dalton (2000), Deller (1997), Harrison (1996), Huang (2005), Mol (2005), Ones (1997), Shaffer (2006), van der Bank (2006) and their colleagues, academics and practitioners will be able to formulate more widely accepted and influential theories as to what the content of the selection processes should be for the required context and assignment outcomes.

Variables that relate to the selection process have been clearly linked to various definitions of performance in the empirical literature. Anderson's study (2001) indicated

that selection was rated important to success of an expatriate assignment by private companies in her Tri-Sector Comparative study and important in public and religious organisations. Farid and Buda's (1998) study linked selection to career development which was subsequently negatively related to premature return. Tung (1982) found that rigor of selection was negatively correlated with recall or dismissal.

With the exception of Tye in her expatriate selection policy capturing exercise with 33 human resource (HR) professionals (2005), most studies examining selection have shown that organisations select expatriates based upon their technical skills (Halcrow, 1999; Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998) even though early articles suggested that it should be based upon wider criteria (Rahim, 1983). The necessity for a broader range of selection criteria has been discussed (Fish, 1999; Harvey & Novicevic, 2002) and confirmed by others since (Anderson, 2001; Black et al., 1991) and these authors provided evidence for the importance of psychological suitability and family and partner's circumstances being taken into consideration. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) argued that selection criteria should embrace more than just the ability to perform task activities. They should include contextual activities as these activities are important for organisational effectiveness. Others suggested that particular traits, such as learning orientation (Porter & Tansky, 1999), are important for expatriate and spouse adjustment and engagement, which are precursors to performance on assignment. Extroversion, agreeableness, and openness to experience have also been found to be related to adjustment (Huang et al., 2005) as has emotional stability, intellectance, cultural flexibility, task and people orientation, and ethnocentrism (Shaffer et al., 2006).

Empirical studies which have discussed issues relevant to selection and which also link selection to performance are Caligiuri's study (2000a) which found that, of the Big Five Personality Characteristics, conscientiousness was positively related to supervisor rated performance, and extroversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability

were negatively related to the desire to terminate; Sagiadellis and D'Netto's study (1997) which found willingness to relocate to have a significant effect on expatriate success; Tung's (1982) study which found that personality traits, the inability to cope with responsibility and lack of motivation, were listed by United States (US) firms in her study as some of the most important reasons for expatriates' failure to function effectively; and Mol's meta-analysis which summarised the findings with a list of selection criteria to be tested as follows:

> it would appear that such an instrument should focus on expatriates' extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, conscientiousness, local language ability, cultural sensitivity, cultural flexibility, social adaptability, ego strength, interpersonal interest, tolerance for ambiguity, ethnocentrism, task leadership, and people leadership. (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005, p.416).

With emphasis on gaining an understanding of selection criteria for expatriate assignments, in a three-study article Shaffer and colleagues (2006) reported that intellectance was predictive of both task and contextual performance, as was people orientation. Cultural flexibility predicted task performance, and ethnocentrism was a negative predictor of contextual performance. Personality characteristics can be utilised and tested to some extent in the selection process, even if in some cases it is accomplished through self-selection.

The research raises two areas to consider in respect to selection. The first concerns what selection criteria are relevant to expatriate performance. What becomes understood throughout the literature is that an overall picture of selection considerations that lead to success in an expatriate assignment is yet to be agreed upon. Deller went as far as to suggest that "adequate conceptualization and operationalization of constructs are hardly ever found" in the literature (1997, p. 96). However, Anderson's (2001) study, which suggested that personality variables and family circumstance should be

taken into account as important for expatriate success, and Parker and McEvoy's (1993) framework, which included prior international experience, host language fluency, and relational skills as antecedents to performance, together seem to offer a broad perspective which covers a majority of the relevant selection variables suggested the literature that relate to expatriate success and/or performance. It is thus suggested that consideration be given by the organisation in the selection process to personality characteristics (Anderson, 2001; Caligiuri, 2000a; de Cueto, 2004; Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005; Sagiadellis & D'Netto, 1997; Shaffer et al., 2006; Tung, 1982), family circumstances (Anderson, 2001; Mendenhall, Dunbar, & Oddou, 1987; Tung, 1982), prior international experience (Naumann, 1993; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Tung, 1982), communication and relational skills (Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Tung, 1993) which includes host language fluency (Hays, 1974; Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Rahim, 1983; Zeira & Banai, 1985), in addition to technical ability, as there are indications of relationships between these variables and expatriate performance.

> *Hypothesis 1a:* The degree of utilisation of selection considerations by the organisation such as personality traits, family circumstances, previous overseas experience, host language fluency, and the ability to relate to people will be positively related to expatriate performance on Campbell's eight dimensions: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7) and Management/administration (8).

The second area is whether selection processes specific to expatriates are being used and how these affect expatriate performance. In a 1997 article by De Cieri and Dowling of studies in 1992 and 1994, over 70% of the Australian companies surveyed had no formalised selection policies whereas over 70% of the USA companies had policies in place (De Cieri & Dowling, 1997). The existence of processes and policies may indicate an organisation well down the track of internationalisation and aware of the variety of forces which shape human resource performance in an international context but the existence of such processes continues to be reported as rare (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998). Indeed, it has been shown that organisations more geocentric in mindset have a different approach to selection of international staff with more reliance upon expatriates being able to cope with diversity and adaptation than those organisations less globally oriented (Kobrin, 1994). The existence of selection processes incorporating more than just technical skills evaluation may assist in the selection of expatriates more likely to perform.

> *Hypothesis 1b:* The existence of expatriate selection processes and policies beyond selecting for technical skills will be positively related to expatriate performance on Campbell's eight dimensions: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7) and Management/administration (8).

Preparation and Training.

Although there is a significant volume of conceptual work found in this area (particularly examining the situation in American multinational companies [MNCs]) relatively few empirical studies have focused on training or preparation in the context of

performance as is reflected in the studies listed in Table 5 and Table 6. Anderson (2001) found that private and religious Australian organisations rated preparation as most important to the success of an expatriate assignment (Anderson, 2001), and Tung (1982) found in her study of US firms that the rigour of training was negatively correlated with expatriate recall or dismissal (Tung, 1982). Training and preparation was shown to be particularly relevant to the partners of expatriates in Tung's study (1981). She found that the most important reason for the failure of an expatriate's assignment was the inability of the spouse to adjust, and that training for expatriates and their families continued to be of low priority to organisations (Davidson & Kinzel, 1995; Tung, 1982).

Other empirical studies not relating to performance found that organisations gave insufficient support to expatriates in terms of preparation and training (Davidson & Kinzel, 1995), a finding consistent with earlier reports from the 1980s cited in Naumann (1993). The support was often limited to work task needs which left the expatriates and their families to build their own information networks for themselves.

Although not explained in the empirical expatriate performance studies cited in Table 5 or Table 6, it appears that preparation and training are particularly important to expatriates to the extent that they foster adjustment to the new work, social, and general environments (Aycan, 1997a; Caligiuri, Phillips, Lazarova, Tarique, & Burgi, 2001; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985), which in turn removes impediments to performance such as stress and isolation (Aycan, 1997a). This may be one of the reasons that little empirical work has tested the relationship between training and performance: It is seen in the expatriate domain to facilitate adjustment to the new cultural environment. From another theoretical perspective, Lin and Wei (2005) suggested that a resource-based viewpoint explains the requirement for training. They stated that expatriates are valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-transferable resources as per the definition of

resources required for competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). That is, training will develop the core competencies to enable expatriates (and therefore businesses) to be more productive in changing environments. Black and Mendenhall (1990) cited in Naumann 1992, noted that cross-cultural training was positively related to skill development, adjustment, and performance. Morris and Robie found from their meta-analysis that the mean correlation between training and performance (measured using a number of success-type variables) was significant and positive at r = .26. This, they offered, as cautious empirical evidence for the relationship between training and performance. Thus, is can been seen from a number of theoretical and empirical perspectives that preparation and training may enhance expatriate performance.

> *Hypothesis 2a:* Cultural training and language training will be positively related to performance outcomes of expatriates as measured by Campbell's (1990) eight factors of performance: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7) and Management/administration (8).

Tung (1982) found that the rigor of training was negatively related to failure in expatriate assignments. Rigor of training refers to the time taken and usage of various methods to teach expatriates about their new environment (Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley, & Riedel, 2006). These methods vary in type (cognitive versus affective), medium of instruction, content, and time and resources required (Tung). The training may include mere access to written information about the host country and its culture and environment (Anderson, 1998), discussions with repatriates (Stroh, 1995), culture and language training (Kraimer et al., 2001; Tung, 1984, 1993), and pre-assignment visits

(Anderson, 2001). Littrell and colleagues suggested "that more rigorous training may result in more substantial and longer lasting effects on expatriate performance" (2006, p.378). It is suggested here, therefore, that the greater the rigor and variety of opportunities to gain knowledge before the assignment will positively influence expatriate performance.

> *Hypothesis 2b:* Support by an expatriate's employer in terms of rigor and variety of training and preparation (such as access to written information, pre-assignment visits and opportunities to discuss the assignment with repatriates) will be positively related to expatriate performance as measured by Campbell's (1990) eight factors of performance: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7) and Management/administration (8).

Support

It is difficult to find a clear explanation for why support should be important to expatriate performance within the expatriate performance literature. Kraimer, Wayne, and Jaworski (2001) offered some insight through the theories of perceived organisational support and stress management. Based on these theories they suggested that support is important for the reduction of uncertainty which causes stress (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). In their theoretically integrative paper on acculturation, Ashford and Taylor (1990) advised that social support will alleviate stress and group cohesiveness will lead to better understanding of the requirements of the environment and a sense of control which both lessen stress. Kraimer and colleagues (2001) suggested that support will facilitate adjustment to the new work environment which then fosters better performance outcomes. Indeed, their study offered evidence that support does relate to

both adjustment and performance directly and that support also positively affects performance through adjustment.

In the literature, ongoing expatriate support incorporates human resource (HR) practices and policies from assistance in relocation at the practical level (Anderson, 1998) to a holistic approach to expatriate management which sees it as part of the management and organisation development system at the strategic level. Based upon a review of the literature, support appears to be discussed under three major categories (Adelman, 1988; Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002; Ford et al., 2008; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Ong & Ward, 2005; Takeuchi, Marinova, Lepak, & Liu, 2005) and which have been grouped here under the terms practical, informative, and affective (Cobb, 1976). Practical support encompasses activities such as relocation assistance, taxation, property, and banking advice (Anderson) and are visible symbols of an organisation's commitment to the well being of an expatriate. Less concrete but perhaps even more important to an expatriate are the informative and affective support mechanisms. By informative, information about the assignment has been grouped together: the task expectations of the role, role clarity (Sagiadellis & D'Netto, 1997), information about colleagues and subordinates in the host organisation, extra role duties to be performed (Black et al., 1991), and daily life (Tung, 1982). Affective support is comprised of personal support systems such as expatriate networks (Anderson, ; Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998), the appointment of mentors (Mezias & Scandura, 2005; Osland, 2000; Stroh, 1995), social and work relationships with other employees at the host company (Kraimer et al., 2001), and family. Often the expatriate community is seen as the most valuable source of information and advice, as was reported in Sergeant and Frenkel's study where 27 expatriates mainly from China were interviewed (1998). Mentoring has been shown in earlier studies to be related to job performance, although not in an expatriate context (Dreher & Ash, 1990). Dreher and Ash cited a study by Douglas and

Schoorman (1988) which provided evidence that mentoring experiences covary in a positive direction with job performance and commitment, amongst other outcomes.

Intuitively each of these types of support should relate to different aspects of performance where, for example, affective support might assist in facilitating peer and team performance through a better understanding of how to interact with host nationals. It is thus suggested here that practical, informative, and affective support will positively affect performance however each may do so in different ways and impact on different factors of performance.

Hypothesis 3a: The degree of practical support offered by the organisation will be positively related to expatriate performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Hypothesis 3b: The degree of informative support offered the organisation will be positively related to expatriate performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Hypothesis 3c: The degree of affective support offered by the organisation will be positively related to expatriate performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Repatriation

Repatriation and career planning may appear to be odd variables to include into a study on expatriate performance. It certainly may not make intuitive sense to include repatriation or career planning as an antecedent to expatriate performance when performance in the assignment precedes repatriation. However, career planning, which includes how repatriation is handled, has been shown to be an important predictor of expatriate success (Sagiadellis & D'Netto, 1997) but which has not been dealt with well by organisations (Anderson, 1998, 2001; Arthur Andersen, 1997; Fish & Wood, 1996). The existence of a career plan seems to indicate to an expatriate that the expatriate's work is valued now and will be in the future (Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Handler et al., 1997; Scullion, 1994). Naumann (1992) found that integrating expatriate assignments into career paths seemed to facilitate expatriate success. Other authors have also commented on the value of career paths as a sign of organisational support which has shown to increase the success in expatriate assignment (Farid & Buda, 1998), as well as willingness of other to take up expatriate assignments (Carpenter et al., 2000) and improve retention of repatriates after the assignment (Stahl et al., 2007; Stroh, 1995). These positive outcomes each contribute to a virtuous cycle to assist expatriates to do well in their assignments.

> *Hypothesis 4:* Relevance of the assignment to expatriates' career plans will be positively related to expatriate performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Cross-cultural abilities and culture specific "know-how" are the foundations of international business, economic and political relationships. Cultural differences (or cultural distance or cultural novelty as commonly used in the literature) between nations mitigate the establishment of strong relationships which are vital for the success of business activities both at an individual performance level and at the organisational level. Indeed, Parker and McEvoy (1993) found that cultural novelty explained as much variance in cross-cultural adjustment as any other factor and thus cultural novelty is believed to be a significant predictor of adjustment (Kraimer et al., 2001; Searle & Ward, 1990). The magnitude of novelty has been shown to be negatively related to task and contextual performance (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). Aggregate calculations using Hofstede's (1997) cultural dimensions indices, as used by others (Black, 1988; Harzing, 2000; Kogut & Singh, 1988; Manev & Stevenson, 2001), suggested that the cultural distance between Australia and China is greater than that between Australia and other cultures of Australia's business partners in the Asian region (note Table 7). Although the Hofstede indices indicated that the distance between Hong Kong and Australia is closer than that with mainland China, the distance remains greater than with most other countries in Asia. There are signs that the roles of the colonial powers in the SARs have been "replaced by Beijing" (Bray & Koo, 2004, p.217) and mainland influence has become greater, not just politically but socially as well. It is expected that culturally, Hong Kong and Macau have become more aligned with China during the years since handover at the end of the 20th Century. Thus, it is suggested here that any effect on performance should be amplified due to the cultural distance between Australia and the SARs and thus much more is to be learnt from studying the process of adapting to the Chinese cultural context by Australian expatriates than from adaptation to other Asian contexts. Indeed, there are suggestions in the literature that expatriate failure is more

prevalent in situations characterized by large cultural distance between the home and host nations (Hutchings, 2005). Such empirical evidence of the effect of cultural distance upon cross-cultural adjustment is readily available (Searle & Ward, 1990; Selmer, Chiu, & Shenkar, 2007; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005; Takeuchi, Lepak, Marinova, & Yun, 2007), however its impact upon performance has been less investigated (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005).

Table 7

Cultural distance from Australia - based upon Hofstede's indices

Country	Cultural dimensions					Differential with Australia					Aggregate differential	Rank of cultural difference from Australia
	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO		
Australia	**36**	**90**	**61**	**51**	**31**							
China	80	20	66	30	118	44	70	5	21	87	45	1
Hong Kong	68	25	57	29	96	32	65	4	22	65	38	5
India	77	48	56	40	61	1	42	5	11	30	18	12
Indonesia	78	14	46	48		42	76	15	3		34	9
Japan	54	46	95	92	80	18	44	34	41	49	37	6
Malaysia	104	26	50	36		68	64	11	15		40	2
New Zealand	22	79	58	49	30	14	11	3	2	1	6	13
Philippines	94	32	64	44	19	58	58	3	7	12	28	11
Singapore	74	20	48	8	48	38	70	13	43	17	36	8
South Korea	60	18	39	85	75	24	72	22	34	44	39	3
Taiwan	58	17	45	69	87	22	73	16	18	56	37	7
Thailand	64	20	34	64	56	28	70	27	13	25	33	10
United States	40	91	62	46	29	4	1	1	5	2	3	14

Note. The five cultural dimensions of power distance (PDI), Individualism (IDV), Masculinity (MAS), Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) and Long-Term Orientation (LTO) and the individual country scores were sourced from Hofstede (2001). The calculations follow the formula used by Kogut and Singh (1988) whereby the absolute difference of the scores for each dimension between Australia and the other country are summed and then divided by the number of dimensions applicable.

Although there have been numerous critiques of the reliability and validity of Hofstede's work (1980), as well as his conceptualisation of culture (McSweeney, 2002), Hofstede's indices are used here as indicative of the extent of the cultural differences

between nations. They may indeed be seen as more applicable to this particular research as Hofstede's data are from the work environment. Many of the criticisms regarding Hofstede ignoring situational specificity and subsequent over generalising to entire national contexts are therefore nullified in research in similar contexts to Hofstede's.

It is the contention of this research that cross-cultural adjustment is a predictor of the performance of expatriates in their overseas assignments and may also mediate the relationships between the performance antecedents, as discussed earlier, and performance (as measured using Campbell's Factor Model (1990)). Parker and McEvoy (1993) offered the first empirical evidence to be based upon a comprehensive model that cross-cultural adjustment may be related to performance. These authors used a multi-faceted approach to define and measure both adjustment and performance of 169 expatriates working in 12 countries. In their study, adjustment was assessed through administration of Black's 14 item scale (reported in Black & Stephens, 1989), requiring the respondents to report the degree of adjustment they felt toward the general living environment, work, and interacting with host nationals. Factor analysis of the items supported Black's three factor solution with reliability coefficients reported to be .74 for living adjustment, .86 for interaction adjustment and .75 for work adjustment. Earley's (1987) four items were utilised in a self-assessment of expatriate performance (alpha = .93). The relationship between adjustment and performance was explored through the utilisation of both zero-order correlation analysis ($r = .23$, $p<.01$) and multiple regression analysis ($\beta = .29$, $p<.001$) offering support for work adjustment positively predicting performance.

Since Parker and McEvoy's study (1993) in the 1990s there has been a solid body of empirical work completed on cross-cultural adjustment in the context of expatriates as evidenced by a meta-analytical study of 42 empirical papers (Hechanova

et al., 2003) which supported the view that cross-cultural adjustment positively influences performance outcomes. The two goals of the Hechanova et al. research were to summarise the common predictors and the outcomes of adjustment. Theoretically based work has suggested (and in most part implied or taken for granted [Thomas & Lazarova, 2005]) that adjustment is crucial to role outcomes such as performance (Aycan, 1997a; Benson, 1978; Black, 1990; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Forster, 1992; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Mezias & Scandura, 2005; Takeuchi et al., 2007; Thomas & Inkson, 2004; Tung, 1982). The Hechanova et al. meta-analysis is significant as it highlights the importance of the impact of adjustment on outcomes such as job satisfaction, strain, organisational commitment, intention to leave as well as performance as seen over a body of empirical research. A model was tested using a two-step approach to analysing structural equation models. This model suggested that adjustment affected performance through job satisfaction, strain, and organisational commitment and offered a modest explanation for the variance in performance (R^2= .35) explained by adjustment. Hechanova et al. suggested that the low number of studies available, whilst being a limitation of their meta-analysis, indicated a requirement for more solid empirical studies to be conducted.

As is the case with performance, the definition of cross-cultural adjustment, other terms applied to describe similar concepts (which are often used interchangeably such as adaptation and acculturation) and how they are measured vary in the literature. Prior to selecting measures of cross-cultural adjustment used in this research, an understanding of the concepts of cross-cultural adjustment and culture, the differentiation between adjustment and similar terms, and the overlaps with other constructs that may create problems of construct validity needed to be explored.

Within the expatriate literature Aycan (1997) defined cross-cultural adjustment as “the degree of fit between the expatriate … and the environment” (p.1) and “the

process of change to fit in" (p.6). Other definitions have been offered and are summarised by Hechanova et al. (2003) and Aycan (1997a): general feelings of acceptance and satisfaction, psychological comfort, acquisition of culturally appropriate skills, and lack of mental health problems. Cross-cultural adjustment is a process of learning how to behave acceptably, adapting to, and participating comfortably in a new and alien environment. This is a process which is viewed and judged by others as well as the individual (Black, 1988; Joardar, Kostova, & Ravlin, 2007). The majority of authors have utilised the sociocultural adjustment definition as opposed to psychological adjustment when operationalising adjustment. They have measured the adjustment construct by self-report methods (Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Stephens, 1989; Eschbach, Parker, & Stoeberl, 2001; Kraimer et al., 2001; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Selmer, 1998, 2002; Shaffer et al., 1999). Aycan (1997b) and, of recent times following in her stead, Peltokorpi (2008) have equated Searle and Ward's (1990) psychological adjustment with Black's general adjustment (1989), sociocultural adjustment with interaction adjustment, and manifestations of task efficiency (Aycan & Berry, 1996) with work adjustment. In contrast this research takes the more common conceptualisation of Black's taxonomy as three types of sociocultural adjustment and defines psychological adjustment as subjective wellbeing, depression, and anxiety (Searle & Ward, 1990; Selmer, 2002; Thomas & Lazarova, 2005). The latter is not measured in this research.

There have been some surprising negative relationships found between other variables measured and adjustment. As sociocultural adjustment is not completely self-perceived and can be judged by others, more objective measures may offer additional insight into these relationships. Takeuchi, Yun, and Tesluk (2002) measured work adjustment of expatriates by obtaining ratings from supervisors. An objective view of cross-cultural adjustment is consistent with the sociocultural definition of adjustment

which relates to the ability to fit into a society or to interact effectively (Searle and Ward, 1990 as cited in Selmer, 2005).

The negative relationships found have been between support aimed at adjustment and expatriate performance (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004), and general living adjustment and performance (Parker & McEvoy, 1993). These authors suggested that the negative relationships may be due to lack of comfort in the living conditions which forces the expatriate to focus on work, or, conversely, those committed to their work do not have the opportunities to adjust to the living conditions. Alternatively, heightened awareness of the cultural differences may focus the expatriate on adjusting to the new culture at the expense of work tasks. This suggests that measurement of cross-cultural adjustment may be confounded by the awareness of expatriate to the situation: An expatriate who has received rigorous and effective cross-cultural training may be fully aware of individual inadequacies and self-rate lower than an expatriate who has little understanding of the environment. An alternative view is that expatriates with high levels of ethnocentricity may tend to experience less culture shock (Sinangil & Ones, 1997 citing Ruben, 1979) and therefore perceive themselves to be adjusted when in fact they exhibit inappropriate behaviours. It is for these reasons that self-rated measures of cross-cultural adjustment need to be supplemented with more objective measures by others, and is the rationale for the need to operationalise adjustment through external behaviours and not simply as psychological adjustment.

Further explanation for the negative relationships might be found in the theories pertaining to different stages of adjustment (Black, 1988; Di Marco, 1974; Oberg, 1960). Rather than merely being a graduated construct measuring whether an expatriate is adjusted or not as measured in most of the literature, it may be that the various stages of adjustment relate to other variables in differing ways.

The object of this adjustment is culture which has been parsimoniously defined by Hofstede as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (1980, p.25). Hofstede stated that values are the building blocks of culture and these are represented by behaviour. An expatriate's behaviour should be the visual cue that an expatriate is in the process of adjusting. An understanding by the expatriate of the value system inherent in the culture may be a signal to the expatriate that adjustment is taking place at a deeper level.

It is worth noting here that the term culture tends to have a broad meaning within the adjustment literature. It is not with the intent of taking a culturalist (rather than institutionalist) approach to the concept of adjustment that the term culture is utilised in this research. Culture influences organisational systems and other institutional structures (Sorge, 2004) and these are generally taken into account when measuring the concept of cross-cultural adjustment in the literature (Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Stephens, 1989; Eschbach et al., 2001; Kraimer et al., 2001; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Selmer, 1998, 2002; Shaffer et al., 1999). This broader definition acknowledges the reciprocal relationship between the mind-set of individuals (a culturalist approach) and the normative systems and rules (an institutionalist approach) (Sorge, 2004). Thus, an integrative perspective on the definition of environment is taken here.

It is common to see terms used interchangeably in the adjustment literature, and adaptation (Benson, 1978) and acculturation (Aycan, 1997a; Tung, 1993) are alternatives to adjustment (see Figure 2). Although many authors seem to have used the term adaptation as readily as adjustment (Anderson, 1994; Ang et al., 2007; Benson, 1978; Di Marco, 1974; Eschbach et al., 2001; Haslberger, 2005; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004 as examples of a few), Aycan (1997a) made a distinction between the two. She defined adaptation as a process of change where there is mutual accommodation between the environment and the individual. This semantic was echoed by Berry in the

following statement, “the dominant group must be prepared to adapt national institutions (e.g., education, health, labor) to better meet the needs of all groups now living together” (Berry, 2006, p.292). Although there may be an opportunity for the expatriate to have role discretion and for there to be an expectation of some accommodation by the expatriate’s sub-ordinates and peers in the work environment, this two-way process cannot be expected within the wider community in which the expatriate lives and so adjustment rather than adaptation would be the expected outcome of an expatriate assignment.

The second term, acculturation, implies an element of coercion whereby the actors in the environment proactively mould the expatriate to fit in. Although the definitional perspective taken here differs somewhat from Harrison, Shaffer, and Bhaskar-Shrinivas (2004), this definition of acculturation is drawn both from the earlier literature which, granted, is ambiguous in use of terminology and a number of other leads. Firstly, adaptation is the term that has been conceived as a two way process in “mutual accommodation” (Aycan, 1997a). Secondly, the latin verb ending -ate of acculturate means to make or to cause (Oxford University Press, 2000) thus connoting that something is done to someone else – a concept which is also implied in the term “acculturative stress”. Finally, the original discussions regarding acculturation came about from a concern with domination by colonial powers over indigenous groups although it has shifted over time to include voluntary as well as involuntary changes (Berry, 2006). The definition used here returns to the original meaning to force or impose change to distinguish it from adaptation whereby the change is mutual. Acculturation thus defined may be expressed in the goal of parent companies when transferring inpatriates or TCNs to the home organisation (Harvey, Speier, & Novecevic, 2001) or self-selected expatriates into any organisation. However, it may not be an appropriate term for an expatriate who is generally from the parent organisation

and whose role is often to fill a vacant position, command and control, and/or for the management development of the expatriate (Harzing, 2001a). Much of the time, PCNs are on assignment to impart to the host organisation the ways of the parent company, and so are more likely to be there to mould others than to be moulded themselves.

The difference between adjustment and acculturation is the action of colleagues and others towards the expatriate. Where others proactively seek to change the expatriate it is acculturation. If the change in the expatriate is driven by merely being in constant contact with cultural differences then the process can be deemed adjustment (see Figure 2).

During the expatriate assignment there may be evidence of other people changing to accommodate the expatriate (as in adaptation), or coercion by others on the expatriate to change (as in acculturation). However, considering individual job performance is the focus of the current study, it is individual change driven from within the expatriate, as is defined by the term adjustment, which is most applicable to this context.

Given that expatriates change:

		Force of others on expats	
		Proactive	Passive
Others	Change	Adaptation	
	Do not change	Acculturation	Adjustment

Figure 2. Definition of adjustment terms

In a similar vein to Campbell's (1990) treatise in respect to developing criteria of performance, Benson (1978) and other authors (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997) have called for a definition of the criteria used to determine cross-cultural adjustment; what cross-cultural adjustment is and how it can be measured. Much attention has been given to the predictors of cross-cultural adjustment before and since Benson's study (1978) but until his attempt to compile a list of dimensions of overseas adaptation there appears to be little attention given to the distinction between predictors of adjustment (causes of) and development of criterion measures (what it is comprised of). The most common overlap seen in the literature is that of performance criteria with predictors and criterion dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment.

Benson (1978) warned of the risk of confounding adjustment with performance and other dependent variables, particularly when performance is measured dichotomously as in success versus failure. Paradoxically for the warning he gave, he included items purported to measure cross-cultural adjustment (as can be seen in Table 8) which have since been used as predictors by others, such as language skills (Hechanova et al., 2003), communication skills (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Adler, 1983; Hechanova et al., 2003), personality traits (Hechanova et al., 2003; Parker & McEvoy, 1993), and time spent interacting with host nationals (Black, 1988; Hechanova et al., 2003; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). He mainly used the term adaptation in the body of his article and adjustment in the title. Benson included performance in this list of possible measures of cross-cultural adjustment whereas performance is viewed as an outcome of cross-cultural adjustment in other studies (Hechanova et al., 2003; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). Indeed, Black (1990) argued that performance should not be used as an objective measure of adjustment but rather an outcome variable that adjustment might influence. This overlap of variables continues in the research as evidenced by Guzman and Burke's citing of "mixed predictors and criteria of cross-cultural adjustment or

performance" (Guzman & Burke, 2003p. 661). The example given by Guzman and Burke was Arthur and Bennett's (1995) list of dimensions of expatriate success which included communication skills and previous overseas experience which may have been more appropriate as predictors of cross-cultural success (see Table 8). Indeed, in the work from which Arthur and Bennett borrowed the dimensions, Ronen warned of lack of clarity in the "differentiation between predictors (skills) and criteria (performance) ratings" (Ronen, 1989, p.446) in the literature and in practice.

Table 8

Overlaps between independent and dependant variables: cross-cultural adjustment and performance

	Used as a Cross-cultural adjustment variable			Used as a Performance variable
Overlapping Variable	As independent variable – predictor	As dependent variable – criteria dimension	As an outcome of cross-cultural adjustment	As dependent variable – criteria dimension
Language skill	Hechanover et al., 2003	Benson, 1978		Caligiuri, 1997
Communication skills	Abe and Wiseman, 1983	Benson, 1978		Arthur and Bennett, 1995
	Black, 1990			Caligiuri, 1997
	Hechanover et al., 2003			
Personality traits	Hechanova et al., 2003	Benson, 1978		
	Parker and McEvoy, 1993			
Frequency of interaction with host nationals	Black, 1988	Benson, 1978		
	Hechanova et al., 2003			
	Parker and McEvoy, 1993			
Previous overseas experience	Black, 1988			Arthur and Bennett, 1995
	Hechanova et al., 2003			
	Parker and McEvoy, 1993			
Job performance		Benson, 1978	Parker and McEvoy, 1993	Caligiuri, 1997
			Hechanova et al., 2003	

There is little consensus on what measures are most suited to the assessment of cross-cultural adjustment or agreement as to what constitutes the predictors of cross-cultural adjustment, although Black and colleagues' measures appear to have a strong following. However, given that the framework developed by Parker and McEvoy (2003) links cross-cultural adjustment to performance, and has been confirmed by the Hechanova and colleagues' meta-analytical study, theirs' is a good starting point for further examination of this variable.

Measures of Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Both the Parker and McEvoy (1993) and Hechnova et al. (2003) studies adopted a multifaceted approach to the definition and measurement of cross-cultural adjustment. Black (1988) explored and developed (Black & Stephens, 1989) this multifaceted approach which has been utilised extensively (Eschbach et al., 2001; Kraimer et al., 2001; Selmer, 1998; Shaffer et al., 1999; Shaffer et al., 2006; Takeuchi et al., 2007). Black's model views cross-cultural adjustment, as comprised of three facets; work adjustment, adjust to general living conditions, and adjustment to interacting with host nationals. Black's original empirical study (1988) did not offer empirical evidence for his hypothesised 3-factor model. His 1988 study showed that two of the factors (adjustment to general living conditions and adjustment to interacting with host national) were significantly correlated. He therefore combined these two factors in this study. Subsequent studies, however, confirmed (Black, 1990; Black & Stephens, 1989; Hechanova et al., 2003; Kraimer et al., 2001; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Selmer, 2002) Black's originally conceived model with some item adjustments. Black's model might itself have benefited from utilisation of a principal components analysis with oblique rotation of factors (for factors which correlate) rather than varimax rotation which was employed (under an orthogonal hypothesis implying uncorrelated factors) (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994, p. 448). The one study testing Black's 1988 model has its own

problems. Eschbach et al. (2001) used Black's 1988 unproven hypothesized model rather than the model suggested by the factor analyses in their study and found evidence to support this model with the original items. In Eschbach et al's study, however, reification of constructs is prominent: they utilised multiple items to measure variables with individual items used concurrently for multiple variables. The risk here is a high occurrence of multicollinearity and thus places doubt upon the validity of the relationship and factorial findings. Given the lack of solid evidence for Black's 1988 model it is not surprising that the items used to measure the three adjustment facets have been adjusted over time by both Black and others (Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Stephens, 1989; Kraimer et al., 2001; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Selmer, 1998, 2002; Shaffer et al., 1999). Table 9 presents a list of the items used in six of the empirical studies mentioned above from the scale developed by Black and Stephens (1989) and items from the original 1988 Black study. The major difference between the two scales is the rewording of some of the items. Two items had complex factor loadings in Black's 1988 study; adjustment to host national co-workers and adjustment to host national subordinates – both hypothesised to be in the work adjustment facet. Adjusting to host national subordinates became adjusting to supervisory responsibilities making this clearly a work-related item. Adjustment to host national co-workers became socialising and speaking with host nationals, which removed the work terminology and moved the item into the interactive adjustment facet.

Table 9

Cross-cultural adjustment facets founded on Black's 1988 model

Adjustment Facet	11 measurement items from Black's 1988 study (hypothesised item loadings). Adjusting to:	14 measurement items from Black and Stephens' 1989 study. Adjusting to:
General Adjustment	▪ General Living ▪ Transportation ▪ Food ▪ Shopping ▪ Weather ▪ Entertainment	▪ Living conditions in general ▪ Housing conditions ▪ Food ▪ Shopping ▪ Cost of living ▪ Entertainment ▪ Healthcare facilities
Interaction Adjustment	▪ Interacting with host nationals outside your company ▪ Interacting with host nationals in general	▪ Interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis ▪ Socialising with host nationals ▪ Speaking with host nationals ▪ Interacting with host nationals outside of work
Work Adjustment	▪ Job responsibility ▪ Host national co-workers ▪ Host national sub-ordinates	▪ Specific job responsibilities ▪ Performance standards and expectations ▪ Supervisory responsibilities

Another concern regarding the cross-cultural adjustment model is that overlaps of some elements of this adjustment model (mostly included in the interaction adjustment facet) can be found with some performance dimensions in other studies (Caligiuri, 1997; Guzman & Burke, 2003). Caligiuri's expatriate performance model includes two dimensions in the expatriate-specific performance dimensions which overlap with Black and Stephen's (1989) interaction adjustment measurement items. Caligiuri's contextual/managerial dimensions overlap with items from Black's work adjustment facet. These are presented in Table 10. Similar overlaps are seen between

Black's model and Guzman and Bourke's conceptual definition of international student performance dimensions where adjusting to general living conditions, communicating with host nationals, and developing social and personal relationships with host nationals are included as performance rather than adjustment dimensions. Although the participants in Guzman and Bourke's research were international students, their research drew heavily from both Campbell's (1990) and Black et al.'s (1991) theories within the expatriate domain. Guzman and Bourke suggested that their empirically confirmed performance dimensions within the educational sojourner domain may also be relevant to the business sojourner (expatriate) domain.

Table 10 compares the overlapping variables from the Caligiuri (1997), and Guzman and Bourke (2003) studies against those from the Black and Stephens (1989) study to clarify the problems inherent in construct operationalisation of sojourner/expatriate performance and cross-cultural adjustment. This strengthens the proposition that there is a risk of confounding of the two constructs and requires that when measuring both cross-cultural adjustment and performance the items assessing each should at least offer tolerable levels of discriminate validity.

Table 10

Overlaps between cross-cultural adjustment and performance criteria dimensions

Black's cross-cultural adjustment dimensions (Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Stephens, 1989)	Caligiuri's expatriate performance dimensions (1997)	Guzman and Bourke's international student performance dimensions (2003)	Explanation
General adjustment dimensions			
General living		Adjusting to general living conditions	Adjustment to a new culture, customs and lifestyle.
Interaction adjustment dimensions			
Interacting with host nationals in general	Establishing good relationships with host nationals (Expatriate Specific dimension)	Communicating with host nationals	Effectively communicating with host nationals in general.
Socialising with host nationals		Developing social and personal relationships with host nationals	Building social relationships with host nationals.
Speaking with host nationals	Language and cultural proficiency (Expatriate Specific dimension)		Communicating with host nationals utilising appropriate socio-linguistic skills.
Work adjustment dimensions			
Working with host nationals outside the company	Representing the org to customers and public (Contextual/Managerial dimension)		Effectively communicating with host nationals in the business environment but outside of the company environment.
Working with co-workers	Maintaining good working relationships among employees (Contextual/Managerial dimension)		Effectively communicating with host nationals within the company environment.
Supervising subordinates	Training and developing subordinates (Contextual/Managerial dimension)		Managing host national subordinates.

Thomas and Lazarova and others (Hippler, 2006) have raised concerns about the lack of a solid theoretical basis for Black and Stephen's model (1989) suggesting that both content and construct validity may be lacking (2005). Furthermore, Thomas and Lazarova were also concerned by it being a self-report instrument, thus creating other measurement biases. However, there is evidence of construct validity from subsequent studies which confirm the three factor model (Black, 1990; Black & Stephens, 1989; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Robie & Ryan, 1996 although only for two of the three factors; Selmer, 1998). The reliability coefficients on each factor (no lower than 0.74 on any factor) within these studies also suggests that the measure is able to offer internal consistency across a variety of samples, many of which have been samples of western expatriates in Chinese communities (Black & Stephens, 1989; Huang et al., 2005; Selmer, 1998, 2005). Black's model and subsequently developed measures will therefore be used within this study to measure cross-cultural adjustment. That data obtained will then be analysed to help clarify the extent to which each facet of cross-cultural adjustment aids performance and if it mediates the influence of other antecedents of performance as mentioned earlier.

Though Parker and McEvoy's study (1993) tends to focus on cross-cultural adjustment, it offered preliminary evidence that two of the three factors of cross-cultural adjustment (work and general adjustment, although the second relationship was an unexpectedly negative one) were related to performance. Parker and McEvoy measured performance with 4 items (overall performance, ability to get along with others, ability to complete assignments on time and quality of performance) showing an increased acceptance of performance as a multidimensional construct in the literature.

Kraimer, Wayne, and Jaworski (2001), however, found evidence that interaction adjustment was positively related to a factor of performance. Their study examined the influence of various types of support on adjustment and the effects of adjustment on

performance with 213 expatriate-supervisor dyads. The Black and Stephen's (1989) scale was employed to measure cross-cultural adjustment and performance was assessed by a 6-item scale developed for the study. The reliability measures for the adjustment scale were .74 for work, .73 for general, and .93 for interaction adjustment. Factor loadings on the two components of performance (task and contextual) were greater than .73 with eigenvalues of 3.44 and 1.13 respectively. Utilising structural equation modelling, a significant path estimate was found between work adjustment and task performance ($t=1.89$, $p<.05$), and between interaction adjustment and contextual performance ($t=2.80$, $p<.01$), thus offering further evidence of a link between expatriate adjustment and performance.

This SARs study expands on the multi-factor and multi-dimensional approaches to the measurement of cross-cultural adjustment and performance respectively. It is based upon the premise that each cross-cultural adjustment factor relates to performance in different ways (Black et al., 1992b). There is some evidence to suggest that general adjustment is related to turnover cognitions, interaction adjustment to contextual variables, and work adjustment to discipline and task performance measures (Harrison & Shaffer, 2005). Kraimer and Wayne (2001) proposed that work adjustment should only lead to work performance, but stress management theories suggest that there are spill-over effects of other stressors on work performance as stress depletes the energy available for work and therefore lowered work performance is anticipated from other types of adjustment stressors (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). The theoretical justification for the relationships between specific adjustment types and finer grained components of performance is still in the early stages of development. Thus, it is important to explore the relationships found in the data to assist in informing those developments rather than to delimit the hypotheses based upon minimal information.

Hypothesis 5a: The extent to which an expatriate adjusts to general living conditions will impact positively on performance outcomes : Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Hypothesis 5b: The extent to which an expatriate adjusts to interaction with host nationals will impact positively on performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Hypothesis 5c: The extent to which an expatriate adjusts to the work environment will impact positively on performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Although the evidence is scant (Thomas & Lazarova, 2005), there are some empirical studies which have suggested that cross-cultural adjustment variables may intervene (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Takeuchi, Wang, & Marinova, 2005) or mediate (Kraimer et al., 2001) the relationship between support or stressor variables, and task and contextual performance. Mol and colleagues also offered an opinion that cross-cultural adjustment may be an important correlate, or even a moderator, of expatriate performance (2005). As mentioned above there are a number of studies which give some indication as to the specific outcomes of the three types of adjustment which

might offer some directions for researchers and practitioners when focusing on the possible patterns of mediating effects of adjustment type on components of performance. The Bhaskar-Shrinivas (2005) meta-analysis of 64 expatriate studies suggested that work adjustment might be the most influential of the three types of adjustment, particularly on task performance (mean r = .30). Interaction adjustment was more highly related to contextual performance (mean r = .28), and general living adjustment was less influential but still related to both contextual (mean r = .21) and task performance (mean r = .13). The Structural Equation Model from the Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. study summarised the data and suggested that general adjustment was more strongly related to withdrawal cognitions than the other two types of adjustment, interaction adjustment was more strongly related to relationship based performance, and work adjustment more strongly related to task performance. Harrison and Shaffer's study (2005) on 171 expatriates with matching data from supervisors and spouses mirrored these findings but through a mediated model with adjustment variables as the independent variables and performance outcomes as the dependent variables. General living adjustment had its primary impact upon withdrawal cognitions rather than any performance dimension. Work adjustment had its main impact through task neglect and task avoidance to task performance. Finally, interaction adjustment chiefly impacted upon team-membership and leadership. There is less evidence of the importance of general living adjustment upon performance in the literature; neither Takeuchi and colleagues' study on 165 expatriates in one company in China, nor Harrison and Shaffer's study offered evidence of a relationship between general adjustment and performance. In addition, the meta-analytical study by Mol and others (2005) utilising 30 expatriate performance studies also indicated that work adjustment and interaction adjustment had greater effect on expatriate performance than general adjustment with the respective effects being r = .27, r = .24, and r = .14. Thus, extrapolating the findings

from these four studies to similar variables in this SARs expatriate study, it is expected that interaction adjustment will mainly impact upon the relationships that the independent variables have on communication, and team and leadership performance components; and work adjustment will be influential in the relationships with job specific task proficiency, non-job specific task performance, demonstrating effort, maintaining personal discipline, and management/administration performance.

The first set of hypotheses required to be tested is that of the assumption that work adjustment and interaction adjustment actually do act as mediators in the model. Subsequent to those tests it can be determined which types of adjustment have the greatest impact.

Hypotheses 5d-1: Work adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and job specific task proficiency.

Hypotheses 5d-2: Work adjustment will mediate the relationship between expatriate management inputs and non-job specific task proficiency.

Hypotheses 5d-3: Interaction adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and written and oral communication.

Hypotheses 5d-4: Work adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and demonstrating effort.

Hypotheses 5d-5: Work adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and maintaining personal discipline.

Hypotheses 5d-6: Interaction adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and facilitating peer and team performance.

Hypotheses 5d-7: Interaction adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and supervision/leadership.

Hypotheses 5d-8: Work adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and management/administration.

Subsequent to these tests, even if another type of adjustment also plays a mediating role, the following hypotheses propose that work adjustment will play a greater role in some relationships and interaction adjustment will play a greater role in others.

Hypotheses 5e-1: Work adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationship between expatriate management inputs and job specific task proficiency than would either interaction adjustment or general adjustment.

Hypotheses 5e-2: Work adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationship between expatriate management inputs and non-job specific task proficiency than would either interaction adjustment or general adjustment.

Hypotheses 5e-3: Interaction adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and written and oral communication than would either work adjustment or general adjustment.

Hypotheses 5e-4: Work adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and demonstrating effort than would interaction adjustment or general adjustment.

Hypotheses 5e-5: Work adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and maintaining personal discipline than would either interaction adjustment or general adjustment

Hypotheses 5e-6: Interaction adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and facilitating peer and team performance than would either work adjustment or general adjustment.

Hypotheses 5e-7: Interaction adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and supervision/leadership than would either work adjustment or general adjustment.

Hypotheses 5e-8: Work adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and management/administration than would either interaction adjustment or general adjustment.

Further exploration of the link between cross-cultural adjustment and performance may be indicated by the mixed findings from the empirical literature: (a) the negative relationships between general adjustment and job performance (Parker & McEvoy, 1993), and (b) the negative relationships found between organisational support to facilitate adjustment, and task and contextual performance (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). This study will include the concept of stages of adjustment to attempt to explain these counter-intuitive findings.

The literature offers evidence and theoretical discussion regarding adjustment being a dynamic process which may be composed of four stages (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Di Marco, 1974; Fink, 1967; Oberg, 1960): 1. the *Honeymoon* stage – the expatriate does not understand that some behaviours are inappropriate and has not yet received negative feedback; 2. *Party's over* – discovers own behaviours are inappropriate but does not have alternative repertoire of behaviours. There is maximum negative feedback; 3. *Turning point* – acquires skills and new appropriate behaviours;

4. *Healthy recovery* – the adjustment process is generally complete and the expatriate knows and performs appropriate behaviours without anxiety (Oberg, 1960). It has been mooted that the stage of adjustment may influence the expatriate's response to the environment. It may be that expatriates who are in the honeymoon stage, being unaware that their behaviours are inappropriate, may feel that they are adjusted to the environment but at the same time behave in ways counter-productive to the goals of the organisation. Di Marco (1974) found that sojourners at his second stage had an unrealistic view of reality and had not developed the skills, nor understanding, conducive to performing well in the new environment. It may be that the negative relationships found between general adjustment and performance were due to the expatriates being in stages of adjustment where they came to an understanding that their behaviours were not appropriate or they understood the requirement to make effort to learn new repertoires, and thus their work performance suffered from lack of attention during the adjustment process. Thus, rather than the degree of adjustment as measured on a continuum being the defining antecedent per se, it might be the nature of adjustment at the different stages that constitutes the variability in performance.

> *Hypothesis 5f:* The process along the four stages of adjustment will be positively related to expatriate performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

It is with this hypothesis in mind that a modified version of Di Marco's measure (1974) was to be used to ascertain the stage of adjustment achieved by each expatriate. Di Marco's measure uses descriptors of the four stages whereas other scales purporting to measure stages of adjustment in the literature do so by utilising a measure of self-

perceived adjustment (De Cieri et al., 1991) and then plot the degree of adjustment over a period of time often to test the U Curve hypothesis of adjustment (numerous empirical studies cited in Black & Mendenhall, 1991). The U Curve hypothesis states that adjustment is a process over time which is felt to be easy to begin with, crisis then sets in and the individual feels less adjusted and happy, and then finally the sojourner begins to integrate into the foreign community and feel better adjusted again(Ward, Okura, Kennedy, & Kojima, 1998).

There are two concerns with the single dimensional U Curve based measures. Firstly, stages of adjustment are not merely the difference in degree of adjustment felt from one period to another. The descriptions of stages in the literature also take into account a process of self and cultural awareness (Adler, 1975 cited in; Church, 1982) which incorporate actual socio-cultural adjustment as well as psychological adjustment. Felt adjustment can be superficial and is not the same as being adjusted. A change in self and cultural awareness over time may confound the feelings of adjustment. It may be possible that these changes in awareness actually moderate self-perceptions of adjustment. Studies that attempt to graph the degree of felt adjustment over time to depict stages of adjustment do so without taking into account this complexity inherent in the descriptions of the stages of adjustment. Therefore, the construct underpinning studies which analyse adjustment in terms of the U curve hypothesis (in accordance with the original U Curve Theory author's definition of adjustment as a process felt over time (Lysgaard, 1955 as cited in Ward et al., 1998)) is not the same as those implied by stages of adjustment. The former is more likely to be measuring psychological comfort and the latter both socio-cultural and psychological adjustment (Ward et al., 1998). De Cieri and colleagues (1991) plotted adjustment of expatriate spouses in their sample over time and attempted to map that curve against the four stages. It was found that the level of adjustment did vary over time but did not follow the hypothesised stages.

Further, in their longitudinal study of Japanese students in New Zealand, Ward and colleagues offered evidence to suggest that psychological adjustment (measured by levels of depression) and socio-cultural adjustment (measured by self-perceived difficulty experienced in social situations) did not appear to follow the same paths. Both of these studies offered initial support for the idea that levels of perceived adjustment over time and stages of adjustment are similar but different constructs in use.

Secondly, adjustment has been acknowledged to be within an individual over time, not between individuals (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Church, 1982). Therefore, in a study such as this which utilises cross-sectional data, it is not appropriate to measure stages over time utilising aggregate data from a number of individuals as each person may take a different period of time to adjust. Indeed, it has been suggested that not everyone adjusts to stressors, or that a sleeper effect may be in place whereby they react only after long exposure to the stressors (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Defrank, 2003). These differing time frames and degrees can create problems for across-individuals measures of stages of adjustment using a mean score of adjustment over time. Furthermore, being that a potential outcome of adjustment, namely performance, is the dependent variable in this research, the single dimension of self-perceived adjustment, as plotted on U Curve graphs, may not be sufficient to explain the relationship between adjustment and performance.

It is with these concerns in mind that a measure such as Di Marco's which utilises descriptors of the stages of adjustment and which removes the confounding time variable is viewed here to be more appropriate.

However, further analysis of Di Marco's (1974) measure to compare his theoretical foundations with the other discussions of stages of adjustment in the expatriate literature raise some concerns as to the applicability of Di Marco's measure to the expatriate domain. The theory behind Di Marco's four stages is based on medical

trauma observation (Fink, 1967). Analogous to the argument against the term, "culture shock", which implies a strong and "immediate reaction to initial contact with a new culture" (Aycan, 1997a, p.29), four stages of adjustment founded upon observations of reactions to trauma-type crises may not be the same as four stages in a more gradual process of cultural adjustment.

Di Marco's stages do not match those which appear repeatedly in the adjustment literature (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960; Ward et al., 1998). In fact, there was no evidence of the existence of the first stage in Di Marco's study which may be precisely for the reason that adjustment to crisis is not the same as cross-cultural adjustment. Indeed, the first stage in the cross-cultural adjustment literature is the honeymoon stage which contrasts with Di Marco's first stage of shock and inability to cope. Based upon Social Learning Theory, Black and Mendenhall (1991) suggested that, despite the inappropriate behaviours that they are likely to engage in and the negative feedback subsequently received, individuals within a new culture are more likely to look for similarities rather than differences, and are not able to recognise the negative feedback as such. It is only at the next stage that the negative feedback is recognised. At the other end of the process, the cross-cultural adjustment theories suggest that there is mastery of the environment and that the individual copes well by utilising an appropriate repertoire of behaviours. The fourth stage in Di Marco's study refers to coping in a constructive manner but does not go as far to suggest that there is mastery of the situation. It is as if the individual copes with his or her lot in life with little joy in the experience.

Although Di Marco's description of each stage may not readily apply to the experience of an expatriate adjusting to a new culture, the measurement of stages of adjustment utilising descriptions to designate an individual's place in the process can be utilised with a change in content. The content utilised in measure in this research is

borrowed from the cross-cultural adjustment literature (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Oberg, 1960).

An alternative, but related, explanation of the mixed relationships found in the literature between cross-cultural adjustment and performance may be found in Early's (1987) study. Early offered support for the idea that performance is inversely related to the perceived amount of adjustment people need to make. Perhaps, then, it is not a matter of whether adjustment has occurred per se, but rather the effort involved in adjusting to the new environment which impacts upon performance.

Hypothesis 5f: The degree of effort an expatriate perceives is necessary to adjust to the work environment is negatively related to performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Hypothesis 5h: The degree of effort an expatriate perceives is necessary to adjust to general living conditions is negatively related to performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Hypothesis 5i: The degree of effort an expatriate perceives is necessary to adjust to interacting with host nationals is negatively related to performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4),

Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

In order to ascertain how much effort was required to adjust, Black and Stephen's scale (1989) was adapted to test these hypotheses.

Psychological Contracts

The goal of this study is to consider the performance of expatriates and the organisational practices and individual differences which influence expatriates to behave in certain ways. The fulfilment or breach/violation of psychological contracts has been raised in the literature as influencing employee behaviour, and, in particular, employee contributions to the organisation (Bunderson, 2001; Fenwick, De Cieri, & Welch, 1999; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2003; Turnley & Feldman, 1999b). Consequently, this is the second area of focus within the Expatriate Performance Conceptual Framework (Figure 1).

Organisational practices determine both the content of, and the reaction to, the psychological contract as those practices are the means of communication to employees the mutual obligations inherent in the employment relationship (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994). Therefore, it is envisaged that organisational practices which affect expatriates such as selection processes, training, preparation, and support will determine the content of the psychological contract and the subsequent reaction to perceived fulfilment or breach/violation of the psychological contract.

Robinson and Morrison (1995b) have offered evidence that if employees believe that the employer has not fulfilled the terms of the psychological contract those employees are less likely to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour. Robinson

and Morrison limited their dependent variable to organisational citizenship behaviour. Others have suggested that "Organisational citizenship behaviour includes several elements of contextual performance" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p.75) and thus it is argued that it is closely related to contextual performance. Lester, Turnley, and associates (2002; 2003) looked at the influence of psychological contract fulfilment on in-role performance in addition to organisational citizenship behaviour. They confirmed Robinson and Morrison's findings and extended them with evidence that fulfilment resulted in increased organisational citizenship behaviour and in-role performance. They also found that perceived breach of the psychological contract was associated with poor performance. In another study, perceived breaches of professional role obligations of 123 medical professional in USA were found to relate to lower commitment and job performance (Bunderson, 2001). Breach in this study was measured as the gap between expectations and perception of reality, and feelings of violation were not measured. A more recent meta-analysis of 51 studies (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007) determined that breach had a significant effect upon turnover, organisational citizenship behaviour and in-role performance, and affect (which comprises violation and mistrust) was found to mediate the relationship between breach on work attitudes and performance behaviours. Thus, it would appear that an employee's reaction to psychological contract breach or violation is likely to affect different types of performance. As an intervening variable between the antecedents (support policies and procedures of the organisation) and performance, it may also mediate the relationship between those variables (Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994) as discussed in relation to Hypothesis 6d.

The literature on psychological contracts is well developed and has a relatively long history (Roehling, 1997) of evolving definitions and conceptual refinements. The classical definition of the psychological contract as developed by Schein in 1980 is as

follows: “unwritten expectations held by both employers and employees about the nature of their exchange” (cited in Guzzo et al., 1994, p. 618). It refers to issues of concern to individuals in the work environment, examples of which may be workload, dignity in the workplace, opportunity for growth, and a sense of being taken care of (Guzzo et al., 1994). Rousseau (1989) refined the definition by restricting it to the subjective view of in individual, usually, but not restricted to, an employee, as follows:

> A psychological contract is an individual’s belief in mutual obligations between that person and another party such as an employer. This belief is predicated on the perception that a promise has been made and a consideration offered in exchange for it (p. 123).

Roehling (1997) noted that the inclusion of the concepts of promise and consideration distinguishes Rousseau’s (1989) work from earlier authors who write of implied contract, mutual agreements, or expectations of mutual obligations. In the context of this study the expatriate’s promise consists primarily of the performance obligation. The content of an organisation’s promise is dependant upon the expatriate’s perception of the organisation’s obligation.

Guzzo et al. (1994) suggested that the organisation’s perspective is not relevant in Rousseau’s (1989) definition; the psychological contract is highly subjective and is to be understood from the employee’s perspective (Carbery, Garavan, O'Brien, & McDonnell, 2003; Turnley & Feldman, 1999a) rather than that of the organisation. It is what the individual perceives (Rousseau 1998; Thompson & Heron, 2005) that influences and defines the individual’s reality. Indeed, it has been argued that the organisation cannot hold a psychological contract of its own as, unlike individuals, it is unable to perceive (although agents for the employer can certainly perceive)(Rousseau, 1989). The overarching implication here is that it is the belief held by the expatriate about what the organisation has promised to offer and how the organisation lives up to

its obligations that affects the way the expatriate performs. The relevance of the organisation's perspective is a controversial area of the literature (Guest, 1998a; Guest, 1998b), but is not pertinent to this research: Whatever agents of the organisation may perceive the contract to be will not directly affect the behaviour of the expatriate. Thus, discussion of the psychological contract will be limited to the perspective of the expatriate.

The added element of the promise in Rousseau's (1989) definition (mentioned above) means that the psychological contract is more pervasive and influential in the workplace than previous definitions indicated; a broken promise often causes emotionally charged and intense reactions (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998) and erodes trust in the relationship (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). In the psychological contract literature this broken promise is referred to as violation. Psychological contract violation has been described as "the perception that the organisation has failed to fulfil one or more obligations composing one's psychological contract" (Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997, p. 230). In this study, psychological contract violation is defined as not only the perception but incorporates the emotional response to perceived psychological contract breach consistent with Wolfe Morrison and Robinson's (1997) definition and further conceptualised in other papers (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003; Turnley & Feldman, 1999a; Zhao et al., 2007). Thus, three responses are suggested here: cognitive, emotional, and behavioural (Figure 3). Psychological contract breach is the cognitive response to perceived unmet obligations, psychological contract violation is the emotional response to that breach, and variance in performance outcomes may be seen as the behavioural response to perceived violation. It is the emotional response to psychological contract breach that makes psychological contract violation such a potentially powerful and influential construct in the workplace.

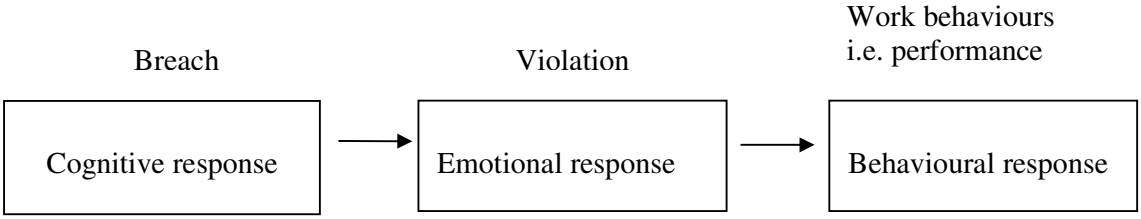

Figure 3. The flow-on effect of perceived unmet obligations

Various outcomes of psychological contract breach and violation have been discussed in the psychological contract literature. Social exchange theory has been used to explain the underlying mechanism by which breach impacts upon employee responses. Blau (1964) described a social exchange in terms of a situation in when there are unspecified obligations that are reciprocated at a future point in time. The norm of reciprocity is one in which one individual is obligated to respond favourably to another when benefited by them (Parzefall, 2008) in order to maintain a balance in the relationship (Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2004). This conceptualisation has been extended to the workplace in the psychological contract literature to express the relationship between an employer and an employee which is comprised of the belief of a reciprocal exchange agreement of promised obligations (Rousseau, 1989). An employee will adjust his contributions to the organisation and job based upon his perception of whether the organisation has met the perceived promised obligations (Restuborg, Bordia, & Tang, 2006). Social exchange theory may not be sufficient to explain the dimension of emotion inherent in psychological contract violation.

The model depicted in Figure 3 has characteristics similar to the more complex model of Affective Events Theory (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996 cited in Zhao et al., 2007) where the outcomes of emotional responses (termed affect) are taken into account along with cognitive responses inherent in the process described in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Emotional responses are said to trigger attitudinal responses such as satisfaction and commitment. In turn, these attitudinal responses relate to effectiveness such as in-role performance, turnover, and OCB as supported in a meta-analytical study by Zhao and colleagues (Zhao et al., 2007). Although the impact of the emotional response is important to the SARs study, the theoretical model (see Figure 3) does not take into account the attitudinal responses for a number of reasons. Firstly, the tested model of expatriate performance is already broad and delimitations need to be set.

Secondly, it was viewed that emotional responses would directly influence the behavioural responses as argued below. The study of emotional responses unmediated by attitudinal responses was discussed by Weiss because affect driven behaviours are likely to be different from judgement driven behaviours such as satisfaction (2005). Thirdly, although somewhat in conflict with the theoretical position of the second point, there is potential for conceptual redundancy between psychological contract violation and job satisfaction and organisational commitment as suggested by Guest (1998a).

Empirically, violation of a psychological contract (measured as negative fulfilment) has been shown to have greater impact than unmet expectations on work based outcomes such as satisfaction, intention to leave, and turnover (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Unmet expectations create dissatisfaction and disappointment but psychological contract violation produces feelings of betrayal and other intense emotions that trigger negative behavioural consequences. The behavioural consequences of breach or violation involve reduced employee contributions which include a decrease in perceived obligation to the employer, lowered citizenship behaviour, reduced commitment and satisfaction (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Zhao et al., 2007), higher turnover, reduced trust (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Zhao et al., 2007), lowered intentions to remain (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Zhao et al., 2007), reduced civic virtue behaviour (Robinson & Morrison, 1995b) and, of primary importance to this SARs research, lowered performance (Robinson, 1996; Zhao et al., 2007). One of the few studies to compare the strength of the outcomes of breach and violation offered evidence that violation is a stronger predictor of turnover intentions ($\beta = .44$ for breach and .60 for violation respectively), affective commitment ($\beta = -.45$ vs $\beta = -.53$) and job satisfaction ($\beta = -.27$ vs $\beta = -.35$) (Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004). The empirical data thus offers evidence that breach and violation (although the latter is supported with less

evidence) are related to behavioural work outcomes inclusive of performance. The theory and evidence from the Raja et al. study supports the idea that violation should have the stronger influence due to the emotive content (Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997). The following hypothesis is therefore offered.

> *Hypothesis 6a:* Violation of an expatriate's psychological contract will be negatively related to expatriate performance as defined by each of Campbell's (1990) 8 performance factors: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) discussed the effect of psychological contract fulfilment, and suggested that violation and fulfilment are not merely inverse or opposing concepts as others suggest (Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005) and, indeed, operationalise (Robinson et al., 1994; Zhao et al., 2007 in the context of breach as opposed to fulfilment). They suggested that some terms of the psychological contract may be violated, even though the general psychological contract can be perceived as fulfilled to some extent. Empirical evidence from a study by Robinson and Rousseau (1994) corroborated this view. Using data from an earlier study (Rousseau, 1990), Robinson and Rousseau found that 28.2% of employees who reported no violation on a dichotomous measure also reported obligations being only somewhat fulfilled. Twenty-two per cent of those employees who reported violation of contract also reported that the obligations were somewhat fulfilled. In addition to emphasising the importance of measuring the existence of discrepancy between the psychological contract and actual experience, these findings offer support for taking a multifaceted approach by measuring both violation of terms of the contract and overall fulfilment (Robinson,

1996; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Indeed, it has been suggested that perceived overall fulfilment of the psychological contract may mitigate the effects of violation (or breach) on the individual terms of the psychological contract on outcomes such as performance (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998).

> *Hypothesis 6b:* The relationship between psychological contract violation and expatriate performance outcomes as defined by each of Campbell's (1990) 8 performance factors (Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8)) will be moderated by overall perceived fulfilment of an expatriate's psychological contract.

Morishima (1996) has indicated that the nature of the psychological contract may influence violation and that this can be measured on a continuum from transactional to relational. A transactional psychological contract is one that is clearly specified, has a limited time frame, and explicit economic benefits. A relational psychological contract has diffuse obligations, extended time frames, and a broader implicit approach to compensation (Morishima). Such a nominal classification can be used to determine the type of contract, or a composite of terms of the contract can be used to create scales to measure the types (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). In the latter case, it can be argued that the nature of the contract is not measured on a continuum but that any one contract comprises both types to varying degrees.

Guzzo et al. (1994) drew from the psychological contract violation literature and suggested that psychological contracts may be even more influential in expatriate situations than domestic employment relationships as the employer has a greater

influence on an employee's life (Guzzo et al., 1994). During an expatriate assignment employers are generally involved in more areas of an expatriate's life than would be the case in the normal course of employment in the domestic situation. The employer becomes involved in areas such as housing, education, welfare, medical care, recreation, financial matters, and spousal employment (PriceWaterhouse Coopers, 2005). There is greater potential for violation of the psychological contract in an international assignment due to a combination of the unique situation in which expatriates find themselves (Naumann, 1993) and to the organisation having a greater influence over more areas of an employee's life than in domestic positions (Guzzo et al., 1994). This influence causes the contract to become a broad relational one rather than a transactional one (Guzzo et al.), or at least increases the relational content (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994). Guzzo and Noonan (1994) suggested that as a psychological contract becomes more relational, the more salient it becomes to the employee. Thus, there is a greater potential for an intense response should violation be perceived (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994; Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

Indeed, violation is more likely to be perceived in cross-cultural situations due to the higher risk of misunderstanding and incorrect interpretations about the terms of the contract. Regardless of whether there has been a real breach or even a real obligation, a perceived breach can be still felt (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). There may be an incongruence in the understanding of the existence, the nature, and the terms of the obligation (Robinson & Morrison, 2000) and will occur when the employee and the agent of the organisation have differing cognitive frameworks. The potential is high for incongruence to occur in cross-cultural situations when the parties are socialised to differing systems.

In addition, it is suggested here that psychological contracts are more influential in Chinese employment situations due to the nature of traditional Chinese business

relationships in which an expatriate to the SARs is likely to be involved. Lee, Tinsley, and Chen (2000) found evidence to suggest that the psychological contract in Hong Kong is significantly more relational than a Western psychological contract. Hui et al. (2004) posited that this is mainly due to "guanxi". Guanxi is a system of contacts and relationships, both internal and external to the organisation, which is the basis of business transactions and relationships. It is necessary in societies where the rule of law could not be relied upon as a method of risk reduction (Montagu-Pollock, 1991). The development and maintenance of these long term relationships of reciprocity and trust is entirely consistent with relational psychological contracts (Hui et al.).

The costs of perceived violation, and therefore betrayal of the relationship, are greater under a relational psychological contract than a transactional psychological contract (Guzzo et al., 1994; Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Zhao and colleagues (2007) proposed that breach of transactional contracts would have a greater effect on attitudinal and behaviour outcomes than breach of relational contracts. They argued that as the transactional components were the "bottom-line" obligations, any breach of these terms would elicit immediate and extreme responses whereas breach of relational terms could be more readily attributed to misunderstanding or bad luck. Counter to their propositions, the findings from their meta-analysis offered evidence that all of the individual work outcomes, including in-role performance, but with the exception of organisational commitment, were more influenced by breach of relational contracts.

In summary, it would be logical to assume that there are more opportunities for psychological contract violation to be felt and for performance to be negatively affected in the Chinese business context for three reasons: (a) An expatriate's psychological contract touches a broader area of an expatriate's life than domestic psychological contracts, (b) there are more opportunities for misunderstandings to occur, and (c) it is more relational in content due to the Chinese relational employment contract. Building

on hypothesis 6a which states that psychological contract violation is expected to negatively affect performance outcomes, and given that there is a greater risk attached to psychological contract violation in relational psychological contracts, it is anticipated that the relational content in expatriate psychological contracts will have a greater impact upon the effect of violation on performance outcomes than will transactional content.

> *Hypothesis 6c:* The relationship between psychological contract violation and performance on Campbell's eight factors (Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8)) will be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type.

Guzzo et al. (1994) proposed, in their conceptual framework, that fulfilment of the psychological contract mediates the relationships between employer practices and retention. Their hypothesis was tested utilising a multivariate causal model to assess the relationships between three types of support, psychological contract violation, and turnover intentions. Data were obtained from 63 organisations on support practices for expatriates. The support practices said to be provided by the organisation were grouped into three types: financial inducements ($\alpha = .64$), general support ($\alpha = .73$) and family oriented support ($\alpha = .64$) with an overall employer practices alpha coefficient of .84. In addition, 148 expatriates responded to the same questions. There was substantial reliability from both sources, with a correlation of .95, $p<.01$ between the averages of the sources. The expatriates were surveyed for psychological contract violation with two scales. These scales do not cover the full definition of psychological contract violation

in that one is a scale of perceived organisational support and the other is an expatriate's judgements of sufficiency. These scales do not measure an evaluation of the perceived promised mutual obligations, nor do they measure responses to possible violation of those obligations as is required of a measure of psychological contract violation as defined by Rousseau (1989). There is thus concern for construct validity of these scales in the measurement of psychological contract. Although not a sufficient measure, its use as a proxy measure of psychological contract violation sheds some interesting light on the possible relationships. The dependent variable, turnover intentions, was assessed by a 3 item measure developed for the study. Although analysis of the multivariate model using LISREL 7 did not support a mediated model, as there was no significant direct correlation between support practices and retention relevant outcomes, it did offer support for the psychological contract (as measured in the study) intervening in the relationship between support practices and intention to leave. There were significant relationships between support practices and perceived organisational support ($r = .29$, $p<.01$), and sufficiency of support ($r = .27$, $p<.01$). The greater the perceived sufficiency of support, the less the intention was to leave ($r = -.16$, $p<.05$), and the greater the perceived organisational support the less the intention was to leave ($r = -.33$, $p<.01$). This study is perhaps the only one available which attempted to place psychological contract violation as a mediating variable in a model linking expatriate support practices with work behaviour outcomes. Although not completely compelling empirical evidence, it offers some support for the position that psychological contract violation plays an intervening role between antecedents suggested in this study and performance, and opens the way for further research into the role that the psychological contract plays in work outcomes.

There is, however, another study (Lester et al., 2002) which measured breach on obligations similar to antecedents suggested in this SARs research, such as benefits,

training and career development. This study offered evidence through regression analysis that these variables related to performance. Surveying 134 supervisor-subordinate dyads, Lester and colleagues found that the greater the extent of psychological contract breach (reported by employees) ($\alpha = 0.89$), the lower the supervisor performance ratings ($\alpha = 0.93$). The correlation coefficient of the variables measured was $r = -.37$, $p<0.001$. Another more recent and Asian context study amongst 137 dyads of information technology workers and their supervisors in The Philippines (Restuborg et al., 2006) offered evidence for the negative relationship between psychological contract breach and in-role performance ($\beta = -.43$, $p < .001$ for self reports and $\beta = -.47$, $p < .001$ for supervisor reports) and civic virtue behaviour, a closely related construct to contextual performance ($\beta = -.40$, $p < .001$ for self reports and $\beta = -.39$, $p < .001$ for supervisor reports). Given the perspective taken in this study that violation is more likely to lead to detrimental behavioural outcomes than would breach, it is suggested that violation may mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and performance.

> *Hypothesis 6d:* Psychological contract violation mediates the relationship between expatriate management inputs and performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and Management/administration (8).

Measures of Psychological Contract

Measures of psychological contract include content measures, feature measures, and evaluation measures (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Content measures focus on the terms of the contract, feature measures consider the attributes of the contract, and

evaluation measures include an individual's assessment of whether the psychological contract has been fulfilled or violated. It is the first and last areas of measurement which are applicable to this study. The aim of measuring psychological contract violation is to test for the existence of any violation of the various obligations (or terms) of the psychological contract and to determine whether any violation of obligations affected overall fulfilment. These violation and fulfilment measures will then be used to determine to what extent psychological contracts mediate the relationship between expatriate management inputs/antecedents and performance of expatriates in the Special Administrative Regions of China.

Within the expatriate literature, Guzzo, Noonan, and Elron (1994) already found support for the psychological contract mediating the links between antecedents and retention. However, as mentioned earlier, in their study psychological contract was measured via the existence of a number of items of support pertinent to expatriates, and by measures of Perceived Organisational Support (POS) (whether the support was perceived to be sufficient). POS measures have been used as a proxy for measurement of psychological contract (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005) in a few studies as cited in Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998): Guzzo et al. (1994), Guzzo and Berman, 1995, Barksdale and Renn, 1997, and Barksdale and Shore, 1997. However, the content of POS measures are insufficient as measures of the psychological contract as they do not include perceived promissory obligations and whether these have been met by the delivery of organisational support as is required for the evaluation of contract fulfilment or violation.

Further support for the status of the psychological contract being related to expatriate assignment success-type outcomes, namely retention upon repatriation, is found in Lazarova and Caligiuri (2001). However, here too a proxy measure of the psychological contract was used. Whether a company support practice was offered and

to what extent that practice was deemed important by the repatriate for successful repatriation was used in combination to determine to what extent the repatriates felt the psychological contract was fulfilled by their organisations. This measure does not incorporate the aspect of promised obligations which is a crucial element of the psychological contract definition. The Lazarova and Caligiuri measure of psychological contract fulfilment measures the repatriate's belief of best practice and whether the organisation has provided that practice. It does not measure the terms and conditions of the relationship between the organisation and the repatriate, nor whether there has been a violation of any mutual obligation as perceived by the repatriate.

Rather than reformulate the measures such as Guzzo and Noonan (1994) or Lazarova and Caligiuri (2001) used to incorporate the notion of promise and the evaluation of the level of perceived organisational support relative to that promise, further search was made for a measure of psychological contract violation which has greater construct and content validity.

It appears from a search of the literature that there is no measure of psychological violation as defined by Morrison and Robinson (1997) which tests the affective response to the recognition that a breach has occurred on each of the terms of the psychological contract. There are measures of global psychological contract violation which first test for breach on terms specific to the sample context (Othman, Arshad, Hashim, & Isa, 2005) but there are none that test for violation on terms of the contract. There also seems to be some difficulty in constructing a psychometrically sound measure of psychological contract breach on terms of the psychological contract. Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) made mention of a measure on 21 terms of contract which load onto 7 factors in Robinson and Morrison's (2000) article when the article was under review in 1997. Rousseau and Tijoriwala applaud this approach to the measure of contract obligations as it "promises more stable, generalizable measures of

discrete contract terms across populations" (p. 688). However, the only measures mentioned in the final published version were a 5 item measure of global breach and a 4 item measure of global violation. Other papers referred to a Robinson and Morrison (1995a) conference paper at the Academy of Management for both a 21 item (Lester et al., 2002; Turnley et al., 2003) and 18 item (Turnley et al., 2004) measure of psychological contract breach. The history of the development of both of these promising measures is not available in published sources; perhaps suggesting that some concerns have subsequently been raised by the authors.

These measurement concerns will be revisited in the next chapter on methodology in the discussion on the choice of measures used for both breach on the terms of the contract and violation. However, these issues are raised here to highlight that research is still developing in this area and to call for additional measures of violation on the terms of the contract which are unavailable at this time.

Summary of Literature Critique

There are two main concerns with the expatriate performance literature to date. Firstly, performance or similar terms, such as success, appear to be defined ad hoc without grounding in theoretical models (Aycan, 1997a), and without reference to the interests and perspectives of the various stakeholders in the assignment. Secondly, relationships have been found between the antecedents, or inputs, into the expatriate management process, and the various definitions of performance, with very little theoretical explanation as to these linkages.

It is with these concerns in mind that Campbell's (1990) framework is suggested to provide a clear definition of performance, and to analyse and explain the linkages between the various antecedents and expatriate performance. These linkages are complex and it is hypothesised that they are mediated by various factors. Cross-cultural

adjustment and psychological contract violation have been raised here to help explain the complexity of relationships between the antecedents and performance. The aim was that the perspectives of various stakeholders was to be offered by obtaining data from expatriates and their supervisors although it was clear that obtaining ratings other than self was a formidable goal given the belief that it is almost unattainable in the expatriate research context (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005).

The cross-cultural adjustment literature has mainly focused on the predictors of cross-cultural adjustment and has not aimed to provide empirical evidence of the suggested causal relationship to performance as an outcome, although the exceptions are steadily growing in number (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Takeuchi, Wang, Marinova, & Yao, 2009). Many of the predictors of cross-cultural adjustment found are similar to those utilised in the operationalisation of performance. In addition, dimensions utilised to operationalise performance have overlapped with cross-cultural adjustment variables. This confounding of the cross-cultural adjustment and performance constructs indicates that more work needs to be done to ensure construct validity. Through awareness of the similarities of the two constructs and application of factor analysis on observed data this study aims to tease out the factors relevant to each.

Lastly, the psychological contract literature has tended not to acknowledge the dynamic nature of the definition of psychological contract over time and thus many authors failed to clarify which version they are choosing to operationalise (Roehling, 1997). The distinction between breach and violation of the psychological contract has similarly been lacking resulting in discussion on violation whilst measuring different constructs such as breach as in Robinson and Rousseau's study (1994) or POS as in Guzzo, Noonan, and Elron's study (1994). Although this SARs study adds to the already large body of research on the outcomes of psychological contract violation

rather than offer further insight into the psychological construct itself it does so based upon a clear conceptual framework (Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997). This framework raises relationships with variables which have also been shown to be related to performance (such as cultural distance and realistic job previews) indicating that psychological contract violation and performance have common determinants which need to be further investigated in relationship to each other. The framework also suggests clear definitions of breach and violation (Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997). This SARs study thus offers a more rigorous approach to explicating how psychological contracts influence performance behaviours of expatriates.

