

ANTECEDENTS OF EXPATRIATE ORGANIZATIONAL EMBEDDEDNESS:
THE ROLE OF PERCEIVED CULTURAL DISTANCE AND
HOST COUNTRY NATIONAL SUPPORT

by

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ABSTRACT

ZOA MICHELLE ORDÓÑEZ MARTÍNEZ. Antecedents of expatriate organizational embeddedness: The role of cultural distance and host country national support. (Under the direction of DR. ERIC HEGGESTAD).

Multinational organizations rely on expatriate employees to accomplish important business goals. Therefore, ensuring that expatriates complete their assignments is a key business imperative. To that end, previous studies examining the challenges of international assignments and expatriate assignment turnover issues have focused on examining factors that influence their decision to leave (e.g., lack of cross-cultural adjustment, job satisfaction; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison., Shaffer, & Luk, 2005). However, less attention has been paid to the factors that influence their decision to stay – and this research attempts to fill this gap.

This study draws from Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, and Erez's (2001) job embeddedness framework and its focus on the elements of the social environment that bind employees to the organization. Using a sample of 131 expatriates surveyed across two time points, this research aimed to explore the relationships between perceived cultural distance and host country national (HCN) support as factors that lead to organizational embeddedness, and, in turn, reduce assignment turnover intentions. While the study suffered from unexpected measurement issues that minimized the ability to find support for some of the proposed relationships, HCN Support was found to be positively and significantly related to organizational embeddedness and organizational embeddedness was negatively related to assignment turnover intentions. The implications of these findings and recommendations for future research are discussed.

DEDICATION

To Julius

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

With the increasing number of international expansions, cross-border mergers, and the rise of new economic markets, multinational organizations continue to rely on international work arrangements, such as expatriate assignments, to accomplish strategic goals. Expatriate assignments are viable means of transferring knowledge between headquarters and subsidiaries, building global relationships and a common organizational culture, supervising subsidiary operations, and filling key positions when there is a skills gap in the local talent pool (Collings, Scullion, & Morley, 2007). Therefore, expatriate assignments are critical to the strategy and performance of multinational organizations — and ensuring that expatriates complete their assignments is of extreme importance.

For decades, research has reflected the challenge of expatriate's early return and has dedicated a lot of energy to examining the factors that influence expatriates' intentions to leave the assignment. Of the many factors that play a role in expatriate assignment completion, cross-cultural adjustment has been most widely studied (for a review, see Takeuchi, 2010). Expatriate cross-cultural adjustment refers to the degree of psychological comfort and familiarity that expatriates feel with different aspects of the foreign culture (Black & Stephens, 1989). This construct is multidimensional — consisting of *general* (general living conditions), *work* (work conditions, tasks and responsibilities), and *interaction* adjustment (interactions with locals; Black & Stephens, 1989). A meta-analysis shows that expatriates who are better adjusted to the general living conditions ($\rho = -.28$), the work conditions ($\rho = -.23$), and to the interactions with

locals ($\rho = -.14$) are less likely to have intentions to leave the assignment early (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005). Additionally, expatriate cross-cultural adjustment has been found to relate to other organizational outcomes, such as job satisfaction and performance (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005).

Considering these findings, it is understandable that research has focused on cross-cultural adjustment as a factor influencing expatriates' decision to *leave* the assignment and/or organization. However, much less attention has been paid to the factors that influence expatriates' decision to *stay* and complete their assignment. To that end, some scholars (e.g., Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001; Shen & Hall, 2009) have argued that job embeddedness plays a key role in employees' intention to stay with an organization (or, in this case, staying in the host country and completing the expatriate assignment). Job embeddedness occurs when there are elements of a job situation (i.e., contextual forces) that bind employees to the organization. The more strongly bound the employees are, the higher their chances of staying in the organization.

To date, most of the research examining job embeddedness has focused on domestic employees. However, embeddedness may be particularly important in an expatriate context. Specifically, expatriates that are able to achieve a deeper level of embeddedness in the host organization should be more likely to complete their assignment. While there is strong evidence for strength of embeddedness as a predictor of turnover intentions and actual turnover (i.e., the consequences of embeddedness; Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014), little research has explored the factors that influence an employee to become embedded (i.e., the antecedents of embeddedness). Therefore, the main purpose of this research is to understand the factors that lead to organizational

embeddedness in expatriate contexts. In particular, I will examine elements of the social environment that are unique to expatriate assignments: perceived cultural distance (e.g., Selmer, Chiu, & Shenkar, 2007; Van Vianen, De Pater, Kristof-Brown, & Johnson, 2004) and perceived host country national support (hereafter referred to as HCN support; c.f. Toh & Denisi, 2007). Perceived cultural distance represents fundamental ways in which the host country is perceived to be different from the expatriates' home countries; these differences can influence the extent to which expatriates feel and become connected to the host organization. Moreover, HCN coworkers can help expatriates navigate the complexities of the new country. As such, the extent to which the expatriate perceives the HCN coworkers to be supportive should enhance the connections between the expatriate and the host organization.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview of Job Embeddedness

Job embeddedness refers to the breadth and depth of connection that an employee has with his or her organization and the non-work community in which he or she lives. The concept of job embeddedness is drawn from the psychological construct of embedded figures (images used in psychological tests) and Lewin's (1951) field theory. An embedded figure is one in which the foreground image is so closely enmeshed into its surrounding that it is difficult to separate foreground from background. Outside the context of an image, field theory suggests that people have a perceptual life space where all aspects of their lives are connected such that their behavior is determined by the totality of their situation (Lewin, 1951). Based on these concepts, Mitchell et al. (2001) proposed that employees can become embedded in their surroundings and situation to an extent that it becomes difficult to separate from it.

Mitchell et al. (2001) further explained that the key aspects of this construct are an employee's links, fit, and sacrifices. These aspects represent the on-the-job and off-the-job forces (i.e., organizational and community factors) which determine an employee's job embeddedness. Links are the social connections (formal and informal) that an employee has with other people and activities in the organization and in the community. Fit is defined as an employee's perceived compatibility or sense of comfort with the organization and his/her environment. And, sacrifices refer to the perceived

psychological and material benefits that would be forfeited if the person leaves the organization and/or the community.

To illustrate, consider that if an employee has strong connections to his/her supervisor and coworkers, s/he will have strong links to the organization and therefore may be reluctant to sever ties from the organization. Also, if s/he has a well-established group of non-work friends, s/he is less likely to give up those links and leave the community. Therefore, this employee is strongly embedded and is likely to stay at the job despite his or her feelings about the work itself. This logic also applies to fit and sacrifices. For instance, if an employee feels like his/her personal values, career goals, plans for the future fit well with those of the organization and the community, then s/he will be more embedded and, consequently, more likely to stay with the organization and the community. Lastly, an employee would also be considered embedded if s/he thinks that s/he would sacrifice too many organizational benefits (e.g., job stability and advancement) and community benefits (e.g., affordable cost of living and a safe neighborhood) by leaving.

Links, fit, and sacrifices are, in other words, the ties that connect an employee to the organization or community. The more numerous and the stronger the ties, the more strongly bound the employee is to the organization and the higher the chances of him or her staying at the job (Mitchell et al., 2001). Applied to expatriate context, the higher the number of social connections, the better sense of fit or compatibility within the host organization and/or local community, and the higher the number of perceived benefits that would be lost by returning home or leaving the organization, the more strongly

embedded the employee will be in the host organization. In turn, strongly embedded expatriates should be more likely to remain in their international assignments.

Since these contextual forces operate in the organization and the community, the structure of job embeddedness consists of two main factors — organizational embeddedness and community embeddedness — each including links, fit, and sacrifices as subdimensions. Although both are strong determinants of turnover intentions and actual turnover, research has shown that community embeddedness is more susceptible to the effects of moderators (Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012). For instance, a meta-analysis by Jiang et al. (2012) found that community embeddedness predicted turnover intentions and actual turnover in individualistic cultures but not in collectivistic ones. Additionally, Zhang, Fried, and Griffeth (2012) argued that the community embeddedness measure may face content validity issues because the definition of community may vary across individuals. If the definition of community is idiosyncratic, then it is possible that the community embeddedness measure is missing important factors that cause people to become embedded in the community. For these reasons, and the fact that organizations are better able to influence expatriates' on-the-job experience than their off-the-job experience, I will focus on organizational embeddedness in this study.

Research on Job Embeddedness

Even though job embeddedness is a relatively new construct, it has received a great deal of research attention in recent years. In their seminal article, Mitchell et al. (2001) found that job embeddedness was predictive of voluntary turnover above and beyond job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job alternatives, and job search.

Moreover, a meta-analytic investigation by Jiang et al. (2012) found that, across 65 independent samples (N= 42,907), the corrected weighted average correlation between organizational embeddedness and turnover intention was $-.48$ and actual turnover was $-.19$. Inarguably, job embeddedness is related to a person's propensity to voluntarily leave an organization.

While most of the research on embeddedness to date has been conducted in a domestic setting, there have been a few studies directly examining expatriates' organizational embeddedness (e.g., Reiche, Kraimer, & Harzing, 2011; Ren, Shaffer, Harrison, Fu, & Fodchuk, 2014). The number of studies is small, yet they have yielded compelling support for the positive effects of embeddedness. For example, Reiche et al. (2011) found that organizational embeddedness predicted expatriate learning and perceived career benefits. Interestingly, perceived career benefits predicted retention in the organization two and four years later, indicating that there may be mediators of relationship between embeddedness and turnover. Ren, Shaffer, Harrison, Fu, and Fodchuk (2014) found that embeddedness predicted assignment turnover intentions above and beyond cross-cultural adjustment, which, as noted above, has been the concept that has received the most attention as an antecedent of expatriates' intention to complete the assignment. Considering the theoretical linkage between embeddedness and assignment turnover intentions as well as the empirical support for this relationship, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: Expatriates' organizational embeddedness will be negatively related to expatriates' intentions to leave the assignment.

In the expatriate literature, there is robust evidence of other predictors of assignment turnover intentions: assignment commitment and expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003; Naumann, 1993). Klein and Cooper (2014) explain that commitment is a volitional bond between an employee and a target – the expatriate assignment in this case. The employee has a sense of dedication and feeling of responsibility for the target (i.e., the assignment), which, in turn reduces turnover intentions (Klein & Cooper, 2014; Naumann, 1993). With regard to expatriate adjustment, not only does it increase satisfaction and work effort, but it also decreases expatriates' thoughts about leaving the assignment early (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005).

Admittedly, there is conceptual overlap between the subdimensions of embeddedness and commitment – and research has shown that they are correlated (Mitchell et al., 2001). However, Mitchell and colleagues argue that while commitment is an affect-laden construct, embeddedness is not. They further highlighted that commitment is both conceptually and empirically primarily related to the fit subdimension and not the non-affective subdimensions of links and sacrifices. Further, these researchers explained that embeddedness focuses on the totality of the social forces that bind the employee to the organization, whereas commitment is more of a general attitude toward the organization. As such, embeddedness is a higher-order aggregate of the factors that influence an employee's decision to stay.

Further, embeddedness is also distinct from expatriate adjustment. As previously discussed, expatriate adjustment captures individuals' psychological familiarity with various aspects of the international assignment (Black & Stephens, 1989) while

embeddedness focuses on their sense of connectedness with the host organization (c.f., Mitchell et al. 2001). In fact, in one of the few studies that has studied expatriate embeddedness, there was empirical evidence of their distinctiveness. Ren et al., (2014) found that expatriate adjustment and expatriate embeddedness had unique and negative effects on assignment turnover intentions.

In essence, embeddedness is broader construct than commitment and expatriate adjustment and commitment. As such, it encompasses elements that bind the expatriate to the organization that are not captured by expatriate adjustment and commitment. To date, only Ren et al.'s (2014) research has investigated the incremental validity of embeddedness in explaining expatriates' assignment turnover intentions. However, their study only took into expatriate adjustment into account. Therefore, it is important to investigate whether embeddedness predicts expatriate's intent to leave the assignment while accounting for both expatriate adjustment and assignment commitment.

Considering these relationships and the gap in the literature, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2: Expatriates' organizational embeddedness will predict expatriates' assignment turnover intentions above and beyond assignment commitment and expatriate adjustment.

Proposed Antecedents of Expatriate Organizational Embeddedness

To the best of my knowledge, only two studies have looked at the antecedents of job embeddedness, and both of these were conducted in domestic employee contexts.

Allen and Shanock (2012) found that socialization practices play a key role in newcomers' organizational embeddedness. Specifically, socialization practices related to

social relationships and information content influenced newcomers' organizational embeddedness. Somewhat similarly, Ren et al. (2014) found that employees' proactive socialization behaviors, e.g., information-seeking, relationship building, and positive framing, were important predictors of expatriates' embeddedness.

