The Influence of Individual Characteristics, Meso-Level Supportive Structure, Macro-level Factors and Key Mediating Processes on the Success of International Skilled Migrants in the UK: A Multi-Level Quantitative Approach

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of a Doctor of Philosophy in Management

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September 2020

I. Acknowledgements

In a slight state of euphoria, now that I have finally finished by PhD, I would like to take this moment to thank everyone who supported me during the time of my research project.

To start off with, I would like to thank Dr Aida Hajro, who has taught me more than is custom in a PhD. While she gave me regular feedback, guidance and moral support, most importantly she helped me to grow as a person. For this I am most truly grateful! Above all, Aida's approach to mentorship was characterised by respect, kindness and professionalism. Thus, making me feel supported at all times during my PhD!

I would like to thank Dr Chima Mordi, who has guided me across the finish line. Chima was relentless in giving me a healthy dose of reality and has proven to be a true friend throughout the process. No doubt, it is not easy to take over a PhD student after three years of study. However, he has consistently managed to motivate me to simply get my words on paper, i.e. he was instrumental in getting me over my writer's block. I would also like to thank my second supervisor, Dr Mustafa Özbilgin, who was always present when I had questions. Furthermore, I would like to thank Professor Günter Stahl from WU Vienna, who has been a mentor and has provided me with ample opportunities for my professional development in key stages of my PhD.

In addition to my supervisory team, I would also like to thank all other faculty members at Brunel for their collegiality. You have all made my stay at Brunel memorable and unique! In this regard, I would also like to express a very special thanks to Dr Grigorios Theodosopoulos, for his pastoral consulting and generally friendly character during the more testing times of my PhD.

A special thank you goes out to my friends who have had an influence on my work. Dr. Beth Morgan, a special thank you goes to you for your caring nature and understanding. Kindly reminding me to "go home", "have a break" or dragging me out of the office for breakfast on a Sunday to make sure that I don't burn out. Needless to say, I am grateful for your friendship and advise throughout the years. Heba, Heny and Seyfulla, thanks for all the necessary tea breaks. A big thank you also goes to Dr Serap Sap, who has always been a great help when encountering challenges.

Finally, I would like to thank my family who have always been supportive throughout my time as a PhD scholar. I am truly blessed to have such a supportive family who always had my back and supported me throughout my life, not just this project. Sarah, my thoughts go out to you, as well. It was our academic contest and sibling rivalry, which led me down the path least trodden by. You will never be forgotten!

I would like to finish my acknowledgements, by expressing my most sincere gratitude for all the kind words, motivational pep-talks, advise and encouraging words which I have received from you all throughout my PhD! Thank you all! Danke schön!

II. Abstract

Due to the growing scarcity for highly qualified labour in developed economies, such as the UK, international skilled migrants (ISMs) are gaining in importance. ISMs are individuals who possess a tertiary degree or higher, who initiate their own international mobility from a developing or developed country to reside permanently in a developed country without organisational support. These individuals encounter (institutional) barriers, suffer from a negative migrant status, potentially leading to discrimination and/or downward career progression, possess lower levels of personal agency, and are typically researched from a more holistic perspective. Despite the acknowledged importance of these individuals, hitherto no other study has (quantitatively) looked in detail at how these individuals attain success in their new environments, i.e. the UK. Thus, using the ecosystems theory as guiding framework, the current study aims to unveil the extent to which individual level characteristics, meso, as well as societal factors influence key processes and ultimately success of ISMs in the UK context. Furthermore, this study also aims to quantitatively evaluate benefits of Berry's (1997) classical acculturation dynamics through a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Based on 253 questionnaire responses, the current study indicates a complex inter-related factor structure using structural equation modelling, whereby each variable has an influence on some form of migration success. On the one side of the extreme, Meso-level supportive structure illustrates the highest amount of influence pertaining to the various forms of ISMs' migration success, while other (e.g. age and cultural intelligence - CQ) variables only had a few direct relationships to outcome variables. Furthermore, other variables (e.g. past international experience) were more inclined to have indirect effects on migration success, as their relationships were mediated by the two key process variables: acculturation and adjustment. Intriguingly the latter of which, did not render the expected holistic success, which might have been inferred previously by the adjacent expatriate literature. The same can be said for CQ, which only had one significant direct effect. Other variables (e.g. macro-level variables ethnocentrism and institutional distance) rendered expected direct and indirect relationships. Albeit, not necessarily to all respective outcome variables. Interestingly, perceived host country ethnocentrism also had an unexpected positive effect on organisational commitment, which suggests that perhaps not all variables have symmetrical effects on given outcome variables. In addition, results from the MANOVA indicate the importance of apprehending a British identity for ISMs who choose to migrate to the UK, as these individuals are most likely to attain success

across the board. The vast network of direct and indirect relationships between independent and dependent variables identified in the first analysis of the current study allow the sheer complexity of ISMs come to the fore. No individual variable can be seen as all-encompassing, while at the same time some variables do not have a symmetrical influence. Thus overall, the results render a more holistic image of international skilled migration, which warrants an ecosystems approach in order to fully understand what leads to skilled migrant success. Failing to include a certain level of complexity when researching ISMs may therefore lead to over-exaggerated emphasis on given independent and dependent variables. In addition, results from the evaluation of acculturation dynamics support previous literature to a large degree. Finally, inferences are made, limitations outlined, and future avenues are subsequently discussed with regards to how to research this understudied group (i.e. ISMs) of globally mobile individuals.

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1. Introduction

The following study aims to look at the extent to which key societal, organizational factors, as well as individual characteristics influence the success of skilled migrants in the UK. Having a rich migration history, dating back approximately 2000 years (Leach et al., 2010), the UK is frequently seen as a target destination for (skilled) migrants (Giralt, 2017; McIlwaine et al., 2011). Despite, this fact, it is only in recent years, that studies have started to investigate this particular sub-group (in the UK) (see Föbker & Imani, 2017, Kaczmarczyk & Tyrowicz, 2015; Madziva et al., 2016; Dulini & Cohen, 2016). A key flaw within the scarcely available (respective) studies can be attributed towards the consistent niche-foci on specific origin-groups (e.g. Indian, Polish or Zimbabwean nationals) as well as variables under evaluation, e.g. language skills (micro-level variable) or network utilization (meso-level variable). Recently, there have been calls for more holistic empirical studies (Baruch et al., 2016; Hajro et al., 2019), to be conducted with regards to globally mobile individuals and international skilled migrants (ISMs), more specifically. Thus, the current study aims to contribute towards the growing body of literature of ISMs in the UK: a country which has a rich migration history (Bennet, 2018). This introducing section will be structured as follows: First, a brief history of global people movement and migration the history UK migration will be outlined. Next, the importance and relevance of ISMs will be addressed, leading to the outlining of the key research questions. Finally, the overall structure of the study will be outlined.

1.1. The History of People Moving – Setting the Contextual Scene

The movement of people dates back thousands of years and is almost as old as humanity itself. Indeed, it has been said that all of us can be linked back to one to two locations on the planet. During pre-historic times, human ancestors moved in order to look for greener pastures and survive ever threatening weather conditions (Clark, 1992). Since then, reasons why humans have travelled the world have ranged from the pursuit of wealth in distant countries (e.g., Egyptian merchants trading with distant ports in India during the earlier years of the first millennium; Andrade, 2017), missionary and religious emissary ventures to proselytize religions (Morris, 2018), crossing borders for political reasons (e.g., as a member of a military service), or to escape catastrophic conditions (as in the case of the recent war in Syria and the following refugee crisis). As those who moved ended up living outside of their country of origin (i.e., in ex-patria), it seemed natural to call these individuals expatriates (McNulty and Brewster, 2017). For many, a return home often involved lengthy perilous journeys back, and

for some, it meant permanent settlement (Andrade, 2017). Interest for expatriation from a sociological and historical perspectives can be found as early as the 1800s (Hay, 1814, de la Durantaye, 1800). However, with the advance in technology (and particularly, the advent of commercial air transportation) in the post-WWII era, people started to roam the world back and forth much more freely (Baruch et al., 2016, Van Vleck, 2013).

The first documented "wave" of migration in what is today politically names the United Kingdom (UK), dates back to the Romans, who embarked on their conquest of the British Isles during the early years of the first century AD. At the time, the expansion of the Roman Empire involved a combination of forced and voluntary migration. Once discharged both military personnel and accompanying civilians decided to remain in the UK. Thereby, representing the beginning of documented migration within the UK (Leach et al., 2010; National Archives UK, 2020). In a series of migration events, the overall population of foreign-born nationals in the UK rose steadily, albeit slowly, up until WW2 (Migrationwatch, 2014). After which, net migration rates in the UK grew ever faster: in-line with global trends (Baruch et al., 2016, Van Vleck, 2013). A fact which can be attributed to a series of "recent" events and political impulses, which saw a rapid influx of migrants from, for example, the Caribbean, Europe and the Commonwealth (Lowe, 2020; National Archives UK, 2020a, 2020b; Migrationwatch, 2014). Today, over 9 million migrants reside in the UK, representing a substantial fraction of the current population.

With the aforementioned enhanced number of individuals roaming the Earth (and entering the UK more specifically), naturally scientists started to gain interest for these individuals. From a management perspective, one of the first sources of interest were expatriate managers, which gained extrapolating attention as research headed toward the turn of the second millennium (Baruch et al., 2016; McNulty & Brewster, 2017). With the development of the field and arguably through the enhanced access to international aviation travel, studies started to look at other types of global mobility, including self-initiated international travel (Inkson et al., 1997; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). More recently there have been a host of articles attesting to the lack of definitions surrounding the ever-growing number of global mobility which have been synthesised in the literature (McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Andersen et al., 2014; Crowley-Hemry et al. 2018; Hajro et al., 2019). One particular group of individuals which has hitherto received limited attention: the international skilled migrant (ISM). Different from expatriation, business travel and short-term sojourns (Shaffer et al., 2012), ISMs are slowly moving into the focus of global mobility scholars, as more and more people self-initiate their international mobility with the goal of re-settling internationally (Hajro et al., 2019;

Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Cerdin et al., 2014). However, despite increased recent attention, this important sub-niche of global mobility research remains in its infancy and requires empirical attention. This is particularly true for the UK: a country which throughout the years has been seen as a target nation for migrants (Sporton, 2013; White, 2016; Harris et al., 2015; Giralt et al., 2017) and for which (skilled) migrants are of particular importance.

1.2. Importance and relevance of International Skilled Migrants

Given the growing importance of the knowledge economy, demographic changes in Europe and growing shortages of highly skilled labour, the economic growth of many European countries and, in particular the UK, depend on International Skilled Migrants (ISMs) (Kühlmann et al., 2016; National Statistics UK, 2016). ISMs are individuals who possess a tertiary degree or higher, who initiate their own international mobility from a developing or developed country to reside permanently in a developed country without organisational support. These individuals encounter (institutional) barriers, suffer from a negative migrant status, potentially leading to discrimination and/or downward career progression, possess lower levels of personal agency, and are typically researched from a more holistic perspective (Cerdin et al., 2014; Hajro et al., 2019; Shaffer et al., 2012). They usually fill important niches in fast-growing sectors in the economy, boost the host nations' working-age population, and with their competencies accelerate human capital development of receiving countries (OECD, 2016).

However, despite evidence that migration is a positive feature of social and economic life across many European countries, the attitudes and actions towards migrants have recently changed. The current refugee crisis and the large numbers of asylum seekers arriving in Europe have led to a rising tide of anti-immigration voices and fuelling populism in several countries (OECD, 2016), such as the recent Brexit, as well as the increased popularity of right-wing parties such as UKIP (UK), FPÖ (Austria), or the AfD (Germany) (BBC, 2016; Adler, 2016; Brown, 2015). This shift is believed to not only have a negative impact on the attitudes towards ISMs at the societal level but also at the organizational level (Kühlmann et al., 2016). For instance, recent empirical evidence has shown that many European organizations treat ISMs as homogeneous and, in doing so, overlook the variety of benefits and challenges that they represent (Hajro, Gibson, & Pudelko, 2017).

The influence of organisations on diverse workforces has been documented in past research. In order to benefit from diversity as outlined above, literature suggests that organizations must develop a climate, which is receptive to diversity. Thus, integrating differences effectively (Cox, 1993; Ely & Thomas, 2001). Nishii (2013) extended this notion

of diversity climate from mere integration of diversity, to the inclusion of HR practices, as well as the incorporation of the respective diverse workforce in decision-making processes, to create a more dynamic construct coined "climate for inclusion". In addition, further studies such as that of Jackson et al. (2003) have identified a number of contextual factors, which impact the success of benefitting from diversity including team dynamics, strategic context and task characteristics, just to name a few. As organizations are the place where ISMs spend a large portion of their time, organizational contextual factors and characteristics are suggested to have a major impact on their acculturation dynamics, adjustment processes and integration outcomes, i.e. their career success. Thus, allowing organisations to benefit as outlined above. However, research in this particular direction is extremely scarce (Kuo, 2014; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Hajro et al., 2019), and has not been carried out empirically in a wide range of national contexts, e.g. the UK. Generally, it is not known to what extent organizational and societal contextual factors, as well as individual characteristics influence ISMs' acculturation and adjustment processes, which these individuals use when faced with challenges in the host countries. Therefore, focusing specifically on the UK-context, the current study will be answering the following research questions:

> *(1) To what extent do (organizational and societal) contextual factors and individual characteristics influence international skilled migrants' (ISMs) acculturation dynamics, adjustment processes and migration outcomes?*
> *(2) To what extent does acculturation strategy impact holistic migration success?*

The research questions will be addressed by a quantitative approach, using a deductive questionnaire. The questionnaire will be created through a thorough review of the literature. Thus, compiling individual scales into one, holistic questionnaire, which aims at capturing a broad overview of the antecedents and driving forces behind the integration of highly qualified migrants within organisations in the UK. Paramount for this questionnaire, will be the inclusion of mediating process variables, which have previously been identified as key, vis-à-vis the success of ISMs in their respective host countries. The questionnaire will also allow the examination of causal relationships which have only been identified in adjacent fields (i.e. the expatriate literature).

In answering the aforementioned research questions, using the suggested methodology and ecosystems theoretical approach, the proposed study has the potential to benefit the academic realm in a variety of ways. Not only will it look at the influence of organizational and

societal contextual factors, as well as individual characteristics on ISMs' migration outcomes by looking at their acculturation dynamics as well as adjustment processes, but it will also extend the diversity and inclusion literature, in general. Past research surrounding organisational characteristics, for example, have focused on readily identifiable diversity or surface-level diversity, such as gender or race (Thomas & Ely, 1996; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Cox, 1991; Nishii, 2013), rather than focusing on less apparent or deep-level diversity, such as nationality (Lauring & Selmer, 2013; Tyran & Gibson, 2008). The latter of which is however, believed to cause problems that are longer lasting because differences are identified and therefore overcome later on (Jackson et al., 2003; Cole & Salimath, 2013). Next to benefitting adjacent fields of research (e.g. sociology, psychology, etc.), this study will give insights into how national diversity is currently being managed in organisations within the UK. Given that the current migration debate presents one of the most pressing challenges of our time (OECD, 2016), the study will have important implication for practitioners and policy makers and will shed light on the extent to which the right-wing political shifts are influencing and thereby impeding the benefits of ISMs highlighted in past research. Thus, it will allow the unveiling of how broader contextual factors, including the institutional context of the UK, impact organizational culture, policies and practices with regards to the integration of ISMs. Thus, looking not only at the micro-meso relationship, but also at the macro-meso-micro relationship. Thereby, giving a more holistic view of an otherwise completely under-researched area of international business (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015). An approach which has been receiving an ever-growing call in recent theoretical publications (see e.g. Hajro et al., 2019; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Baruch et al., 2016).

1.3. Structure of Study

The following study is cut in sections to aid the orientation and understanding of the processes undertaken throughout the course of the study. This will be outlined below.

The first section which has already been discussed is the (1) **Introduction** section. The introduction's aim is to set the scene and introduce the key aims of the current study, i.e. introduce the research questions.

Next, **(2) Literature Review** will highlight past research which forms for theoretical foundations of the current study. It starts out illustrating the importance of skilled migration in general, as well as the potential drawbacks. To this end, migration is looked at from an economic standpoint, a talent management perspective, as well as a diversity management and

inclusion perspective. The term *international skilled migrants (ISM)* is then introduced and juxtaposed versus the global mobility literature and respective criteria for comparison is established. Furthermore, key processes are identified and how success can be defined for respective ISMs. Finally, the literature on antecedent factors is illuminated, subsequently leading to the devising of respective hypotheses, which are the base of the theoretical model, which is introduced in the next section.

The (3) **Conceptual Chapter** is the third chapter which summarises the overall literature taken into account, which subsequently depicts the main model which will be tested.

Next, the (4) **Methodology** section will outline the general methodological approach and research design, including research philosophy, benefits of respective research designs (i.e. qualitative versus quantitative) and the selection of research methods will be justified.

The methodology section will be followed by the (5 and 6) **Data Analysis** section, which is split into two main parts. First, a series of pre-tests will be illustrated which are necessary before executing the main analysis: The structural equation modelling process. This includes, but is not limited to outlier analysis, normality and linearity checks, as well as exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Upon satisfactory completion of respective reliability and validity checks of respective sub-scales (as is customary for quantitative research designs), the main analyses will be presented, and respective hypotheses tested, using the IBM SPSS AMOS software package. To this end, the pathway analysis was then used to reveal the respective relationships between individual-level characteristics, as well as organisational and societal contextual factors, and outcome variables. In addition, to answer the second research question, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. This section is thus split into two studies, which reflect the given research question.

Next, the aforementioned results, will be discussed and conclusions will be drawn in the (7 and 8) **Discussion and Conclusion section(s).** This was carried out to emulate the previous section, i.e. study 1 will entail a discussion on the causal relationships between the respective independent and dependent variables (including mediating and independent variables), while study 2 will be discussed with regards to the effect of a respective acculturation strategy.

Based on the respective discussion, research (9) **Contributions,** as well as **Limitations and Future Research Recommendations** (10) will be outlined in the following sections.

Finally, to support the respective study throughout, the References (11) and Appendices (12) will highlight the academic and business references, as well as supplementary material, respectively.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

As is customary for research projects, the first phase after introducing the respective research aims is to take stock of relevant literature. To this end, the following literature will be structured as follows: First section 2.2 will focus on the benefits and negative aspects of migration. While looking at the general perceived benefits from societal perspectives, which are very often published by IGOs (inter-governmental organisations), such as the UN and the OECD, the benefits of migration are also illustrated through two core HR perspectives: the global talent management perspective, as well as the diversity management and inclusion perspective. While the former illustrates the importance and strategic value of ISMs, the latter not only helps to explain the reasons for the benefits, but it also helps to explain the negative aspects of migration in terms of diversity. Especially, in the current climate. Section 2.3 on the other hand, focuses on the main differences between different types of global mobility. Being a relatively new field of research from a business perspective, the definition of *who a skilled migrant* actually is, lacks a certain level of conceptual clarity. Based on a literature review, six criteria are suggested which differentiate ISMs from other types of international mobility, including self-initiated expatriates, as well as traditional, organisational expatriates (or assigned expatriates). At the end of this section, a clear definition is provided of the respective target population of this study. Section 2.4 will then look at the importance of key mediating processes, including acculturation and adjustment, while 2.5 will highlight the importance of migration success respectively and how it is measured. Finally, before summarising all hypotheses in the subsequent conceptual chapter, (2.6) key antecedent variables will be gauged from the literature on the three previously identified levels: micro, meso and macro.

2.2. The Benefits of Migration and Opposing Arguments

As indicated above, there has been a strong right-wing shift across Western countries (BBC, 2017) which have led to the stigmatisation of immigration while the benefits remain lost in public debates (The Guardian, 2018). For example, recently Austria's general election voted in favour of including the FPO, the far right-wing "freedom" party, into their government. The people's party (OVP) on the other hand, made use of ringing the anti-immigration bell as part of their campaign to secure a position within the Austrian government (Hockenos, 2017). At the end of 2018, Austria also became the only EU country to have representatives of a far right-wing party in an active role within their respective government (Oltermann, 2017; BBC, 2017).

While the Trump administration in the USA continues to tout their anti-immigration stance across the pond (BBC, 2017b; BBC, 2018; Weaver, 2018; Summers, 2018), the UK has seen a rise in anti-immigration movements in the past few years (Hunt, 2014; Booth, 2017), which were ultimately a driving force behind the referendum to leave the European Union, i.e. Brexit (Johnston, 2017; Friedman, 2016; Bulman, 2017; Travis, 2016). In the midst of this anti-immigration uprising, many positive aspects of migration seem to have been forgotten. Especially, in light of current political events it is important to highlight the importance that immigration has for the development of the receiving (or host) nations, as well as the world as a whole.

2.2.1. Economic and Demographic Benefits of Migration

Despite the aforementioned anti-immigration wave, which has swept through the Western world, migration carries many benefits (United Nations, 2006). The first obvious benefit which receiving countries enjoy is the general consensus that migration is positively correlated to boosting the general economy (News.gov.scot, 2017; Damelang & Haas, 2012; Hunt, 2010). Scotland, for example, claims that migrants contributed towards an increase in GDP by £4.4bn in 2017, while benefitting large and small businesses across the UK in general (News.gov.scot, 2017). This notion is supported a report published by the OECD in 2014, who claim that Europe has benefitted from an increase in their labour force by 70% in past decade, as migrants in general contribute more towards paying taxes and social contributions than they cost in terms of received benefits.

Focusing particularly on the benefits which migration has on the demographics of labour markets, it has the potential to reduce the working age of the receiving country's population, which is one of the main challenges Western countries, including the UK, face, due to low birth rates (OECD, 2006; OECD, 2014; United Nations, 2003; Hart, 2006; Summers, 2018; Khalaf & Alkobaisi, 1999). In addition, migrants, who generally come to work in their (selected) host nations (OECD, 2014) fill jobs which give economies an additional boost (The Guardian, 2018). Particularly skilled migrants fill jobs in important fast growing niches (OECD, 2006; OECD, 2014; United Nations, 2003; Crowley-Henry, et al., 2018), especially the healthcare industry which will continue to be in acute desperation due to the aforementioned demographic changes in Western countries (News.gov.scot, 2017; Summers, 2018; Li, et al., 2014; Bozionelos, 2009; WHO, n.a.).