The aim of this thesis is to test the assumptions and implications of previous research that states that certain expatriate management practices will improve expatriate assignment outcomes in terms of performance. The testing of links between the identified inputs in the expatriate cycle and anticipated outcomes requires more rigour and acknowledgement of the complexity of the relationships and should include a testing of the suggested intervening variables. A recent call for the testing of these links, particularly in the criterion space, was made by Shaffer and colleagues (2006) and this research aims to answer that call. In addition, an understanding that performance is not a unitary construct and may be defined differently by each of the stakeholders is crucial to developing a broadly based model of successful expatriate assignment.

Conclusion

The review of literature throughout this chapter has indicated that although there appear to be relationships between the inputs and performance, more insight may be offered through more rigorous reference to the growing body of theory and conceptual frameworks. The literature to date has suggested that expatriate performance is multifaceted and that it is influenced by complex sets of relationships. This research program aims to contribute to the current body of knowledge by firstly offering

explanations for these complex linkages between suggested antecedents (as measured through perceptions of organisational inputs) and expatriate job performance; secondly, by applying and testing existing performance, cross-cultural adjustment and psychological contraction violation theories in the expatriate realm; thirdly, by utilising qualitative and quantitative methods to analyse a complex phenomenon; and fourthly, by extending the research to a non-American sample within a Chinese environment, a little understood combination and one which has important consequences for Australian economic prosperity.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Chapters 1 and 2 offered justification for the study of Australia expatriates in the Special Administrative Regions of China (SARs) and identified the need to clarify the definition of performance in the expatriate domain. Chapter 2 also offered support from the literature for relationships between a number of variables theorised to influence expatriate assignment outcomes in order to offer a framework of expatriate performance.

This next chapter describes the methodology used to obtain and analyse data to investigate the components of expatriate performance and the variables that may influence those performance components. This chapter aims to provide assurance that appropriate procedures were followed.

The chapter is organised around the two major studies: qualitative interviews with expatriates and their supervisors, and quantitative survey questionnaires. Within the sections relating to each study, the design, sample, sampling procedure (including ethical considerations), measures used, and methods of analysis utilised are discussed.

Design

This research is comprised of two main studies undertaken sequentially. Data were compiled from qualitative interviews with expatriates and their managers in the SARs to tease out previously unconsidered definitions of performance across cultural boundaries and the influences upon that performance. Data were also gathered through quantitative collection methods using survey instruments to test existing theoretical constructs (antecedents and performance) and a model of expatriate performance. In particular, the applicability of Campbell's (1990) model of performance to the expatriate domain is examined. Two minor studies are incorporated within this process to assist in triangulation of data and develop the final survey questionnaire: a pilot study

of the expatriate performance and effort to adjust scales, and a subject matter expert survey to allocate items in the scale to the theorised components of performance.

The mixed method approach utilising both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis falls within the generally accepted definition of mixed methodology wherein there lies a qualitative and a quantitative study. To probe further into the definition of mixed methodology, both the collection of data and the integration of the findings of both types of data in this research suggest that it is truly a mixed methodology (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007).

Purposes of Mixed Method Design

Greene et al. (1989), in their review of the literature and analysis of 57 mixed method empirical studies suggested that there are five purposes for conducting mixed method design research: triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation and expansion.

The mixed method approach has been intentionally taken in this research for four of these reasons: the first aim is to reduce problems of common method variance and other biases inherent in any one method through utilisation of triangulation of methods to obtain similar data (Creswell, 2003; Greene et al., 1989). The biases in the expatriate performance domain are particularly salient to this methodological choice (Greene et al.): where expatriate performance has been conceptualised as multi-faceted, the components of expatriate performance has customarily included expatriate specific components. This is a bias of substantive theory which has become an inquirer imposed bias, one which has not been borne out by consistent empirical evidence (note the factorial differences in Caligiuri, 1997; Caligiuri & Day, 2000). The acquisition of convergence of data is particularly relevant in this study to the clarification of components of performance and in completing the list of performance antecedents and

the perceived relative importance of these to performance outcomes. These data were obtained qualitatively in the initial interviews, and quantitatively from the piloting of the survey and the final questionnaire. As this research is a critical view of the components of expatriate performance as generally accepted in the literature, the utilisation of more than one method of data collection and analysis serves to increase the validity of the findings.

The second purpose in undertaking a mixed methodology was for complementarity (Greene et al., 1989). Although the qualitative data were collected before the quantitative data, the former was conducted to elaborate on the theoretical underpinnings of the hypotheses and serve to illustrate some of the relationships postulated. Closely, but negatively, related to complementarity is the purpose of initiation. In order to confirm the relevance of the theory to the experience of expatriates, one must be prepared for paradox and contradiction. The qualitative data were collected to test the theoretical foundations of the hypotheses posed and served its purpose well as assumptions of performance measurement and the existence of support were found not to hold true in many cases as shall be discussed.

The mixed method approach is also utilised here developmentally to inform the content of the survey questionnaire (Creswell, 2003). The data obtained from the interviews and from a piloted survey were used to inform the final version of the survey questionnaire. The developmental purpose of mixed method design is often indicated by sequential timing of different methods, as can be seen in the timing of the interview/pilot study followed by the survey questionnaire (Greene et al., 1989). The final survey questionnaire aimed to facilitate larger data sampling, the data from which was then utilised to test the integrative theoretical model (introduced in chapter 2) developed by the author based upon various existing frameworks and theories. This method is known as sequential exploratory strategy and is said to be appropriate when

exploring a phenomenon and "testing elements of an emergent theory" (Creswell, p. 215). Although this research is not primarily exploratory in nature and there is a body of extent theory, this design is appropriate here. The existing frameworks are generally deductive (Black, 1988; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Caligiuri, 1997) and reference to empirical data to contribute further to the frameworks, rather than merely confirm them, is appropriate. In addition, a sequential exploratory strategy is suited to the development of instruments (Creswell) such as the performance measurement scale of this research.

Although these four purposes might be viewed as contradictory, the broad purpose in choosing a mixed method approach was a pragmatic one; so that data could be analysed, interpreted, and discussed with the intention that "the quantitative and qualitative components [become] mutually illuminating" (Bryman, 2007, p.8)

Additional Rationales for the Qualitative Approach

The qualitative nature of semi-structured interviews lends itself to the study of the emotional aspects of an expatriate experience such as psychological contract violation (Heiman, 1995). These interviews were also designed to triangulate the antecedents the informants perceived to be important to expatriate performance to triangulate data with the questionnaire survey data. The importance of each performance component is also explored in order to be consistent with Campbell's (1990) definition and in recognition of the potential for some components not being relevant to some jobs (Campbell, 1990; Campbell, McHenry, & Wise, 1990). The interviews offer a greater understanding of what components are important from non-verbal cues such as shrugs, from emotive responses, from lack of response, and from focus of response which can be measured by the text density of a component within the interview transcript.

Purposes of the Quantitative Study

The second study which is quantitative comprises two components (pilot study and final administration of the questionnaire). The pilot study, together with findings from the qualitative first study, contributed to the development of the final questionnaire survey. This final survey includes a scale developed specifically for this research which thus requires a high level of rigour to ensure that the reliability and validity of the scale is sufficient to adequately measure the construct (Hinkin, 1995). The development process of this criterion scale is discussed in chapter 4. The decision to construct a criterion scale was not taken lightly as insufficient measurement risks inaccurate data collection (DeVellis, 2003) and false interpretations. Thus, a separate chapter is provided to explain this complex scale development process.

In this research project, priority (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003) has been given to the quantitative study. Firstly, this research began by examining the extant work in the expatriate and performance domains. A theoretical framework was then built with the aim to test the hypothesized relationships between the variables and finally, these relationships were tested. The main findings were derived from the dominant quantitative data with the less dominant qualitative study informing the questionnaire and offering depth and further understanding of the domain. This accords with a quantitative prioritisation (Creswell et al., 2003). Another relevant issue is the audience for this research: the domain is predominantly quantitative in orientation.

Integration of Qualitative and Quantitative Studies

The main argument and stance which allows justification of a mixed method approach is a pragmatist view. This perspective is epitomised in the statement that "epistemological purity does not get research done" (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p.21). This expatriate research is based upon the notion that paradigms are belief systems and practices rather than concerned with the "nature of reality and truth" (Morgan, 2007,

p.49). To take the latter epistemological view of paradigms suggests that the philosophical differences are irreconcilable and that qualitative and quantitative research are not readily integrated (Morgan, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). The first definition of a paradigm allows for a pragmatist view of the world and suggests that whatever methods are available to answer research questions should be utilised; this is best facilitated if there is an existing set of beliefs and practices to support them. The publication of first issue of the *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* in January 2007 is evidence of the growing importance of this research methodology as an influential and alternative paradigm. Mixed methodology does not compete with the existing paradigms but approves of their integration.

Nevertheless, from 20 interviews with mixed method researchers, Bryman (2007) found evidence of a lack of integration of qualitative and quantitative research. There was a tendency towards analysing and writing up the findings of each in isolation. There are various reasons mooted for this isolation of data streams. Researchers may not know how to integrate them as evidenced by a lack of exemplary mixed methods articles. There is also a mindset that they are actually discrete domains (Bryman). Indeed, there are perils in combining the two due to philosophical stances on the integration of differing paradigms. Finally, the intrinsic nature of the different methods may not lend themselves readily to integration.

The above discussion acknowledges the limitations of, and the problems inherent in, the integration of methods in the analysis and writing up of mixed method research. The lack of integrated mixed methods research output (Bryman, 2007) also makes it difficult to find an exemplar upon which to structure new work. Secondly, work that attempts to bridge the ontological divide carries with it risks related to publishing and acceptance by academic peers. This chapter will thus follow the generally prescribed formula and norm of writing up the studies separately (Creswell et

al., 2003); the qualitative study followed by the quantitative one. However, in recognition of the rationales for utilising a mixed method approach, reference will be made to the both data sets in the discussion chapter.

Qualitative Survey

The first study involved a series of twenty interviews with Australian expatriates on assignment in the SARs and supervisors of expatriates. These interviews were conducted to establish a definition of expatriate performance. The aims of study 1 were to either confirm or add to the definition of performance found in the literature, and to develop a list of influences on performance. This exploratory approach was chosen for three reasons. Firstly the psychological contract literature suggests that qualitative methods are best for capturing the emotional content of psychological contract violation (Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Secondly, qualitative methods offer insight into the 'how' and 'what' research questions (Creswell, 1998). Those explored here are "How does cultural adjustment and psychological contract violation affect performance?" and "What additional antecedents or performance factors are relevant to Australian expatriates in the SARs?" The data from these interviews should help with confirmation of the models proposed and allow exploration of the linkages between the variables. Thirdly, interviews are of importance to the study of the antecedents of performance. Although theories have been offered for the relationships and thus research solely confirmatory in nature may be justified, the aim here is to offer an exploratory element as well. Qualitative methods are best used to obtain intricate details and when the researcher is prepared to suspend judgement as an ostensible expert and to learn from participants (Creswell). This method was selected as some of the seminal theories utilised in this research did not originate from an inductive process grounded in empirical data but in conceptual work and the opinions of experts in the field (Black,

1988; Caligiuri, 1997). For instance, although Campbell's model was based upon earlier theoretical foundations and utilised a rigorous approach to the development of constructs through a study using a large sample of US Army personnel (Campbell, McHenry et al., 1990), the extension of the taxonomy to other jobs is theoretical; Caligiuri's (1997) conceptualisation of expatriate performance, and in particular the expatriate specific component, was derived from earlier theory without having referred to empirical work to develop the dimensions of expatriate performance used in her scales. Although most have been subsequently empirically verified, it is important to further test that elements of the hypothetical constructs have not been inadvertently missed or confused with other constructs. This verification would ensure content and construct validity of the measures. This is particularly important to this research as specification of the content of performance is a value judgement by those with authority in the organisation (Lester et al., 2002), especially where there may be no objective performance measure in existence (Campbell, 1990). Similarly, the content of performance as hypothesised based on theory may not be the same as the content framework held by individual raters (Borman 1983, 1987 as cited in Scullen et al. [2003)). The fact that the content of expatriate performance is yet to be empirically confirmed provides further justification for this empirical exploration. The collection of the opinions and perspective of expatriates and their supervisors as to the content of performance in their immediate context is thus an important part of this research (Scullen et al., 2003).

Samples

From late February to early July 2006, 18 expatriates and 2 supervisors of expatriates in Hong Kong and Macau were interviewed. Their views were obtained on

the components of expatriate performance. These respondents were also interviewed to determine what they deemed helped and hindered them in their work performance.

The selection of sampling technique is never one of purely free choice but is to a great extent predetermined by the conceptual framework, the research questions, the nature of the target population, the feasibility of accessing the population, ethical considerations, and the efficiency of resource utilisation (Kemper, Stringfield, & Teddlie, 2003). There are a number of sampling techniques available. Probability sampling techniques are typically identified with quantitative research (Creswell, 2003). In probability sampling techniques each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected and as such increases the generalisability (external validity) of the research findings (Tharenou, Donohue, & Cooper, 2007). Even if probability sampling techniques were used in the current study, the rationale of maximising generalisability is undermined by the restriction imposed by resources on the number able to be interviewed. A purposive technique was utilised in this current study due to the lack of a population list which precludes probability sampling. Such purposive techniques where criteria are used to select participants are more often seen in qualitative studies than quantitative studies (Kemper et al.; Miles & Huberman, 1994); indeed with a small numbers of cases random sampling risks introducing bias (Miles & Huberman). The power of purposive sampling is that researchers are able to select cases that offer data rich in content which improves the trustworthiness of the data (internal validity) (Kemper et al.). Either of these sampling methods can be used in qualitative or quantitative research but purposive sampling is quite common in mixed methods research (Kemper et al.).

The sample obtained in Hong Kong and Macau for the qualitative study used a combination of convenience sampling (Kemper et al., 2003), and snowballing techniques (typically used when a list of the population is not available (Henry, 1990)).

The population of Australian expatriates can be grouped by the organisations for which they work. The Australian Chamber of Commerce in Hong Kong was contacted for advice as to the Australian organisations active in Hong Hong and Macau and a list of names was offered to the researcher. Although, strictly speaking this is a convenience sampling technique, the organisations were purposely selected from the Australia Chamber of Commerce due to their business interests and personal ties with Australia. This together with companies listed in the monthly newsletter published by the Australian Chamber of Commerce provided the initial contact list for organisations in Hong Kong. The lack of any other cohesive organisation representing Australians in Macau at the time of data collection created some difficulties in obtaining access to interviewees. A list of organisations which hired Australians in Macau was compiled from personal communication with Australians in Macau, from the daily English press, and from web-based searches for Australian companies active in Hong Kong and Macau. The human resource departments of the organisations in both Hong Kong and Macau were each initially contacted by telephone to ascertain their interest in participating in the research. Other participants were recruited from referrals by those who had already participated in interviews and thus a snowballing technique was also utilised to increase the sample size. The latter two extensions to sampling external to the chamber constitute typical convenience sampling and snowballing techniques respectively.

Once approval was obtained from the organisation or individuals themselves, times and dates were arranged for interviews to take place. Most of the interviews in Macau took place in cafes or restaurants as this was the most convenient option available to the researcher and interviewees, particularly as many of the organisations were involved in building properties, yet to be finished. In Hong Kong the majority of interviews were conducted in office environments. Interview location has been reported

to be a significant consideration in the dynamics of the interview (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, Pentiinen, & Tahvanainen, 2004). The location may influence the length of interviews (Daniels & Cannice, 2004) or even construction of reality (Herzog, 2005). Location is, however, not always under the control of the interviewer and enabling mechanisms of convenience and comfort of the interviewee is often the primary concern (Wiklinson & Young, 2004).

In Hong Kong 11 interviews (55%) were conducted and 9 (45%) in Macau (see Table 11). The age range was 27 to 61 with a mean average age of 42. Of the 20 interviewees, 17 (85%) were male and 3 (15%) were female. There were no dependents for eight expatriates (40%) and 12 had up to three dependents (60%). Four did not have a partner (20%) and 16 had partners on assignment with them (80%). In terms of level of education 5 had higher degrees (25%), 8 had completed an undergraduate degree (40%), 5 had completed secondary school (25%), and 2 did not respond to the question (10%). Two (10%) of the interviewees supervised Australian expatriates and the remaining 18 (90%) interviewees were Australian expatriates of various ethic backgrounds: 14 (70%) identified themselves as Australian, 2 (10%) of Chinese ethnicity, 1 (5%) of Irish background, 1 (5%) as Italian Australian.

Table 11
Demographic characteristics of respondents

Variables	Number of respondents (n=20)	Percentage of respondents	Estimated Overall Population
Location of assignment			
Hong Kong	11	55	55,000 (97.9%)[a]
Macau	9	45	1,800 (3.4%)
Gender			
Male	17	85	50%[b]
Female	3	15	50%
Dependents			
No dependents	8	40	65%[b]
1 to 3 dependents	12	60	35%
Accompanied by partner			
Yes	16	80	80%[b]
No	4	20	20%
Level of education reached			
No response	2	10	
Secondary school	5	25	
Undergraduate degree	8	40	
Higher degree	5	25	
Ethnic background			
Australian	16	80	90%[b]
Chinese	2	10	
Irish	1	5	
Italian	1	5	
Australian Industry:			
Banking	3	15	
Construction	3	15	
Consulting	2	10	
Education	1	5	
Finance	5	25	
Gaming	3	15	
Hospitality	3	15	

[a]Source: Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade Hong Kong. [b]Source: Australian Association Hong Kong

The data set has limitations particularly in relation to population validity and ecological validity as the sample was limited to Australian citizens (although ethnicity was not a restrictive criterion), working in the Hong Kong and Macau settings. Therefore, it is not possible to generalise the findings beyond this population and this setting (Kemper et al., 2003). These delimitations of Australian expatriates and SARs settings do, however, significantly reduce the confounding influence of culture and context.

Instrument

The interviews were semi-structured and open-ended, organised around the content of the Expatriate Performance Framework. It was envisaged that the exploratory interviews would provide confirmation of the direction taken in the research to date and offer further validity for items in the survey questionnaire. The aim was to have the performance scale and list of antecedents to performance reflect the realities of existing expatriates in Hong Kong and Macau rather than simply reflect theory derived from other populations in other contexts. The questions were designed to identify the components of performance which were important to the expatriates and to their supervisors, and to determine what helped and what hindered the expatriate performance (see Appendix A for the list of questions). The first two open-ended questions aimed to ascertain the components of performance without forcing the theoretical framework on the discussion. Next, questions were asked based upon Campbell's (1990) 8 factors to test their validity in the SARs context. In order to elicit factors that hindered or helped performance an open-ended question was asked. The factors from the literature were then explored to test their validity in this context.

Procedure

Prior to commencing the interview, the respondents were given an outline of the purposes of the research, the way that the data would be maintained, and the efforts taken to maintain confidentiality. The explanatory statement covered the topics of informed consent, right to privacy and protection from harm (Fontana & Frey, 2003). It outlined the identity of the university and the researcher and supervisor involved; the purpose for which the data were being collected; the period and method of data storage; steps taken to ensure confidentiality; the ability of the interviewee to halt participation at any stage of the research; the aggregate form in which any data would be published, and three points of contact should there be any concerns or complaints arising from the interviews. Each participant signed a form consenting to their participation and to having the interview audio recorded (see Appendix B). The interviewees also selected the way the data could be utilised in future studies: (a) in further research studies with ethics approval, (b) only with subsequent consent by the respondent, or (c) only in the current study. A full explanatory statement, as required and approved by the sponsoring university ethics committee, was given to each participant.

The expected duration of each interview was one hour. They were typically under one hour but ranged from 35 minutes to two and a half hours. The interview commenced with advice given as to the scope of the meaning of performance so that there was a common understanding and so that the interviewees would focus on work performance behaviour rather than outcomes. Participants were then asked each of the questions in the interview schedule. The natural flow of communication was maintained in order to extract matters of salience to the respondents. As such, the order of the questions in each group of questions sometimes changed or questions deleted had the interviewee already dealt with that particular topic in conversation. Further questions were asked in addition to the schedule of questions to elucidate and expand upon

information offered. Rapport with the interviewees was built through the course of the interview by using the techniques mentioned above in order to maintain the natural flow of communication. A particularly effective method of gaining trust was to firstly explain the importance of confidentiality in academic research, how the data were to be used, the independence of the researcher from the interviewee's organisation, and to also mention the researcher's experiences as an expatriate in Macau. This last technique of the researcher suggesting that she had insider status as an expatriate proved to be most successful technique as there was an almost immediate heightened responsiveness to the questions posed in terms of openness and depth. There was however the necessity to balance the researcher's status as an insider who understood the issues with the potential concern that information offered during the interview might be divulged to others in the Australian expatriate community. It was for this reason that the researcher was careful during the interview data collection period to socially distance herself from the expatriate community and to ensure that the interviewees were aware that she had done so. The aim was to maintain observer status but as a knowledgeable observer (Siu, 1996).

The interviews were tape recorded and transcribed verbatim following each of the interviews so that the transcripts were ready and in the process of being coded during the data collection process. Thus interviews, transcriptions, and coding occurred together to bring the findings from earlier interviews into a process of ongoing analysis based upon an iterative cycle (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The process resulted in 277 pages (146,256 words) of transcript for the 20 interviews.

At the conclusion of the interviews the participants were asked a series of demographic questions (see Appendix C) and to complete a pilot study survey questionnaire. The pilot questionnaire was subsequently used to assist in developing the Expatriate Performance Scale and the Effort to Adjust Scale.

Methods of Analysis

A combination of deductive and inductive approaches was taken in the sorting and analysis of the interview texts. Both approaches have merit (Huberman & Miles, 1994). The deductive approach is generally utilised when there is good prior understanding of the domain. This approach works well when the aim of the analysis is explanatory and confirmatory. This study aims to test the composition of the existing frameworks. The inductive approach is best when the domain is unfamiliar and the aim of the analysis is exploratory and descriptive (Huberman & Miles). There was indeed an exploratory element in this research to determine if there may be some elements of expatriate performance and influences on performance which have not been identified in the literature. Thus both approaches have been taken here.

Two approaches to the coding were used to make sense of the interview data. As recommended by Dougherty and Hardy (1996), the data were sorted into themes and then the frequency of each of the themes was inspected to determine their strength. Coding is undertaken in data analysis to reduce the data into manageable portions to minimise data overload. Coding not only reduces the data by means of categorising it into easily conceptualised portions but sifts as well as sorts the data so that some variables and relationships are left out of the analysis and others that are more meaningful to the purposes of the study are left in (Huberman & Miles, 1994).

Coding and Thematic Analysis

The coding for this study commenced with a predefined category scheme (Kelle, 2004). The category scheme is the hierarchical framework developed from the literature review and depicted in the Expatriate Performance Framework discussed in chapter 2, thus taking the deductive approach described earlier. Each interview transcription was imported into and analysed utilising the computer assisted qualitative data analysis program NVivo version 7. Each of the proposed antecedent variables, the mediator

variables, and performance criterion were expanded to their hypothesised components and allocated a node (see Table 12). The text was then read line by line and portions of text that constituted "units of meaning" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.56) were then highlighted and coded against the predefined codes. Through the coding process, new codes were created as new themes emerged. Although a deductive approach was originally taken by predefining the codes in order to check the relevance of the selected variables to the population, an inductive approach was also taken to minimise the rigidity imposed by such a framework and to allow for other themes to emerge from the data (Miles & Huberman).

Table 12
Expatriate performance framework node structure for coding

Antecedent variable nodes	Intermediary variable nodes[a]	Criterion nodes
Organisational inputs	**Cross-cultural adjustment**	**Job specific task performance.**
-Selection	**-General living**	**Non-job specific task performance.**
-Preparation and training (P&T)	**-Interaction**	**Written and oral communication.**
Lack of P&T	**-Work**	**Demonstrating Effort.**
-Support		**Maintaining personal discipline.**
Affective support		**Facilitating peer & team performance.**
Lack of affective support	**Psychological contract violation**	**Supervision/leadership.**
Informational support		**Management administration.**
Lack of informational support		
Role clarity – lack of ambiguity		
Practical support		
Lack of practical support		
-*Lack of organisational support*		

(table continues)

Table 12 (continued)
Expatriate performance framework node structure for coding

Antecedent variable nodes	Intermediary variable nodes[a]	Criterion nodes
Career planning		*Other performance components*
Host language fluency		
Personal attributes		
-Career commitment		
-Career identity		
-Career planning		
-Resilience		
Previous experience		
External social support		
What's needed to perform		

Note. Nodes highlighted in bold are the original codes derived from theory. Nodes italicized are new codes induced from the data.

[a]The intermediary variable nodes were not specifically questioned in the interviews but some content emerged from the discussion

The reliability of the coding process was checked by reference to a senior academic researcher who viewed the coding of a sample piece of text to check applicability of text to the nodes. In addition, 18 months after the initial coding nine pages of text with codes removed was randomly selected (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1985) and recoded by the researcher with no reference to the initial coding to check for internal consistency (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The rate of code-recode reliability was 45% based upon the formula whereby reliability is a function of the number of

agreements (40) divided by the total number of agreements and the disagreements (88) (Goodwin & Goodwin). There was substantial agreement on the original coding whereby 40 out of a total of 56 (72%) coded passages were coded similarly upon recoding. The difference between the two was the finer level of detail upon recoding which reflected the additional time that the researcher had had with the data and the influence that prior interpretations typically have upon second viewing (Denzin, 2002).

The outcomes of the analysis of the qualitative data are detailed in chapter 3 describing how the data informs the development of the survey and in chapter 4 which presents the results of the analysis. However, the following detail is presented to introduce the method used to explicate the rationale for an additional variable being incorporated into the list of antecedents. Once all the interview data were coded, the frequency of coding to the individual nodes was noted to check the relevance of each component of expatriate performance to the sample. It was clear that the second component of performance did not hold the same content or meaning for the interviewees as the other components. It was also clear through the coding process that there were a number of emerging patterns, for example, there were some differences between mature organisations and new companies in their support mechanisms and the expectations that staff had as to the support that should be made available. It seemed that another variable needed to be added to account for the motivation to perform where there were not any expectations of organisational support, where organisational support was not forthcoming, or where the environment was difficult. The data that were coded to the new node suggested that career commitment might explain much of work motivation amongst this group of respondents.

Potential Researcher Bias

At the time of the interviews the researcher was, herself, an expatriate living in Macau for less than a year. Therefore, the subject matter was particularly pertinent to

the researcher as there were adjustments to be made living, researching, and socialising with other expatriates and locals in the new environment. The loss of a number of organisational and social support mechanisms caused by the distance from the home environment created some difficulties. The researcher perceived that her own efforts to adjust, and at times lack of adjustment, impacted upon her performance as a researcher and in her other life roles. It was impossible to totally separate the intellectual pursuit of the research from the emotional reactions to the researcher's situation. However, with this potential bias in mind, it may be that the issues raised by the interviewees and from the literature have been afforded a depth of clarity and additional perspectives that would not have been accessible without the expatriate experience. Further, due to that depth of understanding of the issues involved in adjustment to a new working environment and the opportunities that living in one of two environments offered in terms of comparison, it was possible to constantly check the theoretical assumptions against the real life emotional and physical environment in which the researcher was situated. This was a dynamic process of constantly refining concepts and the possible relationships between different variables. Thus, while the design priority in this research is quantitative in nature, the personal, intellectual, physical, and emotional journey also informed the research. Acknowledging the bias and assumptions that a researcher brings to the research in this way reflects the acceptance of both qualitative and quantitative paradigms implied within a mixed method approach.

Quantitative Survey

The final questionnaire was based upon the above confirmatory data and founded upon the construct theories and relationship models described in chapter 2. This study was reliant on data from a postal survey questionnaire delivered to Australian expatriates and their supervisors in the SARs. The questionnaire facilitates a

larger collection of data than is possible through interviews (Scullen et al., 2003) and thus provides the opportunity to test for reliability of the measures. The process towards the development of the final scale is described in detail in chapter 4. The scale development chapter describes the item generation from extant empirical and theoretical studies, pilot tests, and subject matter expert screening.

In all of the data collection phases expatriates were measured on all variables. Supervisors were queried on the performance and cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates under their supervision in order to obtain more objective measures of these variables than can be obtained through self-report data and to minimise same-rater biases.

From the qualitative data it became evident that the model as it stood might not be entirely applicable to some respondents in the Macau sample. In particular, there appeared to be little concern for psychological contract violation or for the support that was offered to expatriates by their organisations, yet they still appeared to be achieving high performance levels as perceived by the expatriates. Career commitment, or a sense of professionalism, seemed to be the motivator more pertinent to this sample. Macau may have a unique set of circumstances that means the framework and theories might not hold true for that group. Alternatively, the Macau interview respondents selected may merely have been indicative of expatriates attracted to industries in Macau at Macau's stage of development, that is, construction and gaming. Individuals with similar responses may also be found in Hong Kong but not represented in the Hong Kong sample interviewed. It should be recognised that subsequent studies might need to develop an alternative model where a country is at a lower stage of economic development. It is important to take into account the findings from the interviews and incorporate them into the study as a whole rather than to ignore what appears inconsistent with the literature and previous findings (Yin, 2003). Thus, the career

commitment construct has been included to attempt to shed some light on what might influence expatriate performance beyond the antecedents originally specified.

Survey sample

The current study involved 133 participants. This was comprised of two samples of 106 expatriate respondents (see Table 13) and 27 supervisor respondents (see Table 14). Of the expatriate group 46 were female (43%) and 60 were male (57%). The youngest were in the age group between 20 and 24 (3%) and 1% were over 65 (1%). The majority was in the 35 and 39 (22%) age group. Most were at the senior manager (27%) or executive level (21%). Although only Australians were asked to respond and advise their ethnicity/family background, many still indicated under the response category, others, that they were Australian rather than identify with any other ethnicity (14%). The clear majority were of English, Irish or Scottish decent (59%). There were 9% from European countries and 13% from Asia. The sample included a wide range of organisational size: 31% came from organisations with under 100 employees and 37% came from organisations with over 1,000 employees. The majority of expatriates had no dependents with them on assignment (63%); 37% of these did not have any dependents but interestingly over 49% of those with dependents did not have their dependents with them on assignment. More expatriates had spouses on assignment with them than dependents (59%). Of those who had spouses, the proportion of expatriates living away from their spouses was lower than those living away from their dependents (24% and 49% respectively).

The local Chinese language in use in both Hong Kong and Macau is Cantonese, which is reflected in the expatriate numbers who have some level of linguistic ability in that language as opposed to Mandarin (i.e., 79% have at least some Cantonese, whilst 49% said they had at least some Mandarin). Also, 81 expatriates were based in Hong Kong (76%) and 25 were based in Macau (24%). Although this study focuses on

Australian expatriates only 24% had their head office located in Australia and the majority had head offices based in Hong Kong (42%). This offers evidence that the traditional expatriate assignment may be changing. This is also supported by the number of locally employed expatriates which stands at 58% (29% with local organisations).

Table 13

Description of the sample of expatriate respondents (N=106)

Expatriate Characteristic	Frequency	%	Expatriate Characteristic	Frequency	%
Age			Gender		
20-24	3	2.8	Female	46	43.4
25-29	9	8.5	Male	60	56.6
30-34	19	17.9			
35-39	23	21.7	Partner on assignment		
40-44	16	15.1	Yes	62	58.5
45-49	14	13.2	No	20	18.9
50-54	16	15.1	No partner	24	22.6
55-59	5	4.7			
65 or over	1	.9	Dependent on assignment		
			Yes	42	39.6
Position in organisation			No	39	36.8
non-supervisor/non manager	15	14.2	No dependent	25	23.6
supervisor/leading hand/foreman	2	1.9			
Lower level manager	9	8.5	Cantonese fluency		
middle manager	14	13.2	None	22	20.8
Senior manager	29	27.4	I can greet people	30	28.3
executive	22	20.8	I can go shopping or take a taxi	44	41.5
general manager	9	8.5	I can socialise	7	6.6
CEO/president	6	5.7	I can conduct business	3	2.8

(table continues)

Table 13 (continued)
Description of the sample of expatriate respondents (N=106)

Expatriate Characteristic	Frequency	%	Expatriate Characteristic	Frequency	%
Ethnicity			Mandarin Fluency		
English	45	42.5	None	54	50.9
Irish	12	11.3	I can greet people	31	29.2
Italian	6	5.7	I can go shopping or take a taxi	12	11.3
German	3	2.8	I can socialise	7	6.6
Chinese	9	8.5	I can conduct business	2	1.9
Scottish	5	4.7			
Australian	15	14.2	Country of assignment		
Other Asian	5	4.7	Hong Kong	81	76.4
Other	6	5.7	Macau	25	23.6
Number of employees in Hong Kong or Macau			Country of head office		
Less than 100	33	31.1	Australia	25	23.6
101-200	7	6.6	Hong Kong	44	41.5
201-500	12	11.3	Macau	9	8.5
501-1000	15	14.2	UK	8	7.5
1001-2000	6	5.7	USA	9	8.5
2001-4000	13	12.3	Other	11	10.4
4001-8000	11	10.4			
More than 8,000	9	8.5	Assignment type		
			Australian org and posted on assignment	24	22.6
			Overseas org and posted on assignment	21	19.8
			Locally employed with local org	31	29.2
			Locally employed with multi-national org	26	24.5
			Contractor or self-employed	4	3.8

In terms of the supervisors, 13 were female (50%). There were 4% in the 25 to 29 year age group, 4% in the 55 to 59 age group, with the majority between 35 and 39 years of age (26%). Most were at the senior manager (22%) or general manager level (19%). By far the largest ethnic group was English (44%). Supervisors also had more fluency in Cantonese than in Mandarin (i.e., 74% spoke some Cantonese but only 56% spoke some Mandarin). Although fewer supervisors than expatriates had some level of Cantonese fluency (74% for supervisors, 79% for expatriates) a much greater number had higher functioning linguistic skills whereby 20% of supervisors could at least socialise in Cantonese but only 9% of expatriates could do the same. This is most likely to be a function of a higher proportion of Chinese amongst the supervisors (i.e., 19% amongst supervivsors compared with 9% amongst expatriates).

Table 14

Description of the sample of supervisor respondents (N=27)

Supervisor Characteristic	Frequency	valid %	Supervisor Characteristic	Frequency	Valid %
Age[a]			Gender[a]		
20-24	0		Female	13	50
25-29	1	3.8	Male	13	50
30-34	6	23.1			
35-39	7	26.9	Ethnicity[a]		
40-44	4	15.4	English	12	46.2
45-49	3	11.5	Irish	1	3.8
50-54	4	15.4	German	1	3.8
55-59	1	3.8	Chinese	5	19.2
65 or over	0		Other	3	11.5
			New Zealander	2	7.7
			Other Asian	2	7.7

(table continues)

Table 14 (continued)

Description of the sample of supervisor respondents (N=27)

Supervisor Characteristic	Frequency	valid %	Supervisor Characteristic	Frequency	Valid %
Cantonese Fluency[1]			Position in organisation[b]		
None	7	26.9	lower level manager	2	8.0
I can greet people	9	34.6	middle manager	5	20.0
I can go shopping or take a taxi	5	19.2	senior manager	6	24.0
I can socialise	3	11.5	Executive	4	16.0
I can conduct business	2	7.7	general manager	5	20.0
			CEO/president	3	12.0
Mandarin fluency[1]					
None	12	46.2			
I can greet people	8	30.8			
I can go shopping or take a taxi	3	11.5			
I can socialise	2	7.7			
I can conduct business	1	3.8			

Note. [a] one data point missing. [b] two data points missing.

A sample size of a minimum of 98 was chosen for analysis on the expatriate data based upon the effect size expected from the relationship between the antecedent variable, cross-cultural adjustment, and the outcome variable, performance. This step in making judgements regarding appropriate sample size based on power analysis is one advocated by Cohen in the planning stages of research and data gathering to ensure that research progresses with “a credible and viable set of specifications” (Cohen, 1990,

p.1310). For practical and statistical reasons (to which could be added ethical reasons), the aim should be to measure the smallest number of cases that will reveal a relationship. Indeed, too large a sample size has similar implications to a sample that is too small: with a large sample size almost any correlation becomes significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). To determine the appropriate minimum sample size, sample size analysis was run on cross-cultural adjustment as the antecedent variable. Cross-cultural adjustment was chosen as this was the variable in the current study which is most discussed in the literature in relation to expatriate performance and offers an adequate number of studies to view when running the sample size analysis. In this way, the rationale for the sample size is not reliant on correlations in only one or two studies. The strength of the correlations between cross-cultural adjustment and performance in 7 studies with 13 relationships was analysed based upon Maxwell's (2000) discussion on the minimum sample size required for regression analysis. As the current SARs study regressed 17 variables on performance the following formula was run through a sample size analysis tool (Cooper, 2007) on the *r* values for each of the 13 relationships.

The formula utilised in the analysis was

$$N = \frac{7.85(1 - \mathrm{P}^2 YX_j \cdot X_{(-j)})}{\mathrm{P}^2 YX_j \cdot X_{(-j)}} + p - 1$$

where N is the sample size, $P^2_{YX_j \cdot X_{(-j)}}$ is the squared population partial correlation coefficient for variable *j,* $X_{(-j)}$ is all the other predictor variables and *p* represents the number of predictor variables (Maxwell, 2000). The calculations conducted here were based upon the simple correlation coefficients reported in the studies rather than the partial correlations as indicated in the formula. Utilising the correlation coefficients is not a concern as it builds a wider margin of error into the estimates. This is the case because Cohen's rules of thumb for effect sizes (small, medium and large) indicates that the partial correlation coefficient should be between

2% and 40% smaller in numerical terms than the correlation coefficient. Should a larger coefficient figure be input into the formula, the estimated sample size would be smaller, thereby offering justification for the conservative use of the correlation coefficients available from the studies listed in Table 15.

The formula allowed for 17 variables to be regressed in order to determine the sample size required for .80 power at an alpha level of .05. The average of the *r* values (see Table 15) for each of the 7 studies (13 relationships) was determined first ($r = .31$). This averaged correlation coefficient was then input into the formula to determine the final sample size required. The sample size required using this determination was 88.

Table 15

Strength of relationships to performance - determining sample size

Studies:	Correlated variables: Independent variable	Correlated variables: Dependent variable	r =	p <
Caligiuri 1997	Cross-cultural adjustment	desire to terminate	-.33	0.01
Caligiuri 1997	Cross-cultural adjustment	self-rated performance	.37	0.01
Parker & McEvoy 1993	Work adjustment	Performance	.23	0.01
Hechanova et al. 2003	adjustment	job satisfaction -> strain ->org commit -> performance	.59	Metastudy
Nicholson & Imaizumi 1993	Work adjustment	self-reported performance	.49	0.01
Kraimer et al. 2001	Work adjustment	Task performance	.19	0.01
Kraimer et al. 2001	Interactional adjustment	contextual performance	.24	0.01
Shaffer et al. 2003	Interactional adjustment	contextual performance	.35	0.01
Shaffer et al. 2003	Interactional adjustment	Task performance	.26	0.01
Shaffer et al. 2003	Work adjustment	contextual performance	.30	0.01
Shaffer et al. 2003	Work adjustment	Task performance	.40	0.01
Harrison & Shaffer 2005	Work adjustment	Overall performance	.31	0.01
Harrison & Shaffer 2005	Cultural adjustment	Overall performance	.23	0.05

Measures and Instrument Scoring

Two research questionnaires were constructed to obtain demographic and biographic data, and to measure the variables proposed to be antecedent to expatriate performance and to measure expatriate job performance. The first part of the questionnaires was constructed in order to obtain biographic, demographic, and work history information on each participant. The questions assessed a range of relevant variables such as gender, age range categories, highest level of education, salary, existence of partners and dependents on assignment, hierarchical level in the organisation, position in the organisation, Cantonese and Mandarin language proficiency, size of the assigned/employing organisation, nationality of the organisation's head office, and number of people reporting to the expatriate. The type of assignment was represented by a dummy coded variable indicating whether the expatriate was employed by an Australian organisation and posted on current assignment, employed by an overseas organisation and posted on current assignment, employed locally with a local organisation, employed locally with a multinational organisation, employed as a contractor, with a final option to select and define other types of positions. Previous overseas experience was measured by the number of expatriate positions held previously and the length of time in months and years that the expatriate had spent overseas during the expatriate's lifetime. Ethnic background was measured using the Australia Bureau of Statistics measure utilised in the 2006 Census. The variables assessed which had direct relevance to the hypotheses were organisational selection; training and support mechanisms; career relevance of the overseas position; cross-cultural adjustment and effort expended in adjusting; stage of adjustment; perceived cultural distance; psychological contract breach; violation and fulfilment; career commitment; job performance; and the importance of the job performance

criteria to the organisational goals (the expatriate questionnaire is available in Appendix D). The supervisor questionnaire asked for biographic and demographic information of the supervisor in terms of gender, age, experience in the organisation and with expatriates, country where based, ethnic background, foreign language proficiency, and education. The supervisor was asked to rate the expatriate's cross-cultural adjustment, stage of adjustment, and performance. The final question assessed the importance of those performance criteria (the supervisor questionnaire is available in Appendix E).

The following section describes the measures chosen to assess the antecedent variables in this study. The performance scale is discussed in chapter 4 in more detail, as this scale was developed specifically for this study and thus requires further justification for its use along with evidence of its reliability and validity.

Selection Considerations

The selection considerations scale used 12 items developed by Fish and Wood (1996) used to measure the expatriate selection practices in place in the expatriate's organisation on a 5-point Likert scale. Fish and Wood utilised the scale as part of a study exploring expatriate staffing practices in Australian business enterprises operating in East Asia. These items were derived from theoretical work of Black, Gregersen, and Mendenhall (1992a) and analysis of information from 12 interviews with Australian international business executives, consultants, and managers (Fish & Wood, 1996). The scale was pilot tested by Fish and Wood and then administered to human resource planners, expatriates, and repatriates in Australian businesses in East Asia with 122 respondents, achieving a 56.5% response rate with internal consistency of $\alpha = .82$.

This scale was augmented with two additional items. The items were added to this scale due to the prevalence of the topics in the expatriate literature and the frequency that they were raised in the interviews with expatriates and supervisors in the

first study. The items asked whether assessment of foreign language ability (Black et al., 1992a; Hechanova et al., 2003; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Shaffer et al., 1999; Takeuchi, Wang et al., 2005) and family needs (Black, 1988; De Cieri et al., 1991; Hechanova et al., 2003; Parker & McEvoy, 1993) were part of the selection criteria.

The total score on the scale measuring the existence of selection considerations was obtained by reversing the scores and then calculating the mean of the numerical responses across the 14 items. Fish's originally summed the scores. By summing, the maximum score achievable would be 70 (14 x 5) at which point it would suggest that the organisation did not undertake a rigorous and detailed selection procedure in the hiring of expatriates. There are a number of reasons for the calculation utilised in this research differing from Fish's summing of the scores to obtain the total scale. Firstly and counter-intuitively, in Fish's anchoring and scoring a low score indicates a high incidence of the selection practice. The sum does not offer any additional information to that of the mean. Therefore, there is no reason to single out these scales for summing treatment in this research. Further, the sum and the mean are merely equivalent linear transformations; therefore, unless the spread of numbers offered by the sum more readily conveys the meaning behind the data than does the mean there is no reason to calculate the sum. It is also much easier to interpret a scale where a higher number indicates the existence of the construct (DeVellis, 2003).

The reliability statistics on the scales reported in this chapter using the expatriate performance data were run on the final data after checking the assumptions, and replacing missing values. The justifications for and descriptions of the techniques and procedures utilised to test the assumptions and manage any violation are described in detail in the preliminary analysis section of chapter 5.

An alpha coefficient of .84 indicated that the 14 item scale had a robust level of internal consistency. The alpha coefficient on the original 12-item scale was also .84, suggesting that the additional items do not contribute much to the internal consistency of the scale. However, they do extend the content of the scale to include language and family criteria in the selection process. If item 13 (existing practices in the organisation involve an assessment of a person's need to speak the host language) were to be deleted the alpha coefficient would improve to .85. Item 13 had the lowest corrected item-total correlation at .18: the other items ranged from .24 to .66 on this measure. This is another indication that this item did not contribute much in the way of robustness to the scale. Thus, the 12 item scale was chosen for this analysis.

Selection Processes and Policies

A 5-point Likert scale, one item measure was adapted from a dichotomous measure developed for interviews by De Cieri, Dowling, and Taylor (1991) and earlier used in interview questions by Dowling and Welch (1988) to measure the existence of selection processes and policies. The original dichotomous measure was modified to an ordinal scale to increase its variability and thus its utility in relation to the correlations with other measures.

Training and development

From a scale developed by Fish and Wood (1996), eight items were adapted to measure the expatriate training practices in place in the expatriate's organisation using a 5-point Likert scale. Fish and Wood developed five items for their scale ($\alpha = .85$) as part of their study which examined expatriate staffing practices. In a conversation with the first author of the study, Alan Fish, he suggested that two items (items 2 and 4) be split as they were double barrelled (personal communication, August 23, 2006): item 2, systematic pre-departure training to meet the business and cultural demands of operating in a cross-cultural work environment, and item 4, training and development

during an off-shore appointment that is relevant to current and future career needs. Due to the prevalence of language as a topic in the literature, one item relating to language training was added to the Selection Considerations scale. The total score on the scale was the mean score across the 8 items. The argument made above for the mean score in preference to the sum also applies to this scale as does the reversing of the scale anchors so that a higher score indicates existence of the selection practices in the organisation. A Cronbach's alpha of .87 was achieved in the current study indicating a high level of internal consistency.

Training Rigor

In order to assess the level of rigour of cross-cultural training that an expatriate had received, Tung's (1982) six types of training programs presented in order of rigor was used with each type dummy coded. Each respondent chose one category which best described the training received. In addition to the six types a choice indicating that no training had been received was added to the original measure.

Practical Support

A list of 11 types of practical support was used to determine the extent to which these were offered by respondents' organisations. This list was derived from the support received by 72 Australian expatriates on assignment in South East Asia, who responded to a survey by Anderson (1998) and follows the format of the scales measuring selection considerations and training and development (Fish & Wood, 1996). The total score was the mean of the scores of the 11 items and the scale anchors were reversed so that higher numbers indicate the existence, rather than the absence, of practical support. The Cronbach's alpha obtained in the current study was at a robust level of .85

Informative Support

The extent of informative support received was measured using Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman's (1970) role clarity/ambiguity measure. This is comprised of six items

scored on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = *very false* and 7 = *very true*. This measure has been widely used; Rizzo et al's 1970 paper has been cited 1,030 times in the Web of Science Social Sciences Citation Index of 2006. In the original study, the internal consistency was a moderate alpha coefficient of .78 at time one and .81 at time two. It has also been utilised in the expatriate literature, in Naumann (1993) an coefficient alpha of .83 was obtained in a study on expatriate turnover intentions with 152 expatriates from US multinational organisations in Asian cities; in Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley's study (1999) with a coefficient alpha of .89 indicating a high level of internal consistency obtained with a sample of 452 international assignees of various nationalities from US multinational organisations; and in Black's (1988) study of 77 Americans working in Japan with an adequate level of reliability at .76. In the current study the Cronbach's alpha obtained was .89. The total score for this scale was achieved by calculating the mean of the scores of the items.

Affective Support (mentoring)

Dreher and Ash's (1990) scale measuring psychosocial and career mentoring was utilised as a proxy measure of affective support. This scale consists of 18 items measuring the existence of various attributes of mentoring relationships scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *to a very large extent*. This scale was based upon the conceptualisation of a mentoring relationship as a broad one where many different people offer various types of support, rather than limit the concept of a mentor to a formally appointed one (Kram, 1985). Dreher and Ash's study examined the relationships between mentoring and four career outcomes with a sample of 320 university graduates in the workforce. In terms of internal consistency Dreher and Ash reported a high alpha coefficient of .95. Metz and Tharenou (2001) also reported a robust alpha coefficient of .91 for this scale with a sample of 848 female managers in the banking industry. In this current study the alpha coefficient reached .97. The total

mentoring score was constructed by calculating the mean of the 18 items for each respondent.

Relevance of Career Plans

The Career Plans scale measures the extent to which expatriates see a logical connection between the expatriate position and their overall career plans. The scale was designed by Feldman and Thomas (1992) for their study examining the impact of career management on an expatriate assignment with 118 expatriates working in four countries. The scale was found to be internally consistent with an alpha coefficient of .93 obtained in that study and .90 in this current expatriate study. The total score was calculated by summing the scores of each of the item responses.

Cross-Cultural Adjustment

There are some criticisms that have been aimed at Black's 3 factor Cross-Cultural Adjustment Scale (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989) which focus on the lack of exploratory research and inadequate sampling of the domain in its initial development phase (Hippler, 2006). However, it has been utilised by a large number of studies since the initial development with the subsequent empirical support which was certainly lacking at the outset. Whether by luck of design, sound theoretical basis of the original content, or due to the lack of alternative measures, the scale has survived and its use flourishes in the literature to this day (Black, 1990; Eschbach et al., 2001; Huang et al., 2005; Kraimer et al., 2001; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Selmer, 1998, 2002, 2005; Shaffer et al., 1999; Shaffer et al., 2006; Takeuchi et al., 2007). Part of the scale's attractiveness lies in the ability of researchers to integrate and directly compare findings across studies due to its wide utilisation (Deller, 1997). The utilisation of the scale has certainly advanced knowledge in the field of expatriate adjustment, been highly influential, and introduced some rigour which was sorely needed in the research at the time of its development (Hippler, 2006).

The three-dimensional instrument developed by Black and colleagues (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989) was used in the current research to assess cross-cultural adjustment. There were seven items to measure adjustment to general living conditions, four items to measure adjustment to interaction, and three items to measure adjustment to the work environment. Respondents indicated how well they had adjusted using a 7-point Likert scale; 1 = *not at all adjusted* to 7 = *very well adjusted*. The sub-scales were found to be quite high in terms of internal consistencies in the Black and Stephens study (Black & Stephens, 1989) with Cronbach alphas of .82 for general living adjustment, .89 for interaction adjustment, and .91 for work adjustment. Estimated reliabilities in Shaffer and colleagues' study (2006) for the three respective subscales were .89, .83, and .77. In this current study the subscales obtained alpha coefficients of .88 for general living adjustment, .90 for interaction adjustment, and .90 for work adjustment indicating robust to high levels of homogeneity.

Stages of Adjustment

Rather than rely on the mapping of cross-cultural adjustment over time as suggested in other studies (De Cieri et al., 1991) to depict stages of adjustment, descriptions were used to ascertain an individual's position in the process towards adjustment. Amendments were made to the content of Di Marco's measure of adjustment (1974) due to his content having been based upon the theory of stages of trauma (Fink, 1967) and not conforming to descriptions of a cross-cultural adjustment as seen in the expatriate literature (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Oberg, 1960). Thus, the descriptive content was from Black and Mendenhall (1991) and Oberg (1960) and the format of the scale followed Di Marco (1974) where the respondents were to indicate which of the four descriptions best expressed their perceived reaction to the assignment in the last month. This scale was thus conceived as a Thurstone scale whereby each stage proceeds from the next along the theoretical process of adjustment.

Effort to Adjust

This scale was adapted from the Black and Stephen's (1989) measure of cross-cultural adjustment described above. This scale was utilised to measure the amount of effort which the expatriate perceived was necessary to achieve their existing level of adjustment on the 3 sub-scales: general living adjustment, interaction adjustment, and work adjustment. In order to test the reliability of the scale it was piloted with 31 expatriates in Hong Kong and Macau as part of the pilot study used to develop the performance scale. The full details of the pilot study are described in the chapter 4 which discusses the development of the performance scale. Estimate reliabilities obtained on the Effort to Adjust Scale with a sample of 31 expatriates were .81 for the total scale, .59 for effort to adjust to general living (with the one cost of living item deleted this increases to alpha = .68), .84 for effort to adjust to interacting with host nationals, and .87 for effort to adjust to work indicating generally acceptable levels for a new scale. The total scale scores were means of each of the sub-scales. With the final sample of 106 expatriates the reliability estimates obtained were .87 for effort to adjust to general living (on the full data the deletion of the cost of living item did not achieve a higher coefficient), .94 for effort to adjust to interacting with host nationals, and .87 for effort to adjust to work. The sub-scales were therefore found to be high in terms of internal consistency.

Nature of the Psychological Contract and Breach

To measure the nature of psychological contract (relational or transactional) and breach on the terms of the contract, two scales developed by Robinson, Kraatz, and Rousseau (1994) have been utilised as no measure for psychological contract violation on individual terms of the contract was available. The first scale measured the extent to which the employer was obligated to provide each of seven terms of contract on a 5-point Likert scale. The original list of terms was developed by Rousseau (1990) through

interviews with personnel and human resource managers in 13 engineering, accounting, and manufacturing firms. The interviewees were asked the types of commitment and promises sought by recruits during a selection process and the commitments and promises made to new employees. This list was developed from the perspective of the employer but was utilised to measure the psychological contract from the perspective of the employee as well as the employer in Rousseau and colleagues' work (Robinson et al., 1994; Rousseau, 1990). To allow for any differences between the employer and employee perspective, Rousseau (1990) included an open-ended question to elicit any other terms of the contract not included in the originally developed list. The responses to the open-ended question regarding the terms of the contract were similar in content to the items developed. This similarity goes some way to allay any fears of different perspectives drawing out different terms of the psychological contract. However, Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) raised the issue that terms of contract are not static, changing over time and context, with the implication that researcher-generated categories are not always generalisable. With the different referent perspectives in the development of the list of items (Rousseau, 1990), together with the dynamic nature of psychological contracts in mind (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998), an additional item was added to the scale in the current study to offer respondents the opportunity to suggest other terms of the contract which might have been breached. Of the 23 responses to this additional item, the terms that were most highly breached related to training and adjustment to the new environment and could therefore be covered by the existing item relating to training. The other main area of concern was specific to the expatriate context such as housing allowance, education for children, and other benefits however, in general, these were not terms that were deemed to be highly breeched (an average response to 2 on the Likert scale). As there were no highly breeched terms of contract that were consistently raised and differed significantly from the existing content of the

scale, the original scale content was deemed to be sufficient. A test-retest reliability had been conducted by the developing authors by administering the measure to 79 MBA students working full-time. Reliabilities for each of the items ranged from .74 to .91 (Robinson et al., 1994).

Utilising these scales, the nature of the psychological contract was determined by the average score on the items. Robinson, Kratz, and Rousseau (1994) considered items 1, 2, and 3 to be transactional and items 4 to 7 to be relational. Whichever average score is higher denotes the overall nature of the contract. The seven item scale obtained a moderate alpha coefficient of .79 in this current expatriate study. The four item relational terms sub-scale obtained a coefficient alpha of .78 and the transactional terms obtained a moderately low, but acceptable, coefficient alpha of .63.

The second scale then measured, on a 5-point Likert scale, the degree to which the obligations had been fulfilled from *very well fulfilled* (1) to *very poorly fulfilled* (5). This indicates fulfilment through to breach. The existence of breach on the terms of the contract is determined by a total score which is the average of the scores on the 7 items (or 8 when a response on that item was available). The seven item scale on this measure obtained a moderate level of internal consistency with an alpha coefficient of .82. Fulfilment on the relational terms of the contract had an acceptable coefficient alpha of .73 and on the transactional terms an alpha coefficient of .80 was obtained.

Psychological Contract Violation

Psychological Contract violation was measured by using a four-item, 5-point Likert scale developed by Robinson and Morrison (2000). It taps the emotional response to the cognition that terms of the psychological contract have been breached. This is a global measure of felt violation. With regard to reliability, the scale is quite homogenous as an alpha coefficient of .92 was obtained in Robinson and Morrison's study with 147 employees in USA. The alpha coefficient for the four item psychological

contract violation measure was .97 in the current study which shows a very high level of internal consistency.

Overall Psychological Fulfilment

Robinson and Rousseau's scale was used to measure overall psychological fulfilment (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). It is a one item scale which questions how well the expatriate feels that the organisation has fulfilled the promised obligations overall on a 5-point scale from 1 = *very poorly fulfilled* to 5 = *very well fulfilled*. The test-retest reliability was r = .78 for the scale in Robinson and Rousseau's study and .91 when it was used in Robinson, Kratz, and Rousseau's study (1994) offering good levels of reliability.

Control Variable – Perceived Cultural Similarity

The scale developed by Torbiörn (1982) used eight items to measure perceived cultural similarity on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 = *not at all similar* to 5 = *very similar*. The coefficient alpha in a number of studies ranged from .64 to .82 (Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black & Stephens, 1989; Kraimer, 1999; Shaffer et al., 1999; Takeuchi et al., 2007; Torbiörn, 1997). In this study the alpha reliability was a moderate .81. The total score is a sum of the eight item scores as found in Blau (1988).

Convergent Validity Test Variable - Managerial Advancement

Managerial advancement is captured by a linear composite scale which combines standardised scores for the level in the organisation, salary, and number of subordinates (Donohue & Stevenson, 2006). This scale was developed by Tharenou and colleagues (N=2,025) from nine items which after factor analysis revealed three distinct factors, advancement (alpha = .76), promotion and chance of promotion (Tharenou, Latimer, & Conroy, 1994). This linear composite has been used extensively in the organisational behaviour literature as a measure of career progression or managerial/individual advancement (Boudreau, et al., 2001; Pergamit & Veum, 1999; as

cited in Donohue & Stevenson, 2006). This construct is included in the study to test for convergent validity with the newly developed performance measure. This Managerial Advancement Scale was selected as evidence suggests that it correlates well with managerial promotion (Tharenou et al., 1994) and promotion is one outcome of job performance.

The intercorrelations between the variables of this composite scale in the current study were significant at the 0.01 level, they ranged between .28 (level in organisation and number of people reporting) and .45 (level in organisation and annual income). However, in terms of internal consistency the alpha coefficient obtained was only .54 and .67 on standardised items and thus the scale was deemed to have insufficient reliability against which to test for convergent validity with the performance components. The low level of reliability may have been due to the heterogeneity of the sample across companies and industries where income levels can diverge for the same hierarchical level and numbers of reports will also change due to industry type.

Career Commitment

Blau's (1985) original 8-item Career Commitment Scale was used to measure the extent to which expatriates were committed to their career. This variable was included in the research subsequent to the interviews being conducted. This was done in an attempt to explain the findings which were contrary to the literature and which suggested that some expatriates did not appear to be discouraged by the lack of organisational support. Yin (2003) entreated researchers to reconsider theoretical propositions should evidence arise that conflicts with original positions or adds insight. Career commitment has thus been added to the quantitative survey in respect to that advice.

In Blau's studies (1985, 1988) on three different samples (199 nurses, 137 newspaper company supervisors and 106 field office personnel in an insurance

company) evidence was presented from factor analysis for discriminant validity which distinguished between career commitment, job involvement, and organisational commitment. Acceptable internal consistency was achieved with alpha coefficients of .67, .83 and .84 for each of the above samples, respectively. Blau subsequently amended the scale to seven items (Blau, 1988) which has since been utilised in a number of studies (Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1994; Aryee & Tan, 1992; Bedeian, Kemery, & Pizzolatto, 1994; Blau, 1989; Blau, Paul, & St John, 1993; Chang, 1999). Chang (1999), in citing Morrow (1993), stated that Blau's scale has been regarded as the cleanest one available. Carson and Bedeian (1994), however, raised concerns of construct contamination and content validity of the Blau scale in their reporting of the development of an alternative scale of career commitment. Paradoxically, in the same year Bedeian reported his use of the Blau scale in a separate study (Bedeian et al., 1994). The Blau scale has been tested on a number of samples of differing levels of professionals to ensure generalisability, and against other similar constructs to ensure reliable operationalisation (Blau, 1985, 1988, 1989; Blau et al., 1993). The Cronbach's alpha attained with the sample in this current study using the eight item scale was .85.

Control Variables

Control variables are variables that are not included in the hypotheses to be tested and are therefore not the main variables of interest in the research. They are often called nuisance variables for this reason. Control variables may affect a portion of the respondents or vary among the respondents (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006) and can explain some variance in the dependent variable. The effect of control variables need to be partialled out of the analysis so as to ensure that their influence on the relationships between the independent and dependent variables are removed (Tharenou et al., 2007). The handling of control variables is similar to covariates in other analyses in that it is best to account for as many extraneous effects as possible.

However, too many control variables can reduce the efficiency of statistical procedures (Hair et al., 2006) and reduce the explanatory power of the variables of interest. The control variables chosen for inclusion in the data collection were control variables that have been used in past expatriate studies, or variables that have been shown to relate theoretically or empirically to performance or cross-cultural adjustment. The number of control variables utilized in the analyses was kept to a manageable level of 10% of the sample size as suggested by Hair and colleagues (2006) in their discussion of choice of covariates. There were fifteen potential control variables which increased to twenty-three once the categorical variables had been dummy coded to enable utilization of these variables in the regression analyses (Hair et al., 2006; Pallant, 2005). As this number was too large, the correlation matrix of all variables was viewed to determine which control variables correlated significantly with the dependent variables (performance components) (Stevens, 1996). The variables chosen to control within each regression analysis were those that correlated significantly with the relevant dependent variables of each analysis (Hair et al., 2006; Stevens, 1996).

The variables available for use as control variables and used by or recommended as influencing variables by other authors were gender (Adler, 1993; Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Turnley & Feldman, 1999b), age (Black, 1988; Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997; Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Turnley & Feldman, 1999b), partner on assignment (13 studies analysed in Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993; Takeuchi, Wang et al., 2005), dependent on assignment (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993; Takeuchi, Wang et al., 2005), position in organisation, length of assignment (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Kraimer, 1999; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Selmer, 2002, 2006; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998), previous experience measured by length of time overseas (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; 19

studies in Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Gregersen & Stroh, 1997; Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993; Selmer, 2002; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998), Cantonese and Mandarin fluency (language fluency included in 12 studies in Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Selmer, 2006; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001), country of assignment (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999), highest level of education, ethnicity (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999), type of assignment, and cultural novelty (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Lin & Wei, 2005; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986; Peltokorpi, 2008).

Data Collection Procedures

The expatriate survey was conducted in the SARs to test the relationships between the expatriate management antecedent variables listed in the above instrument section such as organisational support, intervening variables of cross-cultural adjustment, psychological contract violation, and the criterion variable of expatriate performance. Australians in the SARs were targeted as Australian studies, although increasing, are still few in number (Anderson, 1998, 2001; Clegg & Gray, 2002; Davidson & Kinzel, 1995; Fish & Wood, 1996; Hutchings, 2005; Stone, 1991). From a practical perspective, Hong Kong has been a springboard into China and now Australian interests in Macau are increasing.

Australian expatriates and their supervisors were sampled together to try to obtain a more objective perspective on the rating of the expatriates' performance and their degree of cross-cultural adjustment. Self-rating performance measures are often criticised for inflation and narrowness of range of response (Anderson, Warner, & Spencer, 1984) as well as for bias of common method variance caused when the one individual rates performance and antecedent variables together (Lester et al., 2002). The request to have supervisors rate their subordinates was necessary for the above reason

but appeared to hamper the response rate due to the additional requirement for expatriates to enlist their supervisors' support.

Due to the lack of a list of the population of Australian expatriates in Hong Kong and Macau, the sampling technique utilised was not a probability technique as not all members of the population had an equal chance of being selected (Kemper et al., 2003). Thus, the method used was purposive (Kemper et al.) one whereby the organisations to which Australians typically belong (The Australian Chamber of Commerce and the Australian Association) were purposively chosen and members chosen from within those groups. Even though there was a rationale for the selection of the broader groups, this was a convenience sample. Opportunistic and snowballing techniques were also used to access additional firms and individuals during data collection (Von Glinow, Drost, & Teagarden, 2002). The multiple wave approach to sampling also assisted in minimising the problem of omissions of members of the target population from the sampling frame (Henry, 1990).

The expatriate survey in the SARs was initially distributed through the postal service to chamber representatives of member organisations of the Australian Chamber of Commerce in Hong Kong and Macau. This is a service offered for payment by the Chamber whereby the researcher delivers the envelopes to the Chamber, the Chamber affixes member labels and delivers to the members by courier service. Included in the envelopes were a covering letter to the organisation's chamber representative, a response form, an expatriate survey with accompanying explanatory letter, and a supervisor survey. The response form requested details about the number of Australians working for the organisation and the number of additional surveys they would like to have sent to them. The purpose of the response form was to encourage greater participation and to assist in estimating the size of the expatriate population and response rates. The covering letter detailed the research, its aims, the procedures for

collecting data, and efforts taken to maintain confidentiality. The explanatory letter attached to the expatriate survey was similar in content to the covering letter to the organisational representative but emphasised the maintenance of confidentiality and offered an alternative method of responding anonymously via email. This could be done by accessing the survey placed on a website located at the university with which the researcher was affiliated.

The expatriate survey itself was ten pages in length. It comprised 208 items covering 36 questions and required approximately 25 minutes to complete. The supervisor survey was four pages in length. It had a total of 67 items covering 13 questions and required 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

Four weeks after the initial mail-out of 750 survey packages, with 12 expatriate survey responses, a reminder email was sent to the Australian Chamber of Commerce member organisational representatives. This elicited another 11 responses, after which others were slowly returned yielding a response rate of 3.07% after 14 weeks. Hutchings (2004) reported response rate to a similar initial mail-out in China of 1% (although that was for the purpose of soliciting interview participants) which provided affirmation of the difficulty of receiving responses from a similar population.

A second database of 900 Australians was accessed six weeks after the reminder was sent to the Chamber sample. This time an email was distributed through the Australian Association which is a social group for Australians in Hong Kong. It took some time to obtain approval from the association's committee, to wait for Chinese New Year and Easter to pass so that expatriates had returned from holidays and settled back into work, and to arrange for an incentive to be put into place along with the requisite approval by the university's human ethics' committee. The incentive was deemed necessary subsequent to the level of response to the Chamber mail-out. The incentive was in the form of a draw for a night's accommodation with buffet breakfast

at a hotel in Hong Kong or dinner buffet for two at another hotel in Hong Kong for those who responded with a completed survey within two weeks of receiving advice about the survey. This particular wave elicited a 2.9% response rate after three weeks.

A third wave approach consisted of approaching another 100 organisations and individuals by telephone, email, and personal contact, throughout the data collection period. Contact details were obtained by word-of-mouth referral, expatriate and alumni networking events, and other snow balling techniques in order to obtain access to Australian expatriates. Email contacts and telephone calls (222 in total) were made to obtain a 10.6% response rate for the third wave approach.

It was not possible to obtain approval to conduct a follow-up reminder through the second wave channel even though it is desirable to do so as it has been known to approximately double the response rate in electronic surveys (Kittleson, 1997). It must be noted that the doubling effect was evident after the reminder on the first wave data collection. All three data collection approaches are outlined in Table 16. The data collection process to this point spanned eleven months and achieved a 4.8% response rate. As it is unlikely that all questionnaires would have been delivered to an expatriate, the response rate reported here can be viewed as a conservatively low figure.

Table 16

Response rates by mail-out

Mail out destination	Numbers of surveys mailed	Responses received from expatriates	Response rate
1st wave: Chamber mail out	750	23	3.1%
2nd wave: Australian Association e-mail out	900	26	2.9%
3rd wave: Direct to companies/individuals	540	57	10.6%
Total	2,190	106	4.8%

Response Rate Acceptability

The fact that a recent issue of the Organisational Research Methods journal (2007, volume 10, issue 2) focused on the low response rates to organisational surveys validates many researchers' concern and growing frustration about not being able to obtain sufficient data to adequately test research hypotheses as stipulated by rules of thumb. Of greater difficulty for the international researcher, international surveys in particular have a tendency towards very low response rates (Harzing, 2001b). Various reasons have been raised for this phenomenon. Technological facilitation of communication has lead to surveys being readily administered, thus creating response fatigue (Harzing, 2000). More individuals are taking up tertiary places and continuing on to research degrees, requiring more data collection. As a response to the increased survey requests many organisations have put into place policies rejecting survey requests (Baruch, 1999; Cycyota & Harrison, 2006; Harzing, 1997). Response rates appear to be declining (Baruch, 1999; Cycyota & Harrison, 2006; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007).

The literature reports low response rates but information regarding acceptable and unacceptable response rates is somewhat elusive. Norms and standards for an acceptable response rate are undecided, although there have been attempts to define what a reasonable response rate is (Baruch, 1999). An acceptable rate for specific studies appears to be construed after comparison with like studies which look at similar samples and which focus on similar research questions in like locations (Baruch, 1999; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). As an example, Cycyota and Harrison's (2006) meta-analytic study of 231 articles in top management journals between 1992 and 2003 surveying managers and executives found a median response rate of 32%. When articles that included pre-screening of the target sample were removed, the median response rate was found to be 28%. They also found the response rate to be declining over time.

In order to determine whether the response rates for this present research was acceptable the researcher undertook a literature search, firstly, for commentary on response rates and, secondly, to examine empirical papers which utilised questionnaire surveys in three areas: (a) expatriate studies in general, (b) expatriate studies focusing on performance, and (c) expatriate studies in Hong Kong and/or Macau. This was done in order to benchmark the response rates from this SARs expatriate survey against other similar studies as suggested by Baruch (1999). The justification behind Baruch's approach, which is adopted here, is that the response rate is one criterion which would be considered by journal editors and referees prior to accepting a paper and thus should present an indication of a reasonable and acceptable response rate. This benchmarking exercise has been conducted to check the reasonableness or otherwise of the response rate achieved in this expatriate research conducted in the SARs.

Response Rates in Cross-National Surveys

One article which examined response rates in cross-national mail surveys states that this type of research without follow-up reminders typically generates very low response rates of between 6 and 16% (Harzing, 2000). Harzing's article cites a number of references to the relatively low response rates from studies in Hong Kong. Indeed, Harzing's own study found response rates in Hong Kong to be the lowest of all countries. Her mail-out survey to people in Hong Kong achieved a response rate of 7.1%. One of the reasons Harzing mentioned for the low response rates is the geographical and cultural distance from the source, which in this case was the Netherlands. The rationale offered for this was that people are more likely to trust and relate to people similar to themselves. Further support is offered for this rationale in Teagarden's (1995) study where a significantly higher response rate was achieved when the overseas origin of the research was masked. Thus, if the source were closer to Hong Kong for Hong Kong based surveys, in either geographical or cultural distance, one

would expect a greater rate of return. This does not appear to be born out in other studies: Ng and Chui (1997, cited in Harzing, 2000) reported an 11% response rate in Hong Kong to a domestic survey. This was a low response rate from a local survey. Reasons cited for low response rates in South East Asia in general relate to lack of trust of outsiders and ulterior motives for professed academic surveys.

Response Rates in Expatriate Literature

To further explore the response rates in like studies, an analysis of response rates in the literature was compiled from empirical expatriate articles collected from literature in the expatriate domain with foci on expatriate performance, cross-cultural adjustment, expatriate management policies, practices, and outcomes. Articles from 1995 to 2007 which reported the administration of surveys to expatriates were selected: 43 in total from 18 management and psychology journals, working papers, and industry reports. The following information was gathered: author, year, journal, whether respondent was solicited through a company, association or without affiliation, the sample size, the response rate, parent company location, expatriate location, and the main variable of the study (see Appendix F).

The average response rate from the 43 expatriate studies was 39.6% with a standard deviation of 21.3. As an aside, this rate is coincidentally similar to the mean response rate of 39.6% (SD= 19.6%) found in a meta-analytical study of on-line surveys (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000). There are suggestions that on-line surveys are relevant to only some populations: one of those being workers in companies and corporations who readily conduct their daily business using internet technologies (Cook et al., 2000). Nineteen of the 43 expatriate studies investigated performance (see Table 17). It was believed that measuring performance (or like criterion variables which measure turnover intention or the success of the expatriate assignment) might increase the sensitivity to responding to the survey. The 19 expatriate performance studies had an

average response rate of 36.2% with standard deviation of 23.3 which indicates a slightly higher, but not substantial, reluctance to respond.

Response Rates in the Expatriate Literature in Hong Kong and Macau

Although none of the surveys in the literature mentioned samples from Macau, a particularly interesting finding and very pertinent to the SARs study was that the average response rate from the three studies from Hong Kong was 15.3% (SD = 4.16). Another study from the 43 study database that received responses from Hong Kong and China had a response rate of 10.1% (see Table 17). These are rates are low and offer support for Harzing's findings which present response rates from Hong Kong as the lowest in her study at 7.1%.

Table 17

Response rates by category of study in expatriate studies

Category	Category label	Number of studies	average response rate	SD
Main variable studied	Adjustment	10	37.2	24.3
	Other	2	55.5	12.0
	Performance	19	36.2	23.3
	Practices	12	44.4	16.3
	Total	43		
Country of response	China	2	24.1	1.9
	East Asia	1	56.5	
	Hong Kong	3	15.3	4.2
	Hong Kong & China	1	10.1	
	HK, Malaysia & Singapore	1	19.0	
	Japan	1	64.0	
	SE Asia	1	36.0	

(table continues)

Table 17 (continued)

Response rates by category of study in expatriate studies

Category	Category label	Number of studies	average response rate	SD
	Singapore	1	Not reported	
	Taiwan	1	55.0	
	Taiwan & Belgium	1	15.0	
	Thailand	1	40.0	
	Turkey	1	Not reported	
	USA	5	56.8	28.3
	USA & Canada	1	33.0	
	Various	22	42.5	20.3
	Total	43		

Further studies which directly compared the response rates of a number of countries with those in Hong Kong also indicate a comparatively lower response rate for that country. Harrison and colleagues (1994) found rates of 70% for USA, 52% for Australia, 32.5% for Singapore, and 27.5% for Hong Kong. Cullen and colleagues (1995) found that Hong Kong had the second lowest response rate of 10 countries (New Zealand was lower) at 4.3% in their study even after personally addressing the survey to respondents. Keown's study (1985) explored the effects of an enclosed incentive on surveys sent to Hong Kong and Japan. This study showed a 13% response rate without an incentive and 0% response rate with an incentive in Hong Kong. Harzing (1997) obtained further information from Hong Kong academics that a typical domestic response rate in Hong Kong was 15%. It was further suggested that this response rate could only be achieved after telephone follow-up. This information offers additional

support for the average response rate finding of 15.3% from the 43 expatriate studies analysed by the author.

The information from the cross-national survey, the expatriate literature, and direct comparison of expatriate survey studies above suggest that the response rates in Hong Kong are notoriously low. Given that the general trend in the response rates from organisational research surveys is declining, the response rate achieved in this SARS expatriate performance survey is not unexpected.

Worthiness of Studies with Low Response Rates

Baruch (1999) has suggested that the response rate for a study should be within one standard deviation from the average of studies using similar populations. This SARs expatriate performance study certainly does not meet this criterion even when measured against the sample of responses from Hong Kong from the 43 studies analysed. Based upon that data, the lower bound standard deviation would sit at 11.2%. As one would expect, Baruch suggested that any deviation from this norm needs to be explained and, furthermore, authors need to try to explain the differences between respondents and non-respondents.

Although the response rate is low in the current study, Rogelberg and Stanton (2007) cautioned against discarding results and deeming the study unworthy of publishing until non-response bias can be investigated. However, there are instances of studies with low response rates which are published without this justification such as Verma and Dewe's work on measuring the value of HR in British firms with a 5.89% response rate (Verma & Dewe, 2008). The authors did, however, acknowledge that bias may have been introduced. Apart from acknowledging the potential introduction of bias due to non-response, the bias should be investigated to determine whether the low response rate might have "substantive impact on conclusions drawn from the data" (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007, p.198). Rogelberg and Stanton cautioned researchers to

make efforts to determine the impact of any potential non-response bias regardless of the response rate. A low response rate does not necessarily mean that the representativeness of the sample is compromised (Cook et al., 2000) and it is this representativeness, rather than the absolute response rate, which should be the ultimate aim in sampling the population. In fact, it has been suggested that "response rate alone is an inaccurate and unreliable proxy for study quality" (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007, p.198).

Another concern for a low response rate is the sample size. This is moot as the required sample size can be specified through statistical means. For example, there are methods available to estimate the required sample size for multiple regression based upon the relevant effect size parameters (Maxwell, 2000) as discussed earlier in this chapter. Utilising this method it was determined that a sample size of 88 was sufficient for this study. Therefore, what might be deemed inadequate for one survey with one set of variables might indeed be quite adequate and sufficient for another, regardless of the response rate. Once a sufficient sample size is achieved for the statistical purposes (or even regardless of sample size) it is any non-response bias and its effect upon generalisability that needs to be determined.