While no research to date has specifically looked at the factors that might drive expatriate embeddedness, two of the most salient aspects of international assignments, cultural differences (c.f., Selmer et al., 2007; Van Vianen et al., 2004) and HCN support (c.f., Takeuchi, 2010; Toh & Denisi, 2007) can be theoretically linked with the development of the embeddedness concepts of links, fits and sacrifices.

Cultural Differences and Expatriates' Organizational Embeddedness

Culture is important to study in the expatriate context because it consists of "patterned ways of thinking, feeling and acting that were learned through a lifetime" (Hofstede, 2005, p.2). These thought patterns transcend situations and guide how we interpret behaviors and events (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004), particularly in intercultural interactions (Ravlin, Thomas, & Ilsev, 2000). Essentially, an individual's culture provides him or her with a lens through which he or she views the world. However, during an international assignment, the cultural background of the expatriate is likely to be different from that of the people with which s/he will be working. Unlike domestic employees who select job opportunities where they experience a good fit, expatriates often accept international assignments understanding that they will experience a certain degree of misfit in the host country (Van Vianen et al., 2004). Therefore, the differences in culture (i.e., cultural distance) can be considered one of the most salient aspects of the expatriate experience.

Cultural distance refers to the degree to which countries differ on their cultural values (cf. Shenkar, 2001; Tung & Verbeke, 2010), i.e., the larger the differences in values between two countries, the larger the cultural distance. Research has shown that expatriates who observe small differences in cultural values between their own culture and the culture of the host country are likely to experience less difficulty adjusting than expatriates who are in assignments with larger cultural differences (Van Vianen et al., 2004). In fact, Shaffer et al. (1999) found that cultural differences influence each of Black and Stephens' (1989) dimensions of adjustment: i.e., general, work, and interaction adjustment. That is, cultural differences affect an expatriate's ability to (1) adjust to general living conditions, (2) adjust to new work conditions, tasks and responsibilities and (3) effectively interact with locals in the host country, respectively (Shaffer et al., 1999).

Traditionally, cultural distance has been measured using Hofstede's (2001) or the GLOBE project's (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta; 2004) value frameworks, in which the difference on value dimension ratings is calculated between the host and home countries (e.g., Colakoglu & Caligiuri, 2008; Manev & Stevenson, 2001; Ren et al., 2014). This approach assumes some true cultural difference, such that anyone who goes from Culture A to Culture B would experience the same level of cultural difference. However, it is the subjective experience of cultural differences that influence people's attitudes and behaviors towards others (cf., Mannix & Neale, 2005). Therefore, it is likely the perception of cultural distance that influences expatriates' embeddedness in the host organization rather than the more objective, or true difference between cultures based in the Hofstede or GLOBE approaches.

According to research on perceived similarity, cultural values are one of the most important bases for assessing similarities and differences between people (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Mannix & Neale, 2005). People are attracted to others who share values similar to their own; having similar values validates their opinions, behaviors, and belief systems (e.g., Edwards & Cable, 2009; Van Vianen et al., 2004). Consequently, perceived similarity can result in liking, friendship, trust (e.g., Edwards & Cable, 2009) and helping (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). These positive effects can enhance integration and social attachment among people (Zellmer-Bruhn, Maloney, Bhappu, & Salvador, 2008). In contrast, perceived cultural differences may lead to social divisions, poor social integration, and interpersonal conflict (c.f., Mannix & Neale, 2005). While not all differences create discordance (Shenkar, 2001), it is possible that friction arises in situations when people view the world in ways that are incompatible.

Therefore, I expect that perceived cultural distance will influence expatriates' embeddedness in the host organization. That is, when expatriates perceive that host country national coworkers have different cultural values to their own, they should find it more challenging to develop social connections with them (and vice versa). Additionally, perceiving cultural distance involves a mismatch between expatriates' own values and their perceptions of the host country national coworkers' values — which, as discussed previously, is consistent with the idea of fit as an element of embeddedness. Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3: Perceived cultural distance will be negatively related with expatriates' organizational embeddedness in the host country.

HCN Support and Expatriate's Organizational Embeddedness

Expatriate researchers recognize that social support is important during expatriate assignments. These international experiences disrupt the expatriate's established support networks and typically require them to develop new ones (see Copeland & Norell, 2002). For example, research has shown that perceived organizational support is positively linked expatriates' adjustment to the host country (Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001; Shaffer et al., 1999), task and contextual performance, as well as intentions to complete the assignment (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Shaffer, Harrison, Gilly, & Luk, Dora, 2001). Additionally, Kraimer et al. (2001) examined different sources of support for expatriates and found that perceived support from the home organization, the host organization, and supervisors (who often remain the home organization) are positively related to the expatriate's level of adjustment and performance on the assignment. These results suggest that supporting expatriates is a tangible way of enhancing their ability to cope with the intercultural transitions.

Undoubtedly, organizational and supervisor support are key influences of the expatriate experience. However, I argue that there are more proximal sources of support for expatriates that play a key role in shaping the international assignment — coworkers in the host country (also referred to as host country national coworkers). Coworkers are a vital part of the social environment at work as they can influence employee role perceptions and work attitudes. By providing informational resources, coworkers can help employees reduce role ambiguity and overload (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Also, through their actions, coworkers can create congenial environments that increase employee job satisfaction and job involvement (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008).

Yet, the role of host country national (HCN) coworkers is often overlooked in expatriate research despite the fact that they are “organizational insiders” who can help expatriates to make sense of their new environment (Toh & Denisi, 2007). HCN coworkers can provide instrumental support by being “cultural interpreters” (e.g., clarifying the meaning of cultural activities and puzzling information) and “communication managers” (e.g., translating messages expatriate and other host country parties; Vance & Andersen, 2014). Further, HCN coworkers can provide emotional support to expatriates, i.e., show empathy, trust, and concern for their well-being (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2001). Therefore, HCN coworkers are in a particularly influential position to shape expatriates’ sense of embeddedness in the host organization.

Consistent with the findings in the coworker support literature, HCN support is likely to be related to positive outcomes such as expatriates’ organizational embeddedness. Drawing from organizational support theory, I argue that HCN support communicates to expatriates that help will be available when needed to carry out the job effectively and to deal with stressful situations (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Additionally, HCN support may convey to expatriates that they are valued and respected within the organization (cf. Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, & Garud, 2001). Perceiving that HCN coworkers care and are considerate of their needs will create emotional bonds between expatriates and their coworkers. This bond will make expatriates feel socially integrated and identified with the HCN coworkers and the international assignment (c.f. Mossholder & Richardson, 2011).

Moreover, when HCN coworkers provide support to expatriates the interactions are likely to be deemed as positive and can result in social connections. At the same time,

the positive interactions may motivate expatriates to reach out to HCN coworkers and those proactive behaviors can reinforce the social connections. For these reasons, I argue that the support from HCN coworkers can help bind expatriates to the host organization and lead to a deeper level of embeddedness. Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4: HCN support will be positively related to expatriates' organizational embeddedness.

Perceived Cultural Distance in Combination with HCN Support

As previously proposed, I expect that there will be a negative relationship between perceived cultural distance and expatriate's organizational embeddedness. I further argue that HCN support can buffer the effects of perceived cultural distance and promote embeddedness in the host organization. I expect expatriates who have high perceived cultural distance and low HCN support to have the lowest level of organizational embeddedness while those expatriates who have low perceived cultural distance and high HCN support to have the highest level of embeddedness.

As discussed, expatriates are often assigned to countries where the culture is remarkably different from their own, i.e. where they will perceive high cultural distance. Expatriates in these situations are likely to experience difficulty embedding because cultural differences can lead to stress and interpersonal friction (cf. Mannix & Neale, 2005; Van Vianen et al., 2004). If these expatriates also perceive low HCN support, it may be particularly difficult for them to embed in the host organization. Not only would they experience interpersonal conflict and, therefore, fewer interpersonal links, but they may also feel excluded and lack a sense of fit.

Alternatively, if expatriates perceive high cultural distance but high HCN support, they are likely to find it less challenging to embed in the host organization than those who perceive high cultural distance and low HCN support. Feeling supported by HCN coworkers can compensate for high perceived cultural distance since it can alleviate the stress and friction by increasing expatriates' sense of being included and valued (e.g., Wiesenfeld et al., 2001) and helping expatriates interact more effectively with locals in the host country. Although these expatriates will be more highly embedded than those who perceive high cultural distance and low HCN support, I argue that they will remain weakly embedded relative to expatriates who perceive low cultural distance. While support might be able to mitigate some of the negative effects, it is possible that expatriates who perceive high cultural distance may still feel like they do not fit in the host organization or connect with others at a deep level due to differences in cultural values.

Moreover, in situations when perceived cultural distance is low and HCN support is high, expatriates should be able to embed most easily because they will likely develop a sense of attraction, trust, and attachment towards HCN coworkers (e.g., Edwards & Cable, 2009) while also feeling included and respected by them (cf. Wiesenfeld et al., 2001). The combination of all of these positive interpersonal perceptions will be even more conducive of relationship development and a sense of fit in the host organization than liking and trust alone. In contrast, when expatriates perceive low cultural distance and low HCN support, expatriates may still become embedded because of their shared values with HCN coworkers. However, if HCN support is minimal, it might interfere with their sense of embeddedness (i.e., they will have relatively lower levels of

embeddedness than expatriates with low perceived cultural distance and high HCN support). Therefore, I expect that the relationship between perceived cultural distance and expatriate organizational embeddedness will be stronger under conditions of high HCN support. Considering these theoretical relationships, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 5: HCN support will moderate the relationship between perceived cultural distance and expatriate organizational embeddedness, such that the relationship will be weaker as HCN support increases.

Perceived Cultural Distance, HCN Support, Expatriate Organizational Embeddedness, and Assignment Turnover Intentions

Recent turnover research in the domestic and expatriate settings has shifted its attention to the fact that job embeddedness as a strong determinant of turnover intentions and actual turnover (see Jiang et al., 2012; Ren et al., 2014). This study will add to the emerging expatriate embeddedness research by examining its antecedents. I will focus on two unique aspects of the expatriate experience — differences in cultural values (or perceived cultural distance) and the perceived support from host country national coworkers. While the empirical linkage between perceived cultural distance, HCN support, and assignment turnover intentions has not been previously established, I argue that they will transmit their effect through expatriates' organizational embeddedness. That is, perceived cultural distance and HCN support should be positively linked to expatriate organizational embeddedness, which, in turn, will be negatively linked to expatriates' assignment turnover intentions. Therefore, I offer the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: Expatriates' organizational embeddedness will mediate the relationships between expatriates' (a) perceived cultural distance, (b) HCN support, (c) the interaction between them, and assignment turnover intentions.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

Participants

The participants in this study were current expatriates, i.e. employees who moved to a foreign country for work purposes. They had relocated on a long-term (one year or longer) yet temporary basis. There were 200 expatriates who participated in the initial survey and 131 who also completed a follow-up survey that was administered approximately six-weeks after the initial survey. Of the 131 individuals who completed both surveys, 38.2% were female and 61.8% male. 55.7 % had relocated with at least one family member while 44.3% had relocated by themselves. 74.0% were company-sent expatriates (CSE's) and 26.0% were self-initiated expatriates (SIE's). The average age was 37.6 years ($SD = 9.3$), with a range from 21 to 60 years old. At the time of the initial survey, the average time on assignment at was 2.0 years ($SD = 1.8$), with ranges from .01 to 9.4 years, and the average organizational tenure was 6.9 years, with ranges from .01 to 23 years. Participants were from 39 countries and were on assignment in 47 different countries. The majority of the participants were from the United States (33.6%), France (9.2%), United Kingdom (4.6%), India (3.8%), and Canada (3.1%). Most of the participants had relocated to the United States (16.8%), Netherlands (10.7%), Singapore (6.9%), Finland (6.1%), the United Kingdom (6.1%), China (5.3%) and Germany (3.1%). (See Table 1 for a comparison of demographic profiles for each time point).

Participants in this study were drawn from separate subsamples: four organizational samples and a snowball sample. I formed partnerships with multinational

organizations in the energy, manufacturing, professional services, and cosmetics industries (further details on how these partnerships were formed and the participant recruitment strategy are included in Appendix A). Additionally, I recruited participants by leveraging my personal networks, referrals and online postings on Facebook, LinkedIn interest groups, and Internations.org. The number of participants for each of the subsamples is presented in Table 2.