2.2.2. The Benefits of Migration and Global Mobility/Work: A Global Talent Management Perspective

In addition to gaining benefits from (skilled) migration from an economic and demographic perspective as illustrated above, there are clear benefits which can be rendered from an international human resource management perspective. The "war for talent" which stipulates that organisations world-wide are competing to attract employees from the same talent pool (Baruch et al., 2016), has seen with it a rise in ways in which organisations approach attracting, developing and retaining said talent, i.e. global talent management (GTM; McNulty & De Cieri, 2016; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Guo & Al Ariss, 2015). With the rise of skill-shortages in many sectors, as previously illustrated, organisations are frequently looking at new sources of talent, as the number of individuals willing to undertake more "classical" forms of global mobility, such as long-term expatriation, are in diminishing. This is, for example, due to the development of family dynamics and dual-career couples (Baruch et al., 2016). Skilled migration undoubtedly contributes towards this global talent pool and, despite frequently suffering from underemployment and discrimination due to their migrant status (which will be discussed in more detail in the sections to come; Fang et al., 2009; Ramboarison-Lalao et al., 2012; Fossland, 2013; Janta, 2011), have been identified as core to help organisations fill the respective skill-shortages, which are experienced by many organisations around the world (Hajro et al., 2019; Ravasi et al., 2015). Thus, from a GTM-perspective, ISMs can aid in achieving competitive advantage within various industries and markets (Ravasi et al., 2015; Fossland, 2013). In combination with filling dearly needed skill gaps from a general economic viewpoint (Weishaar, 2008), this perspective therefore explains the current war for talent which has frequently been observed and quoted in recent literature as organisations are seeing self-initiated global mobility (and skilled migrants more specifically) as viable source of global talent (Baruch, Altman & Tung, 2016; Colling, Scullion & Morley, 2009). With a talent pool being spread across the global, this war for talent has brought with it other important connotations with regards to managing diverse groups of employees, as the enhanced global mobility has brought with it important implications from a diversity management perspective, as well.

2.2.3.1. The Benefits of Migration: A Diversity Management Perspective

With 3.4% of the world's population (or 258 million people) currently in migration (United Nations, 2017) and with the aforementioned "war for talent" arising (Baruch et al.,

2016), it is not surprising that workforce diversity is becoming "a fact of organizational life" (v. Knippenberg et al., 2004, p.1008; Fitzsimmons, 2013), as countries around the world are experiencing enhanced levels of cultural diversity (Pires et al., 2006). Migrants can differ in many ways to host country nationals. This equates to a complex construct of both readily identifiable, so-called *surface-level* traits (e.g. migrants' skin pigmentation/ethnicity, language proficiency, behaviour, etc.), as well as underlying or *deep-level* traits (e.g. cultural norms/ values, skills, etc.; Jackson et al., 2003; Cole & Salimath, 2013; Lauring & Selmer, 2013; Turner, 2007; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; van Ewijk, 2011; Harrison et al., 1998). Thus, as more people migrate into a country, the more diverse a workforce's composition becomes, which according to Damelang & Haas (2012) in turn has the potential to reduce the level of discrimination in the respective location. Leaning on the diversity management literature, a more culturally diverse population, if managed in respective organisations appropriately, has many positive implications, including enhanced creativity, productivity, innovation, as well as enhanced technological progress (Hunt, 2010) and enhanced competitive advantage (Damelang & Haas, 2012; Niebuhr, 2010; Ottaviano & Peri, 2006; Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; Maxwell, et al., 2001; Cox, 2002; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 1999; Jabbour, et al., 2011; van Ewijk, 2011; Oerlemans & Peeters, 2010). *Diversity*, which can be defined as "all those ways in which we differ" (Dass & Parker, 1999, p.71), includes migrants and can therefore have a positive influence on organizational performance (Marvasti & McKinney, 2011), as it focuses on treating people as individuals, valuing and embracing their differences as a means of achieving competitive advantage (Gokcen, 2012; Liff, 1999; Muchiri & Ayoko, 2013; Wilson & Iles, 1999; Cooke & Saini, 2012; Wyatt-Nichol & Antwi-Boasiako, 2012).

Within the diversity management literature, the information and decision-making perspective (IDMP) is an explanation of how benefits can be achieved, based primarily on deep-level attributes. According to Dwertmann & Stich (2013) the IDMP looks at differences between people based on experiences, skills, knowledge, ability, strengths and weaknesses. These differences allow individuals to extend their capabilities (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013) and by doing so lead to the aforementioned benefits, including increased problem solving, creativity (Limaye, 1994; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998) and innovation (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Dwertmann & Stich, 2013). Diverse people will have more diverse connections to information from outside of given work-groups, potentially leading to enhanced team performance (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Essentially, this perspective suggests that it enhances group performance through "add(ing) new information" (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998, p.87), thus benefitting from heterogeneity. Since (skilled) migrants arrive with skills and abilities (OECD, 2014) and can

differ based on these (and other) deep-level traits, organisations can use diversity as "a source of learning" (Ely & Thomas, 2001, p. 240). Thus, contributing towards organisational success, as well as supplementing the stock of human capital within the host country (OECD, 2014).

2.2.3.2. The Similarity and Attractiveness Paradigm: A Possible Explanation of the Negative Attitude towards Migrants

While Damelang & Haas (2012) suggest that mere presence of diversity (i.e. migrants) reduces the level of discrimination in the respective country, the diversity management literature suggests that this assumption on its own, may be too trivial. The similarity-attraction paradigm (SAP) is one of the mainstream explanations for the negative connotations of diversity, which suggests that people feel attracted to people similar to themselves, based on a variety of typically surface-level attributes, such as race, gender, etc. (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013). The most frequently used theory in diversity management, the social identity theory (SIT), claims that people draw affirmation and safety from homogenous groups with which they can identify, which can boost self-esteem (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; Sabharwal, 2014). By doing so they socially construct "in-groups" ("us") based on shared attributes (Mahadevan & Zeh, 2015). Those that do not fit into these groups are part of "out-groups" ("others"; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998), who are more likely to be victims of stereotyping and discrimination (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; Knippenberg et al., 2004; Dwyer et al., 2003). Therefore, it becomes apparent that just because there is a high level of cultural/national diversity in a given country or region, it does not mean that diversity can simply flourish as suggested by Damelang & Hass (2012), without appropriate management, as this has the potential to cause difficulties within organizational workforces (v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Thomas & Ely, 1996; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Cox, 1993) and therefore in society as a whole (Choi & Rainey, 2010).

2.2.3.3. The Categorization Elaboration Model: An alternative perspective

According to v. Knippenberg et al. (2004), the major issue surrounding the study of diversity in respect its impact on performance of groups, is that the two aforementioned perspectives (SAP and IDMP) are to be independent from one another. However, they argue that this is not the case and insist that there is a link between the perspectives, which also explains the mixed results in past research.

v. Knippenberg et al. (2004) suggest that communication is a vital aspect of the IDMP, as it is the communication of the diverse information, and not its mere presence, that groups benefit from (Dywer et al., 2003; Lau & Murnigham, 1998; Wyatt-Nichol & Antwi-Boasiako, 2012). This highlights an important area of diversity management: people need to feel psychologically safe in order to communicate their opinions (Roberge & v. Dick, 2010). Psychological safety thus aids communication of task relevant information, from which groups benefit with respect to diversity and the IDMP (Roberge & v. Dick, 2010; William & O'Reilly). Lack of this psychological security can lead to task-relevant information being withheld and with it the benefits of a diverse group. Roberge & v. Dick (2010) suggest that psychological safety can be attained through re-categorising employees into a unified category, for example based on useful deep-level attributes, making use of SIT to promote the benefits of diversity (Lauring & Selmer, 2013).

Appendix 2 is v. Knippenberg et al.'s (2004) framework called the categorization-elaboration model (CEM). It explains the processes and necessary management required in order to gain the benefits of diversity. It is a combination of the IDMP and SIT and maintains that diversity is based around communication of task relevant information. This causes the aforementioned enhancements in problem-solving, creativity and innovation (Dwertmann & Stich, 2010; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Hampden-Turner & Chih, 2010), if the task-relevant information is expressed. This is, however, affected by "task-informational & decision requirements", which include the ability to contribute, by communication, towards task information and the motivation to do so. Social-categorisation theory assumes that people have a high demand for self-esteem, and that in the pursuit of gaining this, an individual compares him- or herself with others, leading to categorisation of the individual's self and others into salient categories, like the aforementioned surface-level attributes. This allows individuals to identify themselves within these categories (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). This process is portrayed through the top flow chart "string". Here it is assumed that social categorisation is dependent on three main categories, including cognitive accessibility, normative- and comparative-fit. While the first suggests the ease of recognizing differences leading to categorisation and perception of identity, normative fit suggests the degree to which a specific categorisation "makes sense" to the group members. Finally, comparative-fit refers to what level of categorisation leads to subgroups "with high intragroup similarity and intergroup differences" (v. Knippenberg et al., 2004, p. 1010). Furthermore, this model suggests that it is the threat to subgroup identity that leads to conflict, reduced cohesion, commitment, etc. This then has an effect on the communication process, which as outlined earlier, can lead to

hindrances and therefore reduced team performance or lower levels of creativity and innovation within the respective organisation (v. Knippenberg et al., 2004).

Thus, according to the CEM, the two perspectives should be perceived as sides of a coin, rather than independent from each other, in order to enhance performance (Hampden-Turner & Chih, 2010; Dass & Parker, 1999), despite the presence of in-/out-group divisions, that can lead to discrimination and stereotyping, i.e. two significant negative effects of diversity (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; Knippenberg et al., 2004; Hampden-Turner & Chih, 2010; Morrison et al., 2006; Dwyer et al., 2003). Again, it is the quality of management of conflict and the expression of opinions, which is vital for turning diversity into a competitive advantage (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 1999; Jackson et al., 2003). As previously mentioned, since migrants could be categorised as "others" based on a variety of surface as well as deep-level attributes, in addition to having a migration status (i.e. society's form of classifying migrants on a surface level), it is not surprising that they often find themselves ostracized by the dominant culture within organisation and ultimately the host society. In addition, skilled migrants who initially move, although educated, may not have the full ability to communicate as their language proficiency may not be on par with their host country national (HNC) counterparts (Cerdin et al., 2014). Thus, they would be unable to contribute valuable task-relevant information within the organisation (as suggested by v. Knippenberg et al., 2004) and may therefore receive the status of "useless" migrant, which could explain why they often run into institutional barriers as HCNs and their societies/organisations have become sceptical of foreign qualifications (Al Ariss & Ozbiligin, 2010), in turn leading to the aforementioned negative experiences of (skilled) immigration, including downward career progression, as well as discrimination, just to name a few (Pearson et al., 2012; Al Ariss, 2010; Carr et al., 2005; Zikic et al., 2010; Hajro et al., 2017; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Raboarison-Lelao et al., 2012; Fossland, 2013).

2.2.3.4. Outlining the Benefits and Deficits of Migration through the Diversity Literature: A Conclusion.

Migration is often overcast by its short-term negative aspects rather than focusing on its long-term benefits (United Nations, 2006). While there seems to be a growing right-wing shift across Europe, there are a variety of possibilities which highlight the benefits which migration in general and more specifically the migration of skilled migrants, impact Western countries, such as the UK. These benefits include the potential to boost the economy of the receiving

nation, an increase in the labour force, reducing the working population's age, increasing the human capital "stock" of the labour force, as well as filling vacancies which require higher levels of skill/qualifications, which would otherwise not be filled, such as in the health sector (Li et al., 2014) in the UK, who are currently suffering from over 11,000 vacancies in the 'Nursing and Midwifery Registered' Staff Group (NHS Digital, 2017; Mundasad, 2017). Since migration is also a form of diversity, from a diversity management and therefore organisational perspective, migration can have several further benefits including enhanced productivity, creativity, problem solving capabilities, as well as its potential to lead to innovation. In fact, in a research collaboration between the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) and the Associattion of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA), have made a business case for the implementation of diversity in reporting measures and suggest that the incorporation of diversity can have a potentially beneficial effect on the single bottom-line as well as on the global value chain, in general (Özbilgin et al., 2014).

Diversity management literature also helps explain potential reasons why negative aspects of migration have been documented with organisational research. According to the SIT individuals are categorised into out-groups based on surface- or deep-level attributes, as a means of comparing individuals to in-groups with whom HCNs identify themselves with. The CEM, extends this notion by explaining that the positive outcomes of diversity and therefore migration, can only be achieved if task-relevant information is communicated within the respective group. If this is not the case then migrants are most likely to suffer from the negative aspects of diversity, i.e. discrimination, downward career progression, conflict, etc. In addition, due to political factions, such as the Donald Trump administration and the right-wing shift, migrants are already categorised as "others", which according to theory only exacerbates the potential negative connotations of migration, as ISMs will be less likely to convey vital information which is key for the full benefits to be unleashed.

Finally, although not necessarily important for the UK, migrants send money to friends and families back home (i.e. remittances), which contributes towards the development of their country of origin. It is estimates that approximately $600bn remittances were sent back, which is three times the amount of international aid sent in the same year. Thus, migration does not only have a positive impact on the country in which a migrant decides to reside in, but also the country from which he originally came from.

2.3.1. Distinguishing the differences between ISMs and other types of Global Workers

As outlined above, migrants and ISMs specifically contribute towards closing the gap of skilled labour which is rapidly expanding in Western countries, highlighting the importance which this particular group of individuals has for developed nations and respective organisations, who would otherwise suffer from the demographic changes which they are currently facing (Kuehlmann et al., 2016; Winterheller & Hirt, 2016; Pearson et al., 2011; Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010; Tharenau & Caulfield, 2010; Bozionelos, 2009; Carr et al., 2011). Arguably, the field of global mobility within the parameters of business and management research, stems from research surrounding corporate assigned expatriation. With an increase in importance with regards to global work, signified by the exponential growth curve in literature being published pertaining to relevant subjects (McNulty & Brewster, 2017), came with it an increase in sub-niches, as various different forms of global work became focal points within the field of international management (Baruch, Altman & Tung, 2016; Shaffer et al., 2012): this includes ISMs. In fact, a quick Google Scholar search reveals a total of over 45,000 articles pertaining to the search term "expatriation", with approximately one third being published in the past decade alone (Google, 2020)! Previously, definitions within the field of expatriation remained scarce as past peer-reviewed journal articles infer that the definition was self-explanatory and needed no further description (Andresen et al., 2014) and the term "expatriation" itself therefore remained rather ambiguous (Cranston, 2017; Shaffer et al., 2012).

Expatriation research at its core has previously (up until 1990s) demonstrated an extremely strong corporate focus, whereby past research tended to be limited to what some refer to as the "classical" or "corporate" expatriate, which mirrored only a niche part of what constitutes global work to date (e.g. Black et al., 1991; Tung, 1984; Caliguiri, 2000). Expatriation, previously focused on a predominantly exclusive circle of top-level (male; Tharenau, 2010) managers/executives and experts from Northern America and Europe, who incurred substantial investments in their international assignments (Kraimer et al., 2016; Caliguiri & Bonache, 2016; Harvey & Moeller, 2009; Baruch, Altman & Tung, 2016; Caliguiri, 2000; Bader, Raede & Froese, 2019). They typically received heightened status due to undergoing their international assignment, which was frequently accompanied by extensive relocation packages and further benefits (Harvey & Moeller, 2009). Much of past research attempted at finding a one-size-fits-all solution to attaining success on international assignments, which rendered mixed results and assumptions (see e.g. Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003). It was only in 1997 when Inkson et al. published their seminal paper, which ultimately led to Jokinen et al.'s (2008) coined phrase self-initiated expatriates

(SIEs; Doherty, Richardson & Thorn, 2013). Thus, arguably triggering the need for defining the previously "self-explanatory" group of individuals, i.e. the assigned expatriate. These definitions have led to a more or less clear definition between AEs and the recently accepted terminology of SIE. Thus, illustrating the increasing complexity which has emerged with regards to global mobility and work (Caliguiri & Bonache, 2016; Baruch, Altman & Tung, 2016; McNulty & Brewster, 2017; McNulty & Hutchings, 2016).

The original SIE-article by Inkson et al. (1997) discussed antepodeal students who were in the process of undergoing a "big OE" (overseas experience), whereby Australians and "Kiwis" would travel abroad with the distinct goal of gathering experience in a foreign country before returning home to take up more serious, long-term employment and/or general life. Later, Suutari and Brewster (2000) identified a similar group of individuals who they referred to as Self-Initiated Foreign Assignments (SFE).

Since then, an array of articles have attempted to rename this very heterogenous group of individuals (Cerdin & Selmer, 2014), however it was only in 2008 that the academic heavy-weights in this given area decided on the term *SIE* (Doherty, Richardson & Thorn, 2013). Naturally, with such a late common agreement of what to call this group of individuals also came with it a heated debate as to what does and does not constitute a SIE/AE versus other types of international mobility, such as skilled migrants (Al Ariss, 2010; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013). Indeed, with a surge of articles being published that acknowledge the difference between different types of global work (e.g. Dohert, Dickmann & Mills, 2011; Andresen, Biemann & Pattie, 2015; Cerdin & Perganeux, 2010; Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007; Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010), the call for conceptual clarity was at the heart of many recent publications (e.g. Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Doherty, Richardson & Thorn, 2013; Doherty, 2012; Dorsch et al., 2012; McNulty & Brewster, 2017). Thus, indicating the need to re-focus and demarcate between the various types of global mobility (Crowley-Henry et al., 2018). While some suggested that terms such as "migrant" and "expatriate" differed mainly in the axiomatic status differentials, i.e. expatriates being "good migrants" (Cranston, 2017, p. 1; Al Ariss, 2010; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Baruch & Forstenleer, 2017), a more recently cited concern was that of tainted results, as treating different groups of global mobility as synonymous can lead to inaccurate and incomparable results (Doherty, 2013; Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016), as "extant research has failed" to differentiate between these various types of global employees (Shaffer et al., p. 1288; Al Ariss, 2010). Thus, leading to the confusion amongst individuals who have a particular interest for this field of research, i.e. the "end-user" (Tharenou, 2015).

In response to this call for conceptual clarity, a host of articles were published with the aim of creating effective and useful means of demarcation. Shaffer et al. (2012), for example, took stock of two decades of expatriate research and used several criteria to successfully differentiate between SIEs, AEs, short-term assignees, and international business travellers. Andersen et al. (2014), on the other hand focused mainly on demarcating between the various forms of assigned expatriates, arguing that they too can initiate their international mobility themselves within the confines of an international organization. Baruch et al. (2013), on the other hand demarcate various types of global work based on seven main criteria. In a similar vein to Andresen et al. (2014), McNulty & Hutchings (2016), identified a number of assigned expatriate-types which they deemed "non-traditional": once again, illustrating the sheer complexity which this field has accrued (Baruch et al., 2013). Most recently, Hajro et al. (2019), comparing international skilled migrants to SIEs and AEs respectively, suggested six dominant criteria, which mirror much of what has been identified to demarcate variables within the literature, including time horizon, the flow of international mobility, motivation and personal agency, vulnerability, status and power, the level of organizational support, as well as commonly studied outcomes variables.

Accordingly, when reviewing the literature on global work, it becomes apparent that there is a multitude of groups of individuals, making it more important to define what can be considered a skilled migrant, as compared to other forms of global mobility, such as assigned expatriates and self-initiated expatriates. For obvious reasons short-terms assignees, global travellers and other forms of global mobility which differ wildly due to their short-term nature of stay and/or low-intensity of international experience (i.e. they still live in their respective home-base countries), will not be considered in the current study. Despite, the vast amount of research that has gone into differentiating the differences between the various types of global work experiences as highlighted above (e.g. Shaffer et al., 2012; McNulty & Brewster, 2017, Doherty, Richardson & Thorn, 2013; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Al Ariss et al., 2012), there is an astonishingly low consensus as to how ISMs have been distinguished from other types of global work experiences (Al Ariss, 2010; Cranston, 2017, Guo & Al Ariss, 2010; McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Tharenau, 2015; Doherty et al., 2013; Shaffer et al., 2012; Richardson & Zikic, 2007), as some still consider the demarcation between ISMs and SIEs as trivial overcomplicating research in an fanciful and impractical manner (Lazarova et al., *Forthcoming*). In a similar vein, others have followed the United Nations' definition of migration, where the term "migrant" has been used an overarching classification for general international mobility (UNESCO, 2017; Guo & Al Ariss, 2010).

2.3.2. Criteria to differentiate between International Skilled Migrants and Adjacent Global Workers

Following Hajro et al.'s (2019) example and by reviewing the international mobility literature, it is contended that a clear differentiation can be made between ISMs and assigned expatriates (AEs), as well as self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) based on the six aforementioned criteria: destination and origin of the international mobility, mobility motivation, duration of stay, health, status and power, the extent of organisational support, as well as the outcome focus of the respective international mobility research field. The respective criteria will now be discussed.

2.3.2.1. Global Mobility Flow

The first criterion to coarsely differentiate ISMs from AEs and SIEs is the origin and destination of the respective international mobility. In general, migrants tend to come from less developed nations and flow towards more developed nations. This also reflects the general flow of globally mobile individuals, as well as being the case for a majority of ISMs, as can be observed when analysing UN data (Baruch et al., 2007; Carr et al., 2005; Pearson et al., 2012). Alternatively, some of the literature suggests that that ISMs can migrate from developed to developed countries (e.g. Harvey, 2012; Harjo et al., 2019). In comparison, studies on AEs typically focus on mobility from economically dominant countries such as the USA (McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; Kraimer, Wayne & Jaworski). Since AEs are sent by organisations, their destination is logically dependent on the respective organisation's reach. Thus, AEs can be sent from developed or developing to a country in which people have a particular interest (Hajro et al., 2019). Finally, due to being extremely heterogeneous (Suutari & Brewster, 2000), SIEs differ from ISMs as they are said to flow from developed, as well as developing nations to a location which has been subjectively categorised as "attractive" to the particular individual (Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010; Richardson & Zikic, 2007; Selmer & Lauring, 2012; Froese, 2012; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Al Ariss & Syed, 2011; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Doherty et al., 2011). Supposedly, the chosen destination is more likely to be geographically close, as the individual must finance his or her own expatriation (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). In sum, it can be said, that ISMs show the most obvious trends in terms of mobility direction, with the latter two form of international mobility depending largely on the individual's definition of attractive, as well as the organisation's reach, for who the individuals work for.