Rogelberg and Stanton (2007) suggested that non-response bias can be analysed through nine different techniques which comprise the non-response bias impact assessment strategy: archival analysis, follow-up approach, wave analysis, passive non-response analysis, interest level analysis, active non-response analysis, worst case resistance, benchmarking analysis, and demonstration of generalisability. Archival analysis takes a database of the members of the whole survey sample and compares the respondents with the non-respondents. It looks for differences between the two groups' profile attributes which systematically relate to responses. As such, the first step in archival analysis, as with most of the Rogelberg and Stanton's methods, is to determine

the differences in attributes between respondents and non-respondents and the second step is to ascertain whether those attributes relate to the variables of interest in the study. The focus here is to highlight differences in attributes between the groups. The degree to which the attributes systematically relate to the variables of interest will be discussed in the analysis and results chapter. True archival analysis could not be conducted as the surveys were returned anonymously and thus the non-respondent group could not be differentiated from the respondent group. Thus a comparison between the typical profile of respondents to the typical profile of the databases available was conducted. Two databases were available for comparison against the first wave sample: the Australian Chamber of Commerce in Hong Kong and Macau business directory and a de-identified list of members as of 29th November 2007. As there was little information beyond contact names and addresses listed in the directory, it was not feasible to attempt to match the profile of the Chamber members to the typical profile of the respondents. The ethnicity of the names in the database did however offer insight into one reason for non-response; a number of the membership had Chinese names which in and of itself does not prove non-Australian nationality. However, according to the Chamber's Chief Executive Officer this was often the case as many merely had Australian business interests and thus were not part of the target sample but of Hong Kong nationality.

Information that was useful for archival analysis comparison in the Australian Chamber of Commerce data was age (calculated from date of birth) and title (which was matched to the survey question of position in organisation). In terms of data held by and readily released by the Australian Association in Hong Kong, broad aggregate information regarding gender, age, family composition, and membership turnover (a proxy for length of stay on assignment) were made available to the researcher. The sample appears to be reflective of the age composition of the Chamber members (note

Figure 4). Only the 50-54 year age group shows any great difference (15% of the sample as opposed to 8% of the Chamber members).

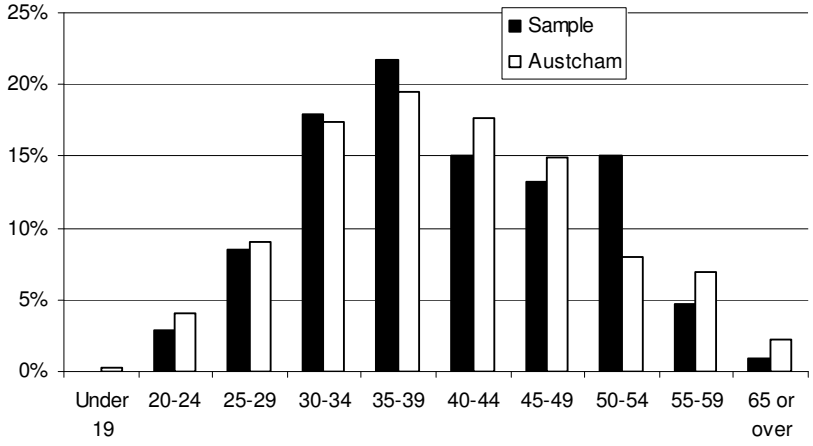

Figure 4. Age composition of sample and Australian Chamber of Commerce Hong Kong and Macau members.

Expatriate sample, N = 106. AustCham sample, N = 934.

The average older age of the sample may potentially bias the results as age was significantly correlated with a number of variables of interest: emotional support, work adjustment, and a number of performance components (see Table 18).

Table 18

Correlates with age - Pearson Correlation

Correlates	Expatriate Age
Mentoring (mentoring)	-.27**
Work adjustment	.29**
Adjustment to general life	.22*
Communication performance	.24*
Team and leadership performance	.24*
Management and administration performance	.25*

Note. The names of the components of performance differ slightly from Campbell's terminology due to the variation between the hypothesised and empirical factorial structure which is reported in later chapters.

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Position in the organisation was also used to compare the sample with the wider population. The position title of the Australian Chamber of Commerce members was matched to the eight position levels in the survey. The sample and the Chamber members could then be compared on this attribute. It appears that the Chamber has a much greater number of members in senior management than the expatriate sample in the current study (25% of AustCham members were General Managers compared with 8% for the sample; 18% of AustCham members were at CEO level compared with 6% in the sample). The higher status in the Chamber is to be expected as the Chamber of Commerce was established to support business interests and the member organisations'

representatives are typically those in the most senior roles. The high incidence of non-supervisory roles in the expatriate sample in comparison to the Chamber's members is also indicative of the status of individuals in the Chamber. It is also largely due to the lack of representation from educational institutions in the business chamber.

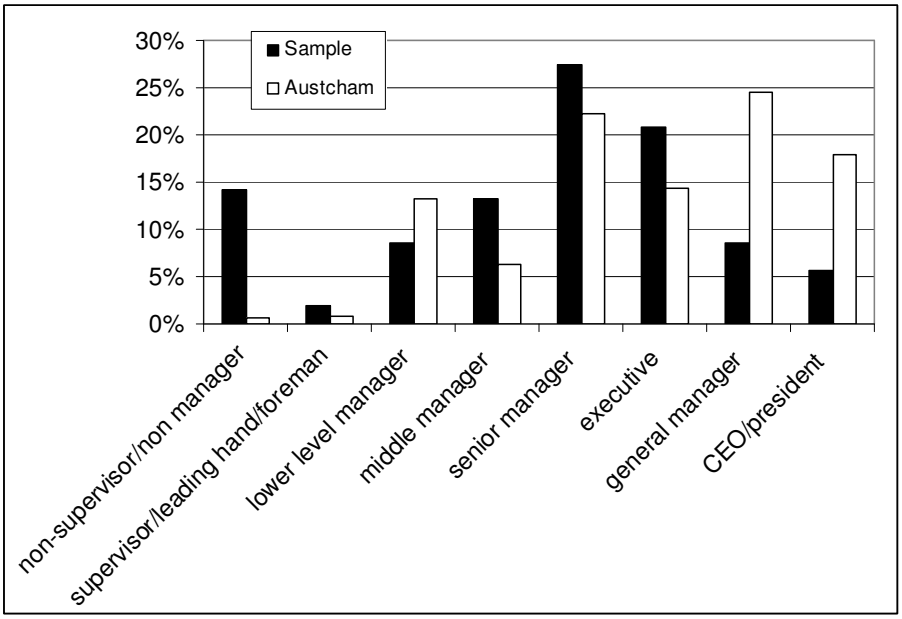

Figure 5. Organisational position composition of sample and Australian Chamber of Commerce Hong Kong and Macau members.

Expatriate sample, N = 106. AustCham sample, N = 875

The Australian Association (wave two of the data collection) offered another access point to Australian expatriate data with a membership of approximately 900. The Association advised that their membership comprised approximately 50% of women. The expatriate sample was 43.4% female. The Association also advised the 45% of its membership were couples, 35% families, and 25% were single. A cross-tabulation was conducted on the expatriate sample data using the dependents on assignment and the partner on assignment variables to enable comparison of family composition. The expatriate sample (see Figure 6) had a smaller proportion of couples (25%) than the Australian Association (45%) and more singles (38% compared with 25%). Neither the difference in gender composition nor the family composition is unexpected given the social aim of the Association. There are activities and events specifically aimed at families and couples and the Association provides a much needed support network to which non-working spouses are attracted whereas much of this support for single expatriates can be found in the work-place environment. The mean age for the Australian Chamber of Commerce was 45, for the expatriate sample it was in the 35-39 year age bracket, and for the Australian Association members the mean age was even lower at the 30 to 39 age bracket. This suggests that consideration might need to be given to controlling for age effects in further analysis as the age attribute correlates significantly with a number of intervening and dependent variables.

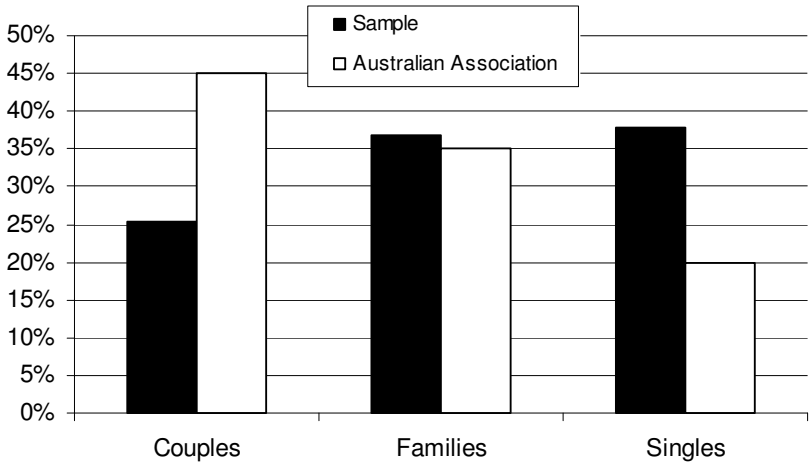

Figure 6. Family composition of sample and Australian Association members. Expatriate sample, N = 106. Australian Association, n = 900.

Although it is not appropriate to devote much more space here to discuss the outcomes of analysis based upon all of the nine techniques suggested by Rogelberg and Stanton (2007) (see Lee, 2007 for further discussion)), the one other technique which is worth exploring in this context is wave analysis. The assumption implicit in wave analysis is that those respondents who respond after the deadline are more likely to exhibit similar tendencies to non-respondents and thus may indicate whether non-response bias might be present (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). An Independent-Samples T Test was run on the variables with the sample split into 2 groups: those who responded within 14 days and those who responded after 14 days. The 14 day cut-off was specified due to the request in the on-line survey introduction for responses within that time frame in order to benefit from a chance to participate in the incentive draw. 71.4% of the expatriates responded within 14 days. There were three variables with equal variance between the two groups: work adjustment, perceived cultural distance, and career commitment. The *t*-scores between the two groups on these three variables were found to be insignificant (see Table 19), thus the respondents who replied later did not differ significantly from the earlier group on any of these variables (SPSS Inc., 2006). In interpreting the relationships to these variables, on the basis of this wave analysis non-response bias is unlikely to be present.

Table 19

t-test for equality of means

Variables	t	Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean difference	Mean: respondents who replied <14 days	Mean: respondents who replied > 14 days
Work adjustment	2.29	.024	.428	5.65	6.08
Perceived cultural distance	2.29	.024	.318	2.08	2.40
Career Commitment	2.38	.019	3.085	25.98	29.07

Method of Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was chosen as the main technique to test most of the hypotheses. Multiple regression is appropriate when independent variables are naturally occurring and cannot be subjected to experimental design (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The data in this research consists of many continuous independent variables and one continuous dependent variable (performance components). It is the relationships between the various independent variables and the dependent variable and how much of the variance in performance is explained by the other variables that is the purpose of this research. Multiple regression is appropriate in this context (Pallant, 2005; Tharenou et al., 2007) as it is a technique that allows for correlations between independent variables and the complexities of the real world (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It offers a more thorough exploration of the relationships than examination of correlations and helps explain the strength of impact that each independent variable has on the dependent variable (Pallant, 2005).

Regression analysis requires the general assumptions of normality and linearity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) to be met. The requirement for homoscedasticity (Osborne & Waters, 2002) is less rigorous but regression analysis is more sensitive to outliers (Pallant, 2005). How the data were assessed for compliance with these assumptions and how violations were treated is discussed in detail in the preliminary analysis section of chapter 5.

Hypothesis 5d suggests that cross-cultural adjustment mediates the relationship between expatriate management inputs and performance outcomes and thus calls for a test of mediation. Hypotheses 6b and 6c both call for tests of moderation. Hypothesis 6b states that overall fulfilment of an expatriate's psychological contract will moderate the effects of psychological contract violation on expatriate performance and hypothesis 6c

suggests that when psychological violation breach occurs, performance outcomes will be more negatively affected the more the content is relational. These tests of mediation and moderation also utilise multiple regression analysis (Lindley, 1993; Tharenou et al., 2007). These tests control for the affects of the potential mediator and moderator on the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variables.

Ethical Considerations

Harzing's (2002) article concerning referencing errors undermining the credibility of academic research offers a comprehensive list of how to avoid common errors found in the literature:

> [R]eproduce the correct reference, refer to the correct publication, do not use 'empty' references, use reliable sources, use generalizable sources for generalized statements, do not misrepresent the content of the reference, make clear which statement references support, do not cite out-of-date references, do not be duly impressed by top journals, do not try to reason away conflicting evidence and actively search for counter-evidence. (Harzing, 2002, p.128).

These 12 guidelines for good academic referencing go beyond referencing errors to avoid. In her last two guidelines Harzing directed that an intellectually honest approach to any study needs to be taken. These 12 guidelines along with a sense of professional integrity are those that underpin the processes and choices in this research.

In the collection of any data where there are people involved, researchers are obliged both morally and, in some jurisdictions, legally to ensure that no harm is done to participants during the collection of data. Prior to any data collection, application was made to the Human Ethics Committee of the sponsoring university for approval to conduct the studies that comprise this research. All communication to the participants and incentives offered had to be vetted for appropriateness of content, context, and

method. Risk of harm had to be assessed and solutions offered by the researcher should they occur. In the case of this research separate applications were made for the qualitative study, the quantitative study, and the incentive offered for participation in the quantitative study in the form of lucky draw for a buffet dinner or a night's accommodation at a hotel in Hong Kong. The potential harm identified was that during an interview issues of emotive content might be discussed. Should the emotional content cause distress the supervising researcher was available to consult in his capacity as a clinical psychologist. Finally a report was submitted to the Ethics Committee upon the finalisation of data collection.

Summary

This chapter presented the methodologies utilised in gathering of data for the two main studies (qualitative and quantitative) and the testing of hypotheses described in chapter 2. Firstly, a discussion of the rationale for the mix method design incorporating both qualitative and quantitative methodologies was offered suggesting that the main reason for the choice was a pragmatic one. In this study the mixed method was utilised for the purposes of triangulation, complementarity, initiation, and scale development. The chapter continued by discussing the ideal process of integration of methods throughout the stages of research and offered a pragmatic rationale for the separation of the techniques in the structure of the dissertation.

The second section of this chapter described the procedure used to collect interview data which was used to explore the expatriate performance construct and to develop a list of potential influences on performance. The sample of 18 expatriates and two supervisors was described within its context of the SARs and the purposive sampling technique which was utilised was introduced as was the list of questions and procedures used in the semi-structured interview. The section also discussed the content

analysis and the combined deductive and inductive approaches take to coding the interview transcripts.

The main study, the quantitative survey, was described in the next section. A summary of the development of the expatriate performance scale as offered in detail in chapter 4 was presented. This described how the interview data informed the scale development and offered insight into the decision to include career commitment as an additional variable in the research. This section also described the sample and the tactics utilised to increase the response rate. The next section examined the measures utilised and the instrument scoring for each of the variables. It encompassed information on the reliability of each of the scales, both from research which utilised the scales in the past and from this expatriate research. Of importance to this study is the exploration of the sample size requirements; the power analysis used to determine the sample size given the expected effect sizes of the variables of interest. The ethical reasons, statistical rationale and limitations imposed by the real world situation behind sample size decisions were also explored. Finally, the reason for the choice of regression analysis to explore which inputs into expatriate management explain most of the variance in performance was offered.

Chapter 4 provides further detail of the procedures involved in the development of the expatriate performance scale based upon Campbell's eight factors (1990).

CHAPTER FOUR: PERFORMANCE SCALE DEVELOPMENT.

Chapter 3 introduced the two major studies comprising this research. It offered a rationale for a mixed methodology based upon a pragmatic approach to allow the quantitative and qualitative data to be mutually illuminating. The qualitative survey was introduced into the research to corroborate the multi-factorial conceptualisation of expatriate performance. The interviews were also conducted to determine what influenced expatriate performance.

Chapter 4 describes the procedures undertaken to develop the measure of expatriate performance which is used in this research to test a number of the hypotheses. It was earlier argued that a multi-factorial conceptualisation of performance would be beneficial in analysing what influences expatriate performance because it is expected that the various influences will affect each component in different ways. Where a construct is heterogeneous in its make-up, such as job performance or intelligence, it is best to utilise a number of homogeneous sub-scales that offer less ambiguous interpretation than a single heterogeneous test (Anastasi, 1982). The performance scale was therefore developed to reflect the underlying latent structure of expatriate performance.

The procedure described in this chapter encompasses item generation described in the pilot study section, an initial subject matter expert survey (the first of two) conducted to explore the content adequacy of the items, the undertaking of interviews to explore the content domain which then contributed to further item generation, the main pilot study of the initial set of items, and a final administration of the measure. This was then followed by factor analyses and finally, a determination of the final set of items based upon factor loadings and interpretation of the meaningful content of the factors. Reference is made to a second subject matter expert survey to offer further evidence of the sorting and categorisation findings for comparison with other sources and methods.

The guidelines followed in the development of the expatriate performance scale were those presented by DeVellis (2003). His eight steps reflect the recommendations by Hinkin (1995) and Schreisheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner, and Lankau (1993) and all three sources have been influential in the procedures used in this current research. These eight steps followed in this chapter are (a) determining clearly what is to be measured; (b) generating a pool of items;
(c) determining the format of the measurement; (d) having the initial item pool reviewed by experts; (e) considering ways to validate the items; (f) administering the items to a development sample; (g) evaluating the items; and (h) optimising the scale length. These steps and the justifications for each will be discussed in greater detail throughout this chapter

Pilot Study.

Sampling

The quantitative nature of the questionnaire survey and aim of greater generalisability (Keppel & Zedeck, 1989) of the findings beyond that obtainable from the interview data suggests that probability sampling techniques would be the most appropriate. However, these techniques rely on the access to lists of the entire population. These were not available, or at least if they were, they were not feasibly available to an academic researcher due to issues of privacy, confidentiality, time, and funding resources required to access the information.

The sample for both the interviews and the pilot study was drawn from communications with Australian human resource managers who were included on a list offered to the researcher by the Australian Chamber of Commerce. Further contact lists were compiled by the researcher from personal communication with Australians in Macau and Hong Kong, the daily English press, and Australian company websites on the internet. This database was then used as the initial point of contact and interviews

were arranged with the contact party or through them with Australian expatriates and their supervisors.

Measures

Initial Item Generation for the Performance Scale

The expatriate performance literature was reviewed for existing scales which included a range of performance dimensions of expatriate and managerial performance (Borman & Brush, 1993; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Caligiuri, 1997; Campbell, 1990; Conway, 1999; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Kraimer et al., 2001; Scullen et al., 2003; Williams & Anderson, 1991). This review was conducted with the goal of developing a final scale with a minimum of three items for each of the performance components. Scales comprised of as few as three items have been able to produce adequate internal reliabilities and sample the domain of interest (Hinkin, 1995; Tett, Guterman, Bleier, & Murphy, 2000). Considering the multiplication of the number of items over the eight factors (Campbell, 1990), the risk of response fatigue and bias that long scales are said to produce (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997) could have become a real risk should six or more items have been chosen. In selecting the items, care was taken to ensure that each performance factor was determined by declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and motivation as theorised by Campbell. This became an extremely good calibrator against which to check for items that measured antecedents to performance, rather than components of performance, which are often included in performance measures to the detriment of conceptual clarity as discussed in chapter 2. The discussion in reference to the definition of performance in chapter 2 clarified what was to be measured (Step 1 of DeVellis' guidelines in scale development (2003)). The items from extent scales were sorted into the eight performance factors. Where items of similar content were repeated in two or more existing scales, the item that best matched Campbell's description of that factor was selected. This process generated 26 items

(DeVellis' Step 2). Of these 26 items, six sets of three items were used to describe Campbell's factors 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, and 8 and two sets of four items described factors 4 and 5.

Instrument Pretesting

The original 26 items were included in an initial pilot questionnaire which asked respondents to rate the performance of expatriates on the items and their perception of the importance of each item. This was administered to 14 expatriates and supervisors during the interviews for their review of the face validity of the items and to ascertain their understanding of the questions and their thoughts on the formatting and ease of response (DeVellis' Step 4 – have the initial item pool reviewed by experts [2003]). There were 3 female and 11 male respondents. The average age was 44 with a range from 32 to 61. The average tenure on assignment was 2 years, although the average length of total overseas experience was just over 8 years. All the respondents were at managerial or professional levels. During this initial pilot administration of the scale to the 14 respondents it appeared that there was a potential priming effect caused by the layout of the survey (DeVellis' Step 3 – determine the format for measurement). The 26 items were placed down the left column of the sheet with two question stems across the top. The respondents thus ticked two sets of 5-point likert-type scales side-by-side in matrix format (see Figure 7).

Rate the expatriate's performance on the following dimensions		**How important do you believe these behaviours are to achieving organisational goals?**

	Unsatisfactory	Not very good	Average	Very good	Exceptional		Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Important	Very Important
Item 1: Demonstrate technical expertise	1	2	3	4	5		1	2	3	4	5

Figure 7. Layout of the measures for (a) performance components and (b) importance of performance components.

The questionnaire was laid out this way to minimise the length of the scale in print and to obviate the need for the respondent to read each item twice. It was recognised that such a layout may result in a higher correlation between the two questions related to each item. However, this was deemed to be less of a disadvantage than the potential loss of response caused by having a longer survey to complete (Dillman, 1991). The layout also assisted in clarifying the difference between the two questions, even though the items were the same. The particular instance of a potential priming effect was raised by a respondent as he noticed that he was circling the same scale number for both questions on each item. Whether this was really caused by priming effect or whether it was that the two questions were really correlated is not verifiable. However, it is feasible to have such a correlation if the individual is particularly aware of and in agreement with the organisations goals and foci and thus performs well on those particular components. It was thus deemed that the format would remain as initially planned as there was no further evidence of a priming effect to be found amongst the respondents.

The content of the items was reviewed by subject matter experts (SME) for clarity, appropriateness, and content validity (DeVellis' Step 4, [2003]) as it has been suggested that "items that comprise a new measure should always be presented for examination" (Hinkin, 1995, p. 971). The SMEs had academic expertise in either expatriate or performance management: one senior academic, one early stage career academic, and one PhD student/HR practitioner. This composition is acceptable as sorting is a cognitive process that Hinkin deemed appropriate for those of "intellectual ability rather than work experience" (1995, p.971). SMEs were asked to sort the 26 items by allocating each to two systems of categories at different hierarchical levels. These categories were derived from theory. The first sorting process utilised Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) task and contextual performance categorisation at the upper

level of hierarchy and the second required expert informants to allocate the items across Campbell's eight factors (1990). It was anticipated that there may be some relationship between the two levels of categorisation as discussed but not agreed upon in the literature.

The above SME sorting methodology was also utilised in the performance literature by Conway (1999) in his meta-analysis of performance components in managerial jobs. Conway also utilised Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) task and contextual performance categories as the upper level of the hierarchical structure of performance. Schreisheim and colleagues (1993) offered a more rigorous sorting methodology utilising factor analysis of the outcomes of the sorting process by a panel. However, these authors repeatedly recommended that researchers return to the raw data for assigning items to categories and that it is not necessary to subject the panel judgements to statistical analysis.

The SMEs responses raised issues of ambiguity of items and difficulty in allocating items to the factors intended by the researcher. This is entirely consistent with the existing literature on performance components where authors offer varying opinions as to which factors the underlying dimensions represent (Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). In fact, SMEs were engaged to allocate items across Campbell's eight factors and Borman and Motowidlo's task/contextual performance categories to help explain inconsistencies in the discussion within the literature as to what factors various performance components belonged. Amendments were made to item wording and one item was reallocated to another component based upon the SME responses.

Although a pilot study of the initial pool of items had been commenced through administration to 14 expatriates and supervisors, it was deemed that given a lack of consensus by the SMEs, the existence of some ambiguous items, and the lack of

agreement between the theory and the SME's categorisation that further work needed to be conducted. Subsequently, a final pilot test was administered after further item generation and a second SME categorisation process.

Further Item Generation

After review by SMEs suggested that it would be prudent to build in redundancy to allow for deletion of items after subsequent factor and reliability analyses (DeVellis, 2003), an additional 16 items were included. These were items that had been considered but not included in the original pool. Where insufficient items were generated from existing scales the author created others based upon Campbell's description of the factors. On the basis of a second review of experts, items that appeared to be ambiguous or subject to response bias were rewritten. It was also viewed as important to increase the number of items for each factor to approximately six (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) to build in redundancy (DeVellis, 2003). This initial screening process resulted in a pool of 42 items in the initial test instrument.

The list of items was further complemented by a content analysis of interviews with 20 Australian expatriates and supervisors conducted in Hong Kong and Macau in 2006. The interviews were undertaken to determine the components of expatriate performance as perceived by supervisors and expatriates currently working on assignment. The aim of the interviews was to confirm that the literature had adequately described the domain, to add any items that had not been suggested in the literature, and to confirm that the items selected were relevant. From this process another six items were added bringing the total to 48 items covering eight performance factors. None of the items was reversed scored, although there are arguments that reverse scoring may minimise response pattern bias (Hinkin, 1995; Tharenou et al., 2007), there are also concerns that it may reduce validity of a scale by introducing systematic error and by

the negatively worded items producing a unique factor all of their own (DeVellis, 2003; Hinkin, 1995; Tharenou et al., 2007).

Subsequent to the content analysis of the interviews and the final addition of items and some minor adjustments to wording and formatting, the questionnaire was further reviewed by two research academics with expertise in scale and questionnaire development. After review the scale was determined to be ready for a further pilot study.

Pilot Study – Sample and Measure

The 48 items were pilot tested for reliability and internal scale consistency with 32 expatriates employed in a range of occupations. There were 17 (53.1%) Hong Kong based respondents, while 15 (46.9%) were from Macau. In terms of gender, 13 (40.6%) of respondents were female, while 19 (59.4%) were male (DeVellis' Step6 – administer items to a development sample [2003]).

This scale was designed to rate performance of expatriates on 48 items over eight components of performance: at this stage item redundancy was still built in. Items measuring each variable factor were mixed to overcome response set error (DeVellis, 2003). The scale also asked the respondents how important they perceived these components to be to organisational goals. This was done as an additional check of the relevance of the components of performance as found in the literature. Not only is it important to unearth the components of performance but given that Campbell stated that not all components will be relevant to each and every job, it is crucial to measure performance on components which are important to that specific expatriate role (Campbell et al., 1993).

There is a dynamic tension between specificity and generality (DeVellis, 2003) in relation to performance scales (Tett et al., 2000) which are administered across industries, functions, and roles. Although this scale samples more of the domain of

interest than extent expatriate performance measures, it is still somewhat generic in order to be applicable across a wide range of expatriate roles and to enable administration to a sample size large enough to enable generalisation. However, it is not of practical use to test what influences performance if those components are not actually of significant importance to the group being studied. Other studies have not incorporated this importance/salience measure and thus risk imposing assumptions of relevance on the sample being investigated.

Both the rating and importance scales utilised a 5-point Likert-type response scale, ranging from 1 (*poor*) through to 5 (*outstanding*) for performance and 1 (*not at all important*) through to 5 (*very important*) for the importance scale. Both scales used the same items to describe the components of performance. An example of one item for each factor is listed in Table 20 (refer to Appendix D for the full scale). The aim was to administer the Expatriate Performance Scale to both expatriates to obtain self-ratings and to their supervisors to obtain a more objective view (Lester et al., 2002; Scullen et al., 2003).

Table 20

Sample items from the Expatriate Performance Scale

Campbell's performance factors	Sample item
	In your work you:
1. Job specific task proficiency	fulfil the responsibilities defined in the job description.
2. Non-job specific task proficiency	show proficiency in general tasks expected of all employees at this level.
3. Written and oral communication	effectively inform leaders, team-mates and direct reports.
4. Demonstrating effort	persevere when times are tough.
5. Maintaining Personal Discipline	refrain from complaining about insignificant things.
6. Facilitating peer and team performance	encourage and foster cooperation among team members.
7. Supervision/leadership	influence subordinates to achieve goals set for them
8. Management/administration	organise and control utilisation of non-human resources

Pilot Survey Procedure

The researcher contacted the individuals who participated in the interviews, representatives of the interviewee's organisations, and other Australian expatriates to request participation in the pilot study. The contact was made utilising personal contacts and networks developed over the course of the interview data collection whilst the researcher lived in Macau. Where email addresses where known, the pilot survey was

sent by email to the expatriate. The email offered an update of the research, thanked those who had participated in the earlier interviews, advised of the importance of the pilot survey to the development of the scale for further use in subsequent studies relating to expatriate performance, and requested their participation and assured them that their responses would remain confidential. Of the 50 individuals contacted 35 responded, with 33 returning the survey. Due to substantial missing data, one survey was unusable, leaving 32 useable surveys for a response rate of 66%. As requested, 23 (70%) of the respondents responded by emailing the survey in Word format. Two (6%) responded by fax or emailed a PDF file, five were delivered or collected in person (15%), and two of the respondents sent their replies through the postal service (6%). As none of the remaining 32 cases was found to have excessive missing data, missing data were dealt with using listwise deletion. Thus most of the analysis was conducted on 31 cases.

Method of Analysis

This pilot study was conducted for the purpose of assessing the initial psychometric properties of the survey. This was done in order to determine whether the scale and the sub-scales (grouped items aimed to measure the components of performance) were reliable enough to justify administration of the scale to a larger sample. It is not possible to determine the construct validity of the measure based on such a small sample. Content validity is determined to have been built in by virtue of a thorough literature review, discussion, and an understanding of the domain in order to decide upon a definition and to generate items. Content validity is the main concern of item generation (Hinkin, 1995). This type of validity is a necessary prerequisite before construct validity can be determined: the content must be adequate first as no correspondence necessarily exists between an empirical indicator of construct validity

and the construct's theoretical content (Schriesheim, Cogliser, Scandura, Lankau, & Powers, 1999).

The addition of items based upon the content analysis of the interview data was undertaken with the aim to improve the content validity. Further content validity assessment was conducted during the process of factor analysis as the interpretation of the rotated factors is dependent upon the meaning that can be derived from the content of the items which load onto the individual factors. Other types of validity can only be determined through analysis with larger samples as conducted using the full data set. The following section thus focuses on the reliability measure and internal consistency of the performance component scales.

In order to determine the reliability of the component scales, each was examined using the reliabilities procedure (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The initial analyses (see Table 21) showed that the two scales (the rating and importance scales) met the traditional standards of reliability of a minimum Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 (Nunnally, 1978): $\alpha = .89$ for the composite performance ratings and $\alpha = .96$ for the composite importance of performance scale. The component scales (otherwise called performance dimensions, components or factors) also indicated, in general, very good reliability coefficients with room to improve with item deletion. For a newly developed scale with little manipulation of items, the scales certainly showed promise. Although it has been suggested that internal consistency coefficients less than .70 are less than adequate (Hinkin, 1995), those greater than .60 are considered acceptable for newly developed measures (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998).

Performance component 5 which aimed to measure the maintenance of personal discipline appeared to be the most problematic ($\alpha = .28$ in the performance rating scale). Even this improved to $\alpha = .55$ after deletion of 2 items.

Table 21

Scale reliabilities of the performance and importance of performance components

Subscale	Cronbach's alpha	Highest alpha if item deleted	Number of items
	Performance		
Component 1	.77	.80 (item 27)	6
Component 2	.58	.59 (item 23)	6
Component 3	.66	.71 (item 30)	7
Component 4	.69	.69 (item 4)	7
Component 5	.28	.41 (item 22)	6
Component 6	.80	.82 (item 14)	5
Component 7	.69	.75 (item 8)	5
Component 8	.71	.73 (item 47)	6
	Importance of Performance		
Component 1	.87	.91 (item 1)	6
Component 2	.69	.76 (item 2)	6
Component 3	.81	.82 (item 3)	7
Component 4	.86	.87 (item18)	7
Component 5	.69	.69 (item 19)	6
Component 6	.87	.90 (item 20)	5
Component 7	.90	.91 (item 8)	5
Component 8	.75	.75 (item 44)	6

Note. N = 32

The reliability procedure conducted on a sample of 32 expatriates indicated that the scale was reliable. Further psychometric analyses were conducted on the larger

sample in order to confirm the reliability of each scale. Further, both deductive and inductive approaches have been used to attempt to ensure content validity, which, along with reliability, is a minimum pre-requisite for testing validity (Hair et al., 1998; Hinkin, 1995). Although the content validity of the Expatriate Performance Scale was built in at the item generation (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997) and pre-test stages, construct validity needed to be tested through factor analyses and correlations with similar constructs such as managerial advancement. It was anticipated that some items would be found to be redundant or not load onto the factors as theorised and may need to be removed from the scale. These tests are discussed in the section on factor analysis later in this chapter.

The next section offers a more detailed examiniation of the interview data which was used to inform the development of the scale and helped to confirm the content of the expatriate performance domain.

Interview Data

Summary – Sample, Instrument, and Procedure

Full details of the sample of interviewees can be found in the Qualitative Survey section of chapter 3. However, a summary is presented here. Of the 20 interviewees two were supervisors and expatriates themselves and 18 were expatriates. The interviews were conducted in Hong Kong (11) and in Macau (9). Of the respondents, 85% were male. Seven different industries were represented. The majority called themselves Australian (80 percent) rather than associating themselves with other ethnicities. The majority (40%) had undergraduate degrees and 25% had higher degrees.

The interviews were semi-structured and open-ended based around Campbell's performance framework (1990) and antecedents selected for attention in this research. Respondents were asked what performance components were important and what

assisted or hindered their performance. Each interviewee gave their consent to participate. There respondents were offered an explanation of the research and how to contact the sponsoring university should the need arise. The interviews typically ran for one hour but ranged from 35 minutes to two and a half hours. The interviews were digitally recorded, transcribed verbatim by the researcher and coded as each interview was completed. These tasks were done in parallel rather than in stages so that findings from analysis of earlier interviews could be used in subsequent interviews to inform the interview process (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Interview Data - Content Analysis

The interview data were analysed with the view to (a) substantiate the content of the components used in the expatriate performance framework based upon Campbell's taxonomy (1990) and (b) to extract any other components of performance to complement those found in the literature. In addition, influences on performance were discussed to explore that domain further. This inductive approach followed the deductive approach in a sequential manner to expand upon the understanding of the domain and the definition of performance as found in the literature.

Coding of the transcribed interviews in NVivo used the sorting and clustering methods to manage and draw meaning from the themes (Chang & Tharenou, 2004). Particular themes discussed by each respondent were added to the count for that theme to extract a coverage percentage for that theme over the sample. This was done to offer confirmation that each of the themes was relevant to the sample (Dougherty & Hardy, 1996). Any emerging themes were also noted and coded to a node within the hierarchical structure or to a node outside the hierarchical structure where it was subsequently fitted into the structure as appropriate.

Table 22 offers a summary of the number (and percentage) of respondents to which the observations were relevant and the frequencies of observations of antecedents

and expatriate performance criteria. Themes which were observed across a higher percentage of respondents suggest that those particular themes were relevant to the sample (Miles & Huberman, 1984). This may be indicative of relevance within the expatriate domain. The themes with a higher density show the importance or salience of the theme to this group of expatriates. In addition, it is important to distinguish between the topics specifically addressed in the interview schedule and those which emerged spontaneously. Where the number of respondents and density is high on these spontaneous themes (such as lack of practical support with 5,987 words coded to that one node) one can be confident that these themes were perceived as important to job performance of the expatriates in the sample. Each of the themes coded from the data is discussed in the following section, firstly, to justify the addition of career commitment into the framework, to offer support for the antecedents used in this study and, lastly, to confirm and expand upon the content of job performance as a step towards operationalisation of the construct.

Table 22

Themes and sub-themes coded from interview responses

Themes and sub-themes	Number of respondents	Frequency	Density - Number of words coded
Organisational inputs	12 (60%)	28	2,388
***Lack of organisational support**	15 (75%)	32	3,345
***1 Selection**	15 (75%)	34	2,632
***2 Preparation and training**	7 (35%)	13	959
**Lack of Preparation and training*	10 (50%)	12	664
3 Support			
***a) Affective support**	17 (85%)	41	4,081
**Lack of affective support*	13 (65%)	35	3,734
***b) Informational support**	4 (20%)	7	497
**Lack of informational support*	8 (40%)	13	1,144
***Role clarity – lack of ambiguity**	7 (35%)	13	695
***c) Practical support**	18 (90%)	35	3,280
**Lack of practical support*	14 (70%)	58	5,987
***4 Career planning (organisational)**	11 (45%)	22	2,453
External social support	19 (95%)	48	3,214

(table continues)

Table 22 (continued)

Themes and sub-themes coded from interview responses

Themes and sub-themes	Number of respondents	Frequency	Density - Number of words coded
***Host language fluency**	15 (75%)	32	2,990
Personal attributes	20 (100%)	74	4,362
**Career commitment*	4 (20%)	7	495
**1 Career identity*	5 (25%)	11	656
**2 Career planning (self initiated)*	3 (15%)	5	323
**3 Resilience*	2 (10%)	6	176
***Previous experience**	13 (65%)	20	1,265
**What's needed to perform*	13 (65%)	20	1,817
Performance factors			
1 Job specific task performance	19 (95%)	44	3,511
2 Non-job specific task performance	17 (85%)	40	3,488
3 Written and oral communication	20 (100%)	62	5,929
4 Demonstrating Effort	17 (85%)	43	3,889
5 Maintaining personal discipline	18 (90%)	40	3,374

(table continues)

Table 22 (continued)

Themes and sub-themes coded from interview responses

Themes and sub-themes	Number of respondents	Frequency	Density - Number of words coded
6 Facilitating peer & team performance	19 (95%)	45	3,888
7 Supervision/leadership	19 (95%)	60	5,726
8 Management administration	19 (95%)	64	4,831
* Other performance components	11 (55%)	26	2,441

Note. Themes in bold were the originally theoretically derived ones. Themes in italics emerged from the data. Themes marked with an asterix (*) spontaneously emerged from the discussion and were not specifically included in the interview schedule.

Interview Data – Findings

In this section the findings from the interviews which lead to modifications to scale content through amendment and addition of items are discussed. Firstly, a discussion of the antecedents leading to the rationale behind the addition of another variable into the framework is offered with reference to analysis of the interview data.

Antecedents

The aim behind the interview questions relating to the antecedents was to discern whether the antecedents raised in the literature were indeed of importance to the expatriates and if there was any other factor of major impact upon the performance of expatriate employees.

The *a priori* set themes to which text was coded were based upon the expatriate life-cycle and a number of control variables. The expatriate life-cycle nodes at the

highest level were selection, preparation and training, support (affective, informative, and practical), and career planning. Other variables which have been raised in the literature as influencing expatriate work outcomes and were focused upon during the interview text analysis were external social support, host language fluency, and personal attributes. The interviewees were only asked for factors that might have constrained performance, helped in work, and whether there had been social or organisational support that had helped them perform in their role. That is, the interviewees were not directed to talk specifically about the *a priori* set themes. The fact that a number of the themes were considerably expounded upon without direction lends weight to their importance in this domain.

There were a number of influences which did not appear to correspond well with the set themes and were coded as organisational inputs or lack of organisational support. The substantial number of words (5,733) coded to these two nodes mainly contained discussion on general organisational barriers to effective work. These barriers included (a) lack of sufficiently trained staff, (b) poorly developed organisational systems, and (c) political barriers. Many of the problems arose from the growth in the SAR economies and the sheer lack of local talent at both the blue and white collar levels as the following quotations convey.

> I was fairly surprised when they said "you're going to be promoted up". That's quite ironic. So…just because I've been so tired and so burnt out. We have a huge client load here. (Locally employed 27 year old female expatriate in Hong Kong.)

> Well, the problem is that most of the junior…we just lost probably about 15 of our juniors have gone in the last 3 or 4 months so we're working with about only 1 person who's had more than 10 years experience…10 months, sorry…10

> months experience. So it’s quite difficult….Gosh, I’m so tired! (Locally employed 27 year old female expatriate in Hong Kong)

Additional pressures were placed upon expatriates due to lack of mature organisational systems and poor project management. It appeared that organisations were so focused on the business of transacting and building the business that they did not have the time nor the resources to develop systematic policies, practices, values, or goals.

> The company I work for has grown too big, too quickly because of the economy. And you're going to lack in areas. Given a couple o’ years and they should have...it's been here 4 years. It's going to take six, seven, eight years to really get established for their business in Macau. (Locally hired 40 year old male expatriate in Macau.)

> This organisation's very Chinese - it's completely Chinese. They haven't...They've grown so quickly in such a short amount of time. You could say they don't have a company policy or procedure. They haven't got milestones, targets, goals. They haven't got a corporate ethos. They really haven't got anything. (Locally employed 48 year old male Australian in Macau.)

Political barriers and lack of attention by top management often resulted in a shortage of resources and difficult work environments.

> There were various political hurdles or stumbling blocks which I found as the job progressed in as much as certain people. Like the construction manager was very upset that a designer was brought in on the [themed structure]. There were

> minor threats made. There were very strong insults made.
> (61 year old male consultant hired in Macau.)

> So, there's a lot of pressure to move to Australian policies and protocols because we're now part of the Australia group, or the Australian [bank] as the reporting division, um, but we can't necessarily do it because it means we wouldn't be in alignment with local regulations and all that sort of stuff. So, it's just the politics around all that probably slows things down a little bit. And in my previous role…we didn't have the people down in the global area pushing for us.
> (Locally hired 39 year old male expatriate in Hong Kong)

Human Resource departments were often singled out as examples of immature systems. More seemed to be expected of human resource departments based upon the expatriate's knowledge of their function 'back home'. In fact, the one instance raised of a effective human resource program was of a program based and run from offshore.

> …our HR unit isn't very strong especially from an expat perspective. Because we've got a basis for comparison – they are useless. I say that confidentially. Their function is…I'm not sure what, to be honest. (Locally hired 27 year old female expatriate in Hong Kong)

> [Some of our managers] come from properties that have full blooded HR training departments, that go 'well, if you're going to train on anything here is a book of resources that you need'. Well, that's not here. You have to create that yourself. We have an HR department that's near on HR in name, it's not…
> (Locally hired 49 year old male expatriate in Macau)

Good teams and individual power, authority and mandates, on the other hand, seem to be the balancing factors that allow the expatriates to negate any barriers that might exist.

> [E]very time you are in a meeting or something everyone interacts with you well, and we can say “My God, what happened with that?” We get the work done because we all work well together and with other people, and also other people work well with you. (Locally hired 50 year old female expatriate in Macau)

> [T]he support from the organisation is...number one, I'm empowered to do what I'm doing. I've got my boss's support. I've got...leadership have approved...my first thing was leadership approved what was effectively US$1 million more money to hire 11 new people who are quite senior and that was salary costs plus operating costs. $1 million US. And that's a very strong statement. So that said, I've got a mandate. (Locally hired 47 year old male expatriate in Hong Kong.)

The barriers mentioned above, such as political hurdles, resource constraints, and inadequate organisational systems, may be found influencing all roles and are not specific to expatriate roles. The interviewees did not clearly offer any differentiator between expatriate and non-expatriate performance. Indeed, many respondents denied any difference. The only distinction which was repeatedly mentioned was that it was taken for granted that an expatriate could perform and therefore there is often a higher reliance on and expectation of performance from the expatriate. However, there are influences on performance that are clearly of relevance specifically to the expatriate employee. These factors are the focus of this study and the following analysis of the

expatriate life-cycle factors from the interviews returns the discussion to the hypothesised antecedents of expatriate performance.

The Career Commitment Variable

A major finding from the interview data was the suggestion that some expatriates may not require the traditional support mechanisms to perform at their best. Organisational support mechanisms and some personal attributes that may influence the attitudes and behaviour of expatriates on assignment are discussed in the following section. Received wisdom is that traditional support mechanisms are necessary prerequisites for adjustment and performance. However, many expatriates in the sample bring a sense of professionalism and exceptional levels of commitment to their role leaving behind positive benefits to their temporarily adopted community as well as to their organisations which is not explained by the level of support granted to them. The following section builds an argument for the inclusion of career commitment into the expatriate performance framework in an attempt to explain performance regardless of levels of support.

The following extracts from the interviews and analysis offers some detailed insight into what was actually on offer to expatriates on assignment and how it affected them. The lack of various types of support evidenced by the following discussion and extracts from the interviews is reflected in the statistics of the emergent and spontaneous nodes shown in Table 22. In many cases lack of support was discussed more readily than the existence of support as evidenced by the number of words coded for lack of organisational support (3,345 compared with 2,388 for its existence), lack of informational support (1,144 compared with 497) and lack of practical support (5,987 compared with 3,280). The lack of support is clearly not trivial to the expatriates. In many cases the respondents agreed that family, lack of mentors, archaic and difficult to navigate systems, long working hour norms, initial adjustment, lack of relocation

support, not knowing the next career step, a number of resource constraints, and organisational politics all impacted upon their job performance. However, in many cases identical factors were not seen to make a difference. The following section explores the antecedents in more detail by describing the state of affairs. The interpretation and explanation (Miles & Huberman, 1984) of the relationships between the antecedents and work outcomes is presented after the description and proposes that there might be some moderating factors not considered previously in the literature to explain the differing responses.

Selection

As also seen reported in the literature (De Cieri & Dowling, 1997), many expatriates found themselves in their position without much in the way of rigorous selection procedures being adopted. The selection processes adopted varied enormously.

The existence of appropriate technical skills held by the expatriate often seemed to be understood by the organisation to be a given in the selection process either due to the knowledge they already had about the expatriate in-house or through industry networks cultivated by the expatriate. Technical skills were deemed important, followed by the ability to communicate and relational skills as the first set of criteria in the list of requirements for selection, as the following quotations indicate.

> *Researcher*: Did they make it clear that it wasn't just your technical skills? It was also the way you handle people?
>
> *Expatriate:* Yep, definitely. Yeah, my personality and... When I came for an interview, yeah, they said that, yeah. And it's a big thing. Because, you have to be careful. No-one here, Chinese or Mecanese, they lose face. If they do something wrong, you don't chastise them in front of everybody. You pull them aside, pull them in the office, or whatever and ask them what happened. If you start yelling at someone in the [workplace] with everyone else around and they

> lose face and they take that very seriously. My personality, I don't do that anyway, so it works in my favour. (Locally hired 35 year old Australian male in Macau.)
>
> So, a lot of that is technical but…you know, but having said that regardless of how technical it is, you still at the end of the day with anything that you are doing, need to engage people to get…. so part of how we actually deliver that is through people having rapport and relationships and being able to communicate with everyone in the organisation. (35 year old male traditional assignee in Hong Kong.)
>
> So that's made up of various things: understanding the design and being able to technically translate that into something real. But also to communicate that to others…Yes, a lot of is, especially here, to do with communication. It is a big thing. (Locally hired 41 year old Australian male contractor in Macau.)

In reference to the method of selection, often the selection process was ad hoc, to the last minute, and very much based upon existing networks.

> So he said, "So I'm just here and we're picking … managers….We're all here and we've all got our own people to put forward to be … managers and if you're interested I'd like to put you forward as my person." And I said, "Well, look, this is really hard now because I'm two weeks into a new job." What made matters worse was that they'd actually designed this [current] job for me, really gone out of their way, and it was fabulous. This [expatriate job] was kind of the dream so I said, "When would I have to tell you by? When would it be necessary to give you my feedback?" He said, "Well, you're speaking to me

> now." I said, "You can't do that to me." I said, "You have to at least give me a few days." He said, "Alright." It was a Friday and he said he could give me until Monday. (Locally hired 50 year old Australian female in Macau.)

> Just got on the plane – in 3 days. I got a phone call. I was in the back garden renovating a house with friends. I knew this job was coming up. Got the phone call and popped on a plane. (Locally hired 41 year old Australian male in Macau.)

A couple of expatriates had developed such strong networks in the region and their industry that they could almost demand employment without going through a formal selection process.

> I just called them. I said, "I'm going to come over and work with you guys." I didn't ask them, I basically told them. They said "OK." I wanted the job, I was very aggressive about it and that was it. (61 year old male consultant hired in Macau)

> And the next day, I was pretty much unemployed. And I just...I've worked in the [X] business for 30 years so I've got a pretty good network. And I just made one phone call and I said, "Can you use me?" and he said, "When can you get here?" And I got here 5 months later in the position I'm in. So, no CV...I mean, I had to send one into the organisation but the job was already a handshake over the phone. (Locally hired 48 year old Australian male in Macau.)

As the above quotations indicate, the selection process was generally based upon technical expertise but often took into account communication and relational skills.

Selection was often ad hoc: It was not based upon a rigorous hiring process but relied upon existing networks and experience of working with the expatriate in previous positions.

Training

Given the time allowed for selection in many cases, it was not surprising that little attention was given to preparing or training expatriates for their roles. The more traditional corporate expatriates were often given access to cultural training but, for various reasons, mainly due to timing of their assignment or other commitments, they often were not able to avail themselves of the opportunity.

> When I left from Australia I had myself and my wife. We had 2 days with an external consultant who actually took us through the psychology of moving offshore… (39 year old male traditional expatriate in Hong Kong.)

> It's realising that culture is far more different than you think it is. And in my case I didn't receive any cultural awareness training before I came which is sad given I asked for it. (47 year old male traditional expatriate in Hong Kong.)

In most cases in less mature organisations, no training, be it cultural, work related or otherwise, was offered and most did not expect that it would be. Instead, they relied upon their own self-sufficiency, professionalism, and technical know-how

> *Expatriate*: Access to cultural training.
>
> *Researcher*: Reckon it would have helped?
>
> *Expatriate*: Na, I can find anything I need to know on the net, really. I can.
>
> (Locally employed 48 year old Australian male in Macau.)

> We were pretty much given a task and said run with this. If I hadn't have done it all before it would have been impossible. No one really had…, no one was training anyone, there was no nurturing, it was "Great! You're it. You're doing this." which was fair enough. That's what we came to do. (Locally employed 50 year old female Australian in Macau.)

This self-sufficiency became a recurrent theme. Indeed the relatively low word count of only 595 for preparation and training and 664 words for lack of preparation and training in comparison to other types of support seems to indicate a lack of salience of training to the expatriates interviewed.

On-going Support.

In the more mature corporate organisations there seemed to be a general acceptance of the need to help expatriates adjust to their new environment. Many interviewees offered instances of practical support for the move but more sophisticated levels of understanding of the needs of an expatriate were also evident. These included the use of outsourcing to offer support, information, and help with developing social networks.

> I've relocated more recently and the support to relocate both physically and, you know, all the logistical aspects has been nothing short of, you know, very positive, very positive so there's an outsource relationship we have with [a group] and so they've been very supportive. So, the sort of people policies that support that are fair, I'd say. … So, … they've looked after us well in relocating. They … as an expat they supply you with options for picking up a club membership. (35 year old male Australian expatriate supervisor in Hong Kong.)

> We had, um, we had a junk trip that was organised last Sunday, I think it was, and um, and so that was organised by one of the expat guys, which was great and we've agreed to do that every four weeks or six weeks; we'll just lock it in. And away we go. (35 year old male Australian expatriate supervisor in Hong Kong.)

At the other extreme, however, there were some expatriates who found little or no assistance to be forthcoming.

> *Researcher*: Do they have no expat-type policy here?
>
> *Expatriate*: Not that I'm aware of. There's a sort of decayed run down staff association which appears to be populated by Portuguese people. So, might have existed in the old days. (Locally employed 50 year old Australian male in Macau.)

> I think the thing there is that [the organisation] often do[es]n't know what is needed. And we've found that too. They haven't had the chance to work out the package and, and the thing that you give to people when they first arrive. (Locally employed 48 year old Australian male in Macau.)

> [T]his is my biggest challenge as an expat – a wife and a daughter and a new son who's just been born in the last 4 months, in a brand new place, completely different with no friends, no family, know what I mean? No infrastructure, no support network to help. That obviously has an impact on me (34 year old Australian male in Hong Kong)

Chinese-style organisations typically lacked mature HR support systems. In these situations support was reported to be offered to expatriates by individuals within the organisation rather than by the organisational system.

> There's a couple of people in management who really helped. One person, she's one of the directors in the company: without her, it would have been awful….Things like meeting you at ferries and at terminals and sorting out everything. And just asking if everything's OK. That's a help. She's been great. (Local employed 40 year old Australian male in Macau)

This support by individuals was particularly pertinent when it came to emotional, or affective, support relationships from within the organisation. This was evidenced by a total of 7,815 words on the theme. Often this type of support manifested itself in an understanding and acceptance of the way the expatriate operates.

> I do speak my mind and I do often tell my boss 'I think something's ridiculous'. I mean, I always tell him, I never sit on anything and the main reason that I tell them is that they will listen and they don't mind me saying 'it's ridiculous', 'it's a waste of my time' or whatever. (Locally employed 50 year old Australian female in Macau.)

> The other thing is that the new [manager] is a British person, an Anglophone person who has worked in Britain, Australia and Hong Kong and so I feel well understood because obviously this person is very well equipped to understand because I come from the same culture and I can speak in all sorts of nuances and be understood. (Locally employed 50 year old Australian male in Macau.)

External social support was seen to be important to most expatriates regardless of the levels of support offered by organisations. Again this was evidenced by 95% of the respondents referring to it and 3,214 words on the theme. Much of this support satisfied emotional and social needs and well as informational ones and allowed the expatriates to relax in an environment where the norms were well understood. Support from other expatriates appeared much more important for those newly arrived than for the “old hands”.

> And there are so many Australians as well in that office from ...Chinese. Just on our floor there's like 3 or 4. Here, that's on my floor. And we're the same background. Born in Hong Kong lived in Australia for x amount of years [came attached] to this organisation as well. We're finding the same things. That's why we've got a good chance to actually bounce ideas off each other when we talk about these things and we go oh, yes, it's so sad. (30 year old Chinese-Australian male expatriate in Hong Kong)

> It's ... ah…like...partners and things like that from people working here have been great for my partner. You know, picked her up and taken her here and shown her this shop, that shop. All of that stuff's been sensational. (Locally employed 48 year old Australian male in Macau.)

Due to various barriers it is often difficult to obtain assistance from the locals and expatriate networks appear to fill those gaps.

> The local people don't volunteer very much to the foreign people, they don't reveal much and on those occasions where you do come face to face, it's all - there's this huge mask of courtesy and formality getting in the way. (Locally employed 50 year old Australian male in Macau.)

Although the above levels of organisational support do not seem to offer much hope for the ongoing development of expatriates when the organisations are not coping well with their immediate needs, there still exists some evidence of systemic support for employees in mature organisations that appear to be moving in an appropriate direction. There was one example of home policy being extrapolated and possibly more broadly effective within a global context. In one Australian subsidiary there was a process of performance assessment which only allowed for performance outcomes to be assessed once behavioural hurdles had been achieved. This had translated into better corporate recognition of appropriate and non-appropriate behaviours regarding internal and external relationships which allowed for questioning of behaviours by employees at all levels of the organisation. This had raised the importance of appropriate behaviours in cross-cultural situations. In the context of an offshore office the program offered the impetus for expatriates to be more aware of their behaviours and to initiate conversations with their local colleagues as to what types of communication were appropriate. The questioning and discussion in and of itself raised the level of communication and appreciation of the differences by both sides. This was a small but crucial first step towards developing a system of emotional and informative support for all employees as well as expatriates.

Within the more mature organisations, policies and procedures to support and assist expatriates and their families appeared to be in place but in the less mature ones there was a general lack of support, particularly amongst the new and fast growing organisations and the Chinese managed ones. However, there was also evidence from the interviewees that more support would be appreciated but in many cases they neither expected nor needed it. Much of the literature suggests that these support mechanisms are necessary for adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991a), performance (Hechanova et

al., 2003; Hochwarter, Witt, Treadway, & Ferris, 2006), commitment (Naumann, 1993), and other assignment outcomes (Birdseye & Hill, 1995; Naumann, 1992). Paradoxically, it may be that a certain level of cross-cultural stress (Thomas & Lazarova, 2005) may enhance performance and the understanding of the community in which the expatriate works. It certainly appears from the interviews conducted for this research that organisational support or adjustment to the new cultural environment is not always a prerequisite for performance as an expatriate. There are some expatriates who appear to manage well without organisational support. The main question raised by these interviews is what characteristics allow some expatriates to work regardless of the level of support offered.

Overcoming lack of support

This section considers some personal attributes that may influence the attitudes and behaviour of expatriates on assignment. Career commitment is suggested here as a potential moderating variable to try to shed some light on findings from interviews which have been inconsistent with existing frameworks linking support mechanisms with expatriate performance and assignment outcomes. The suggestion is that some expatriates do not require the traditional support mechanisms to perform at their best. Research on commitment goes some way to explain this as it acknowledges the importance of adversity. It is suggested that commitment can only exist after it has been tested through adversity (Lydon & Zanna, 1990 citing earlier authors). Such expatriates perform well and show exceptional levels of commitment to their role, often in spite of adversity.

The expatriates do not seem to show any doubt in their ability to complete tasks irrespective of the level of support offered. On the contrary, when under adversity the commitment to their work pursuits became clearly observable, as is suggested by Lydon and Zanna (1990) in their discussion on commitment. These authors reasoned that

commitment to work pursuits is due to that pursuit being valued as fundamental to self-identity. Career commitment which comprises “one’s attitude toward one’s vocation” (Blau, 1988, p.295) or “one’s motivation to work in a chosen vocation” (Carson & Bedeian, 1994, p.240) is the variable of interest chosen as pertinent here. This link between working under adversity and commitment to the career as an aspect of self is evident in the following interviewee comments.

> I would still perform particularly well irrespective of whether they supplied that [information] or not. I wouldn't allow their lack of ability to show me good stuff to impact on my work performance. (Locally employed 48 year old Australian male in Macau.)

> No, I don't need any of that. Information about the role duties - I didn't have any of that. It's not important…. I actually came thinking I can do whatever they ask me to do. It doesn't matter, I'll do it. So I didn't really need to know about the role. (Locally employed 48 year old Australian male in Macau.)

> The organisation; I don't rely on the organisation. I sort of look at it as... no, no, I'm pretty independent and strong. (Locally employed 48 year old Australian male in Macau.)

There is a sense of self-sufficiency, purpose, identity, and utter professionalism that comes from these individuals. They seem to survive, precisely because they are left alone to do what they do best.

> It's actually a great way to work. It's “This is what we'd like you to do.” In simple terms, no more than a sentence or two, and we don't really care how you

> do it which is exactly how I like to work. (Locally employed 48 year old expatriate male in Macau.)
>
> *Expatriate*: But those people who have stuck by the company have developed to cope with all sorts of different scenarios that are thrown at them. And that's why they've got the good people they have because they stick by the company. There's a loyalty to the company within the group.
> *Researcher*: For the life of me I can't work out why.
> *Expatriate*: It's a madness. It's a madness. I think it's because the company gives us some freedom. We've got the respect to be left alone to make those decisions, to do what we do. You don't get too many people coming down screaming at you. You get left alone, but you feel like you are out there on your own. (Locally employed 41 year old Australian male in Macau.)

There are various forms of adversity and the lack of the various types of support discussed in previous sections is but one example. The general economic and institutional environments create other types of adversity. For the most part, Hong Kong was seen to be an easy location for expatriates. Organisational support was manifest in human resource policies and procedures, and Hong Kong itself is set up to cater for expatriates as a result of the legacy of the British Colonials.

> I think all the expats are pretty comfortable in terms of, you know, their social network being other expats. So Hong Kong's, you know, it's so easy to sort of, you know, to set up and start afresh. It's almost too easy. (35 year old Australian male supervisor of expatriates in Hong Kong)

> I mean, Hong Kong, for me Hong Kong, I've sort of worked in London, Glasgow, spent a bit of time in New York, but Hong Kong is probably as easy, if not easier than most. (35 year old Australian male supervisor of expatriates in Hong Kong)

Although the opportunity was available to expatriates in both locations, hiring of a maid (Ah Ma) was raised three times in interviews in Hong Kong whereas it was not mentioned in Macau. This might suggest that those under greater levels of adversity and who have high career commitment do not consider support to be an important influence upon their working life.

> One of the big benefits in Hong Kong… is that you have an Ah Ma. …We've got an Ah Ma, a full time Ah Ma at home who assists us, you know, helps around the house and all that sort of stuff which is great. But it actually gives us the ability to, um, be a couple and do things spontaneously rather than having to plan everything up in front. And, I think, for us, going back to Australia, that'll probably be the biggest adjustment that we have. That some of that spontaneity, we'll lose that. And the fact that, you know, the ironing still needs to be done and all that sort of stuff. (39 year old male Australian expatriate in Hong Kong.)

Macau was viewed as having many difficulties caused by the bureaucratic and institutional culture which were often seen as inefficient, illogical, and wasteful. These difficulties were perceived to exist both in the wider community and within the organisations in which the expatriates worked.

> And then, two weeks before I actually arrived, the clumsiness and ignorance of the administration starts to be felt. (Locally employed 50 year old Australian male in Macau.)

> Both [the quality of the product and the quality of the service]. Both. Because, even though, like, you might get some fresh salad vegetables and stuff straight out through Hong Kong, they arrive at midnight on Wednesday, they pick them up, put them into cold storage Thursday morning, they go to the wharf, they go on a barge in a fridge but when they get into Macau after 9 hours you don't know how long they sit on the wharf for….Your rocket looks like rubbish. So they're the things, but Macau at the moment doesn't have anybody or the infrastructure to do that. (Locally employed 35 year old Australian male in Macau.)

> That's part of the bullshit that happens in Macau, because my license ran out on the 12th April. I went into get my new licence. I don't carry my Australia license around with me all the time - I leave it in my drawer at home: what do I need it for? So, I said to my wife just grab my passport, I don't need my license, rah rah. So, we went there I had my passport. I had my paper license that was expiring on that day and they said that I still needed my Australian drivers' license. I mean, I got my blue card [work permit], I got my license, I got my passport, you've got it all on file but I've still got to go and show the little plastic card! Ridiculous [with emphasis]. Ridiculous! (Locally employed 35 year old Australian male in Macau.)

The expatriates were asked how they coped with these frustrations and many explained their resilience by reference to their personal attributes. Many of these accord

with those listed by Suutari in his qualitative study on global managers (2003): humbleness, flexibility, patience and self-confidence.

> Ah, patience. Um… Being absolutely, yeah, patience because the, the, the sort of depth of [the local] talent probably doesn't [make it easy to communicate]… you do come into the cultural barriers of language. (35 year old male Australian expatriate supervisor in Hong Kong.)
>
> Patience…I just… you have to be so patient. You try to explain something to a person who has no idea what they're doing. And even knowing that you've explained it to them you know they're going to do it the wrong way 3 times before they get the idea. You have to be very, very patient. And I think that's a good thing – to be very patient. (Locally employed 41 year old Australian male in Macau)
>
> A sense of humour. *[laughter]* (Locally employed 49 year old Australian male expatriate supervisor in Macau)
>
> I went to the bar the other day […] I'm absolutely amazed how many people I know here. I've probably worked in more [organisations in the industry] in Australia than anyone else, than anyone else. And at [the bar], I reckon there were 70 people standing in there and I went round body by body and I reckon I knew about 58 of them. Not knew them, worked with them in so many different properties, some people more than three different properties. So, in terms of network, I've got a great network (Locally employed 48 year old Australian male in Macau.)

I'm pretty independent and strong. (Locally employed Australian in Macau.)

Researcher: If you had had to [make effort to adjust], would that have impacted [on your performance]?

Expatriate: No, I would have just done what I needed to do. I would have just organised things. I had to make an effort to get [my wife] here so I just did it. It didn't really see it as an effort, it just had to be done. (Locally employed 48 year old Australian male in Macau.)

If you're going to show any stress and not be in control all the time you are not going to be doing you job properly. (Locally employed 50 year old Australian female in Macau.)

Ah, well, number one has to be adaptability. And I am very adaptable. (Locally employed 50 year old Australian female in Macau.)

First and foremost I think it is being just very tenacious, I think that's the first....and being able to improvise. (50 year old male Australian contractor in Macau.)

The requirement for patience is indeed a recurring theme in the Chinese context both in these data and within a study by Sergeant and Frenkel (1998) where the authors looked at the difficulties experienced by expatriates. A number of expatriates amongst the 27 interviewed in that study raised patience and the ability to communicate as important when managing Chinese staff. In most cases in the current SARs expatriate

study the personality characteristics raised were internal mechanisms used to help the expatriate deal with frustrations and enable the work effort to continue.

These individuals appear to be committed to their careers and have the resilience to deal with adversity (Carless, 2005) due to that personal identification with what they are and what they do. Perhaps adversity brings out the best in those people who have internal coping mechanisms or internal reservoirs of strength to overcome the lack of support by their organisations, or lack of adjustment as has been suggested by Thomas and Inkson (1985). But whatever personal characteristic it is that allows them to perform and value their experience enough to stay with job and enjoy the experience, it suggests the traditionally accepted model of 'support and they shall succeed' (Di Marco, 1974; Kraimer et al., 2001; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1988; Thomas & Lazarova, 2005) may not hold true for all expatriates.

Career commitment is to be understood in the context of individual characteristics, career decisions and behaviours, and situational conditions (London, 1983). Each of these reflects how central one's career is to one's identity, the realistic perceptions of self and the organisation, and resilience to unfavourable conditions in the work and career environment (Carson & Bedeian, 1994; London, 1983). The coding revealed that the interviewees discussed the importance of each of these three dimensions: (a) their sense of identity with their role and profession and which underpin reasons for their commitment to the role; (b) personal factors in their job such as patience, humour, strength, organisation, tenacity, and adaptability; and of greatest relevance to the sample was c) the resilience in face of difficulties inherent in the situation. All of these factors are integral to the definition and identification of career commitment. Career commitment was therefore added to the expatriate performance framework to explore whether it helped explain variance in performance, particular taking into account lack of organisational support mechanisms.

The role of career commitment proposed here is similar to that in the theoretical model of expatriate turnover developed by Naumann (1992). In Naumann's model attitudes such as commitment intervene between three predictor variables (job/task characteristics, organisation characteristics, and worker characterstics) and outcome variables such as turnover and performance. The difference in the perspectives is that whereas in Naumann's conceptualisation commitment is proposed to be an outcome variable which subsequently leads to performance, the role of career commitment suggested here is to modify the relationship between support mechanisms and performance. This is because variation in the degree of commitment to one's career is not reliant upon factors specific to the organisation to the same extent as is organisational commitment (Blau, 1985). Thus moderation, rather than mediation, is the appropriate intervening mechanism to test.

Hypothesis 7a Career commitment moderates the relationship between practical support and performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and management/administration (8).

Hypothesis 7b Career commitment moderates the relationship between informative support and performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and management/administration (8).

Hypothesis 7c Career commitment moderates the relationship between affective support and performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency

(1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and management/administration (8).

Hypothesis 7d Career commitment moderates the relationship between training and performance outcomes: Job specific task proficiency (1), Non-job specific task proficiency (2), Written and oral communication (3), Demonstrating effort (4), Maintaining Personal Discipline (5), Facilitating peer and team performance (6), Supervision/leadership (7), and management/administration (8).

Expatriate Performance Scale Item Generation

A major aim of the interviews was to discern whether the content of the performance items generated for the performance scale was relevant to the sample and to detect whether there was any content from the domain that might be missing. To this effect, text was coded to nodes corresponding to Campbell's eight performance components (1990). The content of the text was then further analysed with the existing items in mind. Any text content that was not represented by existing items was then reviewed to see if the themes represented were recurring and suggestive of additional item generation.

Evidence is offered in Table 23 to show that each item generated for the performance scale has some justification for its existence. The lowest number of words coded to any one item was 60 for item 30 (argue effectively for own position when appropriate). On average the content of each performance item was mentioned by seven interviewees for a word count of 683. Considering that the interviewees were not questioned on the content of specific items -only on the general topic- and that these

themes arose spontaneously, this is good evidence that the content is relevant to the expatriates in the sample.

Table 23

Performance components and item content coded from interview responses

Performance components and items	Number (and %) of respondents	Frequency	Density - Number of words coded
1. Job-specific task performance			
Demonstrate Technical expertise (1)	6 (30%)	11	712
Meet specific job responsibilities (7)	3 (15%)	4	83
Meet formal performance requirements of the job (10)	6 (30%)	8	269
Fulfill the responsibilities defined in the job description (27)	6 (30%)	7	315
Meet the job objectives (29)	7 (35%)	8	397
Complete assigned duties (34)	5 (20%)	7	197
2. Non-job specific task performance			
Perform tasks that are expected of him/her but are not specific to the job (2)	8 (40%)	9	605
Show proficiency in general tasks expected of all employees at this level (6)	4 (20%)	5	429

(table continues)

Table 23 (continued)

Performance components and item content coded from interview responses

Performance components and items	Number (and %) of respondents	Frequency	Density - Number of words coded
Represent the company positively to others not in the organisation (23)	3 (15%)	3	266
Show proficiency in financial, quantitative and other types of analysis common to employees at his level (25)	2 (10%)	2	106
*Effectively manage risk (including financial and occupational health and safety) (45)	4 (20%)	5	458
*Effectively develop and maintain relationships beyond your immediate team and colleagues (48)	12 (60%)	25	2,191
3. Communication			
Effectively inform leaders, team-mates and direct reports (3)	9 (40%)	13	946
Effectively convey ideas verbally (5)	13 (65%)	19	1,262

(table continues)

Table 23 (continued)

Performance components and item content coded from interview responses

Performance components and items	Number (and %) of respondents	Frequency	Density - Number of words coded
Effectively convey ideas in writing (13)	15 (75%)	18	1,074
Present own position clearly and decisively (28)	3 (15%)	3	142
Argue effectively for own position when appropriate (30)	1 (5%)	1	60
Persuade others to accept ideas (38)	6 (30%)	8	604
*Have effective communicative exchanges (43)	5 (25%)	7	650
4. Demonstrating effort			
Show dedication to the organisational goals (4)	2 (10%)	2	139
Persevere when times are tough (15)	6 (30%)	7	562
Volunteer to carry out tasks that are not formally part of his/her own job (16)	8 (40%)	10	859
Consistently meet deadlines (18)	10 (50%)	14	728

(table continues)

Table 23 (continued)

Performance components and item content coded from interview responses

Performance components and items	Number (and %) of respondents	Frequency	Density - Number of words coded
Volunteer to do additional tasks for the organisation (32)	4 (20%)	4	259
Persist to reach goals (35)	10 (50%)	13	1,042
*Consistently demonstrate effort (46)	3 (15%)	3	257
5. Maintain self-discipline			
Comply with organisational values and policies (11)	4 (20%)	7	561
Follow regulations and respect authority (19)	4 (20%)	6	495
Have appropriate ways to alleviate stress (22)	5 (25%)	5	263
Appropriately vent frustrations (26)	5 (25%)	7	326
Refrain from complaining about insignificant things (36)	2 (10%)	3	371
Act appropriately even under stress (42)	11 (55%)	15	1,414
6. Facilitating peer and team performance			

(table continues)

Table 23 (continued)

Performance components and item content coded from interview responses

Performance components and items	Number (and %) of respondents	Frequency	Density - Number of words coded
His/her activities support the team's goals (14)	7 (35%)	9	1,073
Maintain good working relationships (20)	10 (50%)	15	1,347
Encourage and foster cooperation among team members (21)	11 (55%)	12	862
Facilitate peer and team performance (37)	4 (20%)	6	416
Do things to help and support his or her teammates (39)	6 (30%)	8	877
7. Supervision and leadership			
Model appropriate behaviours (8)	6 (30%)	6	872
Ensure that subordinates receive proper development (9)	9 (45%)	12	1,097
Influence subordinates to achieve goals set for them (17)	12 (60%)	16	1,436
Display a personal concern for direct reports (31)	9 (45%)	10	918
Teach and coach direct reports (40)	8 (40%)	12	1,079

(table continues)

Table 23 (continued)

Performance components and item content coded from interview responses

Performance components and items	Number (and %) of respondents	Frequency	Density - Number of words coded
8. Management and administration			
Make appropriate decisions when problems occur (12)	4 (20%)	6	252
Organise and control utilisation of human resources (24)	10 (50%)	15	1,187
Plan, program and organise work (33)	14 (70%)	22	1,540
Organise and control utilisation of non-human resources (41)	7 (35%)	7	401
*Undertake administrative duties (44)	3 (15%)	4	466
*Manage the utilisation of time (47)	8 (40%)	11	921

Note. Items marked with an asterix (*) were developed for the performance scale based upon content analysis of the interview data. Numbers in parenthesis next to the items refer to the item number.

During the content analysis of the interview data, there were a number of themes that emerged that were not covered by the existing items. These emergent themes were coded to new nodes and then items for the scale were developed from their content. These items are indicated by an asterix in Table 23.

Under the non-specific task performance component items 45 (effectively manage risk) and 48 (effectively develop and maintain relationships beyond your

immediate team and colleagues) were added. Risk minimisation was mentioned by four respondents. Three of these were in financial services and thus concerned for compliance issues and the other was in a construction related industry and thus concerned for risk to life. The following quotes graphically describe the environment.

> To see what goes on here, it's just scary. We've lost…someone's died on our job. And we would pull out our hair trying to stop them doing stupid things all the time. I'm surprised there weren't more accidents. Every time I'd get there to work in the morning, they'd put power leads through water, they don't have any initiative. (Locally hired 41 year old male expatriate in Macau)

> So all those things should be completed before an engagement's accepted or before we recur and do it another…each year we have to assess is this job risky? Do we know the directors? Is there any money laundering involved? All those kind of…we've got to consider all those things each year. And if those things aren't done – we do quality reviews – and if I get a black mark against my name because of "Gee, we've looked at 3 of [X's] jobs and all 3 of them don't have "frisks" completed." Well, that would be bad. (34 year old male seconded expatriate in Hong Kong)

The second item to be added (number 48) had a large body of text coded to the theme (2,191 words and mentioned by 60% of the respondents). It was by far the most frequently recurring theme and was thus a clear omission from the generated items. The expatriates talked of the importance of client and community relationships. Some linked the necessity of this type of relationship building to corporate social responsibility which is gradually becoming an important topic in the SARs business world. Also

mentioned were the links back to Australia and expatriates acting as a bridge between the local staff and the Australian based networks. Others linked relationships to trust and emphasized the need for building trust within the Chinese work environment particularly in order to sell business.

> Particularly here because the Chinese work on that basis. If they trust you you're OK, if they don't you may as well go home. (Locally employed 53 year old male expatriate in Macau.)

Building relationships at the top of the hierarchy is also important for promotion and career aspirations.

> [T]he only thing that just comes to mind is the way that we interact with other people within the firm, the clients and partners especially. In the end our partners are the ones who promote us and they decide how much we get paid. (Locally employed 28 year old male Chinese-Australian expatriate in Hong Kong)

There was a concern for the moral hazard involved in shorter term assignments. There is very little risk to the performance assessment of individual expatriates of not building relationships with clients and other stakeholders. There was a lack of incentive to build those relationships because they take some time to come to fruition.

> Because I think they are very conscious too that I'm here for a finite period and it's short and…business development meaning going out and winning new work. It's premised on the fact that you have relationships and networks and all that kind of stuff. And, in my home office I can say that, gee, I think I knew every CFO and CEO in Brisbane. Hong Kong? Oh, no. So, it was easy. In Hong Kong that's more of a challenge and that means I'm still relatively new in building in-

> depth relationships here. So, I think business development is something that in a normal sense I would not get measured on as every other fee manager here. In some respects I'm nearly, nearly perhaps excused a little bit. (Seconded 34 year old male Australian in Hong Kong)

Relationships between peers and with subordinates had already been included in the previously generated list of items but the range of relationships mentioned in the interviews had not been allowed for. Item 48 was thus developed to cover the effective development and maintenance of relationships beyond the immediate team and colleagues.

Under the communication performance component item 43 (have effective communicative exchanges) was added as the existing communication items were mono-directional. The original items spoke of only the expatriate informing, conveying, presenting, arguing, and persuading and not of the management of a communicative exchange between two or more people. Listening skills were important for some respondents.

> Very important. Very important. You have to be able to communicate what you're writing through emails and also through to clients. But more importantly you have to be able to convey your message and understand initial orders from our client, what the clients want. Listening skills are very vital. Sometimes it's hit and miss, especially when I first came back. That was a challenge in itself because they expect… I can speak Cantonese relatively well on a social level, but once it gets technical I'm pretty much lost and confused as to what they actually want. And its more often than not the misinterpretations of what they actually need us to do... (30 year old Chinese-Australian male locally hired in Hong Kong.)

Adjusting to the mode of communication necessary was an issue for others.