Procedure

Participants filled out two online surveys that were administered approximately six weeks apart in order to overcome issues of common method variance. The initial survey contained questions regarding demographics and measures of perceptions of the host cultural values, perceptions of HCN support, organizational embeddedness, assignment turnover intentions, background information and other feelings about their international experience (see Appendix B for a list of the survey items). Approximately six weeks later, I sent an email invitation to take the follow-up survey to those participants that completed the first survey. This second survey was shorter than the first, and only measured the focal variables – cultural values, HCN support, organizational embeddedness, and assignment turnover intentions. 65.5% of the participants who completed the first survey also completed the second one (see Table 2 for the breakdown of the match rate by sample source).

To encourage participation of expatriates in partner organizations, the survey was marketed as an opportunity to provide feedback that would be used to improve how expatriate assignments are managed at their organizations. The managers of global mobility programs (i.e., the departments who oversee expatriate and other forms of international assignments) sent an email communication to announce the research

partnership and encourage expatriates' participation. One week later, I sent expatriates a prelaunch email to introduce myself, explain the importance of the project and make a personal appeal about how their responses would help me graduate. A week later, I sent the survey launch email with more detailed instructions about the project and link to the first survey. I sent reminder emails 7 and 14 days after the survey was launched.

To encourage participation among expatriates recruited through snowball sampling, I expressed the importance of the research and communicated to them that they would have a chance to win \$125 Amazon gift card (after completing the first survey) and another chance to win an additional \$75 Amazon gift card (after completing the follow-up survey). In other words, participants could opt to be entered into two drawings and they indicated their interest by providing their email address. Expatriate professionals tend to be highly compensated employees. Therefore, the incentives needed to be somewhat substantial in order to attract potential participants.

Measures

Perceived cultural distance. Since there is not a scale readily available to assess perceived cultural distance, I measured the construct using a shortened version of Yoo, Donthu, and Lenartowicz's (2011) Cultural Value Scale. (The original scale consists of 26 items. I conducted a pilot study to shorten this scale and to understand the best approach for setting up the survey questions. Details of this study are included in Appendix C). The shortened scale consisted of 12 items that make up five subscales, one corresponding to each of Hofstede's value dimensions. Power distance was measured by two items, including "People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions." Uncertainty avoidance was measured by two items, including "Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is

expected of me.” Collectivism was measured by three items, including “Individuals should not pursue their own goals without considering the welfare of the group.” Long-term orientation is measured by three items, including “It is important to give up today’s fun for success in the future.” Masculinity was measured by two items, including “It is important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.”

Expatriates rated each of the cultural value items twice. First, they indicated the extent to which each statement was true of their own beliefs using a six-point Likert scale (1= very untrue, 3 = somewhat untrue, 6 = very true). Then, using the same response scale, expatriates rated the extent to which they thought that the items reflected the values of their coworkers in the host country (i.e., HCN coworkers). I calculated an overall perceived cultural distance score using the following steps. First, I computed composite scores for each of the five value dimensions for the expatriate’s own values. Second, I did the same thing for the ratings of the perceived HCN coworker values. Third, I calculated the absolute value of the difference between the self-ratings and the HCN coworker ratings for each of the five scales; I used the absolute value so that the perceived cultural distance on each scale is only a measure of the degree of difference and not the direction of the difference. Fourth, and finally, I created the perceived cultural distance score for each person as the average of the five absolute values. While difference scores are notably unreliable (Edwards, 2001) and, consequently, the difference scores calculated on each of the five scales may be low in reliability, aggregating across those difference scores mitigates this concern and results in a more reliable scale. Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for scores on the perceived cultural difference measure were .69 at Time and .67 at Time 2.

Host country national (HCN) support. I used Tews, Michel, and Ellingson's (2013) coworker support scale to measure the expatriates' perception of host country national support. Participants were asked to think about the host country coworkers with whom they interact the most and rate the extent to which they agreed with each statement using a five point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Sample items included "My [host country] coworkers help me when I'm running behind in my work" and "My [host country] coworkers take a personal interest in me." Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were .91 at both Time 1 and at Time 2.

Expatriate organizational embeddedness. To measure expatriate's organizational embeddedness in the host country, I used the scale included in Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, and Ren's (2012) study. These authors shortened and adapted the items from the Mitchell et al. (2001) and Lee et al. (2004) scales so that they better fit the expatriate context. The scale contains subscales for organizational fit, organizational sacrifices, and organizational links. Participants responded to the five-item organizational fit subscale using a five point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. Sample items include "I like the company members in my host country" and "I feel like I am a good match for my host company." Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for this scale was .84 for the Time 1 survey and .76 for the Time 2 survey.

Participants used the same five point Likert scale for the organizational sacrifices items. This subscale contained two items: "There are a lot of perks associated with my expatriate job that I did not have before" and "I would sacrifice a lot if I left my expatriate assignment". Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the sacrifices scale reliability was .55 for Time 1 and .60 for Time 2.

The organizational links items consist of open-ended questions such as, “How many coworkers do you interact with on a daily basis during your expatriate assignment?” and “How many coworkers are highly dependent on you?” Given this open-ended response format, Cronbach’s alpha could not be completed for this scale.

Further, an overall embeddedness score could not be created by averaging scores across the three subscales due to the different response formats. To create the overall embeddedness score for each person, I conducted a factor analysis of the fit and sacrifice items, retaining two factors. Then, I saved each participant’s factor scores on each of the two factors. Next, because the organizational links scale is best considered a formative measure, I conducted a principal components analysis of responses to these items and saved the component scores for each individual. Finally, to create the overall embeddedness score, I averaged the two factor scores and the component score for each individual.

Assignment turnover intentions. To capture participants’ intentions to leave the assignment, I drew from the withdrawal cognitions scale used by Ren et al. (2014) and also developed new items to capture nuances about their intentions to leave. When expatriates have intentions of leaving the assignment, it is possible that they are simply thinking of returning to the home organization or, alternatively, they could be considering a job at a different organization. I used two of the six items from the Ren et al. (2014) scale because they capture intentions to leave the assignment: “I intend to complete my expatriate assignment” (reverse- coded) and “I often think about quitting this expatriate assignment”. To capture the idea that people may leave the organizational altogether, I wrote three additional items: “I am considering leaving my current expatriate assignment

to work at another company,” “I am searching for job opportunities at other companies in my home country” and “I am searching for another job at a different company in [host country].” Respondents indicated the extent to which they agreed with each of the five items using a seven point Likert scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. An exploratory factor analysis provided support for the idea that the five items were related to a single factor (for detailed results see Appendix D). The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .77 for Time 1 and .75 for Time 2.

Expatriate adjustment. To avoid survey fatigue and fulfill the request of partner organizations, I used a shortened version of the Black and Stephen’s (1989) cross-cultural adjustment scale to create an overall adjustment score. This scale consisted of 10 items that covered general, work, and interaction adjustment. Participants indicated the extent to which they have adjusted to the different components of life in the foreign country using a five point Likert scale (1= not adjusted at all; 5 = very well adjusted). Sample items include adjustment to “Entertainment/ recreation facilities and opportunities”, “Performance standards and expectations” and “Interacting with host country nationals outside of work.” Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .84.

Assignment commitment. I also measured this construct using a single item that was adapted from Klein and Cooper (2014) to the expatriate context – “How committed are you to this expatriate assignment?” Participants indicated their level of commitment to the assignment using a five-point rating scale where 1 = not at all and 5 = extremely.

Demographic variables. I gathered demographic data by including in the first online survey questions regarding gender, age, home country, host country, time on assignment, organizational tenure, and details about family relocation. Additionally, since

there are different types of expatriates, the survey for snowball participants asked if they were sent on an international assignment by their employers or if they had personally initiated the experience themselves. This allowed me to categorize participants as company-sent or self-initiated expatriates. It is important to account for these different types of assignments as research has shown that these types of expatriates have different motivations for going on the assignment (Doherty, Dickmann, & Mills, 2011).

Control variables. In an effort to account for confounding effects, I controlled for theoretically relevant variables. Gender has been found to influence the experiences of expatriates. It is possible that female expatriates are more likely to be categorized as part of the out-group in countries where female labor participation rates are low and where women have more traditional roles (cf. Varma, Toh, & Budhwar, 2006). I also controlled for time on assignment in this study. Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) found that throughout the trajectory of their assignments, expatriates deal with cultural differences in different ways. In their meta-analysis, these authors found that during the first year, expatriates tend to be on the honeymoon stage, i.e., a period in which they are excited about the new culture. Then, expatriates enter the disillusionment or disorientation stage — a phase during which expatriates' experience increased frustration about things being different in the host country. Starting in their third year, expatriates experience more stability and feel the most adjusted. Therefore, the time on assignment may influence the way in which expatriates respond about perceived cultural values, perceived HCN support, sense of embeddedness and turnover intentions.

Family relocation can also influence expatriates' embeddedness — while relocating with a spouse and/or children poses logistical and potential adjustment

challenges (Shaffer et al., 2001), other researchers suggest that they are also means through which the expatriate develops connections in the host country (Lazarova, Westman, & Shaffer, 2010; Takeuchi, Yun, & Paul E. Tesluk, 2002).

I also took into account well-established predictors in the broader turnover literature such as age, organizational tenure, and commitment (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000), in order to rule out alternative explanations. These factors have also been found to be predictive of turnover intentions in the expatriate context (Lueke & Svyantek, 2000).

I also included a measure of polychronicity to serve as a statistical control in this research. Polychronicity refers to the extent to which people prefer to engage in two or more tasks or events at the same time (Kaufman-Scarborough & Lindquist, 1999). Given this definition, polychronicity was not expected to be theoretically related to the study's focal variables and was used as marker variable in analyses to test for the presence of common method variance. Sample items include "When I sit down at my desk, I work on one project at a time (reverse-coded)" and "I am comfortable doing several things at the same time". Participants rated four items (Cronbach's alpha = .75) and indicated the extent to which they agreed with these statements using a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Lastly, I controlled for sample recruiting strategy in an effort to account for methodological issues.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

Data Preparation

Prior to conducting the main analyses, I examined the study variables for missing data and outliers. There were several variables with less than five percent of missing cases. In those instances, I used mean imputations per Tabachnik and Fidell's (2001) recommendation. Next, I deleted seven cases where the respondent had a standardized score on a variable that was 3.29 standard deviations above or below the mean (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001); these univariate outliers were seen for the variables time on assignment (two cases), organizational tenure (two cases), and organizational embeddedness (three cases). Further, I conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to understand if there were significant differences in perceived cultural distance, HCN support, organizational embeddedness and assignment turnover intentions among the sample sources (professional services company, energy company, cosmetics company, manufacturing company, snowball – company-sent expatriates and snowball – self-initiated expatriates). Post-hoc analyses showed that the company-sent and self-initiated expatriates recruited via snowball sampling reported significantly higher turnover intentions compared to expatriates from the partner organization samples. However, there were no significant differences between the partner organizations. Therefore, I created dummy variables for the snowball participants – one for company-sent expatriates (CSE's) and one for self-initiated expatriates (SIE's) and added them as control variables to all models.

Next, considering that 34.5% of the sample did not respond to the follow-up survey, I conducted *t*-test and Chi-square analyses to understand if there were significant differences in demographics and focal variables between participants who completed the initial survey only and those who completed both surveys. As shown on Tables 3 and 4, results indicated that there were no significant differences between them in terms of age, time on assignment, organizational tenure, gender, perceived cultural distance, HCN support, and organizational embeddedness. There was a significant difference in assignment turnover intentions between both groups. Participants who did not respond to the follow-up survey had statistically higher intentions to leave the assignment early; however, the difference was small (0.37 units on a seven-point Likert scale) and not practically significant. Additionally, there was a significant relationship between family relocation and the completion of the follow-up (Time 2) survey. Expatriates who relocated with family were more likely to complete the follow-up survey. This result reinforces the idea that family relocation should be included as a statistical control when testing the study's hypotheses.

Additionally, in order to assess the distinctiveness of the study's theoretical variables, I conducted a series of exploratory factor analyses using the difference scores for each of the five cultural difference dimensions, the HCN support items, the organizational sacrifices and organizational fit items, the component score for the organizational links, and the assignment turnover intentions items. (For detailed notes on the factor analyses, see Appendix E). Per the Kaiser rule, there were six factors in the data, i.e., there were six factors with Eigen values above one. The results of this six-factor EFA are presented in Table 5 and the correlations among the factors are in Table 6.