2.3.2.2. Motivation to Migrate

The motivation to migrate is the next criterion which distinguishes ISMs from other types of international mobility. ISMs initiate their own mobility, (Carr et al., 2005; Tharenou, 2015; Doherty et al., 2013), which can stem from a variety of push and pull factors indicating that ISMs may possess either a very high level of personal agency (i.e. free will) or a very low level of personal agency (e.g. escaping a country for political insecurities, such as the recent refugee crisis in Syria) (Harvey, 2012; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Al Ariss, 2010; Cerdin et al., 2014). SIEs also initiate their own expatriation (Cao, Hirshi & Deller, 2012; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Jokinen et al, 2008; Cerdin & Perganeux, 2010; Inkson et al., 1997), and are motivated by similar reasons to expatriate as ISMs are (e.g., career development, economic reasons, etc.; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017). In addition, they are assumed to have high levels of personal agency (Shaffer et al., 2012). Contrarily, AEs are sent by their employing organisation, and being motivated by financial incentives and career development (Doherty et al., 2011; McNulty, De Cieri & Hutchings, 2009; Richardson & Mallon, 2005), they are also assumed to have a moderate degree of personal agency (Shaffer et al., 2012; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014). Therefore, while the differentiation between ISMs and AEs may be straightforward in this criterion, they only differ to SIEs due to having a larger range of personal agency (i.e. low-high vs. generally higher levels for SIEs).

2.3.3.3. Time Horizon

The time an individual intends to spend in the host country is a further determinant between ISMs and both expatriate types. While ISMs' intention is to settle in the host country permanently or indefinitely (Lowe et al., 2011; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Doherty et al., 2013) both expatriate types intention of repatriation is predetermined (Tahvanainen et al., 2005; Mayerhofer et al., 2004; Collings et al., 2014; Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Bochove & Engebersen, 2015; Tharenou, 2015; Shaffer et al., 2012). Although it has been argued that SIEs can stay in the host country for an undetermined period of time (e.g. Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013) it is the *intention* of potentially repatriating which should be taken into consideration (McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Cerdin et al., 2014). Thus, while other types of international mobility are characterised by the individual intending to return back (i.e. repatriate; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) to their country of origin, ISMs do not intend to do so.

2.3.3.4. Organisational Support

While AEs enjoy a vast array of organisation support, this is not the case for ISMs as well as SIEs. Thus, while AEs receive additional financial incentives, relocation support, as well as general funding (Starr & Currie, 2009), both ISMs and SIEs need to fund and organise their journeys themselves (Doherty et al., 2013; Al Ariss et al., 2012; Tharenou, 2015; Shaffer et al., 2012; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011; Howe-Walsh & Shyns, 2010; Biemann & Andresen, 2010). Thus, ISMs may differ compared to AEs, in this criterion but not necessarily to SIEs.

2.3.3.5. Vulnerability, Status and Power

Despite possessing a tertiary degree or higher, ISMs are migrants and are thus assumed to be part of the most vulnerable type of global workers (Harjo et al., 2019). This is due to their negative status, which in combination with institutional and immigration policy barriers, often leads to discrimination and downward career progression (Cranston, 2017; Al Ariss et al., 2012; Winterheller & Hirt, 2017; Harvey, 2012; Doherty et al,, 2013; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010; Zikic et al., 2010; The Guardian, 2018; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Ramboarison-Lelao et al., 2012; Fossland, 2013). AEs are suggested to suffer least from institutional barriers, since they are employed due to their managerial or technical skills on expatriate contracts prior to the move (McNulty et al., 2009; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014) and have the aforementioned organisational support. SIEs on the other hand, are also frequently assumed to either be managers or skilled individuals (Cerdin & Selmer, 2014), who also suffer from similar barriers as migrants (i.e. work permits, visas, underemployment, etc.; Shaffer et al., 2012; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014 Al Ariss & Özbilgin, 2010; Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011; Janta et al., 2011; Nakonz & Shik, 2009; Janta, 2011; Janta et al., 2012), however they do not suffer to the same extent from their status (Al Ariss, 2010; Cranston, 2017), as migrants are often "othered" and are thus classified as out-group members (Mahadevan & Zeh, 2015), in-line with the social identity theory outlined above. Although they are also employed on local contracts, as are migrants (Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Cerdin et al., 2014), they are more susceptible to culture shock as they too do not receive the extant organisational support (Shaffer et al., 2012) and are less likely to build solid social relationships due to their temporary status, leading to lowered psychological well-being (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). Thus, ISMs suffer the most from their status of being migrants, while AEs have a higher status and are least likely to suffer due to their status. SIEs on the other hand, potentially suffer due to institutional

barriers, but do not suffer as much from their status, in general. Therefore, it can be suggested that ISMs are most vulnerable of the three categories currently under comparison.

2.3.3.6. Frequently Studied Outcome Variables

Finally, ISMs differ greatly from other types of global work experiences due to the general focus of migration outcomes as opposed to expatriation. Skilled migration literature generally focuses on the individual-level acculturation of migrants (and/or family) in the larger societal context (Cerdin et al., 2014; Berry, 1997; Zikic et al. 2010; Doherty et al. 2013; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018). Thus, taking a more holistic view as opposed to corporate expatriation, which generally focuses on fulfilling a particular organisational task or project (McNulty et al., 2009; Cerdin & Parganeux, 2010; Collings et al., 2014; Feldman & Thomas, 1992), leading to organisational success (Black, Mendehall & Oddou, 1991; Jokinen et al., 2008). SIEs' main focus on the other hand, is on individual development (Selmer & Lauring, 2012; Richardson & Zikic, 2007; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Shaffer et al., 2012).

2.3.3.7. Demarcation Summary

In summary, ISMs differ from both expatriate types based on having a migration flow tendency from either developing or developed countries to developed nations, by being intrinsically motivated with low-high amounts of personal agency, as well as by intending to reside permanently in the host nation. In addition, ISMs typically obtain no organisational support, suffer most from having a negative status of being "migrants", as well as from institutional barriers and downward career progression. Finally, while AEs' and SIEs' focus is generally on attaining an organisational goal or developing an individual career within the international setting, migration of skilled migrants takes a more holistic approach by focusing on the general resettlement of individuals into a societal context. Table 1 below illustrates the aforementioned differences between ISMs, SIEs and AEs. Thus, based on the comparison above and the table provided ISMs can be defined as *individuals who possess a tertiary degree or higher, who initiate their own international mobility from a developing or developed country to reside permanently in a developed country without organisational support. These individuals encounter (institutional) barriers, suffer from a negative migrant status, potentially leading to discrimination and/or downward career progression, possess lower levels of personal agency, and are typically researched from a more holistic perspective.* In pursuit of rendering clean and

untainted results, this study used the aforementioned categorising criteria in order to target appropriate participants. Thus, fulfilling the first major contribution of this study: undertaking research which based on pristine conceptual clarity.

2.3.3.8. Further Touchpoints Worthy of Being Acknowledged

Finally, there are two further points which must be addressed with regards to demarcating between different forms of global mobility, including pigeon-holing and transitioning between the various types of global mobility. To start off with, just because an individual may have the intention to stay and thus qualify initially as a migrant, does not mean that this is set in stone. In other words, as illustrated previously, peoples' intentions can change and with it the global mobility classification (Janta et al., 2011). Especially, as an individual may experience a severely negative or positive experiences, which will confirm, disconfirm or alter their expectations, which can therefore have an impact on their motivation to integrate, and ultimately on their integration (Cerdin et al., 2014).

Furthermore, while the current study is mainly focusing on migrants, the aim is by no means to blindly follow the assumption that typologies are unidimensional or single layered. In recent literature, concerns have been voiced with regards to assuming that an individual can be branded as belonging to one specific type of globally mobile individual (e.g. an ISM or SIE; Dimitrova et al., 2018; McNulty & De Cieri, 2016; Lazarova et al., *Forthcoming*). Considering (skilled) migrants tend to migrate to areas of relative economic prowess and due to the global "war for talent" mentioned above, there is a certain probability that these individuals will find themselves working for an organisation which operates in more than one country. In such a case an ISM could also fulfil a role in a matrix-structured organisation. Therefore, potentially being part of a global virtual team (GVT). A GVT can generally be defined as a group of designated individuals, who mainly use technology (i.e. information and communication technologies) to work across cultural, temporal, as well as geographical boundaries in order to fulfil a predetermined organisational objective (Harvey et al., 2004; Harvey et al., 2007; Guzman et al., 2010; Eisenberg & Mattarelli, 2017; Brake, 2006; Derwen, 2016). The nature of the organisational objectives can be project based (i.e. temporary; Crisp & Jarvenpaa, 2013; Daim et al., 2012; Jimenez et al., 2017; Kankanhali et al., 2006) or can involve consistent, everyday work, e.g. ranging from sales and marketing activities, logistics, as well as research and development (Kitmoeller et al., 2015; Badrinarayanan et al., 2011; Cathro, 2018; Anawati & Craig, 2006). Dimitrova et al. (2018) for example, looked at the adjustment dynamics and

career implications of expatriates who also travel internationally for business. Thus, combining international business travellers with AEs. Due to previous demarcation articles, they argue that people have overlooked individuals who may assume two different global work roles, specifically highlighting the implications of adding "another layer of mobility" (p.11) which illustrates the ever-growing complexity of global mobility management. Thus, while not in the scope of the current study, it is important to acknowledge that (a) just because an individual is categorised as ISM for this study, does not mean that the classification is set in stone, and (b) individuals can and most likely will assume multiple typological group-memberships.

Type	Geographic Origin & Destination	Motivation / Personal Agency	Duration of Stay	Vulnerability, Status & Power	Organisational Support	Outcomes / Focus
International Skilled Migrants	Typically: Developing → Developed OR Developed → Developed	• Self-motivated / Initiated • Motivation: international experience, cultural-, family-, economic-, political-factors and insecurities, personal reasons • Personal Agency: Very Low - High	• Permanent (Intention)	• Tertiary educated or experienced • Legal local contract • Status: Negative • Susceptible to bureaucratic barriers, discrimination and downward career progression • Are not necessarily employed by an organisation upon arrival	• Individual / Self-Funded • No organisational support	• Overall acculturation, i.e. integration. • Individual/Family migration Focus
Assigned Expatriates	• One assigned country, which depends on the respective organisation's international reach	• Sent by organization • Motives: Financial benefits, personal interest in international experience, career progress, personal development • Personal Agency: Medium	• Temporary • Short to long-term (approx. 1-5 years)	• Sent abroad primarily due to their skills • Legal expatriate contract • Status: High & Temporary • Foreign Citizenship • Job assigned before leaving	• The organisation is responsible for aiding and funding expatriation and repatriation	• Overall: Adjustment → completion of a specific organisational task → organisational success (+ career success/development) • Corporate / Career Focus
Self-initiated Expatriates (SIEs)	• Typically, a single close location, however no limits as to how far an individual can go • Most commonly works in foreign organisations. • Home Country → "Attractive Country"	• Self-motivated / Initiated • Motivations: Personal motivation towards internationalism, increased career options, financial reasons, increased quality of life, and personal development • Personal Agency: High	• Temporary (Intention) • Short-Long term (Approx. 1-10 Years)	• Highly qualified, managers & skilled individuals • Legal local contracts • Status: Medium & temporary • Highly susceptible to culture shock → structural barriers → career constraints • Must (have intention to) be employed • Foreign citizenship	• Self-funded • The individual is responsible for the expatriation and repatriation from their assignments • No organisational support	• Overall: individual Adjustment → career development in an international location & across organisational boundaries → organisational success • Individual / Career Focus

Table 1: Distinguishing the differences between International Skilled Migrants and other types of Global Work Experiences (Hajro et al., 2019)

2.4. Core Processes in the Migration and Global Mobility Literature: Acculturation and Adjustment

Before identifying how success can be defined and the respective antecedents, it is important to highlight two core processes which have solidified themselves as key within the global mobility literature: Adjustment and Acculturation. While adjustment mainly has its roots in the expatriation literature, it is arguably a key process which has major implications on permanent (i.e. ISMs) as well as temporary (expatriation) international mobility. Acculturation on the other hand, has been widely accepted as one of the main concepts helping to explain cross-cultural contact and arguable carries significant connotations pertaining to the success of migrants in their new country of residence.

2.4.1. Adjustment

2.4.1.1. Adjustment: An introduction

In the context of globally mobile individuals, adjustment is defined as the extent to which an individual feels psychologically comfortable with their new surroundings within the context of a new country (Okpara & Kobongo, 2011; Lazarova et al., 2010; Shaffer et al., 2012; Shaffer et al., 2016; Hasleberger et al., 2013; Potosky, 2016; Black 1988). It differs to domestic adjustment in its depth and complexity, as moving to a new culture involves more factors which influence the level of comfort an individual perceives (Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). A lot has been written about adjustment, which has become popular particularly in expatriate research since the 1970s and still carries significant weight today. In fact, many studies have used adjustment as proxy variable for success of expatriate assignments (Ballesteros-Leiva et al., 2017; Shaffer et al., 2012; Potowsky, 2016; Lazarova et al., 2010; Takeuchi, 2010; e.g. Caligiuri & Tung, 1999; Caligiui & Lazarova, 2002). However, when reviewing the literature, it becomes clear that there is a necessity to separate outcomes variables from adjustment dynamics, as these remain "distal consequences of (adjustment) rather than as synonyms" (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016, p. 772). Despite the initial theorizations of adjustment been widely criticized and reconstructed accordingly (Shaffer et al., 2016), adjustment remains a constant predictor of several outcome variables and therefore deserves attention.

2.4.1.2. The Development of Adjustment

The origins of adjustment can be found in the early anecdotal works of Oberg (1954) who describes the phenomenon of culture shock, and how expatriates had previously suffered from this particular source of stress. Shortly after, Lysgaard (1955) published the "U-Curve" hypothesis, which was subsequently developed over the decades (Torbiorn, 1982; Pires et al., 2006). The U-Curve hypothesis stipulates that a after a phase of enjoying the novelty of a new country (i.e. the honeymoon phase), an individual feels a certain level of stress, due to the misalignment between the two given countries. This perceived stress then leads to the *culture shock* phase, whereby an individual perceives a drop-in ability to function. After accepting the respective reality of differences, an individual then moves into the adjustment phase, whereby through an iterative approach of experimentation the individual learns the new culture, leading to an increase in functionality in the given context. Finally, after learning the ropes, an individual passes into the final mastery-phase (or *modus vivendi*; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963), whereby the level of perceived functionality remains at a constant level (Pires et al., 2006). According to Torbion (1982), this process is a linear process and happens over time, however the exact time is not known.

Building on this linear concept, Black and colleagues developed a theoretical model on international adjustment (Black, 1988; Black, 1990; Black, 1992a, Black, 1992b; Black & Gregersen, 1991, Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991), which has since become one of the most widely cited adjustment-related model to date (Shaffer et al., 2016; Haslberger et al., 2013). According to Black et al. (1991) there are three main facets of cross-cultural adjustment, including general-/cultural-, work- and interaction-adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). While general adjustment involves the "comfort associated with various nonwork factors, such as general living conditions, local food, transportation, entertainment, facilities, and health care services in the host country" (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005, p. 257), interaction adjustment involves the comfort associated with the interaction between the host country nationals and the individual both in- and out-side of work. Finally, work adjustment involves the comfort pertaining to the actual assignment job or tasks (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Although the original model is still used in some studies to date (e.g. Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012; Fontinha et al., 2018), thereby illustrating the significant contribution it has made towards the development of research on adjustment, it has recently been subject to enhanced academic scrutiny due to the conceptual overlap between the supposed difference forms of adjustment (Shaffer et al., 2016; Haslberger et al., 2013).

Accordingly, Haslberger et al. (2013) theorise an additional layer to adjustment, whereby they view adjustment as part of a person-environment relationship in three dimensions: cognitive, feelings, and behaviours. Within these dimensions, an individual's adjustment process is affected by the internal locus, as well as the external affirmation of the appropriateness of the adjustment attempt. While the behavioural adjustment mirrors what has previously been identified by Ward & Chang (1997) as sociocultural adjustment and the general ability to fit-in with regards to exerting appropriate behaviour, cognitive adjustment is supposedly related to the metacognition aspect of cultural intelligence (Early & Ang, 2003; Thomas et al., 2015). Whereby, an individual accumulates knowledge and learns through a dynamic process of internal and external stimuli whether or not the knowledge is correct, i.e. the level of certainty an individual has with regards the accuracy of the knowledge acquired. Finally, affective coping involves the extent to which the entering within a new environment creates stress, which in turn effects an individual's feelings of the appraised context. Based on the psychological concept of affect, an expatriate's affective state represents the general overall negative or positive feelings respectively, which is influenced by internal as well as external stimuli, as it the case with the former two dimensions of adjustment (Haslberger et al., 2013).

Following this more recent approach and the calls for conceptual sophistication pertaining to adjustment measurement scales, Shaffer et al. (2016) recently developed a new adjustment scale. Using role theory as a vantage point, the authors identify two key roles within the common social structures in life on an expatriate: the role people assume at work, as well as the role people assume within their family structure. Within these roles, individuals adjust (i.e. feel comfortable with) the tasks they assume in their roles, as well as to the relationships they build and navigate while assuming the given role. Clearly, as the field of international adjustment has developed over the past century, the phenomenon has received more attention which has led to higher sophistication in terms of theoretical grounding, as well as the methodological ability to capture this particular concept.

2.4.1.3. The Importance of Adjustment: Links to Outcomes

Since Black and colleagues' model of international adjustment was developed in the 1980s, adjustment was quickly identified as pivotal concept for the success of AEs. While expatriate research has provided ample support of the positive and negative effects which expatriate as well as spouse/family (mal)adjustment has on respective outcomes of expatriate assignments (e.g. Hechanova et al., 2003; Shaffer et al., 2016; Shaffer et al., 2012; Wu & Ang,

2011), literature focusing on adjustment consequences of SIEs is extremely scarce. Finally, most relevantly to the current study and being in its early adolescents, research on ISMs on the other hand has not yet empirically looked at the effects of adjustment in detail. In fact, no empirical articles could be found linking ISM adjustment to respective outcome variables, as the consequences of adjustment on ISMs' success remains theoretical (Hajro et al., 2019). Similar to a large proportion of initial research on expatriates, if studies have looked at adjustment and SIEs or ISMs, it mostly involved adjustment as main outcome variable, whereby potential antecedents were evaluated (SIEs e.g. Fotinha et al., 2018; ISMs e.g. Winterheller & Hirt, 2017). In addition, research on SIEs (the closest form of global mobility to ISMs) also only includes a very limited selection of articles that focus on the consequences of adjustment. Expatriation research on the other hand, being the most mature and well-studied field of research, provides an illustrious demonstration of the consequences of adjustment (Hechanova et al., 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005).

Due to the limited number of studies pertaining to ISM adjustment linked to outcomes, a lot can and should be learned from expatriate adjustment, as suggested by Crowley-Henry et al. (2018), Hajro et al. (2019), as well as Lazarova et al. (*forthcoming*). As mentioned above, adjustment has been identified as a major outcome variable within research revolving around AEs. Within this field, many assumptions have been made with regards to the effects of given antecedents (which will be discussed later), as well as on the effects which adjustment has on given outcome variables, i.e. its consequences. The general consensus which has been rendered through this literature is that with higher levels of adjustment, higher levels of respective outcomes will be perceived, and *vice-versa* (Hechanova et al., 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Shaffer et al., 2012). For example, Peltokorpi & Froese (2009) suggest that higher levels of maladjustment lead to greater levels of anxiety, reduced job satisfaction, as well as performance (Naumann, 1993). Hechanova et al. (2003), conducting a meta-analysis of antecedents and consequences of adjustment suggest that higher levels of adjustment are positively related to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, as well as performance, while negatively related to turnover intentions and job-strain (i.e. psychological toll). Only a couple of years later, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) also conducted a similar meta-analysis. They too found that a higher level of adjustment is positively related to satisfaction, as well as job performance. Finally, Takeuchi (2010) undertook a review of expatriate adjustment and its respective antecedents as well as consequences. This study also confirmed previous observations, i.e., that most of the literature focusing on expatriate success have identified a link between adjustment and various forms of outcomes, including work- and non-work

satisfaction, organisational commitment, lower level of withdrawal cognitions, as well as increased performance.

In addition to studies which focused mainly on AEs listed above, studies on SIEs have also confirmed previous claims of the benefits of adjustment. Thus, furthering the importance for this particular construct in the field of long-term international mobility. Cao, Hirschi & Deller (2012), for example identified cross-cultural adjustment as key mediating variable leading to career success. Their theoretical claims have since been confirmed and extended by Selmer et al. (2015), who suggest that various forms of adjustment lead to work-related outcomes, including performance, time to proficiency, satisfaction, as well as job adjustment. Similar observations to AEs can be made in the SIE literature with regards to the use of adjustment as an outcome, rather than an intermediary process (Takeuchi, 2010; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013). It would seem that many current studies on SIEs (which is also a relatively young field of research too!) are imitating studies previously executed on AEs. Accordingly, more studies have looked at antecedents of adjustment: a substantial fraction of the SIE literature, which will be discussed later.

Finally, the importance of adjustment on the success of migrants has been outlined by Hajro et al.'s (2019) theoretical paper. They suggest that "adjustment (…) is a (…) concept that refers to how individuals deal with more temporary changes in (ISMs') environment" (p.335) and is extremely important in dealing with the short-term nature of living in a new context as it contributes towards how individuals deal with the day-to-day challenges and is critical within the *acculturation* process of skilled migrants, which will be discussed next.