> And sometimes I can almost feel the senior pommy partners looking down their noses a little bit. But, the British or colonial element here is still, maybe still a bit true and they're still the real…and I think that's har[k]ing back to the whole class structure in the UK and some of the old history of the clients…some are very formal and very stuffy and very…Whereas, I come from an environment, particularly in the audit sector where I told it as it was. I wasn't going to beat around the bush about it. "This doesn't work or this is not right, we really should try to do something about it." Where here I'm a bit more selective about which words I choose for rapport. I've always got to make things sound positive. It could be a complete disaster but "management are working really well to improve the…and it's moving forward". (Seconded 34 year old Australian male to Hong Kong)

Management of communication between a number of people was also seen to be an important job component particularly when there were multiple teams and multiple countries involved.

> [I]f you're not keeping the communication with the local teams and the teams across the region and then the teams back to Australia, then you're not really achieving your job so it will actually come out in the actual appraisal. (Locally hired 39 year old male expatriate in Hong Kong.)

Under the demonstration of effort component a consistency of effort was not originally included amongst the generated items. Although not greatly covered in the expatriate interviews it was clear that many expatriates did demonstrate consistent effort and were aware of the requirement for it. As one example of this, in response to a

question regarding defective fun fair equipment which caused an accident in which four people were hurt, one expatriate responded as follows.

> It's all been investigated and gone though safety inspections and everything. I'm confident now but I don't trust anybody still because they'll get complacent. I go down there everyday and do little things even though the people who are meant to be doing it aren't doing it. Little things, not safety issues. General maintenance. It's all documented to tell them what to do but you go down there and no-one's monitoring, no-one's looking after it. (Locally hired 41 year old Australian male in Macau.)

An additional item (number 46, consistently demonstrate effort) was added to cover the consistency aspect of effort.

The last item to be included based upon the interview content analysis was item 44 (undertake administrative duties). To a certain extent administrative duties appeared to be a "necessary evil" and did not rate highly in terms of quantity of content in the interviews. However, administrative duties were seen as crucial and deserved inclusion in the list of items.

> Because we send reports to America every night. And if there is anything wrong with the report that goes to America we're in a bad light. Just down to the very fine detail, you know, if the negative figures aren't in red. You know, like, really pedantic stuff. The ones that go to America have to be spot on. (Locally hired 56 year old expatriate female in Hong Kong)

> I need staff; budgeting for the jobs; making sure that I can do it; making sure that we're billing for the work and collecting cash, so, it's all…I mean, right down to…I suppose I'm…the next person I'm below is the partner so you sort

of feel like you become responsible for everything really. (Seconded 34 year old male expatriate in Hong Kong)

Thus, with the inclusion of an additional six items drawn from the content of the interview data analysis, the performance scale consisted of 48 items which were then administered as question 36 in a questionnaire to expatriates and their supervisors in the SARs.

Survey Final Administration: Reliability and Validity Analysis

Sample

As detailed in chapter 3, a purposive sampling technique (Kemper et al., 2003) was utilised to access Australian expatriates and their supervisors for the questionnaire. Convenience sampling together with opportunistic and snowballing techniques were used to increase the coverage of the population and sample size. The Australian Chamber of Commerce and Australian Association were selected for access to expatriates through member representatives in the case of the former and directly to members in the latter. Other organisations known to have Australians working for them and individuals were then approached based upon personal contacts made during the data collation period.

Given much of the literature, a sample size of 106 appears minimally sufficient for factor analysis. Arthur and Bennett state, this is "part of the challenge of doing international management research" (Arthur & Bennett, 1995). Sample size is constrained by the practicalities of the applied situation along with the requirements of correlation estimates (Arrindell & van der Ende, 1985; Zwick & Velicer, 1986). Earlier discussion in chapter 3 regarding the data collection environment and the requirements of regression analysis suggest that a sample of 88 given the variables under study is sufficient and justifiable. There are various guidelines in the literature with very little agreement as to what constitutes an appropriately sized sample for factor analysis

(Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999; Hogarty, Hines, Kromrey, Ferron, & R., 2005; MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong, 1999). Three hundred cases is said to be a comfortable level (Ferguson & Cox, 1993; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) and particularly so when mean factor loadings on each extracted factor is low (at less than .60) (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988) but that smaller sample sizes should be adequate if there are several item loadings above .80. The latter was the case found in the first rotated component matrix produced in the following factor analysis for this expatriate study, which is one indication that the profile of the data will allow for a smaller sample size.

Some authors have advocated advocate "rules of thumb" with a minimum number of cases for each item in the analysis with variations from four (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1992) and five (Hair et al., 1998) to ten or even 20 cases per item (see Hogarty et al., 2005). However, it depends upon the methods used to decide on the number of components to retain and upon the profile of the data set as to what sample size is required. In Zwick and Velicer's (1986) study comparing decision techniques used to retain components in principal components analysis (PCA) the authors were able to offer evidence that with a reasonably high level of saturation (.80 loadings) even a small data set of 72 cases and 36 variables could be accurately factor analysed to the correct number of components and item loadings. These findings replicated earlier ones: In a study utilising two large data sets of 491 and 1,198 participants to investigate the sample size question for factor analysis using two different personality scales, Barrett and Kline 1981 (cited in MacCallum et al., 1999) suggested that sub-samples of 48 and 112 obtain a good recovery of population loadings with case to item ratios of 3 and 1.2 respectively; Arrindell and van der Ende (1985) also had similar findings with various sample sizes down to 26. Sample sizes of 78 and above for 20 items (3.9 cases to variable) and samples sizes of 100 and above for 76 items (1.3 cases to variable)

showed neither sample size nor ratio of sample size to variable had any great effect on achieving the same factorial solution as the population (cited in MacCallum et al., 1999).

Further, suitability of the sample size depends upon the stability of the outcomes of factor analysis across various extraction techniques and types of rotation employed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). There is evidence that this SARs data set is relatively stable across techniques (discussed in detail following) and that there exist a good number of factor loadings above .55 which is a conservative level at which the loading can be deemed statistically significant for a sample size of 100, at a power level of 80 and .05 significance (Hair et al., 1998).

Further evidence to support the appropriateness of sample size of 106 for factor analysis is available from MacCallum and colleagues (1999) Monte Carlo study in which they examined 3,600 cases of factorial solutions where convergence between the population and sample factor solutions were analysed. The Monte Carlo study controlled for number of variables (p = 20 or 10), number of factors (r = 3 or 7), level of communality (high at .6, .7 and .8; wide between .2 and .8; low at .2, .3 and .4) and sample size (n = 60, 100, 200, and 400). The level of communality was found to have the largest effect with the estimated proportion of variance accounted for in the population of .41, followed by sample size (.15), and then the variable to factor ratio (.11). Additionally, for any combination of variable to factor ratio the effect of sample size was negligible for matrices with a high communality level (MacCallum et al., 1999). The findings from Hogarty et al's (2005) Monte Carlo study comprising 10,000 matrices where sample size, communality level, number of factors, and overdetermination were manipulated provide further evidence that it is when communalities are low that sample size matters. As can be seen from Table 24 the communalities in the expatriate data set are high with an average of .73, which supports

the position that a sample size of approximately 100 cases for data of this profile is sufficient for factor analysis (MacCallum et al., 1999) as it is for regression analysis. Even a sample size of 60 was shown to yield acceptable convergence of factor solution (100 percent) between the population and the sample under the condition of high communality which suggests that communality holds "the critical role" (MacCallum et al., p.95).

Table 24

Communalities of performance items

Item	Extraction	Item	Extraction	Item	Extraction
47	0.85	7	0.76	21	0.70
16	0.84	19	0.74	25	0.69
32	0.84	37	0.74	30	0.69
33	0.83	13	0.73	34	0.69
27	0.83	17	0.73	45	0.69
29	0.82	26	0.73	38	0.68
20	0.81	18	0.72	12	0.68
24	0.81	2	0.72	42	0.66
35	0.80	36	0.72	43	0.65
28	0.80	44	0.72	41	0.65
40	0.79	9	0.71	1	0.64
11	0.79	4	0.71	46	0.62
10	0.78	14	0.71	48	0.61
31	0.77	39	0.71	6	0.61
5	0.77	3	0.71	22	0.60
23	0.76	15	0.71	8	0.50

Note: Extraction method is Principal Components Analysis components extracted using the eigenvalues greater than one rule.

MacCallum and colleagues' article (1999) makes an important contribution in offering an explanation for the discrepant advice given to researchers as to what sample size is sufficient for factor analysis. This holds for whether the advice is based upon an absolute number of cases or a ratio of cases to variables (items) measured. Underlying the variability in advice is the variability in the data sets themselves: the "rules of thumb" are contingent upon an understanding of the profile of the data set. It is not, of course, often possible to determine the number of factors or the communalities inherent in the data at the outset and thus the general advice offered in the literature is cautious and prudent (Henson & Roberts, 2006). However, based upon MacCallum and colleagues' findings it is acceptable to judge the adequacy of the sample size post hoc (Henson & Roberts, 2006; MacCallum et al.). Sample size is a matter of the most appropriate techniques being used for the circumstances of each study (MacCallum et al.; Zwick & Velicer, 1986), and "rules of thumb" are now making way for evidence based standards (Nasser, Benson, & Wisenbaker, 2002) leading to robust factorial structures and inferential clarity (Sapnas, 2004).

Methods of Analysis

Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was chosen to assist in the determination of construct validity and to attempt to reduce the data to the hypothesised latent variables. It is the method particularly suited to scale development (DeVellis, 2003; Hurley et al., 1997; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). SPSS Version 15 was used to analyse the data in this expatriate study. Prior to analysis the data were screened for compliance with the assumptions of normality and the existence of any outliers. Although confirmatory factor analysis requires multivariate normality ("the sum of the variables conforms to the normal curve" [Ferguson & Cox, 1993, p.86]) and all other variables in this research have been tested for this normality assumption based upon scale scores, Ferguson and

Cox have stated that when conducting exploratory factor analysis it is assumed that each variable, or item, rather than the scale conforms to the normal distribution curve. It is highly unlikely, however, that with perceptual/attitudinal measures, conformity on each and every item will be achieved entirely and thus Ferguson and Cox have offered guidelines as to what is acceptable. Based on the work by Muthan and Kaplan (1985) they first suggest that the magnitude of skew and kurtosis at a level of greater than +/- 2.0 could be problematic when it occurs in more than 25% of the variables. None of the 48 variables exhibited either skew or kurtosis to that degree (see Table 25) and thus it was determined that the data conformed to the assumption of normality for the purposes of factor analysis.

Table 25

Performance items: degree of skew and kurtosis

item	Skew	Kurtosis	item	Skew	Kurtosis	item	Skew	Kurtosis
1	-0.26	0.56	17	-0.27	0.49	33	-0.17	-0.59
2	-0.68	1.75	18	-0.36	-0.50	34	-0.19	-0.56
3	-0.82	2.30	19	-0.36	-0.45	35	-0.32	-0.23
4	-0.46	0.11	20	-0.45	-0.07	36	-0.06	-0.82
5	-0.43	-0.13	21	-0.18	-0.33	37	-0.42	1.10
6	-0.36	0.14	22	0.05	-0.55	38	0.02	-0.77
7	-0.12	-0.63	23	-1.12	1.54	39	0.01	-0.38
8	-0.31	-0.11	24	-0.69	1.00	40	0.00	-0.40
9	-0.07	0.15	25	-0.95	0.82	41	-0.11	0.87
10	-0.46	0.07	26	-0.09	-0.04	42	0.01	-0.60
11	-0.48	-0.18	27	-0.08	-0.68	43	0.02	-0.50
12	-0.80	2.29	28	-0.02	-0.61	44	-0.59	0.76
13	-0.28	-0.38	29	-0.12	-0.51	45	-0.63	1.04
14	-0.41	0.45	30	-0.53	0.80	46	-0.67	1.30
15	-0.33	-0.26	31	-0.39	0.11	47	-0.30	-0.53
16	-0.57	0.59	32	-0.46	0.04	48	-0.40	0.12

A number of outliers were found in the data utilising the *z*-score criteria in excess of ±3.29 ($p < .001$) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). All data were retained as suggested by Hair and colleagues (1998) but with amendments to the individual item scores. Cases 33, 36, 52, and 85 required amendments to a number of performance items as detailed in Table 26. The *z*-scores were used to firstly check the existence of the outliers and then to calculate the new item score. As recommended by Tharenou et al. (2007) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) the scores were changed to one unit larger (or smaller) than the next extreme case. As all outliers were extreme low scores, the next lowest z-score was ascertained and .01 was subtracted from it. The *z*-score, the mean and the standard deviation were then used to calculate the item score for amendment in the data matrix. The *z*-scores, rather than the item scores, were used for calculation purposes because the unit measure of a single item score was too large (1) and would have created either distortions in the data matrix or no change to the item score.

Table 26

Performance item outlier amendments

Item	case	Extreme *z* score	Next lowest z score	Amended *z* score	mean	SD	Amended item score
per3	case36	-4.09	-2.63	-2.64	3.8	0.67	2.04
per12	case36	-4.21	-2.80	-2.81	3.9	0.71	1.99
per16	case85	-3.48	-2.26	-2.27	3.9	0.81	2.03
per17	case36	-3.53	-2.24	-2.25	3.8	0.76	2.04
per30	case52	-3.54	-2.25	-2.26	3.8	0.76	2.03
per37	case52	-3.82	-2.45	-2.46	3.8	0.71	2.04
per45	case33	-3.31	-2.11	-2.12	3.8	0.81	2.06
per45	case36	-3.31	-2.11	-3.24	3.8	0.81	1.16

The performance items were next assessed for factorability of the matrix. The correlation matrix of the 48 items was imported into an Excel spreadsheet and conditional formatting was utilised to search for correlations at both a medium level of between 0.3 and 0.5 and a large level at 0.5 and above. 52% of the correlations were above .30 which is one indication of factorability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In addition, no item failed to produce a correlation of above .30 with at least one other item being the minimum threshold required for factor analysis (Hair et al., 1998), thus all items were retained. The second assessment of factorability undertaken was Barlett's test of sphericity which at $p = .000$ passed the test of significance of $p < .05$. This test is recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) only when the case-to-item ratio is under five. As there are 2.2 cases per item in this data matrix this test is appropriate. Finally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value at .84 was above the determining level of .6 for factorability (the minimum was set at .5 by Dzuiban & Shirkey, 1974; Pallant, 2005) and at a level termed "meritorious" by Dzuiban and Shirkey (1974) in their discussion of factorability tests. Factor analysis was therefore found to be appropriate for this data set. These last three tests were conducted by undertaking a principal components analysis (PCA) with no rotation and extraction of components based on the eigenvalue greater that one rule.

Reduction of the data to determine the latent structure underlying the performance items was conducted in the first instance by looking at the output of a PCA with varimax (orthogonal) rotation. An eigenvalue of greater than one rule (otherwise known as the latent root criterion (Hair et al., 1998) or Kaiser 1 rule (Zwick & Velicer, 1986)) was selected to assist in determining how many components to retain (DeVellis, 2003; Zwick & Velicer, 1986) and it is appropriate for data sets of between 20 and 50 items (Hair et al., 1998). Thirteen components -somewhat higher than expected- were indicated representing 74.5% of the information captured by the 48 items. Only one

item had a low extraction value (communality) under .62 with the remaining items ranging from .62 to .86, suggesting that the components expressed the data well and were viewed as having high communality (MacCallum et al., 1999). A scree test (Cattell, 1966) which indicates the point at which unique variance dominates common variance suggested that two or perhaps seven components offered the best solution: two components based upon Hair and colleagues' interpretation whereby the points above the position at which the vector changes from vertical to horizontal are retained (1998); and seven based upon Nasser and associates' interpretation where the points above and to the left of a straight line drawn across the bottom of the graph are selected for retention (2002 citing Cattell and Vogelman, 1977). Kaiser's eigenvalue greater than one rule has been found in a number of studies to severely overestimate the number of components (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004; Pallant, 2005; Zwick & Velicer, 1986) which is logical given that it was explicitly intended to indicate the upper bound of number of items to retain (Hayton et al., 2004). It was determined that the best solution would lie somewhere between two and 13 components as (a) the Kaiser rule (the upper bound) appears to be a function of the number of items (Hair et al., 1998) and tends towards overestimation and (b) reports on the inter-rater reliability on scree tests range from very good to quite poor with larger sample sizes appearing to increase the reliability (Hair et al., 1998; Zwick & Velicer, 1986).

Zwick and Velicer (1986) compared available techniques to determine how many components to retain under a variety of conditions: sample size, number of items, saturation (high or low loadings), and complexity of item loadings. In comparing the conditions in their paper with those of this performance scale data set, the results suggest that that parallel analysis may be an accurate method of determining how many components to retain. In fact, based upon their own findings and those of other studies, Zwick and Velicer strongly discouraged the use of the Kaiser one rule (see also Fabrigar

et al., 1999) and suggested that the scree test only be used in combination with other tests, contrary to the recommendations of many authors. Parallel analysis was thus conducted for this study using a statistical program developed by Watkins (2000). Parallel analysis compares the output of randomly generated eigenvalues of 100 data sets with the same number of cases and variables as the data set undergoing factor analysis, ie. n = 106 and p =48. The first eigenvalue from SPSS is compared with the first eigenvalue from the randomly generated parallel analysis set. If the SPSS value is greater than the eigenvalue from the parallel analysis, the component is retained. This is continued for the second, third, and subsequent values until the parallel analysis value is greater than the SPSS value at which point the component is not retained (Pallant, 2005). In comparing the eigenvalues of both unrotated PCA and unrotated axis factor analysis, two factors were recommended for retention. Given the hypothesised hierarchical nature of the structure of performance with the upper level defined as contextual and task performance (two factors) and then further divided into other performance components as suggested by Campbell's eight factors (1990), it was not surprising that a clear solution was lacking across the different methods to determine the number of factors.

To explore this solution further, the semantic content of the components was investigated as it is the theory behind the data which should be "a major guiding force" in the determination of the number of factors to retain (Nasser et al., 2002, p.399). Theoretical considerations, "multiple criteria and reasoned reflection" (Henson & Roberts, 2006, p.399), and interpretability (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006) were thus used to decide upon the number of factors to retain. The recommendation to make use of multiple methods to undertake factor analytical decisions is a recurrent theme in the literature (Hayton et al., 2004).

Orthogonally and obliquely rotated PCA and axis factor matrices extracting 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10 components were exported to a spreadsheet for further analysis (the output in SPSS of 9, 12 and 13 factor loadings was also viewed but showed little meaningful groupings of items). The goal was to determine the optimal method of extraction, rotation, and number of components to retain. Each matrix was viewed for simplicity of component structure and meaningful components. Only loadings above .40 were extracted and they were sorted from the highest loading. The cut-off of .40 was the most widely used in the 60 studies examined by Henson and Roberts (2006) from four psychology journals and has been suggested by Ford and colleagues to be the commonly used rule (1986). The items loading on each extracted component were colour coded for correspondence with the hypothesised components (the initial item generation intentions). Where three or more items from the same hypothesised component loaded on the one extracted component that component was determined to represent the meaning of the hypothesised component and defined the nature of the extracted component. This was done to see to what extent the data agreed with the hypothesised factors and to ascertain the level of redundancy by determining the items that were best removed from the scale. Even though the loadings may indicate that several items were significantly related to a latent variable, "there must be a logical reason for utilizing these indicators" (O'Leary-Kelly & Vokurka, 1998, p.392) and thus reference was made back to the theoretical justification for the items. Nineteen items loaded consistently as hypothesised across the matrices extracted (known as marker variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Zwick & Velicer, 1986)), 21 items loaded consistently but not as hypothesised and 8 items loaded weakly.

The theoretical framework suggested eight components. However, in the process of extracting each of the matrices it was noted that the items consistently loaded on six major components. Even when eight components were extracted Campbell's

(1990) components numbered two (non-job specific task proficiency) and eight (management/administration) loaded together as did components six (facilitating peer and team performance) and seven (supervision/leadership). The remaining two components were weakly determined meaning they had low loadings and poor simple structure (Hogarty et al., 2005). The mix of components six and seven across all matrices suggested that the sample of respondents viewed peer and supervisory behaviour as one component. Perhaps this indicates a view that team membership and facilitation is inclusive of peers and subordinates. Conway acknowledged that helping and cooperating with others is "not completely distinct from leadership task performance" (1999, p.7) even though he conceptualised the former as contextual performance and the latter as task performance. The loadings from the SAR data which group these items together indeed suggest that they are not viewed as distinct by the respondents. Throughout the expatriate data collection it had been difficult to operationalise non-job specific task proficiency (performance component two). Guzman and Bourke (2003) also commented upon the difficulty in differentiating between job specific and non-job specific task performance. It is not surprising therefore that the expatriates in this sample perceive general, non-job specific, tasks in a similar way to managerial and administrative tasks.

At this point one could reflect upon the results of the scree test which offered a seven component solution based upon Nasser et al's interpretation (2002). Zwick and Velicer (1986) found that scree tests consistently (over 90% of the time) over-estimated the number of factors to be retained by one or two factors. This finding suggests five or six components might be extracted in this expatriate data and is consistent with the indications from the extracted matrices that six components appear to offer a meaningful solution. Thus, a six-component solution was chosen as each of the 4 six-component matrices (varimax and oblimin rotations on PCA and axis factor analysis

[FA]) offered the simplest and cleanest solutions: approximate simple structure where the semantic content of the components made substantive sense, offering a meaningful data reduction solution. The data derived components therefore appear to reflect the hypothesised factor structure but with some adjustments which were semantically logical.

In order to decide upon the rotation to be used, the loadings in the pattern matrices (for oblimin) and the rotation component matrices (for varimax) were compared. The six factor and six component extraction matrices run under oblimin rotation offered the cleanest solutions suggesting that an oblique rotation would be the best choice. In order to help determine which rotation should be utilised, the component correlation matrix from oblimin rotation on six components was viewed for correlations between factors. There were two correlations above .3 (highest being .37) suggesting moderate correlation (see Table 27).

Table 27

Component correlation matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1.00					
2	0.17	1.00				
3	0.32	0.19	1.00			
4	0.26	0.14	0.17	1.00		
5	-0.37	-0.26	-0.28	-0.28	1.00	
6	-0.29	-0.11	-0.17	-0.21	0.20	1.00

Note. Number of items: 48

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

A number of different delta settings under oblique rotation were checked for the best solution. The criteria were a clean solution which retained the maximum number of items after deletion for low factor loadings (less than .40) and cross loadings (less than .15 difference); and conceptual consistency with other items (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Both PCA and FA analyses were run. The rationale for retaining items was to have enough highly reliable items with large pattern coefficients for further analysis as Velicer and Fava (1998) suggested that such retention might compensate for smaller sample sizes. It also allows selection of the most deserving items for retention.

After searching for the maximum number of items that could be retained and minimum number of cross-loadings, the choice was between PCA oblimin rotation at a delta of zero and axis factor analysis oblimin rotation at a delta of -3. After deletion of items the FA solution offered 28 items and the PCA analysis offered 32 items. The components analysis originally yielded 12 items on component number one. As suggested by O'Leary-Kelly (1998), all components were checked for uni-dimensionality by running a PCA on the items in each component. Items 15, 22, 35, and 42 loaded separately from the other items in component one. These items were also originally developed to express components other than component one and tended to have low corrected item-total correlations. These items were thus deleted. Other items in both the components matrix and factor matrix were deleted as per the criteria mentioned above.

Although a number of authors suggested that factor analysis should be used when there is theoretical underpinning (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Ferguson & Cox, 1993; Henson & Roberts, 2006; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006), others advise that in practical terms the difference in interpretation is often negligible (Thompson, 1992 cited in Henson, 2006). Fabrigar (1999) cited a number of authors in arguments for the use of PCA. It is said to be a reasonable substitute for factor analysis and might even be

superior (Velicer & Jackson, 1990) and that each will often produce very similar results (Arrindell & van der Ende, 1985). The difference between the two extraction methods becomes less as the items become more reliable (Henson, 2006) and communalities are high (Fabrigar, 1999). PCA was selected as the method of choice with this expatriate data for two main reasons. Firstly, the reliability statistics obtained on the scales derived by the PCA method were slightly higher than those under the FA method. Secondly, four more items were retained in the PCA solution which offers greater breadth of component content to be captured which is important for ensuring adequate domain sampling.

After items were deleted from the PCA solution a final PCA was conducted to check the stability of the component solution (Worthington, 2006). The only change to the matrix was the cross-loading on item 12 which under the earlier item deletion criterion of a difference of less than .15 would have been deleted. The item was retained in the second run as it had loaded moderately well. It had also loaded on the component on which it was hypothesised to load in all matrices to this point, including the FA six-factor solution.

In summary, the series of analyses and decisions indicated that a six-factor solution with oblimin rotation with delta set at zero was the “cleanest” and most interpretable. A minimum factor loading of .40 was used as a guideline for considering an item to be part of a factor. After item deletion the scales comprised 32 items. This solution accounted for 63.42% of variance. If as Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) asserted that 44.2% of total variance accounted for by their 6 factors was healthy then the 63.4% achieved by the components in the expatriate data must certainly be sufficient. Factor pattern coefficients ranged from .45 to .92 (see Table 28). For the sake of completeness, the structure matrix and component correlation matrix can be found reported in Table 29.

Table 28

Principal components factor analysis of 32 performance items with oblique rotation

Item No.	Items	1TP	8MA	6TL	4DE	3CP	5MD
29	Meet the job objectives	**0.80**	-0.04	-0.12	-0.01	-0.01	-0.08
7	Meet specific job responsibilities	**0.76**	0.04	-0.00	0.01	-0.10	-0.13
27	Fulfill the responsibilities defined in the job description	**0.69**	-0.08	-0.21	0.04	-0.09	-0.14
10	Meet formal performance requirements of the job	**0.62**	0.27	0.05	-0.08	-0.04	-0.25
6	Show proficiency in general tasks expected of all employees at this level	**0.60**	0.07	0.07	0.16	-0.26	0.01
34	Complete assigned duties	**0.58**	-0.10	-0.14	0.05	-0.05	-0.27
46	Consistently demonstrate effort	**0.43**	0.09	-0.07	0.26	0.01	-0.11
25	Show proficiency in in financial, quantitative and other types of analysis common to employees at his level	0.07	**0.82**	0.04	0.02	0.19	0.05
24	Organise and control utilisation of human and other resources	-0.11	**0.81**	-0.06	0.03	-0.11	-0.09
41	Organise and control utilisation of non-human resources	0.24	**0.52**	-0.23	0.05	0.07	-0.03
45	Effectively manage risk (including financial and occupational health and safety)	0.02	**0.42**	-0.33	0.08	-0.13	-0.13

(table continues)

Table 28 (continued)

Principal components factor analysis of 32 performance items with oblique rotation

Item No.	Items	1TP	8MA	6TL	4DE	3CP	5MD
1	Demonstrate technical expertise	0.38	**0.41**	-0.04	0.11	-0.23	0.22
12	Make appropriate decisions when problems occur.	0.16	**0.41**	0.07	0.14	-0.54	0.14
39	Do things to help and support his or her teammates	0.24	0.09	**-0.65**	0.05	0.07	0.04
30	Argue effectively for own position when appropriate	0.18	-0.23	**-0.64**	0.06	-0.20	0.21
37	Facilitate peer and team performance	0.12	0.14	**-0.64**	0.07	-0.03	-0.04
40	Teach and coach direct reports	-0.11	0.34	**-0.59**	-0.00	-0.18	-0.19
31	Display a personal concern for direct reports	-0.23	-0.05	**-0.53**	0.34	0.09	-0.33
9	Ensure that subordinates receive proper development	-0.18	0.37	**-0.51**	0.01	-0.27	-0.03
38	Persuade others to accept ideas	0.31	-0.02	**-0.51**	0.22	0.01	0.06
17	Influence subordinates to achieve goals set for them	-0.18	0.26	**-0.50**	0.15	-0.22	-0.18
16	Volunteer to carry out tasks that are not formally part of his/her own job	0.04	-0.04	0.04	**0.94**	-0.02	0.07
32	Volunteer to do additional tasks for the organisation	-0.04	-0.01	-0.06	**0.93**	0.06	-0.03
5	Effectively convey ideas verbally	0.04	-0.06	0.06	0.16	**-0.80**	0.01
28	Present own position clearly and decisively	0.30	-0.09	-0.28	-0.06	**-0.64**	0.04

(table continues)

Table 28 (continued)

Principal components factor analysis of 32 performance items with oblique rotation

Item No.	Items	1TP	8MA	6TL	4DE	3CP	5MD
43	Have effective communicative exchanges	0.10	-0.24	-0.15	-0.07	**-0.63**	-0.18
3	Effectively inform leaders, team-mates and direct reports	-0.01	0.29	-0.14	-0.11	**-0.48**	-0.23
11	Comply with organisational values and policies	0.06	-0.04	0.07	0.09	-0.10	**-0.74**
19	Follow orders and regulations and respect authority	0.27	0.05	0.01	-0.01	0.12	**-0.72**
8	Model appropriate behaviours	0.19	-0.05	-0.21	-0.04	-0.08	**-0.53**
20	Maintain good working relationships	0.31	0.01	0.13	0.13	-0.16	**-0.51**
4	Show dedication to the organisational goals	-0.09	0.28	0.20	0.23	-0.37	**-0.42**

Note. N=106. Oblimin rotation with delta set to zero was utilized.

1TP = Task Performance; 8MA = Managerial and Administrative Task Performance;

6TL = Teamwork and Leadership; 4DE= Demonstrating Effort;

3CP = Communication; 5MD = Maintaining Discipline

Table 29

Structure matrix, initial eigenvalues, percentage of variance, cummulative percentage of variance and correlation matrix of 32 performance items

Item no:	Items	1TP	8MA	6TL	4DE	3CP	5MD
29	Meet the job objectives	0.85	0.11	-0.34	0.21	-0.33	-0.31
7	Meet specific job responsibilities	0.84	0.20	-0.27	0.24	-0.40	-0.37
27	Fulfill the responsibilities defined in the job description	0.81	0.12	-0.45	0.29	-0.41	-0.38
6	Show proficiency in general tasks expected of all employees at this level	0.71	0.24	-0.23	0.34	-0.49	-0.25
10	Meet formal performance requirements of the job	0.70	0.38	-0.21	0.17	-0.35	-0.45
34	Complete assigned duties	0.70	0.09	-0.36	0.27	-0.35	-0.46
46	Consistently demonstrate effort	0.54	0.24	-0.30	0.42	-0.27	-0.32
24	Organise and control utilisation of human and other resources	0.08	0.85	-0.26	0.26	-0.32	-0.25
25	Show proficiency in in financial, quantitative and other types of analysis common to employees at his level	0.10	0.77	-0.09	0.16	-0.02	-0.06

(table continues)

Table 29 (continued)

Structure matrix, initial eigenvalues, percentage of variance, cummulative percentage of variance and correlation matrix of 32 performance items

Item no:	Items	1TP	8MA	6TL	4DE	3CP	5MD
41	Organise and control utilisation of non-human resources	0.37	0.60	-0.40	0.29	-0.23	-0.23
45	Effectively manage risk (including financial and occupational health and safety)	0.26	0.56	-0.51	0.35	-0.39	-0.33
1	Demonstrate technical expertise	0.49	0.51	-0.29	0.30	-0.44	-0.05
12	Make appropriate decisions when problems occur.	0.38	0.56	-0.24	0.35	-0.68	-0.15
37	Facilitate peer and team performance	0.34	0.32	-0.74	0.35	-0.33	-0.24
40	Teach and coach direct reports	0.21	0.53	-0.72	0.33	-0.46	-0.38
39	Do things to help and support his or her teammates	0.40	0.24	-0.71	0.29	-0.23	-0.16
30	Argue effectively for own position when appropriate	0.34	-0.04	-0.68	0.24	-0.35	0.01
17	Influence subordinates to achieve goals set for them	0.14	0.46	-0.65	0.42	-0.46	-0.37
38	Persuade others to accept ideas	0.47	0.17	-0.64	0.42	-0.28	-0.17
9	Ensure that subordinates receive proper development	0.11	0.53	-0.63	0.29	-0.47	-0.22

(table continues)

Table 29 (continued)

Structure matrix, initial eigenvalues, percentage of variance, cummulative percentage of variance and correlation matrix of 32 performance items

Item no:	Items	1TP	8MA	6TL	4DE	3CP	5MD
31	Display a personal concern for direct reports	0.04	0.15	-0.60	0.51	-0.16	-0.43
32	Volunteer to do additional tasks for the organisation	0.16	0.21	-0.32	0.93	-0.18	-0.24
16	Volunteer to carry out tasks that are not formally part of his/her own job	0.21	0.18	-0.24	0.91	-0.21	-0.16
5	Effectively convey ideas verbally	0.33	0.17	-0.24	0.33	-0.82	-0.24
28	Present own position clearly and decisively	0.55	0.14	-0.51	0.21	-0.78	-0.23
43	Have effective communicative exchanges	0.36	-0.02	-0.33	0.14	-0.68	-0.35
3	Effectively inform leaders, team-mates and direct reports	0.26	0.45	-0.35	0.17	-0.63	-0.41
11	Comply with organisational values and policies	0.28	0.14	-0.13	0.27	-0.31	-0.79
19	Follow orders and regulations and respect authority	0.42	0.19	-0.17	0.21	-0.17	-0.77
20	Maintain good working relationships	0.49	0.19	-0.14	0.32	-0.39	-0.64
8	Model appropriate behaviours	0.39	0.12	-0.36	0.20	-0.32	-0.62
4	Show dedication to the organisational goals	0.18	0.45	-0.10	0.40	-0.51	-0.56

(table continues)

Table 29 (continued)

Structure matrix, initial eigenvalues, percentage of variance, cummulative percentage of variance and correlation matrix of 32 performance items

Item no:	Items	1TP	8MA	6TL	4DE	3CP	5MD
	Initial Eigenvalue	11.23	2.78	1.91	1.68	1.41	1.28
	Percentage of variance	35.09	8.70	5.96	5.26	4.41	4.01
	Cummulative percentage of variance	35.09	43.78	49.75	55.01	59.42	63.42
	Intercorrelations						
	Component 1 (1TP)	1.00					
	Component 2 (8MA)	0.14	1.00				
	Component 3 (6TL)	-0.27	-0.21	1.00			
	Component 4 (4DE)	0.21	0.24	-0.31	1.00		
	Component 5 (3CP)	-0.34	-0.25	0.31	-0.24	1.00	
	Component 6 (5MD)	-0.27	-0.18	0.19	-0.24	0.27	1.00

Note. 1TP = Task Performance; 8MA = Management and Administration Performance; 6TL = Teamwork and Leadership Performance; 4DE= Demonstrating Effort; 3CP = Communication; 5MD = Maintaining Personal Discipline

Reliability Analysis

Scale reliability tests were conducted on the 32 items comprising the six components using the above factor analytical solution. This output also offered support for the six component solution. No component was under Nunnally's (1994) alpha cut-off point of .70 (see Table 30) and all were certainly above the acceptable level of .60 for newly developed scales (DeVellis, 2003; Hinkin, 1995).

Table 30

Reliability statistics for the 6 performance sub-scales

Campbell's Components	Content of extracted components	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of items
1. Job specific task proficiency	Task performance	.90	7
2. Non-job specific task proficiency	_	_	_
3. Written and oral communication	Communication	.79	4
4. Demonstrating effort	Volunteering	.89	2
5. Maintaining Personal Discipline	Maintaining Personal Discipline	.79	5
6. Facilitating peer and team performance	Facilitating team performance (including peers and subordinates)	.87	8
7. Supervision/leadership	_	_	_
8. Management/administration	Management and Administration Performance	.81	6

Note. N=106. There were no separately extracted components for Campbell's performance components 2 and 7. These components loaded with 8 and 6 respectively.

Job Performance – Construct validity

In additional to factor analysis, another way to measure construct validity is to determine whether performance as measured relates to other measures as theoretically proposed (Tharenou et al., 2007). Researchers test convergent and discriminant validity as a way to determine this. Convergent validity is assessed through evidence that the

measure relates to measures of other variables to which it should relate theoretically. Discriminant validity relies upon evidence that there is no relationship between variables that theoretically should not relate to each other. Convergent validity can be measured by ascertaining the similarity of scores of tests designed to measure the same construct (Jackson, 1996), often termed congruent validity (Freidenberg, 1995), or by the correlations between scores of tests of theoretically related constructs (Freidenberg). In order to test the convergent validity of the performance scales, the extent of the correlations (Hair et al., 2006) between the performance components and managerial advancement was to be utilised (this constitutes DeVellis' Step 5 [2003] – consider inclusion of validation items). However, the 3-item measure of managerial advancement was found to have a low reliability estimate of $\alpha = .54$ and so an alternative variable measuring a theoretically related construct (DeVellis, 2003) was selected from the data.

The variable, position in the organisation, was used instead as performance has been shown to be related to advancement potential and promotion (Carmeli, Shalom, & Weisberg, 2007; Magid & Baroudi, 1995; Stumpf & London, 1981), position being the outcome of these variables. An understanding of what specific components of performance are related to promotion is less developed. However, people who are effective leaders are usually rewarded with advancement (Donohue & Stevenson, 2006 citing Vitry, 1996). Additionally, in Carmeli's study of 157 Israeli workers both in service and non-service organisations (2007), task performance was shown to be a major predictor of promotion prospects. Only the compliant aspect of contextual performance had the same relationship with promotion prospects in the same study. This suggests therefore that not all components of performance might relate to promotion, and therefore position, in an organisation. However, if these previous studies are generalisable it could be expected that relationships between position, and at least leadership, some components related to task and administration performance, and

compliant behaviours such as demonstrating effort and maintaining self-discipline would be significant. The correlation coefficients between position and the components of performance are shown in Table 31.

Table 31

Correlation Coefficients between Position and Performance Components

Variable	Position in organisation	Sig.
Task performance	0.02	.86
Communication	0.17	.08
Demonstrating Effort	0.16	.11
Maintaining Personal Discipline	0.20*	.04
Team & Leadership Performance	0.41**	.00
Management & Administration Performance	0.43**	.00

*p<.05. **p<.01. ***p<.001.

The correlations indicate that task performance is not related to position. Communication and demonstrating effort, although showing medium effect size, are also marginally non-significant using two-tailed tests of significance. As was suggested in previous research, maintaining personal discipline (a compliant aspect of contextual performance [Carmeli, 2007],) and teamwork and leadership performance were found to be related to position. Management and administration performance as a type of task performance was also correlated with position as expected. These relationships offer some evidence of convergent validity for the performance scales. Further tests presented in the remainder of this chapter offer additional evidence for construct validity through links to variables as theorised, particularly for communication performance, maintaining personal discipline, teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administration performance.

Campbell and Fiske stated that “For the justification of novel trait measures, for the validation of test interpretation, or for the establishment of construct validity, discriminant validation as well as convergent validity is required." (1959, p.81). To whatever extent common method variance might invalidate the results of convergent validity tests due to the introduction of systematic variance, it would, as a corollary, improve the interpretation of discriminant validity tests. If the correlations were overstated in the convergent test they would also be overstated in the discriminant test and would thus offer greater evidence of discriminant validity should no correlation be found. Thus, discriminant validity was also assessed.

In a study of 98 expatriates from US multinational corporations Caligiuri and Tung (1999) found that there was no difference between men and women in measures of success on assignment. Although a number of authors offered the theory (Caligiuri & Cascio, 1998; Stone, 1991) and some empirical evidence (Adler, 1987) that multinational companies justify not sending women on assignment when they perceive host nationals to hold negative stereotyping of women, there is no evidence in the literature to suggest that gender actually does affect performance on assignment (Tye & Chen, 2005). Granted, some of the extant studies were based on self-report data and women have been found to perceive adjustment harder than men have in countries where women were less represented in the workforce and where the cultural values were higher in uncertainty avoidance and masculinity. However, the lower levels of cross-cultural adjustment felt by these women did not impact upon their performance as rated by their supervisors (Caligiuri & Tung, 1999). Based upon the above stated evidence it is suggested that gender should not be related to expatriate performance and thus gender was the variable utilized to test for discriminant validity of the performance scale in this present research. The results of no significant relationships from the correlation coefficients presented in Table 32 offer support for the position that gender

is not related to performance thus offering evidence of discriminant validity of the performance component measures.

Table 32

Correlation Coefficients between Gender and Performance Components

Factor	Gender	Sig.
Task performance	-.06	.57
Communication	-.08	.42
Demonstrating Effort	-.10	.29
Maintaining Personal Discipline	.04	.72
Teamwork and Leadership Performance	.10	.29
Management & Administration Performance	.11	.25

In order to test criterion related validity of the performance scale the 27 supervisor surveys were matched with the expatriate surveys leaving a matched sample of 24 expatriate/supervisor dyads. This was the process undertaken in Shaffer and Harrison's study (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998) and recommended in texts on management research methods (Tharenou et al., 2007). The scores on each of the components across the two ratings were correlated to determine the strength of the relationship. The data were first cleaned and checked for the assumptions tested in the expatriate data as detailed in the preliminary analysis section of chapter five. From the examination of *z*-scores with a cut-off of $\pm$3.29 it was determined that there were no outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Normality tests showed that there were no skew statistics above 2 and no kurtosis statistics above 5 thus the data were normally distributed (Kendall & Stuart, 1958 as cited in Tharenou et al., 2007). Normal probability plots were checked to ensure that the points clustered along the diagonal line. This also indicated that the data did not

deviate from normality (Pallant, 2005). The data were then checked for missing data points. There were nine variables with one missing data point (3.7% missing data) and one variable with two missing data points (7.4% missing data on that one variable). The results of Little's chi-square test run in the missing values analysis module of SPSS suggested that the data were missing completely at random (χ^2 = .000, DF = 325, sig. = 1.000). Utilising the same rationale offered in chapter 5, data were imputed using regression imputation. Due to a clerical oversight, six items were missing from the performance instrument on the supervisor questionnaire: items 43 to 48. The scores for each of the components were calculated based upon the remaining items for both the supervisor and expatriate scores. Thus, items 43, 45 and 46 were removed from the total score calculations for only this test of criterion related validity.

The final results of the correlation analysis between the scores of the components measured by the expatriate and the supervisors suggest that whilst some components showed adequate correlations, others were nonsignificant (see Table 33). Task proficiency (r = .566), demonstrating effort (r = .662), maintaining personal discipline (r = .628), and management and administration performance (r = .427) showed strong and significant relationships across raters which offer evidence that the raters rated consistently. The scales appear to be measuring the same constructs across raters. This finding is tempered by the fact that the matched sample only included 24 expatriate/supervisor dyads and that ratings of communication performance and teamwork and leadership performance although with medium effects sizes failed to correlate significantly across raters.

Table 33

Criterion related validity: correlations between raters on performance components

Factors	Cronbach alpha
Task Proficiency	.57**
Communication Performance	.33
Demonstrating Effort	.66**
Maintaining Personal Discipline	.63**
Teamwork and Leadership Performance	.23
Management and Administration Performance	.43*

Notes. n = 24

*p<.05. **p<.01. ***p<.001.

Although there is a degree of evidence for the construct validity of the performance scales through combined reference to the tests of convergent, discriminant, and criterion related validity as described above, the evidence is not unrefutable. The scale yet requires additional testing with new and larger samples to offer confirmation of its validity.

Triangulation – SME Categorisation, Survey Data and Theory

The 48 items generated for the performance scale were put under the scrutiny of three subject matter experts (SME) to help ascertain the categorisation of the items to performance components. The SMEs were one senior academic and two PhD students with expertise in the international human resource management domain. As with the first SME questionnaire on the initial 26 items, this final SME questionnaire asked the respondents to sort the items over two systems of categories; first to sort between task and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) and secondly to sort over Campbell's eight performance factors (1990). The sorting was analysed for consistency amongst the SMEs and agreement with the intentions behind the initial item generation.

Then the items were checked against the factor analytical output extracted from 106 responses to the expatriate questionnaires. These checks of triangulation were conducted to ascertain whether there was confirmatory evidence from a variety of sources for the content of the performance components.

The SME categorisation of the 48 items across higher order components of task and contextual performance yielded an average of the agreements between the three pairs of SMEs of 53%. This was equivalent to a median kappa value of .23 calculated using SPSS based on Cohen's (1960) computation. Utilising the Landis and Koch rules of thumb, where .41 to .60 is moderate agreement and .61 to .80 is substantial agreement (see Scullen et al., 2003), this is a low agreement level and is consistent with other results that suggest that this higher order structure can be problematic (Scullen et al., 2003). When the SME majority choice of task or contextual performance factor was extracted and compared with the theoretical split suggested in chapter 2, there was 71% agreement which until the kappa was determined appeared promising. However, the kappa statistic at .39 suggested minimal agreement.

The SME categorisation of the 48 items across Campbell's eight factors of performance (1990) also yielded a 53% agreement but with a higher kappa of .50 which suggests moderate agreement amongst the SMEs. When the agreed upon components were compared with the component structure underlying the item generation there was 77% agreement which is substantial given there were nine categories (eight components plus one additional 'other' category) over which the SMEs could choose to allocate the items. This is reflected in a kappa of .91 and offers strong support for the semantic content of the components and evidence of the built-in construct validity of the scales based upon Campbell's framework.

The two-factor analyses offered little in the way of assisting in the categorisation of the items to Borman and Motowidlo's task and contextual performance (1993). Four

types of two-factor analyses offered an average of 53% agreement with the literature on the allocation of items over the two performance dimensions. There was no clear semantic differentiation between the two factors and thus it was determined that a two factor solution was not indicative of a semantically sound latent structure and was most likely merely an artefact of the psychometric properties of the data (Nunnally, 1978; O'Leary-Kelly & Vokurka, 1998).

Expatriate Specific Performance Dimensions

One potential SME declined to respond to the survey after examination of the items. An email response from the SME included a comment asking about the existence of the "international side" and questioned how the items related to expatriate performance management. The "missing" expatriate specific components in the list of 48 items offer the implied rationale for non-response from this SME. Received wisdom appears to have originated from existing expatriate performance theory (Black et al., 1992b; Caligiuri, 1997; Feldman, 2004; Gregersen, Hite, & Black, 1996; Mol, Born, & van der Molen, 2005) and based upon discussions of other expatriate criterion variables as inter-cultural effectiveness (Cui & van den Berg, 1992 as cited in Caligiuri, 1997) and, of more recent times, adaptive performance (Mol, Born, & van der Molen, 2005; Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000). This perspective advocates that there are expatriate specific performance components and thus non-inclusion of items encapsulating such content is viewed an unacceptable deviation. It must be emphasised at this point that the earlier expatriate performance theories were not developed inductively but rather derived from other deductive theories (Caligiuri, 1997) and as thus alternative views and empirical evidence are much needed in the domain. Caligiuri entreated researchers to give greater attention to "expatriates' performance" (Caligiuri, 1997, p.133). Caligiuri suggested that future studies collect information about the importance of various performance criteria, the difference between adjustment and

performance, and correctly identify and select criteria. There is yet great need to explore the expatriate performance domain and it is not yet possible to conclude that it has been thoroughly mapped and not worthy of further exploration, development of alternative theories and taxonomies, or debate.

In evidence that the question of the necessity for expatriate specific components is yet to be resolved, two studies by Mol and colleagues can be compared (Mol, Born, & van der Molen, 2005; Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005). In the meta-analytical report on 30 studies examining the predictive validity of personality on expatriate job performance, the authors appeared to take the stance that although the context is different, expatriate performance behaviours should be highly similar to that of a domestic manager. They used this argument to build their hypothesis that "domestic predictive validities would generalize to the expatriate context" (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005, p.612) for which they found evidence of support. In contrast, in a conceptual paper exploring criterion measures of expatriate effectiveness (Mol, Born, & van der Molen, 2005) the authors argued for an expatriate specific performance component to be included in future measurement of expatriate performance. Although they found that domestic predictive validities generalised to the expatriate context in their empirical study of the same year, the authors questioned the assumption by other authors (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997) that job performance components could also generalise across the domains. In their discussion of alternative measures the authors drew upon work by Pulakos and associates (Pulakos et al., 2000; Pulakos et al., 2002). Mol and colleagues suggested that the cross-cultural context is the most important distinguishing element of an expatriate job. They acknowledged that the ability of expatriates to adapt is important and thus cross-cultural adjustment has been perceived as a critical variable in the literature. However, as cross-cultural adjustment does not sample job performance, Mol proposed that adaptive performance (Pulakos et al., 2000)

constitutes an important sub-domain of expatriate performance (Mol, 2007; Mol, Born, & van der Molen, 2005). In support of the use of adaptive performance in the expatriate domain, Mol stated that the eight components of adaptive performance were developed utilising the expatriate sub-sample of 121 critical incidents in Pulakos' and colleagues study (2000). In fact, the authors developed the eight components following the review of 9,462 critical incidents across 21 jobs where the remaining critical incidents were all domestic. Nevertheless, Mol called into question the over-reliance of criterion measures from the domestic domain in the expatriate domain and suggested expatriate specific criterion measures need to be developed. This position contrasts with the statement that performance behaviours should be similar for domestic and expatriate managers and the fact that in both studies Mol has either tested and confirmed generalisability of existing relationships in the domestic performance literature, or suggested the application of a construct also developed in the domestic domain.

As part of her PhD dissertation, from interviews with seventeen repatriates from four MNCs returning to the US, Kraimer found that all interviewees agreed that expatriates "should still be held to the usual standards of meeting job objectives and demonstrating technical competence" (1999, p.115). Upon further exploration Kraimer found that many interviewees felt that it was important to assess expatriates on how well they adapted, interacted and built relationships in the new context although the companies did not rate their expatriates on expatriate specific performance dimensions at that time. There appears to be a descriptive/proscriptive divide between practitioners and academics respectively with practitioners interested in performance outcomes relevant to the goals of the organisation and academics keen to see the definition of expatriate performance broadened.

It is argued here that any criterion which is viewed elsewhere as expatriate specific will either be a component of task or contextual performance, or it is antecedent

to performance. Where the dimension is clearly a criterion, it merely occurs in a new environment; that is, the context is different (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005). Murphy and Jackson conceptualised this as follows: “organizational context may be treated as an independent variable that directly or indirectly influences job performance, or performance may be conceptualized more broadly in terms of role performance that is integrally linked with context” (1999, p.358). The hurdles to good performance ratings are perhaps greater in the expatriate domain but it is maintained here that any apparent assignment specific dimension may be viewed as such only because it is influenced by, or is itself, an assignment specific antecedent and not because it is a performance requirement of the organisation. Thus, performance criteria that are influenced by assignment specific antecedents such as cross-cultural adjustment, role novelty, role ambiguity, and role conflict are the ones most readily perceived to be expatriate specific dimensions.

Language utilised in the literature when discussing expatriate specific dimensions is often reflective of that used when describing predictors of performance, rather than components of performance. For instance, Fenwick stated that “The international assignment context, or assignment-specific dimensions, will impact on an expatriate’s work-role performance” (2005, p.358). Black, Gregersen, and Mendenhall listed their “keys to success” (Black et al., 1992b, p.169). Again, this is language which implies an antecedent function.

Caligiuri and Day’s (2000) expatriate assignment-specific performance dimensions, “establishing inter-personal bonds with host nationals” and “language and culture proficiency”, are unlikely to be ultimate performance requirements of an organisation. The other expatriate specific dimension in the same study, “ability to handle stress while abroad”, also enables performance rather than being a component of performance.

Upon examination of the items in the Black et al. list (1992b) there appears to be little reason for an expatriate specific criteria category. There are some items which equally apply in the home environment (relationships with individuals in the local government, relationships with union leaders, community involvement, employee's morale and job satisfaction), where only the context differs (public image of the firm in the local environment, local market share), or may be seen as antecedent (interpersonal negotiation skills, cross-cultural skills).

Further evidence can be found for these types of dimensions being either predictors of performance, or task or contextual dimensions if one examines the papers of Caligiuri and Day (2000) and Caligiuri (1997). Of the five expatriate specific items in Caligiuri's study (1997) the only ones not to load onto the contextual performance dimension in Caligiuri and Day's study (2000) were the first two noted above ("establishing inter-personal bonds with host nationals" and "language and culture proficiency") which have been used as adjustment variables by other authors; as predictors of adjustment (Black, 1988; Hechanova et al., 2003; Parker & McEvoy, 1993) and as dimensions of adjustment (Benson, 1978).

If performance is measured by assessing the behaviour of the expatriate and disregards anything beyond the control of the expatriate, environment specific influences do not constitute performance. Having said that, the context does need to be understood when assessing performance of expatriates; what they are up against needs to be taken into account (Gregersen et al., 1996; Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005). This does not mean that performance criteria need to be context specific to the type of assessee, rather that potential difficulties caused by the environment need to be allowed for when assessing performance criteria. This allowance is implied in the utilisation of the U curve theory which acknowledges that there may be a period of time when the expatriate is unable to perform optimally and those "who have been on assignment for a

longer period of time outperforming the new arrivals" (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005, p.612). Leniency on performance assessment ("It's only been 3 months, give him a break!") during this period clearly implies a belief of environmental factors as being antecedent to, rather than a component of, expatriate job performance. Although in the context of this research we include contextual and well as task performance, in the words of Mol and colleagues "[i]n the end, an expatriate at work will be expected to exhibit a behavioral repertoire, which is highly similar to that of a domestic manager, namely, task-oriented activities in a social context" (2005, p.593). Sinangil and Ones also reminded us that it is often overlooked in the expatriate research that "expatriates are in the country of their assignment for performing a job" (1997, p.178).

Limitations

The scale developed was not subjected to confirmatory analysis due to the lack of a separate sample. Had the questionnaires returned from the supervisors been sufficient in number, that data could have been utilised to conduct confirmatory factor analysis in order to support the construct validity of the scale (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). However, confirmation of hypotheses offers some evidence for convergent validity and increases the confidence in construct validity (Hinkin, 1995). There is a need to conduct confirmatory factor analysis on a separate and larger sample with the same scale to confirm the construct validity of the scale and to assess the generalisability of the findings of the research.

Factor analytical techniques such as PCA utilised here are themselves tools with limitations. Factor analysis will always find factors in a data set (Babbie, 2007)}. The factors produced will not necessarily be meaningful. It then depends upon the interpretation of and decisions made by the researcher regarding factor extraction methods and criteria for retaining factors as to whether the solution creates a scale that

will withstand future use under a variety of conditions. The use of this highly scientific tool is reliant upon the art, creativity, and judgement of the researcher (Cohen, 1990).

It has been suggested that redundancy must be built into scales by generating three to four times the number of items as the final scale is expected to contain (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). With the hypothesised eight factors and the aim of including four items per factor the final scale ideally should have comprised 32 items. In this case, 128 items (32 x 4) should have been generated to allow for item redundancy. To test this number of items would likely affect response rates (Hinkin, 1995) in an already difficult environment for achieving acceptable response rates. Extant scales were used to generate the items and some scales had already been used within the expatriate domain. In addition, thorough analyses of the theory and interview data were also undertaken. Therefore, there is sufficient justification to lower the expected level of built in redundancy in this research. It may be argued that 128 items could have been reduced to a manageable number for a survey questionnaire after the SME survey or after item reduction conducted when items do not conform to assumptions of normality. However, to force production of an excessively large number of items beyond the breadth of content already generated just so they can be deleted does not offer elegance or parsimony of design. It also demands much from SMEs with already high workloads. The three or four times requirement for item generation mentioned above (Worthington & Whittaker) is understandable within an entirely new area of research where the scale development is based upon an inductive or grounded theory approach. However, where there are existing theories and some relevant scales from which to draw domain content, the level of redundancy may be viewed as somewhat excessive (Hinkin).

The decision taken to extract six components was based upon a combination of theoretical and empirical considerations. None of the tests to determine the number of factors to extract suggested six factors directly and in effect the least desirable method, the scree test, was used and adjusted based upon the general advice that scree tests tend to over-estimate the number of components to retain. The most recommended test, parallel analysis, indicated two factors but the extracted factors did not offer a solution which was theoretically or semantically consistent. Parallel analysis can also under factor which is a limitation of the method. The impact of under factoring is more serious for smaller rather than larger sample sizes (Hayton et al., 2004). Replication of the study with a larger sample over perhaps a larger geographic area may offer consistency amongst the factor extraction tests and between those tests and the theoretical underpinnings.

Summary

The general approach to the generation of items for the performance scale was a deductive one. However, an inductive approach in the form of information obtained from the interviews was used to complement the understanding of the domain and the definition as found in the literature. Additional items were added to the pilot questionnaire based upon the analysis of the interviews. The next step in the process to ensure rigour was to subject the items of the scale to sorting by subject matter experts. This process of sorting followed by replacement or deletion of items is another step towards ensuring a respectable level of content validity of the scale. Schriesheim and colleagues (1993) suggested that such processes to assess content adequacy is an immediate necessity once items have been generated before further preparation and administration time has been invested. The next study was a pilot of the performance scale sent to the original interviewees and their colleagues. This step was undertaken to check the psychometric properties of the scale prior to the administration of the scale as

part of the final questionnaire survey. The internal consistency proved to be sufficient to proceed with the items towards further development of the scale.

An SME survey offered empirical evidence to help clarify the problem of difficulty in categorising performance factors. In particular, leadership and supervision factors have been argued by most authors to be contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Caligiuri & Day, 2000; Scullen et al., 2003) but conceptually may be task performance (Conway, 1999). Caligiuri (1997) had offered two new categories under contextual performance and Conway (1999) suggested that contextual and task performance dimensions may differ depending upon the nature of the employee's job responsibilities and managerial or non-managerial status. The empirical evidence offered by both SME survey and the component structure from the questionnaire data helped to ascertain the most appropriate match of Campbell's eight performance factors (1990) to Borman and Motowidlo's task and contextual performance dimensions (1993) within the expatriate domain. The analysis and discussion contributes to past theoretical positions and evidence in the extent literature. Further discussion of the hierarchical nature of the components is available in the discussion chapter.

Once the data had been collected and tested for outliers, assumptions of normality and factorability, exploratory factor analysis was employed to test the hypothesised framework of components of performance. It was proposed that expatriate performance is multifactorial and is structured hierarchically with contextual and task performance at the upper hierarchical level and Campbell's (1990) eight performance factors at the lower level. With this sample of 106 expatriates, it appeared that the latent structure of expatriate performance was comprised of six factors with no upper level of hierarchy. The design of the research is such that evidence for an assertion may be drawn from a number of sources and methods so that one source or method offers confirmation for another or at least it raises disparate findings that draws focus for

further investigation (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2008). The data from SMEs offered evidence that categorisation of the performance items along task and contextual performance factors was much more difficult to undertake than sorting the items across Campbell's eight factors of performance. This was evidenced by a minimal median kappa agreement amongst SMEs of .23 for task and contextual performance and a moderate median kappa of .50 for the eight factors. The SME agreement with the literature for Campbell's theory at a kappa of .91 offered strong evidence for the content validity of the items based upon the theoretical framework underpinning the research. With the aim of averting any criticism that the domain had been insufficiently sampled and thus content deficient, the rationale behind the exclusion of any expatriate specific components in the scale was offered.

Given these results chapter 5 utilises the six component expatriate job performance developed to test the seven groups of hypotheses: six hypotheses detailed in chapter 2 and the seventh added from the findings of the content analysis of the interview data. The hypotheses have been restructured to test the six components rather than the originally hypothesised eight components of performance. Rather than renumber the hypotheses which might lead to confusion and difficulty in referencing back to earlier sections of the thesis, those relating to non-job specific task performance (hypotheses with the suffix "-2") and supervision/leadership performance (hypotheses with the suffix "-7") have merely been removed from commentary in the following analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The previous chapter focused upon the two overlying research questions, (a) how the performance of expatriates is measured by expatriates and supervisors and (b) what is perceived to assist or hinder expatriate performance. Interviews were conducted to help answer these questions and, with the information relating to the components of performance, the Expatriate Performance Scale was developed.

This chapter uses the definitions and operationalisation of performance and other antecedent variables reported in the previous chapters to discuss the relationships found between the variables in the data. The chapter is based upon the quantitative survey questionnaire focusing, firstly, upon preliminary analysis of the data and, secondly, the main section which reports on the analysis of the survey data to test each of the hypotheses in turn. The following chapter 6 will take this analysis a step further by discussing the significance of the results. It will place the findings in the context of the extent literature based upon the framework from chapter 2 and consider the implications for practitioners.

Preliminary analysis

The data were examined for errors prior to calculating total scores or conducting any analysis (Pallant, 2005). Firstly, categorical variables were checked for (a) outliers that may have been introduced to the data due to incorrect data entry and (b) missing data by running the minimum and maximum dispersion function in SPSS producing a frequency table. Secondly, continuous variables were checked for out-of-range values and missing data using the descriptive statistics output in SPSS. Outliers and input errors were found and corrected by reference back to the original questionnaire responses.

Univariate Outliers

The data matrix was cleaned and checked for evaluation assumptions required of multiple regression analysis based upon the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and Pallant (2005): outliers, normality, linearity, and multicollinearity. Regression analysis is particularly sensitive to outliers as extreme cases have a high impact on the regression solution and precision of regression weights (Tabachnick & Fidell,). Thus, firstly, the data were checked for outliers that sat separately from the data distributed under the normal distribution curve. The main emphasis was placed upon *z*-scores beyond $\pm$3.29 as a criterion for determining outliers to be treated (Tabachnick & Fidell). However, other methods were utilised to confirm the need to amend the scores identified utilising *z*-score criterion. Using the explore function in descriptive statistics in SPSS the mean scores were compared with the 5% trimmed mean for each of the scales as the first indicator of variables which created possible outliers. Level of training rigour and career commitment had mean values different enough to suggest further investigation: a mean of .93 compared with the 5% trimmed mean of .70 for the first and mean of 27.0 compared with the 5% trimmed mean of 27.2 for the latter. Next, histograms showing distribution with a normal curve plotted against them were viewed for extreme values at the tails. A number of histograms showed data points sitting beyond the majority thus suggesting further potential outliers: the variables of interest here were again level of training rigour and career commitment as well as selection, career relevance, general adjustment, work adjustment, relational breach, violation, and perceived cultural similarity. Box plots were then checked for data points that extended more than 1.5 box lengths from the box containing 50 percent of the cases (suggesting outliers as defined by SPSS [Pallant, 2005]) and outliers were identified by case number for further investigation - in SPSS the extreme outliers are marked with an asterisk. The variables where outliers were found in box plots were selection (the 12-item scale),

level of training rigour, general adjustment, and work adjustment. To ascertain whether the outliers required treatment, their potential impact was first assessed by reference to the four methods of identification as detailed above. Those outliers that were clearly a problem across the majority of the methods of assessment were still retained but with alteration. As these scores are based upon the total scale scores, which required calculation again after dealing with missing data, the specific detail of the cases altered is reported after discussion of the techniques utilised for dealing with missing data.

Normality

The assumption of normality for each variable was tested by calculating, firstly, the skewness and kurtosis statistics, secondly, through visual assessment of histograms with overlaid normal curves and, finally, by calculating expected normality probability plots. These are all available through running the SPSS descriptive statistics analysis. At a figure of zero on the skewness and kurtosis figures, the distribution of scores is deemed to be normal (Pallant, 2005), thus normality statistics above an absolute value of 1 (i.e. >1 or < -1) were located and then a significance value was calculated by dividing each statistic by its standard error. Five variables were identified as potentially having non-normal distributions: level of training rigor (S = 2.15, sig 9.1, K = 3.56 sig 7.6), adjustment to general life (S = -1.25, sig -5.3, K = 3.18 sig 6.8), adjustment to work (S = -1.51, sig -6.4, K = 4.84 sig 10.4), and perceived cultural similarity (S = 0.71, sig 3.0, K = 1.25 sig 2.7). The skewness and kurtosis and their significance values were not definitive in determining any departure from normality. Thus, a second set of criteria to determine unacceptable levels of skewness and kurtosis were utilised. The absolute values of less than 2 for skewness and less than 5 for kurtosis were set as the cut-off points (Kendall & Stuart, 1958 as cited in Tharenou et al., 2007). As there were

no figures above the critical cut-off points, it was determined that normality did not deviate sufficiently to warrant manipulation of the data. The histograms were also visually checked. Although there appeared to be some skew in the distribution of the first four above mentioned variables, kurtosis could not be determined on level of training rigour (probably due to outliers being excluded from the normal curve) and perceived cultural similarity. To check further, the expected normality probability plots for all variables were viewed in order to ascertain the variables that had data points that did not line up on the diagonal (cumulative normal distribution). Level of training rigour and adjustment to work were the only variables left with questionable distributions. Perceived cultural similarity and adjustment to general life only departed from normal at the extremities due to outliers and the latter two variables exhibited very slight kurtosis on these expected normality probability plots (Hair et al., 1998). Level of training rigour and perceived cultural similarity were then transformed so they could be visually reassessed for any noticeable improvement. Comparison was made based upon the histogram and normality probability plots between the original form of the variable, the square root transformation, logarithmic transformation and inverse transformation of both variables. Work adjustment was also reflected due to the slight negative skew. The best transformation for the training rigour and perceived cultural similarity variables was the logarithmic transformation. However, even these transformations and the square root inverse transformation on the adjustment to work variable did not effect a great change to the distribution curves. Given than normality is not an important assumption for regression analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), it was decided to accept the findings from the “less than 2 for skewness and less than 5 for kurtosis rules” in determining that any deviation from normal distribution was minor and did not require treatment.

Linearity

Linearity and homoscedasticity of the relationship between two variables are important for regression analysis as regression is based upon correlations, which can only be calculated on a linear relationship. Although the analysis will not be invalidated by non-linear relationships, effect will be underestimated (Hair et al., 1998). Homoscedasticity is related to normality because it assumes that the variability of the dependant variable at one level of the independent variable will be the same as variability at another level (Hair et al.). Given that there has not been any great divergence from the assumption of normality on any of the variables, it was doubtful that homoscedasticity would prove to be a great problem. Both of the assumptions were assessed through scatterplots which graph the relationship between two variables both prior to, and after, regression analysis. The scatterplots plot the standardised residuals against the standardised predicted values of the regression equations. The distribution of the residuals was nearly rectangular with a spread around the centre (a line drawn through the 0-axis point). The only variable of potential concern was psychological contract violation. Although the band enclosing the residuals was approximately equal in width at all predicted values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) it tended to be in the shape of a downwardly pointing parallelogram rather than a rectangle. Not being typical of an indication of heteroscedasticity where the band enclosing the points is generally wider at one end than the other, it was deemed that the assumption of homoscedasticity and linearity held for psychological contract violation as it did for all other variables.

Multivariate Outliers

Multivariate outliers were assessed using the method suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). SPSS regression analysis was used with Mahalanobis distance as the output to determine cases that sit outside the cluster of data points around the centroid

of the means of the variables. Once all scales had been finalised and missing data imputed, regression analysis was run on 39 independent variables (covariates and sub-scales used in the analyses) and the Mahalanobis distance searched for values above $\chi 2 = 73.40$ at $p=0.001$ (the critical chi square value for 40 degrees of freedom) as a conservative estimate. There was no distance above 68.07 and thus it was determined that there was no evidence of multivariate outliers in the data matrix.

Missing Data

The extent of the missing data needed to be determined because missing data can weaken statistical power and reduce the validity of inference that the statistics can offer (Allison, 2002; Fichman & Cummings, 2003). The following set of procedures and discussion may be viewed as exhaustive but there is evidence that "few researchers, if any, treat missing data in a principled way" (Fichman & Cummings, 2003, p.289) and thus to avoid inclusion amongst such research a rigorous approach to missing data analysis and techniques has been taken here. Care has been taken to "avoid tricks that apparently solve the missing-data problem" (Schafer & Graham, 2002, p.149) so that bias is minimised and accuracy maximised given the particular parameters of the sample. In order to calculate the incidence of missing data in the data matrix a frequency analysis was run on both the continuous and categorical variables in SPSS. The highest percentage of missing data was found on item 40 in the importance of the performance criterion scale (the second section of question 36) which asked about the importance of teaching and coaching direct reports. On this item 10.38% of the data were missing (11 cases). This missing data is attributable to either no response to the entire second part of the question (8 cases in total, 7.5% of respondents) or due to the fact that the respondent had no-one reporting to them. The missing data on the entire importance scale may be due to the layout of the final two scales which is somewhat

different from the rest of the questionnaire in that the two scales are laid out side by side as they share the same criteria content. It may have been perceived by the respondents that there was choice of answering one scale or the other, although no-one answered the importance scale in preference to the ranking scale to lend support to this suggestion. An alterative, and most plausible, explanation is that by the time the respondents who worked down the page rather than across the page finished the ranking scale they then moved onto reading the final instructions and failed to return to the beginning of question 36 to respond to the importance scale. This might suggest that in order to improve the response rate on the importance scale, it would have been better to repeat the item contents with a second question rather than try to integrate them. This would also then lend the format of the two scales to existing on-line survey packages which was not possible with the existing format.

Based upon the initial analysis of the missing-data patterns, an alternative explanation appeared plausible. The initial analysis was undertaken as a step towards determining whether the missing data on the importance of performance scale was missing at random. The tabulation option in describing patterns in the Missing Values Analysis module of SPSS was conducted to see if there were any overall missing patterns evident in the data. As was evident by a simple scanning of the percentages of missing data for each variable, the missing patterns analysis confirmed that patterns only existed for the items on the importance scale. There were two sets of patterns: one had missing data (an average of 7.08% missing data) over the entire scale (4 cases) and the other had an average of 8.14% missing data for only items 30 to 48 (2 cases). These last 19 items were presented on the second page of question 36 in the questionnaire. The average scores on all variables in the study for these cases were compared with the average scores for the cases where full data was available (55 cases) to see if there was an indication of non-randomness for further investigation. Those who failed to answer

all 48 items tended to be younger (a mean of 5.25 compared with 5.67), at a lower level in the organisation (0.47 compared with .53), with much less experience in length of assignment (9.75 months compared with 37.71 months), overseas experience (45 months compared with 84 months) and overseas assignments (0.5 compared with 1.04). They had less rigorous training (none compared with 1.07), their assignment was seen as less relevant to their careers (2.43 compared with 2.83), it took them more effort to adjust (3.18 compared with 2.8), they were at an earlier stage of adjustment (2.8 compared with 1.97) and had less education (3.5 compared with 5.15, which is the difference between diploma and degree level). Those who failed to answer only the second page of the importance scale items tended to be older than those who answered all questions (7.5 compared with 5.67), more senior (0.74 compared with .53), and had a slightly higher income (5 compared with 4.75). They had more overseas assignment experience (1.5 compared with 1.04) but less education (3.5 compared with 5.15). They also tended to have felt a higher violation of psychological contract terms (2.5 compared with 1.98) and were less adjusted (4.67 compared with 5.53). Perhaps the first group was less experienced and less connected with their assignment and thus did not have the willingness to answer, or have knowledge about what parts of their performance were important. The second group appear to be busy upper level executives who may have failed to answer the second half merely due to time limitations and questionnaire fatigue. The only two variables that were not descriptive and that might have further impact upon non-randomness of data were the higher violation and lowered sense of adjustment. The relative scores on these variables tend to indicate that personality and stress levels might have had more of an impact upon the failure to complete the questionnaire.

It has been stated that in many cases in psychological studies the probability of missingness is not necessarily related to the true value on the missing data (Missing Not

at Random) or other variables in the data set (Missing At Random), but rely upon external factors that may be related to the missing value or other variables (Schafer & Graham, 2002). It appeared that the data might be still Missing At Random but perhaps not Missing Completely At Random and thus required further investigation as discussed later.

Fortunately, the degree of missing data in the importance of performance criteria scale was not replicated in other variables. The total percentage of missing data was calculated by dividing the number of empty cells in the SPSS data matrix by the total number of cells. This calculation indicated that there was 2.91% missing data in the expatriate surveys and 6.33% in the supervisor surveys. This is an acceptably low level of missing data: 5% of data points missing appears to be viewed in the literature as negligible (Fichman & Cummings, 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) although guidelines as to the degree of missing data acceptable for various sample sizes is yet to get determined (Tabachnick & Fidell, ; Tsikriktsis, 2005).

The categorisation of the type of missing data to determine whether they are at random or not was achieved utilising the two methods suggested by Tsikriktsis (2003) and Fichman and Cummings (2003; Tsikriktsis, 2005) both of which have referenced work by Little and Rubin, 1987. Categorisation is important in order to determine the methods most appropriate to handling the missing data. Firstly, tests to determine whether the data was Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) were sought to ascertain whether the information from the patterns analysis discussed earlier was confirmed. Separate variance *t*-tests compare the distribution of cases with missing and present data. If the two groups have approximately the same distribution then the missing data is said to be MCAR. The separate variance *t*-tests are not however useful where only a few data are missing (Hill, 1997), thus this method was not applicable to these data. The first method utilised to check whether the data were MCAR was Little's chi-square test

(Fichman & Cummings, 2003). If the *p* value for the test is not significant then the data can be determined to be MCAR. A significance value is that under 0.5, therefore for the data to be MCAR the *p* value needs to be above 0.5 (Garson, 2008). Little's chi-square test is available by running Estimated Maximisation statistics in the Missing Values Module of SPSS. The Chi-Square result ($\chi^2 = 1624.23$, $df = 1615$, $p = .431$) was just below the $p = 0.5$ significance cut off point. It was thus determined that the missing data were not MCAR.

In the second method each valid data point in the data matrix is replaced with the value of one, and each missing datum point is replaced with zero. The variables with the missing data indicators of one and zero are then correlated (Tsikriktsis, 2005). Low correlations indicate randomness and if this occurs for all variable pairs then the missing data can be categorised as MCAR. Although Fichman and Cummings (2003) stated that no test exists for Missing at Random (MAR), if there are some significant correlations the missing data may be classified as missing at random (Tsikriktsis, 2005). For this data set there were indeed a number of significant correlations particularly between items measuring various types of support. These significant correlations at the 0.01 level ranged from an alpha of .221 to 1.0. This indicated that the missing data could not be classified as MCAR thus confirming Little's chi-square test result. MAR was thus assumed. That is, the probability of some of the data being missing depends upon some of the other variables. Departure from MAR in the data set is a possibility but given the closeness of the significance statistic to the cut-off point of .5 in Little's measure for MCAR at $p = .431$ and the minimal level of missing data, it will not have a great impact and arguably not serious enough to warrant further consideration (Schafer & Graham, 2002).

The categorisation of randomness is dependent upon to what the existence of missing data relates. With MAR, the existence of missing data on a variable is

independent of the respondent's true response on that variable. MCAR must meet the same above condition as MAR but in addition it is also independent of the respondent's response on other variables (Tsikriktsis, 2005). MCAR and MAR are relevant to the handling of missing data due to the assumptions underpinning the various missing data techniques. Listwise and pairwise deletion are suitable if the data are MCAR but if they are not, then missing values should be imputed (Garson, 2008). Even under the conditions of MCAR deletion can be inefficient, particularly when missing data are distributed over a data set with multi-item scales thus causing large parts of the data set to be lost (Schafer & Graham, 2002).

It was determined that missing data would best be managed by utilising imputation techniques. Although there are suggestions that when the amount of missing data are small (less than 10% as found in this research) the selection of the missing data technique is not critical (Raaijmakers, 1999; Roth & Switzer, 1995), it is still valuable to weigh the options available for the incremental benefits that one technique may offer over another. The literature indicates that imputation procedures offer more advantages over deletion procedures for multi-item scales (Raaijmakers, 1999; Roth, Switzer, & Switzer, 1999; Schafer & Graham, 2002; Tsikriktsis, 2005). The most important advantages in replacing the missing data through imputation techniques are the retention of sample size and statistical power (Raaijmakers, 1999; Roth et al., 1999) which is emphasised in the literature that specifically examines the applicability of missing data techniques in Likert-type data scale scores (Roth et al., 1999). A range of imputation techniques successfully recreated the original estimates of correlations in a Monte Carlo study by Roth and colleagues (1999) and offered much lower levels of bias and smaller dispersion around the true score than listwise deletion. These techniques are particularly useful when there is missing data in multi-item scales. Firstly there is more information available for the imputation process (Fichman & Cummings, 2003; Roth et al., 1999).

The multiple item scales help in the process due to the high levels of inter-correlation of the items. This assumes that scales with acceptable reliability are utilised. Secondly, imputation techniques retain the information available from the other items in the same scale as the missing data which would also be lost in deletion techniques (Roth, Campion, & Jones, 1996; Roth & Switzer, 1995; Roth et al., 1999). This preservation of non-missing information is important when statistical power may be compromised in studies with smaller sample sizes.