The five items assessing perceived differences in cultural values defined Factor 1, the organizational sacrifices items defined Factor 5, and the assignment turnover intentions defined Factor 6. However, the HCN support items defined two factors (Factors 2 and 3) rather than one. This result is consistent with the idea that coworker support can take different forms (Tews et al., 2013). Factor 2 was defined by items related to instrumental (i.e., task-focused) support and Factor 3 was defined by items related to emotional (i.e., person-focused) support. More specifically, Factor 2 was defined by items that stated that coworkers in the host country “help me out when things get demanding” and “assist me with heavy workloads” while Factor 3 was defined by items stated that coworkers in the host country “take time to listen to my concerns” and “listen to me when I have to get something off my chest.” Despite the fact that HCN support items were split into two factors, I was comfortable with using all HCN support items as a single variable in my main analyses because the correlation between HCN emotional support and HCN instrumental support factors was relatively strong ($r = -.56$) and the reliability analyses showed strong internal consistency for overall HCN support (Cronbach’s alpha = .91 at Time 1 and at Time 2). Lastly, items about organizational fit and organizational links loaded onto a single factor, Factor 4, instead of two. Table 6 shows that the correlations among the factors were small, which provides evidence that the scales represent different constructs.

As a last step in data preparation, I calculated means, standard deviations, scale reliabilities, and bivariate correlations for each of the study variables, which are reported in Tables 7 and 8. All data looked normal, except for the time-related variables of time on assignment, organizational tenure, and age, all of which had large ranges. There are

several relationship patterns that are worthy of note. First, assignment commitment (measured at Time 1) had a stronger relationship with assignment turnover intentions across both time points than organizational embeddedness. These results highlight the need to statistically control for traditional antecedents of expatriate's assignment turnover intentions. Second, the correlation between assignment turnover intentions measured at Time 1 and at Time 2 is strong ($r = .79, p < .01$) and the means of these variables across both time points are similar. These metrics suggests that there was little change in intentions to leave the assignment between surveys. Third, the correlational analyses also revealed an unexpected relationship between the marker variable, polychronicity, and assignment turnover intentions at Time 2. Initially, I included polychronicity in the first survey as a way to assess common method bias when analyzing cross-sectional data. However, because of this finding, I included this variable as a statistical control even when testing the hypotheses with time-lagged data.

While all variables measured across both time points are reported in Tables 7 and 8, it is important to note that for tests of the hypotheses, I used partial correlations where I controlled for the marker variable, polychronicity, in order to account for common method variance. In these analyses, predictor variables (i.e., perceived cultural distance, HCN support, organizational embeddedness) were assessed at Time 1 and the outcome variable, assignment turnover intentions, was assessed at Time 2.

Test of the Hypothesized Relationships

Hypotheses 1, 3, and 4 were tested using the matched sample ($N = 131$) and by calculating partial correlations while controlling for the marker variable, polychronicity, (included in Table 9). Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be a negative relationship

between organizational embeddedness and expatriates' intentions to leave the assignment. The partial correlation between organizational embeddedness measured at Time 1 and assignment turnover intentions measured at Time 2 was negative and statistically significant ($r = -.19, p < .05$). This result is consistent with Hypothesis 1 – the more highly embedded an expatriate was, the lower his/her assignment turnover intentions were. Hypothesis 3 stated that there would be negative relationship between perceived cultural distance and expatriates' organizational embeddedness. The partial correlation between these two variables in the matched sample (both measured at Time 1) was not statistically significant ($r = -.06, n.s.$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. Hypothesis 4 predicted that there would be a positive relationship between HCN support and organizational embeddedness. The partial correlation between these two variables (both measured at Time 1) was statistically significant ($r = .24, p < .01$) – which is consistent with Hypothesis 4. The higher the HCN support that an expatriate perceives, the more highly embedded he or she was.

To test Hypotheses 2, I conducted a hierarchical multiple regression to understand if organizational embeddedness at Time 1 accounted for significant incremental variance in assignment turnover intentions at Time 2 over well-established predictors of assignment turnover intentions. Specifically, Hypothesis 2 suggested that organizational embeddedness would predict assignment turnover intentions over assignment commitment and expatriate adjustment. Results of this analysis are presented on Table 10. I entered the dummy variables for company-sent and self-initiated snowball participants in Step 1, demographic and other control variables in Step 2, assignment commitment on Step 3, expatriate adjustment on Step 4, and organizational

embeddedness in Step 5. Model 1 which included the dummy variables for snowball participants who were company-sent expatriates and self-initiated expatriates accounted for 22% of the variance. Next, I entered age, sex, family relocation, time on assignment, organizational tenure, and polychronicity to Model 2. This model explained 36% of the variance in assignment turnover intentions and the 14% increment was statistically significant. Once I entered assignment commitment in Step 3, the model explained 47% of the variance and the 11% increment was statistically significant. Adding expatriate adjustment in Step 4 significantly increased the variance by 3% and the total variance explained by this model was 49%. However, when entering organizational embeddedness into Model 5, there was not a significant increase in variance explained; thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. (It is important to note that, out of the control variables included, only the dummy variables for snowball participants who were company-sent and self-initiated expatriates, time on assignment, assignment commitment, and expatriate adjustment were statistically significant predictors of assignment turnover intentions. Also, surprisingly, polychronicity was a statistically significant predictor. Thus, these were the variables included as statistical controls in subsequent analyses along with relocation with family given the results of Chi-square analyses previously discussed).

Hypothesis 5 proposed that HCN support would moderate the relationship between perceived cultural distance and expatriate organizational embeddedness, such that the relationship would be weaker as HCN support increases. Moreover, Hypothesis 6 predicted that organizational embeddedness would mediate the relationship between (a) perceived cultural distance, (b) HCN support, (c) the interaction between them, and expatriates' assignment turnover intentions. Together, these two hypotheses propose a set

of relationships that constitute a moderated mediation model and a second mediation model. To test the moderated mediation model, I used a path-analytic framework that integrates moderation regression analysis and path analysis (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). I used Hayes' (2016) PROCESS macro to estimate the direct and indirect effect of perceived cultural distance on expatriates' turnover intentions and generated confidence intervals of the indirect effect using bootstrapping methods. Additionally, this tool allows for testing the indirect effect at different values of the moderator variable, i.e., HCN support. Further, I conducted a separate mediation model to examine if HCN support would transmit its effect on turnover intentions via organizational embeddedness. With the exception of assignment turnover intentions which was assessed at Time 2, all variables included in the analyses for Hypotheses 5 and 6 were measured at Time 1.

As shown on Table 11, Hypotheses 5 and 6 (c) were not supported. Results revealed that the cross-product between perceived cultural distance and HCN support did not significantly predict assignment turnover intentions ($b = .15$, n.s.), nor does it transmit its effect via organizational embeddedness. Thus, I proceeded to test Hypotheses 6 (a) and (b) with simple mediational models; the results from these models are presented on Table 12. Mediational analyses show that Time 1 organizational embeddedness did not significantly mediate the relationship between Time 1 perceived cultural distance and Time 2 assignment turnover intentions (indirect effect = .00; SE = .02; 95% bootstrapped confidence interval = -.03 to .05). Organizational embeddedness did not mediate the relationship between HCN support and assignment turnover intentions either (indirect

effect = -.02; SE = .03; 95% bootstrapped 95% confidence interval = -.11 to .02).

Therefore, Hypotheses 6 (a) and (b) were not supported.

Supplemental Analyses

The hypothesized relationships were tested using time-lagged data. However, statistical power was compromised due to participant attrition. Power analysis via G*Power 3.1.9 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, and Lang, 2009) suggests a minimum of 146 participants are needed to detect significant increases in R^2 in a model with four predictor variables. This sample size would have allowed for detection of a small effect size (.10) at a significance level of .05, and a 90% level of statistical power. Yet, I was only able to match 131 participants between Time 1 and Time 2 surveys. With this issue in mind, I conducted supplemental analyses using Time 1 data only where there was more power to detect effects.

The results of the supplemental analyses showed a similar pattern of support for the proposed hypotheses as the results of the primary analyses. Consistent with Hypothesis 1 and 4, both analyses found that organizational embeddedness is negatively related to assignment turnover intentions and positively related to HCN support, respectively. Further, the supplemental analyses did not find support for Hypothesis 3 (negative relationship between perceived cultural distance and organizational embeddedness) nor Hypothesis 5 (HCN support would moderate the relationship between perceived cultural distance and organizational embeddedness) – and these findings are consistent with the results of the main analyses.

However, the supplemental analyses provided new insights for Hypothesis 2 and 6; both hypotheses were supported. Unlike the main analyses, the results of supplemental

analyses indicated that, consistent with Hypothesis 2, organizational embeddedness significantly increased the variance explained in assignment turnover intentions above expatriate adjustment and assignment commitment. Also, these results provided partial support for Hypothesis 6. While organizational embeddedness did not significantly mediate the relationship between perceived cultural distance and assignment turnover intentions (Hypothesis 6a), it did significantly mediate the relationship between HCN support and assignment turnover intentions (Hypothesis 6b).

Furthermore, considering that the study sample consists of two types of expatriates, I conducted further exploratory analyses to understand if the results varied as a function of whether an expatriate is company-sent or self-initiated. Both of these types of expatriates are employees who relocate to a foreign country on a temporary basis for work purposes. As such, both types of expatriates would benefit from HCN support to develop a sense of embeddedness in the host organization. However, they differ in that self-initiated expatriates have a high degree of choice with regards to the host country location while company-sent expatriates' choices are limited because they are determined by their employer's business needs (Doherty et al., 2011). In other words, self-initiated expatriates presumably pursue international opportunities in countries where they are comfortable with the degree of perceived cultural distance, but this may not necessarily be the case for company-sent expatriates. Therefore, it is possible that perceived cultural distance is influential for company-sent expatriates but not for self-initiated expatriates. And for that reason, I tested the proposed model using Time 1 data and by including expatriate type as a moderator.

Results of moderated mediation analyses showed that expatriate type moderated the relationship between perceived cultural distance and organizational embeddedness; however, the relationships were in the opposite direction than expected. In situations of high perceived cultural distance, company-sent expatriates were more highly embedded than self-initiated expatriates. In contrast, in situations of low perceived cultural distance, company-sent expatriates are more weakly embedded than self-initiated expatriates. While there could be several reasons for this unexpected finding, a potential explanation could be that self-initiated expatriates tended to pursue international work opportunities in countries with similar cultures and that company-sent expatriates embraced high cultural distance. When company-sent expatriates are assigned to move to countries with high cultural distance, it is likely because of pressing business needs. Therefore, those experiences are presumably highly-compensated and/or have a big career impact. As such, it could be possible that assignments in high cultural distance countries can have higher monetary and psychological benefits that promote embeddedness.

Further, organizational embeddedness significantly mediated the relationship between perceived cultural distance and assignment turnover intentions for company-sent expatriates but not for self-initiated expatriates. And organizational embeddedness remained a significant mediator of the relationship between HCN support and assignment turnover intentions. Taken altogether, the series of moderated mediation analyses including expatriate type as a moderator provided some support for Hypothesis 6.

In sum, the supplemental analyses indicate that under the right conditions and with a larger sample, all of the proposed relationships could potentially be supported – except for the interaction between perceived cultural distance and HCN support

(Hypothesis 5). Across the series of analyses, there was considerable support for the positive effect of HCN support on organizational embeddedness, which, in turn, reduces assignment turnover intentions. However, the effect of perceived cultural distance on organizational embeddedness and consequent reduced turnover intentions was found among company-sent expatriates only.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Expatriate employees hold critical and expensive positions that enable organizations to transfer knowledge between different offices, supervise subsidiary operations, and build global relationships among employees (Collings et al., 2007). Therefore, ensuring expatriate success is of the utmost importance for achieving such business goals. Yet, international assignments are complex to manage – more complicated than managing employees in domestic jobs – because expatriates require additional support (e.g., relocation services, immigration and accounting and taxation support, cross-cultural training, children’s educational costs and adjustment to different educational systems, etc.; c.f., Brewster, Bonache, Cerdin, & Suutari, 2014) and because it poses a lot of changes in their personal lives (e.g., leaving their social support networks behind, disruption to spouse’s career, and concerns about quality of children’s education; Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994).

As a reflection of the importance and complexity of expatriate experiences, the study of what makes international assignments successful has been central to expatriate research for decades. While the main focus has been on the factors that influence expatriates’ decision to leave the assignment (i.e., lack of adjustment and low commitment), recent research has drawn from Mitchell et al.’s (2001) concept of job embeddedness as a means of understanding the factors that influence expatriates’ decision to stay and complete the assignment. The job embeddedness framework draws attention to the elements of the social environment that bind employees (or expatriates, in

this case) to the organization by examining their sense of fit, their social connections or links, and their sacrifices (i.e., material and psychological benefits that would be forfeited if they left the job).

The relationship between job embeddedness, turnover intentions, and actual turnover has been well-documented in domestic settings (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). However, little is known about the factors that lead employees to become embedded in their work environments – and even less is known about the factors that lead expatriates to become embedded in their host organizations. Using data from expatriates across different organizations, the current research aimed to study two particularly unique aspects of the expatriate experience that can influence people's sense of connection to the organization in a foreign country – perceived cultural distance and HCN support.