2.4.1.4. Adjustment: A Summary

Adjustment has been identified as core mediating process within the context of long-term global mobility. This is illustrated by the long history and thereby importance which the literature has placed on this pivotal phenomenon. Despite this importance, while being commended for their initial contributions towards the development of this concept, early models of adjustment (i.e. the U-hypothesis and subsequent Black and colleagues' international adjustment model) have been scrutinised for their lack of theoretical grounding and overlapping nature between the given sub-dimensions of adjustment. This has since been theoretically, as well as pragmatically addressed in more recent works by Haslberger et al. (2013), as well as Shaffer et al. (2016), respectively. Alongside the consistent development of theoretical as well as methodological sophistication which this particular field has seen, regardless of the

methodological or theoretical models used, one general and consistent assumption can be made: higher levels of adjustment lead to more positive outcomes variables (i.e. performance, job satisfaction, time to proficiency, etc.), as well as less negative outcome variables (i.e. turnover rates for expatriates, withdrawal cognitions, psychological health, etc.). While much of the international adjustment literature has been focused on AEs, the importance of this particular construct has been proven to be a pivotal, which can have massive implications when dealing with more short-term issues or challenges when entering a new culture. Since previous literature on ISMs has yet included adjustment as a mediating variable to success, which is strongly advised by the expatriate literature, learning from expatriate literatures (i.e. both SIEs and AEs) is vital for understanding the importance of this construct. It can therefore be concluded and ultimately proposed that:[1]

> Proposition 1a: ISMs who show higher levels of adjustment will show higher levels of success.

In addition, since more recent models of adjustment focus on two life domains (i.e. family- and work-adjustment) it can further be proposed that:

> Proposition 1b: ISMs who show higher levels of family-role adjustment will show higher levels of family-related success.

> Proposition 1c: ISMs who show higher levels of work-role adjustment will show higher levels of work-related success.

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[1] Propositions will be integrated into hypotheses later. These are just to outline the most predictable outcome of the respective mediating variable.

2.4.2. Acculturation and Acculturation Strategies/Modes

2.4.2.1. Acculturation

Although acculturation has been talked about for many years (e.g. Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Redfield et al., 1936) and various aspects of it have been discussed individually (e.g. Assimilation, see Rumbaut, 1997), it is only with little dispute (see e.g. Lazarus, 1997) that Berry's (1997, 2005) framework of acculturation strategies has become the most popular theoretical approach when referring to intercultural encounters and the change in behavioural repertoire which stem from such prolonged encounters between cultural groups (Oerlemans & Peeters, 2010; Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016). Since then, acculturation has been widely used to examine the process of change that occurs in the behavioural repertoire of individuals upon migration and during prolonged contact with another culture (Berry, 1997; Oerlemans & Peeters, 2010; Lechuga, 2008). Despite some misinterpretations of acculturation being used synonymously to adjustment (Aycan, 1997; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1984; Selmer et al., 2015), it should be treated differently, as it does not only deal with how one acts and reacts in a given culture to render comfort, but also involves the long-term psychological exchange leading to the internalisation or (subjectively) chosen rejection of a given culture into an individual's identity (Harrison et al., 2004; Berry, 1997; Hajro et al., 2019). Stemming originally from cultural anthropology, the process begins when "groups of different cultural backgrounds and their individual members engage each other" (Berry, 2008, p.328; Kuo & Roysircar, 2004; Redfield et al., 1936).

According to Berry (1997; 2005), there are four main acculturation strategies including, integration, assimilation, marginalization and separation/segregation. The extent to which an individual or groups of individuals utilise(s) a specific strategy, so Berry, is largely dependent on two main "issues" or "dimensions". The first refers to the extent to which an individual values the maintenance of their original culture and the importance which is perceived with regards to cultural identity and respective characteristics of the given culture (i.e. *cultural maintenance*). The second category, *contact and participation* or *cultural adaptation* (Oerlemans & Peeters, 2010), refers to "what extent [the individual] become[s] involved in other cultural groups, or remain[s] primarily among themselves" (Berry, 1997, p. 9; Oerlemans & Peeters, 2010), i.e. "participating in larger society versus avoiding such relationships" (Berry, 2008, p.331). While, *integration* involves cultural maintenance, as well as interacting with the other groups, marginalisation is the opposite: no cultural maintenance, as well as no relations or interaction with other groups. Separation on the other hand, suggests that an individual places value on maintaining their original culture, with little interest of interacting with, or avoidance

of, other cultures. Finally, the assimilation strategy suggests that an individual has no interest in maintaining their original culture, while interacting with other cultures.

It is important to note that assimilation should be regarded as sub-form of acculturation and not as a synonymous terminology, which has been done in past studies (Berry, 1997, see also Rumbaut, 1997, p.487). Assimilation also outlines a large proportion of research regarding immigration and cultural adaptation. Previous research generally assumed that individuals who come into contact with another culture will eventually change their behaviour to emulate that of the dominant culture, with the "old" or original culture being cast off, i.e. assimilate (Berry, 2008). Essentially, the original thoughts of migrants adapting to a new culture were depicted following the notion of "learning the ropes" or fitting in to the dominant culture (Rumbaut, 1997).

2.4.2.2. Outlining and Justifying Previous literature surrounding Acculturation Outcomes

Acculturation strategies have been shown to have substantial relationships with positive and negative individual outcomes: integration is usually the most successful; marginalisation is the least; and assimilation and separation strategies are intermediate (Berry, 1997; Berry, 1990a; Berry & Sam, 1996; Berry, 2005; Ward & Kennedy, 1993; Hajro *et al*., 2017a; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Cox, 1993). These suggestions in the literature are supported by the diversity management literature, especially when looking at the CEM by v. Knippenberg et al. (2004). Using both the IDMP, as well as the SAP, a lot of the past results can be explained.

As previously stated, v. Knippenberg et al. (2004) suggested that it is the communication between two cultures, which leads to the exchange of novel task-relevant information, in turn leading to the desired outcomes of diversity in form of creativity and innovation, e.g. technological advancement (Hunt, 2010; Wyatt-Nichol & Antwi-Boasiako, 2012; Gokcen, 2012). Seeming that individuals within organisations need to communicate with their host country national (HCN) counterparts in order to exchange the respective information, which leads to the aforementioned benefits, it makes logical sense that most positive outcomes stem from the integration strategy. These individuals maintain their original cultural heritage (i.e. the source of novel insights), while interacting with the host culture on a daily basis (i.e. share the novel insights). Through daily interaction (Berry, 1997), skilled migrants theoretically "upgrade" their behavioural repertoire, while maintaining allegiance to their original culture. Through their respective strategy it could be argued that they maintain a certain level of

psychological safety, as obtaining more identities blurs the lines as to who is an in- and out-group member (Fitzsimmons, 2013), which in turn leads to the exchange of culture-specific knowledge or information, leading to the highlighted benefits of diversity (Fitzsimmons, 2013). Since these individuals are motivated to share their information in order to facilitate their integration, according to SIT they are more likely to be identified as *in-group* member based on their intellectual capabilities, i.e. a deep-level diversity trait (Jackson et al., 2003; v Knippenberg et al., 2004; Lauring & Selmer, 2013; Tyran & Gibson, 2008). Furthermore, they are more likely to be motivated to learn the host country language, which will also facilitate their integration (Liversage, 2009; 2009b) and the exchange of task-relevant information (v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Dwyter et al., 2003; Lau & Murningham, 1998; Wyatt-Nichol & Antwi-Boasiako, 2012), leading to the further benefits of diversity outlined previously (Roberge & v. Dick, 2010).

Conversely, an individual who attempts to assimilate, following Berry's logic, although interacting with the host country, "sheds" his or her original culture. Thus, such an individual will not share culturally valuable information with their HCN counterparts, leading to more homogenous information exchange, resulting in not provoking negative aspects previously outlined in the diversity management literature (e.g. enhanced conflict), but therefore also leading to no benefits being produced in terms of creativity and innovation (Berry, 1997; Muchiri & Ayoko, 2013; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998; Wyatt-Nichol & Antwi-Boasiako, 2012). Therefore, these individuals may manage to get their expected daily work done (without any aforementioned benefits of diversity), however they may suffer from an identity crisis and a sense of belonging (Hajro, Zilinskaite & Stahl, 2017; Hajro et al., 2019).

A separated individual, on the other hand, will stick to their respective culture, but will not communicate relevant task-related information. Due to lack of communication, there will be higher levels of conflict, as the ISMs in this particular case will ostracise themselves, leading to be viewed as *out-group* member by the more dominant culture (Hajro et al., 2017; Berry, 1997; 2005; 2008). Thus, separated individuals, will lead to negative aspects of diversity, i.e. conflict, stereotyping, discrimination, etc., as well as no work-related benefits of diversity (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Cox, 1993). Considering these individuals prefer to stick to their own cultures, theoretically they may reach high levels of performance, should they be teamed up with people from their host country/region (Berry, 1997). Furthermore, since these individuals generally choose not to mingle with HCNs and mainly exchange pleasantries with people from their home culture, it would not be surprising to see these individuals thrive with regards to their personal/family life.

Finally, using the same logic, and consistent with the previous literature on acculturation, marginalised ISMs should be least able to contribute toward group-level success, and therefore organisational success (Berry, 1997). These individuals do not maintain any ties to their original culture and can therefore not contribute towards the benefits of diversity. By their own ignition, they are categorised as *out-group* members, not only from the more dominant host culture, but also by members of their culture of origin, as they avoid interaction with both groups. Therefore, they are most likely to suffer from being subject to the negative aspects of diversity, i.e. prejudice and discrimination (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016), while not contributing to the potential benefits. Although the majority of literature agrees with this particular conclusion, Fitzsimmons et al. (2013) dispute this conclusion, as their recent studies suggest that marginal bi-culturals are potentially extremely well-suited for global leadership positions. Especially, as their identity complexity supposedly allows them to cope more effectively with the diversity, complexity and uncertainty, which global leaders face (as opposed to local leaders). That said, Fitzsimmons et al. (2013) accept that their conclusions may not necessarily be true for *all* marginalised bi-culturals and since they focus on bi-culturals however, this may not necessarily be applicable to the traditional *migrants*.

In addition to the two aforementioned *issues*, Berry (1997, 2008) puts emphasis on a third dimension: the role that the dominant group plays which influences the extent to which acculturation modes are possible within the given society. If the dominant group desires assimilation, then society is coined melting pot. If the dominant group forces a separation environment the larger society takes a segregation stance. Exclusion occurs if the dominant group takes a marginalised stance, and if diversity is accepted within the given society, in form of integration, then a multicultural stance is assumed (Berry, 2008). From this perspective individuals are subject to the overall societal attitudes towards culturally diverse ISMs as "state immigration policies, attitudes toward cultural diversity, and preferences regarding the acculturation strategy of immigrants constitute a larger social and institutional context which determines the success or failure of a culturally diverse society" (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016, p. 783). For example, should a societal attitude lead to negative experiences (e.g. discrimination), an individual may perceive higher levels of the aforementioned culture shock, which in turn can lead to an individual over-glorifying the home culture (Pires et al., 2006; Oberg, 1954). Due to the permanent nature of migration, this would then lead to a separation approach to acculturation, as the society in this case may push an individual away from integration the host culture (Berry, 1997; 2008). These societal attitudes can therefore have massive implications on an individual's ability to engage in the aforementioned acculturation

strategies and thereby, their overall migration success (Khalaf & Alkobaisi, 1999; Weishaar, 2010; Fitzsimmons, 2013).

2.4.2.3. Acculturating Identities: An Alternative Perspective using a Self-Concept Approach

While incorporating both home and host identities may render increased outcome variables (such as higher self-efficacy, self-worth, benefits towards creativity, lower levels of identity loss) as suggested by SIT and acculturation literature above, Self-Concept Theory provides an alternative perspective as how the acquisition and internalisation of multiple identities may lead to the misinterpretation of given social cues and stimuli. Self-concept theory suggests that individual interpret social situations based on their self-concept. A self-concept is defined as "a set of cognitive structures (self-schemas) that provide for individual expertise in particular social domains (Markus et al., 1985, p.1494). In the midst of social encounters, an individual will process a given social situation with such schemas. Individuals with more identities will most likely be more effective in a general cross-cultural situation. However, only if the identitiess have been assumed to be even (i.e. Fitzsimmons: aggregation-prioritisation continuum). If not, then they are most likely to revert back to their dominant culture. Thus, as integration (as suggested by Berry, 1997, 2005, 2008) is the integration of two cultures, if they are not fully integrated or one cannot "switch" between the two, then the appropriate behaviour may indeed be difficult, stressing and lead to lower levels of success (Baumeister et al., 1985). If one has "shed" the original culture, then one can only revert to the host cultural schema one has learned. Thereby, it could be suggested, that one is more likely to exert behaviour typical of the host culture, thus leading to higher levels of respective outcome variables due to being classified as in-group member. Conversely, while still able to exert more typical behaviour, an integrated ISM may on occasion interpret the social situation using the wrong schema. Thus, exerting atypical behaviour, leading to being re-categorised as out-group member and may therefore experience higher levels of success than separated individuals as illustrated above, however lower levels of success than assimilated individuals. Thus, some individuals may suffer from switching between their identities and may experience *acculturative misalignments*. This misalignment would also be experienced by separated individuals. Since they have maintained their home culture, while rejecting the host culture: they are most likely to revert to schemas which are typical to their home culture while atypical to their host culture. Their interpretation of the given social surroundings in a new culture, are therefore most likely to

occur based on said schema and they will execute behaviours accordingly. Thus, rendering them as out-group members based on these social cues and reactions. Since they cannot interpret the given behaviour in an appropriate manner, they are most likely to over-glorify their home cultures as they will experience more negative outcomes. While not part of the current study, this particular theoretical approach also lends understanding to the previously identified "counter-intuitive" approach that marginalised individuals may be more effective than other forms of acculturated individuals (Fitzsimmons et al., 2013). Since an individual assumes an external schema which is not based on either culture (neither home or host), they are most likely able to take a neutral stance. Thus, being able to see benefits through different cultural perspectives. Therefore, these individuals may excel in certain areas as perceived by Fitzsimmons et al. (2013), as they do not suffer from acculturation misalignment. It is therefore understandable that these results could be observed based on the self-concept theory.

As opposed to the mainstream literature on acculturation, the adaptation of this particular theory with regards to international management stresses the importance of either assuming the host culture (i.e. assimilation and integration), while at the same time illustrating the need to reject the home culture to a certain degree. Thus, SCT may lend support of previous theories vis-á-vis multicultural individuals which suggest that these individuals can suffer from confusion, be conflicted with multiple identities, as well as suffer from uncertainty (Fitzsimmons, 2013). In order to interpret the given situation correctly, thereby leading to the appropriate behaviour and subsequently attain success, an individual must assume a host identity. In addition, those who choose to assume a home country perspective will not be able to process the socio-cultural cues, which in turn will lead to a misinterpretation of given environment and the categorisation as out-group member. Thus, leading to negative outcomes. Thus, following self-concept theory:

Proposition 2a: Higher levels of identification with the host culture, will lead to higher success outcome.

Proposition 2b: Higher levels of identification with the ISMs home culture, will lead to lower levels of success outcome.

2.4.2.4. Acculturation: A Summary

In general, acculturation literature has followed the popular framework created by Berry (1997, 2005, 2008). While the general consensus suggests that certain categories may be more effective than others (e.g. integration compared to marginalisation), more recent literature has suggested counter-intuitive findings suggesting that the category with the previously most negative connotations, marginalisation, can also be extremely effective in a given context. Using a suggested different perspective of acculturative misalignment, which is based on social-concept theory, individuals are most likely to be effective in a given cultural context should they assume the host identity, while those assuming the home identity may suffer from misinterpreting the given social cues within the host country. The latter point however, will be largely affected by the third dimension in Berry's (2008) acculturation model: the societal factors. In a given pluralistic culture, individuals will be allowed by the society to integrate, while a more nationalistic culture is likely to expect individuals to assimilate. This latter assumption would suggest alternatives to the previously identified propositions 2c – 2f, such that given the right-wing shift in the UK (and Europe in general) in recent years and the negative connotations associated with the term migration as illustrated in the media:

Alternative Proposition 2c: Assimilated ISMs in the UK will attain the highest levels of successful outcomes, as acculturative misalignment will be low.

Alternative Proposition 2d: Integrated ISMs in the UK will attain the high levels of successful outcomes, but due to potential misinterpretations, will not assume as high outcomes as assimilated individuals.

Alternative Proposition 2e: Separated ISMs will experience the lowest levels of successful outcomes, as they will suffer most from acculturative misalignment.

Alternative Proposition 2f: Marginalised individuals will experience intermediate levels of success, as they will assume a neutral perspective with regards to acculturative misalignment.

2.5. Defining Dimensions of Migration Success

In 1936, Redfield and colleagues suggested a research outline to guide future research in the field of acculturation. This has been used as the basis, for example, to define acculturation for many studies (e.g. Oerlemans & Peeters, 2010; Gillespie et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2013; Salamonson et al., 2008; Gutierrez et al., 2009), including Berry's (1997, 2008) landmark study of acculturation strategies. Close to the end of the outline, Redfield and colleagues also outlined *results of acculturation*. Within this section, three main outcome variables are discussed: acceptance (which describes the adoption of an assimilation strategy), *adaptation* (which describes the adoption of an integration-based strategy) and finally *reaction* (which looks at contra-acculturative movements (i.e. separation / marginalisation). While there have been many studies pertaining to the research of acculturation of migrants since then, there seems to be a strong focus on acculturation strategies as outcome variable, i.e. successful migration is often measured in terms of attaining the most favourable acculturation mode *integration* (e.g. Cerdin et al., 2014). This could have led to the aforementioned proposition, that *integration* is the most positive acculturation outcome, while others, such as marginalisation have been branded as counter productive (Fitzsimmon et al., 2013; Berry, 1997; Berry, 1990a; Berry & Sam, 1996; Berry, 2005; Ward & Kennedy, 1993). Although focusing on bi-culturals, Fitzsimmons et al. (2013) dispute this fact, as marginalised global leaders have the potential of being extremely successful. Lee et al. (2017), even suggest that marginalised individuals could indeed show higher levels of performance than integrated individuals within international settings. So how can there be such a stark contrast in the literature? When taking a closer look at the how success is measured, it becomes apparent that it may be due to the measurement of different outcome variables. So how is acculturation actually measured? How is it different from migration success? Over the years (to the knowledge of the author) there has yet been a study to fully conceptualise the different facets of successful migration. By looking at past literature in migration/ISM research as well as leaning on the adjacent research field of expatriation, a novel conceptualisation of *migration success* is defined and illustrated based on Hajro et al.'s (2019) matrix, which was based on two main dimensions including *perspective* as well as *life domains*.

The first dimension which becomes apparent in the ISM literature is the life domains, which consist of the personal-life domain and the workplace/career-domain. While the personal life domain includes facets, such as general life satisfaction, family life satisfaction as well as social life satisfaction, the workplace/career domain focuses on all aspects pertaining to the ISMs' workplace and career (Cerdin, et al., 2014). While this may seem a trivial aspect, according to Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry (2013) more often than not research on migrants

(whether skilled or not) does not cover *career* as is the case within the SIE or AE literature. In ISM research the focus tends to be on gaining employment rather than building a career, where migrants are often subject to institutional barriers which hinder their employment (Al Ariss, 2010; Zikic, 2015). Thus, migrants are often observed from an individual/family perspective, while their corporate involvement is often overlooked (Doherty, Richardson & Thorn, 2013). This is a major flaw in the literature, as skilled migration is "a major transition characterized by (a) unique combination of push factors for motivation, often based on family or other motives (e.g. both career and non-career related)" (Zikic, 2015, p. 1362). In response, recently there have been an increase in articles focusing specifically on ISMs' work-related outcomes. For example, Zikic & Richardson (2016), looked at the workplace integration of ISMs in regulated versus non-regulated professions and found that institutional pre-entry scripts had a negative impact on an ISMs' ability to re-enter their previous professions, once in the host country, i.e. hindering career continuation. Furthermore, Hajro, Zilinkaite & Stahl (2017) looked at the extent to which skilled migrants mobilised coping strategies in order to obtain workplace integration, whereby climate for inclusion was identified as positive catalyst to workplace integration.

However, if the motivation to move abroad is to settle indefinitely for both work and non-work-related reasons, then the success of an ISM cannot be defined by either work-related or private-life related outcome variables in isolation, but rather in combination, i.e. private- and work-life outcomes should be seen as two sides of the same coin. Learning from previous expatriate research, both life domains have been proven to be interrelated rather than independent from each other (Lazarova et al., 2010; Shaffer et al., 2016). Thus, spill-over effects can occur, such that an individual's personal life success can be influenced by organisational antecedents and vice-versa (Hajro et al., 2019). Cerdin et al, 2014, is a prime example of splitting ISM success based on this variable. In their study of ISMs in France, they used life satisfaction (personal life domain), job satisfaction, as well as career success (workplace/career domain) as proxies for successful integration.

The second dimension, *perspective*, suggests that there are certain outcomes that are subjective (e.g. life/job satisfaction, desire to repatriate, perceived discrimination, etc.), while others are objective (e.g. job/task performance, level of over-qualification, career capital development, host country embeddedness, development of social networks, etc.). Cao et al. (2012) suggested the categorisation of career success of SIEs based on subjective and objective variables, where subjective career success represents an individual's "internal reflection and evaluation across his or her individually relevant dimension" (p.162). This is often measured in

form of career satisfaction (Cao et al., 2012; Cerdin et al., 2014; Zikic et al., 2010). Objective career success on the other hand, includes more tangible and comparable indicators of an individual's career progression, e.g. salary or promotions (Cao et al., 2012; Zikic et al., 2010). From a sociological perspective, the objective career encapsulates the shaping of social status by the larger social structures (Zikic et al., 2010). While this dimension has been illustrated in the respective ISM, as well as SIE literature, the link between acculturation strategies has not yet been drawn. Thus, leaving an important gap within the literature.