In their study examining the predictors of performance, Roth, Campion, and Jones (1996) compared four common missing data techniques: listwise deletion, pairwise deletion, mean substitution, and regression estimation. They found no significant validity coefficients using listwise deletion, one with pairwise deletion and several using mean substitution and regression estimation. Listwise deletion can delete a large amount of data which impacts upon effect sizes (Raaijmakers, 1999; Roth et al., 1999; Tsikriktsis, 2005). Roth suggested that it is the least accurate technique in correlation and regression analyses although it has been found to be the most prevalent in a number of studies analysing the different methods used (Roth et al., 1996). The amount of dispersion around the true score in Roth and colleague's 1999 Monte Carlo study under listwise deletion was 3 to 4 times that of imputation techniques, which the authors attributed to the large loss of data: 33% of cases were deleted from the analysis with 20% of missing data. Based upon calculations on independent variables alone, if listwise deletion had been used in the current expatriate study, 46 expatriate cases would have been lost (43%) leaving a sample size of 58, which would have resulted in a loss of power (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). Pairwise deletion is typically the technique which is most widely adopted (Roth et al., 1999) and advocated for its simplicity (Roth & Switzer, 1995) as it is commonly available in statistical packages. However, when total scores are calculated in an instrument with a large percentage of total scores, the loss of

data is very similar to the listwise approach. Pairwise deletion precludes finding a total score thus deletes many more items and, consequently, variables from the analysis than it would for single item scales (Roth et al.). Mean substitution is most often criticised as being the least accurate and some suggest that it should not be used (Pallant, 2005; Roth & Switzer, 1995; Switzer, Roth, & Switzer, 1998; Tharenou et al., 2007). By inserting the mean the variance is reduced and so reduces the size of correlations with other variables (Fichman & Cummings, 2003; Roth et al., 1996). The one caveat to this in that person mean imputation (the mean of the scale items for the case) and item mean imputation (the mean of that particular item for the sample or group) offer different levels of benefits and disadvantages and thus should not be treated equally in discussions on mean substitution. Person mean imputation was found to be the most effective method for estimating correlations, multiple Rs and regression coefficients in Roth and colleagues' 1999 Monte Carlo study and is an appropriate method for imputing missing data in multi-item scales (Raaijmakers, 1999; Roth et al., 1999). Roth and Raaijmakers recommended that item mean imputation be avoided as it does not take into account individual differences. Regression estimation was found to have a number of benefits in the Roth Monte Carlo study (1999). The major benefits of regression estimation are that information is saved as the non-missing data are preserved, it allows for individual differences, and, unlike mean substitution, it also maintains variability in the distribution (Roth et al., 1996).

Having given due consideration to the characteristics of the data available, the size of the sample, the small percentage of missing data, and the reliability of the scales (Roth & Switzer, 1995), regression imputation without error was chosen as the main method of data imputation because it facilitates the preservation of data, is appropriate when items are highly correlated as one would expect in multiple item scales, and offers relatively low levels of bias. Regression imputation without an error component added

was found to be especially efficient and without bias (Roth & Switzer, ; Switzer et al., 1998). In Roth and Switzer's (1995) study, regression imputation consistently achieved better outcomes than item mean substitution: It had less dispersion around the true scores, less bias, less dispersion around true regression coefficients, and smaller levels of bias around true regression coefficients. The latter two regression based statistics are particularly relevant to the intended use of the expatriate data set. Schafer and Graham (2002) stated that even under MCAR, item mean substitution reduces variances, distorts covariances and intercorrelations, and has the potential to increase the error rate. The authors stated that under a situation with 25 percent missing values the error rate would be three times what it should be: from a 95% confidence interval to 86%. Mean person substitution also assumes that the means and standard deviations of the missing values are equal to those of the items used to predict them (Raaijmakers, 1999 citing Raymond, 1986). In additional support for regression imputation, it is relatively simple to implement (Roth & Switzer), unlike the more complex techniques such as maximum likelihood and multiple imputation which require sophisticated analysis packages. Maximum likelihood performs optimally in large samples (thus not suited to this context) (Schafer & Graham) and multiple imputation will offer a different result each time it is run (Allison, 2002).

There were however, some variables in the expatriate data which were not suitable for inclusion in the regression imputation calculations. Some of the items were not applicable to some cases and therefore an answer on those items would be false if imputed. These included items relating to partners where the expatriate had no partner on assignment (question 23 on the degree of practical support, items xi and xii) and items relating to subordinates where the expatriate had no supervisor role (question 36 on performance, items ix, xvii and xxxi). These items were not included amongst the predicted variables in the SPSS V14 Missing Values Analysis procedure for imputing

data. The process adopted to deal with missing data for these variables was to remove these above items from the imputation procedure. Total scores were then calculated utilising the mean function thus offering the mean on the remaining items in the scale (Tharenou, 2004).

As discussed earlier in the section on univariate outliers, total scale scores were recalculated utilising the imputed full-data. *Z*-scores were recalculated on these total scale scores and suggested alteration on two cases. Case 11 on the variable general adjustment had a *z*-score of -4.49, and -4.84 on work adjustment; clearly beyond the cut-off point of ±3.29. Case 60 was also detected as a univariate outlier with a *z*-score of 3.79 on perceived cultural similarity. The total scores on cases 11 and 60 for these variables were altered to one unit (being at the second decimal place) above the next most extreme score for negative scores and below the next most extreme score for positive scores. The *z*-scores were then recalculated to ensure the ±3.29 rule was not violated.

Testing of Hypotheses

Table 34 presents a summary of the significant correlates with the expatriate performance components. Means, standard deviations, range of values, scale reliabilities, and intercorrelations for all variables analysed in the study are presented in Table 35. The results indicate that a number of variables were significantly correlated with at least one component of performance. Most relationships were in the expected direction with the exception of the negative relationships with practical support and perceived cultural similarity. Although none of the hypotheses was tested using correlations, Table 34 offers valuable insight into the variables that have potential to predict expatriate performance. The remainder of the chapter reports upon the analysis

and results of the tests of the hypotheses. At the .05 significance level, 21 of the 156 individual relationships proposed in the hypotheses were supported to some extent.

Table 34

Significant correlations with components of performance

	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Age		.24*			.24*	.25*
Position				.20*	.41**	.43**
Months on assignment		.28**				
Months overseas		.30**	.20*			.19*
British		.19*				
Oceania		-.20*				
Cultural similarity		-.20*			-.21*	-.20*
Selection						.19*
Practical support	-.22*	-.23*				
Role Clarity	.27**	.20*		.32**	.22*	.35**
Career relevance					.29**	.27**
Career commitment				.20*	.25**	.28**
Adjust to general life		.22*		.23*	.23*	
Interaction adjustment	.28**	.34**		.26**	.43**	.42**
Work adjustment	.26**	.25*		.33**	.32**	.38**
Effort to adjust to interacting					-.21*	-.20*
Transactional obligation		.21*			.25**	
Relational obligation				.21*		
Psychological contract fulfilment				.20*		
Psychological contract violation				-.33**		

Notes. 1TP = task performance; 3CP = communication; 4DE= demonstrating effort; 5MD = maintaining personal discipline; 6TL = teamwork and leadership performance; 8MA = management and administration performance.

*p<.05. **p<.01. ***p<.001.

Table 35

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	Mean	SD	Range of values	No. items[a]	Stand. alpha	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	1.57	0.50	1→2			106									
2. Age	5.68	1.86	2→11			106	.09								
3. Partner	1.64	0.83	0→2			106	-.24*	.18							
4. Dependent	1.87	0.77	0→2			106	-.37**	-.07	.61**						
5. Position	4.62	1.96	1→8			106	.34**	.35**	-.17	-.31**					
6. Months on assignment	29.58	42.85	1→211			106	.04	.39**	.09	-.09	.19				
7. Months OS	84.51	75.30	4→336			105	.06	.37**	.22*	-.04	.23*	.58**			
8. Cantonese	2.42	0.99	1→5			106	-.03	-.10	-.01	-.16	-.12	-.02	.17		
9. Mandarin	1.79	1.01	1→5			106	-.12	-.11	-.02	-.12	.03	-.04	.04	.38**	
10. Country	0.76	0.43	0→1			106	-.13	.22*	.11	.11	-.07	.28**	.25*	-.17	.02
11. No. assignments	1.10	1.31	0→5			105	.17	.21*	.04	-.09	.14	-.02	.38**	.12	.07
12. Education	5.21	1.93	1→8			104	-.03	.18	.04	-.10	-.05	.05	.02	-.02	.01
13. Income	4.60	1.83	1→8			105	.42**	.41**	-.11	-.33**	.67**	.28**	.17	-.20*	-.08
14. British	0.58	0.50	0→1			106	-.08	-.02	-.04	.08	.12	.09	-.09	-.22*	-.23*

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	Mean	SD	Range of values	No. items[a]	Stand. alpha	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. Chinese	0.08	0.28	0→1			106	-.07	-.15	.01	-.26**	.04	-.14	.08	.52**	.47**
16. European	0.08	0.28	0→1			106	.13	.02	.01	.05	-.10	-.07	-.01	-.13	-.04
17. Oceania	0.14	0.35	0→1			106	.14	.25*	-.12	-.14	-.02	.12	.07	-.07	-.02
18. Other ethnicity	0.10	0.31	0→1			106	-.08	-.12	.19	.22*	-.12	-.08	.00	.07	.01
19. Expat/Australian firm	0.23	0.42	0→1			106	.25*	-.10	-.04	-.05	.02	-.18	-.24*	-.12	-.09
20. Expat/OS firm	0.20	0.40	0→1			106	-.04	-.11	-.07	-.07	.01	-.15	-.22*	-.12	.03
21. Localised/Local firm	0.29	0.46	0→1			106	-.15	.16	.15	.00	-.25*	.22*	.27**	.27**	-.01
22. Localised/MNC	0.25	0.43	0→1			106	-.03	-.01	-.07	.13	.13	-.05	.03	-.07	.05
23. Self employed	0.04	0.19	0→1			106	-.03	.09	.03	-.03	.22*	.31**	.27**	.02	.04
24. Cultural similarity	2.17	0.65	1→4.01	8	.81	106	.03	.05	.01	.13	-.08	.05	-.06	-.09	-.15
25. Selection	3.11	0.60	1.36→4.71	14	.84	106	.24*	-.13	-.04	-.08	.28**	-.07	.02	.08	.22*
26. Selection processes & policies	2.54	1.07	1→5			106	.15	-.17	-.05	-.11	.13	-.09	-.04	-.02	.12
27. Training	2.61	0.78	1→4.25	8	.88	106	.11	-.13	.02	-.01	.09	-.20*	-.04	.08	.17

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	Mean	SD	Range of values	No. itemsa	Stand. alpha	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
28. Training rigour	0.94	1.74	0→6			106	-.04	-.08	-.02	-.08	.09	-.01	-.03	.08	.29**
29. Practical support	2.44	0.72	1→4.09	11	.86	106	.30**	-.19	-.06	-.03	.17	-.23*	-.19	.02	.06
30. Role clarity	5.03	1.18	1.67→7	6	.90	106	.21*	.07	.03	-.07	.29**	.20*	.29**	-.05	.00
31. Mentoring	2.56	1.04	1→5	18	.97	106	-.06	-.27**	-.02	.05	-.09	-.20*	-.11	.05	.06
32. Career relevance	52.10	9.57	26→70	14	.91	106	.36**	.08	-.12	-.15	.40**	.09	.01	-.07	-.03
33. Career commitment	26.96	6.18	8→39	8	.85	106	.19	.11	-.09	.00	.22*	-.09	.01	-.14	-.05
34. Adjustment to general life	5.62	0.96	2.85→7	7	.89	106	.20*	.22*	.00	.00	.16	.22*	.20*	.06	.03
35. Interaction adjustment	5.02	1.41	1→7	4	.91	106	.24*	.15	.04	-.08	.28**	.09	.20*	.08	.16
36. Work adjustment	5.77	0.87	3.32→7	3	.90	106	.28**	.29**	-.03	-.12	.42**	.20*	.24*	-.05	.03
37. Total adjustment	5.48	0.89	2.99→7	14	.93	106	.27**	.24*	.01	-.06	.29**	.22*	.25**	.06	.09
38. Stage of adjustment	3.08	1.17	1→4			106	-.08	-.07	-.06	.01	-.02	-.25**	-.22*	-.08	.00
39. Effort to adjust to general life	2.91	0.83	1→5	7	.87	106	-.19	-.13	-.22*	-.16	-.07	-.20*	-.13	-.03	.07
40. Effort to adjust to interaction	2.78	1.01	1→4.75	4	.94	106	-.08	.01	.04	.15	-.10	-.13	-.16	-.16	-.15
41. Effort to adjust to work	2.75	1.01	1→5	3	.87	106	-.16	-.08	-.09	.02	-.13	-.09	-.10	-.11	-.11

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	Mean	SD	Range of values	No. itemsa	Stand. alpha	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
42. Total effort to adjust	2.83	0.76	1→4.36	14	.91	106	-.18	-.06	-.12	-.03	-.11	-.15	-.13	-.11	-.05
43. Transactional obligation	2.96	0.92	1→5	3	.61	106	.22*	.03	-.24*	-.15	.23*	-.04	-.11	.04	-.01
44. Relational obligation	2.91	0.92	1→4.75	4	.78	106	.02	-.19	-.05	.05	.08	-.22*	-.11	.12	-.01
45. Total obligation	2.93	0.80	1→4.57	7	.79	106	.12	-.11	-.15	-.04	.16	-.16	-.12	.10	-.01
46. Transactional breach of PC	2.85	0.98	1→5	3	.81	106	-.21*	-.08	.14	-.01	-.23*	.08	-.03	.05	.07
47. Relational breach of PC	3.07	0.84	1→5	5	.74	106	-.27**	-.06	-.05	.00	-.17	.07	-.10	.08	.10
48. Total breach of PC	2.98	0.80	1→5	8	.82	106	-.28**	-.08	.04	-.01	-.22*	.08	-.09	.07	.08
49. Overall fulfilment	3.36	0.90	1→5			106	.16	.14	-.02	-.01	.25**	.09	.14	-.02	-.08
50. Total violation	1.96	1.05	1→5	4	.97	106	-.20*	-.03	.00	-.11	-.18	.15	-.06	.06	.02
51. Task performance	4.09	0.53	2.71→5	12	.91	106	-.06	.07	.02	.02	.02	.18	.19	-.03	.10
52. Communication	3.91	0.54	2.75→5	4	.79	106	-.08	.24*	-.01	-.12	.17	.28**	.30**	-.06	-.04
53. Demonstrating effort	3.80	0.79	1.52→5	2	.89	106	-.10	.14	-.01	.01	.16	.14	.20*	.09	.04
54. Maintain Discipline	3.94	0.58	2.2→5	6	.80	106	.04	.18	.02	.08	.20*	.13	.11	.00	-.04
55. Team & Leadership	3.80	0.52	2.63→5	8	.87	106	.10	.24*	-.02	-.17	.41**	.15	.09	.01	.07
56. Management & Admin.	3.73	0.55	2.32→5	6	.81	106	.11	.25*	-.02	-.14	.43**	.07	.19*	.03	.09

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
11. No. assignments	.11													
12. Education	.32**	-.07												
13. Income	.23*	.20*	.11											
14. British	-.11	.04	-.10	.02										
15. Chinese	-.07	.00	.08	-.11	-.36**									
16. European	.01	-.08	.09	-.06	-.36**	-.09								
17. Oceanian	.16	.05	-.03	.25**	-.48**	-.12	-.12							
18. Other ethnicity	.04	-.05	.04	-.16	-.40**	-.10	-.10	-.14						
19. Expat/Australian firm	-.12	-.06	-.14	.10	-.18	.00	.16	.10	.04					
20. Expat/OS firm	-.17	-.15	.06	.08	.18	.02	-.15	-.07	-.09	-.27**				
21. Localised/Local firm	-.03	.04	.10	-.30**	-.05	-.05	.03	.04	.05	-.35**	-.32**			
22. Localised/MNC	.27**	.12	.00	.11	.04	-.02	-.02	-.04	.02	-.31**	-.28**	-.37**		
23. Self employed	.11	.06	-.05	.07	.07	.12	-.06	-.08	-.07	-.11	-.10	-.13	-.11	
24. Cultural similarity	.17	.08	.06	.03	.17	-.13	-.20*	-.02	.04	.09	-.01	-.03	-.06	.03
25. Selection	-.28**	.03	-.39**	.07	-.13	.20*	.03	-.04	.04	.18	.03	-.29**	.04	.16

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
26. Selection processes & policies	-.14	.11	-.27**	.09	-.19	.20*	.16	-.05	.03	.24*	.05	-.23*	-.05	.04
27. Training	-.20*	.12	-.27**	-.07	-.18	.11	.16	-.08	.14	.14	.05	-.18	.02	-.03
28. Training rigour	.08	.02	.02	.03	-.08	.25*	.03	-.17	.07	-.05	-.06	-.19	.26**	.09
29. Practical support	-.27**	-.04	-.14	.12	-.13	.11	.03	.03	.05	.27**	.10	-.32**	.07	-.22*
30. Role clarity	-.17	.00	-.11	.13	.11	.00	.02	-.10	-.08	.01	-.05	.02	-.05	.16
31. Mentoring	-.11	.08	-.08	-.14	.02	.02	.00	-.08	.03	-.04	-.06	.03	.08	-.04
32. Career relevance	-.10	.01	-.15	.36**	.05	-.07	.09	-.02	-.08	.08	-.04	-.17	.08	.12
33. Career commitment	-.09	.15	.06	.22*	.06	-.02	.07	-.01	-.14	.07	-.13	-.05	.20*	-.20*
34. Adjustment to general life	.14	.16	.05	.28**	.06	-.16	.11	.00	-.05	.10	-.13	.00	-.02	.11
35. Interaction adjustment	-.11	.14	-.09	.17	.13	-.05	.07	-.12	-.10	.07	-.11	-.01	-.01	.11
36. Work adjustment	-.11	.17	-.07	.26**	.08	-.10	.13	.07	-.24*	.04	-.06	-.09	.04	.17
37. Total adjustment	.01	.18	-.03	.28**	.11	-.13	.12	-.04	-.13	.09	-.13	-.02	-.01	.14
38. Stage of adjustment	-.06	-.04	.14	-.06	-.06	.10	-.11	.16	-.08	-.04	.11	-.04	.04	-.14
39. Effort to adjust to general life	-.07	-.09	-.09	-.15	-.01	.02	-.04	.10	-.08	-.09	.08	-.01	.02	.02
41. Effort to adjust to work	.20*	.00	.04	-.11	.06	-.13	-.13	.00	.14	-.05	.03	-.01	.02	.02

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
42. Total effort to adjust	.07	-.11	.01	-.19	-.01	-.07	-.03	.05	.05	-.09	.06	-.02	.04	.03
43. Transactional obligation	-.18	-.09	-.01	.21*	.11	-.02	.10	-.08	-.15	-.05	.13	-.15	.11	-.05
44. Relational obligation	-.22*	-.05	-.21*	-.15	.02	.05	.10	-.17	.03	.14	-.05	-.05	-.04	.01
45. Total obligation	-.23*	-.08	-.14	.00	.06	.02	.12	-.15	-.06	.07	.03	-.11	.03	-.02
46. Transactional breach of PC	.13	-.18	.25*	-.27**	-.07	.09	.08	-.09	.06	.00	-.04	.18	-.10	-.12
47. Relational breach of PC	.12	-.11	.14	-.15	-.02	.05	-.01	-.02	.01	.06	-.07	.11	-.09	-.05
48. Total breach of PC	.13	-.18	.23*	-.23*	-.04	.07	.04	-.07	.04	.03	-.06	.17	-.11	-.08
49. Overall fulfilment	-.05	.10	-.11	.29**	.02	-.05	-.12	.14	-.03	-.06	.02	-.02	.03	.09
50. Total violation	.17	-.06	.10	-.11	.06	.06	-.09	.03	-.10	-.01	-.07	.16	-.11	.03
51. Task Performance	-.04	.13	-.05	-.03	.12	-.05	.07	-.05	-.15	-.13	-.08	.12	.03	.10
52. Communication Performance	.05	.01	.01	.10	.19*	-.08	.11	-.20*	-.12	-.15	-.12	.16	.03	.12
53. Demonstrating effort	.01	.12	.05	-.13	.04	.06	.06	-.12	-.03	-.16	-.19	.14	.19	-.01
54. Maintain Discipline	-.14	-.05	-.12	.00	.03	-.07	.09	.02	-.08	-.11	-.02	.11	.00	.04
55. Team & Leadership	-.12	.15	.00	.26**	.11	.03	.05	-.13	-.10	-.03	-.05	-.05	.11	.05
56. Management & Admin.	-.17	.15	.00	.18	.08	.02	.12	-.13	-.11	-.08	-.01	-.01	.03	.16

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)
Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38
25. Selection	-.12														
26. Selection processes & policies	-.01	.65**													
27. Training	.01	.67**	.55**												
28. Training rigour	.02	.19	.22*	.17											
29. Practical support	.09	.51**	.37**	.57**	.09										
30. Role clarity	-.09	.44**	.16	.32**	-.08	.33**									
31. Mentoring	.02	.23*	.20*	.30**	.07	.42**	.35**								
32. Career relevance	.02	.20*	.20*	.17	.06	.29**	.33**	.24*							
33. Career commitment	.07	.00	.09	.05	-.09	.18	.23*	.12	.39**						
34. Adjustment to general life	.31**	.08	.11	.09	.00	.14	.12	-.18	.29**	.07					
35. Interaction adjustment	.05	.20*	.15	.24*	-.01	.19*	.25*	-.07	.37**	.21*	.63**				
36. Work adjustment	.03	.35**	.13	.28**	-.16	.23*	.52**	.14	.47**	.21*	.41**	.53**			
37. Total adjustment	.19*	.20*	.15	.21*	-.04	.21*	.29**	-.09	.42**	.19	.89**	.88**	.66**		
38. Stage of adjustment	.02	-.07	-.03	-.11	-.02	-.04	-.18	.00	-.21*	.14	-.17	-.18	-.15	-.21*	
39. Effort to adjust to general life	-.17	.01	.04	.05	-.06	-.14	-.12	.16	-.18	-.11	-.46**	-.28**	-.07	-.40**	.25**
40. Effort to adjust to interaction	.09	-.11	-.05	-.06	-.01	-.08	-.22*	.02	-.23*	-.19	-.29**	-.45**	-.18	-.40**	.22*

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38
41. Effort to adjust to work	.02	-.20*	-.03	-.08	.04	-.16	-.32**	-.02	-.32**	-.16	-.26**	-.23*	-.34**	-.33**	.18
42. Total effort to adjust	-.06	-.11	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.18	-.24*	.06	-.29**	-.19	-.45**	-.40**	-.20*	-.48**	.26**
43. Transactional obligation	-.07	.10	.10	.02	-.03	.08	.02	.13	.30**	.14	.12	.14	.23*	.16	.03
44. Relational obligation	-.16	.15	.15	.16	.00	.18	.10	.28**	.12	.05	.01	.18	.09	.09	.06
45. Total obligation	-.14	.15	.15	.11	-.01	.16	.08	.25**	.22*	.10	.07	.18	.17	.14	.06
46. Transactional breach of PC	-.18	-.28**	-.02	-.19	.02	-.35**	-.24*	-.21*	-.38**	-.06	-.19	-.13	-.38**	-.23*	.13
47. Relational breach of PC	-.06	-.38**	-.17	-.30**	-.02	-.37**	-.33**	-.42**	-.32**	-.02	-.16	-.19	-.36**	-.23*	.02
48. Total breach of PC	-.12	-.39**	-.12	-.29**	.00	-.41**	-.33**	-.36**	-.39**	-.04	-.19*	-.17	-.42**	-.25**	.09
49. Overall fulfilment	.13	.29**	.06	.28**	.07	.35**	.44**	.36**	.39**	.14	.22*	.13	.37**	.25*	-.10
50. Total violation	-.09	-.29**	-.14	-.29**	.05	-.47**	-.43**	-.34**	-.36**	-.16	-.21*	-.21*	-.34**	-.27**	.06
51. Task Performance	-.18	.03	.07	-.12	-.09	-.22*	.27**	-.01	.10	.19	.18	.28**	.26**	.29**	-.06
52. Communication	-.20*	-.06	-.01	-.15	-.06	-.23*	.20*	-.15	.00	.08	.22*	.34**	.25*	.33**	-.10
53. Demonstrating effort	-.14	-.07	-.07	-.10	-.09	-.03	.10	.11	.10	.14	.12	.12	.05	.13	-.02
54. Maintaining Discipline	-.12	.15	.12	.10	-.10	.11	.32**	.04	.17	.20*	.23*	.26**	.33**	.32**	-.07
55. Team & Leadership	-.21*	.09	.06	-.03	-.07	.02	.22*	-.05	.29**	.25**	.22*	.43**	.32**	.38**	-.04
56. Management & Admin.	-.20*	.19*	.10	.09	-.04	.01	.35**	-.04	.27**	.28**	.18	.42**	.38**	.36**	-.06

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
40. Effort to adjust to interaction	.46**																
41. Effort to adjust to work	.53**	.55**															
42. Total effort to adjust	.86**	.80**	.78**														
43. Transactional obligation	.15	.10	.13	.16													
44. Relational obligation	.17	.14	.15	.18	.50**												
45. Total obligation	.18	.14	.16	.20*	.82**	.91**											
46. Transactional breach of PC	.11	.12	.30**	.20*	-.19	-.12	-.17										
47. Relational breach of PC	.09	.10	.19*	.16	-.10	-.12	-.13	.58**									
48. Total breach of PC	.11	.12	.28**	.20*	-.16	-.13	-.17	.88**	.89**								
49. Overall fulfilment	-.13	-.27**	-.21*	-.24*	.05	.02	.04	-.57**	-.61**	-.67**							
50. Total violation	.19	.20*	.29**	.27**	.01	-.08	-.05	.55**	.61**	.66**	-.67**						
51. Task performance	.03	-.14	-.09	-.07	.15	.14	.16	-.01	.05	.02	-.01	-.07					
52. Communication	.02	-.07	.14	.03	.21*	.16	.21*	.06	-.05	.02	-.01	-.02	.61**				
53. Demonstrating effort	-.17	-.10	-.15	-.17	.04	.05	.05	.00	-.04	-.02	-.03	-.15	.32**	.25**			
54. Maintaining Discipline	-.12	-.08	-.09	-.14	.14	.21*	.21*	-.13	-.15	-.16	.20*	-.33**	.61**	.55**	.33**		

(table continues)

Table 35 (continued)

Means, Standard Deviations, Range of values Number of Items, Standardised Alpha, Sample Size and Alpha Coefficients

Variable	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
55. Team & Leadership Performance	-.13	-.21*	-.10	-.18	.25**	.15	.22*	-.11	-.09	-.11	.04	-.12	.52**	.59**	.45**	.45**	
56. Management & Admin. Performance	-.07	-.20*	-.12	-.14	.14	.18	.19	-.03	-.14	-.08	.06	-.12	.45**	.48**	.34**	.42**	.61**

Note. All correlation coefficients were rounded to two decimal places.

[a] The number of items and standardised alphas relate to multi-item scales only.

*p<.05. **p<.01. ***p<.001.

Regression Analyses for predictive effects hypotheses 1 to 6

Multiple hierarchical regression analysis techniques were used to test the hypotheses and results were reported to the 5% significance level as the most commonly reported value in psychological studies (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Similar to standard multiple regression, hierarchical regression offers a technique to determine the variance each independent variable uniquely adds to the prediction of the dependent variable. However, hierarchical regression improves upon standard regression for the purposes of this research because a set of control variables can be held constant whilst another set of independent variables is tested for how well each variable predicts variance in the dependent variable (Pallant, 2005). Although Campbell (1990) had suggested using stepwise multiple regression to select and weight predictors, the use of stepwise regression was avoided based upon the advice of other researchers (Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Tharenou et al., 2007; Thompson, 1995).

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) submitted that stepwise regression is a fishing expedition that relies too much upon chance. Whilst hierarchical regression allows for the researcher to choose the order of entry of the independent variables based upon theoretical or logical criteria, stepwise regression leaves this to the statistical program to order entry based upon statistical criteria. The order of input and thus the results are sample specific (Tabachnick & Fidell) and the method is to be avoided if the results are to be generalisable. Thompson detailed the three problems inherent in stepwise regression (Thompson, 1995). Firstly, most computer analysis programs underestimate the degrees of freedom. In order to determine the predictor variables that contribute to most of the variance in a dependent variable (DV), stepwise analysis would compare those predictor variables with others. The degrees of freedom explained are those of the selected predictors. However, in reality all the predictors have been utilised to select the

best ones and thus the degrees of freedom are under-estimated. This has potential to inflate explained variance and increase the chance of Type I errors. The second problem with stepwise regression is that it does not examine all predictors at once to choose the best combination of variables but compares each chosen predictor, or set of predictors, with the remaining predictors to select those which add the most incremental explained variance. Therefore the variables chosen incrementally in this way may not together offer the maximum explained variance. The third problem is that stepwise regression capitalises too much on chance probability. As sampling error is not separated from true variance and is included in the stepwise calculations, this error, which is unique to each sample, has the potential to distort the sample results (Thompson, 1995). Therefore, the results will not be replicated in other samples, particularly when sample and effect sizes are small and there are many predictor variables. These arguments lead to the avoidance of stepwise regression in the current research.

The original hypotheses stated in chapter 2 that included performance components as dependent variables were numbered based upon Campbell's eight components of performance (1990). As the outcome of the component analysis described in chapter 4 revealed six rather than eight components, the numbering of the hypotheses has remained the same but with the deletion of the hypotheses which relate to components 2 (non-job specific task performance) and 7 (supervisory/leadership performance). The hypotheses have not been renumbered so as to facilitate reference back to the originally stated hypotheses.

In the first set of hierarchical regression analysis undertaken, the six components of performance were each regressed in separate analyses on selection (H1a-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), written processes (H1b-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), training (H2a-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), training rigour (H2b-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), practical support (H3a-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), role clarity (H3b-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), mentoring (H3c-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), career relevance (H4-

1,3,4,5,6 and 8), work adjustment (H5a-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), general living adjustment (H5b-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), interaction adjustment (H5c-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), stage of adjustment (H5f-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), effort to adjust to general life (H5h-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), effort to adjust to interacting (H5i-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), effort to adjust to work (H5g-1,3,4,5,6 and 8), and total violation (H6a-1,3,4,5,6 and 8). The control variables entered in the first step of each regression were those that correlated significantly with each of the six components of performance: none for task performance; age, length of assignment, time spent overseas, English ethnicity, Australian/New Zealand ethnicity, and cultural similarity for communication performance; time spent overseas for demonstrating effort; position in organisation for maintaining discipline; age and position in organisation for teamwork and leadership performance; and age, position in organisation, and time spent overseas for management and administration performance. The independent variables to test the hypotheses were then entered as a group in the second step.

The results of the multiple regression analyses to test hypotheses under H1a are provided in Table 36 together with the results for the analysis for the six tests under each of the hypotheses H1b, H2a, H2b, H3a, H3b, H3c, H4, H5a, H5b, H5c, H5f, H5h, H5i, H5g, and H6a. Each of these hypotheses tests the relationship with the six components of performance.

Although not specifically hypothesized, the relationships between previous overseas experience and host language fluency with the six performance components were also explored. Although the assumption within H1a is that these variables are important selection criteria, it is meaningful to check that there are relationships to the various components of performance within the sample. As documented in Appendix G, only time spent overseas was predictive of communication performance within these data. The dearth of statistically significant results does not necessarily mean that the

relationships do not exist because the tests of significance merely confirm that the null hypothesis can be rejected. However, should there be little evidence in the literature of the selection criteria suggested to be of relevance to expatriate outcomes under investigation, caution would need to be taken in further studies and theoretical development so that the relationships are not extrapolated to other expatriate outcome variables without the requisite evidence.

Table 36

Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis – Direct effects

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance. (8)
Step 1						
Control variables						
Age		.19			.13	.11
Position in organisation				.20*	.35***	.36***
Length of assignment		.13				
Time spent overseas		.17	.20*			.06
British ethnicity		.14				
Australian/New		-.21				
Zealand ethnicity						
Cultural similarity		-.24**			-.19*	-.17
		df = (6,98)	*df* = (1,103)	*df* = (1,104)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (4,10)
F		5.41***	4.17*	4.46*	9.32***	7.36***
R^2		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
Adjusted R^2		.20***	.03*	.03*	.19***	.20***
Step 2						
Control variables						
Age		.11			.10	.10
Position in organisation				.06	.25*	.24*
Length of assignment		.13				
Time spent overseas		.00	.20			-.07
British ethnicity		.00				
Australian/New		-.23*				
Zealand ethnicity						
Cultural similarity		-.26**			-.22*	-.16

(table continues)

Table 36 (continued)

Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis – Direct effects

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance. (8)
Main effects						
Selection (H1a)	.00	-.10	.01	-.07	-.02	.01
Written policies (H1b)	.22	.17	-.01	.15	.09	.06
Training (H2a)	-.26	-.23	-.11	-.05	-.15	-.01
Training rigour (H2b)	-.01	.00	-.09	-.05	-.08	-.03
Practical support (H3a)	-.36**	-.14	-.10	-.09	-.04	-.18
Role clarity (H3b)	.31*	.20	-.03	.20	.07	.25*
Mentoring (H3c)	.06	-.04	.23	-.06	.06	-.00
Career relevance (H4)	-.08	-.17	.04	-.07	.07	.02
Work adjustment (H5a)	.04	.18	-.16	.16	-.01	.02
Adjustment to general life (H5b)	.07	.15	.01	.03	-.01	-.06
Interaction adjustment (H5c)	.28*	.23	.19	.11	.36*	.35*
Stage of adjustment (H5f)	-.01	-.00	.05	.00	.05	.04
Effort to adjust to work (H5g)	-.05	.31*	-.13	.13	.10	.07

(table continues)

Table 36 (continued)

Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis – Direct effects

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance. (8)
Effort to adjust to general life (H5h)	.14	.05	-.13	-.10	-.10	-.04
Effort to adjust to interaction (H5i)	.01	-.05	.12	.06	-.02	-.01
Violation (H6a)	-.08	-.13	-.11	-.27*	-.01	.01
	df = (16,89)	*df* = (22,82)	*df* = (17,87)	*df* = (17,88)	*df* = (19,86)	*df* = (20,84)
F (full model)	2.55**	3.49***	.89	1.58	2.65**	2.69**
Overall R^2	.32**	.48***	.15	.23	.37**	.39**
Adjusted R^2	.19**	.35***	-.02	.09	.23**	.25**
Change in R^2	.32**	.23**	.11	.19	.15	.16

$^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$. n = 106

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As a group, the independent variables accounted for 32% of the variance in task performance ($\Delta R^2 = .32$, $F(16,89) = 2.55$, $p < .01$) with practical support ($\beta = -.36$, $p < .01$), role clarity ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$), and interaction adjustment ($\beta = .28$, $p < .05$) being significant predictors of large effect size (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Controlling for age, length of assignment, time spent overseas, British ethnicity, Australian/New Zealand ethnicity, and cultural similarity the independent variables accounted for 23% of the variance in communication performance ($\Delta R^2 = .23$, $F(22,82) = 3.49$, $p < .001$). Effort to adjust to work ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$) was the strongest predictor. The models to explain demonstration of effort and maintenance of self-discipline did not explain a significant amount of variance in those performance components ($\Delta R^2 = .11$, $F(17,87) = 0.89$, $p > .05$ for demonstrating effort and $\Delta R^2 = .19$, $F(17,88) = 1.58$, $p > .05$ for maintaining self-discipline). Controlling for age, position in organisation, and perceived cultural similarity the predictors accounted for 15% of the variance in teamwork and leadership performance ($\Delta R^2 = .15$, $F(19,86) = 2.65$, $p < .01$) with interaction adjustment being the most significant predictor ($\beta = .36$, $p < .05$). Controlling for age, position in organisation, time spent overseas, and perceived cultural similarity, the model explained 16% of the variance in management and administration performance ($\Delta R^2 = .16$, $F(20,84) = 2.69$, $p < .01$) with role clarity ($\beta = .25$, $p < .05$) and interaction adjustment ($\beta = .35$, $p < .05$) being the strongest predictors.

Selection considerations: Hypotheses H1a (1,3-6,8)

Hypothesis 1a-1 proposed that the degree of utilisation of selection considerations would be positively related to job-specific task performance. The results of the hierarchical regression analysis (Table 36) indicated that selection considerations had zero relationship with task performance. Thus, Hypothesis 1a-1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 1a-3 proposed that the degree of utilisation of selection considerations would be positively related to communication performance. The results

in Table 36 indicated that selection considerations were negatively, but not significantly, related to communication performance after controlling for age, length of assignment time spent overseas, ethnicity, and cultural similarity. Therefore, Hypothesis 1a-3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 1a-4 proposed that the degree of utilisation of selection considerations would be positively related to demonstrating effort. The hierarchical regression analysis (Table 36) indicated that after controlling for time spent overseas there was no relationship between selection considerations and demonstrating effort. Hence, hypothesis 1a-4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 1a-5 proposed that the degree of utilisation of selection considerations would be positively related to maintaining personal discipline. Selection considerations were shown to be negatively, but not significantly, related to maintaining personal discipline in the hierarchical regression analysis and thus hypothesis 1a-5 was not supported.

Hypothesis 1a-6 proposed that the degree of utilisation of selection considerations would be positively related to teamwork and leadership performance. With the effects for age, position in organisation, and cultural similarity removed, selection was found to be unrelated to teamwork and leadership performance. Hypothesis 1a-6 was therefore not supported.

Hypothesis 1a-8 proposed that the degree of utilisation of selection considerations would be positively related to management and administration performance. After controlling for age, position in organisation, time spent overseas, and cultural similarity, it was evident from the results of the hierarchical regression analysis that selection was unrelated to management and administration performance. Thus, Hypothesis 1a-8 was not supported.

Written processes and policies for Selection: Hypotheses 1b(1,3-6,8)

From this point onwards, the reporting of the tests for each sub-hypothesis will not be presented in individual detail as per the description of hypotheses 1a (1, 3-6, 8) and are grouped together with hypotheses of similar results for the sake of brevity. Only unique findings are described separately.

The series of hypotheses under 1b proposed that the level of expatriate processes and policies in place in organisations would be positively related to task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8). Examination of Table 36 indicated that written policies were positively, although not significantly, related to task performance, thereby not supporting hypothesis 1b-1.

After controlling for a number of variables as shown in Table 36, written policies were also shown to be positively but not significantly related to communication performance and maintaining self-discipline. No relationship was found with demonstrating effort, teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administration performance. Therefore, hypotheses 1b-3, 1b-4, 1b-5, 1b-6 and 1b-8 were also not supported.

Training: Hypotheses 2a(1,3-6,8)

The series of hypothesis under 2a stated that cultural training and language training would be positively related to task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). Results of the hierarchical regression analysis showed that all relationships were in the negative direction although non-significant. There was, therefore, no support for hypotheses 2a-1, 2a-3, 2a-4, 2a-5, 2a-6, or 2a-8.

Training Rigour: Hypotheses 2b(1,3-6,8)

Hypotheses 2b stated that support by an expatriate's employer in terms of rigor and variety of training and preparation will be positively related to task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). None of the proposed relationships was shown to be significant in the hierarchical regression analysis and therefore no support was offered for hypotheses 2b-1, 2b-3, 2b-4, 2b-5, 2b-6, or 2b-8.

Practical Support: Hypotheses 3a(1,3-6,8)

Hypothesis 3a-1 proposed that the degree of practical support offered to expatriates by the organisation would be positively related to task performance. As evident from the beta coefficient in Table 36 ($\beta = -.36$, $p < .01$), practical support was significantly related to task performance but in the negative direction. This result, although not offering support for hypothesis 3a due to the directionality, requires further discussion and elaboration as shall be found in the following chapter.

Hypotheses 3a-3, 3a-4, 3a-5, 3a-6, and 3a-8 stated that the degree of practical support offered to expatriates by the organisation would be positively related to communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). As with the relationship between practical support and task performance, all relationships were in the negative direction. However, none of these relationships were significant. Hypotheses 3a-3, 3a-4, 3a-5, 3a-6, and 3a-8 were thus not supported.

Informative Support: 3b(1,3-6,8)

Hypothesis 3b-1 proposed that the degree of informative support offered by the organisation (measured by role clarity) would be positively related to task performance.

The hierarchical regression analysis presented evidence to suggest that role clarity was positively and significantly related to task performance thus offering support for hypothesis 3b-1.

Hypothesis 3b-3 proposed that the degree of informative support offered by the organisation would be positively related to communication performance. Table 36 offered no evidence for a significant relationship although it was of medium effect size and in a positive direction. Hypothesis 3b-3 was, however, not supported.

Hypotheses 3b-4, 3b-5, and 3b-6 proposed that the degree of informative support offered by the organisation will be positively related to demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), and teamwork and leadership performance (6). Contrary to the prediction, the analysis failed to show significant relationships between informative support (measured by role clarity) and these three components of performance. Hence, hypotheses 3b-4, 3b-5, and 3b-6 were not supported.

Hypothesis 3b-8 stated that the degree of informative support offered by the organisation would be positively related to management and administration performance. Results of the hierarchical regression analysis (Table 36) indicated that there was a positive and significant relationship between informative support and management and administration performance. Thus, hypothesis 3b-8 was supported.

Affective Support: Hypotheses 3c(1,3-6,8)

Hypothesis 3c-1, 3c-3, 3c-4, 3c-5, 3c-6, and 3c-8 proposed that the degree of affective support offered by the organisation would be positively related to task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). Although Table 36 indicates a medium level effect for the relationship between mentoring (affective support) and demonstrating effort ($\beta = 23$, $p>.05$), neither it, nor any of the other relationships proposed, were found to be

significant. There was therefore no support found for hypotheses 3c-1, 3c-3, 3c-4, 3c-5, 3c-6, and 3c-8.

Career Relevance: Hypotheses 4(1,3-6,8)

Hypotheses 4-1, 4-3, 4-4, 4-5, 4-6 and 4-8 proposed that relevance of the assignment to expatriates' career plans would be positively related to task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). There was no evidence from the beta coefficients presented in Table 36 to provide support for these proposed relationships. Therefore, hypotheses 4-1, 4-3, 4-4, 4-5, 4-6, and 4-8 were not supported by the data.

Work Adjustment: Hypotheses 5a(1,3-6,8)

The series of hypotheses under 5a proposed that the extent to which an expatriate adjusted to the work environment would impact positively on task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). The hierarchical regression analysis reported in Table 36 demonstrated that there were no significant relationships between work adjustment and the performance components, after partialling out the effects of the control variables. Hypotheses 5a-1, 5a-3, 5a-4, 5a-5, 5a-6, and 5a-8 were not supported.

General Living Adjustment: Hypotheses 5b(1,3-6,8)

Hypotheses 5b-1, 5b-3, 5b-4, 5b-5, 5b-6, and 5b-8 stated that the extent to which an expatriate adjusted to general living conditions would impact positively on task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). As with work adjustment, there were no significant relationships found in the results of the hierarchical regression analysis (Table 36)

between general adjustment and the six performance components. Hence, Hypotheses 5b-1, 5b-3, 5b-4, 5b-5, 5b-6, and 5b-8 were not supported.

Interaction Adjustment: Hypotheses 5c(1,3-6,8)

Hypothesis 5c-1 proposed that the extent to which an expatriate adjusted to interacting with host nationals would impact positively on task performance. Inspection of Table 36 demonstrated that there was a significant and positive relationship between interaction adjustment and task performance. Therefore, hypothesis 5c-1 was supported.

Hypotheses 5c-3, 5c-4, and 5c-5 stated that the extent to which an expatriate adjusted to interaction with host nationals would impact positively on communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), and maintaining personal discipline (5). The results of the hierarchical regression analysis failed to produce evidence of significant relationships with these three components of performance. Therefore, hypotheses 5c-3, 5c-4, and 5c-5 were also found not to be supported.

Hypothesis 5c-6 and 5c-8 proposed that the extent to which an expatriate adjusted to interacting with host nationals would impact positively on teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). There was good evidence for these relationships with interaction adjustment predicting both teamwork and leadership performance ($\beta = .36$, $p < .05$), and management and administration performance ($\beta = .35$, $p < .05$). Thus hypotheses 5c-6 and 5c-8 were supported.

Stage of Adjustment: Hypotheses 5f(1,3-6,8)

The series of hypotheses under 5f stated that the four stages of adjustment would be positively related to task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). As evident from Table 36, no relationship between the four stages of adjustment and the performance

components was significant. Thus, hypotheses 5f-1, 5f-3, 5f-4, 5f-5, 5f-6, and 5f-8 were not supported.

Effort to Adjust to Work: Hypotheses 5g(1,3-6,8)

Hypothesis 5g-1 stated that the degree of effort an expatriate perceived to be necessary to adjust to the work environment would be negatively related to task performance. As evident from the beta weights in Table 36, degree of effort to adjust to the work environment was not related to task performance.

Hypothesis 5g-3 proposed that the degree of effort an expatriate perceived to be necessary to adjust to the work environment would be negatively related to communication performance. As can be seen in Table 36, although the relationship is significant at the $p < .05$ level for the individual variable, the direction was positive rather than negative and the model as a whole is not significant. The results lead to hypothesis 5g-3 not being supported and the findings in need of further discussion.

Hypotheses 5g-4, 5g-5, 5g-6, and 5g-8 stated that the degree of effort an expatriate perceived to be necessary to adjust to the work environment would be negatively related to demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6) and management and administration performance (8). There was no evidence of these relationships from the results of the hierarchical regression analysis. Therefore, hypotheses 5g-4, 5g-5, 5g-6, and 5g-8 were not supported.

Effort to Adjust to General Life: Hypotheses 5h(1,3-6,8)

Hypotheses 5h-1, 5h-3, 5h-4, 5h-5, 5h-6, and 5h-8 proposed that the degree of effort an expatriate perceived to be necessary to adjust to general living conditions would be negatively related to task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). There was no

evidence of these relationships found in Table 36. Hypotheses 5h-1, 5h-3, 5h-4, 5h-5, 5h-6, and 5h-8 were therefore not supported.

Effort to Adjust to Interaction: Hypotheses 5i(1,3-6,8)

Hypotheses 5i-1, 5i-3, 5i-4, 5i-5, 5i-6, 5i-8 proposed that the degree of effort an expatriate perceived to be necessary to adjust to interacting with host nationals would be negatively related to task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). The results of the hierarchical regression analysis (Table 36) revealed that the effort to adjustment to interacting with host nationals was not related to any of the six performance components. Therefore hypotheses 5i-1, 5i-3, 5i-4, 5i-5, 5i-6, and 5i-8 were not supported.

Psychological Contract Violation: Hypotheses 6a(1,3-6,8)

Hypotheses 6a-1, 6a-3, 6a-4, 6a-5, 6a-6, and 6a-8 proposed that violation of an expatriate's psychological contract would be negatively related to task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). There was no relationship found in the results of the hierarchical regression analysis between violation and the performance components with the exception of maintaining personal discipline. The beta-weight for violation in this relationship was significant and negative. However, the model overall was not significant ($\Delta R^2 = .19$, $F(17,88) = 1.58$, $p > .05$) and therefore there is no evidence that violation explains a significant variance in maintaining personal discipline. Hypotheses 6a-1, 6a-3, 6a-4, 6a-5, 6a-6, and 6a-8 were thus not supported.

Mediating Effects

Mediating Role of Cross-Cultural Adjustment: Analysis

The series of hypotheses under 5e predicted that interaction adjustment will have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and two components of performance (communication performance (H5e-3) and teamwork and leadership performance (H5e-6)) than would either work adjustment or general adjustment. Work adjustment was also predicted to have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and the remaining four components of performance (task performance (H5e-1), demonstration of effort (H5e-4), maintenance of self-discipline (H5e-5), and teamwork and leadership performance (H5e-8)) than would either interaction adjustment or general adjustment. Although the assumption of a mediated effect is tested in the series of hypotheses under H5d, it must be emphasised that it is not the individual tests of mediated relationships that are the focus of these hypotheses but rather the importance of work and interaction adjustment as mediators in the model. To test these hypotheses the causal steps approach of a series of three regression analysis outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) was utilized together with the Sobel (1982) test using the bootstrapping method of bias corrected resampling (Shrout & Bolger, 2002) using a new method to enable multiple mediator tests (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

In the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach, firstly, the mediator is regressed on the independent variable and the path must be significant. Secondly, the dependent variable is regressed on the independent variable and this relationship must also be significant. Lastly, the dependent variable is regressed on both the independent and the mediator variables: Only the relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable is required to be significant in this final step. In order to confirm full mediation, the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable should no

longer be significant after the mediator has been added into the equation. Partial mediation is said to occur when the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variable remains significant but the contribution to the variance in the dependent variable by the independent variable reduces after the mediator is added (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Although Baron and Kenny stated that it is unnecessary to run hierarchical regression analyses (1986), the parameter estimates available from hierarchical regression analysis were used as that information is available from the output of the Preacher and Hayes macros (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008) utilised in the analysis here.

The major concern found in the literature of Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach as it is commonly applied is that it does not test the significance of the mediation effect (MacKinnon, 2008; MacKinnon et al., 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Wood, Goodman, Beckmann, & Cook, 2008). Various reasons for tests of significance not being undertaken include the suggestions that the methods are not widely known and in many cases have low statistical power (MacKinnon et al., 2002). Although it is not often conducted, Baron and Kenny (1986) and others (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Wood et al., 2008) suggested that the Sobel (1982) test be run to test the statistical significance of the indirect effect. The Sobel test is less conservative with smaller samples (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) due to non-normal distribution of standard errors of the measure of the indirect effect estimate (MacKinnon et al., 2002; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). Shrout and Bolger (2002) recommend the non-parametric (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) bias-correcting bootstrapping method for small to moderate samples to overcome the problems inherent in the non-normal distribution of the product of the coefficients and to allow for smaller effects to be detected. Preacher and Hayes' more recent macros which test for unique

mediator effects as well as contrasts of indirect effects in multiple mediation models are particularly applicable to this series of hypotheses (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Recently, traditionalists have supported the combined used of the Sobel test with the bootstrapping method. Kenny suggested "the bootstrapping method provides the most powerful test of the indirect effect" (2008, p.355). MacKinnon and colleagues advocated that bias-corrected bootstrapping be the method of choice as it provides accurate confidence limits and acceptable statistical power when compared with the Sobel test, the distribution of product method, and five other re-sampling methods (MacKinnon et al., 2004). This position is somewhat confused by MacKinnon and colleagues' more recent recommendation of a computer application they developed to test the distribution of product method (MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood, 2007). The recommendation is based upon a simulation which compares the distribution of product approach with bias-corrected bootstrapping under parameters found in an earlier study (MacKinnon et al., 2004) to be least favourable to the latter method.

Support for additional and alternative forms of tests for the mediation effect by others and from an author as influential as Kenny (Wood et al., 2008) offers further encouragement to researchers to explore more parsimonious and rigorous tests. There are already a number of authors publishing in leading journals opting to test mediation through the Sobel test alone (Chang, 2005; Cluver, Gardner, & Operario, 2007) or the Sobel test in combination with the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach (Lodge & Feldman, 2007 ; Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki, & McNamara, 2005). The latter combined approach is taken here even though it is more conservative than the bootstrap method alone as it requires that the direct relationship between the independent and dependent variable is significant which is not the case under the Sobel test. Thus, there is a higher risk of non-detection of a mediating effect using this combined approach because the Baron and Kenny method has been found to have very low Type I error

rates and low statistical power unless the effect and sample size are large (MacKinnon et al., 2002).

On his website, Kenny (2008) recanted the earlier prescription (Baron & Kenny, 1986) for significance of the relationships between the three variables in the four conditions of mediation and also advised that in the opinion of most analysts a direct effect relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable is not required (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Shrout and Bolger consider that as "the test of the X → Y association may be more powerful when mediation is taken into account, it seems unwise to defer considering mediation until the bivariate association between X and Y is established" (2002, p.429). In support of this, MacKinnon (2002) found that the step requiring a significant direct effect of the independent variable (IV) on the dependent variable (DV) was the cause of most Type II errors and that the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach was the most likely of the 14 indirect effect tests assessed in the MacKinnon study to fail to detect real mediating effects (see Figure 8 for pictorial clarification of the variables, their relationships and nomenclature).

With this first step removed, the Baron and Kenny approach (1986) is equivalent to the preliminary analysis in the Sobel test. It thus appears that Kenny is advocating a move towards the Sobel test as the preferred test of mediation by suggesting (a) a test of significance of indirect effects is necessary, (b) a direct effect relationship between the independent variable (IV) and dependent variable (DV) is not necessary, and (c) that there is no requirement for a significant relationship between the other variables unless full mediation is to be tested in step 4. In contrast, other supporters of the Sobel test, Preacher and Hayes (2004), asserted that implicit in the suggestion that a mediation effect exists is the initial existence of a direct relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Thus, following from this and Mathieu's conceptualisation (2006), without the IV to DV direct effect being significantly present, there may still be

an intervening effect, but for mediation to be said to be present the direct effect must also be tested as traditionally required in the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach.

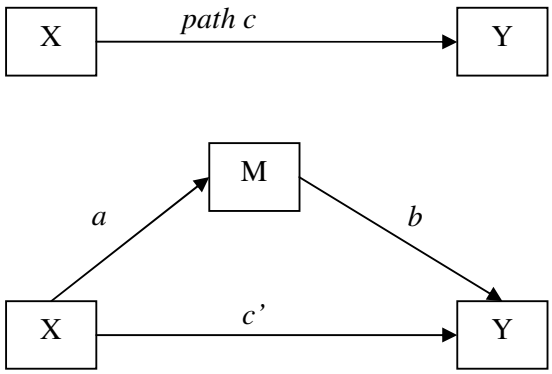

Figure 8. Simple mediation effect.

Adapted from Preacher and Hayes, 2008. X is the independent variable (IV). Y is the dependent variable (DV). M depicts the mediator variable. The indirect effect of X on Y through M can be quantified by the product of a and b, otherwise labelled αβ.

These discussions advocating alternative forms of mediation tests, although growing in number and strength, are still preliminary and have not yet reached consensus in the academic literature as to the ultimate requirements of mediation tests or, indeed, the final definition of mediation. Thus, taking a cautious and conservative approach, the traditional Baron and Kenny (1986) method together with the Sobel bias-corrected bootstrapping test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) of significance is used in this research.

To recapitulate, hypothesis 5e predicted that the three types of cross-cultural adjustment would differentially mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and performance components. Interaction adjustment is suggested to have a stronger mediating role on the relationships with communication, supervisor and team performance. Work adjustment is suggested to have a stronger mediating role on the relationships with task, non-job specific, effort, maintaining discipline, and management and administration performance components (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005). General adjustment was not expected to have an influential mediating role.

In order to test these hypotheses the patterns of mediation between the antecedents (selection, training, practical support, emotive support, Role clarity, and career relevance) and the six components of performance were explored first with the Sobel bias-corrected bootstrapping method to determine the significance of the unique indirect effects in multiple mediator models. This test was run and effects checked for significance prior to the criteria under the Baron and Kenny approach (1986) being assessed in order to minimise the volume of regression analyses output data to be assessed. The findings from the bootstrapping method might also suggest a number of effects that could be lost under the more conservative and Type II error prone Baron and Kenny approach. It is worthwhile taking into consideration the information lost under

the more rigorous Baron and Kenny test requiring a significant relationship between independent and dependent variables even though it is not directly relevant to the hypotheses being tested. Testing in a multiple mediated model tends to attenuate the effects to the extent that each variable is correlated with the other mediator variables. Thus fewer mediator effects are detected utilising this method of analysis than when multiple single mediator tests are utilised. Therefore, the combination of (a) the requirement of a significant direct effect between the dependent and independent variables and (b) the utilisation of a multiple mediator model testing for unique mediator effects is a highly conservative method to detect mediator effects which can only aid the confidence in the interpretability of any mediated effects found. Multiple mediated tests can also offer further evidence as to whether the three types of adjustment as a set mediate the relationship; a question not entirely relevant to the hypotheses stated in this research but of undoubted interest to practitioners and worthy of further investigation in other contexts.

SPSS macros developed by Preacher and Hayes (2004) provide a statistical procedure to test significance of the indirect effect using the Sobel test both parametrically and non-parametrically: the latter through bootstrapping. The more recent macros developed by Preacher and Hayes are an improvement upon the original macros as they allow for multiple mediator effects to be tested (2008). The output also allows for assessment of mediation with the first three of the Baron and Kenny (1986) criteria as presented in Table 37. A limitation of this analysis in comparison with the traditional Baron and Kenny approach is that in the multiple mediation model the final Baron and Kenny test of partial or full mediation cannot be assessed for the unique mediators in the model. The Baron and Kenny test determines mediation by the change in strength and significance of the relationship between the IV and DV once the total effect of the single mediator has been taken into account. In the available test of

multiple mediation the combined effects of all the mediators are partialled out allowing a determination of the overall mediation effect as per the Baron and Kenny method, but the parameter estimates to determine partial or full mediation of each of the unique mediators are not available. Thus, to determine the existence of unique mediator effects utilising the Preacher and Hayes (2008) tool, the following criteria have been utilised. Firstly, the beta weights of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables were checked for significance, secondly, the relationships between the mediator and the independent variables, and the dependent variable and the mediator (controlling for the effects of the independent variable) were checked for significance. Lastly, the bias corrected confidence intervals were checked for significance of the unique indirect effect.

A combination of the six independent variables (selection considerations, training, practical support, role clarity, mentoring, and career relevance), the three types of adjustment as mediators, and the six components of performance were written into SPSS syntax which then ran the macro 36 times. The number of bootstrap re-samples was set at 1,000 as suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2004). Each individual set of statistics for the combination of IV, the three mediators, and DV was viewed for confidence intervals not including zero which indicates a significant indirect effect (the Sobel test). Table 37 shows the significant indirect effects as determined by the bootstrapping criteria. The bootstrapping average mean estimate of the indirect effect (mean $\alpha\beta$), confidence intervals at the 95% levels for the bootstrapping results, and whether the first three Baron and Kenny (1986) conditions for testing mediation effects held are also indicated. The confidence intervals which do not include zero indicate a significant indirect effect (highlighted in Table 37); the mean $\alpha\beta$ figures show the effect sizes of the indirect effects; and significant regression weights between the IVs and DVs

(b(YX)) indicate that the Baron and Kenny conditions are also met (significant relationships are highlighted).

Table 37

Significant indirect and mediating effects: bootstrapping indirect effect, confidence intervals and the first three Baron and Kenny (1986) conditions of mediation.

Adjustment M	X	Y	Mean αβ	LL 95 CI	UL 95 CI	b(YX)		b(MX)		b(YM.X)	
						coeff	sig	coeff	sig	coeff	sig
Interaction	Selection	3CP	**.0573**	**.0033**	**.1919**	-.0503	.5750	.4833	.0360	**.1147**	**.0233**
Interaction	Training	3CP	**.0530**	**.0095**	**.1401**	**.4244**	**.0153**	**.1277**	**.0104**	-.1054	.1217
Interaction	Informative	3CP	**.0304**	**.0006**	**.0924**	**.2945**	**.0107**	**.1074**	**.0346**	**.0917**	**.0406**
Interaction	Practical	3CP	**.0447**	**.0054**	**.1332**	**.3825**	**.0462**	**.1201**	**.0129**	**-.1770**	**.0163**
Interaction	Career relevance	3CP	**.0064**	**.0013**	**.0146**	**.0550**	**.0001**	**.1196**	**.0182**	.0000	.9983
Interaction	Selection	8MA	**.0739**	**.0101**	**.1890**	**.4833**	**.0360**	**.1551**	**.0016**	**.1793**	**.0462**
Interaction	Training	8MA	**.0678**	**.0177**	**.1527**	**.4244**	**.0153**	**.1612**	**.0011**	.0643	.3518
Interaction	Practical	8MA	**.0613**	**.0074**	**.1504**	**.3825**	**.0462**	**.1607**	**.0010**	.0055	.9420
Interaction	Informative	8MA	**.0428**	**.0118**	**.0989**	**.2945**	**.0107**	**.1548**	**.0013**	**.1640**	**.0002**
Interaction	Career relevance	8MA	**.0082**	**.0035**	**.0157**	**.0550**	**.0001**	**.1529**	**.0018**	**.0153**	**.0058**
Interaction	Selection	6TL	**.0788**	**.0069**	**.1892**	**.4833**	**.0360**	**.1537**	**.0011**	.0774	.3650
Interaction	Training	6TL	**.0718**	**.0137**	**.1571**	**.4244**	**.0153**	**.1637**	**.0005**	-.0180	.7825
Interaction	Practical	6TL	**.0604**	**.0048**	**.1423**	**.3825**	**.0462**	**.1549**	**.0010**	.0176	.8053
Interaction	Informative	6TL	**.0441**	**.0096**	**.0941**	**.2945**	**.0107**	**.1515**	**.0013**	**.0955**	**.0249**
Interaction	Career relevance	6TL	**.0081**	**.0031**	**.0152**	**.0550**	**.0001**	**.1456**	**.0019**	**.0155**	**.0030**

(table continues)

Table 37 (continued)

Significant indirect and mediating effects: bootstrapping indirect effect, confidence intervals and the first three Baron and Kenny (1986) conditions of mediation.

Adjustment M	X	Y	Mean αβ	LL 95 CI	UL 95 CI	b(YX)		b(MX)		b(YM.X)	
Work	Selection	5MD	**.0857**	**.0075**	**.2244**	**.5115**	**.0003**	**.1644**	**.0351**	.1422	.1354
Work	Training	5MD	**.0546**	**.0062**	**.1628**	**.3191**	**.0031**	**.1728**	**.0233**	.0757	.2986
Work	Practical	5MD	**.0452**	**.0062**	**.1771**	**.2811**	**.0177**	**.1700**	**.0242**	.0906	.2539
Work	Career relevance	5MD	**.0077**	**.0014**	**.0182**	**.0428**	**.0000**	**.1755**	**.0268**	.0100	.0895
Work	Selection	8MA	**.0695**	**.0060**	**.1926**	**.5115**	**.0003**	**.1382**	**.0457**	**.1793**	**.0462**
Work	Training	8MA	**.0511**	**.0046**	**.1507**	**.3191**	**.0031**	**.1579**	**.0195**	.0643	.3518
Work	Practical	8MA	**.0451**	**.0025**	**.1526**	**.2811**	**.0177**	**.1608**	**.0159**	.0055	.9420
Work	Career relevance	8MA	**.0059**	**.0003**	**.0138**	**.0428**	**.0000**	.1324	.0586	**.0153**	**.0058**

Note 3CP = Communication; 5MD = Maintaining Personal Discipline; 6TL = Teamwork and Leadership Performance; and 8MA = Management and Administration Performance.

Boldface script highlights indicators of significance.

LL 95 CI = 95% lower limit confidence interval; UL 95 CI = 95% upper limit confidence interval.

The Preacher and Hayes (2008) macro used here and which allows for the testing of multiple mediator models also offers a contrast measure of mediator effects. To date it has been difficult to contrast the differential strength of the indirect effects to determine which type of adjustment has the greater mediating effect on the various relationships. Intuitively it is possible to compare the mean αβs (as an indication of the strength of the mediating effect) for each type of adjustment using multiple single mediator tests as long as standardised beta weights are used but this does not offer the benefits of a multiple mediated model which effectively controls for the other mediator variables. When comparing parameter estimates from single mediated models the total effect of each mediator is considered whereas under a multiple mediated model unique, or specific, indirect effects of each mediator can be contrasted. Table 38 presents the contrast parameter estimates.

Interaction adjustment and work adjustment were more influential than general adjustment as can be seen by the number of indirect effects found (15 for interaction adjustment and eight for work adjustment). General adjustment had no mediating or indirect effect on the relationship between support mechanisms and performance components.

The contrast parameter estimates were examined (depicted in Table 38) in order to test the strength of the mediating effect of each mediator on the six components of performance. General adjustment had an overall pattern of being significantly different from both interaction and work adjustment as indicated by the significance of the contrast estimates (15 of the 23 parameter estimates were significant and negative which indicates that the indirect effect of general adjustment was weaker than that of both interaction and work adjustment. None of the contrast estimates comparing interaction and work adjustment were significant which indicated that they are not significantly different from each other. However, the positive contrast estimates suggest that in each

case interaction adjustment had a stronger indirect effect than work adjustment. Thus, it can be determined that interaction adjustment has a stronger mediating effect than work adjustment upon communication performance, teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administration performance for the following reasons: (a) although the contrast estimates are not statistically significantly different from work adjustment, interaction adjustment has significant unique mediating effects upon communication performance and teamwork and leadership performance whereas there are no significant mediating effects found between work adjustment and those components of performance; (b) interaction adjustment has a mediating effect of stronger magnitude than work adjustment in relation to management and administration performance.

In addition, the contrast estimates between interaction and work adjustment provide additional evidence for the comparative strengths: Positive contrasts indicate that interaction adjustment has the stronger effect (the case with communication performance, teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administration performance) and negative contrasts offer evidence for work adjustment being the stronger mediator. Work adjustment has a larger magnitude of effect upon maintaining discipline than interaction adjustment. Again, the contrasts are insignificant but given that there are no significant unique mediator effects upon maintaining discipline using interaction adjustment as a potential mediator, there is sufficient evidence to suggest that work adjustment plays the stronger role in these sets of relationships with maintaining personal discipline. These findings need to be viewed with caution due to the non-significance of the contrast statistics. Thus, even though the unique mediator effects are significant, the statistical evidence suggests that in the case of interaction and work adjustment, the mediation effects are not sufficiently different.

Preacher and Hayes suggested that this statistical artefact can occur when one of the unique indirect effects “is not sufficiently far from zero” (2008, p.886.)

Table 38

Unique mediator contrast estimates.

Adjustment M	X	Y	Mean αβ	Contrast Estimate	LL 95 CI	UL 95 CI	Contrast Estimate	LL 95 CI	UL 95 CI
				Contrast with Work adjustment (interaction vs. work)			Contrast with General adjustment (general vs. interaction)		
Interaction	Selection	3CP	.0573	.0074	-.1153	.1528	-.0608	-.2305	.0043
Interaction	Training	3CP	.0530	.0207	-.0537	.1228	**-.0554**	**-.1733**	**-.0045**
Interaction	Informative	3CP	.0304	.0205	-.0452	.1150	-.0288	-.0973	.0095
Interaction	Practical	3CP	.0447	.0178	-.0453	.1204	-.0444	-.1549	.0072
Interaction	Career relevance	3CP	.0064	.0019	-.0084	.0132	-.0061	-.0172	.0015
Interaction	Selection	6TL	.0788	.0342	-.0682	.1908	**-.0859**	**-.2167**	**-.0041**
Interaction	Training	6TL	.0718	.0387	-.0333	.1419	**-.0788**	**-.1904**	**-.0110**
Interaction	Practical	6TL	.0604	.0348	-.0291	.1385	**-.0710**	**-.1900**	**-.0033**
Interaction	Informative	6TL	.0441	.0246	-.0363	.1091	**-.0482**	**-.1131**	**-.0103**
Interaction	Career relevance	6TL	.0081	.0059	-.0012	.0152	**-.0097**	**-.0209**	**-.0026**
Interaction	Selection	8MA	.0739	.0044	-.1070	.1354	**-.0846**	**-.2621**	**-.0064**
Interaction	Training	8MA	.0678	.0167	-.0562	.1183	**-.0781**	**-.2184**	**-.0127**
Interaction	Practical	8MA	.0613	.0161	-.0643	.1123	**-.0798**	**-.2021**	**-.0077**
Interaction	Informative	8MA	.0428	.0147	-.0584	.1100	**-.0500**	**-.1278**	**-.0110**
Interaction	Career relevance	8MA	.0082	.0023	-.0064	.0129	**-.0111**	**-.0213**	**-.0035**

(table continues)

Table 38 (continued)

Unique mediator contrast estimates.

Adjustment			Mean	Contrast	LL 95		Contrast	LL 95	
M	X	Y	αβ	Estimate	CI	UL 95 CI	Estimate	CI	UL 95 CI
				Contrast with Interaction adjustment (interaction vs. work)			Contrast with General adjustment (general vs. work)		
Work	Selection	5MD	.0857	-.0714	-.2288	.0441	-.0810	-.2203	.0094
Work	Training	5MD	.0546	-.0413	-.2066	.0235	-.0517	-.1500	.0105
Work	Practical	5MD	.0452	-.0326	-.1765	.0260	-.0394	-.1634	.0118
Work	Career relevance	5MD	.0077	-.0060	-.0196	.0050	-.0064	-.0172	.0027
Work	Selection	8MA	.0695	.0044	-.1070	.1354	**-.0802**	**-.2316**	**-.0059**
Work	Training	8MA	.0511	.0167	-.0562	.1183	**-.0615**	**-.1802**	**-.0006**
Work	Practical	8MA	.0451	.0161	-.0643	.1123	**-.0637**	**-.1932**	**-.0052**
Work	Career relevance	8MA	.0059	.0023	-.0064	.0129	**-.0088**	**-.0185**	**-.0007**

Note. 3CP = communication; 5MD = maintaining discipline; 6TL = teamwork and leadership performance; 8MA = management and administration performance.

Boldface script highlights significance.

LL 95 CI = 95% lower limit confidence interval; UL 95 CI = 95% upper limit confidence interval.

The indirect effects and mediating relationships are also depicted in Figure 9 and Figure 10. These figures indicate the extent to which adjustment variables influence performance components in figural form to elucidate on the information presented in Table 37 and Table 38. Thus, Figure 9 depicts the relationships between the independent variables and the components of performance with interaction adjustment as a mediator. Each line represents an indirect effect through interaction adjustment and each line in bold represents a mediation effect. The figures in parentheses indicate the averages of the indirect effect size of significant indirect effects (the average of the mean αβs). Figure 10 depicts the same relationships of significant indirect and mediator effects along with the average effects sizes for work adjustment (since there were no such effects for general adjustment, no figure is offered). Thus, it can also be seen from a visual representation of the density of relationships together with the average effect sizes that interaction adjustment has a greater mediating effect in the set of relationships than work adjustment.

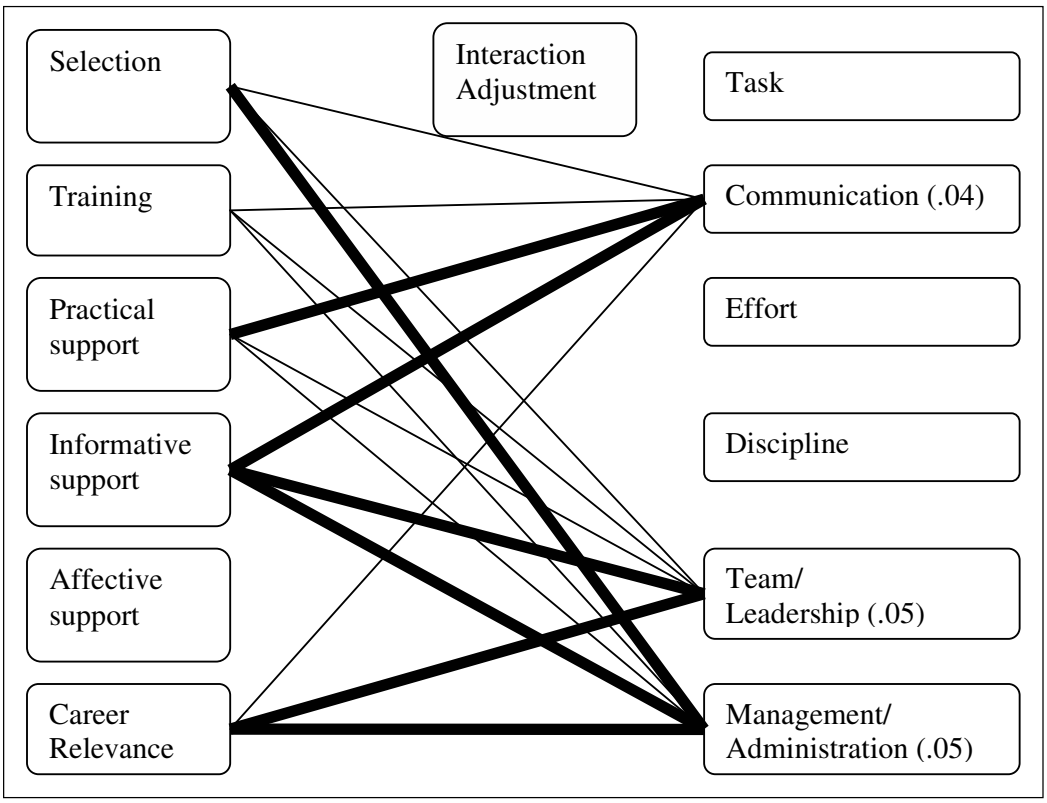

Figure 9. The intervening roles of interaction adjustment combining results from bootstrapping and Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach.

The mediated relationships are depicted by lines in bold. Figures in parentheses are the mean αβ indicators of the mediation/indirect effect size.

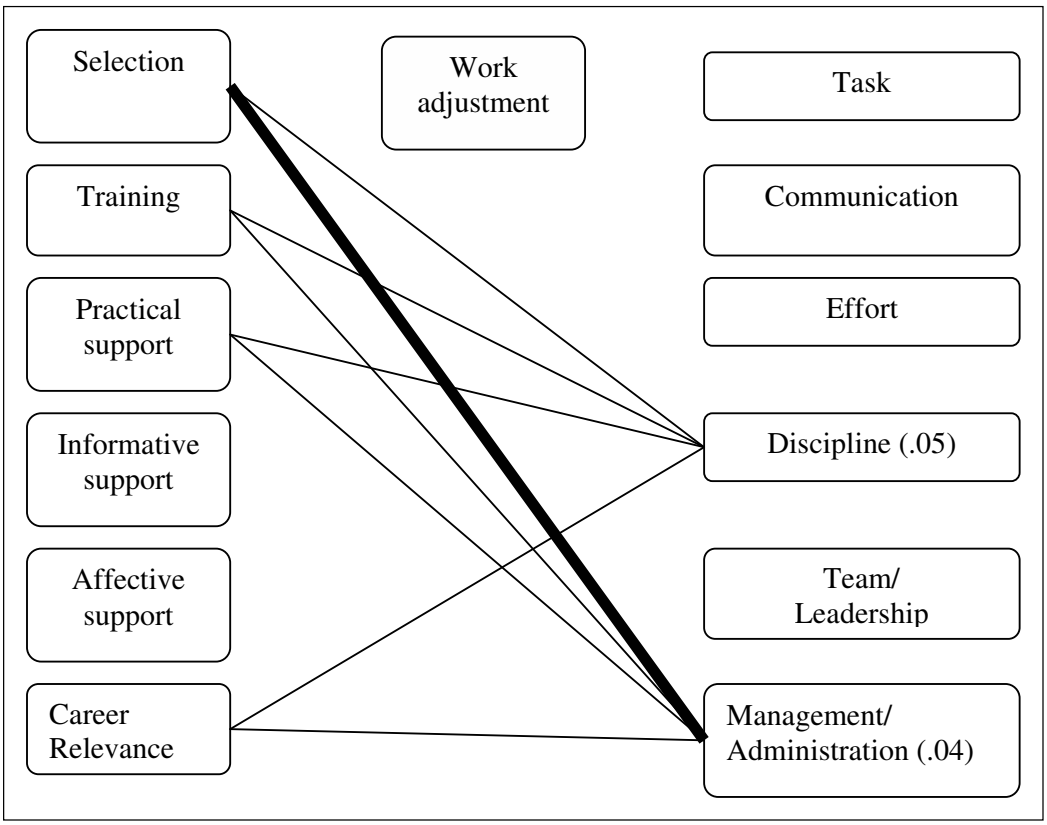

Figure 10. The intervening roles of work adjustment combining the results from Bootstrapping and Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach.

The mediated relationships are depicted by lines in bold. Figures in parentheses are the mean αβ indicators of the mediation/indirect effect size.

Mediating Role of Cross-Cultural Adjustment: Hypotheses 5d and 5e (1,3-6,8)

The series of hypotheses under 5d suggested that work adjustment and interaction adjustment acted as mediators in the relationships between expatriate management inputs and performance components. The results of the combined Baron and Kenny (1986) approach to determine mediators and the bootstrapping method (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to determine significant indirect effects suggest that none of the adjustment variables were significant mediators in the models with job-specific task performance as the dependent variable. Thus, hypothesis 5d-1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 5d-3 proposed that interaction adjustment would act as a mediator in the relationship between management inputs, and written and oral communication. The results from the bias-correcting bootstrapping analysis suggested that interaction adjustment significantly mediated the relationships between Role clarity and practical support, and the DV, written and oral communication performance. Interaction adjustment also had significant indirect effects on the relationships between the independent variables, selection, training and career relevance, and communication performance. Thus, hypothesis 5d-3 was supported.