Findings

Consistent with previous research (Ren et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2014), the results of the present study showed that the more embedded an expatriate is, the lower his or her assignment turnover intentions will be. Therefore, organizations can promote assignment completion by designing expatriate experiences that promote expatriates' embeddedness in the host organization. The finding that HCN support was positively related to organizational embeddedness suggests that one way in which organizations can improve assignment completion intentions would be to design experiences involving HCN coworkers in the expatriate socialization process. While expatriates are not new employees, they are still newcomers to the host organization. HCN coworkers can provide emotional and informational resources that can help expatriates navigate the new

work environment. These interactions can lead expatriates to feel like HCN coworkers care about them, which, in turn, can increase their sense of fit with the host organization.

The findings of this study make a few theoretical and measurement contributions to the expatriate research literature. First, this is one of the few studies, to my knowledge, that examines job embeddedness in the expatriate context – and it advances this emerging field by studying both the antecedents and consequences of expatriates’ embeddedness in the host organization. By examining that relationship in the expatriate context, this study advances research on international assignments by pushing it beyond issues of expatriate adjustment that dominate this line of research (Mol, Born, & van der Molen, 2005). This is important because becoming familiar with the aspects of the international assignment might not be sufficient to retaining expatriates and/or promoting positive organizational outcomes. Further, this study pushes past the dominant “expatriate-centric” perspective that ignores the role of other stakeholders who can affect the expatriate experience (Takeuchi, 2010). Instead, this research highlights the important role that HCN coworkers can play in influencing the expatriate experience.

From a measurement standpoint, this study explored new ways of capturing relevant expatriate constructs. While the dominant practice in cross-cultural research is to assess cultural distance by relying on country-level value scores (Shaffer & Riordan, 2003), this study aimed to capture the subjective experience of cultural distance by specifically asking participants about their perceptions of cultural differences.

Admittedly, creating a composite across a set of difference score items is unusual as a measurement approach, I believe that the process makes sense from a conceptual

standpoint. Highlighting these issues can help future researchers explore alternate ways of measuring perceptions of cultural difference.

Another contribution of this study is related to the assessment of assignment turnover intentions. Previous research has not paid adequate attention to the fact that expatriate turnover could mean that they leave either the assignment but return to the home organization or simply leave the organization altogether. Through exploratory factor analysis, I found that adding items to capture these different ways of leaving did not change the factor structure of the measure. Assignment turnover intentions was found to be a single-factor construct. Essentially, this finding indicates that expatriates do not distinguish between leaving the assignment and leaving the organization. Therefore, it is important for organizations to recognize that expatriates who have thoughts about leaving the assignment may be considering leaving the organization altogether – and that to the extent that they promote expatriates' embeddedness in the host organization, they will be able to minimize this risk. Going forward, researchers can use this scale to measure expatriates' intentions to leave the assignment while also providing nuanced information to practitioners who manage expatriate assignment programs.

Theory vs. Measurement and Conceptual Issues

I found support for only two of the proposed hypotheses in this study. Such results warrant the question of whether the lack of support was due to methodological/measurement issues or theoretical issues. I believe that this study mainly suffered from methodological and measurement issues. However, despite its grounding on previous theoretical and empirical work, I recognize that there are some theoretical issues in this

research. In the following section, I summarize the main issues that affected the results of this study and provide recommendations for future research.

Sample Size and Composition. When examining the proposed relationships within the time-lagged data, I found support for the negative relationship between organizational embeddedness and assignment turnover intentions and for the positive relationship between HCN support and organizational embeddedness. Although the time-lagged design is optimal, I had more power to detect smaller effect sizes when I looked at the relationships between the variables collected at Time 1 (i.e., the supplemental analyses). In looking at only those Time 1 data, I found essentially the same results: (1) HCN support predicted organizational embeddedness which, in turn, predicted assignment turnover intentions; and (2) there was a lack of support for relationships with perceived cultural distance.

Then, knowing that the sample was composed of different types of expatriates, I decided to examine how the relationships vary by type (rather than simply statistically controlling for it). These supplemental analyses revealed that the influence that perceived cultural distance has on the international experience can, in fact, vary depending on whether the person is a company-sent or a self-initiated expatriate. Therefore, to appropriately test the theory, it is important to use a time-lagged design with a larger sample and to theorize about expatriate type. Although expatriate employees are a difficult population to access, future research should consider partnering with more organizations, organizations with larger expatriate populations or follow organizations over time as they send employees into international assignments in order to avoid issues of low statistical power.

Common method bias. In an effort to reduce issues related to common method bias, the survey questionnaire included a few design measures recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003). As previously discussed, perceived cultural distance, HCN support, organizational embeddedness, and assignment turnover intentions were measured in different rating scales in order to methodologically separate constructs. Additionally, I included a marker variable that can be used to partial out the variance due to common method bias. Analyses showed that the marker variable, polychronicity, was correlated and significantly predicted assignment turnover intentions (measured at Time 2). Given that the marker variable was related to only one of the study's focal variables and not several of them, it does not seem as if common method variance was positively inflating the covariation between the scores on the variables. What is more, thinking about this result led me to wonder if perhaps there is a theoretical reason for the relationship between polychronicity and assignment turnover intentions. It is possible that expatriates who prefer to complete multiple tasks at the same time are better positioned to be successful in an expatriate role. They may be more likely to meet the demands of work and personal life in two countries; thereby, decreasing their intentions to leave the assignment. In hindsight, the measure of polychronicity may have been a poor choice of measures for the marker variable.

Expatriates' Organizational Embeddedness. While the scales used in this study were obtained from previous research that adapted embeddedness items to the expatriate context (Kraimer et al., 2010), the measurement of organizational embeddedness raises concerns for two reasons: (1) The factor structure of the organizational embeddedness data is inconsistent with its conceptualization (i.e., that it is formed by three distinct

factors of fit, links, and sacrifices); and (2) the scales are not broad enough to correctly capture the construct domain.

As shown in Table 5, the subdimensions were not distinct - organizational fit and organizational links loaded on the same factor. Furthermore, the organizational sacrifices scale had low internal consistency, which is not surprising considering that the scale only contained two items. Additionally, the organizational links scale asked participants to report the numbers of organizational connections that they had. However, the mere quantity of links may not be the only factor that leads to higher embeddedness. It is also important to consider the quality of those links. It is possible for the expatriate to have interactions with a large number of people but not feel connected to them. Also, having a large number of interactions with coworkers, peers, and teams could be indicative of role overload as the expatriate may have to meet the needs and perhaps conflicting requests of organizational members. Unfortunately, the way in which organizational links were assessed do not capture such nuances. Future studies should examine better ways of assessing organizational sacrifices and links so that the subdimensions are distinct and that the broad construct of embeddedness is appropriately captured.

Perceived cultural distance. As previously discussed, this study departed from traditional cross-cultural research by aiming to study the subjective experience of cultural differences rather than relying on country-level scores of cultural values. To do so, study participants rated the extent to which the items reflected their values and the values of their coworkers in the host country. However, it is possible that rating others' cultural values might have been a cognitively taxing activity for participants. Further, by relying on self and other ratings of cultural values, perceived cultural distance was measured

using a composite of the difference scores across the dimensions of cultural differences used in this study. While there are no viable alternatives for measuring this construct, the use of a composite of difference scores was less than ideal. Therefore, future studies would benefit from exploring alternative ways to assess expatriates' perceptions of cultural differences.

Moreover, there are other theoretical approaches related to cultural differences that researchers should consider when designing future studies. While this study focused on the overall perceptions of cultural distance, it is possible that expatriates' sense of fit and ability to relate to HCN coworkers is influenced by their perceptions of difference on certain value dimensions. Further, the level of importance that is placed on a cultural value might vary from person to person. For example, some people might be more sensitive to differences in power distance than differences in long-term orientation, while others might weigh the masculinity/femininity value more heavily than long-term orientation. Future research should consider examining the relationships between expatriates' organizational embeddedness and different cultural dimensions as well as investigating further if there are certain values that are typically ranked of higher importance than others.

Measurement vs. Theory Issues. Thus far, I have summarized the measurement and methodological issues by topic and acknowledged related theoretical limitations where appropriate. However, I believe that the measurement and methodological issues outweigh the theoretical ones. The proposed hypotheses in this study were based on strong foundation of previous theoretical and empirical work. Consistent with prior empirical work (see Mannix & Neale, 2005 for a summary), I drew from the similarity-

attraction paradigm to inform my prediction that perceived cultural distance would negatively relate to expatriates' organizational embeddedness. The results of this study found statistically significant relationships between those variables; however, supplemental analyses revealed that this relationship was moderated by expatriate type. In other words, the results showed a boundary condition for the similarity-attraction paradigm within the expatriate context. That is, cultural similarity, i.e., low perceived cultural distance, increases attraction and (subsequent embeddedness) for self-initiated expatriates but not company-sent expatriates.

Moreover, my prediction that HCN support would have a positive relationship with organizational embeddedness was also grounded on well-established social support research (e.g., Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Also, I predicted that there would be a negative relationship between organizational embeddedness and assignment turnover intentions based on previous job embeddedness research in domestic settings (Lee et al., 2014). And the study results support both hypotheses, which indicates that there is sound theoretical grounding for this research. Further, the supplemental analyses using Time 1 data provided promising results. Understanding the limitations of the inferences that can be made with cross-sectional data, supplemental analyses showed that organizational embeddedness was a significant mediator. That is, HCN support predicted organizational embeddedness, which, in turn, reduced assignment turnover intentions. This pattern of results serves as another indicator that the theory behind the proposed hypotheses was sound.

Additional Suggestions for Future Research

It is important to recognize that by the nature of their assignments, expatriates are in a unique situation where they have ties to the home and the host organization. In fact, there are many international assignments that are designed so that the expatriate can be a liaison between the home and host organization (Au & Fukuda, 2002; Vance & Andersen, 2014). Therefore, the expatriate can be embedded in one or both organizations. The assignment turnover intentions of expatriates in this study may not have been only influenced by their embeddedness in the host organization, but also by their embeddedness in the home organization. While that relationship was not examined in this study, I recommend that future studies of expatriate embeddedness examine the influence of embeddedness in the home organization on outcomes such as assignment turnover intentions.

Future research should also consider that organizational embeddedness is likely to be an unfolding process. In this study, expatriates were surveyed at different stages of their international assignments. While time on assignment was included as a statistical control in the analyses, a better way of examining the process of embedding would be to follow expatriates from the beginning of their relocation throughout the progression of their assignments. Such a design would highlight the average amount of time that it takes to become embedded in the host organization and how antecedents (e.g., HCN support) influence embeddedness across different time points.

Furthermore, while the present research focused solely on organizational embeddedness, the job embeddedness framework set forth by Mitchell et al. (2001) also includes off-the-job (i.e., community) factors that influence people's decision to leave an

organization. Community embeddedness has been a contested aspect of this framework in previous research, as the conceptualization of “community” can vary across cultures (c.f. Zhang et al., 2012). Future studies should explore ways to capture community embeddedness that are appropriate for intercultural contexts. Additionally, future research should examine the process by which expatriates become embedded in the host country community and the interplay between organizational and community embeddedness to understand their intentions to leave the assignment.

Lastly, it is important to note that while the relationship between organizational embeddedness and assignment turnover intentions was statistically significant, the results suggested that assignment commitment was a stronger predictor of assignment turnover intentions than was organizational embeddedness. As previously discussed, the bivariate relationship between assignment turnover intentions (measured at Time 1 and Time 2) and assignment commitment was stronger than its relationship with organizational embeddedness. Also, the results of hierarchical multiple regression (in main and in supplemental analyses) showed that assignment commitment explained more variance in assignment turnover intentions than did organizational embeddedness. It is possible that assignment turnover intentions is a secondary outcome of organizational embeddedness. That is, instead of having a direct link, assignment commitment may mediate the relationship between organizational embeddedness – and future studies should examine this possibility.

Conclusion

The job embeddedness model of voluntary turnover is a promising framework that can help researchers understand expatriate assignment turnover intentions. As such,

it is important for organizations to understand how they can create work environments that promote expatriates' embeddedness in the host organization as a way to foster assignment completion. The results of this study highlight the important role the coworkers in the host country play in shaping the expatriate experience. The more expatriates' feel supported by HCN coworkers, the more likely they are to be embedded in the host organization. Thus, organizations should consider adopting management practices that encourage positive relationships between host country national employees and expatriates. While the role of host country nationals is important to consider, it is only an initial step toward understanding the elements in the social environment that influence expatriates' connection to the host organization. Future research should explore other environmental factors, including the role of other stakeholders of the international assignment such the expatriate family and non-work contacts in the host country.