Figure 1 below represents the two dimensions in form of a 2x2 matrix, with *life domains* on the y-axis and the *perspective* dimension on the x-axis. Essentially the *Dimensions of Migration Success* can be categorised into four quadrants: personal-objective, personal-subjective, career-objective, and career-subjective. When observing past results based on these categories, it becomes apparent that past studies may have reaped alternating results as they have focused on conceptually distinct outcome variables. For example, while Cerdin et al. (2014) did take both life domains into account (as mentioned above), they only focused on self-reports, i.e. job-, career- and life-satisfaction. Thus, missing out on the objective aspect of migration success (e.g. salary, rank, host country embeddedness, etc.). Fitzsimmons et al. (2013), as well as Lee et al (2017), who suggest that marginalised individuals can be highly effective in the right environments, focus primary on effectiveness and leadership ability. Both of which, could be argued to be categorised at objective-career related outcome, i.e. task performance. However, they do not fully evaluate the whole complexity of the objective dimension (i.e. they do not go into personal life domain), as well as failing to evaluate the subjective outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, life satisfaction, etc.). Thus, although their results are valuable to a niche group of individuals, global leaders, results may be different when looking at different outcome variables. Finally, Pearson et al. (2012) examined the career trajectories of Polish ISMs in Ireland, where they identified life satisfaction, level of underemployment/over-qualification, intention to repatriate, psychological well-being, career dissatisfaction as well as level of pay increase compared to home country. This study, thus has identified a plethora of outcome variables, such that they look at objective career success (higher salary in host country and level of overqualifications), subjective personal life success (i.e. a switch from wanting to repatriate to permanent settlement), as well as objective personal-life success (i.e. reduced psychological health through professional identity loss). They also indirectly address career dissatisfaction, in terms of individuals who struggle due to accepting employment which is not commensurate with their qualifications. However, such holistic outlooks remain the exception rather than the norm.

	Subjective	Objective
Personal Life Domain	Life satisfaction (Cerdin et al., 2014) Intent to Repatriate (Pearson et al., 2012) Perceived Discrimination Etc.	HC Embeddedness Mental/Physical Health (Pearson et al., 2012) Development of Social Networks Etc.
Workplace / Career	Job / Career Satisfaction (Cerdin et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2012; Zikic et al., 2010) Organizational Commitment Work Engagement Etc.	Level of Over-Qualification Increased Salary versus Home Country. (Pearson et al., 2012) Job Performance (Fitzsimmons et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2017) Career Success (Cao et al., 2012; Zikic et al., 2010) Etc.

Figure 1: Dimensions of Migration Success (Hajro et al., 2019)

Since the main goal of migration is to "build a better life for the individual and their family" simply looking at one aspect, e.g. objective-career outcomes (in the case of Fitzsimmons et al., 2013), is not enough, as objective- and subjective-career career outcomes are also seen to coexist rather than to be independent from one another (Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss, 2018). In addition, since the study of skilled migration is researched in terms of an individual's (and their family's) resettlement in a new location (Doherty et al., 2013), one must take not only the personal-life domain into account, but also the career domain into account, as skilled migrants manage their own careers (Zikic et al., 2010; Carr et al., 2005). In addition, simply using measurements from the subjective perspective, may not accurately reflect the objective success which migrants experience, despite certain interdependencies being identified between variables, such as subjective and objective career success (Cao et al., 2012; Zikic et al., 2010). Thus, in order to fully evaluate the success of ISMs in their respective host countries, based on the re-conceptualisation outlined above, it is necessary to include variables from each quadrant. This allows for a more inclusive approach of measuring *holistic migration success*, which is defined as *the extent to which a migrant*

attains success in both private- and work-life domains, which is measured using both objective and subjective measures. In order to be able to effectively compare results between studies, one has to compare similar dependent variables, as migration success variables can be classified as domain specific (Hajro et al., 2019).

2.6. Antecedent Variables of Migration Success: A Multi-level Perspective

Within the field of global mobility, there are many variables which have been identified as having a significant influence on the success of respective individuals, and more specifically ISMs. These can be categorised under three main headings: Micro-, Meso-, and Macro-level antecedent variables. While some have been studied more frequently than others in respective empirical articles, recent literature has called for a more holistic approach towards studying ISMs, involving all three levels (Hajro et al., 2019; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Al Ariss et al., 2012). While the field of ISMs specifically is still very young, as outlined above, the field of global mobility has been around for a longer period of time, with the respective forms of globally mobile individuals only differing slightly. Considering the adjacent fields of SIEs and AEs have been studied in more detail, it makes sense to borrow concepts and theories from the respective research streams (Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Hajro et al., 2019). Thus, the following section will look at the respective levels by reviewing the literature in an alternating fashion, i.e. first looking at the ISM-based literature and then leaning on the aforementioned adjacent fields (where appropriate), in order to gain a more holistic insight, as to which variables could have an impact of migration success of ISMs.[2]

2.6.1. Micro/Individual-Level Variables

Within the global mobility literature, a host of individual level antecedent variables have been previously used to predict success in an international setting. While the ISMs literature is still playing catch-up in many regards, lessons can still be learned from the expatriate (both SIEs and AEs) literature, which as illustrated above can be used as starting point for much of the future ISM literature (Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Hajro et al., 2019). When reviewing the global mobility literature in general, several individual-level variables can be identified as key to individuals' success in the international setting, including cross-cultural competencies (i.e. CQ), host country language proficiency, age of the respective ISM and host country tenure. These will be discussed next.

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[2] For a more detailed overview of the literature with regards to antecedent variables of global mobility success, see appendices 4-9.

2.6.1.1.1. Cultural Intelligence and Cross-cultural Competencies

Cross-cultural competencies have long been identified as a key aspect leading to the success within the global mobility literature (Shaffer et al., 2012). More specifically, the concept of cultural intelligence (CQ) has been developed in recent years and has only recently (in the last 15 years) been methodologically operationalised in self-reporting instruments. Stemming originally from Early & Ang (2003), cultural intelligence can be defined as an individual's ability to "to interact effectively across cultural contexts and with culturally different individuals" (Thomas et al., 2015, p.1100). Originally, Earley & Ang (2003) identified four facets of CQ, including cultural knowledge, cross-cultural skills, motivation and metacognition. Later, Thomas et al. (2015) while acknowledging the importance of CQ in general, criticised previous conceptualisations of the construct, suggesting that the four-facet model did not measure an overall construct of CQ, but rather focused on the individual elements in isolation (e.g. Ward et al., 2009). Thus, making the aggregation of an overall score (typical of psychometric intelligence constructs) impossible (Thomas et al., 2012; Thomas et al., 2015; Thomas et al., 2008). While making minor changes, the main change which can be observed is the elimination of the motivational aspect. They rightly suggest that "motivation is concerned with the *willingness* to behave in a particular way, while cultural intelligence is the *ability* to interact effectively" (p.1100-1101). Thus, while motivation may have a significant impact on whether an individual operationalises their ability, it is not part of the overall construct of CQ, so Thomas et al. (2015). CQ therefore includes three main facets, including cultural knowledge, and skills, as well as metacognition.

While cultural knowledge refers to "content-specific knowledge and general process knowledge of the effects of culture on one's behaviour and on the behaviour of others" (Thomas et al., 2015, p. 1101), cultural skills refer to the behavioural component of CQ, whereby an individual exhibits given behaviours in order to learn from, appreciate differences in, relating successfully with, as well as being able to adapt behaviour in a particular cultural situation. While the latter construct can be rather expansive, the five key facets of cultural skills involve relational skills, tolerance with uncertainty, adaptability, empathy and perceptual acuity. Finally, cultural metacognition is based on previous work on metacognition (Flavell, 1979) and includes the awareness of a cultural context, conscious appraisal and processing of the given influence of a cultural, and the "planning of courses of action" in respective cultural contexts (Thomas et al., 2015, p. 1102). In essence, cultural intelligence therefore measures an individual's ability to function and interact effectively with people from different cultures.

The danger of following the previously popular four-factor CQ model which includes motivational CQ, is that these have rendered mixed results of the impact which CQ has on an individual's cross-cultural effectiveness. Ward et al. (2009), for example looking at the four-factor model of CQ, rendered no predictive power of CQ with regards to cross-cultural adaptation. While this is initially counter-intuitive, this may be due to the fact that they used the four-factor structure initially developed by Earley & Ang (2003), which cannot be aggregated and thus may not render any predictive value (Thomas et al., 2015). Similar observations can be made in further studies, e.g. Wu & Ang (2011) as well as Huff et al. (2014), who once again looked at the individual facets of the CQ four-factor model. They found no relationship between the three aspects suggested by Thomas et al. (2015) (i.e. knowledge, metacognitive and skills) and outcome variables, i.e. performance and intention to remain on the international assignment. "Motivational" CQ on the other hand was related to respective outcomes measured. This furthermore suggests what has been suggested by Thomas et al. (2015), such that CQ should be measured on aggregate and should not include motivational CQ (Thomas et al., 2008; Huff et al., 2014).

While the development of methodological sophistication of the construct has been in process, a lot of research has also been rendering CQ as vital aspect of cross-cultural effectiveness (Ang et al., 2007). Not surprising then that it has been taken into considering within the field of global mobility. Jiang et al. (2018) for example looked at the antecedent relationship of CQ on migrants' voice within the context of organisations. They found a significant positive relationship between the level of CQ and an employee's propensity towards voicing opinions of organisational as well as unit improvements, i.e. enhanced communication (Bücker et al., 2014). Migrants voicing their opinions is important. As outlined in the section on migrants contributing towards the cultural diversity within companies, organisations would therefore be more likely to render creative and innovative solutions to problems with heightened diversity, since they are more likely to share information (v Knippenberg et al., 2004). Thus, heightened cultural intelligence should lead to more benefits experienced by the diversity which ISMs contribute towards (Zikic, 2015; Jiang et al. 2018). Making meaningful contributions at work is important for all employees (Steger, 2016; Brafford & Rebele, 2018) and especially globally mobile individuals (Hess et al., 2019), as meaningful work can lead to different forms of success other than organisational performance, such as career success (Onca & Bido, 2019), performance and work engagement (Wingerden & Van der Stoep, 2018). The direct effects on individual performance were also observed by Chen et al. (2011) who, focusing on Phillippine laborers in Taiwan, observed that higher levels of CQ were related to performance, as well as

negatively to the level of culture shock. Thus, implying that higher levels of CQ are clearly related to cross-cultural effectiveness.

In addition to migrant research, research on expatriates also support the claims of importance experienced by having higher levels of CQ. For example, Froese & Peltokorpi (2011), found that cultural empathy (a facet of cultural intelligence; Thomas et al., 2015) was positively related to job satisfaction of both SIEs as well as AEs (Bücker et al., 2014). Malek & Budhwar (2013) on the other hand, support the previously outlined benefits pertaining to higher levels of CQ. In a study on Expatriates in Malaysia, they observed that CQ effected performance directly, as well as indirectly through adjustment. Thus, while CQ may have a direct impact on an individual's performance in a cross-cultural context, it also has a mediating effect on given outcomes. The importance of CQ's mediating effects on expatriate performance has also been observed Lee & Sukoco (2010), who found no direct effects of CQ on performance. They observed fully mediated effects of CQ on performance through adjustment. Thus, indicating the importance of core processes such as adjustment, as well as acculturation, in turn leading to success as outlined in the previous chapter on holistic migration success.

After looking at the impact which CQ has on ISMs as well as similar forms of global mobility, it can be proposed ISMs with higher levels of CQ should reach higher levels of success across the board, i.e. they are more likely to experience holistic migration success. In addition, CQ is likely to have an impact on the adaptation and therefore the adjustment and acculturation dynamics of ISMs (Zikic et al., 2010; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2004), such that higher levels of CQ is likely to lead to an individuals' ability to understand the local culture and process it accordingly. Therefore, higher levels of CQ are likely to have a positive relationship with internalising a host culture identity, as well as lead to higher levels of adjustment (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011) and vice versa. Individuals need to have the ability to process the given culture (Potosky, 2016). If not, then one will not be able to accommodate or internalise the respective culture (Fitzsimmon, 2013). In turn, these key processes will lead to various positive outcomes, while reducing the negative outcomes (i.e. level of over-qualification). It can therefore be suggested that:

2.6.1.1.2. Cultural Intelligence Hypotheses

Direct effects

H1a: Cultural intelligence will have a direct positive impact on (i) job satisfaction, (ii) organisational-based self-esteem, (iii) organisational commitment, (iv) host country career

embeddedness, (v) life satisfaction and (vi) host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on (vii) level of over-qualification.

Indirect Effects: Acculturation

H1b: Cultural Intelligence will have a positive impact on an ISM's level of host country identity and have a negative impact on the level of home country identity. In turn, home identity will have a negative impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a positive effect on level of over-qualification. Host identity will have a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification.

Indirect Effects: Adjustment

H1c: Cultural intelligence will have a positive effect on work, as well as family adjustment, which in turn will each lead to a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification.

2.6.1.1.3. Final notes on Cultural Intelligence and Global Mobility

While much of the literature is in-sync with regards to the benefits which can be rendered through higher levels of CQ, it is also worth mentioning that past research on career-theory suggests that wanting to undertake global mobility for career purposes (i.e. having an international career anchor) is positively related to cultural intelligence (Lazarova et al., 2014). As mentioned before, although having higher levels of agency than lower skilled migrants (Hajro et al., 2019; Harvey, 2012; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Al Ariss, 2010; Cerdin et al., 2014), unless forced to migrate (i.e. to seek asylum outside the home-country), ISMs engaging in global mobility may generally assume higher levels of CQ due to their propensity towards having an international career anchor and therefore cultural intelligence. Thus, while past literature suggests that higher levels of CQ may lead to many perceived benefits in terms of holistic migrations success, the level of CQ in general may be higher among globally mobile individuals (Cerdin & Perganeux, 2010), which may therefore skew the results to some degree.

This could also be an explanation of why some studies may have rendered results indicating limited predictive power of cultural intelligence as highlighted above.

2.6.1.2.1. Language

Language can be defined as "a system of conventional spoken, manual (signed), or written symbols by means of which human beings, as members of a social group and participants in culture, express themselves" (Britannica, 2020). Cross-cultural anthropologist and pioneer Edward T. Hall (1992) even goes as far to state "that culture is communication and communication by humans cannot be divorced from culture (p.212). While it is therefore understandable that some contend language as aspect of culture (e.g. Hofstede et al., 2001), and the ability to enhance the command of a language could therefore theoretically be covered under CQ as illustrated above (i.e. cultural knowledge and skills; Thomas et al., 2008; 2012; 2015; Ang et al., 2007), a lot of the literature treats this particular variable independently. Indeed, much of the past literature has identified language independently as a key variable in order for globally mobile individuals to be more successful in their international sojourn, especially migrants (e.g. Janta et al., 2012; Mahadevan & Kilian-Yasin, 2017).

The (skilled) migrant-literature has identified language to be key in order to be successful within a new context. Winterheller & Hirt (2017) for example, looked at skilled migrants' capital accumulation and use of career capital in Austria. They identified language ability to represent symbolic capital, which in turn leading to higher levels of success, which was measured by level of adjustment. This notion is supported by Al Ariss & Syed (2011) who describe language as "known to be helpful socio-cultural and structural challenges that migrant workers may face in the host labour market" (p.297). They claim that language proficiency is in essence an aspect of cultural capital, which is turn is a facet of symbolic capital as well. The importance of language proficiency is further illustrated by Hajro et al. (2017), who identified ISMs' language proficiency as a pre-requisite for being able to integrate effectively into working life within an organisation (Föbker & Imani, 2017). Furthermore, Syed & Murray (2009), in a study on migrants in Australia, suggest that migrants with a higher command of English "face fewer difficulties in adjusting in the Australian labour market" (p. 419). They further explain the importance of English in the integration and socialisations at work. Whereby, limited skills made it more difficult to communicate with colleagues which in turn limited their career progression.

Furthermore, Pearson et at. (2012) while suggesting that many migrants may learn the host country language (especially English; see also Al Ariss & Syed, 2011; Syed & Murray, 2009) in their respective home countries before migrating (e.g. at school), this may not mirror what is spoken in a given area, i.e. dialects in various areas can differ, making the utilization of previously appropriated skills difficult (Stevens, 2005). It can take time to get used to a given local dialect (Janta et al., 2012). Learning a new language can therefore also be source of stress in the new home country (Weisharr, 2010; Lazarus, 1999; Janta et al., 2012; Kim, 2001). Accordingly, depending on the type of coping strategies used (e.g. skills development; Lazarus & Folkman, 1985), this particular antecedent, if not present, will lead to lower levels of work-related outcome variables, while also having an impact on an individual's personal-life success, as people may be unable to converse with host country nationals. Thus, potentially leading to lower levels of life satisfaction, as people will find it harder to build social networks. This makes sense, considering a lower command of a given language may lead to lower levels of self-efficacy pertaining to an individual's ability to share core knowledge (Gudykunst & Nishida, 2001). If an individual therefore does not feel psychologically safe enough to do so, then they are more likely to be identified as "dumb migrant" and be categorised as useless outgroup member as they are not able to speak the given language effectively (Zikic, 2015; Janta et al., 2012). This can then lead to underutilisation of skills and the feeling that one must work harder than host country national counterparts (Syed & Murray, 2009). From a diversity perspective, this may make it more difficult to express or communicate key information, which in turn would lead to the success of organisations (Zikic, 2015). Thus, the inability to speak the host-country language is likely to be a barrier (Stevens, 2005; Ho, 2007).

Results rendered from studies looking at (skilled) migrants have also been supported by research on expatriates. For example, low language ability has the potential to exclude people from host country networks, which can lead to people being classified as out-group members (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). This thought is supported by Peltokorpi & Froese (2011), who identify language as key in order to form social networks, solve work-related problems, as well as acquire relevant skills, which is turn leads to job satisfaction. At the same time, lower levels lead to the lack of ability to build networks.

Furthermore, there is a substantial body of literature suggesting the importance of host country language proficiency with regards to expatriate adjustment (Napier & Taylor, 1995, 2002 in Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013; Selmer, 2006). Peltokorpi (2008) for example, observed that higher levels of language proficiency were found to be related to both AEs' and SIEs' adjustment in the host country. Takeuchi et al. (2002) support

these claims further, as they identified language as key to work and interaction adjustment of Japanese AEs in the USA, which in turn led to measured outcome variables, i.e. decreased intention to prematurely return from an international assignment. Indeed, previous meta-analytic studies on AEs have confirmed these previous results, suggesting that higher host-country language ability is a significant predictor of expatriate adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003). This is linked back to an individual's ability to interact within a given culture. Not being able to speak the host country language makes it difficult for an individual to function within the host country culture. Both at work, as well as in the private life domain (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Takeuchi et al., 2002). Thus, individuals may be isolated from host society (Hechanova et al., 2003) as "people without rudimentary knowledge of the (host country) language are locked out" (Hullinger, 1995, p.123), as "you have no avenue for getting into the (host) culture" (p.90; Törngren & Holbrow, 2016; Liversage, 2009b).

Clearly, knowledge of the host-country language (i.e. English for this study), does not only have implications on dealing with the *day-to-day* (i.e. adjustment), as illustrated by much of the expatriate and ISM literature, but it also has long-term implications for migrants with regards to their ability to engage in respective acculturation strategies (Berry et al., 1989). Being able to speak the host country language leads to lower levels of negative aspects (e.g. discrimination), while helping individuals to integrate within the work-domain (i.e. meso-level) and at the same time integrating within wider society, as well (Syed & Murray, 2009; Hajro et al., 2019; Al Ariss & Syed, 2011; Föbker & Imani, 2017). Lack of language ability or willingness to learn a given host-country language, alternatively will lead to people being inheritably ostracised by society. Thus, leading to people being more separated or marginalised (Berry et al., 1989; Törngren & Holbrow, 2016). Finally, being an aspect of culture itself, without learning the host country language, one cannot fully internalise a culture and thus become either integrated or assimilated to the respective culture. Therefore, not being able to render the benefits of more sought-after acculturation strategies as illustrated above (Berry, 1997; 2003; 2008; Berry et al., 1985; Lee et al., 2017). In addition, since the benefits of cultural diversity stem from each individual's ability to communicate their knowledge, which lead to more creative and innovative approaches to, for example solve problems, not being able to express one's opinion will lead to less benefits experienced by the respective organisations. Not only can this lead to discrimination due to being categorised as out-group member based on the surface-level diversity trait, but it also hinders an individual's ability to contribute towards organisational performance (Zikic, 2015; Wyatt-Nichol & Antwi-Boasiako, 2012; Gokcen, 2012; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Cox, 1993; Muchiri & Ayoko, 2013). Thus, ISMs who have lower

levels of English in the UK are most likely to experience more negative outcomes (higher levels of over-qualification), while experiencing lower levels of positive outcomes variables (and vice-versa; job satisfaction, career success host country embeddedness, etc.), as the mere definition of language implies its importance in an individual's ability to interact and function within a given culture and society. Therefore, it can be suggested that:

2.6.1.2.2. Language Hypotheses

Direct effects

H2a: Higher proficiency of English will have a direct positive impact on (i) job satisfaction, (ii) organisational-based self-esteem, (iii) organisational commitment, (iv) host country career embeddedness, (v) life satisfaction and (vi) host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on (vii) level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

Indirect Effects: Acculturation

H2b: Higher proficiency of English will have a positive impact on an ISM's level of host country identity and have a negative impact on the level of home country identity. In turn, home identity will have a negative impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a positive effect on level of over-qualification. Host identity will have a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification.

Indirect Effects: Adjustment

H2c: Higher proficiency of English will have a positive effect on work, as well as family adjustment, which in turn will each lead to a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

2.6.1.3.1. Past International Experience

Past international experience is a further variable, which has been widely discussed in the global mobility literature. As outlined previously, the ability to travel the globe more freely has been increasing ever since WW2 and the subsequent commercialisation of aviation

transportation (Baruch et al., 2016; Van Vleck, 2013). While this may be slightly hampered by the current COVID-19 outbreak, up until the completion of the data collection for this study, the number of people which travel the world have been ever increasing (Van Vleck, 2013). Whether through self-initiated overseas experience before returning to one's home country (Inkson et al., 1997), living outside their country of birth for extended period of time (i.e. the UN's definition of migration) or through tourism-based international journeys (UNWTO, 2020), it would seem that the possibility of gaining experience within foreign cultures has been endless. But what importance does this particular individual-level feature carry?