Hypothesis 5d-4 stated that work adjustment would mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and demonstrating effort. Table 37 offers no indication that there are any indirect or mediating effects as the analysis using the tests of significance of the indirect effect found none. Therefore, hypothesis 5d-4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 5d-5 held that work adjustment would act as a mediator in the set of relationships between expatriate management inputs and maintaining personal discipline. Although there were a number of significant indirect effects between selection, training, practical support, and career relevance, and maintaining personal discipline, no one relationship with work adjustment as an intervening variable passed

the full criteria of the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach. As there are significant indirect effects, it is suggested here that hypothesis 5d-5 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 5d-6 proposed a mediating effect by interaction adjustment on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and supervision/leadership performance. Reference to Table 37 indicates mediating effects linking Role clarity and career relevance to the performance component, and significant indirect effects from selection and practical support. Hypothesis 5d-7 was thus supported.

Hypothesis 5d-8 suggested that the relationship between expatriate management inputs and management/administration performance would be mediated by work adjustment. From the bias-corrected bootstrapping analysis, it was determined that work adjustment acted as a mediator between selection and management and administration performance, and had an indirect effect in the relationships with training, practical support, and career relevance as the independent variables. It was determined therefore that hypothesis 53-8 was supported.

Given that the hypotheses of 5e required support for the series of hypotheses under 5d to be tested, 5e-1 and 5e-4 were unable to be supported. Hypothesis 5e-1 proposed that work adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and task performance than would interaction adjustment and general adjustment. The results of the comparative analysis of mediating effects using both the bootstrapping method and Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach (Table 37) indicated that work adjustment had no mediating effect or indirect effect on task performance, thus offering no support for hypothesis 5e-1.

Hypothesis 5e-3 proposed that interaction adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and communication performance than would work or general adjustment. Examination of the indirect and mediator effects shown in Table 37 and the mean $\alpha\beta$ and contrast

estimates in Table 38 indicated that interaction adjustment had a greater mediating effect than did general adjustment (significantly so) and work adjustment. Thus, hypothesis 5e-3 was supported.

Hypothesis 5e-4 proposed that work adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and demonstration of effort than would interaction adjustment and general adjustment. As evident from the analysis of mediating effects (Table 37) no adjustment variable mediated the relationships with demonstration of effort. Thus, hypothesis 5e-4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 5e-5 proposed that work adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and maintenance of self-discipline than would interaction adjustment and general adjustment. The comparative analysis of mediating and intervening effects (Table 37 and Table 38) indicated that work adjustment had a greater intervening effect on maintenance of self-discipline than either interactive or general adjustment. However, as there were no full mediating effects but only significant intervening effects present, it is suggested that hypothesis 5e-5 was only partially supported.

Hypothesis 5e-6 proposed that interaction adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and teamwork and leadership performance than would work adjustment and general adjustment. The overall results shown in Table 37 and Table 38 indicate that the effect of interaction adjustment was greater than work adjustment and significantly greater than general adjustment. Mediating effects were also present in the model (in the relationship with Role clarity and career relevance). Therefore, hypothesis 5e-6 was supported.

Hypothesis 5e-8 proposed that work adjustment would have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and management and

administration performance than would either interaction adjustment or general adjustment. The comparative analysis of mediating effects (Table 37 and Table 38) indicated that the mediation effect of interaction adjustment was significantly greater than general adjustment. Interaction adjustment was found to have a greater mediating influence on the relationships with management and administration performance than did work adjustment even though both intervening variables showed significant intervening effects. As the important mediating variable was determined to be interaction adjustment rather than the hypothesized work adjustment, hypothesis 5e-8 was not supported.

The Mediating Role of Psychological Contract Violation: Analysis

In the second set of hypotheses testing mediation, the existence of a mediation effect by psychological contract violation on the relationship between expatriate management inputs and performance components was investigated. Although it is possible to test for multiple independent variables in a mediated model with more complex statistical procedures, due to the sample size, multiple regression analyses were used to test the hypotheses (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006). This choice however decreases the chance of detecting mediation effects in comparison with Structural Equation Modelling, which offers a procedure to control the effects of measurement error (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Following a similar approach to the above tests of mediation, the bootstrapping method to test single mediators (Preacher & Hayes) was utilized to check for indirect effects prior to running regression analysis on a smaller set of relationships. The full set of bootstrapping tests run on the independent variables (selection considerations, training, practical support, Role clarity, mentoring, and career relevance), the mediator variable (violation), and the six components of performance as dependent variables is available in Appendix H. The bootstrapping results indicated that

seven relationships needed to be explored in more detail through the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach. These results are presented in Table 39.

Table 39

Mediated hierarchical multiple regression analysis – violation mediating the relationships between expatriate management inputs and performance.

Predictors	B	*SE*	t	F	*df*	ΔR^2	*Total* R^2	Adj.R^2	Sobel z	Sobel sig
					Test 1					
					DV = Violation					
Step 1: X→M										
Practical support	-.47***	.13	-5.48	30.08***	(1,104)	.22***	.22***	.22***		
					DV = Task performance					
Step 2: X→Y										
Practical support	-.22*	.07	-2.28	5.18*	(1,104)	.05*		.05		
Steps 3 & 4: X→M→Y										
Practical support	-.32**	.08	-3.01	5.20*						
Violation	-.22*	.05	-2.05	4.79*	(2,103)	.04*	.09*	.07*	1.90	.058
					Test 2					
					DV = Violation					
Step1: X→M										
Selection	-.29**	.17	-3.03	9.20**	(1,104)	.08**	.08**	.07**		
					DV = Maintaining personal discipline					
Step 2: X→Y										
Selection	.15	.10	1.51	2.27	(1,104)		.02	.01		

(table continues)

Table 39 (continued)

Mediated hierarchical multiple regression analysis – violation mediating the relationships between expatriate management inputs and performance.

Predictors	B	*SE*	t	F	*df*	ΔR^2	*Total* R^2	Adj.R^2	Sobel z	Sobel sig
Steps 3 & 4: X→M→Y										
Selection	.06	.09	0.59							
Violation	-.31**	.05	-3.23	6.45**	(2,103)	.09**	.11**	.09**	2.16	.031
					Test 3 DV = Violation					
Step 1: X→M										
Training	-.30**	.13	-3.14	9.88**	(1,104)	.09**	.09**	.08**		
					DV = Maintaining personal discipline					
Step 2: X→Y										
Training	.10	.07	1.05	1.09	(1,104)		.01	.00		
Steps 3 & 4: X→M→Y										
Training	.01	.07	0.06							
Violation	-.33**	.05	-3.36	6.26**	(2,103)	.10**	.11**	.09**	2.24	.025
					Test 4 DV = Violation					
Step 1: X→M										
Practical support	-.47***	.13	-5.48	30.08***	(1,104)	.22***	.22***	.22***		

(table continues)

Table 39 (continued)

Mediated hierarchical multiple regression analysis – violation mediating the relationships between expatriate management inputs and performance.

Predictors	β	*SE*	t	F	*df*	ΔR^2	*Total* R^2	Adj.R^2	Sobel z	Sobel sig
				DV = Maintaining personal discipline						
Step 2: X→Y										
Practical support	.11	.08	1.15	1.32	(1,104)		.01	.00		
Steps 3 & 4: X→M→Y										
Practical support	-.06	.09	-0.54							
Violation	-.36**	.06	-3.38	6.26**	(2,103)	.10**	.11**	.09**	2.84	.005
				Test 5 DV = Violation						
Step 1: X→M										
Role clarity	-.43***	.08	-4.89	23.96***	(1,104)	.19***	.19***	.18***		
				DV = Maintaining personal discipline						
Step 2: X→Y										
Role clarity	.32**	.05	3.43	11.74**	(1,104)		.10**	.09**		
Steps 3 & 4: X→M→Y										
Role clarity	.23*	.05	2.15							
Violation	-.24*	.06	-2.33	8.84***	(2,103)	.05*	.15***	.13***	2.07	.038

(table continues)

Table 39 (continued)

Mediated hierarchical multiple regression analysis – violation mediating the relationships between expatriate management inputs and performance.

Predictors	β	*SE*	t	F	*df*	ΔR^2	*Total* R^2	Adj.R^2	Sobel z	Sobel sig
				Test 6						
				DV = Violation						
Step 1: X→M										
Mentoring	-.34***	.09	-3.68	13.50***	(1,104)	.12***	.12***	.11***		
				DV = Maintaining personal discipline						
Step 2: X→Y										
Mentoring	.04	.06	0.37	0.14	(1,104)	.00	.00	.00		
Steps 3 & 4: X→M→Y										
Mentoring	-.09	.06	-0.86							
Violation	-.36***	.05	-3.63	6.67**	(2,103)	.11***	.12**	.10**	2.54	.011
				Test 7						
				DV = Violation						
Step 1: X→M										
Career relevance	-.36***	.10	-3.91	15.29***	(1,104)	.13***	.13***	.12***		
				DV = Maintaining personal discipline						
Step 2: X→Y										
Career relevance	.17	.01	1.71	2.94	(1,104)	.03	.03	.02		
Steps 3 & 4: X→M→Y										
Career relevance	.06	.01	0.55							
Violation	-.31**	.06	-3.11	6.43**	(2,103)	.08**	.11**	.09**	2.39	.017

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. n = 106

The only components of performance to require further analysis of mediation were task performance and maintaining personal discipline. The first test examined the relationship between practical support and task performance. Indirect effects are determined to be significant when zero is not contained in the 95% confidence limits (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The confidence limits for the indirect effect between practical support and task performance were .0052 to .1624 confirming the existence of a significant effect. All relationships were found significant in the regression analysis thus discarding the possibility of full mediation. Practical support was significantly related to violation ($\beta_{mx} = -.47$, $p < .001$) and explained a relatively substantial 22% of the variance in violation, $\Delta R^2 = .22$, $F(1,104) = 30.08$, $p < .001$. Practical support was also significantly related to task performance ($\beta_{yx} = -.22$, $p < .05$) in the second step. In the third step violation was found to be significantly related to task performance after controlling for practical support ($\beta_{ym.x} = -.22$, $p < .05$). The final step did not indicate any decrease in the relationship between practical support and task performance after controlling for the mediator as is required of the final condition of full mediation. Indeed, after violation had been added into the equation, the relationship between practical support and task performance strengthened with increased beta weight and remained significant at a lower *p* value. The indirect effect based upon normal distribution (the Sobel test) also indicated a non-significant indirect effect which may be due to non-compliance with the assumption of normal distribution of the product of the path coefficients. From the analysis it was found that there was an indirect effect whereby practical support was significantly and negatively related to violation and violation was significantly and negatively related to practical support, however, there was no evidence of mediation.

Of interest and worthy of further discussion in the next chapter is that both the direct effect (βyx) and direct effect controlling for the mediator ($\beta yx.m$) were significant

and in the negative direction whereas the indirect path from practical support through violation to task performance ($\beta mx \times \beta ym.x$) was positive. As the zero-order correlations also indicate, on one hand it appears that lower levels of practical support lead to higher levels of performance. Whereas, on the other hand, a lower level of practical support is predictive of violation, and violation then, in turn, predicts lower levels of performance. Violation may be acting as a suppressor variable in this instance and total effect then needs to be interpreted with care (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

The remaining tests examined the mediating effect of violation on maintenance of personal discipline. In the second test, violation was regressed onto selection in step one resulting in a significant relationship ($\beta_{mx} = -.29$, $p < .01$) and 8% of the variance in violation being accounted for, $\Delta R^2 = .08$, $F(1,104) = 9.20$, $p < .01$. In this test selection was not a significant predictor of maintaining personal discipline ($\beta_{yx} = .15$, $p > .05$), which indicated that the second condition required for mediation was not met.

The third test regressed violation onto training in the first step resulting in a significant contribution to violation ($\beta_{mx} = -.30$, $p < .01$) with 9% of violation being accounted for by (lack of) training, $\Delta R^2 = .09$, $F(1,104) = 9.88$, $p < .01$. The second step, as in test 2, did not result in a statistically significant relationship between training and maintaining personal discipline ($\beta_{yx} = .10$, $p > .05$), thus the conditions of mediation could not be met.

Test 4 resulted in similar outcomes with practical support significantly predicting 22% of violation as described under test 1. However, the conditions of second step could not be met as practical support did not account for any significant variance in maintaining personal discipline ($\beta_{yx} = .11$, $p > .05$) as required by the Baron and Kenny approach (1986).

All variables in test 5 showed statistically significant relationships as required under the Baron and Kenny (1986) conditions. Role clarity accounted for 19% of the

variance in violation (ΔR^2 = .19, F(1,104) = 23.96, p <.001) and 10% of the variance in maintaining personal discipline, (ΔR^2 = .10, F(1,104) = 11.74, p <.01). Violation was negatively related to maintaining personal discipline ($\beta_{ym.x}$ = -.24, p< .05) and accounted for 5% of the variance in the criterion (ΔR^2 = .05, p <.05). The beta weights for the relationship between Role clarity and the criterion diminished as required once violation was partialed out of the equation (β_{yx} = .32, p < .01, $\beta_{yx.m}$ = 23, p < .05) offering support for partial mediation. The Sobel test also offered evidence of the significance of indirect effect (Sobel z = 2.07, p < .05) under parametric conditions.

Although Mentoring was significantly and negatively related to violation in step 1 of test 6 (β_{ym} = -.34, p < .001) explaining 12% of the variance in violation, the requirement of step 2 was not met as the relationship between Mentoring and maintaining personal discipline was not statistically significant (β_{yx} = .04, p > .05). The final test exhibited similar results with the relationship between career relevance and maintaining personal discipline being non-significant (although at a marginal p = .09).

The Mediating Role of Psychological Contract Violation: Hypotheses 6d(1,3-6,8)

Hypothesis 6d-1 proposed that psychological contract violation would mediate the relationship between expatriate management inputs and task performance. The results of the mediation regression analysis (Table 39) indicated that there was no evidence of a mediated relationship between any of the expatriate management inputs and task performance through violation. Thus, hypothesis 6d-1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6d-3 proposed that psychological contract violation would mediate the relationship between expatriate management inputs and written and oral communication. Inspection of Table 39 demonstrated than violation did not play a mediating role between any of the expatriate management inputs and written and oral communication. Hence, there was no evidence to support hypothesis 6d-3.

Hypothesis 6d-4 proposed that psychological contract violation would mediate the relationship between expatriate management inputs and demonstrating effort. The mediated hierarchical regression failed to demonstrate a significant relationship between expatriate management inputs and demonstrating effort mediated by psychological contract violation. Hypothesis 6d-4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6d-5 proposed that psychological contract violation would mediate the relationship between expatriate management inputs and maintaining personal discipline. Inspection of the beta weights in Table 39 offered evidence of a partial mediating effect between one expatriate management input (Role clarity/role clarity) and maintaining personal discipline. This offers partial support for hypothesis 6d-5.

Hypothesis 6d-6 proposed that psychological contract violation would mediate the relationship between expatriate management inputs and facilitating peer and team performance. No evidence was found for a mediating effect by violation on the relationship between any of the expatriate management inputs and facilitating peer and team performance and as such hypothesis 6d-5 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6d-8 stated that psychological contract violation would mediate the relationship between expatriate management inputs and management and administration performance. The mediated hierarchical regression analysis reported in Table 39 did not indicate any mediated relationship between the expatriate management inputs and management and administration performance.

Moderating Effects

A moderator is a variable that systematically influences the relationship between two other variables (Stone & Hollenbeck, 1989). There are a number of tests of moderation but the most widely utilised and accepted is moderated multiple regression. A 1986 simulation study by Stone, Austin, and Shetzer (reported in Stone & Hollenbeck, 1989) tested the comparative power and effect size detected by moderated

multiple regression analysis and a subgroup correlation based strategy. Moderated multiple regression analysis was found to be better at detecting the moderating effects, even with sample sizes as small as 48.

There are two steps in the test of moderated regression analysis. Firstly the dependent variable is regressed on the independent variable and the moderator. Secondly a cross-product term of the independent variable and the moderator are added into the model. If the additional variance in the dependent variable explained by the cross-product is significant, then there is evidence of a moderating effect. This outcome indicates that the independent and moderator variables interact together to account of variance in the criterion above and beyond that accounted for by their separate effects (Stone, 1991). As the cross-product is often highly correlated with the variables that constitute it, Cohen and colleagues (2003) recommended that the independent variables be centred in interaction models to reduce problems resulting from multicollinearity and problems of interpretation where the predictors do not have a meaningful zero point: a situation common in the social sciences. Thus in the analysis to test the hypotheses of moderating effects, the independent and moderating variables were centred by converting the scores to *z*-scores. The interactive variable was the product of those centred variables.

The Moderating Role of Psychological Contract Fulfilment: Analysis

An additional step was added as the first step in the moderated regression analysis testing hypothesis 6b-1 in order that centred control variables could be added. These control variables were the same as used in the first set of regression analyses. In the second step, the centred independent variable and the centred moderator were included, followed by the cross-product in the third step. Thus, in the first moderated regression analysis, task performance, as the criterion, was regressed upon

psychological contract violation and fulfilment first (there were no control variables added as none correlated with task performance. See Table 40). This resulted in an non-significant contribution to variance in the criterion of less than 1%, $R^2 = .009$, $F(2,103) = 0.487$, $p > .05$. This was followed by the violation/fulfilment cross-product in the next step which yielded a non-significant increment in explained variance, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $p > .05$. The results of the six moderated hierarchical analysis are provided in Table 40.

Table 40

Moderated Regression Analysis: psychological contract fulfilment and violation on performance

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance. (8)
Step 1						
Control variables						
Age		.11			.07	.06
Position in organisation				.12*	.18***	.20***
Length of assignment		.07				
Time spent overseas		.09	.16*			.03
British ethnicity		.08				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13**			-.10*	-.10
		df = (6,98)	*df* = (1,103)	*df* = (1,104)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (4,100)
F		5.41***	4.17*	4.46*	9.32***	7.36***
R^2		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
Adjusted R^2		.20***	.03*	.03*	.19***	.20***
Step 2						
Main effects						
Age		.10			.08	.07
Position in organisation				.09	.18***	.20***
Length of assignment		.09				
Time spent overseas		.09	.17*			.04
British ethnicity		.09				

(table continues)

Table 40 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: psychological contract fulfilment and violation on performance

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance. (8)
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.10				
Cultural similarity		-.13*			-.10	-.09
Violation	-.09	-.06	-.25*	-.20**	-.09	-.09
Fulfilment	-.05	-.05	-.21*	-.04	-.09	-.08
	df = (2,103)	*df* = (8,96)	*df* = (3,101)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (5,100)	*df* = (6,98)
F	.49	4.12***	3.55*	5.21**	6.15***	5.23***
R^2	.01	.26***	.10*	.13**	.24***	.24***
Adjusted R^2	-.01	.19***	.07*	.11**	.20***	.20***
ΔR^2		.01	.06*	.02	.02	.02
Step 3						
Interactive effects						
Age		.10			.09	.08
Position in organisation				.09	.16**	.18**
Length of assignment		.09				.04
Time spent overseas		.09	.18*			
British ethnicity		.08				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.10				
Cultural similarity		-.13*			-.10*	-.09

(table continues)

Table 40 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: psychological contract fulfilment and violation on performance

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance. (8)
Violation	-.06	-.09	-.30**	-.25**	-.16*	-.14
Fulfilment	-.05	-.05	-.21*	-.04	-.08	-.07
Violation x Fulfilment	.01	-.04	-.09	-.07	-.11*	-.08
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	.33	3.76***	3.07*	4.49**	6.56***	5.04***
Overall R^2	.01	.26***	.11*	.15**	.28***	.27***
Adjusted R^2	-.02	.19***	.07*	.12**	.24***	.25***
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.01	.02	.05*	.02

Note. B weights are reported due to these estimates having been standardised after centering.
*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. n = 106

The interaction term of violation and fulfilment added significant incremental variance at step 3 for the model predicting teamwork and leadership performance. In the first step the control variables, age, position in organisation, and cultural similarity accounted for 22% of the variance in teamwork and leadership performance (R^2 = .22, F(3,102), = 9.32, p < .001). The second step included violation and fulfilment but these variables did not significantly account for any additional variance above and beyond the control variables (ΔR^2 = .02, p > .05). In the final model, the cross-product explained an additional 5% of variance in the performance component (ΔR^2 = .05, p < .05). The overall model accounted for 28% of the variance in teamwork and leadership performance (R^2 = .28, F(6,99), p < .001).

Fulfilment did not moderate the relationship between violation and the performance components in any of the remaining models. The R^2 increment attributed to the cross-product for communication performance was a non significant 1% (ΔR^2 = .01, p = .35) even though the overall model explained 26% of the variance in the performance criterion (R^2 = .26, F(9,95), = 3.76, p < .001). The cross-product also did not explain a significant variance in demonstrating effort (ΔR^2 = .01, p = .21). However, again, the overall model explained a significant amount of variance in the criterion (R^2 = .11, F(4,100), = 3.07, p < .05). A moderating effect was not evident in the model predicting the maintenance of personal discipline (ΔR^2 = .02, p = .14) but the overall model statistics indicated that the total model went some way to explaining variance in the criterion (R^2 = .15, F(4,101), = 4.49, p < .01). The final model predicting variance in management and administration performance was significant (R^2 = .27, F(7,97) = 5.04, p < .001), however, again, the cross-product of violation and fulfilment did not contribute significantly beyond the controls, violation, and fulfilment (ΔR^2 = .02, p = .08).

The Moderating Role of Psychological Contract Fulfilment: Hypotheses 6b (1,3-6,8)

Hypothesis 6b-1 proposed that the relationship between psychological contract violation and task performance would be moderated by overall perceived fulfilment of an expatriate's psychological contract. Inspection of Table 40 indicated that violation and fulfilment did not interact to predict task performance. Therefore, hypothesis 6b was not supported.

Hypotheses 6b-3, 6b-4 and 6b-5 stated that the relationship between psychological contract violation and communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), and maintaining personal discipline would be moderated by overall perceived fulfilment of an expatriate's psychological contract. The moderated regression analyses did not offer any evidence for the moderating effect. Hence, hypotheses 6b-3, 6b-4 and 6b-5 were not supported.

Hypothesis 6b-6 proposed that the relationship between psychological contract violation and teamwork and leadership performance would be moderated by overall perceived fulfilment of an expatriate's psychological contract. There was evidence from the moderated regression analysis that the interaction effect of violation and fulfilment predicted variance in teamwork and leadership performance. Thus, hypothesis 6b-6 was supported.

Hypothesis 6b-8 stated that the relationship between psychological contract violation and management and administration performance would be moderated by overall perceived fulfilment of an expatriate's psychological contract. The results of the moderated regression analysis in Table 40 did not offer any support for the moderating effect of overall fulfilment on the relationship between violation and management and administration performance. Hypothesis 6b-8 was, therefore, not supported.

The Moderating Role of Psychological Contract Type: Analysis

To determine whether the nature of the psychological contract moderated the strength of the relationship between violation and performance, moderated regression analyses were used to test the series of hypotheses under 6c. The analysis followed the method used to test hypotheses under 6b. However, instead of fulfilment of the contract, the relational nature of the contract and the transactional nature of the contract were included as the moderating variables in separate analyses. The results of these analyses were compared to determine whether a relational contract had greater influence as a moderator than a transactional contract. The results of the moderated regression analyses are presented in Table 41. However, only the results of step 3 are shown to enable the existence of moderation to be determined and to highlight the comparison between the two suggested moderators, relational contract and transactional contract.

Table 41

Moderated Regression Analysis: The Nature of the Psychological Contract and Violation on Performance

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance. (8)
Step 3 Interactive effects						
Age		.10*			.09	.08
Position in organisation				.08	.16**	.18**
Length of assignment		.14*				.06
Time spent overseas		.08	.17*			
British ethnicity		.06				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.12*				
Cultural similarity		-.10*			-.09	-.07
Violation	-.03	-.03	-.10	-.17**	-.03	-.03
Relational contract	.06	.09	.04	.10	.06	.08
Violation x Relational	.05	.14**	.07	.02	.08*	.10*
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	1.17	5.86***	1.93	4.94**	5.87***	5.94***
Overall R^2	.03	.36***	.07	.16**	.26***	.30***
Adjusted R^2	.01	.30***	.04	.13**	.22***	.25***
ΔR^2	.011	.075**	.012	.002	.028*	.044*

(table continues)

Table 41 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: The Nature of the Psychological Contract and Violation on Performance

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance. (8)
Step 3 Interactive effects						
Age		.08			.08	.05
Position in organisation				.07	.16**	.19**
Length of assignment		.09				.04
Time spent overseas		.10	.15*			
British ethnicity		.07				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.11*			-.09*	-.08
Violation	-.04	-.04	-.11	-.18**	-.05	-.05
Transactional contract	.07	.08	.03	.06	.07	.00
Violation x Transactional	.03	.06	.05	.02	.05	.08
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	1.09	4.49***	1.78	4.24**	5.75***	4.79***
Overall R^2	.03	.30***	.07	.14**	.26***	.26***
Adjusted R^2	.002	.23***	.03	.11**	.21***	.20***
ΔR^2	.004	.01	.006	.001	.01	.02

Note. B weights are reported due to these estimates having been standardised after centering.
$^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$. n = 106

As demonstrated in Table 41 neither the relational contract nor the transactional contract was found to contribute a significant interactive effect with violation upon task performance. The relational contract had a non-significant ΔR^2 of .01 compared with the transactional contract with a non-significant ΔR^2 of .004. Furthermore, neither of the overall models were themselves significant predictors of task performance ($R^2 = .03$, $F(3,102) = 1.17$, $p > .05$ for relational contract and $R^2 = .03$, $F(3,102) = 1.09$, $p > .05$ for transactional contract).

The model predicting communication performance indicated that relational contract type moderated the impact of violation ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, $p < .01$). However, transactional contract type did not have the same effect ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p > .05$). The overall model with relational contract as a moderator accounted for 36% of the variance in communication performance ($R^2 = .36$, $F(9,95) = 5.86$, $p < .001$). In comparison, the percentage of explained variance still remained significant but reduced to 30% ($R^2 = .30$, $F(9,95) = 4.49$, $p < .001$) in the model with transactional contract type.

Neither relational contract type nor transactional contract type moderated the relationship between violation and demonstrating effort and maintaining personal discipline. There was no significant incremental variance which could be contributed to moderating effects. The ΔR^2s for transactional type (.006 for demonstrating effort and .001 for maintaining personal discipline) were less than the ΔR^2s for relational contract type (.012 for demonstrating effort and .002 for maintaining personal discipline) for both sets of tests.

Relational contract type operated as a moderator in the model predicting teamwork and leadership performance. The analysis resulted in a significant incremental variance of 3% ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .05$) and the overall model accounted for 26% of the variance in teamwork and leadership performance ($R^2 = .26$, $F(6,99) = 5.87$, $p < .001$). There was no evidence that transactional contract type operated in the same

way with a non-significant ΔR^2 of .01, although the overall model was significant without the interacting effect and also explained 26% of the variance in teamwork and leadership performance ($R^2 = .26$, $F(6,99) = 5.75$, $p < .001$).

Finally, relational contract type was also found to moderate the effects of violation on management and administration performance with a significant R^2 of .04. Transaction contract type, however, again failed to explain any incremental variance in the performance component above and beyond the controls and the main effects ($R^2 = .02$, $p > .05$). Both models were significant. The relational model accounted for 30% of the variance in management and administration performance ($R^2 = .30$, $F(7,97) = 5.94$, $p < .001$) and the transactional model account for a lesser 26% ($R^2 = .26$, $F(7,97) = 4.79$, $p < .001$).

As the internal consistency measure for transactional contract type was low ($\alpha = .61$), the above analysis must be interpreted with caution. To test whether a similar pattern of moderation was seen in the contract type as measured using the breach scales (with improved reliability statistics), the contract type moderating analysis was repeated. The results are duplicated in Appendix I and although there was no significant moderating effect found in any of the analyses with either relational breach or transactional breach, the ΔR^2 for the relational breach/violation cross-product was in general greater than the ΔR^2 for the transactional breach/violation cross-product with the exception of the models predicting communication performance and maintaining personal discipline. For the model predicting communication performance the non-significant ΔR^2 was .002 for relational breach and .015 for transactional breach. For the model predicting maintenance of personal discipline the non-significant ΔR^2 was .009 for relational breach and .014 from transactional breach. The implications from these additional results are discussed in chapter 6.

The Moderating Role of Psychological Contract Type: Hypotheses 6c(1,3-6,8)

Hypothesis 6c-1 proposed that the relationship between psychological contract violation and task performance would be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type. The results of the moderated regression analysis (Table 41) indicated that neither relational contract type nor transactional contract type moderated the relationship between violation and task performance. Thus, hypothesis 6c-1 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6c-3 stated that the relationship between psychological contract violation and communication performance would be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type. As evident in Table 41, there was a significant moderating effect by relational contract type and not transactional contract type. The ΔR^2 at .08 is much greater than the range typically expected for non-experimental studies (Champoux & Peters, 1987; Chaplin, 1991). Hence, hypothesis 6c-3 was supported.

Hypotheses 6c-4 and 6c-5 proposed that the relationships between psychological contract violation and demonstrating effort (4) and maintaining personal discipline (5) would be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type. Examination of Table 41 indicated that there were no moderating effects in evidence for either of these relationships. Neither hypothesis 6c-4 nor 6c-5 was supported.

Hypothesis 6c-6 and hypothesis 6c-8 stated that the relationship between psychological contract violation and teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8) would be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type. Examination of the ΔR^2s in Table 41 offers evidence that relational contract type had a greater moderating effect

on both components of performance than did transactional contract type, which did not have any significant effect. Therefore hypotheses 6c-6 and 6c-8 were supported.

The Moderating Role of Career Commitment: Analysis

Moderated regression analysis was utilised to test the hypotheses that career commitment moderated the relationship between organisational support variables and performance components. A series of 24 regression analyses were run to determine the existence of interactive effects, thus testing the 24 sub-hypotheses.

The same series of three steps were used in the hierarchical analysis as in the above moderated regression analyses. The same control variables were used because the dependent variables remained the same. Due to space considerations and to facilitate ease of examination, only step 3 was reported in Table 42. The full table is presented in Appendix J. The results of the analysis presented in Table 42 indicated that there was no moderating effect found in any of the 24 sets of regression analyses.

Table 42

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance(8)
			IV: Practical support			
Step 3						
Controls						
Age		.08			.06	.04
Position in organisation				.09	.16**	.18**
Length of assignment		.07				.04
Time spent overseas		.09	.15			
British ethnicity		.06				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13*			-.11*	-.11*
Main effects						
Practical support	-.14**	-.06	-.02	.03	.00	-.01
Career commitment	.12*	.07	.09	.09	.11*	.15**
Interactive effects						
Practical Support x Career Commitment (H7a)	-.00	.05	-.06	.00	.02	.07
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	3.84*	4.02***	1.71	1.86	5.54***	5.70***
Overall R^2	.10*	.28***	.06	.07	.25***	.29***
Adjusted R^2	.08*	.21***	.03	.03	.21***	.24***
ΔR^2 Controls		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
ΔR^2 Main effects	.10**	.02	.02	.03	.03	.04
ΔR^2 Interactive effects	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.02

(table continues)

Table 42 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance (8)
			IV: Role clarity			
Step 3						
Controls						
Age		.09			.07	.07
Position in organisation				.06	.15**	.15**
Length of assignment		.08				.00
Time spent overseas		.08	.15			
British ethnicity		.07				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.14**			-.10*	-.10*
Main effects						
Role clarity	.12*	.03	-.02	.15**	.03	.11*
Career commitment	.06	.05	.07	.09	.09	.10
Interactive effects						
Role clarity x Career Commitment(H7b)	-.05	.03	-.12	.01	-.01	-.01
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	3.93*	3.73***	2.45	3.68**	5.59***	6.08***
Overall R^2	.10*	.26***	.09	.13**	.25***	.31***
Adjusted R^2	.08*	.19***	.05	.09**	.21***	.26***
ΔR^2 Controls		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
ΔR^2 Main effects	.09**	.01	.02	.09**	.04	.08**
ΔR^2 Interactive effects	.01	.01	.03	.00	.00	.00

(table continues)

Table 42 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance (8)
			IV: Mentoring			
Step 3						
Controls						
Age		.09			.06	.05
Position in organisation				.10	.16**	.18**
Length of assignment		.08				.04
Time spent overseas		.09	.17*			
British ethnicity		.08				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13*			-.10*	-.11*
Main effects						
Mentoring	.01	-.04	.09	.02	.00	-.00
Career commitment	.10	.05	.10	.09	.09	.13*
Interactive effects						
Mentoring x Career Commitment(H7c)	-.05	-.03	.01	-.02	-.06	.08
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	1.60	3.77***	1.90	1.85	5.85***	5.01***
Overall R^2	.05	.26***	.07	.07	.26***	.28***
Adjusted R^2	.02	.19***	.03	.03	.22***	.23***
ΔR^2 Controls		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
ΔR^2 Main effects	.04	.01	.03	.03	.03	.04
ΔR^2 Interactive effects	.01	.00	.00	.00	.01	.02

(table continues)

Table 42 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Teamwork and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance. (8)
			IV: Training			
Step 3 Controls						
Age		.09			.06	.06
Position in organisation				.10	.17**	.17**
Length of assignment		.07				.04
Time spent overseas		.09	.15			
British ethnicity		.06				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.13*				
Cultural similarity		-.13**			-.10*	-.11*
Main effects						
Training	-.07	-.06	-.08	.05	-.03	.04
Career commitment	.10	.06	.11	.08	.09	.11*
Interactive effects						
Training x Career Commitment (H7d)	-.00	.05	-.01	-.04	-.02	-.01
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	1.90	3.98***	1.83	2.10	5.55***	5.25***
Overall R^2	.05	.27***	.07	.08	.25***	.28***
Adjusted R^2	.03	.21***	.03	.04	.21***	.22***
ΔR^2 Controls		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
ΔR^2 Main effects	.05	.01	.03	.03	.04	.05*
ΔR^2 Interactive effects	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00

Note. B weights are reported due to these estimates having been standardised after centering.
$^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$. n = 106

Nonsignificant ΔR^2s ranged from .00 to .02 for the interactive influence of career commitment and practical support on the performance components. There were four overall models where the main effects of practical support and career commitment together with the control variables significantly explained variance in the criteria. Ten percent of task performance ($R^2 = .10$, $F(3,102) = 3.84$, $p < .05$), 28% of communication performance ($R^2 = .28$, $F(9,95) = 4.02$, $p < .001$), 25% of teamwork and leadership performance ($R^2 = .25$, $F(6.99) = 5.54$, $p < .001$), and 29% of management and administration performance ($R^2 = .29$, $F(7,97) = 5.70$, $p < .001$) were predicted by the overall models. However, closer inspection indicated that in most models the control variables contributed the majority of the explanatory power (with the exception of task performance where there were no controls included in the model). Career commitment as a main effect significantly contributed to only task performance ($b = .12$, $p < .05$), teamwork and leadership performance ($b = .11$, $p < .001$), and management and administration performance ($b = .15$, $p < .001$). Practical support negatively contributed to task performance ($b = -.14$, $p < .01$) alone.

The moderated regression results for the interactive effects of Role clarity with career commitment on the performance criteria presented a similar pattern of influence. There was no evidence of a moderating effect with insignificant ΔR^2s ranging from .00 to .03. There was greater evidence of main effects contributing to the prediction of task performance (ΔR^2 Main effects = .09, $p < .01$), maintaining self discipline (ΔR^2 Main effects = .09, $p < .01$) and management and administration performance (ΔR^2 Main effects = .08, $p < .01$). However, with the exception of the model predicting maintenance of personal discipline where the *b*-weight of Role clarity was .15, $p < .01$, in most cases the controls contributed a greater proportion of variance in the criteria.

The third set of moderated regression analyses in Table 42 also failed to show evidence of a moderating effect and little evidence of either Mentoring or career

commitment uniquely contributing to the prediction of performance components other than management and administration performance ($b = .13$, $p < .05$ for career commitment). The controls predicted the highest proportion of the variance in the criteria as seen earlier: 25% of communication performance, 4% of demonstrating effort, 4% of maintaining personal discipline, 22% of teamwork and leadership performance, and 23% of management and administration performance.

Training and career commitment failed to interact to predict variance in the six components of performance. The insignificant ΔR^2s for the interactive effects ranged from .00 to .01. Training did not offer any significant increment in explained variance for any of the six performance components. Career commitment only demonstrated a significant contribution to management and administration performance ($b = .11$, $p < .05$) which explained an additional 5% of the variance in that criterion ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, $p < .05$).

The Moderating Role of Career Commitment: Hypotheses 7a, b, c and d (1,3-6,8)

The series of hypothesis relating to 7a proposed that career commitment would moderate the relationship between practical support and task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). The first set of moderated regression analyses did not offer any evidence for a moderated effect by career commitment on the relationship between practical support and any of the performance components. Hence hypotheses 7a-1, 7a-3, 7a-4, 7a-5, 7a-6, and 7a-8 were not supported.

Hypotheses 7b-1, 7b-3, 7b-4, 7b-5, 7b-6, and 7b-8 stated that career commitment would moderate the relationship between informative support (measured by role clarity) and task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and

management and administration performance (8). Inspection of Table 42 indicated there was no significant interaction effect on any of the performance components by career commitment and Role clarity. Thus, hypotheses 7b-1, 7b-3, 7b-4, 7b-5, 7b-6, and 7b-8 were not supported.

The series of hypotheses under 7c proposed that career commitment would moderate the relationship between Mentoring and task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). In the set of regression analysis run on all six performance components, there was no significant incremental variance as evidenced by the ΔR^2 interactive effects of the cross-products for career commitment and training. Therefore, hypotheses 7c-1, 7c-3, 7c-4, 7c-5, 7c-6, and 7c-8 were not supported.

The series of hypotheses 7d-1, 7d-3, 7d-4, 7d-5, 7d-6, and 7d-8 proposed that career commitment would moderate the relationship between training and task performance (1), communication performance (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership performance (6), and management and administration performance (8). There was no significant incremental variance explained by the interactive effect of training and career commitment in the regression analysis shown in Table 42. Thus, hypotheses 7d-1, 7d-3, 7d-4, 7d-5, 7d-6, and 7d-8 were not supported.

Summary of Results

Due to the outcome of the factor analyses whereby six, rather than eight, components were found, the hypotheses summarised in Table 43 have been modified to show the relationships between the predictors and the six components of performance, rather than the original eight. The numbering follows the component numbering system

from the factor analysis. For the sake of readability and parsimony, where a series of hypotheses resulted in similar findings, they have been grouped together.

Table 43

List of Hypotheses and their Outcomes from the Hierarchical Regression Results

Hypotheses	Finding
Selection considerations	
H1a (1,3-6,8). The degree of utilisation of selection considerations by the organisation will be positively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Written processes and policies for selection	
H1b (1,3-6,8). The level of expatriate processes and policies in place in organisations, beyond selecting for technical skills, will be positively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Training	
H2a (1,3-6,8). Cultural training and language training will be positively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Training rigour	
H2b(1,3-6,8) Support by an expatriate's employer in terms of rigor and variety of training and preparation will be positively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported

(table continues)

Table 43 (continued)

List of Hypotheses and their Outcomes from the Hierarchical Regression Results

Hypotheses	Finding
Practical support	
H3a-1. The degree of practical support offered to expatriates by the organisation will be positively related to task performance.	Not supported. Significant in the opposite direction
H3a (3-6,8). The degree of practical support offered to expatriates by the organisation will be positively related to communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Informative support	
H3b-1. The degree of informative support offered by the organisation will be positively related to task performance.	**Supported**
H3b (3-6). The degree of informative support offered by the organisation will be positively related to communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), and teamwork and leadership (6).	Not supported
H3b-8. The degree of informative support offered by the organisation will be positively related to management and administration performance.	**Supported**
Affective support	
H3c (1,3-6,8). The degree of affective support offered by the organisation will be positively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported

(table continues)

Table 43 (continued)

List of Hypotheses and their Outcomes from the Hierarchical Regression Results

Hypotheses	Finding
Career relevance	
H4 (1,3-6,8). Relevance of the assignment to expatriates' career plans will be positively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Work adjustment	
H5a (1,3-6,8). The extent to which an expatriate adjusts to the work environment will impact positively on task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
General living adjustment	
H5b (1,3-6,8). The extent to which an expatriate adjusts to general living conditions will impact positively on task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Interaction adjustment	
H5c-1. The extent to which an expatriate adjusts to interaction with host nationals will impact positively on task performance.	**Supported**
H5c (3-5). The extent to which an expatriate adjusts to interaction with host nationals will impact positively on communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), and maintaining personal discipline (5)	Not supported
H5c-6). The extent to which an expatriate adjusts to interaction with host nationals will impact positively on teamwork and leadership performance.	**Supported**
H5c-8). The extent to which an expatriate adjusts to interaction with host nationals will impact positively on management and administration performance.	**Supported**

(table continues)

Table 43 (continued)

List of Hypotheses and their Outcomes from the Hierarchical Regression Results

Hypotheses	Finding
Mediating role of cross-cultural adjustment	
H5d-1 Work adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and task performance.	Not supported
H5d-3 Interaction adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and written and oral communication performance.	**Supported**
H5d-4 Work adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and demonstrating effort.	Not supported
H5d-5 Work adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and maintaining personal discipline.	**Partially supported**
H5d-6 Interaction adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and supervision/leadership.	**Supported**
H5d-8 Work adjustment will mediate the relationships between expatriate management inputs and management/administration.	**Supported**
H5e-1. Work adjustment will have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and task performance than will either interaction adjustment or general adjustment.	Not supported
H5e-3. Interaction adjustment will have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and communication performance than will either work adjustment or general adjustment.	**Supported**
H5e-4. Work adjustment will have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and demonstration of effort than will either interaction adjustment or general adjustment.	Not Supported

(table continues)

Table 43 (continued)

List of Hypotheses and their Outcomes from the Hierarchical Regression Results

Hypotheses	Finding
H5e-5. Work adjustment will have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and maintenance of self-discipline than will either interaction adjustment or general adjustment.	**Partially supported**
H5e-6. Interaction adjustment will have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and teamwork and leadership performance than will either work adjustment or general adjustment.	**Supported**
H5e-8. Work adjustment will have a greater mediating effect on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and management and administration performance than will either interaction adjustment or general adjustment.	Not supported
Stage of adjustment	
H5f (1,3-6,8). The process along the four stages of adjustment will be positively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Effort to adjust to work	
H5g-1. The degree of effort an expatriate perceives is necessary to adjust to the work environment is negatively related to task performance.	Not supported
H5g-3. The degree of effort an expatriate perceives is necessary to adjust to the work environment is negatively related to communication.	Not supported. Significant in the opposite direction.
H5g (4-6,8). The degree of effort an expatriate perceives is necessary to adjust to the work environment is negatively related demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported

(table continues)

Table 43 (continued)

List of Hypotheses and their Outcomes from the Hierarchical Regression Results

Hypotheses	Finding
Effort to adjust to general life	
H5h (1,3-6,8). The degree of effort an expatriate perceives is necessary to adjust to general living conditions is negatively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Effort to adjust to interacting with host nationals	
H5i (1,3-6,8). The degree of effort an expatriate perceives is necessary to adjust to interacting with host nationals is negatively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Psychological contract violation	
H6a (1,3-6,8). Violation of an expatriate's psychological contract will be negatively related to task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
Moderating role of fulfilment	
H6b (1, 3-5). The relationship between psychological contract violation and task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), and maintaining personal discipline (5), will be moderated by overall perceived fulfilment of an expatriate's psychological contract.	Not supported
H6b-6. The relationship between psychological contract violation and teamwork and leadership performance will be moderated by overall perceived fulfilment of an expatriate's psychological contract.	**Supported**
H6b-8. The relationship between psychological contract violation and management and administration performance will be moderated by overall perceived fulfilment of an expatriate's psychological contract.	Not supported

(Table continues)

Table 43 (continued)

List of Hypotheses and their Outcomes from the Hierarchical Regression Results

Hypotheses	Finding
Moderating role of psychological contract type	
H6c-1. The relationship between psychological contract violation and task performance will be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type.	Not supported
H6c-3. The relationship between psychological contract violation and communication performance will be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type.	**Supported**
H6c-4. The relationship between psychological contract violation and demonstrating effort will be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type.	Not supported
H6c-5. The relationship between psychological contract violation and maintaining personal discipline will be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type.	Not supported
H6c-6. The relationship between psychological contract violation and teamwork and leadership performance will be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type.	**Supported**
H6c-8. The relationship between psychological contract violation and management and administration performance will be moderated to a greater extent by relational contract type than by transactional contract type.	**Supported**
The mediating role of psychological contract violation	
H6d (1,3-4). Psychological contract violation mediates the relationship between expatriate management inputs and task performance (1), communication (3), and demonstrating effort (4),	Not supported
H6d-5. Psychological contract violation mediates the relationship between expatriate management inputs and maintaining personal discipline.	Not supported
H6d-6. Psychological contract violation mediates the relationship between expatriate management inputs and facilitating peer and team performance.	Not supported

(table continues)

Table 43 (continued)

List of Hypotheses and their Outcomes from the Hierarchical Regression Results

Hypotheses	Finding
H6d-8. Psychological contract violation mediates the relationship between expatriate management inputs and management and administration performance.	Not supported
The moderating role of career commitment	
H7a (1,3-6,8). Career commitment moderates the relationship between practical support and task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
H7b (1,3-6,8). Career commitment moderates the relationship between informative support and task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
H7c (1,3-6,8). Career commitment moderates the relationship between affective support and task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported
H7d (1,3-6,8). Career commitment moderates the relationship between training and task performance (1), communication (3), demonstrating effort (4), maintaining personal discipline (5), teamwork and leadership (6), and management and administration performance (8).	Not supported

Summary

This chapter presented the findings from the empirical tests of the hypothesized relationships based upon quantitative data collected through questionnaire surveys of Australian expatriates in the Special Administrative Regions of China. The first section reported on the preliminary analysis and tested the assumptions, which must be met in order to conduct regression analysis: outliers, normality, linearity, and multicollinearity. The data were checked for data input errors which were corrected by reference back to the original questionnaire responses. Outliers were identified using the *z*-score greater,

or less, than 3.29 criterion, and were retained with alteration. Normality of scale distribution was deemed satisfactory after inspection of skewness and kurtosis figures, normal probability plots and after attempts to transform some variables did not improve upon the original distributions. The assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were checked through scatterplots and deemed acceptable for all analyses. It was determined through the utilisation of Mahalanobis distance that there were no multivariate outliers in the data.

It was ascertained that the missing data were Missing At Random and imputation was chosen based upon the classification, the sample size, the small percentage of missing data and the reliability of the scales. The 2.91% missing data were dealt with through regression imputation for the independent and dependent variables with the exception of items which were not applicable to those expatriates with no partners and those with no subordinates. No scores were imputed for these items and the total scores were calculated based upon the remaining items. Evidence for construct validity for the developed performance scales was offered through correlating position in the organisation with maintaining personal discipline, teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administration performance. In addition, qualified support was also offered for construct validity of communication performance and demonstrating effort.

Finally, the results of tests of the hypotheses were presented in the next three sections which reported the hierarchical regression analyses, mediated regression analyses and moderated regression analyses. Within the seven hypothesis, 14 sub-hypotheses were supported, two were partially supported, two were not supported but significant in the opposite direction, and the remainder were not supported.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings of the current study and the contributions to the existing literature. Theoretical and practical implications of the findings are also raised

for consideration. Inevitably, there are a number of limitations in any research and thus those inherent in this study are presented along with recommendations of directions for future research endeavours.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION

This final chapter discusses the findings of the qualitative and quantitative data collection and the results of the analyses in the context of the extant theory and literature. The sections discussing the contributions of the research are based upon the order of topics in the second chapter. These look at what performance means in the context of Australian expatriates in the Special Administrative Regions of China, how the antecedents relate to performance, what parts cross-cultural adjustment, psychological contract, and career commitment play in performance outcomes. A discussion on the definition of the expatriate and how it has influenced extant research and data collection is also included. A final model depicting the relationships is presented along with its implications for both theory and practice. As with all studies of this size there are a number of inherent limitations. These limitations are a consequence of the need to delimit the content and methodology as well as the natural constraints caused by environmental influences and finite resources. A number of questions still remain unanswered and this study has raised additional questions. Thus, there are opportunities in the domain for scales to be improved, relationships to be re-tested, and models to be broadened and integrated. Some of these ideas are discussed throughout the chapter and in the final section on future research directions.

Performance

The first research question aimed to determine the components of expatriate performance. The following presents the findings from the interview data together with a conceptual view of whether expatriate specific components should be included. Next, the state of the evidence to support the theories that suggest a hierarchical model of performance with task and contextual performance at the top and lower level classifications respectively is presented.

The subtle difference in the schools of thought on the existence of expatriate specific performance components is aptly expressed in the quote from Murphy and Jackson (1999, p.358), "organisational context may be treated as an independent variable that directly or indirectly influences job performance, or performance may be conceptualized more broadly in terms of role performance that is integrally linked with context". The view of the components of expatriate performance in the research is a critical one. As argued in chapter 4, the position taken in this thesis is that any criterion which is viewed as expatriate specific will either be able to be classified under one of the performance components, or it is antecedent to performance. Context is viewed as influencing performance outcomes and not a component of performance to be assessed.

The earlier theoretical stance offered in the literature has taken a decisive turn in the operationalisation of an expatriate-specific components of performance in Caligiuri's (1997) influential paper. As an example of the shift in thinking, Gregersen et al's paper (1995) exploring expatriate performance appraisal systems in 60 US multinational firms can be viewed in two ways. These views are based upon the context versus the criterion argument and Gregersen and colleagues' article is reflective of this dichotomised view of the role of context in other studies. They recommend that contextual criteria be included within expatriate performance appraisals. In their discussion and definition of the contextual criteria they clearly conceptualise it as influencing the two other types of performance criteria (hard and soft criteria). However, in the rest of the paper they discuss and measure the three criteria at the same level and no further space is dedicated to how the contextual criteria might influence the scores on the hard and soft criteria. Although some authors talk of contextual factors as antecedent to, or as correlates with, performance outcomes (Dowling & Schuler, 1990; Fish & Wood, 1996), it appears that others in the field have taken the view of contextual criteria as separate and equal level criteria to other performance components (Black et

al., 1992b; Caligiuri, 1997; Caligiuri & Day, 2000; Fenwick, 2005). To at once suggest that context must be allowed for in evaluating performance while at the same time to suggest that context-specific variables must be included as criterion measures (Caligiuri & Day, 2000) appears to be "double counting" the contextual relevance in expatriate performance. Adapting a performance assessment system to allow for differences in work environments, due to context, minimises the confounding effects on performance assessment. However, to extrapolate from this a requirement for specific performance components applicable only to expatriates in that environment does not appear to be reflective of the needs of organisational goals.

The findings from the interview data in this research suggest that expatriates, when assessed, are assessed on the same criteria as their work colleagues in their immediate work surroundings. When specifically asked, respondents disagree that expatriates should be assessed on criteria different from their non-expatriate work colleagues. If the role and the inherent tasks are the same, expatriate and local employees are assessed under the same set of criteria.

Although theory appears to suggest that expatriate performance differs from domestic performance (Fenwick, 2005; Gregersen et al., 1995) it is silent on whether expatriate performance should also differ from performance of the non-expatriate workforce in the same location. However, the addition of expatriate specific components in empirical studies has extrapolated from earlier theoretical positions to suggest that, indeed, regardless of role and the environment, expatriate performance is intrinsically different from non-expatriate performance. This perspective appears to have materialised from the traditional expatriate paradigm which views the management of expatriation from the position of the parent company. In research where the focus is on the expatriate and the local management of that employee's performance it is less likely that the expatriate classification is of much salience; the goals of the organisation

come to the fore. Thus, in research such as this which is not dependent on multinational parent company nationals, an expatriate specific component as a differentiator between home country national (domestic) performance and expatriate employee performance does not have great relevance. Although this research defines performance in the expatriate context, it is not an expatriate specific criterion variable per se which defines the expatriate performance model but the overall model of relationships with performance. Some of the antecedents, however, within the model are specific to the expatriate context.

The theory suggested in chapter 2 to be relevant to the definition and composition of expatriate performance proposes that expatriate performance is multi-dimensional and that Campbell's (1990) components of performance would be sufficient to explain the latent constructs underlying performance. At the upper level of conceptualisation it was suggested that task and contextual performance would incorporate Campbell's components as sub-dimensions. This hierarchical view of performance is supported conceptually by Viswesvaran and Ones (Campbell, 1999; 2000) and empirically by others (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Scullen et al., 2003).

There are three major findings from the subject matter expert survey and empirical data analysis. Firstly, six, not eight, performance factors have been found. Secondly, it is easier for subject matter experts to consistently allocate the items to Campbell's (1990) factors than to task and contextual performance components. Thirdly, even when two components are rotated, component analysis fails to detect two meaningful components that aligned with task and contextual performance factors. Each of these findings is presented in detail in the following paragraphs.

Campbell (1990) stated that not all of the eight components might be relevant to each and every job. However, in this data, rather than any one factor being irrelevant, it appears that four components combine into two but still maintain much of the content of

each of the eight components. Components two (non-job specific task performance) and eight (management and administrative performance) merge together. Some evidence for redundancy of non-job specific task performance is found throughout the data collection and analysis process. Although responses were elicited in the interviews when questions were asked about performance being measured on this component, a detailed explanation of the meaning of the categorisation was sought by many of the interviewees. It is not an easy component to define or operationalise. There is also a suggestion from earlier theoretical discussions that there are some overlaps between the two components. Other general tasks not specific to a particular job (the definition of non-job specific task performance) aptly describes management and administration performance, particularly for managerial positions. Thus, the merging of these components is meaningful and unsurprising.

The other two components which combine together are components six (facilitating peer and team performance) and seven (supervision and leadership). The merged component appears to relate to others in the work place and does not distinguish between peers or subordinates. Conway (1999) also found that leadership task performance might not be distinguishable from interpersonal facilitation. When Borman and Brush's (1993) 18 factor taxonomy is compared with Campbell's (1990) model (see Table 3 in chapter 2), Borman and Brush's performance factor 4 (communicating effectively and keeping others informed) equally applies to supervisory and peer group relationships. Although the component structure does not follow that based upon Campbell's original model, the content of these smaller number of factors appears to mirror that originally conceptualised by Campbell.

The subject matter experts were unable to consistently assign items to the two Borman and Motowidlo (1993) constructs of task and contextual performance (inter-rater median kappa of .23) although allocation to Campbell's eight performance

components was relatively consistent (inter-rater median kappa of .50). When the majority responses are analysed and compared with the theoretical categorisation the allocation to eight components is found to be much more consistent with the theory (kappa of .91) than the allocation to task and contextual performance (kappa of .39). The subject matter experts were not required to discuss their decisions and come to a consensus view as this was viewed by the researcher to constitute artificial reliability.

Lastly, even when two components are rotated on the data from the 106 expatriate respondents, the structure fails to produce components of meaningful content and certainly do not constitute task and contextual performance. From these last two findings from SME data and component analysis, there is adequate evidence to suggest that it is inappropriate to conclude that the data are representative of a hierarchical model of performance with task and contextual performance at the upper level. However, data from the subject matter experts, the empirical factor analysis, and the theoretical model offer some level of consistency that suggests that the content of Campbell's (1990) eight factors can be represented by the six components utilised in this research.

There are also a number of other findings. Component four (demonstrating effort) is defined by Campbell (1990) as the degree of commitment and personal discipline to work under adverse conditions. Items measuring voluntary behaviour have been incorporated into this component from Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) and Caligiuri's (1997) work because voluntary behaviour is an indicator of degree of commitment and has been seen to be an important component of contextual performance. Thus, the content of the items from the item generation process includes dedication, consistent demonstration of effort, and volunteering. Only items reflecting voluntary behaviour load on the final component. Dedication appears more aligned with maintenance of personal discipline. Consistent demonstration of effort aligns best with

job specific task performance. In their study of 975 US Air-force mechanics, Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) found that job dedication, which included compliance as well as effort content, did not explain any unique variance in overall performance, although it did in Conway's (1999) study with managers. Conway did acknowledge, however, that the effort aspect of dedication may not be distinguishable from task performance. It has been suggested that some aspects of job dedication may influence task performance (Conway, ; Van Scotter & Motowidlo) and as such the loading of the demonstrating effort item onto 'job specific task performance' accords with this view. Conway stated that volunteering "may be more likely to contribute uniquely" (1999, p.12) to overall performance. Thus the findings in the SARs study whereby the compliant behaviour items and effort items load on other components and volunteering remains appears to be consistent with the findings from these earlier studies.

Two items load on component 6 (facilitating peer and team performance) which were originally created to describe component 3 (communication performance). The items are (item 30) "argue effectively for own position when appropriate" and (item 38) "persuade others to accept ideas". Both of these items include words which express modes of communication but it appears that the object of the communication is more salient in this sample. Upon further review of Borman and Brush's (1993) performance factors which were allocated by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) to task and contextual performance and in this research in chapter 2 to Campbell's (1990) eight components of performance, it appears that some factors have been mis-categorised in Table 3 of that chapter. The performance factors from Borman and Brush which require further exploration are factors 17 (selling/influencing) and 4 (communicating effectively and keeping others informed). Selling and influencing is about persuading others, presenting one's own positions, and arguing effectively. Borman and Motowidlo suggest that this factor is consistent with the definition of task performance and thus it was allocated in

this research to Campbell's communication performance component. The subject matter experts also allocated these two items to communication performance. However, the component analysis in this study suggests that it is viewed as consistent with the content of facilitating peer and team performance. Item 3 (effectively inform leaders, team-mates and direct reports), however, which was developed to tap communication performance also loads on that component but is deemed to be consistent with facilitating peer and team performance by the subject matter experts. As such, it is obvious that more work needs to be undertaken on the classification of communication performance items when the context is relevant to other performance components such as when the communication facilitates teamwork and supervisory responsibilities.

A major contribution of this research is the definition of expatriate performance and the development of a measure of expatriate performance. Scale development is a complex process (DeVellis, 2003; Tharenou et al., 2007) and the decision to undertake it was not taken lightly in this research. The development of a new expatriate performance scale contributes to the literature in a number of ways. The development of the measure was founded on a discussion of performance theories, previous empirical studies into expatriate performance, and a multi-factorial model of performance. The author of the underlying factorial performance theory has himself acknowledged that "evidence of this taxonomy is admittedly sparse" (Campbell, 1990, p.710), although the original US army data set was extensive. There have been supportive calls for further empirical data to identify performance criteria in general and in the expatriate literature (Caligiuri, 1997). The developmental process utilised empirical data to inform and test at each step through item generation to final composition, verification of assumptions, and assessments of reliability and validity. This contributes towards fulfilling the need for a more rigorous approach to expatriate performance measurement development.

The measure developed not only assesses the performance components but also the importance of those components to expatriate roles. This offers academics and practitioners the opportunity to focus on antecedents which are related to the most important components of performance so that limited organisational resources can be utilised efficiently for the most effective performance outcomes. As the discussion of the importance of the various components is particularly relevant to practitioners, it is placed in the section on implications for practitioners below.

The hierarchical model of performance was not found to fit the data through findings of triangulated analyses in this research. Although intuitively appealing, the allocation of each of Campbell's (1990) performance components to task and contextual performance is not supported. Previous studies which have conceptualised an hierarchical model of multidimensional performance (Conway, 1999; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) have developed models from the upper level and split the two categories further into discrete components whereas this study commences at the lower level and allocates existing theoretical components to those two upper level categories. The lack of support for the framework from this data may be due to the bottom up process of conceptualisation or perhaps due to measurement error in the developed scale. The bottom up process used in the large sample construct validation study by Scullen and colleagues (2003) also found the higher order structure to be problematic and different from that hypothesised which lends some support to the findings in this study. Mapping the content of the expatriate performance criterion was the first necessary step before the second research question could be advanced. The second research question explores the relationships between antecedents and performance components in the expatriate domain. This discussion follows in the next sections.

Antecedents

The second research question aims to ascertain what hinders or assists expatriate performance. The interview data suggests that selection processes are (a) generally ad hoc, (b) training and preparation are minimal and not of much salience to the expatriates interviewed, and (c) ongoing support is seen of value but support offered by individuals and by those external to the organisation are seen to be of greatest value and satisfy emotional, social, and information needs.

The literature reflects these findings from the current research. Tye (2005) reported that a number of the human resource (HR) professionals she interviewed suggested informal assessments of characteristics are determined to be sufficient for selection purposes and continued frustration with failings of selection processes have continued for decades (Hays, 1974; Porter & Tansky, 1999). In reference to two consultant studies, Mendenhall and colleagues (2002) lamented the lack of sophisticated selection policies and procedures. In 1971, Baker and Ivancevich noted from their study of 124 firms that two thirds did not administer pre-departure training and the majority did not provide formal training in culture or language. The situation had not appeared to have changed in 1985 when Baliga and Baker noted that only 25% of the 1,000 largest US industrial companies that they surveyed offered extensive pre-departure training programs (1985). However, an Arthur Andersen and Bennett Associates study from 1997 reported that 69% of US companies provide cross-cultural training to their expatriates (cited in Bennett, Aston, & Colquhoun, 2000; Morris & Robie, 2001). Beyond training, as an additional support mechanism, a larger expatriate community appears to facilitate adjustment (Forster, 2000). Thus, the interview data appears consistent with other empirical studies.

The links to performance of these influencers are less clear. It appears that lack of organisational support does not seem to affect performance in the minds of the

respondents. Thus, career commitment is offered as a way to explain the lack of consistency with the theoretical position in the literature which states that expatriates need to be supported in order to achieve positive outcomes. In order to check the predictive assumptions in the literature, a series of relationships between organisational support mechanisms and expatriate performance have been expressed in a number of hypotheses and subsequently tested. The findings from these hypotheses are discussed in the following sections. Campbell stated that different components of performance should show differential correlations with their antecedents (1990). The series of hypotheses in the next sub-sections bares this out with some hypotheses being supported and many not.

Selection

The first and second set of hypotheses predicting the influence of selection processes and written policies and procedures on the performance components are not supported. The hypotheses under 1a states that the degree of utilisation of selection considerations by the organisation such as personality traits, family circumstances, previous overseas experience, host language fluency, and the ability to relate to people are positively related to expatriate performance on Campbell's (1990) dimensions. The hypotheses under 1b states that the existence of expatriate selection processes and policies beyond selecting for technical skills are positively related to expatriate performance on Campbell's dimensions. None of these sub-hypotheses were supported. This suggests that the rigour of the selection processes and the existence of selection processes and policies have no effect upon expatriate performance.

There could be a number of reasons for the lack of evidence for selection considerations predicting performance. Firstly, it might be that the more rigorous selection systems have worked just as well as ad hoc methods of selection. It could also be that the respondents are not conversant with the actual selection systems in place and

the criteria utilized and are thus poorly placed to answer the questions correctly. This raises a concern as to the appropriateness of the level of analysis. Organisational level research in the expatriate domain is under-researched with only as yet a couple of exceptions (Lin & Wei, 2005; Tung, 1982). There is no evidence that there is a relationship between the selection system of the organisation and appropriateness of the respondent for the assignment in terms of individual performance. It could also be that the existence of suitable expatriate selection systems might be too removed from the effects of the actual selection decision for any effect to be detected. Alternatively, it might be the case that the existing selection systems are ineffective and do not offer predictive validity. Therefore, a more proximal method of measuring selection or one that measures the existence of a system with predictive validity might be best considered in future research.

However, prior to suggesting that the measure is inadequate for the purposes of this research, another explanation should be considered. Since this current research highlights the confusion in the literature between performance and adjustment, and many authors have made recommendations that expatriates be selected based upon evaluations of their strengths and weaknesses on dimensions relating to expatriate adjustment (Caligiuri, 2000b; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985), it is plausible that selection of expatriates is related to their ability to adjust to their new work environment rather than to their ability to perform. To explore this explanation, another three hierarchical regression analyses were undertaken which regressed each dimension of adjustment on the selection considerations and the existence of written policies whilst controlling for variables that correlated with each of the adjustment dimensions. Indeed, it was found that selection considerations predict work adjustment (Note Appendix K for the regression results). Although much of the literature suggests that expatriates are not selected for their ability to adjust but for their task performance capabilities, this finding

seems to contradict this stance. This is a significant finding as it supports the large body of literature that states that adjustment (Thomas & Lazarova, 2005), particularly work adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Parker & McEvoy, 1993), is an important expatriate outcome variable. Findings from data collected to test hypotheses 5d provide evidence for work adjustment having a mediating effect between expatriate management inputs and performance components. There are two findings presented here that underscore the function of work adjustment as a pivotal variable in the enhancement of expatriate performance: (a) that selection predicts work adjustment rather than performance in this data, and (b) that work adjustment has a mediating role. It appears that the expatriates in this sample were selected with adjustment in mind.

In returning to the findings relating to selection considerations which appear to be inconsistent with the literature, upon closer inspection some of the research describes criteria for selection that were deemed to be important or critical for success (Anderson, 2001; Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Baliga & Baker, 1985; Fish & Wood, 1996; Tung, 1982). These articles did not actually measure the relationships with success outcomes, such as performance. Most of the work that does describe relationships between selection considerations and expatriate outcomes does so by testing outcomes such as recall or dismissal (Tung, 1982), premature return (Farid & Buda, 1998) or less precise success variables such as effectiveness (Deller, 1997). Those articles that do measure performance in the context of selection tend to measure personality traits as independent variables (Caligiuri, 2000b; Shaffer et al., 2006) and none appears to have measured the existence of a variety of selection considerations as does this present research. Therefore, this study contributes by testing relationships between the existence of selection considerations upon a clearly defined and operationalised multidimensional measure of performance.

Training

Hypotheses 2a and 2b which states that cultural and language training, and rigor and variety of training are positively related to expatriate performance are not supported. This is inconsistent with the position in the literature that training is important for various expatriate success outcomes (Anderson, 2001; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Deshpande & Viswesvaran, 1992; Tung, 1981, 1982). However, the evidence is entirely consistent with the empirical evidence that training is rarely conducted (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Baliga & Baker, 1985; Davidson & Kinzel, 1995; Tung, 1982) which indicates that, in general, organisations rank expatriate training low in priority. The reasons for the low status given to training offered in the literature include cynicism of the benefits, lack of time, belief in technical ability playing the chief role, and cost (Littrell & Salas, 2005 citing others).

In their paper on expatriate preparation Littrell et al. (2006) listed 16 empirical studies on cross-cultural training. Of the eight papers that dealt with business expatriates, rather than students, two presented evidence of relationships between training and adjustment (Caligiuri et al., 2001; Goldstein & Smith, 1999) and one with managerial performance (Earley, 1987). The other papers using expatriate samples either did not offer reference to statistics in their analysis or include any training variables in the data collection. This is the general state of the empirical literature regarding the relationships between antecedent and criterion variables and calls have been made for more rigorous studies on these relationships to be conducted (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2008; Morris & Robie, 2001). Direct training outcomes in the expatriate literature are rarely measured by variables other than adjustment (Littrell & Salas, 2005; Thomas & Lazarova, 2005) and “many training programs today focus mainly on adjustment” (Bennett et al., 2000, p.240). Therefore, the first explanation for no direct relationships seen in the data between training variables and components of

performance may be due to the relationship being a direct one between training and adjustment as seen in the discussion on selection above. As such, regression analyses were run on training and training rigour as predictors of adjustment and results are similar to the results of the relationship between selection considerations and adjustment (see Appendix L). Training predicts work adjustment and interaction adjustment. Training rigour predicts work adjustment but in a negative direction. The last finding of a negative relationship is surprising and worthy of further investigation but not directly relevant to the hypotheses stated in this research. It might be that organisations offered a higher rigor of training when it was believed that the adjustment would be difficult and thus it becomes a self-fulling prophecy that the expatriate finds adjustment difficult. An alternative explanation is based upon the accuracy of the expectations. There have been other studies that have found similar results and which explain the negative relationship through reference to the theory of met expectations (Caligiuri et al., 2001). If the expectation is that the assignment would be easy and the reality the opposite, then adjustment would be difficult. It could be that undertaking rigorous training offers expatriates a false sense that they have full understanding of the extent of the differences and difficulties that lie ahead. Conversely, when expatriates receive less rigorous training but through the process become more aware of the extent of the differences, they anticipate difficulties. In the first case adjustment will be more difficult and in the latter, easier than anticipated.

Practical support

Hypothesis 3a states that the degree of practical support offered to expatriates by the organisation is positively related to job specific task performance. There is no evidence that practical support relates positively to any component of performance which is inconsistent with the scant empirical evidence (Kraimer et al., 2001). This existing evidence suggests that various types of support lend themselves to performance

outcomes. More surprising than the lack of evidence of a positive relationship was the finding of a significant negative relationship between practical support and job specific task performance. Kraimer had also found the relationship between adjustment perceived organisational support (POS) ("the extent to which the organisation cares about the employee's (including family) adjustment" (2004, p.217)), and both task and contextual performance to be negative. Her explanation was that the more access to adjustment support, the less the expatriate would focus on the job. Thus, support for cross-cultural adjustment heightened awareness of the differences which shifted focus from the job (Kraimer's measure included cross-cultural training, language training as well as relocation assistance).

There are alternative explanations which relate to learning and theories of activation of traits such as self-sufficiency and self-efficacy. If an expatriate is forced to organise his or her home life from very early in an assignment and learns about the local environment through that process, this momentum could carry on into the workplace. This notion can be supported by trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003) which suggests that certain traits (skills, personality, and behaviour) will be activated when there are situational cues to indicate that those traits will lead to better work performance. Hochwarter (2006) suggested that where there are high levels of Perceived Organisational Support (POS) an employee is unlikely to activate social (or other) skills to achieve work tasks because the organisation provides enough for employees to complete these tasks. In contrast, low levels of POS will activate individual traits to enable the employee to obtain the resources (including socio-emotional needs and cooperation) necessary to complete job tasks. When employees are supported they will not require nor develop the competencies necessary. When employees are forced to utilise those skills and traits, such as when setting up home and family in the new

environment by themselves, they will learn what to do and what behaviours to display to achieved desired outcomes both in the wider environment and in the workplace.

Inspection of the zero-order correlations in the data from the current research suggests that too much organisational support and too little individual effort may be counter productive. Practical support is highly correlated with the existence of selection considerations, training, role clarity, mentoring, and career relevance. These expatriates also perceive themselves to be adjusted, have low levels of felt breach and violation, and feel that their psychological contracts are fulfilled. Yet, their performance is low. They also do not perceive that their adjustment required much effort. Torbiorn suggested that those who found that it took more effort to adjust were better performers (Torbiörn, 1982 cited in Deller, 1997) and although preliminary and merely suggestive this appears to be borne out in this research data. The expatriates who had high levels of both role clarity and practical support, but perceived that their level of adjustment took effort to achieve, performed well.

Trait activation theory and data from this current research also suggest the applicability of social support theories. The existence of social support not only alleviates the stressors in the environment but also helps expatriates make sense of their surroundings (Kraimer et al., 2001). Socialisation or social learning theory (Caligiuri, 2000b) suggests that contact with local people within a new environment bestows learning opportunities which are very effective in transferring knowledge.

Takeuchi (2005), citing Fontaine (1989), argued that that if stress is managed well it can have positive effects. An optimal level of stress helps performance, too much or too little hinders performance. He suggested that a low to moderate level of workplace stress might act as a motivator of performance. Thomas and Lazarova (2005) also supported this suggestion with reference to the work stress literature in their

proposal that some of the challenges inherent in an expatriate assignment might even facilitate performance. Extending from this, it is suggested here that being shielded from the stressors of a new environment (not just workplace stress) through unnecessary support would remove important expatriate learning experiences which could be transferred to the workplace.

The question still left unanswered is why practical support should be negatively related to job-specific task performance and not to any of the other performance components. This division of performance is new and thus little theory is available to explain the differential relationships. It is interesting that the relationships between practical support and all of the remaining five components of performance were also negative (although non-significant). One would expect that the knowledge gained by expatriates through additional effort in the local environment would also assist the other performance components. The lack of significance of the other relationships could be due to a number of factors such as lower power due to the sample size and the effect size of the control variables. One could speculate that the significance of the relationship with job-specific task performance is due to this being the one component that least differs between home and host context. Thus, any incremental learning that is gained through exposure to the broader social environment is more readily displayed in improved task performance than in other components of performance that require a deeper understanding of the behavioural requirements of the context.

Informative support

Hypothesis 3b proposes that the degree of informative support offered by the organisation is positively related to the various components of performance. In the current research informative support, as measured by role clarity, is positively related to task performance and management and administration performance. Earlier work has shown role clarity to be related to work adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005;

Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Shaffer et al., 1999; Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002) and overall adjustment (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004) and also important for satisfaction and commitment (Naumann, 1993). Clarification of a work role lessens ambiguity and removes a major stressor in the workplace (Black & Gregersen, 1990). There is less in the literature on role ambiguity (the reverse construct) as a predictor of job performance although Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman wrote that role ambiguity "should increase the probability that a person will be dissatisfied with his role, will experience anxiety, will distort reality, and will thus perform less effectively" (1970, p.151). The findings in this research are therefore generally consistent with the literature although there are no specific instances of earlier empirical evidence in the expatriate domain to help support these relationships beyond the theoretical positions offered. Role clarity predicting the two components of performance that relate specifically to the technical tasks of the role and not other components could be a function of how a role is defined. Roles are generally defined and described by hard performance criteria (Gregersen et al., 1995) and therefore clarification is aimed at explicating those tasks that are most often recorded in role descriptions: job specification task proficiency, and management and administrative content. The other (soft) performance criteria may change more easily, and they are perhaps not as readily encapsulated in role descriptions and thus not so amenable to clarification.

Affective support

None of the hypotheses under 3c which state that affective support is positively related to performance components are supported. In this current research affective support is measured by the existence of mentoring relationships which combine psychosocial and career mentoring by all actors in a mentoring relationship. Mentors are not necessarily formally appointed by the organisation. Empirical evidence exists to suggest that mentoring is related to job performance. Dreher and Ash (1990), in citing

Douglas and Schoorman (1988), suggested that there is evidence that mentoring affects job performance and commitment. However, there has been far less research undertaken examining the influence of mentoring on expatriate assignments (Crocitto, Sullivan, & Carraher, 2005). There are a number of exceptions which mainly relate mentoring with career development, adjustment, and retention (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Mezias & Scandura, 2005; Osland, 2000). Very little has been said about the relationship between mentoring and expatriate performance although, as with much of the expatriate literature, it is fairly much implied in the discussions that enhancement of adjustment, socialisation, and development will lead to improved performance outcomes (Mezias & Scandura, 2005). Crocitto and associates suggested that expatriate mentoring whilst on assignment might best serve to assist an expatriate adjust to the new environment through building cultural awareness and sensitivity (Crocitto et al., 2005). As a number of conceptual and empirical paths are beginning to lead to adjustment, another regression analysis was conducted on the three types of adjustment with mentoring as the predictor variable (see Appendix M). Again, there was a significant relationship between work adjustment and mentoring with mentoring explaining 6% of unique variance beyond the control variables (age, gender, position in organisation, length of assignment, time spent overseas, and other ethnic status). This is consistent with the findings from the Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. meta-analytical study (2005) which also found that co-worker support related to work adjustment. Although mentoring does not impact upon the expatriate performance model as hypothesised, its effect can be felt through work adjustment thus emphasising again, the importance of work adjustment in this model.

Career relevance

As suggested at the outset, repatriation and career planning appear to be odd variables to include in a model of expatriate performance. The fact that none of the sub-

hypotheses under hypothesis 4, which proposed that the relevance of the assignment to expatriates' career plans would be positively related to the components of performance, were supported appears to vindicate this original view. However, based upon an earlier stated theoretical position that a clearly defined career development process may lead to job satisfaction, commitment, and involvement (Naumann, 1992), career relevance was found to influence both satisfaction and commitment in Naumann's 1993 study. It stood out as a strong predictor of expatriate job satisfaction and commitment in canonical correlations. The Feldman and Thomas study (1992) also found strong relationships between career relevance as measured in this current research and a number of assignment outcome variables including overall performance, relationships with host nationals, intent to remain, and job satisfaction (amongst others). Thus the theoretical stance has been supported in earlier empirical work and consequentially renders the findings from the SARs data inconsistent with the literature.