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FIGURES

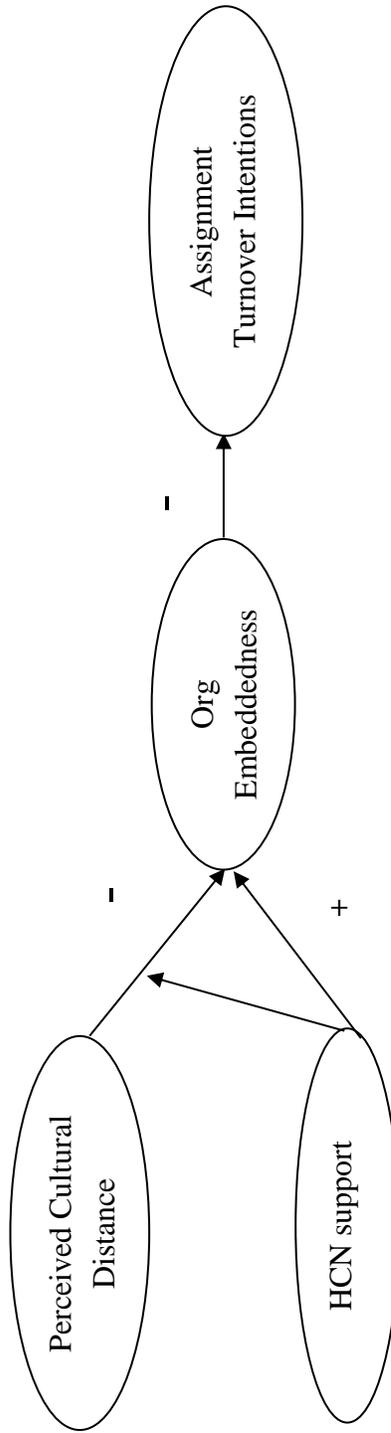


Figure 1. Proposed Model

TABLES

Table 1. Demographic Profiles of Participants at Time 1 and Time 2

	Time 1 Sample	Time 2 (Matched) Sample
Total N	200	131
Female	38.5%	38.2%
Male	61.5%	61.8%
Relocated with family	48.0%	55.7%
Relocated by themselves	52.0%	44.3%
Company-sent expatriates	72.0%	74.0%
Self-initiated expatriates	28.0%	26.0%
Average age (SD)	37.7 (9.8)	37.6 (9.3)
Average time on assignment (SD)	2.02 (1.8)	1.93 (1.7)
Average organizational tenure (SD)	7.09 (5.9)	6.88 (5.7)
<i>Home Countries Represented</i>		
United States of America	31.0%	33.6%
France	9.0%	9.2%
United Kingdom	6.0%	4.6%
Canada	5.0%	3.1%
India	4.5%	3.8%
Other	44.5%	45.7%
<i>Host Countries Represented</i>		
United States	16.5%	16.8%
Netherlands	9.5%	10.7%
Singapore	6.0%	6.9%
China	5.5%	5.3%
Germany	5.5%	3.1%
United Kingdom	5.0%	6.1%
Finland	4.5%	6.1%
Other	47.5%	45.0%

Table 2. Survey Completion Details by Sample Source

	Time 1	Time 2	Percent Matched
Professional Services Company	7	2	28.6%
Energy Company	19	12	63.2%
Cosmetics Company	51	37	72.5%
Manufacturing Company	16	12	75.0%
Snowball – CSE	51	34	66.7%
Snowball – SIE	56	34	60.7%
Total	200	131	65.5%

Note: CSE refers to company-sent expatriates; SIE refers to self-initiated expatriates.

Table 3. Results of Independent Samples T- Test and Descriptive Statistics for Demographic and Study Variables by Survey Completion

	Completed Follow-up (Time 2) Survey				<i>t</i>	df	95% C.I. of the Difference	
	Yes (N = 131)		No (N = 69)				Lower	Upper
	M	SD	M	SD				
Age	37.61	9.32	37.81	10.80	-.13	198	-3.08	2.70
Time on assignment	6.88	5.59	7.48	6.70	-.68	198	-2.36	1.15
Organizational tenure	1.93	1.75	2.18	1.95	-.92	198	-.78	.28
Perceived cultural distance	1.43	.73	1.33	.81	.81	198	-.13	.32
Organizational embeddedness	-0.02	.39	-.09	.45	1.29	198	-.04	.20
HCN support	3.54	.61	3.42	.66	1.29	198	-.06	.30
Assignment turnover intentions	2.34	1.15	2.72	1.32	-1.99	123.3	.01	.75

Note: Equal variances assumed for all tests except for assignment turnover intentions, where equal variances were not assumed. *t* = *t*-test value, df= degrees of freedom, Mean Diff. = mean difference. C.I. = confidence interval

Table 4. Results of Chi Square Test of Independence and Descriptive Statistics for Demographics by Survey Completion

	Completed Follow-up (Time 2) Survey				χ^2	df
	Yes (N = 131)		No (N = 69)			
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent		
<i>Gender</i>					.02	1
Female	50	38.2%	27	39.1%		
Male	81	61.8%	42	60.9%		
<i>Family Relocation</i>					9.01**	1
Relocated with family	73	55.7%	23	33.3%		
Relocated by him/herself	58	44.3%	46	66.7%		

** $p < .01$, df = degrees of freedom

Table 5. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Test of Discriminant Validity

Item	Factor Loadings					
	Perceived Cultural Distance	HCN Support - Instrumental	HCN Support - Emotional	Fit and Links	Sacrifices	Assignment Turnover Intentions
DiffPD	.54	.01	.00	.00	.08	-.01
DiffUA	.61	-.01	-.01	.01	-.19	-.01
DiffCOL	.48	.00	.03	.00	.05	.04
DiffLTO	.59	-.03	-.06	-.07	-.06	-.12
DiffMAS	.66	.09	-.03	.05	.06	.10
HCNSup1	-.13	.37	.27	-.01	-.11	-.07
HCNSup2	-.10	.60	.03	.02	.07	-.09
HCNSup3	.06	.70	.05	.06	.02	.03
HCNSup4	.00	.77	.04	-.15	.02	-.02
HCNSup5	.02	.61	.14	-.05	-.08	-.04
HCNSup6	.03	.86	-.13	.04	.10	.02
HCNSup7	.10	.79	.02	-.01	-.01	-.04
HCNSup8	-.05	.73	.08	.12	-.05	.14
HCNSup9	.02	-.06	.74	-.06	.03	-.05
HCNSup10	-.01	.16	.69	.09	.06	.09
HCNSup11	-.03	.00	.86	.00	.02	.07
HCNSup12	-.02	-.01	.83	-.01	-.04	-.04
HCNSup13	-.05	.00	.72	.02	.02	-.01
HCNSup14	-.10	.28	.47	-.04	.00	.00
Orgfit1	-.07	.20	.29	.29	.03	-.14
Orgfit2	-.06	.24	-.01	.70	-.02	-.12
Orgfit3	-.06	.22	.10	.52	.16	-.21
Orgfit4	.10	.12	.29	.68	-.12	-.07
Orgfit5	.00	.07	.13	.56	-.03	-.22
Orgsac1	.07	-.01	.14	-.10	.52	.01
Orgsac1	-.07	.07	-.10	.10	.67	-.09
Orglink1	.03	-.17	.00	.28	.06	.02
Orglink2	-.02	-.04	-.10	.32	-.03	.03
ATI1	-.10	-.01	-.05	-.16	-.06	.42
ATI2	.05	.02	-.07	.02	-.23	.71
ATI3	.05	.01	.02	.13	.01	.95
ATI4	-.02	-.01	.04	-.05	-.04	.58
ATI5	.03	.00	.03	-.08	.29	.58

Note: N = 200; Extraction method was principal axis factoring with oblique rotation. Bold highlights indicate the highest factor loading for each item.

Table 6. Correlations among Factors Extracted for Test of Discriminant Validity

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Perceived Cultural Distance	-				
2. HCN Support - Instrumental	-.21				
3. HCN Support - Emotional	-.11	-.56			
4. Fit and Links	-.02	.08	.10		
5. Sacrifices	.05	.12	.03	.05	
6. Assignment Turnover Intentions	.07	-.19	-.20	-.31	-.05

N = 200. Extraction method: Principal axis factoring with oblique rotation

Table 7. Means and Standard Deviations for Study Variables

	Mean	SD
<i>Time 1 Variables</i>		
1. Cultural distance ^a	1.40	.76
2. HCN support	3.50	.63
3. Embeddedness ^b	-.04	.41
4. Turnover intent ^c	2.47	1.22
5. Age	37.68	9.83
6. Sex ^d		
7. Time on assignment ^e	2.02	1.82
8. Organizational tenure	7.09	5.99
9. Family relocation ^f	-	-
10. Snowball – CSE ⁱ	-	-
11. Snowball – SIE ^j	-	-
12. Adjustment ^k	3.58	.65
13. Commitment ^l	4.36	.85
14. Polychronicity	3.58	.77
<i>Time 2 Variables</i>		
15. Cultural Distance (T2) ^a	1.36	.67
16. HCN Support (T2)	3.50	.58
17. Embeddedness (T2) ^b	.00	.50
18. Turnover intent (T2) ^c	2.47	1.22

Note: N = 200 for Time 1 variables, N = 131 for Time 2 variables. ^a Perceived cultural distance; ^b Organizational embeddedness; ^c Assignment turnover intentions; ^d Reference category for sex (female = 1, male = 0); ^e Time on assignment (in months); ^{f,j} Reference category (1 = yes, 0 = no); ⁱ Snowball – Company-sent expatriate; ^j Snowball – Self-initiated expatriate; ^k Expatriate adjustment; ^l Assignment commitment.

Table 8. Bivariate Correlations among Study Variables and Scale Reliabilities

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
<i>Time 1 Variables</i>																		
1. Cultural distance ^a (.69)																		
2. HCN support	-.15*	(.91)																
3. Embeddedness ^b	-.02	.32**	-															
4. Turnover intent ^c	.08	-.20**	-.35**	(.78)														
5. Age	-.08	-.06	-.07	-.26**	-													
6. Sex ^d	.06	.07	-.11	.17*	-.33**	-												
7. Time on assignment ^e	.06	-.16*	-.09	.21**	.03	.02	-											
8. Family relocation ^f	.05	.03	-.01	-.18*	.31**	-.23**	.08	-										
9. Tenure	-.24**	-.03	-.00	-.25**	.57**	-.34**	.16*	.19**	-									
10. Snowball – CSE ^g	.15*	-.08	.08	.12	-.12	.01	-.04	-.19**	-.01	-								
11. Snowball – SIE ^h	.20**	-.01	-.09	.30**	-.38**	.33**	.11	-.06	-.50**	-.36**	-							
12. Adjustment ^k	-.02	.23**	.17**	-.18**	-.03	.07	.28**	.19**	-.01	-.00	.04	(.84)						
13. Commitment ^l	-.04	.22**	.27**	-.46**	.11	-.05	-.02	.06	.18*	-.04	-.28**	.16*	-					
14. Polychronicity	.09	.03	-.02	-.20**	-.03	.10	.01	.00	-.02	.08	.03	.15*	.09	(.75)				
<i>Time 2 Variables</i>																		
15. Cultural Distance ^a	.68**	-.22*	-.11	.21*	.08	-.14	.17	.09	-.03	.09	.08	-.05	.01	.05	(.67)			
16. HCN Support	-.21*	.65**	.32**	-.16	-.04	-.00	-.04	-.02	.01	-.07	.06	.23**	.25**	.07	-.28**	(.92)		
17. Embeddedness ^b	-.11	.15	.69**	-.25**	-.03	-.12	-.01	-.03	.17	-.02	-.14	.23**	.19*	.14	-.08	.34**	-	
18. Turnover intent ^c	.16	-.10	-.20*	.79**	-.33**	.25**	.18*	-.31**	-.35**	.20*	.33**	-.18*	-.45**	-.18*	.17	-.15	-.30**	(.76)

Note: N = 200 for correlations among Time 1 variables, N = 131 for correlations with and among Time 2 variables. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Values on the diagonal are scale reliabilities. ^a Perceived cultural distance; ^b Organizational embeddedness; ^c Assignment turnover intentions; ^d Reference category for sex (female = 1, male = 0); ^e Time on assignment and organizational tenure were measured in years; ^f Reference category (1 = yes, 0 = no);

^g Snowball – Company-sent expatriate; ^h Snowball – Self-initiated expatriate; ^k Expatriate adjustment; ^l Assignment commitment;

Table 9. Partial correlations to test Hypotheses 1,3, and 4 with Matched Sample

	<i>r</i>
H1: Organizational Embeddedness and Assignment Turnover Intentions	-.19*
H3: Perceived Cultural Distance and Organizational Embeddedness	-.06
H4: HCN Support and Organizational Embeddedness	.24**

Note. N = 131; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. Partial correlations calculated while controlling for polychronicity, the marker variable used in this study. Assignment turnover intentions was measured at Time 2, all other variables were measured at Time 1.