ISM literature in general has largely overlooked the effect which previous international experience has on the success of migration as well as on respective core processes outlined above. While work-experience is referred to in many instances, it is more related around issues with regards to accreditation of previous work-experience rendered in the home countries, and its usefulness in comparison to experience gathered in the respective host-country (Sardana et al., 2016; Yu, 2019). As illustrated earlier, instead of sparking enrichment due to international experience, the literature often speaks of skill discounting (Zikic et al., 2010), talent waste (Ramboarison-Lalao, et al., 2012), underemployment (Pearson et al., 2012; Yu, 2019), and often simply assumed that the career capital accumulated abroad occurred in the home country (Zikic, 2015; Shirmohammadi et al., 2019).

That said, there has been a small but growing body of literature looking at the importance of international experience for ISMs. For example, Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss (2018), suggest that organisations are starting to understand the value of international experience as a key source of competitive advantage. Plöger & Kubiek (2016) on the other hand, point out the importance of international experience, as it aids an individuals' ability to build social networks. Plöger & Becker (2015) extend this notion, while at the same time suggesting the importance which past international experience carried with regards to easing an individual's ability to organise the international move itself. Further studies identify the importance of international, intercultural capital as a means of gaining access to local labour markets (Föbker & Imani, 2017; Syed & Murray, 2009), increase ability to engage in cross-cultural interactions, increasing self-efficacy, as well as priming ISMs "for the international labour market (Liao, 2019, p. 217). Finally, a most notable study by Davoine & Ravasi (2013) illustrate the importance of international experience within certain contexts. Most relevantly to the current study, they identify the importance of international experience for foreign managers to gain access to top level careers. Whereby, this observation was particularly relevant to the Swiss as well as UK market contexts.

Indeed, while the literature on past international experience within the ISM literature is once again limited, the literature on expatriation provides ample support of the usefulness of this particular form of sociocultural capital (Jokinen et al., 2008). The early adjustment works of Black and colleagues for example, illustrate the importance of pervious international experience leading to higher levels of adjustment (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Black, et al., 1991). This is supposedly linked back to the coping and stress paradigm. Whereby, previous international experience acts as a reference point pertaining to the potential future challenges when in a different cultural context. Thus, reducing uncertainty and creating more accurate work and non-work-related expectations (Black, et al., 1991; Black & Gregersen, 1990). As illustrated in the previous section, having accurate expectations is important for the adjustment, acculturation and success of ISMs. If expectations are too far off (i.e. if the expectations were framed more positively and actual experience was negative), then this can have a detrimental effect on whether an individual will be motivated to migrate and ultimate integrate. Thereby, not leading to respective outcome variables (Cerdin et al., 2014). The benefits of past international experience have also been addressed in the two seminal meta-analytic papers by Bhasker-Shrinivas et al. (2005) and Hechanova et al. (2003). Within both studies, previous international experience was seen as vital to the adjustment of AEs. Furthermore, in an archival longitudinal study by Tekeuchi et al. (2019), AEs were categorised into four main categories. Whereby, those with extensive international experience showed consistent higher levels of work performance than those who had less international experience.

Despite much of the literature pointing into one general direction with regards to the potential vitality of having previous international experience, earlier works have also identified that neither the length nor the multitude of previous international experience, have an influence on satisfaction (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Torbiörn, 1982). This observation made in Torbiörn's seminal paper was true for various groups of individuals with regards to breadth of international experience (i.e. number of years), as well as for male and female participants. Leung et al. (2008) provide an alternative explanation for these results. In a study on MBA students, they found that mere presence or time within a given host country, does not necessarily lead to enhanced creativity. They point specifically towards brief encounters within given cultures (e.g. touristic visits), which do not force an individual to change or adapt their respective behaviour. Therefore, the benefits of enhanced creative ability cannot be gained. Those participants who immersed themselves in respective cultures within their international experience on the other hand, were found to show higher levels of creative problem-solving. This is interesting, as it is known that many AEs often remain within expatriate enclaves and

do not actually engage to a larger extent with the host culture and merely remain separated from the host society as opposed to SIEs (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). This could also explain the counter-intuitive results perceived by past research (Torbiörn, 1982; Black & Gregersen, 1991). The quality, rather than the quantity of cross-cultural contact within international assignments seems to be more important (Leung et al., 2008; Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). This is also supported by previously identified variable of cultural intelligence (CQ). While the number of countries visited may be potential opportunities to accumulate knowledge of culture (Thomas et al., 2015) and thus lead to enhanced CQ, if an individual merely scrapes the surface during a holiday, then they are less likely to internalise a culture and thus render any benefits with regards to creativity. This is also reflected in the definition of acculturation, which suggests that it only occurs when coming into "continuous contact over an extended period of time" (Berry et al., 1989, p.186; Redfield et al., 1936). If an individual only goes on holiday, then they will not engage in acculturation, will not need to adjust (as they are theoretically in the honeymoon phase of adjust; see Torbiörn, 1982), nor will they be able to render any benefits with regards to CQ. Thus, international experience over extended periods of time, while mediated by the *depth* (i.e. quality) of cultural interactions), has the potential to render many benefits. Therefore, it can be assumed that:

2.6.1.3.2. Past International Experience Hypotheses

Direct effects

H3a: Higher quantities of international experience of sufficient extended period of time (i.e. over six months in length) will have a direct positive impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

Indirect Effects: Acculturation

H3b: Higher quantities of international experience of sufficient extended period of time (i.e. over six months in length) will have a positive impact on an ISM's level of host country identity and have a negative impact on the level of home country identity. In turn, home identity will have a negative impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a positive effect on level of over-qualification. Host identity will have

a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification.

Indirect Effects: Adjustment

H3c: Higher quantities of international experience of sufficient extended period of time (i.e. over six months in length) will have a positive effect on work, as well as family adjustment, which in turn will each lead to a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction, and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on (level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

2.6.1.4.1. Current Age

The current age of participants is another individual-level variable which has been surprisingly understudied as it is often been seen as synonymous to past international experience (Wechtler et al., 2015). While there have been observations illustrating a correlation between the two individual-level variables, current age of the participant and past international experience (see e.g. Chen et al., 2011), they are indeed distinct from one another (Wechtler et al., 2015). Nonetheless, a majority of the studies only report age within the descriptive statistics to indicate the distribution of data (e.g. Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Chen et al. 2011; Cole, 2011; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005; Stahl et al., 2002). Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss (2018) however, point out that studying biographical variables, including an ISM's current age, would significantly advance the niche-field of skilled migrant research.

Studies on skilled migrants with regards to age, in line with variables listed above, are therefore limited and generally relate to the age upon entry within a given host country. Hajro et al. (2017) for example, looked at the integration of skilled migrants in the workplace, suggest that lower age upon entry was also more likely to be related to an individual's motivation to integrate, which in turn would more likely lead to successful integration within the labour market. This was inversely confirmed by Zikic et al. (2010) who observed age as personal barrier which made it more difficult to adjust to the host culture. In his seminal paper on acculturation, Berry (1997) identified age as key moderating variable to acculturation strategies, suggesting that those at the younger ages, the process of acculturation is smoother. A thought which he attributes towards not being fully enculturated into the parents' home culture. Thus, not leading to any cultural conflict which is often a consequence of cultural shedding (i.e. "the

unlearning of aspects from one's previous repertoire that are no longer appropriate"; Berry, 1997, p.13). That said, these results, with the exception of Zikic et al. (2010), refer to the age when entering the acculturation process, i.e., when initially coming into consistent and close contact with a new culture. Thus, it is vital to turn to the expatriation literature for guidance on the potential impact which age can have on outcomes, directly and indirectly.

The expatriate literature illustrates the positive effects which age can have on adjustment. Wichter et al. (2015) for example, while acknowledging that younger individuals may have more passion and eagerness to adjust (i.e. the increased motivation illustrated above), their study illustrates that other than a direct significant impact of all facets of cross-cultural adjustment, higher age also acted as moderating variable between emotional intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment, such that age acts as a facilitator of regulation and utilization of emotions on adjustment. Thus, higher age should be accompanied with higher levels of adjustment. In essence, this reflects the definition of emotion-focused coping strategies, i.e. the mobilisation of strategies with the goal of regulating emotions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Thus, being older at the time of the given cross-section of a study, may increase an individual's ability to manage their emotion, which in turn is likely to lead beneficial indirect outcomes, via adjustment, as well as direct outcomes. The latter notion is illustrated by Froese & Peltokorpi (2011), who found that older expatriates are more likely to experience higher levels of job satisfaction. In line with Birur & Muthiah (2013), who observed that younger expatriates generally show higher levels of attrition (or lower levels of organisational commitment), Templer et al. (2006) found age to be correlated to adjustment, as well. Finally, these thoughts are echoed and thereby supported by the diversity management literature, whereby younger employees (i.e. a surface-level trait) were less likely to experience job satisfaction and exhibited lower levels of organisational commitment (Mor Barak et al., 2015).

Thus, it can be concluded that although there may be an influence with regards to the current age of the participant, the main influence on the acculturation process will indeed be the tenure within a host country, as well as the age upon arrival. The former of which will be discussed next. Current age, however, has not yet been discussed, which has left a gap, wanting to be filled (Crowley-Henry et al., 2018). Based on the analysis above, it can therefore be hypothesised that:

2.6.1.4.2. Age Hypotheses

Direct effects

H4a: The current age of participants will have a direct positive impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction, and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

Indirect Effects: Acculturation

H4b: The current age of participants will have no significant (i.e. neutral) impact on an ISM's level of host country identity, as well as no significant (i.e. neutral) impact on the level of home country identity. Thus, no further indirect effects will be observed for age. Therefore, the expected negative impact of home identity on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a positive effect on level of over-qualification, will not be influenced by participants' current age, indirectly. Furthermore, the expected positive effects of host identity on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as the expected negative effect on level of over-qualification, will not be influenced by participants' current age, indirectly.

Indirect Effects: Adjustment

H4c: Higher current age of particpants will have a positive effect on work, as well as family adjustment, which in turn will each lead to a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem organisational commitment host country career embeddedness life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness as well as a negative effect on the level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

2.6.1.5.1. Host Country Tenure (HCT) – Time Spent in the Host Country

The final individual-level variable which will be taken into consideration within the current study, due to its wide us in most fields of global mobility, is the time spent in the host country, or host country tenure (HCT). Whether used in the expatriate or in the ISM literature, this variable has been seen as antecedent to most outcomes variables and key processes previously identified in this review of the literature.

The effect of time on ISM outcome variables has been studied widely within the literature and can therefore be categorised as an important antecedent variable for ISMs when adapting to their new cultural context. Summarizing some of the literature Shirmohammadi et al. (2019), suggest that over time "skilled migrants experienced improvements in their occupational status" (p.109). This can supposedly be attributed to the apprehension of vital career capital (e.g. learning the host country language; Van. Riemsdijk, 2013; Janta, 2012; Syed & Murray, 2009) and labour market mobility (Liversage, 2009), which will most likely lead to accumulation of local career capital, which is not discriminated against, as illustrated previously (Yu, 2019; Sardana et al., 2016). This is furthermore supported by Ramboarison-Lelao et al. (2012), who observed that in order to gain access to highly regulated medical professions, some ISMs decided to start their careers as nurses in order to gain vital local career capital (i.e. experience), which would then allow the individuals to work as physicians over time.

Pearson et al. (2012), looking at Polish migrants in Ireland, also identify time as key to success in a new location. They identify four key stages which (skilled) migrants pass through in the pursuit of happiness in their new home countries: satisficing, struggling, succeeding and striving. While satisficing represented a time period in which an individual experienced low levels of dissonance, as well as professional identity (i.e. through positive reframing, acceptance coping strategies; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005), struggling represented a phase in which individuals experienced low levels of professional identity, while at the same time higher levels of dissonance (i.e. being unsatisfied with the reflection of their employment compared to their identity, leading to negative outcomes). Striving on the other hand, is illustrated when migrants had high professional identity, while at the same time high levels of dissonance, whereby despite being in higher skilled roles, the individual still wants to achieve more. Finally, succeeding reflects a period of high professional identity, while at the same time reflecting low levels of dissonance, such that an individual works in a job which is appropriate with respective qualifications and experience. The order in which an individual may experience these states is different, as is the time it takes individuals to pass through the respective states. Thus, illustrating the importance of time within the given host country.

Finally, identity researchers point specifically towards time as vital element to internalising a given cultural repertoire, i.e. acculturation (Berry, 1997). When looking at the definition of acculturation itself, it occurs when two independent cultural groups come into first-hand contact over an extended period of time (Redfield et al., 1936; Berry, 1997). Indeed, considering some individuals need time to learn the host country language as illustrated above, and that language is not only a facet of culture, but is also vital for certain levels of integration to occur (even if that means simply learning to understand a dialect, e.g. Pearson et al., 2012; Föbker & Imani, 2017), then it is logical that it takes time to engage in the most sought after acculturation strategies, i.e. integration and assimilation, as "it will likely take a few years to stabilize the new identity by making sense of one's self in a new country context" (Fitzsimmons, 2013, p. 532).

Extrapolations from the expatriate literature indicate similar results to those indicated in the ISM and general migration literature: the more time an individual spends in a given location, the more likely they are to render more beneficial process outcomes (i.e. adjustment) and attain more favourable outcome variables (e.g. satisfaction, performance, etc.). Early studies within this field of research claim that the time-element is important as expatriates must go through the process of adjustment, as illustrated in previous sections (Torbiörn, 1982; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Black & Stephens, 1991). Feldman & Thomas (1992) for example, illustrate that with more time on an international assignment, expatriates are more likely to utilise more effective coping strategies, which in turn lead to more desirable outcome variables. Furthermore, Stahl & Caligiuri (2005), in a study on 116 German expatriates on assignments in Japan or the USA, found a positive relationship between time spent on the respective international assignment and non-work adjustment.

Takeuchi, Li & Wang (2019) on the other hand, in their longitudinal approach, rendered results which only partially support previous observations. Within this study, they identified four classes of expatriation performance patterns, which could be attributed to experience: (1) U-curve, (2) learning-curve, (3) stable high performing pattern and (4) stable low performing pattern. While participants in the first class had moderately low international experience, relatively low levels of job experience, as well as possessing a moderate level of organisational experience, those who were categorised under the learning-curve classification have high levels of international experience, moderate levels of job experience, as well as low levels of organisational experience. Furthermore, those who were categorised as stable high performing exhibited high levels of international, job and organisational experience. Finally, those individuals who had low levels of international experience, but moderate levels of job and

organisational experience were classified as stable low performing. While the performance of the first class followed the previously identified U-curve suggested by Torbiörn (1982), those in the second class exerted a high learning capability. Whereby, initial performance was low and grew exponentially over time. Steady high performers on the other hand, portrayed consistent levels of high performance, which dipped off slightly at the later stages of an assignment, while those who were classified in the last category showed low performance which continuously reduced slowly over time. Thus, while time on the international assignment was vital for the learning-curve class and meaningful for the steady high-performers, as well as for the U-curve, for those who were categorised in the steady low-performance class, time did not matter. In fact they performed increasingly worse. Thus, while for the most part, length of international experience may lead to higher levels of performance, as indicated by past literature, the importance of previous international experience also plays a significant role, as discussed previously.

Clearly, HCT acts as an antecedent to successful labour market integration and general acculturation for ISMs. This notion is further supported by extensive studies illustrated in the expatriation literature. Whereby, HCT has been linked to higher levels of adjustment. That said, there is evidence that not all expatriates benefit from time spent in the host country. However, considering the intention of ISMs is to settle permanently (or indefinitely; Hajro et al., 2019; McNulty & Brewster, 2017), they will be more likely to engage with the local culture, as is the case with SIEs (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) and will benefit more from more time in the host country. Furthermore, previous literature has also identified the benefits of HCT with regards to career-success in the host country (Shimohammadi, et al., 2019). Therefore, based on the previous review it can be assumed that:

2.6.1.5.2. Host Country Tenure (HCT) – Time Spent in the Host Country Hypotheses

Direct effects

H5a: Longer host country tenure will have a direct positive impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

Indirect Effects: Acculturation

H5b: Longer host country tenure will have a positive impact on an ISM's level of host country identity and have a negative impact on the level of home country identity. In turn, home identity will have a negative impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a positive effect on level of over-qualification. Host identity will have a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification.

Indirect Effects: Adjustment

H5c: Longer host country tenure will have a positive effect on work, as well as family adjustment, which in turn will each lead to a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

2.6.2. Meso/Organisational-Level Variables

In addition to individual (or micro) level variables, there is evidence of meso-level variables which can have a major impact on the success of ISMs in their new cultural context. Once again, leaning on adjacent fields of global mobility, as well as international management, it becomes clear that there are two major meso-level variables which should have a major impact on the success of ISMs in the host country. These include social support, as well as diversity climate. These will be discussed in this section.

2.6.2.1.1. Social Support

Social support has been identified by many bodies of literature as key for the success of globally mobile individuals. In one way or another, social support has therefore been key to many studies which have been published within the field of ISMs, AEs, SIEs and many more. Social support can be defined as "information from others that one is loved and cared for, esteemed and valued, and part of a network of communication and mutual obligation" and is

said to be one of the most effective means of dealing with stressful events (Kim et al., 2008, p.518). Considering international mobility (and particularly skilled migration) can be deemed a highly stressful life transitional event (Bikos et al., 2009; Birdseye & Hill, 1995; Caligiuri & Bonache, 2016), social support could therefore been seen as paramount for the success in the new cultural context. However, more often than not "as adapting individuals have left behind most of their social ties, they are likely to depend on their ability to establish new social support networks" (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016, p.769-770; Janta et al., 2011), which can take time (Zikic et al., 2010). The sources of social support can be found in different facets of life, e.g. from work (i.e. supervisor and co-worker support) or in the private life domain (i.e. family and friends), whereby the global mobility literature has often certified social support as key factor in the success of respective international ventures.

While still in its early adolescents (or even infancy), ISM literature has identified social support as key meso-level variable, which is instrumental for ISMs success in their country of residence, as it gives them access to local labour market knowledge (Janta et al., 2012), social integration (Pearson et al., 2012; Zikic et al., 2010), learn cultural specific behaviour (Janta et al., 2012), as well as access to the labour market itself, i.e. aids finding jobs (Janta, 2011). In a study on small- and medium sized organisations, Kuhlmann et al. (2016) identified that among other meso-level variables, co-worker as well as supervisor social support had an influence on migrants' social integration, job satisfaction, as well as organisational commitment. In addition, while the access to social support networks leads to positive outcomes and more beneficial processes (e.g. acculturation strategies), lack of social support may lead to reduced levels of integration, while at the same time increasing the likelihood of ethnic-based isolation (Zikic et al., 2010). Thus, without social support an individual is less likely to socialise and interact with host country nationals. Tn turn, this leads to a segregation acculturation strategy and lower adjustment levels. Both of which have been associated with negative general outcome variables, as illustrated in the previous sections (Berry, 1997; Hajro et al., 2017). In a theoretical paper, Zikic (2015) lends support to this line of thought, as she suggests that social support is key, as without it, it can lead to downward career progression and lower adjustment. Lower levels of social support (both work and non-work ties) will make it more difficult for an ISM to be a source of competitive advantage for organisations. Thus, the benefits, as illustrated by previous sections in terms of diversity, will not be achieved, i.e. problem-solving and creativity (Limaye, 1994; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998; Ely & Thomas, Dwertmann & Stich, 2013).

The results from the ISM literature are also, once again, supported by the expatriate literature. The expatriate literature has long identified the importance of social support. For

example, there has been a major interest in spousal and family adjustment, as well as the relationship between host country nationals and expatriates, as these groups of individuals have been seen as core source of social support in the foreign context (Kraimer et al., 2016). Supervisors for example, have previously been identified as key source of information and social support within the host country (Toh & Denisi, 2007; Black et al., 1991). Studying the dyadic-relationships of 213 expatriates and their managers, Kraimer et al. (2001) for example, identified a positive relationship between perceived organisational support (i.e. supervisor support) and performance of expatriates. Furthermore, Peltokorpi & Froese (2009) hypothesised that inability or unwillingness to form social relationships can lead to social loneliness, which was characterised by boredom and alienation, while Pires et al (2006) identified social support's potential in aiding the adjustment process and increasing satisfaction, as well as reducing culture shock. Finally, Ballesteros Leiva et al. (2018) conducted a study on 182 SIEs and 102 AEs. They found out that the more social support that individuals received from their family and friends, the lower the amount of conflict they experienced. In addition, the more that expatriates experienced co-worker support the more life-enrichment they perceived. Last but not least, their intergroup comparison suggested that AEs' perceived life domain organisational support was positively related to the spill-over-effect, such that the work life domain had a positive enriching effect on the private life domain. SIEs who perceived life-domain co-worker support on the other hand, experienced lower levels of life conflict from private- to work-life and vice-versa. This lends support to previous theoretical papers, which suggest that co-worker support and mentoring leads to enhanced adjustment for SIEs (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

When reviewing the literature on globally mobile individuals, it becomes clear that social support is a key antecedent variable, which can take many forms (i.e. from family and friends to supervisor and co-worker support) and can have a major impact on key outcome variables, as well as influence core processes, which have been identified in previous section. Thus, it is suggested that:

2.6.2.1.2. Social Support Hypotheses

Direct effects

H6a: Higher levels of social support ((I) family, (II) friends, (III) co-workers, (IV) supervisor) will have a direct positive impact on (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational-based self-esteem, (c) organisational commitment, (d) host country career embeddedness, (e) life satisfaction and

(f) host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on (g) level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

Indirect Effects: Acculturation

H6b: Higher levels of social support family, friends, co-workers, supervisor will have a positive impact on an ISM's level of host country identity and have a negative impact on the level of home country identity. In turn, home identity will have a negative impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a positive effect on level of over-qualification. Host identity will have a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification.