There is much discussion in the literature regarding the benefits and disadvantages of an international assignment for career progression. The benefits are linked to career success in large organisations where international experience should be a requirement for promotion to the higher echelons. This is because managers with international experience have been found to be more effective at leading international organisations (see Bolino, 2007). The disadvantages stem from the perception that domestic organisations do not value overseas experience (Stahl, Miller, & Tung, 2002) and the perception that while on assignment expatriates are not visible in the home company and so are not offered internal career opportunities as they arise (Mendenhall et al., 2002). Whether or not there are realistic benefits from overseas positions for an expatriate upon returning to a role at home or in their next appointment is not of salience here. It is the perception of the relevance of the current assignment to career success which was being tested in this research. Given that many expatriates in this

sample were not of the traditional type, it was necessary to perceive of career success as being more than limited to one with the current employer; a type as conceptualised in the boundaryless careers literature (Crocitto et al., 2005; Mezias & Scandura, 2005; Stahl et al., 2002). This research thus extends beyond Bolino's definition of career success as intra-organisational to an individual's overall career as suggested by Bolino as an area for future research (2007).

The thesis here is that if the expatriate believes that there are future career benefits from the role, there is an incentive to perform well in the role. It could be that the immediate benefits that accrue to the expatriates in this sample were far more salient than any possible future benefits. Perhaps the long term perceived benefits are too distal to make a difference to current performance.

Contributions to knowledge

Much of the research into expatriate support has examined what support was desirable and viewed these in a prescriptive way as important (Anderson, 2001; Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Baliga & Baker, 1985; Fish & Wood, 1996; Tung, 1982). However, often the rationale for the stated importance is not made specific (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998). This research contributes further to knowledge on expatriate management by not assuming the importance of various organisational support mechanisms and by questioning the normative approach taken by some authors. Many of the support mechanisms may merely be pleasant additions to remuneration packages but whether they actually contribute to organisational objectives is moot. Indeed, it has been found that rather than affecting performance components directly, many of the support mechanisms such as selection considerations, training, and mentoring influence work adjustment. This offers insight into the role that adjustment plays in expatriate performance and perhaps even presents justification for the central position that adjustment is given in the expatriate literature.

Cross-cultural Adjustment

Based upon the generally implied arguments (see Thomas & Lazarova, 2005) and gradually growing body of evidence (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003; Parker & McEvoy, 1993) that adjustment is related to performance, the next set of hypotheses drilled down into the different types of adjustment to discern to what extent each type influences the components of performance, whilst controlling for other inputs into the expatriate management process. Three sets of hypotheses were tested in this current study to determine whether work adjustment (H5a), general adjustment (H5b), and interaction adjustment (H5c) directly influence performance components. A number of influential control variables have been found (position in organisation, ethnicity, and cultural similarity). Partialing out common variance, only interaction adjustment is found to be related directly to task performance, teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administrative performance.

Although not the focus of his study, Selmer suggested that "interaction adjustment may be positively related to performance" (2006, p.358). His study focused on language and adjustment and found that language ability related to all adjustment variables but was most strongly associated with interaction adjustment. The rationale for Selmer choosing language as a focal variable was that language ability allows people to interact, leading to improved adjustment though learning appropriate behaviour. Eventually performance, too, is enhanced. One of the measures Feldman and Thomas (1992) used to indicate the effectiveness of expatriates was their ability to develop constructive relationships with host country nationals. Such relationships create a climate of mutual respect, acceptance and cooperation, and thus increase the likelihood of success of global assignments (Aycan, 1997b). Nevertheless, such relationships may not be readily developed or maintained, as others have suggested. Black, Gregersen and

Mendenhall (1992b) argued that adjustment to interacting with host country nationals is the most difficult to achieve of the three socio-cultural adjustment dimensions. In support of this, zero-order correlations in this SARs research show that effort to adjust to interaction is the only effort dimension that is negatively related to any component of performance (to teamwork and leadership performance and to management and administrative performance). Although interaction adjustment appears to explain unique variance in a number of performance components as proposed in the literature, it is also the only adjustment variable, where effort to adjust relates negatively to performance.

There is evidence of interaction adjustment being related to performance in the literature (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Kraimer et al., 2001). In the Kraimer study, interaction adjustment was related to contextual performance. The authors also found that work adjustment was related to task performance. Similar findings are evident in the Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. meta-analysis. Although both interaction and work adjustment were found to be related to both task and relationship (equivalent to contextual) performance, the relationships between interaction adjustment and contextual performance, and work adjustment and task performance were the strongest. In Parker and McEvoy's study (1993), work adjustment was the only adjustment variable to be related to performance. Nicholson and Imaizumi (1993) also found strong associations between work adjustment and performance. Although there are a number of findings which relate both work and interaction adjustment to performance in the literature, the data from the current research indicate a relationship between only interaction adjustment and performance components when a direct relationship predicting unique variance is under consideration.

Hypotheses 5d proposed a mediated relationship between expatriate management inputs and performance components. Interaction adjustment was found to

be a mediator in the relationships with communication performance, supervision/leadership performance, and, counter to the hypothesis, management and administrative performance. It must be noted that the analysis was undertaken utilising a multiple-mediator model and a recent method of analysis without correlates (other than the other adjustment variables) being controlled for. Under this conceptualisation of the model, work adjustment is also found to influence components of performance, as an intervening variable in the relationships with maintaining personal discipline and management and administration performance, and as a mediator in the relationships with management and administration performance. Shaffer and colleagues (2006) examined the mediating effects of adjustment variables on the relationships between individual-level (not organisational level) predictors and performance in three expatriate studies with expatriates in Hong Kong, and Japanese and Korean expatriates in a number of countries. They found that work adjustment had a mediating effect. A number of other authors have found similar intervening effects (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005). The other two adjustment variables were also tested but it was only work adjustment that had a partial mediating effect in their study. There are other studies that also indicate that both interaction adjustment (Kraimer et al., 2001) and general adjustment can play an intervening role (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005), although there is much less evidence of the latter. The findings here, therefore, tend to be consistent with the literature which supports the view that types of adjustment that help with interaction and knowledge about the work environment may assist performance.

General adjustment does not appear to be as relevant a variable in the expatriate employment context as work and interaction adjustment. This is supported by evidence of a relationship with work and interaction adjustment but not general adjustment in a number of other studies (Kraimer et al., 2001; Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993; Takeuchi,

Wang et al., 2005). Some authors suggest that there might be a spill-over effect from the general living environment to the work environment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Caligiuri, Hyland, Joshi, & Bross, 1998; Kraimer et al., 2001; Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002) and that the 'butterfly effect' might play a role in the demise of expatriate assignments. "For expatriates, small, seemingly irrelevant interaction sequences may lead to major consequences. For example, a difficult grocery clerk may trigger a chain of events that leads to premature termination of an expatriate assignment" (Haslberger, 2005, p.166). In contrast, the findings of the current study and multiple conversations with academics, human resource managers, and expatriates within the SAR work environment present the notion that there is an insulating effect in play. Few Australian expatriates live and work in the 'local' environment; they shop at modern supermarkets, drink their coffees at European style cafes, arrange for Filipina maids to run their errands, move within expatriate or work circles socially, and send their children to international schools. They often live in a parallel world removed from the realities of local life. This insulating effect might go some way to explain the lack of relationship between general living adjustment and performance in this and other studies. It also cautions researchers to explore what constitutes the different aspects of general living in the minds of the respondents. Are they conceptualising their adjustment to 'local life' or the lives that they are living as expatriates? This difference might be creating a problem of construct validity with the measure and partially explain the relative lack of relationships seen in the literature with work outcomes.

Stage of Adjustment

In order to attempt to explain some counter-intuitive findings in the literature such as the negative relationships between general adjustment and performance (Parker & McEvoy, 1993), and organisational support to facilitate adjustment and performance (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004), a stage of adjustment variable was added to the model. The

main argument to support the inclusion of stage of adjustment was that expatriates at different stages of adjustment should have differing levels of awareness and knowledge of the appropriateness of their behaviours. These differing "baskets of repertoires" should impact upon their levels of performance.

None of the hypotheses relating stages of adjustment to the six performance components are supported (H5f). For those who perceive themselves to be entirely adjusted over a great period of time, the honeymoon period type reaction might return as is evidenced by one high ranking individual who spoke fluent Mandarin and an Irish expatriate working on third assignment for a Dutch company who had worked overseas for 12 years. Both participants responded to the questionnaire to the effect that they were in the first stage of adjustment. The stages of adjustment hypothesis does not explain any significant variance in performance components and thus does not offer any additional explanation for some of the inconsistent findings in the literature. Indeed, contrary to the underlying hypotheses and received wisdom, the stages of adjustment and performance were all negatively related. It could be that the honeymoon and healthy recovery stages were not clearly delineated and that a number of respondents, still in the honeymoon stage, selected the healthy recover stage and vice versa. Zero-order correlations show stage of adjustment to have a significant negative relationship with months on assignment which is contrary to the literature on adjustment which posits that adjustment is a function of time (Church, 1982). The measures may be insufficient or the theory may not be applicable to this sample and more evidence may need to be gathered longitudinally to test the hypothesis that expatriates progress through the stages as theorised. The empirically based literature is still ambivalent about the U curve hypothesis (Black & Mendenhall, 1991) in expatriate samples with little solid evidence of the stages being in effect. Most of the earlier evidential studies have limited their

focus to sojourners or students (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005) and the pattern is yet to be replicated definitively in expatriate studies.

Effort to adjust

In another attempt to explain the inconsistent findings in the literature, effort to adjust on the three types of adjustment were used to test hypothesis 5h, that the degree of effort an expatriate perceives is necessary to adjust is negatively related to performance components. The results do not support the hypothesis. Being that this is the first research to test the effects of effort to adjust, there is little in the extent literature to offer explanations for the dearth of significant relationships in the hypothesised direction. It is important to note that the correlations between effort to adjust and adjustment on each of the dimensions are significant and negative. Rather than being an influential variable for performance per se, effort might be an important proximal predictor of adjustment and only a distal predictor of performance.

The predictive capacity of effort to adjust to work on communication performance but in a positive direction is counter to Earley's (1987) suggestion that performance is inversely related to the amount of adjustment that people perceive they need to make. However, it is consistent with an earlier argument presented in this SAR research. Putting effort into adjusting to work would develop relationships with others involved in the work effort and thus communication performance will be improved in the process. Although the above argument would appear more consistent with the predictive capacity of effort to adjust to interaction predicting communication performance, when the cross-cultural relational skills are not well developed it is difficult to focus effort directly upon interaction. This view is somewhat analogous to Manev and Stevenson's (2001) finding in a study of relationship networks amongst 457 managers in an MNE in the United Kingdom. The authors found that where there was a large cultural distance, instrumental ties were strong but where there was little cultural

distance the ties were expressive (providing friendship and social support). Thus, where there are barriers to communication, effort may be focused upon task and instrumental activities rather than social or relationship building activities. The zero-order correlations that suggest that the effort to adjust to interaction is the only effort variable to be negatively correlated with performance supports the view that when communication appears difficult by virtue of limited cultural or social knowledge it might be best to focus effort elsewhere. By committing to the work effort and leveraging off already developed skills, and at the same time demonstrating a positive attitude towards the work and those involved, a virtuous cycle of learning and socialisation may occur in the work environment (Joardar et al., 2007). Why effort to adjust to work does not impact directly upon other performance components may be due to the relationship being a distal one through adjustment. This is an area ripe for further research and brings into play a number of theories such as resource allocation (Bergeron, 2007), social learning (Littrell et al., 2006), acculturation (Joardar et al.), and socialisation (Mezias & Scandura, 2005) to attempt to explain a number of potential direct and indirect relationships with effort to adjust.

Cross-cultural adjustment summary

In testing the mediating effects of the three types of adjustment on the six components of performance it became clear that interaction adjustment is the most influential mediator. This is in line with the direct effects found in the test for hypotheses 5b which found that interaction adjustment was the one influential adjustment variable predictive of performance. The fact that work adjustment also plays a role in mediating/intervening relationships with maintenance of personal discipline, and to some extent management and administration performance, suggests that the direct effects model as tested here may not have the capacity to encapsulate the subtleties of the full model. The difference is possibly due to the control variables

entered into the hierarchical regression analysis which were not added into the bootstrapping analysis of intervening effects. Taking into consideration the additional findings from the analysis of other predictors such as the direct effects of selection considerations, training, rigour of training, and affective support (measured by mentoring) with work adjustment, there is sufficient evidence to recommend that at least work and interaction adjustment certainly have important parts to play in the expatriate performance model, both as the direct outcomes of the antecedents suggested here and as intervening variables between those antecedents and performance components.

What a broad model such as utilised in this research highlights is that depending upon the variables entered into the analysis and how adjustment is conceptualised in the model, types of adjustment play differentially important roles. This confirms that the relationships are complex. Simplified models that neglect to test alternative explanations can obscure the importance of interventions such as adjustment or the effects of more distal antecedents on performance.

Control variables

It has been suggested in previous studies that demographic variables explain much of the variance in performance or adjustment. Consistent with this position, a number of variables in this research play a quite important predictive role. Marital or family status is said to relate to expatriate outcomes such as cross-cultural adjustment or performance (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2007). This is not, however, the case in the SARs research data. One can speculate that perhaps ease of spouses obtaining a job in Hong Kong and the support available to spouse and family life through access to hired domestic help in both regions might alleviate the most widely sighted reasons for mal-adjustment of families and the cross-over effects to expatriate performance outcomes. On the other hand a number of other variables appear to be influential. Position in

organisation, some types of ethnicity, cultural similarity, and time spent overseas all explain significant amounts of variance in a number of analyses in this current research.

Position in the organisation

Position in the organisation significantly predicts teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administration performance in the presence of other control variables and main effects. The expectation is that individuals who rank higher in an organisation will perform at higher levels. Their promotion would have relied at least partially on their previous performance. One could speculate that the major tasks expected of upper level executives would be related to managing people and broader management and administration and thus the lack of a relationship with the other components of performance may be explicable.

Ethnicity

Australian ethnicity was a variable derived from the ethnicity measure when expatriates were asked which ethnic group they most associated with. As the data were being collected from Australians, it was expected that all respondents would view themselves as Australians, but in addition, they were asked their ethnic association. Just over 14% chose none of the offered options and expressly identified themselves as Australian. The strength of this association as exclusively Australian negatively predicts communication performance and is consistent, although not always significant, across a number of regression analyses. Some negative stereotypical explanations for this relationship may be proposed which may present hypotheses that relate to the effects of ethnocentricity (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999) and willingness or ability to engage with the local environment upon performance. This finding is unlikely to be generalisable to broader based populations but suggests that ethnocentricity could be an important variable to further explore in terms of its role in the expatriate performance model (Black & Mendenhall, 1991).

Cultural similarity

In Peltokorpi's (2008) study on expatriates in Japan, cultural distance explained a good portion of the variance in work related adjustment. There are numerous studies that have controlled for cultural similarity or cultural distance (De Cieri et al., 1991; Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Lin & Wei, 2005; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986; Searle & Ward, 1990). Others have found that cultural distance has explained as much of the variance in criterion measures as any other factor (Kraimer et al., 2001; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). There are also studies that have shown no relationship regardless of the measure used (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005). There is in general mixed evidence of the effects of cultural similarity on expatriate outcomes (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Jun & Gentry, 2005; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). Part of the explanation for this lies in the utilisation of different measures.

There are two main types of measures utilised in the literature, (a) a calculated measure of cultural of distance based upon Hofstede's (1980) values indices (Kogut & Singh, 1988; Manev & Stevenson, 2001; Peltokorpi, 2008) and (b) perceived cultural distance as used in this research (cf.Black & Stephens, 1989; Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Kraimer, 1999; Torbiörn, 1982). In his discussion on cultural distance Shenkar (2001) suggested that the utilisation of individual cognitive measures of cultural distance as seen in this current research is an important addition to the literature. The current study recognises the importance of this variable in the expatriate domain as the theoretical position is that cultural similarity increases the ease with which individuals are able to predict and explain behaviour (Jun & Gentry, 2005; Peltokorpi, 2008). The strong relationships with other variables offer further support for the ongoing utilisation of cultural distance or cultural similarity measures.

Although the correlation matrix offers evidence that cultural similarity positively relates to general adjustment, an important finding is that cultural similarity is

negatively correlated with communication performance, teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administration performance. Controlling for other correlates in the regression analysis testing the relevant hypotheses H1 to H6, there is further evidence of cultural similarity negatively explaining a significant portion of variance in communication performance as well as teamwork and leadership performance. The positive association with general adjustment and negative association with performance components is further justification for the dissection of these constructs; perceived cultural similarity relates to them differentially. These differential relationships also support the theoretical position underlying this research that adjustment is not performance. Further, the fact that the positive relationship is with general adjustment rather than other adjustment types vindicates the existence of the apparently conflicting signs: Due to the insulating effect of living an expatriate lifestyle and/or separate work/life domains, it is plausible that whilst adjustment to general living might be enhanced by the perceived similarities between home and host cultures, it may mask actual differences in culture that translate to difficulties in the work environment. A perception of similarity (Jun & Gentry, 2005 citing Boyacigiller, 1996) might undermine efforts to modify working styles which impacts upon interactive components of job performance such as communication performance, and teamwork and leadership performance as found in this research.

Previous overseas experience

The literature is equivocal about the role that previous overseas experience plays in adjustment and performance in expatriate assignments. Even with previous overseas experience some people may not be able to transfer the knowledge gained in one context to another (Thomas & Inkson, 2004). The findings from a meta-analysis (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005) that overseas experience does not influence cross-cultural adjustment supports this view. However, the SARs data offer evidence that

previous overseas experience is correlated with performance if measured as time spent overseas in total, rather than number of previous expatriate assignments. The measure of years spent overseas was also used in Naumann's expatriate turnover study with 152 US expatriates (1993) and was found to be a strong predictor of satisfaction. The findings from the current study are consistent with those obtained by Bhasker-Shrinivas and colleagues (2005): previous overseas experience does not appear to influence adjustment but is still an important variable in its influence on expatriate outcomes and therefore is still worthy of inclusion as criteria in selection considerations.

Takeuchi and colleagues (2005) provided further support for a less simplistic application of previous international experience than considered to date. These authors found that lack of previous work experience in culturally similar environments had a stronger relationship with workplace strain than lack of experience in culturally dissimilar environments. Together with the findings from the SARs study, the Takeuchi findings indicate that it is worthwhile broadening the conceptualisation and theoretical understandings of previous international experience to incorporate a contextual view of experience which would measure work and non-work international experience and similarity of contexts. Secondly, different measures of international experience may relate to expatriate outcomes differentially. The notion that international experience is beneficial to expatriate outcomes is intuitively appealing but much of the empirical evidence has not supported the theoretical linkages to date. The above evidence, however, offers a window of opportunity for researchers to revisit this construct but cautions that the type of experience and dependent variables with which experience is expected to be related need to be specified accordingly. Previous overseas experience should still remain of practical significance in the selection of expatriates, particularly as there is now evidence to suggest that it relates to performance from both this and Takeuchi and colleagues' study.

Host language fluency

The importance of host language fluency will depend greatly upon the context. Neither Mandarin (as one of the official languages since the handovers from Great Britain and Portugal) nor Cantonese (as the mother tongue) fluency has a significant impact upon the model. Foreigners who speak English in the SARs do not appear to have many problems at work, nor even in general life, due to the fluency with which most local employees with which they come in contact speak English. From the initial interviews with expatriates, it was only those of the lower ranks who expressed feelings of exclusion from informal work discussions and social events. Those respondents at higher levels in organisations consistently reported that language ability would be useful but they managed to circumvent potential problems by hiring subordinates who could bridge any perceived gap.

One concern that this research raises is the way that language ability has been measured in a number of studies. With the exception of country specific studies (cf.Clegg & Gray, 2002; Peltokorpi, 2008; Selmer, 2006), many studies appear to assume that there is only one local language (Caligiuri et al., 2001; Naumann, 1993) and that the expatriate's native language is not a practical nor a sufficient lingua franca for adjustment and socialisation purposes (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Naumann, 1993). From this basis authors extrapolate the importance of the local language for the expatriate, which may not hold true in many contexts. In a number of countries there are multiple local languages, such as is found in Hong Kong and Macau, and/or English is widely spoken or understood. Thus, the context may be an important moderator of the degree of influence that linguistic ability has on expatriate adjustment and performance. It is dangerous to extend language related findings from one context to another: The importance of local language ability in typically monoglot countries such as Japan or

Thailand is very different from that in more multilingual or cosmopolitan countries such as the Philippines, Singapore, or Belgium.

Contributions to knowledge

The findings from this section on cross-cultural adjustment offer a number of theoretical and empirical contributions. Firstly, Deller (1997) suggested that selecting for cross-cultural adjustment may not be the same as selecting for performance. In earlier sections, contrary to the proposed hypotheses, evidence was offered for selection and training variables predicting adjustment types rather performance components. The findings from this study suggest that previous overseas experience can predict performance whereas it is most often conceptualised as predicting adjustment. Thus this research contributes to the literature by reasserting that the assumptions and received wisdom which suggest that predictors of adjustment will also predict performance must continually be verified. Variables which are tested and fail to relate to variables of interest within one model still need be retained for consideration in the development of theory, and subsequently tested, as they may predict something else of equal or greater importance. Given the particular evidence here, previous international experience should still be considered in the context of predicting performance even though there is little evidence elsewhere for it predicting adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005).

Secondly, the influence that context might have as raised in the discussions on salience of local language ability and ethnic traits is one argument against a broad sampling across countries or populations of expatriates. Although it adds inordinate complexity, researchers require an understanding or awareness that different contexts and samples influence the way variables need to be conceptualised. Assuming, for instance, that a second common language cannot replace the local language in helping expatriates achieve required outcomes regardless of country or context is simplistic and impractical. This research contributes to the literature by analysing variables such as

local language ability and ethnicity in a narrowly defined and specific context, thus enabling perspectives that are not available from broader research efforts.

Thirdly, this research addresses the question of choice of measure where more than one measure is available. Choice of measure has been raised as it impacts greatly upon the interpretation of the findings. Previous international experience measured by total overseas experience over time is found to be related to performance in this current study, whereas number of expatriate assignments (another measure of previous experience) has no such relationship. One measure suggests that previous international experience is not predictive of performance whereas the other does. Each measure can lead to different interpretations and potential theories. The stage of adjustment measure also raises issues of type of measure and interpretability. As a new measure, although based upon an earlier one (Di Marco, 1974), it appears to require further development with the suggestion (detailed in the limitations section of this chapter) that a Guttman scale would be preferable to the Thurstone scale as utilised in this research. In this case it is the choice of scale type as well as the content that might make the difference in interpretation. The choice of measure of cultural similarity can also be important, although somewhat limited in this research by the context. In preference to a national cultural difference scale such as Kogut and Singh's (1988), an individually perceived cultural similarity measure needed to be utilised as it is the individual's perception of the similarity that was hypothesised to relate to performance. Regardless of the individual-level of analysis, the limited number of cultures included in the study preclude the use of the national cultural differences scale. Each of these measures highlights the importance of choice at both the design and interpretation stages.

In terms of empirical contributions, this research is the first to test the relationship between effort to adjust and components of performance. Although there was no evidence of the hypothesised negative relationship between effort and

performance, this research suggests that the perceived effort required may positively impact upon some performance components through learning and exposure. At the same time the complexity and dissimilarity of the relationships between effort on each of the adjustment types, and the dependent variables, the three types of adjustment and different components of performance, justify the multi-dimensional view of these constructs. The theoretical perspective that effort will lead to adjustment which will, in turn, lead to better performance may not necessarily hold true in most expatriate situations. It may be that the greater the perceived effort, the less adjusted an individual might be but the effort incurred may lead to outcomes which enhance performance. Other contextual and individual variables may indeed moderate these relationships so that variables such as sensitivity and perceived cultural distance may increase the salience of the effort to adjust variables.

Finally, this research offers evidence that each of the adjustment types play different roles in the expatriate performance model. Interaction adjustment appears to be the most difficult type of adjustment to achieve but is the only one to explain unique variance in performance components. Interaction adjustment has the greater intervening role in relationships with performance components such as communication performance, teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administration performance. However, work adjustment also plays its part in influencing the maintenance of personal discipline and management and administration performance. Indeed, although the magnitude of intervening effects indicates that interaction adjustment has the greater role, the difference between the two types of adjustment is not statistically significant. This suggests that although focus on one type of adjustment might help predict performance, effort placed into enhancing both types of adjustment should pay dividends. General adjustment appears not to relate to

performance variables. The potential insulating effect of a parallel expatriate world was raised to explain the apparent lack of importance of this last type of adjustment.

Psychological Contract Violation

In the test of the hypothesis 6a which proposed that psychological contract violation predicts performance, no relationship exists between violation and any of the components of performance when demographic and other antecedent variables were controlled for. Although based upon a small number of studies using the relevant variables, from their meta-analysis of 51 studies, Zhao and colleagues (2007) offered evidence of violation acting as an intervening variable between breach and performance. This indicated a relationship between violation and performance, although the lack of a large body of evidence utilising these variables in the literature suggests that the theoretical linkages are yet to be proven.

Guest (1998a) proposed that if there is no relationship between violation and performance then the result of violation may be perceptual and the response may be a cognitive adjustment rather than behavioural. This proposition can only be tested by the inclusion of other dependent variables to explore employee attitudinal responses or changes in perception of the adequacy of the psychological contract. Guest further suggested that violation may be tolerated or denied if there is an uneven power acceptance or a differing social construction of exchange relationships (Guest, 1998a). The assumption underlying this current research is that the psychological contract held by the expatriate is not believed to be a poor one. If the terms of the contract are untenable, it is assumed that the expatriate is in a position of sufficient power to make a choice to leave or attempt to change the circumstances. Therefore, rather than the content of the contract being a source of dissatisfaction per se, it is viewed in this research that it is violation of those acceptable terms that might create dissatisfaction

(Guest, 1998a, p. 661) and subsequently influence performance. However, given the existence of violation and the lack of effect upon performance based upon the analysis in the current research, Guest's proposition offers an alternative explanation for the findings. Even an affective response such as violation may not impact upon performance if the violation can be attributed to differing understandings of the employment relationship (very likely in cross-cultural situations) or if the expatriate is not in sufficient position of power to instigate change to an unsatisfactory arrangement. It is in the interests of the expatriate to continue to perform well regardless, and resignation to the circumstances might well be a common and common sense response.

Reference to the work by Coyle-Shapiro and Conway (2005) presents an alternative theory. These authors sought to differentiate POS and the psychological contract in their effects upon Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). They did this with little overlap across the measures and by offering evidence of the respective capacity to predict OCB. What the authors did find was that it was the actual receipt of support rather than the sense of the psychological contract being fulfilled that predicted OCB. Higher levels of support effectively diminished the importance of psychological contract monitoring.

There is little evidence to verify either theoretical position in the SAR research as there is no evidence to determine from the data the original assumption of the satisfactoriness of the psychological contracts. Neither can the extent to which expatriates monitor the psychological contract be determined. It would require a broader model or the testing of a number of relevant variables in further depth to determine their applicability.

A final explanation for the lack of support for the hypotheses can be directed at the method of analysis and in particular the number of variables controlled for in the analysis. The same demographic variables were used as in the moderated regression

analysis tests for hypothesis 6b, but in addition, all the antecedent variables and cultural similarity were also entered simultaneously. The results therefore report the unique variance above and beyond all the other variables entered into the regression equation and thus it is more difficult to detect significant effects. In contrast to the hierarchical regression analysis reported in Table 36 in chapter 5, the moderated regression analysis (Table 40 of chapter 5) limits the variables to the demographic controls, cultural similarity, fulfilment, and the cross-product of fulfilment and violation. In this latter analysis, violation clearly explains significant proportions of variance in demonstrating effort, maintaining personal discipline, and teamwork and leadership performance. Thus, based upon results of the modified analysis, violation of the psychological contract significantly predicts at least three of the six performance components which is consistent with the theoretical position taken in the literature (Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997) and also suggested by the scant empirical evidence to date (Zhao et al., 2007).

Hypothesis 6b states that fulfilment moderates the relationship between violation and performance components. A moderating effect is found on the relationship between violation and teamwork and leadership but not with any of the other performance components. When fulfilment is high (at scores of 4 and 5), violation negatively and significantly predicts teamwork and leadership. There is no such relationship when fulfilment is low or moderate. This harks back to Guest's (1998) explanation offered above that states that if the contract is essentially unsatisfactory (utilising fulfilment as a proxy indicator) there may not be any monitoring of the contract and thus the violation to performance relationship may not hold. A contract may not be deemed to be fulfilled because the terms of the contract are unsatisfactory to begin with. Under such circumstances further emotional appraisal of the employment relationship in terms of overall violation may merely lead to psychologically disquieting information, incurring

further costs to the relationship, and thus be counterproductive. When a contract of satisfactory content is fulfilled overall, separate instances of violation may create dissonance and the need for further appraisal.

The next hypothesis to test psychological contract in the context of expatriate performance states that a relational contract type would have a greater moderating effect on the relationship between violation and components of performance than does transactional contract type. Hypothesis 6c was supported by evidence suggesting that relational contract type was a more influential moderator than transactional contract type on the relationship between violation and communication performance, teamwork and leadership, and management and administrative performance. The regression analyses utilised in these tests controlled for only demographic variables and thus the predictive and moderated effects of the type of contract and violation includes effects both unique and content common to other variables that comprise the measures. Thus there are relationships between violation and performance components found in this moderated regression analysis that are not found in the tests of hypotheses 6a as discussed above.

As the internal consistency for transactional contract type measure is marginal, it is considered that the greater level of moderating effect by relational contracts than by transactional contracts may be due to low reliability of the transactional contract type measure. To test this assumption, and as detailed in chapter 5, the analysis was repeated utilising the breach scales to define contract type as the reliabilities were more robust. The analysis does not offer any moderating effects of contract type and although two of the models with relational contract type explain more of the variance in the performance components than the models with transactional content, communication performance and maintaining personal discipline were exceptions under this analysis. The findings from the second analyses merely reinforce the concern that the results of the original

analysis may be due to low reliability of the transactional contract type measure and thus interpretations should be tempered by this possibility.

The three components of performance that violation moderates when the contract type is relational rather than transactional all require human interactive qualities in their performance. Investments of identity and personal involvement are transacted in a relational exchange (Bunderson, 2001). Communication performance is a process of interacting and utilising relational skills to be understood and convey a message. Teamwork and leadership performance also encompasses the identity, personality, and relational skills to persuade and share vision. Although perhaps to a lesser extent than the other two, management and administration performance also requires an investment of self in order to manage and allocate human and other resources. A relational contract is one that is fluid and relies upon the interaction between people for ongoing specification and definition. It would follow that the performance components more likely to be affected by relational skills and human exchange are the ones more likely to be violated when the overall psychological contract is more highly relational than transactional. The evidence suggests overall that the relational contract does carry with it an increased risk of violation and with it a negative behavioural response (Guzzo et al., 1994), in this case, decreased performance.

Tests of violation as a mediator of the relationships between antecedent variables and performance components result in a couple of significant findings. Firstly, violation appears to mediate the relationship between informative support (measured by role clarity) and maintenance of personal discipline. Secondly, violation may have a suppressive effect on the relationship between practical support and task performance. The first finding is relatively straight forward as it accords with the theoretical position in the literature that the psychological contract can play a mediating role between support practices and expatriate job outcomes (Guzzo et al., 1994). The fact that there

was only one relationship supporting the hypothesis that was significant, however, requires explanation.

Role clarity is an influential variable in the overall model as is seen in the results of the tests relating to cross-cultural adjustment, and it is significantly correlated with most of the major intervening and performance components. The effect of psychological contract violation as a mediating variable is weak in this data suggesting that where other direct relationships exist, violation plays no meaningful part in carrying any effect of the antecedent to the performance component. The remaining question is why violation should affect the particular relationship between informative support (role clarity) and personal discipline and not others. It may be that it is precisely the importance of role clarity to expatriates within an uncertain environment that makes psychological contract violation intolerable. The lack of clarity about the role combined with psychological contract violation may be too much to cope with. Expatriates may choose to exhibit this frustration through complaints and other ways of relieving stress rather than to hold back effort on performance elements that may be more readily determined as part of the role.

The second significant relationship is less straight forward. There may be a suppression effect of violation on the relationship between practical support and task performance. There has already been an attempt to explain the negative relationship between practical support and task performance which hinges upon social learning and trait activation theories. Violation may suppress the learning and trait activation affect and replace it with a mechanism suggested by social exchange theory.

When others fail to offer practical support, individuals will exert effort to acquire resources needed to establish a home base. In contrast, when such support is provided, workers are likely to conserve their own resources and refrain from exerting effort. Thus, under the latter scenario expatriates do not gain the early opportunity to

learn the skills and traits which are beneficial to performance success in the new environment. When, however, the psychological contract is violated there are other theories that come into play whereby the social exchange theory of reciprocity is triggered. In the latter scenario, lack of practical support is related to violation which predicts lower performance. Even if they have learnt enough to perform due to being forced to, if they feel that they are not supported at all (the psychological contract has been violated), then the skills may not be invoked, nor effort made, and therefore performance is low. Thus, (lack of) practical support is likely to account for greater amounts of variance in job performance in situations characterised by low levels of violation.

The assumption here is that whatever traits become expressed in the process of making up for the lack in practical support in the general living environment are also relevant to the work place and job performance. Trait relevance is "the essentially qualitative feature of situations that makes it reasonable to expect expression of one trait rather than another" (Tett & Burnett, 2003, p.502). A greater variance is expected in trait-expressive behaviour in weaker situations where there may not be an immediate reinforcing message than in stronger situations where norms of behaviour are clear. The first few weeks in a new job is a weaker situation than the first week in the new environment negotiating for the likes of accommodation and mobile phone deals. Thus, the external environment with clear and immediate responses to required outcomes offers an invaluable learning experience that is not readily substituted by the work environment.

Summary

Little empirical data has been made available to date regarding the outcomes of psychological contract violation in terms of performance and none that relate psychological contract violation to various components of performance. In the current

research where a number of support and intervening variables are added into the equation together, it is determined that violation is not among the most important determinants of performance. However, if analysed to explicate the nature of the variable (Raja et al., 2004) and its relationship with other variables (minimising the need for a large number of control variables), the analysis shows clearly that psychological contract violation in the expatriate domain is a variable worthy of interest to researchers and a potential danger to practitioners. The data also conditionally support the suggestion that psychological contract violation mediates the relationship between important antecedents and performance components. In this case the relationship is between role clarity and the maintenance of personal discipline.

The relevance of type of contract to this domain has been supported. The costs of violation are greater under relational contracts than transactional contracts (Guzzo et al., 1994; Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Finally, the potential for fulfilment of the contract to moderate the effects of violation has been explored with some evidence to suggest that violation may be tempered by overall fulfilment. Underlying this latter finding is that fulfilment and violation are not merely inversely measured variables.

Career Commitment

Contrary to the expectations derived from the analysis of the content of the interviews and the theoretical propositions, career commitment is not found to moderate the relationship between any of the support mechanisms and any of the components of performance. That is not to say that career commitment does not predict performance. There is evidence in the analysis (see Table 42 in Chapter 5) that together with practical support from the moderated model, career commitment predicts job-specific task performance, and controlling for training it predicts management and administration performance. Most of the literature exploring outcomes of career commitment focuses

on turnover and turnover intentions, offering a strong body of literature supporting a negative relationship (Aryee & Tan, 1992; Bedeian et al., 1994; Blau, 1985, 1988; Blau et al., 1993). One study reporting the outcomes of career commitment amongst retail sales staff offered support for the relationship between career commitment and performance (Darden, Hampton, & Howell, 1989), whereas Aryee and colleagues, although hypothesising a relationship to work quality, did not find evidence of such a relationship in a study of 510 teachers and nurses in Singapore. In partial explanation of the different findings in the literature, Ellemers and colleagues (1998) offered two propositions. Firsly they suggested that narrowly defined conceptualisations of commitment, such as career-oriented commitment, were more likely to predict behaviour than broader measures. Secondly they proposed that individualistic goals such as contained in career commitment should lead to the individual task performance which "may serve the goal of personal advancement" (Ellemers et al., 1998, p.718). The predictive capacity of career commitment in the current research towards job-specific task performance and management and administration performance accords with the specific theoretical position of Ellemers and the more general position expressed by Aryee.

The suggested position in this research that the relationship between expatriate management inputs and performance would depend upon degree of career commitment is not supported. However, this research does offer career commitment as another variable for consideration in the expatriate domain as there is evidence of predictive capacity on three components of performance.

Expatriates

Definition of Expatriate

A number of more recent studies (Hutchings, 2005; Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari, 2008; Shaffer et al., 2006), conceptual works and consultant reports (GMAC, 2008; Hipsher, 2008) have outlined the changing nature of the expatriate workforce. We are now seeing a diversity of expatriate type beyond the traditional parent company expatriate: the expatriate sent on assignment to a subsidiary location for a certain contractual period then to return to the home base once their duties overseas have been completed.

With some exceptions (Harrison et al., 2004; Hipsher, 2008; Hutchings, 2005; Peltokorpi, 2008), researchers, expatriates, and organisations seem to have been slow to perceive this change. Those expatriates who do not define themselves in traditional terms are difficult to access for research purposes as evident during the data collection phase of this research. Neither do companies necessarily see their foreign workers as expatriates thus creating problems not merely for academics trying to access expatriates for data collection purposes, but also for the expatriate in terms of the support that organisations feel is required. These localised or independent expatriates (Hipsher, 2008) appear to be exactly that, independent, with little support.

In Hong Kong, both Australian employees and their employers often suggest that an expatriate is someone on an expatriate package with a number of allowances and high status. Some potential respondents distanced themselves from the term and association with it for fear of being seen as elitist and one of the privileged few. What this suggests is that there might be dangers in using the expatriate term in some contexts especially where the colonial paradigm has been apparent and values have changed to

imbue it with a pejorative undertone. An understanding of the research setting is essential to avoid these costly errors.

Contributions to Knowledge

This SARs study has contributed to the literature by raising the importance of the connotations and denotations of the term expatriate for the effect that it has on (a) data collection, (b) applicability of existing measures, and (c) interpretation of the data. Many non-traditional expatriates may indeed self-select out of research if they feel that they are not what is typically determined to be an expatriate. In this SARs research, the terminology "Australian expatriates" was replaced with "Australians working in Hong Kong and Macau" in the documentation sent out to potential respondents to make it inclusive of localised, independent, and contract workers. Further, scales developed with one type of expatriate in mind (Fish & Wood, 1996) may not appear to be applicable to a number of other types of expatriates and thus care needs to be taken to delimit and define the sample type and ensure suitability of the instruments utilised. Scales used to measure expatriates in the corporate environment may not appear relevant to expatriates in an educational setting. Interpretation of data inclusive of a number of expatriate types may vary from the interpretation that researchers might make about purely localised foreign workers who may not be privy to the support mechanisms expected of mature multi-national companies.

The existing literature has generally defined expatriates as those who work for multinational companies and will return home after their duties have completed. Some researchers have included the non-traditional expatriate by virtue of the procedures used to capture data. For instance, Shaffer and her colleagues (2006) co-opted respondents through Australian, New Zealand, and American social clubs in Hong Kong. These social clubs have long term Hong Kong residents amongst their number and thus the sample may include types of expatriates not considered by some more conservative

readers to be representative of the expatriate population. Researchers will need clarify the scope of their data collection efforts and define expatriate as befits the research goals. Measures need to be selected carefully so that construct validity is maintained in the new sample. Interpretations made from the data sampling one type of expatriate may not necessarily generalise to other types of expatriates, and thus such limitations require researchers to be cognisant of a requirement to report on any potential differences where relevant.

Final Model

This section is a summary of the research effort. The initial model depicted a series of support mechanisms as antecedent variables, cross-cultural adjustment, effort to adjust, psychological contract violation and fulfilment, and the addition of career commitment as intervening variables. Campbell's (1990) eight components of performance were included as the dependent variables. The summary model is depicted in Figure 11. The final model (note Figure 12) results in six components of performance determined through the development of the performance scale, although only five components had significant relationships with the other variables in the model. The intervening variables consist of moderator and mediator variables whereby work adjustment and interaction adjustment are found to mediate the relationship between some antecedent variables and some components of performance. Relational psychological contract and psychological contract fulfilment were determined to act as moderators.

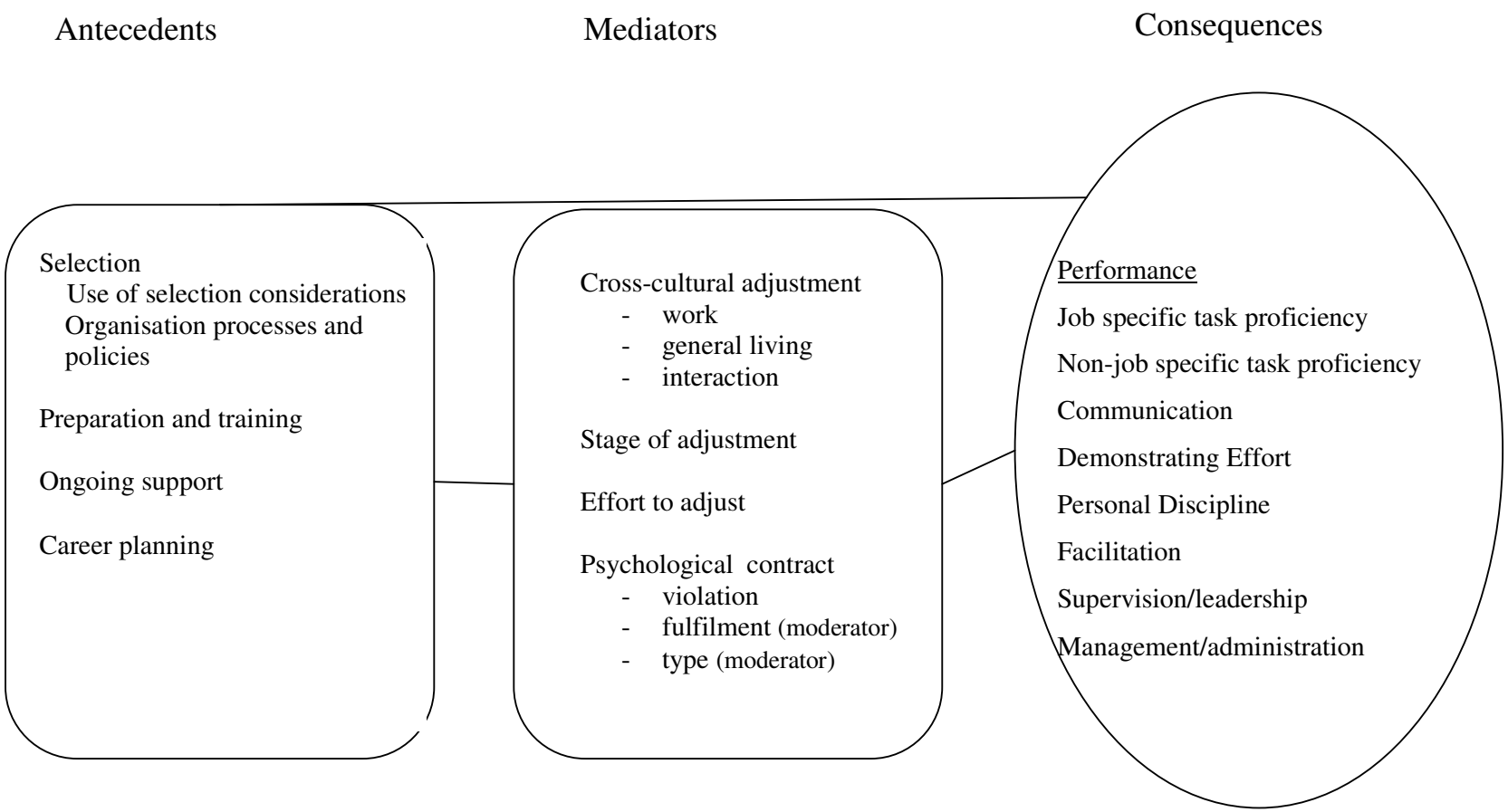

Figure 11. Expatriate performance conceptual framework

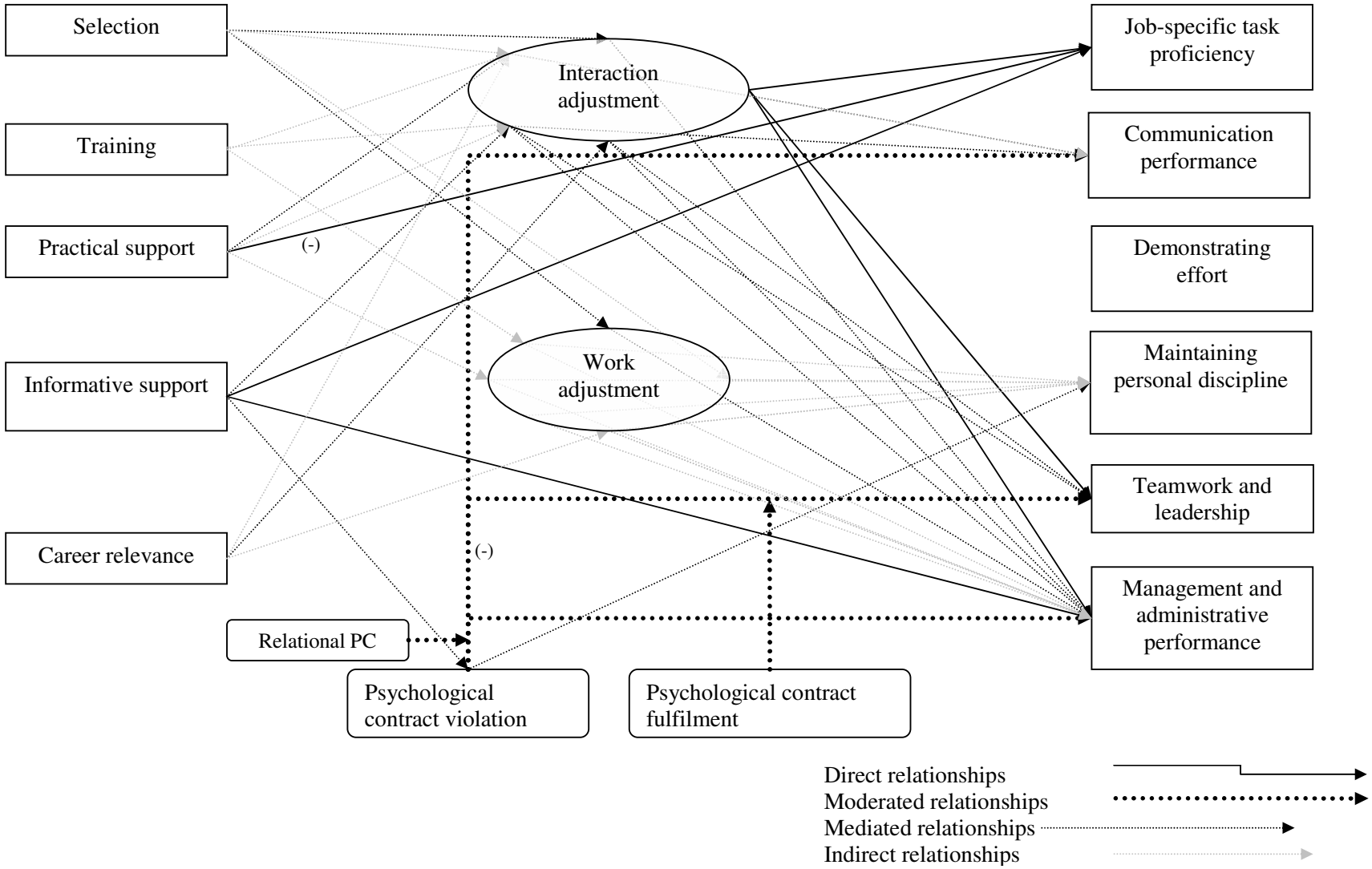

Figure 12. Final model of the antecedents of expatriate performance of Australians in the Special Administrative Regions of China

The following section discusses the implications from the findings for future research and the contributions to existing theory and conceptualisation of the expatriate performance domain.

Implications for Theory

A number of minor contributions to theory, such as discussion on the content of performance components, have been presented earlier in this chapter. The following presents higher order ideas that offer explanatory power for the findings in this research. These ideas have potential to contribute to the broader expatriate literature as extensions to and alternatives for existing theory, or raise concerns regarding methodological approaches to theory testing and development.

Expatriate Specific Performance Dimensions

The lack of necessity for expatriate specific performance dimensions was mooted here for a number of reasons. Firstly, the expatriate specific performance dimensions tested empirically in the extant literature do not seem to load onto the same performance factors consistently (Caligiuri, 1997; Caligiuri & Day, 2000; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005). Secondly, these dimensions tend to complicate the differentiation between adjustment and performance and thus are best removed from the performance domain. Thirdly, from a practical perspective, given that performance consists of behaviours that are undertaken to achieve the goals of the organisation, it is unlikely that adjustment related constructs are of ultimate importance to the organisation. The main rationale for not utilising the Caligiuri (1997) scale in this research centers on the existence of the expatriate specific performance dimensions in her scale. A re-conceptualisation of expatriate performance which questions the existing assumptions was needed: thus a definition of performance has been developed here that meets with

the views of managers and their expatriates, enables their work to be compared with the work of other employees but that also accepts the contextual differences. It does not deny the contextual variables and places those in a theoretical model which encompasses more than the mere components of performance. At least, such a model broadens the discussion and impels researchers to argue effectively to retain expatriate specific components. Thus, the model of expatriates performance developed here does not limit itself to defining the criterion space but offers instead an integrated model inclusive of antecedents and intervening variables predictive of performance components.

Performance versus Adjustment

Due in some part to the failure to clarify the conceptualisation of the distinction between performance and adjustment in the literature, it has been the generally accepted view that the company management practices that predict cross-cultural adjustment will also predict expatriate performance (Thomas & Lazarova, 2005; van der Bank & Rothmann, 2006). For instance, van der Bank suggested that expatriate failure should "be viewed as a consequence of company management practices" and offered support for this through reference to De Cieri and colleagues (1991) study on spouses of expatriates which found that "company assistance was one of the most consistent and powerful predictors of expatriates' adjustment" (van der Bank & Rothmann, 2006, p.31). Although recently authors have begun to question the view that adjustment will automatically lead to performance (Thomas & Lazarova, 2005), with the exception of some notable authors (Kraimer et al., 2001 etc) it has been rarely tested, and even rarer yet to be tested with a multifactorial measure of expatriate performance. Thus, this research is important because it differentiates between the two constructs and suggests that independent variables differentially predict cross-cultural adjustment and performance.

Adjustment Mediators and methods of analysis

Mediation effects explain how the effects of an IV are transmitted to a DV. These effects help explain process and offer some support for theoretical arguments of causality (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). This research goes beyond a simple mediated model and explores the differential effects of the types of adjustment on the relationships between expatriate management inputs and the various components of performance identified in this sample.

If the Sobel/bootstrapping test were to be used in isolation, the number of significant mediator relationships would increase suggesting a greater role for work adjustment than is found in this research utilising the Sobel/bootstrapping test with the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach combined. The main reason for the Baron and Kenny approach being utilised in this study is that there is not yet any concerted agreement as to whether the independent and dependent variables need to be significantly related. There are arguments which suggest that should the independent variables be distal to the dependent variable then it is best to remove the requirement of the first step of the Baron and Kenny approach (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). For example, cross-cultural training may have very little direct impact upon task performance and therefore one would not expect a statistically significant relationship between the two variables. This offers justification for doing away with the Baron and Kenny approach in this research but a more conservative approach in this case was determined to be prudent.

In line with the discussion on the definitions of intervening effects by Mathieu (2006) the position taken here is that the two tests of mediation offered in the empirical analysis are descriptive of two intervening effects. The effect tested by the traditional Baron and Kenny (1986) approach is that of mediation if the definitions by Mathieu, and Preacher and Hayes (2004) is adopted. The bootstrapping method, which disregards the requirement for a significant initial direct effect between the independent and

dependent variables, offers support for another type intervening effect, the indirect effect, but not a mediating effect. The indirect effect links two uncorrelated variables through significant relationships with linking variables. Although finding indirect effects in the process of confirmatory hypothesis testing could be considered somewhat exploratory (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006), to disregard these effects would do injustice to the potential influence that adjustment may have on performance of expatriates. It also discards serendipitous findings which might extend the study of the field with alternative methodological approaches. The methodological approach to testing for intervening variables has an impact upon both the findings and the interpretation of the findings to the practical management of expatriates. As such, the explication of alternative analytical methods and the implications that the utilisation of these has for research outcomes is an additional contribution of this research.

Types of adjustment

Adjustment types interact differently within the model depending upon how they are conceptualised and tested. As mediators, work and interaction adjustment have less influence upon performance than when measured as intervening variables due to the less onerous requirements for measuring the latter. As predictors and when controlling for other predictors, including other types of adjustment, interaction adjustment becomes the only adjustment type to explain unique variance in performance components. It is argued that to disregard and fail to interpret the differential findings draws an incomplete picture of the relationships and has implications for advice offered to practitioners.

Psychological Contract Breach and Violation

A major contribution of the analysis and discussion that focused upon psychological contract type, breach, and violation is the theoretical and empirical one that proposes a clear differentiation between breach, violation, and fulfilment. Secondly,

the study contributes to both the expatriate performance literature and the psychological contract literature by utilising a number of psychological contract variables to explicate the relationships between them and the performance components.

Findings contrary to hypotheses have forced the expression of alternative explanations; some have been developed in extent studies and are supported here, and others extrapolated from theoretical positions. Although extant research suggests that violation should lead to performance outcomes (Wolfe Morrison & Robinson, 1997) the results of the analyses suggest that violation may not uniquely predict performance and that variables such as cultural similarity, role clarity, and interaction adjustment might affect the relationship. The importance of these variables in the prediction of performance supports Guest's (1998a) proposition which states that violation might not impact upon expatriate performance behaviour if it can be attributed to misunderstandings. The mechanisms by which contracts are routinely monitored for violation have also been raised in an effort to explain the apparent lack of a unique relationship between violation and behavioural outcomes. It may be that researchers cannot assume that the existing psychological contract that has been developed and held by the employee is satisfactory to begin with and this attitudinal stance might impact upon the incidence and outcomes of breach, violation, and fulfilment.

The theoretical position that in psychological contracts with a higher relational content violation will be more likely to negatively impact upon work behaviour outcomes has been supported here. The additional contribution is in the findings that the relevant performance components had high human exchange content. They all rely upon relational skills and the ability to interact to achieve the requisite outcomes.

Further, role clarity is very clearly an important variable in the expatriate performance model and it has a part to play in determining both the reaction to and the content of the psychological contract. In the particular context of violation, expatriates

may not undermine their performance in areas which might be measured as central to their role but exhibit frustration in ways that they personally deem inappropriate to the work environment.

Finally, finding a suppressive effect of violation on an unexpected negative relationship between practical support and task performance tested the explanatory power of existing theories. However, the combined utilisation of trait activation and social exchange theory provides a plausible explanation and thus contributes by supporting the appropriateness of these theories in the domain of expatriate performance.

Implications for Practitioners

Part of the rationale for conducting this research was to determine which inputs into the expatriate management process actually affected performance. The above analyses and discussion and the overall model offer an indication as to where resources might be best applied. However, not all components of performance will be equally important in meeting organisational objectives. Although interaction adjustment might contribute positively to teamwork and leadership, this performance component may not necessarily be important to all expatriates in that particular environment. Thus, determining the relative importance of the components of performance offers a practical way to assist in resource allocation decisions. To test the importance of each component in this research the importance score was calculated by the mean of the items measuring importance of each component as determined through the factor analysis of the performance components. Descriptive statistics of the importance of each factor are presented in Appendix N. The most important factor for the SARs sample based upon the mean score was task performance, followed by communication performance and maintenance of personal discipline, teamwork and leadership performance, management

and administration performance, and, finally, demonstrating effort. The natural extension from this type of information is that for this sample, utilising resources that enhance task performance, communication performance, and maintenance of personal discipline would offer the greatest benefit in terms of meeting organisational goals. The management inputs which were suggested to increase performance on these components here are less practical support, increased role clarity, minimisation of psychological contract violation of relational contracts, encouragement to put effort into the work adjustment, and achieving interaction and, to a lesser extent, work adjustment.

It is expected that for different groups of expatriates there may be differences in the performance components that are deemed to be important. The differences may lie across industry boundaries, companies, countries, economic development, product life-cycle, and change over time. The methodology outlined here offers practitioners a way to determine what components of performance, and therefore antecedents to performance, shall be valid for the particular circumstances that they are managing.

This research suggests that practitioners need to be very clear as to the importance of the various outcomes required of expatriates and select as well as support their expatriates accordingly. If adjustment is the outcome required then this research indicates that selection, training, mentoring, and career relevance may be important. If performance on a number of components is required then attention should be placed on helping the expatriate adjust to work and interacting with locals. This suggestion that not all types of support will have a positive influence on performance outcomes is a critical one. Specifically, practical support in terms of relocation assistance, although it predicts adjustment, may not assist expatriates perform on the job. Although this proposition contradicts accepted wisdom, activation of traits due to low levels of support offers an explanation for the negative relationships found here and in some of the literature (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). To automatically assume that all support

mechanisms will be predictive of expatriate outcomes is, at best, potentially wasteful and, at worst, counter-productive. Lower levels of support could actually lead to higher levels of performance and cross-cultural adjustment over time under certain conditions. The conditions would include certain levels of stress (eustress [Selye, 1976]) which lead to effort made by expatriates to adjust and an activation of traits necessary for performance. The intermediate outcomes involved would be learning and gradual socialisation which would eventually benefit expatriate work outcomes. This theoretical perspective opens the way for further testing of alterative hypotheses about expatriate learning, socialisation, and adjustment processes.

The positive performance outcomes found in the SARs might suggest that individuals can continue to perform despite a lack of organisational support. However, as is demonstrated by the predictive capacity of selection and training on adjustment, this interpretation could be dangerous as it might contribute to minimal adoption of support mechanisms if the criterion variable is mis-specified. Continued reliance on the capabilities of individuals and their willingness to persist with their contributions is not an effective way to ensure overall performance contribution from employees over the longer term. Similar to Dougherty and Hardy's (1996) findings in relation to sustainable innovation, sustainable performance cannot rely on certain individuals: networks, knowledge, experience, and adaptability of individuals is susceptible to individual mobility and circumstances, and to organisational change. Systematic management of support policies and procedures is a necessary provision when individual resources fail. The caution offered here is that there is a fine line to tread: Too much support may imbue the workforce with an over-reliance on the system and too little will mean that the added benefits to performance (even if indirectly through adjustment or psychological contract fulfilment) promised by such a system will not be realised.

For organisational support mechanisms to play an effective role in enhancing performance it needs to be recognised that work and interaction adjustment are the proximal outcomes. However, to enhance performance directly, expatriates are required to be adjusted to interacting, and to a lesser extent, working within the new context. Thus, an overall expatriate management system might do best to focus the outcomes of interventions on improving work and interaction adjustment. In the absence of such a system of policies and procedures, an assessment of the likelihood of an individual being able to adjust to interacting might be the most efficient path to performance.

Summary

The management inputs having the greatest impact upon components of performance are practical support on task performance, effort to adjust to work on communication performance, interaction adjustment on teamwork and leadership and on management and administration performance. Given that task performance and communication performance were deemed to be the two most important performance components, these findings suggest that it is unwise to make adjustment effortless and to over-support expatriates in their adjustment to their new working environment.

Limitations

In a piece of research of this scope and scale undertake with limited resources, there are inevitably a number of limitations that need to be acknowledged. The following discussion does not deal with delimitations but merely raises a number of the limitations inherent in the design, instruments, analysis, choice and interpretability.

Design

Non-experimental design

Utilising a non-experimental correlation research design, it is not possible to infer causal impact on performance by the antecedents. It is often argued that measuring

the predictor variables at an earlier time followed by the criterion variables will offer causal evidence. However, it is still feasible that even in non-experimental longitudinal studies the two variables merely co-vary and it is another variable that has the casual effect (Keppel & Zedeck, 1989). True experimental designs are the only way to control for other extraneous influences and to test for causality. These designs require manipulation of the IV, a controlled situation, and randomised control trials whereby participants are randomly allocated to experimental and control groups. Experimental studies also require observational longitudinal results. While experimental designs have high internal validity and thus causal inference can be made, they often lack external validity to enable the findings to be generalised beyond the sample (Tharenou et al., 2007). There are difficulties in conducting experimental research and the added benefit of causal inference must be weighed against the disadvantages. The correlation design is applicable in the context of this research as the time required to implement, for example, training and selection procedures, into one organisation for even a quasi- experimental design would not be possible given time and resource restrictions, and what it would entail to gain access into a firm. An experimental design is impractical in the context of this research.

Cross-sectional vs longitudinal

Cross-sectional methods such as used in this research are limited as the effects of the passage of time cannot be measured as they can in longitudinal studies (Heiman, 1995). Although authors have been advocating longitudinal data collection and analysis in this field and particularly for cross-cultural adjustment studies for over a decade (McEvoy & Parker, 1995), it is rare to find longitudinal data in the expatriate literature even though cross-cultural adjustment is by nature a temporal construct and would lend itself perfectly to measurement over time. Studies such as those by Takeuchi and Shaffer and their colleagues' are rare exceptions (Shaffer et al., 2006; Takeuchi, Wang

et al., 2005; Takeuchi et al., 2009). Cross-sectional research is limited as to the inferences of temporal predicability that can be made and prior to Takeuchi and colleague's 2005 study it could not be dismissed that adjustment might be an outcome of performance rather than the other way around. Given the difficulties in collecting data from expatriates at even one point in time, the difficulties in accessing the respondents at yet another point in time were perceived as insurmountable.

Of course, no causal inference could be made by such longitudinal studies as that would require at a minimum a quasi-experimental research design (Tharenou et al., 2007). However, longitudinal designs do offer further evidence for the temporal relationships and may also attenuate common method bias concerns. As data are collected at different times the separation of measurement can minimise the effects of transient mood states, external stimulus cues, and reduce the respondent's need for perceived consistency of response which can all contribute to artifactual correlations between even unrelated variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Although there are methodological benefits from longitudinal designs, it was viewed that the practical difficulties outweighed those benefits in this research.

Sampling

The sampling framework and sampling techniques utilised in this research are of necessity purposive techniques due to the non-existence of a population listing. This raises concerns for the generalisability of the findings: purposive sampling does not offer the representativeness of the sample to the population as does probability sampling techniques (Henry, 1990; Zikmund, 2003). This potential selection bias does introduce some risk to the validity and credibility of the findings.

Single-rater bias

Multiple raters offer objective insight into the ratings on performance variables as well as whether cross-cultural adjustment has actually occurred. Relying upon the expatriate's subjectively derived comfort level within the cross-cultural environment is dangerous as it could well be based upon ignorance of cross-cultural issues. For this reason, it is important to obtain more objective ratings than can be obtained from expatriates' self-ratings. The lack of supervisor responses in this SAR research did not offer the quantity of data to enable more than a simple check of inter-rater reliability and thus problems of self-report and single-rater bias are potential risks.

When single methods and raters are used, nuisances, such as response sets of participants or another bias in the chosen method that similarly impacts the measurement of all variables, can account for, or partially account for, the relationships among variables. Recently, the problem of common method variance has been mooted to be overstated due to the conflicting evidence as to whether it actually introduces any bias. However, it should still be tested and ruled out or reported as an alternative explanation for the results (Spector, 2006).

One test to determine whether single method or single response bias is a concern is to use Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Recently, there has been some criticism of this test but there are no clearly superior simple alternatives (Podsakoff et al., 2003). If items load on a single factor, this is indicative of common method bias. The results of the principal components analysis of the performance items yielded 6 components and thus the single rater method was not deemed to create single response bias. In addition, although Mol and colleagues (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005) hypothesised that predictive validities of trait measures on expatriate job performance would be lower for self-rated performance than performance ratings by others, they were not able to find any evidence to support this hypothesis. The Mol

meta-analytical study utilised data from 30 studies focusing on expatriate performance. The authors cautiously suggested that expatriates are "not prone to defensiveness that would lead them to inflate their self-rated performance" (Mol, Born, Willemsen et al., 2005, p.613) thus it is reasonable to suggest that any single-rater bias may also be minimal in this SARs research.

Survey Instrument

The applicability of scales from earlier expatriate research to the newer type of expatriate may be questionable. The self-selected, localised employee may not consider the scales applicable to him/herself in an environment where the 'expatriate' term is generally used to connote the highly paid executive from the parent company and who will continue within the same company upon returning home. The scales mention "this assignment" and really should refer to this "overseas working role" as many do not see their role as an assignment.

The survey is also long and there are signs of response fatigue, especially in relation to the final performance scale, question 36. There are some instances of a single anchor response to both the ranking of performance and importance questions and one in particular which ranked their performance consistently above average until the page was turned and all remaining items were ranked outstanding.

The chosen operationalisations of the constructs also have their limitations. It would perhaps have been better to have formulated the stages of adjustment question as a Guttman scale rather than as a Thurstone scale (DeVellis, 2003) so that the expatriate had to agree that they had experienced each previous scenario rather than select the description that appeared most applicable to the expatriate's current situation. In a Thurstone scale the items indicate the position on the scale that represents the point on the unidimensional continuum (Wright & Hicks, 1966) which, in this case, is cross-cultural adjustment. However, the theory underlying the stages of adjustment scale

implies that expatriates should have experienced all the earlier stages described by the previous items as befits a Guttman scale. The measure as it stands has features of both scale types. However, the most appropriate choice of scale type can only be made subsequent to (a) further confirmation that all expatriates experience the stages progressively and (b) development of a comprehensive understanding of the features of each of these stages. The instruments measuring informative support (role clarity) and emotional support (mentoring) are narrow and utilise a selection of the possible measures that might have been used. However, the length of the questionnaire restricted testing the full breadth of the constructs and thus proxy measures utilising reliable and pre-validated measures were utilised. Future studies might fruitfully utilise other aspects of the constructs in similar models.

Sample representativeness

It is difficult to determine the representativeness of the sample on all demographic variables. The percentage of female expatriates in this sample is high at 43 percent but there is no data available from the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade in Hong Kong or the Australian Chamber of Commerce which offers a breakdown of expatriates by gender. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) however, offers an indication that this sample might be representative of the Australian expatriate population (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 25 September 2007). ABS reported that 55 percent of the permanent to long-term Australian departures in the over 35 year age bracket is male. This age bracket typically travels for work and is the largest age bracket group within the SARs research. The breakdown in the ABS data compares favourably with the 57 percent of males in the SARs sample. Although it is not possible to offer irrefutable evidence for representativeness of this sample based upon the gender variable, the above information offers some level of confidence that the Australian

expatriate population might indeed be constituted differently from other expatriate populations.

Methods of Analysis

There are general assumptions inherent in the utilisation of regression analysis for inferential purposes (Babbie, 2007). It is not possible in the context of data collection in this study of expatriates to ensure no sampling error (particularly when the purposive sampling is conducted), and thus it is with caution that inference is made as to the relationship between the variables in the wider population. This is another point in the process towards a better understanding of the domain but is by no means the ultimate explanation for the experience of all expatriates.

The tests of mediation imply a causal model and it is argued by a number of statisticians that the conditions of causality should be met before valid inferences can be made (Stone-Romero & Rosopa, 2004). Being cross-sectional, mediation is not strictly interpretable in this study and thus care was taken to use non-causal language when interpreting the results of mediation tests, as suggested by James and Brett (1984). Mathieu and Taylor (2006) suggested that the work must be grounded in strong theory which this research achieves. They advocated that researchers demonstrate acceptable construct validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity – psychometric properties that this research also deals with. They also advocated the use of true or quasi-experimental design and to assess the variables over time in the theoretically implied order. Neither of these last two recommendations has been achieved in this research for reasons mentioned earlier. Future studies might best consider longitudinal designs to enable all conditions of mediation to be fulfilled and thus interpreted correctly.

Factor analysis

The principal component analysis conducted in this study was exploratory. Further empirical support utilising confirmatory factor analysis is required to be undertaken to ensure confidence in the construct validity of the measure. The most current and powerful approach to confirmatory factor analysis is structural equation modelling (SEM). It was inappropriate to simultaneously subject the data to SEM on the same sample for a number of reasons. Firstly, it has been recommended that in scale development SEM follows exploratory factor analysis, secondly, the validation process should be conducted on a new sample, and thirdly, SEM requires large sample sizes particularly when the model is complex, as is the model in the current study (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Similar findings from data collected on a larger sample size and in a new context would offer the evidence required for enhanced credibility of the measure.

Judgement

Invariably an "essential ingredient in the research process is the judgement of the scientist" (Cohen, 1990, p.1311). There is always the temptation to merely follow prescribed methods and treatment without question, particularly by early career stage academics, as this is safe, keeps the research simple, and ensures progression. However, at many points in the research endeavour judgements need to be made between viable alternatives, and an adequate researcher will question even received wisdom. This is "part and parcel" of the enquiry and learning process. In doing so, some alternatives may not be deemed viable and judgements may not appear sound to those of other persuasions. It is incumbent upon the researcher to learn to use the tools and techniques correctly and wisely and to justify those choices. However, it is also important to be aware of the importance of creativity and judgement in order to interpret the data and to decide to what extent the data supports the theoretical propositions. This is where

science and art become inextricable. There is not one path but many choices that need to be made and in the options available lay the limitation – only one path can be taken at one time. Being cognisant of the choices made and raising the alternatives and options for future research endeavours, although not minimising the limitations of this research, acknowledges that at a holistic level choice necessarily creates limitations.

Number of tests

Due to the complexity of the expatriate performance model proposed in this thesis, a number of analyses were conducted to test a large number of sub-hypotheses. The necessity for the number of sub-hypotheses in this research is a function of the multi-dimensional and multi-component conceptualisation of the focal constructs, namely organisational support mechanisms, cross-cultural adjustment, and job performance. Extent theoretical arguments and empirical evidence have been presented to justify the hypotheses at the superordinate level and there are some indications in the literature to direct research at the finer grained level. The analyses and exploration of these hypothesised subordinate relationships at both empirical and theoretical levels are major contributions of this research and thus required testing a large number of relationships and patterns within the relationships.

When multiple tests are conducted with the same data, there is concern for an increased incidence of Type I errors (finding significant relationships when none exist) for if enough tests are conducted, eventually a significant relationship will be found, even if by chance (Bland & Altman, 1995). Bonferroni procedures are often used to adjust the significance criterion to minimise these false positives (Bland & Altman, 1995; Nakagawa, 2004). There are however a number of problems inherent in making such adjustments. Firstly, there is little consensus as to when adjustments should be made (Nakagawa, 2004; Perneger, 1999). Secondly, the Bonferroni method of adjustment is concerned with the situation where the null hypotheses are true

simultaneously (Perneger, 1998; Rothman, 1990). This is rarely of interest to researchers but it is the rationale behind the calculations which indicate that the error rate increases with the number of tests conducted (Bland & Altman, 1995). At a practical level, the significant relationship found between two variables may be determined to be nonsignificant should additional tests be added and adjustments made to the significance criteria. This is an inference which a number of researchers propose defies common sense (Perneger, 1998). Thirdly, adjustments that minimise Type I errors, increase Type II errors. Paradoxically, by making adjustments in detailed and expanded research efforts, researchers decrease the likelihood of finding significant results (Nakagawa, 2004). Chance has been defined as an occurance which cannot yet be predicted due to lack of sufficient information (Rothman). If adjustments decrease the likelihood of detecting relationships, then researchers are unable to explore the unexpected or the extreme which are often at the heart of new knowledge (Rothman). This is a philosophical position which at worst encourages data-dredging but at best facilitates scientific enquiry and exploration if founded upon a priori hypotheses and understanding of the existing theoretical foundations of the domain.

Generalisability

There are a number of limitations to the generalisability of the research findings to other expatriates. Firstly, the sample is limited to one nationality on assignment in the Special Administrative Regions of China and thus interpretations made within this context can only be extrapolated with extreme caution. The field has been criticised by Deller in the past for being “characterised by the overgeneralization of particular results” (1997, p.96). Insights can be gained, however, by reference to individual studies which may offer confirmation or disagreement with theories proposed in the extant literature. It is only through a repetition of findings over time and context that a solid body of knowledge is built. This process determines the credibility of the theories

developed in the domain. Secondly, the sample size is small and thus there are greater risks that it may not be representative of the population of Australian expatriates in the SARs. This latter concern is ameliorated to some extent by the parametric assumptions of the data being met, and a number of the relationships found have been consistent with earlier studies and theoretical positions, and the fact that small samples can still be representative. Thirdly, although the response rate could have been expected in the SARs context, given the length of the questionnaire in particular, the low response rate increases the likelihood of non-response bias and thus the ability to generalise from the findings is reduced. The similarity between the sample and the population statistics available seems to mitigate the concerns of representativeness and generalisability but, again, care must be taken when attempts are made to extrapolate the findings beyond Australians in Hong Kong and Macau.

These limitations must be acknowledged but they need not detract from the significance of the research nor the fact that the research sets out to explore a rather complex and at times critical model of expatriate performance. The following section concludes the thesis with a summary of the goals, findings, explanations, and future directions to highlight the contributions that this research makes to the expatriate research domain.

Future Research Directions

Antecedents

Support

The negative relationships found here between practical support and performance, and training rigour and work adjustment should trigger a cautious approach to recommendations directed to practitioners. Not all support mechanisms will necessarily have the beneficial outcomes as theoretically purported. There are idiosyncratic, confounding, and contextual variables that need to be taken into

consideration when expatriate management practices are put into place. Moreover, the outcomes of the practices may not be as initially visualised and thus a rigorous, context specific evaluation program would need to be put into place to ensure that the effects were as intended. Further research is warranted with multiple proximal and distal criterion variables such as job satisfaction and commitment as well as adjustment, psychological contract violation, and performance variables to determine what role each might play in the overall model of expatriate performance. This SARs research highlights the complexity of the domain and warns against simplistic conceptualisations and over-generalisations of expatriate performance and adjustment models in future research and advice to practitioners.

Individual-Level Differences

This research did not explore the individual differences that determine performance in international assignments. Shaffer and colleagues (2006) examined the relationships between individual differences, and adjustment, withdrawal cognitions, and performance in a report of three multi-source and longitudinal studies. They found that extraversion and intellectance were the most important trait predictors of dimensions of expatriate effectiveness. In addition to these studies that examine the individual-level variables that have been shown to impact upon assignment outcomes and the studies such as this SARs one that look at the difference that organisations can make to assignment outcomes, a combined approach to the study of the interplay between these individual-level and organisational level influences would be of value. Although complex and perhaps premature given the lack of a sufficient number of predictor studies (Shaffer et al.), this approach may shed light on the circumstances under which individual-level variables have the greatest impact and what type of individual best benefits from organisational support mechanisms. A contingency

approach in the form of Person-Environment Fit models (Hesketh & Gardner, 1993) may offer a theoretical foundation upon which these types of studies can be built.

The relationships and the predictive capacity of expatriate management inputs to components of expatriate performance is not the final point. As Campbell (1990) has suggested, in the context of prediction of performance in selection research, this is merely a stepping stone to further contributions for practitioners and academics. It is not enough to measure which influence has the greatest effect. Applying an expatriate management system based upon such findings within organisations and the monitoring and reporting of these expatriate performance outcomes will lend further evidence to the importance of the influences for each environment. Campbell mentioned that the study of the outcomes need not be left merely at the individual job performance level, but considered also in terms of the average performance of expatriates, and also the system's effect upon aggregate performance and performance utility as a whole (performance components that really matter to the goals of the organisation).

Confirm factor structure of expatriate performance

As it stands there are limitations presented by attempting to assess dimensionality and validity with the same data set. Confidence in the structure of the expatriate performance construct can be increased by using confirmatory factor analysis on a new sample (Ferguson & Cox, 1993p.90). Confirmatory techniques such as structural equation modelling are advantageous as they allow greater precision than exploratory methods in the evaluation of measurement models (Hinkin, 1995). What is missing and is important to the continuing confirmation of the construct validity of the performance scale is a theory of predictors of the individual expatriate performance components. This research has a number of exploratory and conceptual elements. The most crucial being the suggested theoretical underpinnings of the relationships found between predictors and the six components of performance. This is merely a beginning

and leaves some relationships still unexplained. Future research can strengthen this model by additional confirmatory empirical work as advocated above, but also requires dedication to comprehensive conceptual efforts to increase the explanatory power of the model. One way to extrapolate from Campbell's theoretical foundation (1990) is to explore what role the three determinants (motivation, procedural, and declarative knowledge) may play in the relationships between the antecedents and performance. For example, motivation might be expected to play a role in the relationship between psychological contract violation and performance.