Table 10. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Expatriate Assignment Turnover Intentions using Time-Lagged Data

Model	<i>b</i>	S.E.	R ²	ΔR ²
<i>Step 1</i>				
Intercept	1.90**	.14	.22	.22**
Snowball – CSE	.98**	.23		
Snowball – SIE	1.26**	.23		
<i>Step 2</i>				
Intercept	3.56**	.66	.36	.14**
Snowball – CSE	.70**	.24		
Snowball – SIE	.92**	.28		
Age	-.01	.01		
Sex	.20	.20		
Family relocation	-.47*	.20		
Time on assignment	.15**	.00		
Organizational tenure	-.02	.00		
Polychronicity ^a	-.38**	.11		
<i>Step 3</i>				
Intercept	6.06**	.80	.47	.11**
Snowball – CSE	.46*	.22		
Snowball – SIE	.60*	.26		
Age	-.01	.01		
Sex	.24	.19		
Family relocation	-.43*	.19		
Time on assignment	.15**	.00		
Organizational tenure	-.02	.02		
Polychronicity ^a	-.30**	.11		
Assignment commitment	-.55**	.11		

Note: N = 131, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Reference category for sex is female (female = 1; male = 0). Reference category for Family relocation, snowball – company-sent expatriate, snowball self-initiated expatriate is “Yes” (1 = yes, 0 = no). Time on assignment and tenure were measured in years. ^a Polychronicity was added as a marker variable to partial out variance due to common method.

Table 10. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Expatriate Assignment Turnover Intentions (continued)

Model	<i>b</i>	S.E.	R ²	ΔR ²
<i>Step 4</i>			.49	.03*
Intercept	7.05**	.87		
Snowball – CSE	.45*	.22		
Snowball – SIE	.56**	.26		
Age	-.01	.01		
Sex	.25	.18		
Family relocation	-.35	.19		
Time on assignment	.21**	.00		
Organizational tenure	-.01	.02		
Polychronicity ^a	-.26**	.10		
Assignment commitment	-.51**	.11		
Expatriate adjustment	-.36*	.14		
<i>Step 5</i>			.50	.01
Intercept	6.91**	.88		
Snowball – CSE	.45*	.22		
Snowball – SIE	.56**	.26		
Age	-.01	.01		
Sex	.23	.18		
Family relocation	-.34	.19		
Time on assignment	.20**	.00		
Organizational tenure	-.02	.02		
Polychronicity ^a	-.27*	.10		
Assignment commitment	-.48**	.12		
Expatriate adjustment	-.34*	.14		
Organizational embeddedness	-.19	.22		

Note: N = 131, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Reference category for sex is female (female = 1; male = 0). Reference category for Family relocation, snowball – company-sent expatriate, snowball self-initiated expatriate is “Yes” (1 = yes, 0 = no). Time on assignment and tenure were measured in years. ^a Polychronicity was added as a marker variable to partial out variance due to common method.

Table 11. Test of Hypotheses 5 and 6 via Moderated Mediation* Analyses Using Time-Lagged Data

<i>Organizational Embeddedness as Dependent</i>				
<i>Variable</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	
Perceived Cultural Distance (PCD → OE)	.02	.05	.75	
HCN Support (HCN Support → OE)	.07	.06	.24	
PCD x HCN Support (Int → OE) **	.15	.07	.51	
<i>Assignment Turnover Intentions as Dependent</i>				
<i>Variable</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	
Organizational Embeddedness (OE → ATI)	-.19	.23	.40	
Perceived Cultural Distance (PCD → ATI)	-.04	.12	.77	
HCN Support (HCN Support → ATI)	.12	.14	.40	
<i>Bootstrapped Results for Indirect Effects via Organizational Embeddedness</i>				
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
Perceived Cultural Distance	-.00	.02	LL	UL
HCN Support	-.01	.02	-.06	.02
			-.10	.01

Note. N = 131. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size 5,000. 95% CI = 95% Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit; *Statistical controls included company-sent expatriate recruited via snowball sampling, self-initiated expatriate recruited via snowball sampling, family relocation, time on assignment, expatriate adjustment, assignment commitment, and polychronicity. **Interaction term calculated with mean-centered variables.

Table 12. Test of Hypotheses 5 and 6 via Mediation Analyses* Using Time-Lagged Data (after Removing Interaction Term)

<i>Organizational Embeddedness as Dependent Variable</i>				
	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>p</i>	
Perceived Cultural Distance (PCD → OE)	-.01	.05	.87	
HCN Support (HCN Support → OE)	.10	.06	.09	
<i>Assignment Turnover Intentions as Dependent Variable</i>				
	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>p</i>	
Organizational embeddedness (OE → ATI)	-.22	.23	.35	
Perceived Cultural Distance (PCD → ATI)	-.02	.13	.87	
HCN Support (HCN Support → ATI)	.11	.15	.47	
95% CI				
<i>Bootstrapped Results for Indirect Effects via Organizational Embeddedness</i>				
	<i>b</i>	SE	LL	UL
Perceived Cultural Distance	.00	.02	-.03	.05
HCN Support	-.02	.03	-.11	.02

Note. N = 131. Analyses conducted after removing product term (PCD x HCN support) which was not significant in previous moderated mediation analyses. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. 95% CI = 95% Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit; *Statistical controls included time on assignment, company-sent expatriate recruited via snowball sampling, self-initiated expatriate recruited via snowball sampling, expatriate adjustment, assignment commitment, and polychronicity.

APPENDIX A: EXPANDED DETAILS ON RECRUITMENT STRATEGY

ORGANIZATIONAL PARTNERSHIPS

In order to establish partnerships with multinational organizations, I attended two global mobility conferences (one in September 2014 and another one in February 2015), a local chapter meeting for a mobility professional association (in April 2015), and a local chapter meeting for the Society of Human Resources Management (SHRM; in June 2015). I attended these meetings in an effort to network with managers of expatriate and global mobility programs and gauge their interest in participating in my project.

Additionally, I contacted the National Foreign Trade Council and shared details of the study – they agreed to help me advertise the study through an email blast to member organizations. I also posted advertisements on professional groups related to expatriate management and international relocation on LinkedIn.com. I positioned the project as an opportunity to gather expatriate feedback about their international assignments while also helping me collect data for research. As a result of these networking and advertisement efforts, I garnered interest from six organizations. However, two of them were ultimately unable to collaborate on this project as there were changes in organizational priorities – which significantly affected the number of expatriates that I would be able to survey for this project and required that I explore other data collection options, i.e. snowball sampling.

The involvement of partner organizations in this study was minimal. While they were able to review survey questions prior to launch, they were not involved in the data collection nor data reporting part of the study. Managers of expatriate or global mobility programs were only asked to: (1) send out an email communication to current expatriates

announcing our research partnership and encouraging participation and (2) provide contact information and assignment details (e.g., start date, end date, home country and host country) for their current expatriates. In exchange for data access, I prepared a result report and gave a presentation to discuss findings and recommendations.

The communication strategy consisted of multiple email messages prior, during and after the survey administration (sample communications are included at the end of this section). First, the organizational partners sent the research collaboration announcement was sent several weeks prior to the launch of the initial survey (timing varied depending on the organization). Immediately after the announcement was sent, I followed up with an email introducing myself to potential participants. In that message, I shared the study's purpose my background, and made a personal appeal – I conveyed that by being part of this project they would be helping me graduate while also improving their expatriate experience and the experience of future assignees at their company. The rest of the communications schedule was as follows:

- Reminder one week prior to the survey launch
- Survey invitation on the scheduled date for the initial survey
- Targeted reminders 7 and 14 days after the survey launch sent only to expatriates who had not completed the online questionnaire
- Thank you message, including information about the follow-up survey, immediately after the survey was completed.
- Invitation to the follow-up survey six weeks after they completed the first survey
- Reminder one week after receiving invitation to follow-up survey
- Thank you message immediately after completing the follow-up survey

Sample Communications for Recruiting Participants in Partner Organizations

Pre-launch Reminder:

Dear Expatriates,

Don't forget! Our expatriate feedback survey launches on [Day, Month, Date]. This initiative gives you an opportunity to help shape the future of [company name] while improving your work experience.

We look forward to your feedback and assessing positive changes that we could implement throughout our organization. Thank you in advance for your participation.

-Zoa

Email Invitation to Initial Survey:

Dear [name],

We are pleased to invite you to take the expatriate feedback survey. Click [here](#) to take the survey and please complete it by [Day, Month, Date] at [time].

To ensure confidentiality, we have partnered with a research team at UNC Charlotte to facilitate this survey and summarize the findings. By participating in this survey, you are helping [company name] build upon strengths and identify opportunities for improvement. Your candid feedback is critical and greatly appreciated.

There are a few important items to note:

- It's confidential. The UNC Charlotte research team does not release individual data to [company name] or anyone else; survey answers are entirely anonymous.
- The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. If possible, try to finish the survey in one session. If you must return to the survey at a later date, please make sure to log back into the survey from the same computer in which the survey was started.
- Remember that there will be a follow-up survey and it will be launched on [date]. It is critical that you respond to both surveys.
- Questions? If have questions about the survey, our UNC Charlotte research partner, Zoa Ordonez at zordonez@uncc.edu

We thank you for taking the time to participate in this very important initiative and sharing your valuable insights!

Sincerely,

-Zoa

Survey Reminder for First Survey:

Dear [Name],

Last week you received an invitation to participate in the International Assignment Feedback Survey. If you have not had a chance to take the survey, please [click here](#) to complete it. The survey will remain open until the end of the day on [date]. If you need more time, please feel free to contact me to ask for an extension. [Company name] will use your valuable input to understand ways in which it can improve the expatriate experience and the broader global mobility function.

A few items to note about the survey:

- It is confidential. No individual data will be shared with Accenture or anyone else.
- The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete.
 - For your convenience, you are allowed to exit the survey while saving of your progress (this function works by using browser cookies). To continue from where you left off, please log back in the same computer and browser where you started filling out the survey.
- Remember that there will be a follow-up survey and you will receive it six weeks after you complete this survey. It is critical that you respond to both surveys.

If you have questions about the survey or anything else, please contact me at zordonez@uncc.edu. Thank you for taking the time to participate in this very important initiative.

Sincerely,
Zoa Ordonez

Email Invitation to Follow-up Survey:

Dear [Name],

Thank you very much for completing the first part of the Expatriate Feedback Project. Your input will be used to identify areas of strength and development for [company name]'s global mobility program.

Today, I am inviting you to take the second and final survey. Another important goal of this project is to understand how employees' thoughts about the international experience change over time. So, with this quick survey, we would like to check if things have changed for you since you took the initial survey (the questions will look familiar to you). This follow-up survey should only take 5-7 minutes to complete. Please try to complete it within the next two weeks, but if you need more time, do not hesitate in contacting me.

- To take the survey, please click [here](#).
- Note: For your convenience, you are allowed to exit the survey while saving your progress (this function works by using browser cookies). To continue from where you left off, please log back in the same computer and browser where you started filling out the survey.

Thank you in advance for your support on this project. Please let me know if you have any questions or comments.

Kind regards,
Zoa

Second survey reminder:

Hi [Name],

This email is to kindly remind you about the second survey of the Expatriate Feedback Project. This survey is shorter and should take approximately 5 minutes to complete. The survey will remain open until [closing date], so please take a moment to complete it before then. To launch the survey, please click [here](#) to complete it. If you need an extension, do not hesitate to contact me.

Also, please note that if you have started the survey, you may log back in from the same computer and browser and pick up from where you left off.

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this important initiative.

Sincerely,

Zoa

SNOWBALL SAMPLING

I considered collecting data using a Qualtrics panel of participants. However, after conducting a pilot test, I decided that I could not trust the veracity of the responses that the Qualtrics panel participants provided and resorted to snowball sampling instead. Collecting data through Qualtrics consists of providing them with the survey's link and they distribute it to their panel participants. I included screening questions on the first page of the survey to ensure that the respondents were individuals who had relocated to a foreign country for work purposes and had moved for a year or longer but on a temporary basis. While Qualtrics distributed the survey to American respondents currently living in other countries, the IP addresses indicated that many of those individuals were not abroad. For example, a respondent indicated that he lived in China but the IP address showed that at the time of responding, this person was currently in a small town in Arkansas. This pattern of responding was so prevalent that I decided not to pursue this option and conduct snowball sampling instead.