Indirect Effects: Adjustment

H6c: Higher levels of social support family, friends, co-workers, supervisor will have a positive effect on work, as well as family adjustment, which in turn will each lead to a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

2.6.2.2.1. Diversity Climate and Climate for Inclusion – An Introduction

The second and final meso-level variables, which has received little attention with regards to ISMs (Bjerregaard, 2014) is the role which the organisation plays in key processes and the organisations can lead to the success of ISMs (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015). Despite the expatriate literature looking into how best to support their assignees in great details over the years (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Shaffer et al., 2012), once again the research on migrants and more specifically skilled migrants is left wanting. As mentioned above, cultural diversity can have a beneficial effect on organisations, as it can lead to increased organisational performance in form of enhanced innovation, creativity, problem-solving ability and is generally seen as a morally sound option (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 1999). However, as illustrated above as well, the mere presence of diversity does not mean an organisation will benefit from its workforce (Choi & Rainy, 2009). Organisations must be able to manage diversity

effectively. If they do not, then an organisation is most likely to suffer from the previously cited drawbacks of diversity, i.e. turnover, lower levels of performance, disengagement, etc. (Cox, 1993; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Nishii, 2013; Mor Barak et al., 2016). But how do organisations manage diversity?

2.6.2.2.2. Cox's Typology – Recognising and Valuing diversity in Organisations

According to cross-cultural pioneer Cox (1993), there are three general categories of organisations: monolithic, pluralistic and multicultural. Monolithic organisations have the lowest level of diversity integration. These organisations exhibit homogenous tendencies, whereby minority groups are forced to adapt to the majority groups, i.e. assimilate (Berry, 1997, 2003, 2008). They will most likely experience discrimination and prejudice, as illustrated by the SIT/SAP above (William & O'Reilly; Dwyer et al., 2003; Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004).

Pluralist organisations on the other hand, illustrate a moderate level of diversity integration. These organisations are characterised by a heterogenous workforce, which according to Cox (1991), stems from civil rights movements. These in turn have led to EO programs, which lead to higher levels of heterogeneity within workforces. Through being integrated into formal and informal (e.g. mentors) networks, minority groups suffer less from discrimination and prejudice (Cox, 1991; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 1999). Despite rendering higher levels of heterogeneity pertaining to the workforce, pluralistic organisations still expect the respective minority groups to assimilate to the more dominant culture and is therefore said to tolerate, but not respect and value diversity (Shen et al., 2009; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Joplin & Daus, 1997).

Finally, multicultural organisations render the highest levels of diversity integration. Whereby, differences (such as cultures) are accepted and highly valued, thus allowing for integration (i.e. maintaining one's home culture, while internalising the host culture as well). This particular form of organisation also reflects v. Knippenberg et al.'s (2004) CEM. If people are accepted as individuals and are valued as such, their identity is not under threat (Morrison et al., 2006; Jabbour et al., 2011). The resulting reduced conflict between "minority" and "majority" groups then leads to employees (i.e. ISMs) identifying more with the organization's multicultural ideology (Fitzsimmons et al., 2013). This, in turn, is said to lead to the exchange of task-relevant information and reduced identity threat (through enhanced psychological safety), resulting in problem-solving, creativity, innovation (Cox, 1991; Dwertmann & Stich,

Thomas & Ely, 1996) and subsequently competitive advantage (Zikic, 2015). This is supported by Fitzsimmons et al. (2013), who suggest that organisations that endorse a multiculturalist ideology are more likely to take advantage of beneficial outcomes of multicultural identity patterns, as opposed to those who endorse colour-blindness (i.e. monolithic organisations).

2.6.2.2.3. Putting everything into perspective: Diversity climate Perspectives

While Cox (1991) mainly looked at full organisational diversity integration, Ely & Thomas (2001) created their own typology, which focused on team- or departmental-diversity integration perspectives. Within their typology they suggest that there are three main perspectives to integrating diversity at the departmental level: discrimination-and-fairness, access-and-legitimacy, as well as the integration-and-learning perspective. Depending which perspective a department takes, this can have major implications on the likelihood that diversity will impact departmental-, and by extrapolation organisational-, performance (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Thomas & Ely, 1996).

The discrimination-and-fairness perspective is the lowest form of diversity integration within an organisation. It is centred around the notion that diversity integration should be undertaken based on moral or ethical grounds, due to social justice, in order to ensure fair treatment of people within society (Morrison et al., 2006), i.e. it is the *right thing to do* (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 1999, p.29). According to Ely & Thomas (2001), creating culturally diverse work groups reflects acting ethically correct, thus leaning towards external-focused based action: characteristics often associated with equal opportunities (EO) programs, but not necessary managing diversity (Maxwell et al., 2001). Therefore, the primary focus of this perspective suggests a "window-dressing" approach to comply with or abide to legal policies, as well as societal and moral pressures (Kirton & Greene, 2009). EO programs' primary focus is to treat people as equal. However, treating everyone as equal suggests that people are not being valued for their differences. As suggested by van Knippenberg's categorisation-elaboration model (CEM) and subsequently recent research on ISMs (e.g. Zikic, 2015), organisations are less likely to benefit from diversity, as ISMs in such an environment are less likely to communicate novel information devised from their individual differences, as these individuals will most likely withhold the information due to not feeling psychologically safe (Ci et al., 2017; Roberge & v. Dick, 2010). Thus, departments using this perspective are merely hedging against the respective society's judgmental gaze (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Thomas & Ely, 1996; Dass & Parker, 1999). The consequence, however, is that if people are artificially creating diversity,

without valuing the individual-differences, and if organisations are not fulfilling the illusionary promise of diversity to their employees and clients, then this can have an extremely negative impact on an organisation's identity. In addition to not taking advantage of the aforementioned benefits, employees can suffer from lack of motivation and enhanced conflict, as suggested by the similarity attractiveness paradigm (Choi & Rainey, 2009; Cole & Salimath, 2010; Sabharwal, 2014; Dwertmann & Stich, 2013).

The second perspective, the access-and-legitimacy perspective, focuses on the integration of diversity in order to gain access and render legitimacy within a given market in which an organisation has a particular business interest in (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Dass & Parker, 1999; Thomas & Ely, 1996). Despite taking advantage of diversity for business purposes, the minority groups still remain marginalised from the majority groups. Thus, continuing to serve a "window-dressing" purpose rather than being valued and integrated within an organisation (Cole & Salimath, 2013; Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 1999; Kirton & Greene, 2009). Similar to the previous section, departments (and organisations) can still suffer from the negative aspects of diversity (e.g. increased negative conflict; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Jackson, Joshi & Erhardt, 2003), while not benefitting from the benefits of diversity. Essentially, this perspective treats diversity more on a quota basis to render legitimacy in a given market, therefore not actually valuing the diversity and thereby not taking full advantage of diversity (Ely & Thomas, 2001). Guerrier & Wilson (2011) illustrate the window dressing nature of diversity management as they conducted a study on company corporate communications (i.e. corporate and career websites). They suggest that companies use diversity and inclusion as a means gaining legitimacy to certain target markets, whereby some depictions of diverse employees seem slightly overzealous. This particular perspective is also reflected to a certain extent in the ISM literature. While not identified pertaining to a specific perspective with regards to diversity integration, studies suggest that organisations frequently make use of skilled migrants to gain access to markets based on their cross-cultural abilities. Syed & Murray (2009) studied female (skilled) migrants' experience in the Australian labour market, where organisations made use of respective ISMs' language skills in order to deal with customers from certain cultural backgrounds.

The final perspective, integration-and-learning perspective, highlights the supposedly most desirable perspective, whereby an organisation's interest is to reap the long-term benefits of diversity, by focusing on diversity as a "resource for learning and adaptive change" (Ely & Thomas, 2001, p.240). Thus, diversity should be integrated into organisational processes to enhance the expression or sharing of diverse thoughts (i.e. information), which leads to the

previously identified benefits of diversity, i.e. the expression of creative and innovative ideas (Ci et al., 2017; Hajro et al., 2017b). By valuing the individual for their respective differences, people are more likely to feel psychologically safe and will therefore be more likely to express their thoughts and opinions, leading to appropriate levels of conflict, which business units (i.e. teams, departments, etc.) can then process (Boekhorst, 2015). These are key processes which are vital to diversity management (van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Roberge & v. Dick, 2010; Dywer et al., 2003; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 1999) and inclusion (Boekhorst, 2015). The latter of which illustrates a shift in rhetoric: moving away from managing difference to incorporating and valuing uniqueness (Nishii, 2013). In essence, people need to believe that diversity is beneficial for an organisation to create the respective environment to gain the aforementioned long-term benefits (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

2.6.2.2.4. Climate for Inclusion: Moving from Managing Differences to Valuing Uniqueness

Building on the multicultural organisations identified by Cox, and those environments who foster an integration-and-learning perspective (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Thomas & Ely, 1996), Nishii (2013) suggests that organisations should go beyond managing difference (i.e. diversity management) and should look at fostering an inclusive environment which allows individuals from all backgrounds to be "valued for who they are, and included in core decision making" processes (p.1754). Inclusive environments move beyond the artificially synthesised diversity, which are present in organisations using affirmative action and equal opportunity programs, as these simply create diversity. Simply creating diversity, as is the case in plural organisations, does not foster the benefits of diversity (Boekhorst, 2015; Ely & Thomas, 2001). In fact, studies have supported that diversity without diversity related programs can lead to negative effects of diversity, such as reduced organisational performance (e.g. Choi & Rainey, 2009). According to Nishii (2013), an inclusive environment is characterised by three main facets including (a) equitable employment practices, (b) integration of differences and (c) inclusion in decision making.

While the first dimension, *equitable employment practices*, is focused on eliminating bias within the organisations through human resource practices, it also includes diversity-specific practices, in the pursuit of eliminating bias. These practices build on creating the psychological safety which individuals build which allows them to engage with their identity, rather than only feeling safe of voicing their opinions (Boeckhorst, 2015).

The second dimension, integration of difference, involves the incorporation of interpersonal differences within a respective organisation, whereby the "collective expectations and norms regarding the openness with which employees can enact and engage core aspects of their self-concept and/or multiple identities without suffering consequences" (Nishii, 2013, p.1756). Leaning on Berry's acculturation framework, an individual maintains their identity, instead of having to fully conform to dominant group identities. Individuals are then able to form more complex perceptions of others, which leads to the invalidation of stereotypes. In turn, this creates conflict as described in previous sections. Conversely, if people are expected to conform to a more dominant group (e.g. in pluralistic or monolithic organisations; Cox, 1993) then they are more likely to suffer from strain and psychologically disengage from work, i.e. people will not achieve positive work outcomes (job satisfaction, life satisfaction, etc.) and are more likely to suffer from negative work outcomes (e.g. perceptions of overqualification).

Finally, *inclusion in decision making* refers to actively seeking employees' diverse opinions and the integration of expressed opinions, whereby opinions which go against dominant group-opinion are not seen as threat, but as opportunity to enhance value within the organisations. Therefore, organisations make an effort to reduce silencing-mechanisms and take advantage of the learning potential, which can be rendered from gaining insights from out-group members. This, in turn, leads to the reduction of stereotypes. Therefore, people will be more likely to express information, due to increased psychological safety (Ci et al., 2017).

The main difference compared to the previous diversity management perspective is that while diversity management initiatives may help reduce bias in individual key decision-making moments, they do not change the daily sources of discrimination that have an impact on individuals' integration within the organisations. Furthermore, diversity management practices often focus on traditionally or historically disadvantaged groups. This, in turn, leads to resentment and backlash from those who are not affected by the given diversity management practices, so Nishii. Essentially, the verdict is that in order to benefit from diversity, organisations must create an environment which is inclusive for all employees, and not just a select minority (Ferdman & Davidson, 2004; Shore et al., 2011; Nishii, 2013; Broekhorst, 2015). An increasingly accepted standard which stems from Cox's multicultural organisations and Ely & Thomas' (2001) integration-and-learning perspective (Boeckhorst, 2015). Supposedly, a climate for inclusion invalidates status rankings. Thus, a particular identity may lose its psychological meaning, rendering higher psychological safety with regards to individual identity (Boekhorst, 2015), which in turn leads to less negative social categorising occurs that is at the source of intergroup conflicts. This psychological-safety, leads to higher comfort with

regards to expressing the diverse perspectives and information. While the final facet seeks and includes diverse opinions in decision making processes. The consequences of inclusive climates and environments have since been widely discussed, including the previously identified enhanced creativity (Ci et al. 2017), innovation (Chun et al., 2015; Dias-Garcia et al., 2013) and problem-solving (Thomas et al., 2001; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998), while at the same time reducing conflict (Nishii, 2013) and increasing effective commitment to an organisation (Li et al., 2019).

For example, in a meta-analysis of this understudied organisational-level variables (Boekhorst, 2015), Mor Barak et al. (2015) identified that organisations which exhibited higher perceived levels of in organisational diversity efforts (i.e. diversity climate and climate for inclusion) also showed higher levels of positive work-related benefits, e.g. jobs satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to stay in the organisation, as well as increased engagement at work, while at the same time reducing potential negative outcomes of work diversity (e.g. conflict). The positive effects of diversity climate have been further illustrated by Choi & Rainey (2009), who in a study on federal agencies in the USA confirmed that the mere presence of ethnic diversity alone led only to negative organisational performance outcomes, while those agencies who exhibited high levels of diversity management initiatives illustrated higher levels of organisational performance. Whereby, diversity climate also moderated the negative aspects of ethnic-diversity. Finally, and most relevantly, in a qualitative study involving 143 interviews on 48 teams from 11 companies, Hajro, Gibson & Pudelko (2017b) identified that multi-cultural teams, which oscillated between assertive and cooperative knowledge exchange, showed higher levels of team effectiveness. Furthermore, they found that this relationship was higher among those who worked in engagement-focused diversity climate. Whereby, engagement-focused diversity climates involved the utilization of "diversity to inform and enhance work processes based on assumptions that cultural differences give rise to different knowledge, insights and views (p.345), i.e. those organisations which adopted a integration-and-learning perspective or strong climate for inclusion (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Nishii, 2013).

Thus, it can be concluded overall, that those organisations which engage in fostering a strong diversity climate (i.e. engagement-focused, from an integration and learning perspective, or a multicultural organisation) or climate for inclusion, will reap higher benefits, such that inclusive climates celebrate individuality and respective knowledge, information and opinions, which are integrated not only in major decision-making processes but in organisational day-to-behavioural dispositions. Those who do not, will not be able to foster a culture of mutual

respect, value and learning, which will lead constraining knowledge exchange (Ci et al., 2017), increased stereotyping, and subsequently lower levels of creativity and performance, while experiencing higher levels of conflict. Stronger climates for inclusion therefore support a more integrative approach to acculturation, while increasing psychological comfort (Boekhorst, 2015; Ci et al., 2017). Considering the definition of adjustment is the extent to which an individual feels psychologically comfortable within a given cross-cultural context (Okpara & Kobongo, 2011; Lazarova et al., 2010; Shaffer et al., 2012; Shaffer et al., 2016; Hasleberger et al., 2013; Potosky, 2016; Black 1988), this would suggest that strong CI's should be strongly correlated to ISM adjustment levels. Finally, previous research has identified individual outcome variables, indicating that organisations fostering an inclusive climate will all increase job satisfaction, commitment and intention to stay (i.e. embeddedness). Therefore, it can be hypothesised that:

2.6.2.2.5. Diversity Climate and Climate for Inclusion Hypotheses

Direct effects

H7a: Higher levels of climate for inclusion will have a direct positive impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

Indirect Effects: Acculturation

H7b: Higher levels of climate for inclusion will have a positive impact on an ISM's level of host country identity and have a negative impact on the level of home country identity. In turn, home identity will have a negative impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a positive effect on level of over-qualification. Host identity will have a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification.

Indirect Effects: Adjustment

H7c: Higher levels of climate for inclusion will have a positive effect on work, as well as family adjustment, which in turn will each lead to a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-

based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

2.6.3. Macro/Societal-Level Variables

The final level, and thereby incorporating all levels of analysis as suggested by previous literature (e.g. Hajro et al., 2019), is the macro- or societal-level, which incorporates further key elements which must be taken into account when looking at ISMs' experiences in the given context (i.e the UK). When reviewing the literature, it becomes apparent that while cultural distance has been widely discussed, its applicability in this particular case is limited, as it is riddled with methodological issues. Institutional distance on the other hand has been identified as key influencing facet in many studies, which seems to be easier to measure (e.g. using statistics from IGOs such as OECD; Kostova et al., 2020). Finally, the literature has generally accepted the importance of host country ethnocentrism as a major influencing factor at many levels. These macro-level aspects will be discussed now.

2.6.3.1.1. Cultural Distance

Cultural distance has been a subject of debate for many years and has received a significant amount of attention. Cultural distance essentially looks at the extent and the ways in which two cultures differ (Cuypers, et al., 2018). Some may be based on more surface-level attributes such as language, religion, while others are rather deep-level, e.g. behavioural patterns and social integration patterns. In essence, cultural distance is the magnitude to which two cultures differ (Fitzsimmons, 2013). The general consensus identified within the literature suggests that the higher the cultural distance, the more issues globally mobile individuals will perceive (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2011; Chang, 1997; Farcas & Goncales, 2016; Okpara & Kobongo, 2011; Selmer, 2004). This can be linked back to social identity theory, whereby the cultural facets act as markers, which lead to the creation of in and out-group members. A key factor being language and the struggles of learning the local language within a given country, as discussed above, is a pre-requisite to expatriate success, and the lack of a local language ability can leave an individual exposed to being classified as out-group member (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2011; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). However, some languages are harder to learn than others. A French national, may learn Spanish or Portuguese with greater ease than they would

learn Mandarin or Russian. Different alphabets, accents and adenoidal nature of the French language might leave the individual classified as out-group member, no matter how hard they try to learn a given language. On the other side, an individual from Russia moving to the Ukraine, might not suffer from the same struggles, as they speak the same language. Thus, the lower the cultural distance reduces the given negative effects on key processes, e.g. acculturation or adjustment, but only to a certain degree (Fitzsimmons, 2013).

While many studies have observed many issues with regards to cultural distance and rigidity, thus leading to negative experiences while undergoing global mobility, there is a growing body of literature pertaining to the issues regarding individuals operating within similar cultures (O'Grady & Lane, 1996). Accordingly, those who operate within very similar cultures to that of their own will be subject to cultural blindness. Whereby, individuals of the host culture will not identify very fine lines of cultural distance, due to high levels of cultural overlapping. Drawing back on cognitive dissonance, the process of gathering information which emulates that of one's own behaviour and attitudes, people often subjectively engage in selective exposure, thereby not noticing the differences in cultures. However, the cultural differences may still be present, and an individual's behaviour may deviate from the norm. This in turn, will be seen as acting out and may be labelled as misbehaviour. Their cultural differences are therefore noticed later and often not attributed to their culture (Selmer & Lauring, 2009; O'Grady & Lane, 1996). These individuals can therefore not take advantage of diversity management schemes, as people will not label them as culturally different. This is also in-line with the aforementioned social identity theory: individuals will be categorised as in-group members initially, just to be ostracised due to "anti-social" or deviant behaviour (Lauring & Selmer, 2013; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; v. Ewijk, 2011; Cole & Salimath, 2013). Especially, in cultures which do not accept deviant behaviour (Gelfand et al., 2011).

Finally, while higher distance and very low distances have led to inconsistent findings within recent literature, Gelfand et al. (2006) suggest that the idea of identifying largely subjective aspects of cultural differences which are reduced to "factors that exist inside individual's head" as over-simplification (p.1225) and that a structuralist approach is more appropriate at determining an individual's ability to become an in-group member. Essentially, cultures who abide to strict social norms with low tolerance for deviant behaviour (i.e. tight cultures), will also make it more difficult for someone to socialise within the given society. Conversely, those societies which have a very loose set of societal structural norms with high tolerance for deviant behaviour will experience less issues during the socialisation process (Loose cultures; Gelfand et al., 2011). Thus, countries such as the UK that are more pluralistic

could be classified as largely loose, while countries such as UAE or Japan, are largely tight with regards to their cultural norms. This notion is supported by the acculturation model, whereby individuals in looser cultures, are more likely to be able to internalise and learn a new culture. If a country is extremely rigid or on the tighter side of the tightness-looseness continuum, then the likelihood of an individual being allowed by the host culture to adapt and integrate, is low (Berry, 1997, 2003, 2008).

However, in recent years, rendering results with regards to the effect of cultural distance has been widely criticised. Assuming for example, that culture is static and does not change over time is but one facet to which authors have voiced their concerns (e.g. Xu et al., 2004). Furthermore, measures used to compare the distance between cultures have major flaws. Hofstede et al.'s (1980, 2001) measure of cultural distance for example, is among the most known instruments used to compare cultural differences. However, the data which was once collected among IBM employees in the '70s and '80s may not be an accurate reflection of cultures today (Xu et al., 2004). Furthermore, while useful to gain a general *feel* for cultural differences, Hall's high- and low-context cultural continuum (see Hall, 1976), only allows for limited cross-country (i.e. cross-cultural) comparison and rarely operationalised empirically, as it has been criticised for its simplicity (Kittler et al., 2011). Gelfand et al.'s (2006, 2011), tightness-looseness perspective on the other hand is difficult to operationalise in retrospect, due to the classified countries only being limited to 33. This makes the utilisation, at the time of the current study, limited and impractical. House et al.'s (2004) GLOBE study, which has received increased attention and continuously being developed (GLOBE, 2020), initially collected data from 15,247 participants who were mid-level managers and identified key facets of culture. However, while this may be one of the more sophisticated attempts to capture the various facets of culture to date, it was only conducted in three industries, making generalisability difficult (Aktas et al., 2016).