Future research endeavours will require the application of multi-dimensional performance instruments, such as the one presented here in this study, to clarify the content of the domain. At the same time, it would be valuable to test the structure of the performance constructs to establish whether task and contextual performance framework might still apply to finer grained conceptualisations of expatriate performance and so work in this area must continue as has been suggested for more than a decade (Conway, 1999; Scullen et al., 2003; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

General Living Adjustment

The suggestion that expatriates do not need to adjust to the local life because they do not live in that environment but in a quasi-local environment raises the question as to what researchers are actually measuring when testing for general living adjustment utilising Black and Stephens' (1989) measure. Are they measuring the experience of the expatriate and their adjustment to their immediate life-style which may or may not differ much from their home life-style? Or, are they measuring their perception of their ability to adjust to their conceptualisation of local society? An expatriate may insulate him- or her-self from the realities of the local culture, perhaps through emotion-focused coping strategies (Herman & Tetrick, 2009; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). Thus, whilst some expatriates may view that they are well adjusted to their new life-style, they may also be

aware that they could never adjust to the local life-style and respond low on the adjustment scale, whereas others with the same level of adjustment to their own life-style may respond based upon their immediate levels of comfort. It could be important from a research perspective to determine which "general living environment" is actually being measured and might indeed go some way to illuminate the inconsistent findings within the literature. It is conceivable that lack of adjustment to a local living environment might not impact upon performance whilst lack of adjustment to the expatriate's own living environment (however that may be defined) might relate to performance.

Other Predictors - Commitment and Satisfaction.

Both organisational commitment and satisfaction have been shown to be predictors of performance in a number of studies (Lester et al., 2002; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Restuborg et al., 2006; Siders et al., 2001) which have extended to the expatriate domain (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Liu, 2009; Naumann, 1993; Takeuchi et al., 2009). Commitment causes workers to exert more effort to achieve organisational goals (Naumann, 1993). Within this current research some of the concepts inherent in commitment have been addressed through the performance component, demonstration of effort, and the definition of performance as a behaviour to achieve organisational goals. Satisfaction is an individual's attitudinal response to aspects of the job which is closely related to the affective response as conceived in psychological contract violation (Zhao et al., 2007).

In order to further facilitate model validity and to explicate what roles commitment and satisfaction play within the expatriate performance model, these variables should be tested to determine where practitioners should most effectively place their resources: to improve adjustment, commitment, or satisfaction in order to achieve the required performance levels. A conceptual discussion on the relevant

differential predictors of adjustment, psychological contract violation, commitment, and satisfaction and the roles that these variables play in improving expatriate performance would pave the way for future meaningful empirical research which would then encourage efficient and effective allocation of resources in the management of expatriates.

Organisational Level Performance

Implications for organisational level performance have not been addressed in this research. The bridge between individual-level analysis in organisational research to company level analysis has not been attempted here but is supported by evidence in many studies of a link between investments in human resource practices and organisational performance (Fey, Morgulis-Yakushev, Park, & Björkman, 2009; Huselid, 1995). This relationship is implied in part to justify this research at a practical level. Further evidence of the relationships between expatriate support mechanisms, individual job performance and organisational outcomes would contribute to that bridging literature and to the expatriate domain and perhaps offer stronger justification for contextually appropriate expatriate management practices to be utilised in organisations.

Longitudinal Data Gathering

The call for longitudinal design studies is constant in the expatriate literature. After a time researchers must question the value in repeatedly calling for every causal model study to be designed as a longitudinal one. Orthodoxy requires that researchers acknowledge that cross-sectional design has limitations and longitudinal design will remove some of those limitations. If there was a view that longitudinal studies really did offer the value that the calls implied, then researchers would invest resources in them, as a few indeed do. Longitudinal design studies are difficult to conduct and resource. It is challenging enough to access adequate data for a cross-sectional study and the

additional resources required of a longitudinal design must not be viewed to be of requisite benefit or they would be done more frequently. In the end, if a sufficient number of well planned and rigorously designed longitudinal studies, that are representative of a broad population, are conducted thus allowing for an understanding of the temporal inference to be made, the research community should be able to reference these as sufficient evidence that the predictive models are probably sufficiently specified.

An area of research in this domain that would fruitfully benefit from concerted longitudinal study is the process of adjustment (Shaffer et al., 1999). The stages of adjustment proposed in this research obviously require further research to determine whether stages exist and then describe the typical stages that expatriates might move through. As proposed by Maertz and colleagues (2009), adjustment is not only a process of learning but incorporates resolution of internal inconsistencies which occur between one's own values, attitudes, behaviours, and norms and those of the host nation. Individuals use different coping methods in order to reduce acculturative stress (Maertz Jr et al., 2009) and thus the stages through which expatriates progress may be moderated by the efficacy of the different stress reduction strategies. To suggest, as the stages of adjustment measure used here assumes, that all expatriates follow a similar path towards adjustment with any variability being a function of time in the environment may be erroneous. Longitudinal studies could potentially find that stages of adjustment do occur (Maertz Jr et al., 2009) but may be contingent upon individual-level variables such as personality and coping styles.

Qualitative longitudinal studies which track the adjustment of a number of individuals over time such as seen in the auto-ethnographic account by Friedman (2009) may help the development of theory in a number of ways. It would add inordinate value

to the field by describing the process and individual stages, and by determining the critical incidents and variables that influence the process.

Sample – Independent Expatriates and Others

Due to the changing nature of the expatriate it is now incumbent upon the academic community to widen the target sample beyond the traditional expatriate working for a multinational corporation (Harrison et al., 2004). Independent expatriates also require support and in many cases the organisations that hire them may not have the expertise or understanding of the influences on the performance of overseas workers. Neither might they have the resources that multinationals have to support those expatriates. This study suggests that not all support mechanisms are equally worthy of attention but some may be well within the resource limitations of small to medium enterprises to offer to their independent or localised expatriate workforce. Alternatively, independent expatriates, typically self-sufficient, may appreciate having a better understanding of what might influence their own work performance and where they should focus their own resources to improve job outcomes. Incorporating a number of expatriate types in future research will help clarify important influences on expatriate job outcomes and develop a literature to cover little studied expatriate populations.

The limitations of generalisability due to sample type, delimitations, and size suggest that further research incorporating a design of similar complexity in multiple locations, with multiple nationalities, and delineating expatriate type is required before the relationships found and theories discussed in this research are able to be confirmed. Deller stated that comparative studies on expatriates of different nationalities in different host countries did not exist (1997). To some extent this has been alleviated over the last decade but still the overwhelming number of expatriate studies focus on accessing a large number of expatriates and thus do not limit the nationality nor the country where they are being hosted (note Selmer et al., 2009 for a recent exception).

Amongst the 43 studies examined for response rate figures reported in chapter 3, the majority of studies prior to 2001 focused on American expatriates on assignment in a number of different countries. Since Selmer started publishing in earnest in the early 2000s the literature has begun to diversify in terms of sampling so that we are seeing more studies focusing on expatriates in various countries in Asia or, to a lesser extent, expatriates from one country on assignment in one other country, i.e., Japanese expatriates in the US (Takeuchi, Yun, & Russell, 2002), or Australian expatriates in Thailand (Clegg & Gray, 2002). These studies concentrating on single origin expatriates on assignment in one country have the potential to offer comparative analysis that not only suggest that contingency theories can be tested but offer invaluable insight into the generalisability of the theories presented in the literature to date.

Both narrowly focused and comparative studies will offer greater value to practitioners who are dealing with the everyday realities of expatriates in contexts that differ enormously. These contexts may require quite different responses and the academic literature has been relatively silent on the specific expatriate management practices and policies that might be required of each environment. For instance, although foreign language ability has been generally mooted in the literature as essential to success on assignment, expatriates in some countries where English is not the native language such as Hong Kong will manage extremely well without Cantonese, whereas, expatriates in Tokyo would do much better to learn Japanese. There are always characteristics of an environment that negate or exaggerate the hypotheses and recommendations from the expatriate literature. More research on specific combinations of expatriate origin and assignment location together with expatriate type will build depth into the literature which is lacking at present. Tsui recommended this highly contextualised, context specific approach to cross-cultural and cross-national research (Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007). Tsui's indigenous approach aims to develop new theories

in novel contexts rather than to test the applicability of over-arching theories across contexts. With this depth and specificity organisations which do not manage expatriates globally, or even regionally, but within one or two countries and thus do not benefit greatly from the overarching theories will begin to eek value from recommendations and findings specific to their needs.

The literature predicting expatriate performance requires a number of elements and structure to build solid theory and understanding of what predicts expatriate performance across contexts. Each stage of the expatriate life-cycle (selection, training and preparation, ongoing support, and career pathing) offer large fields of study which will require dedicated research efforts as well as integration of those areas. Each area requires reliable and valid measures; many of these are already available in the literature. In the selection area biographical influences, personality and trait profiling along with family influences require criterion-related validation in their prediction of performance in diverse situations. To determine the training requirements of various performance components both a clear understanding of performance requirements and what content and type of training would impact upon each needs to be defined. How person- and context-specific variables influence the outcomes is also important. The same level of analysis will be required of the study of ongoing support and career pathing. How other variables relevant to each stage in the process such as commitment variables, motivational variables, cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction, perceived cultural distance, and the incorporation of and relationships with other expatriate management outcomes such as turnover are also crucial to the understanding of how companies can eek out the best return on investment.

This SARs research has taken a macro view of the influence of each stage of the expatriate life-cycle in a tightly defined context. Now it is time to fill in the detail of each stage. From the specifics will eventually be built an integrated picture of what is

required of the expatriate management process. The specifics of each environmental circumstance need to be explored (de Cueto, 2004) as well as a broad view of the expatriate domain across countries and cultures and expatriate types offered. Together this will offer practitioners and academics a template to begin to understand the general principals and theories underlying the relationships and a guide to the exceptions which may occur under different contexts and with different individuals. This is a contextual and contingent view of the domain. Without such a view, the practitioner and research literature will continue to generalise findings from contexts that are not generalisable. The project is large and one which is currently occurring as the academic research community gathers the pieces of the expatriate puzzle together. Being cognisant of where a specific piece of research fits will assemble the whole more swiftly and guide our collective efforts.

Summary of Contributions and Conclusion

This research started with two major goals: (a) to define expatriate performance and (b) to determine what influences that performance. The strong theoretical foundation of Campbell's (1990) taxonomy and theory of performance has been confirmed through reference back to a sample of the expatriate population in the Special Administrative Regions of China in both qualitative and quantitative data collection. This was done to ameliorate the criticism often applied to the literature that it is conceptual and deductive in nature and often not based upon empirical evidence. The views gleaned through interviews were used to develop the expatriate performance scale which was then further utilised in an extensive questionnaire survey on a larger sample of expatriates (106) and their supervisors (24). From a theoretical perspective, the definition of performance utilised in this research distinguishes between components of performance and contributors to performance through the utilisation of a clear set of criteria upon which components of performance have been chosen: Cross-cultural

adjustment and other inputs to performance have been isolated from the definition of performance, thus clarifying the expatriate performance domain. The scale development and validation process resulted in an amended model of expatriate performance with six components: job-specific task performance, communication performance, demonstrating effort, maintaining personal discipline, teamwork and leadership performance, and management and administration performance. Further, this theoretical and empirical study contributes to earlier research by refuting the oft stated need for expatriate specific components of expatriate performance and positioning those elements as contributors of performance, or acknowledging them as performance components which are simply highly influenced by expatriate specific antecedents.

The antecedents of performance were derived from the literature in the domain but with emphasis on the adjustment literature due to the historical focus on this variable. These antecedents were also confirmed through interviews with the expatriates and their supervisors. With the anticipation that this research would have practical significance, emphasis was placed on elements that organisations had potential to control and thus organisational support variables weighed heavily in the list. The analysis of the data from the questionnaire survey offered insight into important variables that organisations could focus on to improve performance in the six areas.

The scope of the research has been delineated and thus, although the findings are not likely to be representative of the expatriate population as a whole, it has allowed for a highly contextualised analysis of influences upon expatriate performance. This research contributes by questioning many of the assumptions and personal views held by those in the field. It offers alternative explanations for the relationships found, such as the negative correlations between practical support and performance components, and by the addition of career commitment, psychological contract violation and adjustment effort into the models of expatriate performance. It also presents an

alternative conceptualisation of expatriate performance. This has first been achieved by defining expatriate performance as behaviours that are required of individuals to achieve the goals of the organisation thereby presenting expatriate specificity as a function of the model as a whole rather than merely the content of the performance criteria. Secondly, the development of a six component measure of performance offers an additional tool to researchers in the domain.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A – Interview questions..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix B – Consent Form ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix C – Demographic questions..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix D – Expatriate questionnaire ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix E – Supervisor questionnaire ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix F – Response rates: 43 empirical studies..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix G - Language and previous experience as they relate to components of performance. ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix H – Bootstrapping for mediation ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix I - The Moderating Role of Psychological Contract Type: Analysis using breach scales ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix J – Moderated regression analysis: the moderating role of career commitment ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix K – Hierarchical regression analysis: selection as a predictor of cross-cultural adjustment ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix L – Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Training as a Predictor of Cross-Cultural Adjustment ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix M – Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Mentoring as a Predictor of Cross-Cultural Adjustment ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix N – Cronbach alpha reliability estimates, factor correlation coefficients and descriptive statistics ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Appendix A – Interview questions

Interview questions

Semi-structured interviews with expatriates and supervisors of expatriates in Japan, and repatriates in Australia, will focus on the following issues. These questions will be asked but additional questions may be put to elucidate and expand upon information offered. The aim is to maintain the natural flow of communication as this is more likely to extract matters of salience to the individuals.

I want to ensure that the models found in the theory reflect reality.
I need to know:

1. *Components of performance which are important to the stakeholders (expatriates and their supervisors)*
2. *What helps and what hinders the expatriate's performance (antecedents)*

Expatriates	*Supervisors*
1. What are the important components of performance which are under your control?	1. What are the important components of performance which are under your subordinates' control?
2. On what will you be measured?	2. On what will they be measured?
3. Are you measured on how you perform the technical aspects of your role? What are these?	3. Are they measured on how they perform the technical aspects of their role? What are these?
4. Are you measured on any other tasks that are also relevant to others (ie. Not specific to your own role)? What are these?	4. Are they measured on any other tasks that are also relevant to others (ie. Not specific to their own role)? What are these?
5. Are you measured on your ability to present to people and communicate effectively verbally and in writing?	5. Are they measured on their ability to present to people and communicate effectively verbally and in writing?
6. Are you measured on the effort you demonstrate everyday and when things get tough?	6. Are they measured on the effort they demonstrate everyday and when things get tough?
7. Are you measured on your ability to cope with stress? Both individual and group crises?	7. Are they measured on their ability to cope with stress? Both individual and group crises?
8. Are you measured on your encouragement and support of co-workers?	8. Are they measured on their encouragement and support of co-workers?
9. Are you measured on how you supervise and lead those working for you?	9. Are they measured on how you/they supervise and lead those working for them?
10. Are you measured on your administration and general management skills?	10. Are they measured on their administration and general management skills?
11. Is there anything that has constrained your performance?	11. Is there anything that you believe has constrained their performance?
12. What social or organisational support has helped you perform in your role here?	12. What social or organisational support has helped them perform in their role here?
13. Has the organisation met all the	13. -

obligations that you believe they promised you? 14. What individual skills or attributes have helped you perform in your role here? 15. Has anything else helped you working here in Japan? 16. What, in order of ranking, are the most important inputs into the assignment for your performance.	14. What individual skills or attributes your subordinates possess do you believe have helped them perform in their roles here? 15. Do you believe anything else has helped your subordinates working here in Japan? 16. What, in order of ranking, are the most important inputs into the assignment for your subordinates' performance.

Appendix B – Consent Form

Consent to Participate in Research via Interview

Project Title: Measures and causes of expatriate performance of Australians in Japan

I agree to take part in the above Monash University research project. I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the Explanatory Statement, which I keep for my records. I understand that agreeing to take part means that I am willing to:

- be interviewed by the researcher, and
- allow the interview to be audio-recorded

- ❑ I understand that any information I provide is confidential, and that no information that could lead to the identification of any individual will be disclosed in any reports on the project, or to any other party.

- ❑ I understand that I will be given a transcript of data concerning me for my approval before it is included in the write up of the research

- ❑ I also understand that my participation is voluntary, that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can withdraw at any stage of the project without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

Please tick the appropriate box:

- ❑ The information I provide can be used in further research projects which have ethics approval as long as my name and contact information is removed before it is given to them
- ❑ The information I provide cannot be used by other researchers without asking me first
- ❑ The information I provide cannot be used except for this project

Name:
Signature:

Appendix C – Demographic questions

Demographic questions about the expatriate:

Age:

Academic Level achieved:

Male/Female:

Partnered:

Dependents:

Manager/Non-manager:

Length of stay on assignment:

Length of time overseas:

Ethnicity/Family Background:

No. employees in organisation:

Cantonese fluency: None? greetings? Shopping? Social? Business? Read? Write?

Mandarin fluency: None? greetings? Shopping? Social? Business? Read? Write?

Do you like it here?

How long do you intend to stay?

Appendix D – Expatriate questionnaire

Write the **Survey Code Number** *generated from the website here:* _____

Influences on Expatriate Performance
Expatriate Questionnaire

All correspondence to:
Leanda Lee
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Aims and Scope of the Survey

Australian organisations, those with Australian interests and individuals are increasingly aware of the need to look overseas to ensure ongoing economic prosperity. Within this globalisation of industry and its workforce, organisations are interested in the issues which affect the successful utilisation of human resources. This study seeks to understand what particular organisational support practices and individual factors have the greatest influence on job performance of Australian expatriates.

Persons Approached – Australian expatriates living and working in Hong Kong and Macau

This study is completely voluntary. Of course, the more respondents, the better the research outcomes. The survey takes about 25 minutes to complete.

The responses are completely confidential to the researchers, and are analysed as a total group. Hence, **COMPLETE CONFIDENTIALITY** is assured and no responses are separately identifiable.

To complete the survey

It is very important that you read each item in the survey carefully. Please check that you have *selected the response that you intend* and that *all questions are answered.* If replying electronically, place a cross next to the number of your chosen response.

To return the Survey

You have a choice of survey format. You can either

1. print, complete and post this Word document questionnaire as per instructions at the end of the questionnaire

or

2. work on your computer: complete and email the survey to leanda.lee@buseco.monash.edu.au

Thank you for your help and assistance in completing this survey
Yours sincerely
Leanda Lee

In Confidence
The responses to this questionnaire will be held in **STRICTEST CONFIDENCE** and data will be published in aggregate form only. The biographical data are crucial to this study and, therefore, we would ask that you complete each question. Please answer the following questions by typing "X" next to the most appropriate response, or filling in the blanks, and check your answer.

Completion and return of the survey implies your consent to participate in this research project.

SECTION 1 – BACKGROUND

1. What is your gender?

Female	1
Male	2

2. What is your age?

Under 19	1
20-24	2
25-29	3
30-34	4
35-39	5
40-44	6
45-49	7
50-54	8
55-59	9
60-64	10
65 or over	11

3. Is your partner with you on assignment?

Yes	1
No	2
I do not have a partner	3

4. Do you have dependents that live with you on assignment?

Yes	1
No	2
I do not have dependents	3

5. Would your organisation most describe you as a:

Non-supervisor/non-manager	1
Supervisor/Leading hand/Foreman	2
Lower level manager	3
Middle level manager	4
Senior level manager	5
Executive	6
General Manager	7
CEO/President	8

6. So that we can gauge your level within your organisation, please tell us:

How many levels are there?.....

What is your level from the top?.....

7. When did your current assignment commence?

Month _____ Year _____

8. What is the total length of time that you have spent overseas during your life (including holidays and current assignment)?

Months _____ Years _____

9. What is your ethnicity/family background? (Select the one you most associate with)

Examples of Other - please specify are: GREEK, VIETNAMESE, HMONG, DUTCH, KURDISH, MAORI, LEBANESE, AUSTRALIAN SOUTH SEA ISLANDER.

English	1
Irish	2
Italian	3
German	4
Chinese	5
Scottish	6
Other – Please specify	

10. What is approximately the total number of employees in your organisation in the host country?

Less than 100	1
101-200	2
201-500	3
501-1000	4
1001-2000	5
2001-4000	6
4001-8000	7
More than 8000	8

11. What is your highest level of Cantonese language fluency?

None	1
I can greet people	2
I can go shopping or take a taxi in Cantonese	3
I can socialise in Cantonese	4
I can conduct business in Cantonese.	5

12. What is your highest level of Mandarin language fluency?

None	1
I can greet people	2
I can go shopping or take a taxi in Mandarin	3
I can socialise in Mandarin	4
I can conduct business in Mandarin	5

13. In what country is your current assignment based?

Hong Kong	1
Macau	2
Other – please specify	

14. In what country is your organisation's head office?

Australia	1
Hong Kong	2
Macau	3
Other – please specify	

15. How many expatriate positions have you held previously?

None	0
One	1
Two	2
Three	3
Four	4
Five or more	5

16. Which of the following best describes your current assignment?

Employed by an Australian organisation and posted on current assignment (traditional expatriate)	1
Employed by an overseas organisation (other than Australian) and posted on current assignment	2
Locally employed with a local organisation	3
Locally employed with a multi-national organisation	4
Contractor or self-employed	5
Other – please specify	

17. Please indicate your HIGHEST level of education completed

Secondary school	1
Technical College course	2
Under graduate: Associate Diploma	3
Diploma	4
Degree	5
Postgraduate: Diploma/Honours	6
Masters Degree	7
Doctorate	8

18. What is your annual taxable income (if in another currency, please convert to approximate Australian dollars)?

Less than AU$50,000	1
$50,000 - $75,000	2
$75,001 - $100,000	3
$100,001 - $150,000	4
$150,001 - $200,000	5
$200,001 - $350,000	6
$350,001 - $500,000	7
More than $500,000	8

19. How many people report to you?

None	0
1-5	1
6-20	2
21-50	3
51-100	4
101-500	5
501-1,000	6
Great than 1,000	7

SECTION 2 – SELECTION, TRAINING AND SUPPORT

20. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of these statements.

	Existing expatriate practices in this organisation involve:	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
(i)	Expatriates in the decision to send them overseas.	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	A valid and reliable system that identifies and selects appropriate managers for overseas business locations.	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	An understanding of the skills and competencies necessary for effective performance in its offshore business locations.	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	Appointment based on a person's technical expertise ahead of any other criteria.	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Appointments based on ability to function in cross-cultural work / social environments ahead of other criteria	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	A variety of selection techniques (such as interviews, bio-data, standardised tests, work samples, and assessment centres.)	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	A range of expert opinion in the appointment of expatriates (such as human resource managers, the host country manager, a career sponsor, and executive staff, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	Considerable time and energy in ensuring the right person is appointed	1	2	3	4	5
(ix)	An examination of a person's belief that they have the ability to perform effectively in a foreign culture.	1	2	3	4	5
(x)	Assessing the type, quantity and quality of a person's business experience prior to an overseas appointment	1	2	3	4	5
(xi)	Staff being fully informed about job and performance expectations prior to departure/commencement.	1	2	3	4	5
(xii)	A database of information on staff and skill requirements for overseas appointments	1	2	3	4	5
(xiii)	An assessment of a person's need to speak the host language.	1	2	3	4	5
(xiv)	Families in the decision to send/locate/accept them overseas.	1	2	3	4	5
(xv)	Written policies for expatriate selection which go beyond selection for technical skills.	1	2	3	4	5

21. Please indicate your extent of agreement or disagreement with each of these statements.

	Existing expatriate practices in this organisation involve:	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
(i)	Appropriate opportunities to practice required behaviours prior to an overseas appointment	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	Systematic pre-departure/pre-assignment training to meet the cultural demands of operating in a cross-cultural work environment	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	Systematic pre-departure/pre-assignment training to meet the business demands of operating in a cross-cultural work environment	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	A formal business induction program within 2 months of arrival in the foreign location	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Training and development during an off-shore appointment that is relevant to current career needs.	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	Training and development during an off-shore appointment that is relevant to future career needs.	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	A variety of training experiences (such as simulations, role plays, case studies, films, lectures etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	Opportunities for language training.	1	2	3	4	5

22. Please indicate which of the following most readily describes the type of training you received to prepare you for overseas work. Please choose only one:

(i)	None	0
(ii)	Environmental briefing - information about the geography, climate, housing, schools	1
(iii)	Cultural orientation - information about the cultural institutions, value systems about the host country	2
(iv)	Cultural assimilator - brief episodes describing intercultural encounters	3
(v)	Language training	4
(vi)	Sensitivity training to develop attitudinal flexibility	5
(vii)	Field experience	6

23. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of these statements.

	My organisation has been effective in providing:	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
(i)	Recommendation of suitable removal/storage companies	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	Financial investment advice	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	Advice on management of any property in Australia	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	Banking and bill-paying arrangements after relocation	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Accommodation upon arrival	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	Assistance with permanent accommodation	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	A vehicle	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	Further cultural awareness training.	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	Suitable amount of time to adjust to the new environment before work commenced	1	2	3	4	5
(xi)	Orientation activities for partners	1	2	3	4	5
(xii)	A local contact to assist partners in adjustment to the new environment	1	2	3	4	5

24. Please indicate the degree to which the condition existed for you.

		Very false	False	Some-what false	Neither true nor false	Some-what true	True	Very True
(i)	I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii)	There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii)	I know that I have divided my time properly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iv)	I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(v)	I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vi)	Explanation is clear as to what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25. Mentors can encompass a number of people who give you vocational or psychosocial support. It does not have to be a formally appointed mentor.
To what extent has a mentor:

		Not at all	To a small extent	To some extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
(i)	Given or recommended you for challenging assignments that present opportunities to learn new skills?	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	Given or recommended you for assignments that required personal contact with managers in different parts of the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	Given or recommended you for assignments that increased your contact with higher level managers?	1	2	3	4	5

25. Mentors can encompass a number of people who give you vocational or psychosocial support. It does not have to be a formally appointed mentor.
To what extent has a mentor:

		Not at all	To a small extent	To some extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
(iv)	Given or recommended you for assignments that helped you meet new colleagues?	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Helped you finish assignments/tasks or meet deadlines that otherwise would have been difficult to complete?	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	Protected you from working with other managers or work units before you knew about their likes/dislikes, opinions on controversial topics, and the nature of the political environment?	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	Gone out of his/her way to promote your career interests?	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	Kept you informed of what is going on at higher levels in the organisation or how external conditions are influencing the organisation?	1	2	3	4	5
(ix)	Conveyed feelings of respect for you as an individual?	1	2	3	4	5
(x)	Conveyed empathy for the concerns and feelings you have discussed with him/her?	1	2	3	4	5
(xi)	Encouraged you to talk openly about anxiety and fears that detract from your work?	1	2	3	4	5
(xii)	Shared personal experiences as an alternative perspective to your problem?	1	2	3	4	5
(xiii)	Discussed your questions or concerns regarding feelings of competence, commitment to advancement, relationships with peers and supervisors or work/family conflicts?	1	2	3	4	5
(xiv)	Shared history of his/her career with you?	1	2	3	4	5
(xv)	Encouraged you to prepare for advancement?	1	2	3	4	5
(xvi)	Encouraged you to try new ways of behaving on the job?	1	2	3	4	5
(xvii)	Served as a role model?	1	2	3	4	5
(xviii)	Displayed attitudes and values similar to your own?	1	2	3	4	5

26. Please indicate your extent of agreement or disagreement with each of these statements.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
(i)	I'm not sure that accepting this overseas assignment will be good for my career in the long run.	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	I can see how the skills I'm developing in this assignment will be useful to me later in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	I probably could have moved up the corporate ladder faster if I had stayed in a domestic assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	In terms of my career path in this company, this expatriate assignment makes a lot of sense.	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Sometimes I feel like this expatriate assignment might not be very good for my career.	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	I'm not sure how this particular overseas assignment is going to help me later in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	This expatriate assignment is going to open up lots of doors for me in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	This expatriate assignment was the logical next step in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
(ix)	I know how this expatriate assignment fits into my overall career.	1	2	3	4	5

26. Please indicate your extent of agreement or disagreement with each of these statements.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
(x)	This expatriate assignment really positions me well to get a good job when I got back home.	1	2	3	4	5
(xi)	All in all, this expatriate assignment will be good for my career in terms of advancement and career mobility.	1	2	3	4	5
(xii)	I'd probably have a better chance of getting promoted soon if I weren't in a foreign assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
(xiii)	This expatriate assignment has helped me develop important skills that will be useful to me later in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
(xiv)	This expatriate assignment fits in logically to my career path.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 3 – INTERNATIONAL WORK AND LIFE

27. Please indicate the degree to which you are adjusted or not to the following:

How adjusted are you to:		Very unadjusted	Unadjusted	Slightly unadjusted	Neither	Slightly adjusted	Adjusted	Very well adjusted
(i)	living conditions in general?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii)	housing conditions?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii)	food?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iv)	shopping?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(v)	the cost of living?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vi)	entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vii)	health care facilities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(viii)	socialising with host nationals?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ix)	interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(x)	interacting with host nationals outside of work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xi)	speaking with host nationals?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xii)	specific job responsibilities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xiii)	performance standards and expectations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xiv)	supervisory responsibilities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

28. Please indicate how much effort was required to adjust to the level you are at now

How much effort was required to adjust to		None	A small amount	Some	A large amount	A very large amount
(i)	living conditions in general?	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	housing conditions?	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	food?	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	shopping?	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	the cost of living?	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities?	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	health care facilities?	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	socialising with host nationals?	1	2	3	4	5
(ix)	interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis?	1	2	3	4	5
(x)	interacting with host nationals outside of work?	1	2	3	4	5
(xi)	speaking with host nationals?	1	2	3	4	5
(xii)	specific job responsibilities?	1	2	3	4	5
(xiii)	performance standards and expectations?	1	2	3	4	5
(xiv)	supervisory responsibilities?	1	2	3	4	5

29. The following paragraphs describe a person's reaction to a new situation, like an expatriate's reaction to their new assignment location.

Please select the paragraph below that best describes how you have generally perceived your reaction to your assignment this last month. Please choose only one:

(i)	You are fascinated by the new culture and excited by all the new and interesting sights and sounds. You perceive people around you to be friendly and helpful.	1
(ii)	You must cope with the frustration of living in the new culture on a day to day basis. You sometimes have a hostile and aggressive attitude towards the host country. This hostility evidently grows out of the genuine difficulty which you experience in the process of adjustment. There might be maid trouble, school trouble, transportation trouble, shopping trouble, immigration and other bureaucratic troubles. Most locals seem to be indifferent to these frustrations. You find comfort with others like yourself and sometimes find yourself criticizing the locals or the host country.	2
(iii)	You find yourself gradually adapting to the new culture and are learning how to behave appropriately according to the cultural norms of the host country. You have obtained some cultural and language knowledge and begin to get around more easily although you still have difficulties. But things are getting better and you find your sense of humour. You have more confidence in your ability to speak and get around and you find that you might be helping new comers.	3
(iv)	You accept the customs of the country as just another way of living. You can operate within this environment without a feeling of anxiety although there are still moments of strain. You have small incremental increases in your ability to function effectively in the new culture. You are beginning to enjoy the host country's food, drinks, habits and customs and might even miss some of these when you visit home.	4

30. Please indicate the extent to which you believe your employer was obligated to provide:

		Not at all				Very highly obligated
(i)	Rapid advancement	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	High pay	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	Pay based upon current level of performance	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	Training	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Long term job security	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	Career development	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	Support with personal problems	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	Is there any other obligation which you believe your employer was obligated to provide? Please specify what it is:					
	To what extent is the employer obligated to provide this?	1	2	3	4	5

31. Please indicate how well your employer has fulfilled the obligations:

		Very well fulfilled	Somewhat fulfilled	Neutral	Somewhat unfulfilled	Very poorly fulfilled
(i)	Rapid advancement	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	High pay	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	Pay based upon current level of performance	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	Training	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Long term job security	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	Career development	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	Support with personal problems.	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	The other obligation noted in the above question, if any.	1	2	3	4	5

32. Please indicate -

		Very poorly fulfilled	Poorly fulfilled	Neutral or n/a	Fulfilled	Very well fulfilled
(i)	How well, overall, has your employer fulfilled the promised obligations that you believe they owe you?	1	2	3	4	5

33. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
(i)	I feel betrayed by my organization.	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	I feel that my organisation has violated the contract between us.	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	I feel a great deal of anger toward my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my organization	1	2	3	4	5

34. Indicate how similar the host country and Australia are on the following characteristics:

		Not at all similar	Slightly similar	Some-what similar	Similar	Very similar
(i)	Everyday customs that must be followed.	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	General living conditions	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	Health care facilities	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	Transportation systems used in the country	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	General cost of living	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	Available quality and types of food	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	Climate	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	General housing conditions	1	2	3	4	5

35. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree or disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
(i)	If I could get another job different from this field and paying the same amount. I would probably take it.	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	I definitely want a career for myself in this field of work.	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	If I could do it all over again, I would not choose to work in this profession.	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	If I had all the money I needed without working, I would probably still continue to work in this profession.	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	I like this vocation too well to give it up.	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	This is the ideal vocation for a life work.	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	I am disappointed that I ever entered this profession.	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	I spend a significant amount of personal time reading journals or books related to this profession.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 4 – INDIVIDUAL WORK PERFORMANCE

Please rate your own performance on the following dimensions by selecting the appropriate number where:

1 = Unsatisfactory or Poor
2 = Not very good or Below Average
3 = Moderate or Average
4 = Very good or Above Average
5 = Exceptional or Outstanding

Please rate how important you believe these behaviours are to achieving organisational goals. Please select the appropriate number where:

1 = Not at all important
2 = Not very important
3 = Somewhat important
4 = Important
5 = Very important

36.

	In your work you	Poor	Below average	Average	Above average	Outst-anding	Not at all important	Not very important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
(i)	Demonstrate expertise in the technical aspects of your role	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(ii)	Perform tasks that are expected of you but are not specific to the job.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(iii)	Effectively inform leaders, team-mates and direct reports	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(iv)	Show dedication to the organisational goals	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(v)	Effectively convey ideas verbally	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(vi)	Show proficiency in general tasks expected of all employees at your level	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(vii)	Meet specific job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(viii)	Model appropriate behaviours	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(ix)	Ensure that subordinates receive proper development	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(x)	Meet formal performance requirements of the job	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xi)	Comply with organisational values and policies	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xii)	Make appropriate decisions when problems occur	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xiii)	Effectively convey ideas in writing	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xiv)	Your activities support the team's goals	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xv)	Persevere when times are tough	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xvi)	Volunteer to carry out tasks that are not formally part of your own job	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xvii)	Influence subordinates to achieve goals set for them	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xviii)	Consistently meet deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xix)	Follow regulations and respect authority	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xx)	Maintain good working relationships	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxi)	Encourage and foster cooperation among team members	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxii)	Have appropriate ways to alleviate stress	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxiii)	Represent the company positively to others not in the organization	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxiv)	Organise and control the utilisation of human resources	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxv)	Show proficiency in financial, quantitative and other types of analysis common to employees at his level	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxvi)	Appropriately vent frustrations	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxvii)	Fulfil the responsibilities defined in the job description	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxviii)	Present own position clearly and decisively	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxix)	Meet the job objectives	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

	In your work you	Poor	Below average	Average	Above average	Outst-anding	Not at all important	Not very important	Some-what import-ant	Important	Very importa nt
(xxx)	Argue effectively for own position when appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxi)	Display a personal concern for direct reports	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxii)	Volunteer to do additional tasks for the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxiii)	Plan, program and organise work	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxiv)	Complete assigned duties	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxv)	Persist to reach goals	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxvi)	Refrain from complaining about insignificant things	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxvii)	Facilitate peer and team performance	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxviii)	Persuade others to accept ideas	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxix)	Do things to help and support your team-mates	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xl)	Teach and coach direct reports	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xli)	Organise and control utilisation of non-human resources	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xlii)	Act appropriately even under stress	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xliii)	Have effective communicative exchanges	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xliv)	Undertake administrative duties	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xlv)	Effectively manage risk (including financial and occupational health and safety)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xlvi)	Consistently demonstrate effort	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xlvii)	Manage the utilisation of time	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xlviii)	Effectively develop and maintain relationships beyond your immediate team and colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

1. **Please request your supervisor to complete the shorter supervisor questionnaire found at the same website. If you have no supervisor or they are unwilling or unable to complete the matching questionnaire, we still want your response.**
2. **Please give your supervisor the questionnaire code number which you have placed on the front of this questionnaire so that we can link your responses.**

Before you return the survey would you please check that

1. you have answered all questions and 2. there is a survey code on the front page.

Email to leanda.lee@buseco.monash.edu.au

If you wish to print the survey and send by post:

From HONG KONG, please reply (POST-FREE) to

Leanda Lee - Monash University
C/- G.Baird
Freepost No. 10
GPO Box 202
Central, Hong Kong

From MACAU, please contact Leanda on +853 6658 9869 or leanda.lee@buseco.monash.edu.au **for collection, or mail with a stamp to**

Leanda Lee - Monash University
Rua de Seng Tou, 313
EDF Orquidea Block 21, Level 15, Flat D
Taipa, Macau

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Should you have any complaint concerning the manner in which this research (2006/932LIR) is conducted, please do not hesitate to contact the Monash University Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans at the following address:

The Secretary
The Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (SCERH)
Building 3D
Research Grants & Ethics Branch
Monash University VIC 3800
Tel: +61 3 9905 2052 Fax: +61 3 9905 1420 Email: scerh@adm.monash.edu.au

Appendix E – Supervisor questionnaire

Write the **Survey Code Number** *obtained from your expatriate here:* _____

Influences on Expatriate Performance
Supervisor Questionnaire

All correspondence to:
Leanda Lee
PhD Candidate, Department of Management
Faculty of Business and Economics
(*Field work address*) Rua de Seng Tou, 313
EDF Orquidea Block 21, Level 15, Flat D
Taipa, Macau S.A.R. China

Telephone: +853 2883 7291
Fax: +853 2883 7291
Email: Leanda.lee@buseco.monash.edu.au

Aims and Scope of the Survey

Australian organisations, those with Australian interests and individuals are increasingly aware of the need to look overseas to ensure ongoing economic prosperity. Within this globalisation of industry and its workforce, organisations are interested in the issues which affect the successful utilisation of human resources. This study seeks to understand what particular organisational support practices and individual factors have the greatest influence on job performance of Australian expatriates.

Persons Approached – **Supervisors of Australian Expatriates living and working in Hong Kong and Macau. Supervisors can be of any nationality for this survey.**

This study has been given to you by an expatriate that you manage. This research aims to obtain your view of the assignment and how it is influenced.

This study is completely voluntary. Of course, the more expatriate/supervisor paired surveys we can obtain, the better the research outcomes. The survey takes about 15 minutes to complete.

The responses are completely confidential to the researchers, and are analysed as a total group. Hence, **COMPLETE CONFIDENTIALITY** is assured and no responses are separately identifiable.

To complete the survey

It is very important that you read each item in the survey carefully. Please check that you have *selected the response that you intend* and that *all questions are answered.* If replying electronically, place a cross next to the number of your chosen response.

To return the Survey

You have a choice of survey format. You can either

1. print, complete and post this Word document questionnaire as per instructions at the end of the questionnaire

or

2. work on your computer: complete and email the survey to leanda.lee@buseco.monash.edu.au

Thank you for your help and assistance in completing this survey

Yours sincerely
Leanda Lee

In Confidence

The responses to this questionnaire will be held in **STRICTEST CONFIDENCE** and data will be published in aggregate form only. The biographical data are crucial to this study and, therefore, we would ask that you complete each question. Please answer the following questions by typing "x" next to the most appropriate response, or filling in the blanks, and check your answer.

Completion and return of the survey implies your consent to participate in this research project.

SECTION 1 – BACKGROUND

1. What is your gender?

Female..... 1
Male..... 2

2. What is your age?

Under 19..... 1
20-24..... 2
25-29..... 3
30-34..... 4
35-39..... 5
40-44..... 6
45-49..... 7
50-54..... 8
55-59..... 9
60-64..... 10
65 or over..... 11

3. Would your organisation most describe you as a:

Supervisor/Leading hand/Foreman..... 1
Lower level manager..... 2
Middle level manager..... 3
Senior level manager..... 4
Executive..... 5
General Manager..... 6
CEO/President 7

4. When did you join your current organisation?

Month _____ Year _____

5. How long have you been managing expatriates?

Months _____ Years _____

6. In what country are you based?

Australia..... 1
Hong Kong..... 2
Macau..... 3
Other – please specify _____

7. What is your ethnicity/family background? (Select the one you most associate with)

Examples of Other - please specify are: GREEK, VIETNAMESE, HMONG, DUTCH, KURDISH, MAORI, LEBANESE, AUSTRALIAN SOUTH SEA ISLANDER.

English..... 1
Irish..... 2
Italian..... 3
German..... 4
Chinese..... 5
Scottish..... 6
Other – Please specify _____

8. What is your highest level of Cantonese language fluency?

None..... 1
I can greet people..... 2
I can go shopping or take a taxi in Cantonese..... 3
I can socialise in Cantonese..... 4
I can conduct business in Cantonese. 5

9. What is your highest level of Mandarin language fluency?

None..... 1
I can greet people..... 2
I can go shopping or take a taxi in Mandarin..... 3
I can socialise in Mandarin..... 4
I can conduct business in Mandarin.... 5

10. Please indicate your HIGHEST level of education completed

Secondary school..... 1
Technical College course..... 2
Under graduate: Associate Diploma.. 3
Diploma..... 4
Degree..... 5
Postgraduate: Diploma/Honours..... 6
Masters Degree..... 7
Doctorate..... 8

SECTION 3 – INTERNATIONAL WORK AND LIFE

11. Please indicate the degree to which the expatriate appears to be adjusted or not to the following:

How adjusted is the expatriate to:	Very unadjusted	Unadjusted	Slightly unadjusted	Neither	Slightly adjusted	Adjusted	Very well adjusted
(i) living conditions in general?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ii) housing conditions?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iii) food?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(iv) shopping?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(v) cost of living?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vi) entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(vii) health care facilities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(viii) socialising with host nationals?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(ix) interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(x) interacting with host nationals outside of work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xi) speaking with host nationals?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xii) specific job responsibilities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xiii) performance standards and expectations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
(xiv) supervisory expectations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. The following paragraphs describe a person's reaction to a new situation, like an expatriate's reaction to their new assignment location.

Please select the paragraph below that best describes how you perceive the expatriate's general reaction to their situation this last month.

(i)	The expatriate is fascinated by the new culture and excited by all the new and interesting sights and sounds. He/she appears to perceive people around him/her to be friendly and helpful.	1
(ii)	The expatriate must cope with the frustration of living in the new culture on a day to day basis. He/she sometimes has a hostile and aggressive attitude towards the host country. This hostility evidently grows out of the genuine difficulty which the experience in the process of adjustment. There might be maid trouble, school trouble, transportation trouble, shopping trouble, immigration and other bureaucratic troubles. He/she appears to feel that most locals are indifferent to these frustrations. The expatriate appears to find comfort with others like himself/herself and is sometimes found criticizing the locals or the host country.	2
(iii)	The expatriate appears to be gradually adapting to the new culture and is learning how to behave appropriately according to the cultural norms of the host country. He/she has obtained some cultural and language knowledge and is beginning to get around more easily although he/she still has difficulties. But things are getting better and he/she is finding a sense of humour. The expatriate has more confidence in his/her ability to speak and get around and might be helping new comers.	3
(iv)	The expatriate appears to accept the customs of the country as just another way of living. He/she can operate within this environment without a feeling of anxiety although there are still moments of strain. He/she has small incremental increases in the ability to function effectively in the new culture. The expatriate is beginning to enjoy the host country's food, drinks, habits and customs and might even miss some of these when visiting home.	4

SECTION 4 – INDIVIDUAL WORK PERFORMANCE

13. This section aims to measure the performance of your expatriate subordinate and the importance of these behaviours to achieving organisational goals.

Please rate the expatriate's performance by selecting the appropriate number on the following scale where:	Please rate how important you believe these behaviours are to achieving organisational goals. Please select the appropriate number where:
1 = Unsatisfactory or Poor 2 = Not very good or Below Average 3 = Moderate or Average 4 = Very good or Above Average 5 = Exceptional or Outstanding	1 = Not at all important 2 = Not very important 3 = Somewhat important 4 = Important 5 = Very important

	Poor	Below average	Average	Above average	Outst-anding	Not at all important	Not very important	Some-what import-ant	Important	Very import ant
(i) Demonstrate technical expertise	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(ii) Perform tasks that are expected of him/her but are outside his/her core role	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(iii) Effectively inform leaders, team-mates and direct reports	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(iv) Show dedication to the organisational goals	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(v) Effectively convey ideas verbally	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(vi) Show proficiency in general tasks expected of all employees at his/her level	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(vii) Meet specific job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(viii) Model appropriate behaviours	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(ix) Ensure that subordinates receive proper development	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(x) Meet formal performance requirements of the job	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xi) Comply with organisational values and policies	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xii) Make appropriate decisions when problems occur	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xiii) Effectively convey ideas in writing	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xiv) His/her activities support the team's goals.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xv) Persevere when times are tough	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xvi) Volunteer to carry out tasks that are not formally part of his/her job	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xvii) Influence subordinates to achieve goals set for them	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xviii) Consistently meet deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xix) Follow regulations and respect authority	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xx) Maintain good working relationships	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxi) Encourage and foster cooperation among team members	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxii) Have appropriate ways to alleviate stress	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxiii) Represent the company positively to others not in the organization	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxiv) Organise and control utilisation of human resources available to him/her	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxv) Show proficiency in financial, quantitative and other types of analysis common to employees at his level	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxvi) Appropriately vent frustrations	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxvii) Fulfil the responsibilities defined in the job description	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

		Poor	Below average	Average	Above average	Outst-anding	Not at all important	Not very important	Some-what import-ant	Important	Very import ant
(xxviii)	Present his/her position clearly and decisively	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxix)	Meet the job objectives	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxx)	Argue effectively for own position when appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxi)	Display a personal concern for direct reports	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxii)	Volunteer to do additional tasks for the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxiii)	Plan, program and organise work	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxiv)	Complete assigned duties	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxv)	Persist to reach goals	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxvi)	Refrain from complaining about insignificant things	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxvii)	Facilitate peer and team performance	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxviii)	Persuade others to accept ideas	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xxxix)	Do things to help and support his or her team-mates	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xl)	Teach and coach direct reports	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xli)	Organise and control utilisation of non-human resources	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
(xlii)	Act appropriately even under stress	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

In order to allow me to match your responses with the responses of the expatriate whom you supervise please ensure the questionnaire code from your expatriate is on the front of this questionnaire.

Before you return the survey would you please check that

1. **you have answered all questions and**
2. **there is a survey code on the front page.**

Email to leanda.lee@buseco.monash.edu.au

If you wish to print the survey and send by post:
From Hong Kong, please reply (Post-Free) to

Leanda Lee - Monash University
C/- G. Baird
Freepost No. 10
GPO Box 202
Central, Hong Kong

From Macau, please contact Leanda on +853 6658 9869 or leanda.lee@buseco.monash.edu.au **for collection, or mail with a stamp to**

Leanda Lee - Monash University
Rua de Seng Tou, 313
EDF Orquidea Block 21, Level 15, Flat D
Taipa, Macau

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS DETAILED QUESTIONNAIRE

Should you have any complaint concerning the manner in which this research (2006/932LIR) is conducted, please do not hesitate to contact the Monash University Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans at the following address:

The Secretary
The Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (SCERH)
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Tel: +61 3 9905 2052 Fax: +61 3 9905 1420 Email: scerh@adm.monash.edu.au

Appendix F – Response rates: 43 empirical studies

Table 44

Response rates reported in 43 empirical studies on expatriates

Author	Journal	Contact mode	Population sampled	n =	RR	Parent origin	Expatriate location	Main variable
(Sinangil & Ones, 2003)	Applied Psychology	Direct	Not reported	220	Not reported	25 countries	Turkey	Performance
(Arthur Andersen, 1997)	Arthur Andersen Consulting Report	Through company	802	409	51	?	?	Practices
(Davidson & Kinzel, 1995)	Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources	Through company	156	38	24.4	Australia	?	Practices
(Anderson, 1998).	Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources	Through company	200	72	36	Australia	SE Asia	Practices
(Robie & Ryan, 1996)	Education and Psychological Measurement	Direct	1020	153	15	USA	Taiwan & Belgium	Adjustment
(Caligiuri & Day, 2000)	Group & Organisation Management	Through company	282	96	34	USA	?	Performance
(Selmer, 1998)	Human Resource Management Journal	Direct	537	122	22.7	Western	China	Adjustment
(Liu & Shaffer, 2005)	Int. J. of Cross-cultural Management	Through other organisation	1461	147	10.06	Aust, US	Hong Kong and China	Performance
(Caligiuri & Tung, 1999)	Int. J. of Human Resource Management	Through company	280	98	35	USA	?	Performance
(Clegg & Gray, 2002)	Int. J. of Human Resource Management	Through other organisation	228	91	40	Australia	Thailand	Practices
(Eschbach et al., 2001)	Int. J. of Human Resource Management	Through company	250	47	18.8	USA	?	Practices
(Fish & Wood, 1996)	Int. J. of Human Resource Management	Through company	216	122	56.5	Australia	East Asia	Practices
(Harrison & Shaffer, 2005)	Int. J. of Human Resource Management	Through company	1379	193	14	Australia, NZ, America	?	Performance

(table continues)

Table 44 (continued)

Response rates reported in 43 empirical studies on expatriates

Author	Journal	Contact mode	Population sampled	n =	RR	Parent origin	Expatriate location	Main variable
(Huang et al., 2005)	Int. J. of Human Resource Management	Through other organisation	151	83	55	USA	Taiwan	Adjustment
(Selmer, 2005)	Int. J. of Human Resource Management	Through company	650	165	25.4	Western	China	Adjustment
(Stroh, 1995)	Int. J. of Human Resource Management	Through other organisation		51	Half reported	USA	?	Performance
(Suutari & Tahvanainen, 2002)	Int. J. of Human Resource Management	Through other organisation	734	301	41	Finland	?	Performance
(Farid & Buda, 1998)	Int. J. of Management	Through company	258	134	52	USA	?	Practices
(Shaffer et al., 1999)	J. of Int. Business Studies	Direct	1164	483	41.5	USA	45 countries	Adjustment
(Jun, Gentry, & Hyun, 2001)	J. of Int. Business Studies	Through company	1000	194	19.4	Korean	21 countries	Adjustment
(Shay & Baack, 2004)	J. of Int. Business Studies	Through company	311	224	72	32 countries	83 countries	Adjustment
(Birdseye & Hill, 1995)	J. of Int. Business Studies	Through company	644	116	18	USA	31 countries	Performance
(Gregersen et al., 1996)	J. of Int. Business Studies	Through company	387	58	15	USA	Various	Performance
(Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Through company	298	243	81.5	Japan	USA	Adjustment
(Garonzik, Brockner, & Siegel, 2000)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Through company	77	58	75	USA	20 countries	Performance
(Garonzik et al., 2000)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Through company	200	70	35	USA	45 countries	Performance
(Shaffer et al., 2006)	Journal of Applied Psychology	Through other organisation	1517	182	12	20 countries	Hong Kong	Performance
(Ong & Ward, 2005)	Journal Of Cross-cultural Psychology	Direct	Not reported	25	Not reported	English speaking	Singapore	Practices

(table continues)

Table 44 (continued)

Response rates reported in 43 empirical studies on expatriates

Author	Journal	Contact mode	Population sampled	n =	RR	Parent origin	Expatriate location	Main variable
(Gregersen & Black, 1996)	Journal of Management	Through company	270	173	64	Japan	37 countries	Others
(Kraimer & Wayne, 2004)	Journal of Management	Through company	584	339	58	USA	30 countries	Practices
(Stahl et al., 2002)	Journal of World Business	Through company	1168	549	47	German	59 countries	Others
(Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001)	Journal of World Business	Through company	176	58	33	USA & Canada	?	Practices
(Selmer, 2002)	Management International Review	Direct	1715	343	20	Western	Hong Kong	Adjustment
(Caligiuri, 1997)	New Approaches to Employee Management	Through company	267	115	43	USA	?	Performance
(Caligiuri, 1997)	New Approaches to Employee Management	Through company	273	82	30	USA	?	Performance
(Caligiuri, 1997)	New Approaches to Employee Management	Through company	290	87	30	USA	?	Performance
(Arthur & Bennett, 1995)	Personnel Psychology	Through company	356	338	95	20 countries	43 countries	Performance
(Caligiuri, 2000a)	Personnel Psychology	Through company	280	143	51	USA	?	Performance
(Kraimer et al., 2001)	Personnel Psychology	Through company	584	339	58	USA	30 countries	Performance
(Fish, 2005)	Personnel Review	Through company	1284	244	19	Australia	Hong Kong, Malaysia, S'pore	Adjustment
(Anderson, 2001)	Thunderbird Int. Business Review	Through other organisation	21	16	75	USA	?	Practices
(Anderson, 2001)	Thunderbird Int. Business Review	Through company	322	140	43.5	USA	?	Practices
(Sagiadellis & D'Netto, 1997)	Working paper, Monash University	Through company	599	112	18.7	Australia	?	Performance

Appendix G - Language and previous experience as they relate to components of performance.

Table 45

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Coefficients between Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Length overseas in months	84.51	75.30									
2. Previous expatriate positions	1.10	1.31	.38**								
3. Cantonese fluency	2.42	.99	.17	.12							
4. Mandarin fluency	1.79	1.01	.04	.07	.38**						
5. Task Performance	4.09	.53	.19	.13	-.03	.10					
6. Communication Performance	3.91	.54	.30**	.01	-.06	-.04	.61**				
7. Demonstrating effort	3.80	.79	.20*	.12	.09	.04	.32**	.26**			
8. Maintaining Self-discipline	3.94	.58	.11	-.05	.00	-.04	.61**	.55**	.33**		
9. Team and Leadership Performance	3.80	.52	.09	.15	.01	.07	.52**	.59**	.45**	.45**	
10. Management & Administration Performance	3.73	.55	.19*	.15	.03	.09	.45**	.48**	.34**	.42**	.61**

Note. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$. n = 106

Table 46

Multiple hierarchical regression analysis – language and previous experience.

	Task performance	Communication performance	Demonstrating effort	Maintaining self-discipline	Team and leadership performance	Management and administration performance.
Length overseas in months	0.18	0.37***	0.17	0.15	0.04	0.17
Previous expat positions	0.06	-0.12	0.05	-0.10	0.13	0.08
Cantonese fluency	-0.12	-0.11	0.06	0.00	-0.04	-0.05
Mandarin fluency	0.13	-0.01	0.00	-0.04	0.08	0.10
	df = (4,99)	*df* = (4,99)	*df* = (4,99)	*df* = (4,99)	*df* = (4,99)	*df* = (4,99)
F	1.55	3.30*	1.16	0.57	0.74	1.35
R^2	0.06	0.12	0.05	0.02	0.03	0.05
Adjusted R^2	0.02	0.08	0.01	-0.02	-0.01	0.01

$^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$. n = 106

Much of the literature suggests that local language fluency and previous experience are related to expatriate outcomes. Although not hypothesized in this research, the relationships found in the data from the SARs expatriate sample were explored due to the underlying assumptions of the important of language and experience posed by the selection questions. The aim was to determine whether the existence or lack of evidence for some of the relationships could elucidate upon the conflicting evidence in the empirical research to date.

Previous experience was measured in two ways consistent with operationalisations in the existing research: number of months that the expatriate had spent overseas in total during their lifetime and number of previous expatriate experiences. These variables are only moderately correlated ($\alpha = .38$, $p < .01$) suggesting that they do measure slightly different constructs (see Appendix G - Language and previous experience as they relate to components of performance). One scale measures the narrower experience of expatriate assignments and the other taps exposure to foreign cultures and/or places over time.

To test the relationships six separate standard regression analyses were conducted regressing each component of performance on the four independent variables (two language measures and two experience measures). The model regressing communication performance on the independent variables was the only model that significantly accounted for any variance in the criterion, $R^2 = .12$, $F(4, 99) = 3.30$, $p < .05$ (see Appendix G - Table 46). Of the four independent variables, the broader previous experience construct is the only one that accounts for any additional variance in performance (11%), specifically, communication performance ($\beta = .37$, $p < .001$). However, zero-order correlations between length of time spent overseas and demonstrating effort ($\alpha = .20$, $p < .05$) and management and administration

performance ($\alpha = .19$, $p < .05$) add some weight to the importance of overseas experience to components of expatriate job performance.

Learning theories might explain the relationships. It may be that expatriates who have a greater exposure to foreign cultures have learnt the requisite relational skills are able to perform more readily in foreign environments. Alternatively, personality or attitudes may explain the relationships. An individual who chooses to spend more time overseas might be open to new experiences and willing to become involved which makes performance easier. Naumann (1993) found that the more international experience (measured in years) an expatriate had, the more satisfied they became. Those who have spent longer overseas are also less likely to be traditional expatriates (expatriates with Australian companies ($\alpha = -.24$, $p < .05$) or expatriates with overseas companies ($\alpha = -.22$, $p < .05$)) and more likely to be non-traditional expatriates (self-employed ($\alpha = .27$, $p < .01$) or locally hired ($\alpha = .27$, $p < .01$)) which adds weight to trait and personality theories to explicate the findings.

Although local language ability has been deemed to be of importance to expatriate outcomes, particularly adjustment (Selmer, 2006; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001), this was not borne out in this study. English is widely used in the business environment in Hong Kong and Macau and thus knowledge of Cantonese or Mandarin, although useful, is not necessary. A consideration of the impact of language upon adjustment and job performance has, with few exceptions (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001), discussed the extent to which the native language of the expatriate is widely used. Within Japan or mainland China (Selmer, 2006), one would expect a greater necessity to learn Japanese or Chinese but in countries such as Singapore, where English is widely accepted as the lingua franca, local language ability may not

relate to expatriate outcomes. It is unsurprising, therefore, that no relationship between language ability and performance was found in this study.

Appendix H – Bootstrapping for mediation

Table 47

Indirect effects of psychological contract violation

Y	X	LL95CI	UL95CI	Mean	Z	sig
1TP	Selection	-0.0385	0.0699	.0163	.5679	.5701
1TP	Training	-0.0211	0.0886	.0240	.9950	.3197
1TP	Practical	0.0052	0.1624	.0772	1.90	.0580
1TP	Informative	-0.0496	0.0234	.0119	.5800	.5619
1TP	Affective	-0.0213	0.0547	.0134	.7168	.4735
1TP	Career Relevance	-0.0034	0.0052	.0007	.3443	.7306
3CP	Selection	-0.0442	0.0952	.0126	.3526	.7244
3CP	Training	-0.0322	0.0798	.0167	.6435	.5199
3CP	Practical	-0.0193	0.1401	.0592	1.4741	.1405
3CP	Informative	-0.0694	0.0289	-.0173	-.7442	.4568
3CP	Affective	-0.0259	0.0592	.0143	.7159	.4741
3CP	Career Relevance	-0.0044	0.0046	.0004	.2061	.8367
4DE	Selection	-0.0162	0.2229	.0733	1.4699	.1416
4DE	Training	-0.0115	0.1533	.0559	1.5761	.1150
4DE	Practical	-0.0011	0.2578	.1089	1.7533	.0796
4DE	Informative	-0.0437	0.1197	.0344	1.1213	.2622
4DE	Affective	-0.0235	0.1028	.0320	1.0988	.2718
4DE	Career Relevance	-0.0026	0.0121	.0037	1.1298	.2586
5MD	Selection	0.0066	0.2212	.0943	2.1566	.0310
5MD	Training	0.0106	0.1645	.0740	2.2442	.0248
5MD	Practical	0.0576	0.2344	.1356	2.8403	.0045
5MD	Informative	0.0047	0.1038	.0482	2.0700	.0384
5MD	Affective	0.0255	0.1177	.0659	2.5359	.0112
5MD	Career Relevance	0.0019	0.0146	.0070	2.3867	.0170
6TL	Selection	-0.0287	0.1189	.0269	.8823	.3776
6TL	Training	-0.0188	0.0889	.0272	1.1764	.2394
6TL	Practical	-0.0382	0.1382	.0485	1.1692	.2423

(table continues)

Table 47 (continued)

Indirect effects of psychological contract violation

Y	X	LL95CI	UL95CI	Mean	Z	sig
6TL	Informative	-0.0384	0.0518	.0046	.2483	.8039
6TL	Affective	-0.0107	0.0736	.0262	1.3000	.1936
6TL	Career Relevance	-0.0044	0.0050	.0003	.1524	.8789
8MA	Selection	-0.0245	0.1004	.0228	.6551	.5124
8MA	Training	-0.0210	0.0909	.0234	.9156	.3599
8MA	Practical	-0.0169	0.1480	.0539	1.3026	.1927
8MA	Informative	-0.0498	0.0408	-.0059	-.3768	.7063
8MA	Affective	-0.0143	0.0728	.0257	1.3047	.1920
8MA	Career Relevance	-0.0038	0.0057	.0005	.2760	.7825

Note 1TP = Task Performance; 3CP = Communication; 4DE= Demonstrating Effort; 5MD = Maintaining Personal Discipline; 6TL = Teamwork and Leadership Performance; 8MA = Management and Administration Performance.

LL 95 CI = 95% lower limit confidence interval; UL 95 CI = 95% upper limit confidence interval

Appendix I - The Moderating Role of Psychological Contract Type: Analysis using breach scales

Table 48

Moderated Regression Analysis: The Nature of the Psychological Contract and Violation on Performance

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Team and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance (8)
Step 3 Interactive effects						
Age		.10			.07	.06
Position in organisation				.09	.18**	.20***
Length of assignment		.08				.03
Time spent overseas		.08	.16*			
British ethnicity		.07				
Australian/New		-.12*				
Zealand ethnicity						
Cultural similarity		-.13*			-.10*	-.10
Violation	-.10	-.03	-.17	-.24**	-.07	-.06
Relational breach	.08	-.02	.08	.06	.01	-.03

(table continues)

Table 48 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: The Nature of the Psychological Contract and Violation on Performance

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Team and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance (8)
Violation x Relational breach	.03	.03	.03	.05	.06	.08
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	.71	3.60**	1.71	4.30**	4.98***	4.79***
Overall R^2	.02	.25**	.06	.15**	.23***	.26***
Adjusted R^2	-.01	.18**	.03	.11**	.19***	.20***
ΔR^2	.003	.002	.001	.009	.012	.023
Step 3						
Interactive effects						
Age		.10			.07	.06
Position in organisation				.09	.17**	.20***
Length of assignment		.06				.02
Time spent overseas		.09	.15			

(table continues)

Table 48 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: The Nature of the Psychological Contract and Violation on Performance

Variable	Task performance (1)	Communication performance (3)	Demonstrating effort (4)	Maintaining self-discipline (5)	Team and leadership performance (6)	Management and administration performance (8)
British ethnicity		.07				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13*			-.10*	-.10
Violation	-.04	-.07	-.16	-.23**	-.04	-.09
Transactional breach	.03	.03	.09	.05	-.01	.05
Violation x Transactional breach	-.00	.06	-.00	.06	.01	.05
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	.182	3.91***	1.75	4.49**	4.68***	4.59***
Overall R^2	.01	.27***	.07	.15**	.22***	.25***
Adjusted R^2	-.03	.20***	.03	.12**	.17***	.19***
ΔR^2	.000	.015	.000	.014	.001	.008

Note. B weights are reported due to these estimates having been standardised after centering.

$^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$. n = 106

Appendix J – Moderated regression analysis: the moderating role of career commitment

Table 49

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
IV: Practical support						
Step 1						
Controls						
Age		.11			.07	.06
Position in organisation				.12	.18***	.20***
Length of assignment		.07				.03
Time spent overseas		.09	.16*			
British ethnicity		.08				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13**			-.10*	-.10
		df = (6.98)	*df* = (1,103)	*df* = (1,104)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (4,100)
F		5.41***	4.17*	4.46*	9.32***	7.36***
R^2		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
Adjusted R^2		.20***	.03*	.03*	.19***	.20***
ΔR^2 Controls		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable		1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Step 2							
Controls							
Age			.09			.06	.05
Position in organisation					.09	.16**	.18**
Length of assignment			.07				.04
Time spent overseas			.08	.15			
British ethnicity			.06				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity			-.11				
Cultural similarity			-.12*			-.11*	-.10*
Main effects							
Practical support		-.14**	-.06	-.02	.03	-.01	-.02
Career commitment		-.12*	.05	.11	.09	.10*	.12*
		df = (2,103)	*df* = (8,96)	*df* = (3,101)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (5,100)	*df* = (6,98)
	F	5.81**	4.36***	2.07	2.51	6.63***	6.07***
	R^2	.10*	.27***	.06	.07	.25***	.27***

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Adjusted R^2	.08*	.21***	.03	.04	.21***	.23***
ΔR^2 Main effects	.10**	.02	.02	.03	.03	.04
Step 3						
Controls						
Age		.08			.06	.04
Position in organisation				.09	.16**	.18**
Length of assignment		.07				.04
Time spent overseas		.09	.15			
British ethnicity		.06				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13*			-.11*	-.11*
Main effects						
Practical support	-.14**	-.06	-.02	.03	.01	-.01
Career commitment	.12*	.07	.09	.09	.11*	.15**

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Interactive effects						
Practical Support x Career Commitment (H7a)	-.00	.05	-.06	.00	.02	.07
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	3.84*	4.02***	1.71	1.86	5.54***	5.70***
Overall R^2	.10*	.28***	.06	.07	.25***	.29***
Adjusted R^2	.08*	.21***	.03	.03	.21***	.24***
ΔR^2 Interactive effects	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.02
IV: Role clarity						
Step 1						
Controls						
Age		.11			.07	.06
Position in organisation				.12*	.18***	.20***
Length of assignment		.07				.03
Time spent overseas		.09	.16*			

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
British ethnicity		.08				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13**			-.10*	-.10*
		df = (6,98)	*df* = (1,103)	*df* = (1,104)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (4,100)
F		5.41***	4.17*	4.46*	9.32***	7.36***
R^2		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
Adjusted R^2		.20***	.03*	.03*	.19***	.20***
ΔR^2 Controls		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
Step 2						
Controls						
Age		.10			.07	.08
Position in organisation				.06	.15**	.15**
Length of assignment		.08				.01
Time spent overseas		.08	.15			
British ethnicity		.07				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Cultural similarity		-.13**			-.10*	-.10*
Main effects						
Role clarity	.13*	.02	-.00	.15**	.03	.11*
Career commitment	.07	.04	.11	.07	.09	.10
	df = (2,103)	*df* = (8,96)	*df* = (3,101)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (5,100)	*df* = (6.98)
F	5.19**	4.13***	2.06	4.94**	6.75***	7.15***
R^2	.09**	.26***	.06	.13**	.25***	.31***
Adjusted R^2	.07**	.19***	.05	.10**	.22***	.26***
ΔR^2 Main effects	.09**	.01	.03	.08**	.04	.08**
Step 3						
Controls						
Age		.09			.14	.07
Position in organisation				.06	.29**	.15**
Length of assignment		.08				.01
Time spent overseas		.08	.15			
British ethnicity		.07				

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.14**			-.20*	-.10*
Main effects						
Role clarity	.12*	.03	-.02	.15**	.06	.11*
Career commitment	.06	.05	.07	.07	.17	.10
Interactive effects						
Role clarity x Career Commitment(H7b)	-.05	.03	-.12	.01	-.03	-.01
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	3.93*	3.73***	2.45	3.68**	5.59***	6.08***
Overall R^2	.10*	.26***	.09	.13**	.25***	.31***
Adjusted R^2	.08*	.19***	.05	.09**	.21***	.26***
ΔR^2 Interactive effects	.01	.01	.03	.00	.00	.00

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
IV: Mentoring						
Step 1						
Controls						
Age		.11			.07	.06
Position in organisation				.12*	.18***	.20***
Length of assignment		.07				.03
Time spent overseas		.09	.16*			
British ethnicity		.08				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13**			-.10*	-.10
		df = (6,98)	*df* = (1,103)	*df* = (1,104)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (4,100)
F		5.41***	4.17*	4.46*	9.32***	7.36***
R^2		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
Adjusted R^2		.20***	.03*	.03*	.19***	.20***
ΔR^2 Controls		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable		1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Step 2							
Controls							
Age			.09			.07	.05
Position in organisation					.10	.16**	.17**
Length of assignment			.07				.04
Time spent overseas			.09	.17*			
British ethnicity			.07				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity			-.11				
Cultural similarity			-.13**			-.11*	-.11*
Main effects							
Mentoring		-.02	-.06	.09	.02	.00	-.00
Career commitment		.10	.05	.10	.09	.10*	.12*
		df = (2,103)	*df* = (8,96)	*df* = (3,101)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (5,100)	*df* = (6.98)
	F	1.98	4.23***	2.55	2.42	6.61***	6.03***
	R^2	.04	.26***	.07	.07	.24***	.28***

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Adjusted R^2	.02	.20***	.04	.04	.21***	.23***
ΔR^2 Main effects	.04	.01	.03	.03	.03	.04
Step 3						
Controls						
Age		.09			.06	.05
Position in organisation				.10	.16**	.18**
Length of assignment		.08				.04
Time spent overseas		.09	.17*			
British ethnicity		.08				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13*			-.10*	-.11*
Main effects						
Mentoring	-.01	-.04	.09	.02	.00	-.00
Career commitment	.10	.05	.10	.09	.09	.13*

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Interactive effects						
Mentoring x Career Commitment(H7c)	-.05	-.03	.01	-.02	-.06	.08
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	1.60	3.77***	1.90	1.85	5.85***	5.01***
Overall R^2	.05	.26***	.07	.07	.26***	.28***
Adjusted R^2	.02	.19***	.03	.03	.22***	.23***
ΔR^2 Interactive effects	.01	.00	.00	.00	.01	.02
IV: Training						
Step 1						
Controls						
Age		.11			.07	.06
Position in organisation				.12*	.18***	.20***
Length of assignment		.07				.03
Time spent overseas		.09	.16*			

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
British ethnicity		.08				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.11				
Cultural similarity		-.13**			-.10*	-.10
		df = (6,98)	*df* = (1,103)	*df* = (1,104)	*df* = (3,102)	*df* = (4,100)
F		5.41***	4.17*	4.46*	9.32***	7.36***
R^2		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
Adjusted R^2		.20***	.03*	.03*	.19***	.20***
ΔR^2 Controls		.25***	.04*	.04*	.22***	.23***
Step 2						
Controls						
Age		.10			.06	.06
Position in organisation				.09	.16**	.17**
Length of assignment		.07				.04
Time spent overseas		.09	.15*			
British ethnicity		.06				
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.12*				
Cultural similarity		-.13*			-.11*	-.11*

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Main effects						
Training	-.07	-.05	-.08	.05	-.03	.04
Career commitment	.10*	.05	.11	.09	.10*	.12*
	df = (2,103)	df = (8,96)	df = (3,101)	df = (3,102)	df = (5,100)	df = (6.98)
F	2.86	4.29***	2.46	2.63	6.69***	6.18***
R^2	.05	.26***	.07	.07	.25***	.28***
Adjusted R^2	.03	.20***	.04	.04	.21***	.23***
ΔR^2 Main effects	.05	.01	.03	.03	.04	.05*
Step 3						
Controls						
Age		.09			.06	.06
Position in organisation				.10	.17**	.17**
Length of assignment		.07				.04
Time spent overseas		.09	.15			
British ethnicity		.06				

(table continues)

Table 49 (continued)

Moderated Regression Analysis: the Influence of Career Commitment

Variable	1TP	3CP	4DE	5MD	6TL	8MA
Australian/New Zealand ethnicity		-.13*				
Cultural similarity		-.13**			-.10*	-.11*
Main effects						
Training	-.07	-.06	-.08	.05	-.03	.04
Career commitment	.10	.06	.11	.08	.09	.11*
Interactive effects						
Training x Career Commitment (H7d)	-.01	.05	-.01	-.04	-.02	-.01
	df = (3,102)	*df* = (9,95)	*df* = (4,100)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (6,99)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	1.90	3.98***	1.83	2.10	5.55***	5.25***
Overall R^2	.05	.27***	.07	.08	.25***	.28***
Adjusted R^2	.03	.21***	.03	.04	.21***	.22***
ΔR^2 Interactive effects	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00

Note. B weights are reported due to these estimates having been standardised after centering.

1TP = importance of task performance; 3CP = importance of communication; 4DE= importance of demonstrating effort; 5MD = importance of maintaining discipline; 6TL = importance of teamwork and leadership; 8MA = importance of management and administrative task performance; $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$. n = 106

Appendix K – Hierarchical regression analysis: selection as a predictor of cross-cultural adjustment

Table 50
Selection considerations predicting the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment

	General adjustment	Interaction adjustment	Work adjustment
Step 1			
Control variables			
Gender	.17	.17	.16
Age	.11		.18
Position in organisation		.21	.18
Length of assignment	.08	.05	.04
Time spent overseas	.12		.10
Other ethnicity			-.18
Cultural Similarity	.30**		
Step 2			
Control variables			
Gender	.15	.15	.11
Age	.13		.18
Position in organisation		.18	.18
Length of assignment	.09	.06	.04
Time spent overseas	.12		.10
Other ethnicity			-.20
Cultural Similarity	.30**		
Main Effects			
Selection	.04	.09	.38**
Written policies	.10	.05	-.11
	df = (7,97)	*df* = (5,100)	*df* = (8,96)
F (full model)	3.63**	2.69*	6.56***
R^2	.21**	.12*	.35***
Adjusted R^2	.15**	.07*	.30***
Change in R^2	.01	.02	.08**

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. n = 106

Appendix L – Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Training as a Predictor of Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Table 51

Training and training rigour predicting the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment

	General adjustment	Interaction adjustment	Work adjustment
Step 1			
Control variables			
Gender	.17	.17	.16
Age	.11		.11
Position in organisation		.21*	.29**
Length of assignment	.08	.05	.01
Time spent overseas	.12		.12
Other ethnicity			-.18*
Cultural Similarity	.30**		
Step 2			
Control variables			
Gender	.16	.15	.11
Age	.12		.13
Position in organisation		.19	.26**
Length of assignment	.11	.10	.10
Time spent overseas	.11		.08
Other ethnicity			-.21*
Cultural Similarity	.30**		
Main Effects			
Training	.12	.23*	.35***
Training rigour	-.01	-.06	-.21*
	df = (7,97)	*df* = (5,100)	*df* = (8,96)
F (full model)	3.59**	3.60**	8.08
R^2	.21**	.15**	.40***
Adjusted R^2	.14**	.11**	.35***
Change in R^2	.01	.05	.13***

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. n = 106

Appendix M – Hierarchical Regression Analysis: Mentoring as a Predictor of Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Table 52

Mentoring predicting the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment

	General adjustment	Interaction adjustment	Work adjustment
Step 1			
Control variables			
Gender	.17	.17	.16
Age	.11		.11
Position in organisation		.21*	.28**
Length of assignment	.08	.05	.01
Time spent overseas	.12		.12
Other ethnicity			-.18*
Cultural Similarity	.30**		
Step 2			
Control variables			
Gender	.17	.17	.17
Age	.08		.17
Position in organisation		.21*	.27**
Length of assignment	.06	.04	.05
Time spent overseas	.13		.11
Other ethnicity			-.18*
Cultural Similarity	.31**		
Main Effects			
Mentoring	-.13	-.03	.25**
	df = (6,98)	*df* = (4,101)	*df* = (7,97)
F (full model)	4.30**	2.94*	6.71
R^2	.21**	.10*	.33***
Adjusted R^2	.16**	.07*	.28***
Change in R^2	.02	.00	.06**

$^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$. $^{***}p < .001$. n = 106

Appendix N – Cronbach alpha reliability estimates, factor correlation coefficients and descriptive statistics

Table 53

Cronbach alpha reliability estimates, factor correlation coefficients and descriptive statistics – importance of performance components to organisational goals

Factor importance	1	3	4	5	6	8
1ITP	(.92)					
3ICP	0.63	(.78)				
4IDE	0.45	0.34	(.77)			
5IMD	0.75	0.68	0.43	(.79)		
6ITL	0.55	0.67	0.47	0.54	(.87)	
8IMA	0.53	0.69	0.40	0.53	0.78	(.81)
Mean	4.2	4.1	3.5	4.1	3.9	3.9
SD	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6
Minimum	2.9	2.3	1.0	2.6	2.0	1.7
Maximum	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0
Range	2.1	2.8	4.0	2.4	3.0	3.3

Note: Values in parentheses are Cronbach alpha reliability estimates. N = 106
All correlations are significant at $p < .001$

1TP = importance of task performance; 8MA = importance of management and administrative task performance; 6TL = importance of teamwork and leadership; 4DE= importance of demonstrating effort; 3CP = importance of communication; 5MD = importance of maintaining discipline.