Next, I reached out to my network via email and via Facebook.com requesting help recruiting participants for my study and explaining the criteria for inclusion. In some cases, I received a message back from someone in my network with information about a potential participant. In those cases, I asked for a warm introduction or for them to personally forward a survey invitation to the potential participant. I also posted on expatriate interest groups on social media sites such as Facebook.com and Internations.org. Sample communications for convenience sample recruiting are included below:

Sample Social Media Post:

Dear Friends,

I am seeking current expatriates to be part of my dissertation project. The goal of this research is to understand how cultural differences and the support from host country nationals influence expatriates' international experience.

Participation consists of taking two surveys (six weeks apart) regarding your perceptions of cultural differences, support, and other work topics. The first survey is approximately 15 minutes long and the follow-up survey is 5 minutes long. At the completion of each survey, you can choose to be entered into a drawing of an Amazon gift card for \$125 (first survey) and \$75 (follow-up survey).

If you are interested in participating, please visit [\[link here\]](#). Or if you know of someone who might be interested in taking the surveys, please share this post with them.

I appreciate your support by taking the survey or spreading the word about this study. You will be helping me graduate.

Best regards,

Zoa

Sample Email for Referrals:

Dear [Name],

My name is Zoa Ordonez and I am a Ph.D. student at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. [Name of mutual friend] referred you as a potential participant for a study that I am conducting in order to complete my degree. Therefore, I am reaching out to invite you to participate in my project. As an international student, I identify with the experience of living and working abroad, and, for that reason, I designed a research study to understand how cultural differences and support from host country coworkers influence expatriates' international experience.

About the Study:

Participation consists of taking 2 surveys regarding your perceptions of cultural differences, support, and other work topics. If possible, please complete it within the next two weeks.

- Survey 1 - approximately 15 minutes long. To participate, please click here.
- Survey 2 - 6 weeks after completing survey 1, you will receive a shorter (5-7 minute) survey.

Participation Criteria:

The target participants for this study are expatriates who meet both criteria below:

- Are currently working abroad, and
- Moved to a foreign country on a long-term basis (longer than a year, but did not move permanently)

Benefits:

- Contributing to the understanding of international work experiences and the ways upon which they can be improved
- At the completion of each survey, participants can choose to be entered into a drawing of two Amazon gift cards of \$125 (first survey) and \$75 (follow-up survey).

I very much appreciate your input. It will help research efforts to improve international work experiences in organizations, and also help me graduate. Please let me know if you have any questions or comments.

Best regards,

Zoa

P.S.: If you know of other people who fit this description, I would appreciate if you could forward this message to them.

APPENDIX B: SCALES FOR FOCAL VARIABLES

PERCEIVED CULTURAL DISTANCE

Shortened version derived from Yoo, B., Donthu, N., & Lenartowicz, T. (2011).

Measuring Hofstede's Five Dimensions of Cultural Values at the Individual Level: Development and Validation of CVSCALE. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 23, 193–21.

Rating scale: 1 = very untrue, 2 = untrue, 3 = somewhat untrue, 4 = somewhat true

5 = true, and 6 = very true

Power distance

1. People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.
2. People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions by people in higher positions

Uncertainty Avoidance

1. It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I am expected to do.
2. It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.
3. Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.

Collectivism

1. Group success is more important than individual success.
2. Individuals should not pursue their own goals without considering the welfare of the group.
3. Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.

Long-term orientation

1. Long term planning is important.
2. It is important to give up today's fun for success in the future.
3. It is important to work hard for success in the future.

Masculinity

1. It is important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.
2. There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman.

HOST COUNTRY NATIONAL SUPPORT

from Tews, M. J., Michel, J. W., & Ellingson, J. E. (2013). The Impact of Coworker Support on Employee Turnover in the Hospitality Industry. *Group & Organization Management*, 38(5), 630–653. doi:1.1177/1059601113503039

Rating Scale: (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).

1. My coworkers in [host country] in [host country] assist me with heavy workloads
2. My coworkers in [host country] go out of their way to help me with work-related problems
3. My coworkers in [host country] help me out when things get demanding
4. My coworkers in [host country] help me when I'm running behind my in work
5. My coworkers in [host country] help me with difficult assignments, even when I don't directly request assistance
6. My coworkers in [host country] show me where things are that I need to do my job
7. My coworkers in [host country] compliment me when I succeed at work
8. My coworkers in [host country] listen to me when I have to get something off my chest
9. My coworkers in [host country] make an effort to make me feel welcome in the work group
10. My coworkers in [host country] make an extra effort to understand my problems and concerns
11. My coworkers in [host country] show concern and courtesy toward me, even when things are difficult
12. My coworkers in [host country] take a personal interest in me
13. My coworkers in [host country] take time to listen to my concerns
14. My coworkers in [host country] try to cheer me up when I'm having a bad day

EXPATRIATE ORGANIZATIONAL EMBEDDEDNESS

from Kraimer, M. L., Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., & Ren, H. (2012). No Place Like Home? An Identity Strain Perspective on Repatriate Turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(2), 399–42. doi:1.5465/amj.2009.0644

Rating scale:

^aFive point Likert Rating scale: 1 = not at all, to 5 = to a very large extent

Organizational Fit ^a

1. I like the company members in my host country workplace.
2. My expatriate job uses my skills and talents well.
3. I feel like I am a good match for my host company.
4. I like the authority and responsibility that I have at my expatriate job.
5. I feel good about my professional growth during this expatriate assignment.

Organizational Links

1. How many coworkers do you interact with on a daily basis during your expat assignment?
2. How many coworkers are highly dependent on your work?
3. How many work teams are you currently on in the host company?
4. How many different work committees are you on in the host company?

Organizational Sacrifices

1. There are lot of perks associated with my expatriate job that I didn't have before.
2. I would sacrifice a lot if I left my expatriate assignment.

ASSIGNMENT TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Instructions: To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

Rating scale: (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

1. I intend to complete my expatriate assignment.
2. I often think about quitting this expatriate assignment.
3. I am considering leaving my current expatriate assignment to work at another company.
4. I am searching for job opportunities at other companies in my home country.
5. I am searching for another job at a different company in [host country].

EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT

Instructions: To what extent have you adjusted to the following:

Rating scale = (1= not adjusted at all; 5 = very well adjusted).

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

APPENDIX C: PILOT STUDY CONDUCTED TO SHORTEN YOO ET AL.'S (2011) CVSCALE

The purpose of this pilot study was to (a) shorten the Yoo et al.'s (2011) 26 item cultural values scale (CVSCALE) and (b) to understand the best approach for asking participants about their perceptions of their peers' cultural values. With the help of the international student office of a university located in the southeastern U.S. and through my personal network, I recruited 118 people who have experience living in a foreign country. Using an online survey tool, participants indicated the items twice – once to indicate the extent to which each of the 26 items on the CVSCALE reflected their personal beliefs and a second time to indicate the extent to which the items reflected what they perceived their HCN coworkers' values to be. Participants responded to these items using a six-point scale where 1 = very untrue and 6 = very true. The last question in the pilot survey invited participants to share their thoughts about their experience in taking the survey and/or reactions to any particular items.

Additionally, I conducted a mini-focus group with three international students (consisting of a convenience sample) to probe further about their reactions to survey items and about the difficulty of rating others' cultural values. Their comments about the survey items helped narrowed down which items should be retained in the shortened version of the scale. In terms of the survey format, they suggested that the items could be organized differently to make it easier for respondents to rate cultural values. The pilot study survey was set up such that the participant would indicate the extent to which the item reflected his or her values and the values of their coworkers before advancing to the next item. And the items were separated into five pages – one per cultural dimension. Based on their recommendation, I set up the main study's survey such that participants

would rate how the items reflected their values first. Then, on a second page, participants would see the same items and indicate the extent to which they thought the item reflected their HCN coworkers' values.

Next, I conducted exploratory factor analyses of the responses from the pilot study, reliability analyses for the factors, and considered all of the feedback gathered from the online survey and the mini focus group in order to reduce the number of items in the scale. I generally selected items with high factor loadings and with high item-total correlations. Additionally, I evaluated items conceptually based on feedback from pilot study participants. For example, the original scale for uncertainty avoidance has two items that participants found to be too similar to each other – “It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures” and “Instructions for operations are important”. Even though they both had high factor loadings, I removed the latter item because it had a lower item-total correlation. The shortened CVS scale consisted of 12 items that make up five subscales, one corresponding to each of Hofstede's value dimensions: power distance (two items), uncertainty avoidance (two items), collectivism (three items), long-term orientation (three items), and masculinity (two items). Factor analyses of the retained items are presented in Table 14.

Table 14. Factor Analysis for Shortened Version of the CVSCALE

	Factor Loading
<i>Factor 1: Power Distance</i>	
People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.	.75
People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions made by people in higher positions.	.79
<i>Factor 2: Uncertainty Avoidance</i>	
It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures	.80
Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.	.78
<i>Factor 3: Collectivism</i>	
Group success is more important than individual success.	.78
Individuals should not pursue their own goals without considering the welfare of the group	.72
Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	.70
<i>Factor 4: Long-term Orientation</i>	
Long term planning is important.	-.67
It is important to give up today's fun for success in the future.	-.89
It is important to work hard for success in the future.	-.60
<i>Factor 5: Masculinity</i>	
It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.	.59
There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman.	.80

Note: N = 118. Extraction method: principal factor analysis with oblique rotation.

APPENDIX D: EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS RESULTS FOR
ASSIGNMENT TURNOVER INTENTIONS

Table 13. Exploratory Factor Analysis for Assignment Turnover Intentions Items

Item	Communalities
I intend to complete my expatriate assignment (reverse-coded).	.21
I often think about quitting this expatriate assignment.	.52
I am considering leaving my current expatriate assignment to work at another company.	.86
I am searching for job opportunities at other companies in my home country.	.36
I am searching for another job at a different company in [host country].	.30
Eigenvalue	2.71
% of variance explained	54.3%

Note: N = 200. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Only one factor extracted after 11 iterations.

APPENDIX E: EXPANDED NOTES ON EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSES CONDUCTED TO EXAMINE DISTINCTIVENESS OF VARIABLES

Given that there are 40 observed variables that make up four latent variables (i.e., 12 for perceived cultural distance, 14 for HCN support, nine for organizational embeddedness, and five for assignment turnover intentions), a fully specified model would require 703 data points in order to conduct confirmatory factor analyses (Byrne, 2012). Since this study included data from a total of 200 participants, I conducted a series of exploratory factor analyses instead. I included the difference scores for each of the five cultural difference dimensions, the HCN support items, the organizational sacrifices and organizational fit items, the component score for the organizational links, and the assignment turnover intentions items

I conducted the first EFA with principal axis factoring and oblique rotation to understand how many factors there were. Per the Kaiser rule, the Eigen values indicated that there were seven factors. However, the scree plot indicated that there are six factors. I decided to examine the six-factor solution because this study has four focal constructs, with organizational embeddedness being a formative variable composed of three subdimensions. In other words, this study's key variables are perceived cultural distance, HCN support, organizational fit, organizational sacrifices, organizational links, and assignment turnover intentions.

The results of the six-factor EFA that I retained are presented in Table 5 and the correlations among factors are in Table 6. As expected, the perceived differences in cultural value dimensions defined Factor 1, organizational sacrifices items defined Factor 5, and the assignment turnover intentions defined Factor 6. However, HCN support items

defined two factors (Factors 2 and 3) rather than one. This result is consistent with the idea that coworker support can take different forms (Tews et al., 2013). Factor 2 was defined by items related to instrumental, i.e., task-focused, support, while Factor 3 was defined by items related to emotional, i.e., person-focused, support. For example, Factor 2 was defined by items that stated that coworkers in the host country “help me out when things get demanding” and “assist me with heavy workloads.” Factor 3 was defined by items stated that coworkers in the host country “take time to listen to my concerns” and “listen to me when I have to get something off my chest.” Lastly, items about organizational fit and organizational links loaded onto a single factor, Factor 4, instead of two.

Considering these results, I also explored alternate factor solutions. I examined a seven-factor solution to see if fit and sacrifices would separate into two factors – but that was not the case. I also looked into a five-factor solution to evaluate whether the HCN support items and the organizational embeddedness items would load on single factors (respectively) – and results also showed that that factor structure was not appropriate either because items cross-loaded in inconsistent patterns. Therefore, I decided to retain the six-factor solution.

With the exception of the HCN emotional and instrumental support factors, Table 6 shows that the correlations among the factors were small, which provides evidence that the scales represent different constructs. Further, I reasoned that, in this context, it is acceptable for organizational fit and organizational links to be cross-loaded because they are subdimensions of a formative construct. Also, despite the fact that HCN support items were split into two factors, I was comfortable with using all HCN support items as

a single factor in my main analyses because the correlation between HCN emotional support and HCN instrumental support was relatively strong and the reliability analyses showed strong internal consistency for overall HCN support (Cronbach's alpha = .91 at Time 1 and at Time 2).