Clearly, while there have been many attempts to capture and tame the concept of culture and cross-cultural comparisons through simplistic (e.g. Hall's model) and complex (e.g. Hofstede and GLOBE) categorisations, these are yet to be accepted and they are continuously being developed. Thus, while important to mention that culture is undoubtedly an important aspect, the current methodological approaches are not yet flawless. In addition, as previously identified, an individual's ability to function in another culture is not necessarily down to cultural differences, individuals with high levels of cultural intelligence are more likely to function in different societies and cultures (Thomas et al., 2008, 2012, 2015; Wu & Ang, 2011). In addition, other aspects can also influence an individual's ability to function in a given culture,

for example past international experience, as illustrated above (Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss, 2018; Plöger & Becker, 2015; Föbker & Imani, 2017; Syed & Murray, 2009).

2.6.3.1.2. Institutional Distance

While much has been written with regards to cultural distance, as well as tightness-looseness, using datasets, such as that of Hofstede (1980, 2001) or House et al. (2004), have been wildly criticised as it is difficult to justify creating aggregate scores which supposedly represent cultural distance (Jones, 2007; Orr & Hauser, 2008; Wu, 2006). With culture being highly complex, it appears to be difficult to appropriately operationalise with regards to distance in a quantitative setting. While Gelfand et al. (2006, 2011) have started to create a taxonomy of their own with regards to tightness-looseness, the list of available countries they have taken into account remain rather limited (33 at the moment) and do not cover all countries in the world. Institutional distance on the other hand, has been subject of discussion within recent years. Whereby, high institutional distance also brings with it, similar to cultural distance illustrated above, a certain level of challenges (Xu et al., 2004). Institutional distance can be "broadly defined as the difference between the institutional profiles of two countries", i.e. a home and host country (Kostova et al., 2020, p. 468). Institutions are key to the integration of globally mobile individuals within the labour market, especially in highly regulated professions, such as medical personnel (Zikic & Richardson, 2016).

According to Berry et al. (2010), there are various dimensions of institutional distance, including economic, financial, political, administrative, cultural, demographic, knowledge, geographic as well as global connectedness distance. In an attempt to reduce the oversimplification of research utilising a simple aggregate score of cultural distance, they suggest a multi-dimensional approach reflecting the aforementioned dimensions. Accordingly economic distance is defined as the differences in economic development, while financial distance pertains to the differences in financial sector development; Political distance refers to the differences in political stability, democracy and trade bloc membership; administrative distance refers to the differences stemming from colonial ties and/or in language, religion and legal systems, while cultural distance (already defined above as the magnitude to which two cultures differ; Fitzsimmons, 2013) includes differences in attitudes towards authority (i.e. power distance), trust, individuality, as well as the importance of work and family; Demographic distance, as suggested by its title, refers to differences in the demographic make-up of a given country; knowledge distance refers to the difference in a country's ability to

produce knowledge; connectedness distance refers to the amount of tourism and internet usage. Finally, geographic distance refers to the physical geographic distance between the two given countries, according to the geographic coordinates. Such a multi-faceted approach reflects Kostova et al's (2020) claims that institutional distance, at an extreme, indeed seems to be a "catch-all" term, "simply substituting for country" (p.468) and that one must choose appropriate measures based on the respective phenomena in focus of studies (Kostova, 1997).

Frequently being a source of major challenges, ISMs often run into institutional barriers as consequence of institutional distance, including challenges such as the accreditation of foreign qualifications (Mahadevan & Zeh, 2015; Cerdin, et al., 2014; Al Ariss & Cowley-Henry, 2013; Liversage, 2009). Some even go as far to say that the structural barriers maintain a rather homogenous host country population and that these bureaucratic barriers are essentially signs of entrenched discrimination (Hajro et al., 2019; Bigelli et al., 2013), as these institutions often reflect national culture (Gelfand et al., 2011). This is a consistent with observations made in many studies. Pearson et al. (2012) for example, in their study on (skilled) Polish migrants in Ireland, suggested that many institutions looked at foreign qualifications with caution and distrust. Thus, highlighting the importance of comparing educational institutional distance, or ability to create knowledge, as stipulated by Berry et al. (2010).

In addition to the distrust and acceptance of foreign qualifications, institutions can also be major barrier for individuals to learn the host country language, which in turn can lead to various negative outcomes. Liversage (2009b) for example in a study on Danish institutions, suggests that despite the national institutions supposedly promoting migrant language learning (see also Bjerregaard, 2014), it was the same institutional legislation which "squashed (their) ability to learn Danish" (p. 243). This in turn, led to the inability to access appropriate social interactions within the host country context, i.e. institutions that hinder the learning of the host country language in turn make it more difficult for a migrant to adjust and learn the host-country culture. Two elements which are vital for an individual to engage in becoming "a full member of (their) new society" (Liversage, 2009b, p.244), i.e. integrate. Considering the imperialistic nature of the English language being the current global *lingua Franca* (Föbker & Imani, 2017), not being able to speak the dominant language in the UK would lead to the various negative outcomes as illustrated previously, i.e. low social interaction, stress (Syed & Murray, 2009), limitations on access to job market (Stevens, 2005), increased levels of overqualifications (Janta, 2012), lower levels of adjustment (Takeuchi et al., 2002), etc.

Thus, institutions act as gatekeepers for migrants, whereby migrants are at their mercy to be let into the host society. If "invisible" barriers are put in the ISM's way then they are most

likely going to struggle to part of the host society in anyway, which in turn will lead them to be categorised as out-group members based on language, perceived deviant behaviour (at least from the host country's perspective) and inability to access a job which in commensurate with their qualifications and experience. Thus, it can be assumed that:

2.6.3.1.3. Institutional Distance Hypotheses

Direct effects

H8a: Lower levels of institutional distance will have a direct positive impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

Indirect Effects: Acculturation

H8b: Lower levels of institutional distance will have a positive impact on an ISM's level of host country identity and have a negative impact on the level of home country identity. In turn, home identity will have a negative impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a positive effect on level of over-qualification. Host identity will have a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification.

Indirect Effects: Adjustment

H8c: Lower levels of institutional distance will have a positive effect on work, as well as family adjustment, which in turn will each lead to a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

2.6.3.1. Ethnocentrism: A Perceived Societal Attitude towards other Cultures

While cultural distance, as well as institutional distances may have a negative effect if they are extremely high or low, host-country ethnocentrism is a more societal perception of how dominant the host culture is compared to other cultures, i.e. the feeling that a given society feels superior to others (Arman & Aycan, 2013). If host country ethnocentrism (HCE) is high, the literature denotes that the ability to adjust to the given society with be more challenging (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016; Chang, 1997). Accordingly, higher levels of HCE have been attributed towards a higher likelihood of identifying foreigners as "others" (Arman & Aycan, 2013). Thus, the previously identified SIT-perspective suggests that higher levels of HCE would bring with it, higher levels of perceived out-group treatment, which includes the increase in discrimination and prejudice (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998; Dwyer, et al., 2003; Dwertmann & Stich, 2013).

With heightened levels of discrimination and prejudice by being categorised as "out-group", individuals are less likely assume the host-country identity (i.e. assimilate or integrate). This in turn, will have a similar effect on the ability to make meaningful contributions towards organisations, as the individual will be less likely to feel psychologically safe. Thereby, not feeling able to share information, which would in turn, not lead to the aforementioned benefits with regards to enhanced organisation performance, creativity and innovation, as lacking to express important information and remaining largely silent could solidify or even enhance individuals HCE, as ISMs could be classified as "dumb migrants", i.e. suffer from stereotyping (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998; Dwyer, et al., 2003; Dwertmann & Stich, 2013). Not surprisingly then that Hajro, Zilinskaite & Stahl (2017) identified that higher levels of ethnocentrism were responsible for forcing highly qualified migrants towards becoming separated, while at the same time constraining these individuals from integrating. This is therefore in-line with the third facet of acculturation, such that societal attitudes set the parameters to which an individual may engage with certain acculturation strategies. If individuals are seen as out-group members, due to a high level of ethnocentrism, then these individuals are less likely to learn and internalise the given host culture and are more likely to be averted back to strong cultural maintenance, i.e. separation (Berry, 1997; Berry, 2008; Hajro et al., 2019).

The negative impact of HCE has also been observed in the expatriate literature, where higher levels of HCE have been observed to lead to lower levers of work-related adjustment of AEs. Therefore, hindering an individual's ability to function at work in a foreign country (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). These results are echoed by Templer's (2010) study on expatriate

subordinates' level of ethnocentrism. Whereby, enhanced subordinate HCE was negatively related to adjustment. This was further supported by Arman & Aycan (2013), who identified that host country nationals with higher level ethnocentrism showed more negative attitudes towards expatriates. Furthermore, Bjerregaard (2014) in a study on SIEs in the Nordic welfare state of Denmark, observed similar results, whereby private sector institutions reacted more negatively towards SIEs, which constituted in barriers for the respective individuals to integrate within the given society.

Thus, it can be concluded that HCE has a negatively spiralling effect on the success of ISMs and other globally mobile groups, as they are less likely to express their opinions, are more likely to be over-qualified or suffer from discrimination. This in turn, will likely lead to dissatisfaction in the private, as well as professional lives. In addition, it has a negative impact on key processes, such as acculturation strategies and dynamics. Therefore, it can be hypothesised that:

2.6.3.2.2: Host Country Ethnocentrism Hypotheses

Direct effects

H9a: Higher levels of host country ethnocentrism will have a direct negative impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

Indirect Effects: Acculturation

H9b: Higher host country ethnocentrism will have a negative impact on an ISM's level of host country identity and have a positive impact on the level of home country identity. In turn, home identity will have a negative impact on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a positive effect on level of over-qualification. Host identity will have a positive effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification.

Indirect Effects: Adjustment

H9c: Higher levels of host country ethnocentrism will have a negative effect on work, as well as family adjustment, which in turn will each lead to a negative effect on job satisfaction, organisational-based self-esteem, organisational commitment, host country career embeddedness, life satisfaction and host country community embeddedness, as well as a negative effect on level of over-qualification (and *vice-versa*).

3. Conceptual Chapter

3.1. The Orchestral Influence of Variables: Tying it all together using the Ecosystems Theory

This section is devoted towards tying all previously identified propositions/hypotheses together into a general model, which will act as basis for the analysis later on. An array of variables have been identified as key in the ISM as well as adjacent literatures. All of which could have a potential impact on the respective core processes, as well as potentially influencing outcome variables directly. But how can this all be put together? For approximately the past demi-decade, a number of articles have been calling for more expansive research which incorporates multiple facets at the three core levels illustrated above. While this call has been around for some time (see Hajro et al., 2019; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018), there has yet to be a quantitative study, which has attempted to incorporate a vast number of variables at multiple levels. The importance however, lies in the fact that the amalgamation of variables at all three levels "work in concert rather than isolation" (Hajro et al., 2019, p. 345). Rather than following a soloist- (single level) or duet-based approach (two levels), one must take all three levels and respective variables into account in order to render a crisper image of exactly what influences ISMs' outcomes directly or indirectly via core processes (i.e. acculturation and adjustment).

Recently, Baruch et al. (2016) applied the ecosystems theory to take stock of global mobility career literature. Within their review, they put a particular emphasis on the interconnectedness and interrelatedness of various facets of global mobility, which all act and react within the larger, overriding ecosystem. One person's action does not occur in isolation, simply because this is *their* career, for example. Similarly, an ISM's work- and personal life actions do not happen in a isolated vacuum, just because it is *their* life. They put a particular emphasis on previous research being too fragmented, which often reduces the applicability of theory and practice. While utilising the Ecosystems Theory to integrate previous career literature pertaining to global mobility has been limited, the call to integrate micro-, meso- and macro-perspectives has been becoming louder in recent years (Crowley-Henry, et al., 2018; Hajro, et al., 2019; Sardana, et al., 2016; Mahadevan & Zeh, 2015; Guo & Al Ariss, 2015; Al Ariss, et al., 2012). However, until now it has largely been left unanswered.

The ecosystems approach from a business perspective is often related to the organisations, such that it is embedded in a community of organisations, institutions and individuals, which in turn have an influence on the organisation itself (Teece, 2007). Moore provides an alternative definition, claiming that an ecosystem is "an economic community supported by a foundation of interacting organisations and individuals – the organism of the

business world" (p. 9). Garavan et al. (2019), in a meta-analysis of uses of the ecosystems theory in the field of (international) management, utilise it to shed a different light on an international human resource development perspective. Whereby, they identify several key facets, including the interconnected nature of the business world, the actor centrality, bargaining power of the individual actors, as well as the relationships between actors. In essence, the ecosystems theory suggests that each individual actor (e.g. host country national or ISM) is part of a larger meso-level organisation (such as social groups or organisations), which are in turn embedded in greater society, and depending on the scope: the global economy (Baruch et al., 2016). Failure to take either level into account would therefore mean that important insights are being lost, which could have a potential effect on the respective ISM and key migration related processes. While previously only identified as relevant to international HRM by a limited number of theoretical studies (i.e. Baruch et al., 2016 and Garavan et al., 2019), the notion of integrating more holistic theorem to global mobility has be inadvertently recommended by several authors and has also been identified as key in further developing the field of global mobility research (Lazarova et al., *forthcoming*). For example, Mehadevan & Zeh (2015), from a social constructivist perspective, highlight the importance of looking at all three levels as "whenever an individual is reflecting about how their country's immigration policy should be shaped in the future, they are influenced by the existing social discourse on "immigration" and dominant categories of identity and their scope of action is restricted by existing laws and regulations" (p.328). The notion of taking all levels into considering particularly pertaining to a multi-level inclusive approach is echoed by Crowley-Henry et al. (2018) in their theoretical article, as well. Clearly, migration and especially skilled migration is a phenomenon which is affected at multiple levels.

Thus, following this notion of interconnectedness of the various levels (i.e. the potential impact these levels have on the (in)direct outcomes of ISMs), as well as guided by the research question 1[3], a base model was created (see figure 2 below), which depicts the direct influence which the micro-, meso- and macro-level variables (on the left) have on respective outcome variables (on the right). These have been categorised into the four groups as illustrated above: subjective- and objective-career success, as well as subjective- and objective life success.

As illustrated above, it is expected that all micro-level and meso-level variables, will have a positive direct influence on all outcome variables, with the exception of

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[3] RQ1: *To what extent do (organizational and societal) contextual factors and individual characteristics influence international skilled migrants' (ISMs) acculturation dynamics, adjustment processes and migration outcomes?*

overqualification, on which they are expected to have a negative effect. The macro-level variables are expected to have a negative effect on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, on which they are expected to have a positive effect.

The indirect effects will be measured by inserting the key process variables (alternatingly) as mediating variables in the middle. When introducing mediating variables (as highlighted in the various sections above), it is expected that all micro- and meso-level variables will have a positive relationship with host country identity, while a negative with home country identity (two sub-dimensions of acculturation). The exception, age, will have no significant relationship with host country identity, nor with home country identity. In addition, all micro- and meso-level variables, will have a positive influence on family, as well as work adjustment. Both macro-level variables on the other hand, institutional distance and host country ethnocentrism, will have a negative impact on host country identity and a positive effect on home country identity, as well as a negative effect on family and work adjustment.

In turn, it is expected that higher levels of host country identity will be positively related to all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, which will experience a negative effect. Host country identity is expected to have the opposite effect, i.e. negative relationships with all outcome variable, with the exception of overqualification, which will be positively affected. Higher levels of both family and work adjustment are expected to have a positive influence on all outcome variables, with the exception (once again) of overqualification, which will be negatively affected by both adjustment domains. All hypotheses, which will be tested in the current model are outlined in Appendix 10-12 (i.e. tables 2-35).

3.2. Integration as Final Outcome Variable to Holistic Migration Success

Finally, one outcome variable has not been discussed: Integration. This is based on Berry's acculturation framework and following research question 2[4], i.e. do different acculturation dynamics lead to different outcome variables. As illustrated by Berry (1997; 2008), the host country society may put limits on which forms of acculturation can occur. When reviewing the UK-based policy documents issued by the government, it becomes apparent that the UK aims at integrating migrants as outlined by Berry (Berry, 1997, 2008; Ndofor-Toh et al., 2019; Gidley & Jayaweera, 2010; HM Home Office, 2019). Therefore, an individual integrating, i.e. internalising the host country while still "holding on" to the previous culture, is

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[4] RQ2: *To what extent does acculturation strategy impact holistic migration success?*

the main goal outlined by the government. In other words, integration is a society-level outcome variable, which can only be achieved if a migrant chooses and integration-based strategy. For this research question, a separate analysis will be used, which will be outlined later.

3.3. Summary

Using an ecosystems theoretical approach, this chapter suggests a general model, which can be used in order to answer an ever-louder becoming call in the literature for a more inclusive and interconnected study using all three main levels, i.e., micro, meso, and macro. These are all expected to have a(n) (in)direct affect on respective outcome variables in the various subjective and objective life domains. The impact of key process variables was introduced as mediators, which are expected to explain the indirect effects. In addition, the concept of integration as a success variable was introduced and a final set of hypotheses for question two were created.

All in all, the ecosystems approach allows for a more holistic perspective of complex phenomena under investigation. As has been illustrated through the literature review, there are a vast quantity of potential independent variables which have been previously identified as having potential influencing effects on an ISMs' successful migration. These range from direct effects from independent variables or indirect effect via key process variables (i.e. mediators). Furthermore, the ecosystems approach also lends support of categorising success along multiple parameters. As suggested by Hajro et al. (2019) success can be determined using multiple dimensions, and what may be considered successful for one party, e.g. the ISM, might not necessarily mean success for another (Brewster et al., 2014). Thus, as suggested by the ecosystems approach, the previously identified societal and organisational contextual factors, as well as individual characteristics should be investigated together in order to avoid rendering only a partial image of the complex phenomenon. If not, then it is likely that over-exaggerated inferences could be made, or important facets missed. Therefore, in an attempt to be more inclusive to render a full image of what leads to migration success, a holistic ecosystems approach is pertinent. Thereby, answering the ever louder becoming call for more holistic, multi-level studies (Crowley-Henry, et al., 2018; Hajro, et al., 2019; Sardana, et al., 2016; Mahadevan & Zeh, 2015; Guo & Al Ariss, 2015; Al Ariss, et al., 2012).

The next chapter is the methodology section, which will outline the philosophical as well as theoretical concepts when executing research, before introducing the methodological approaches used in the current study.
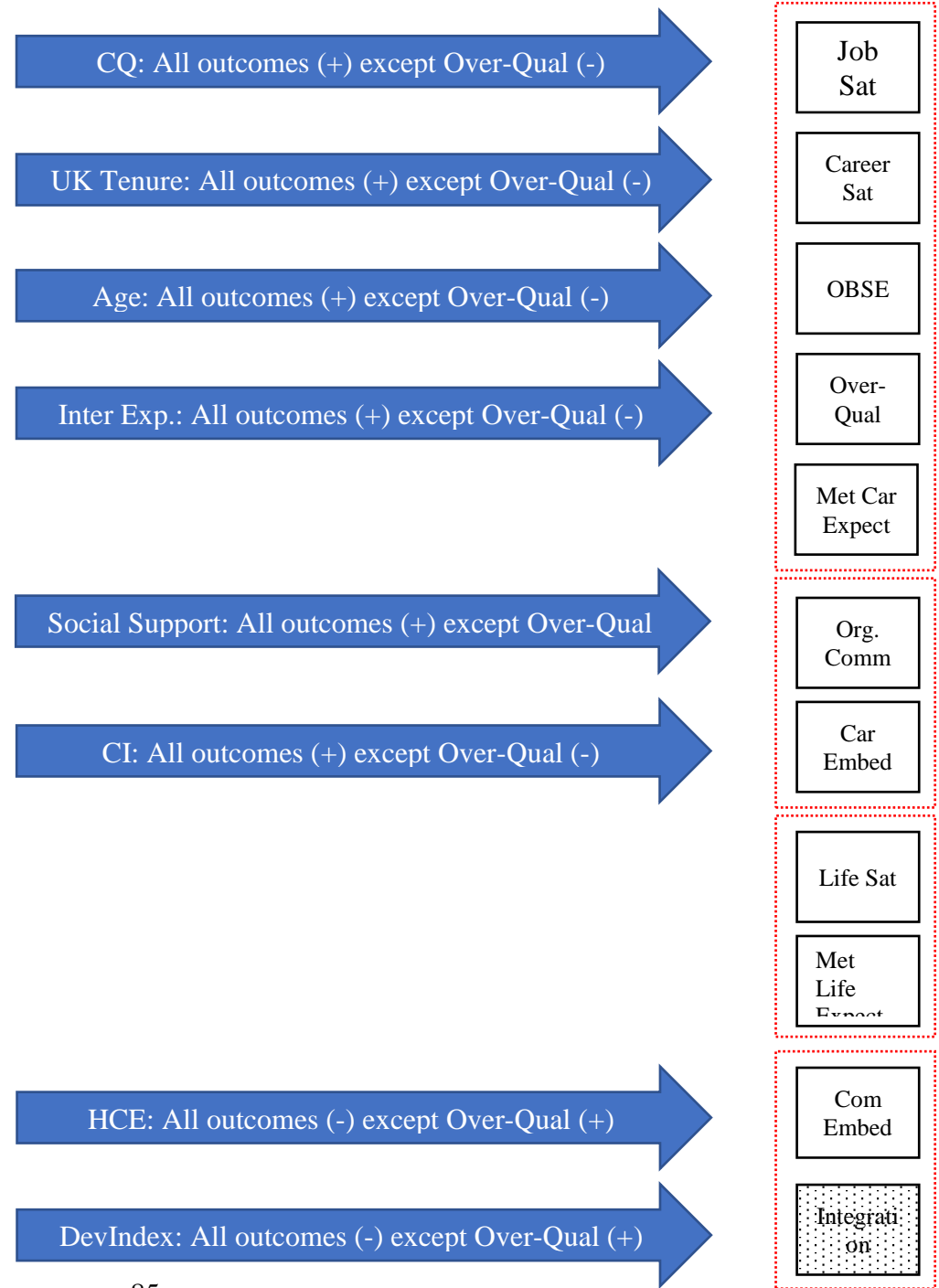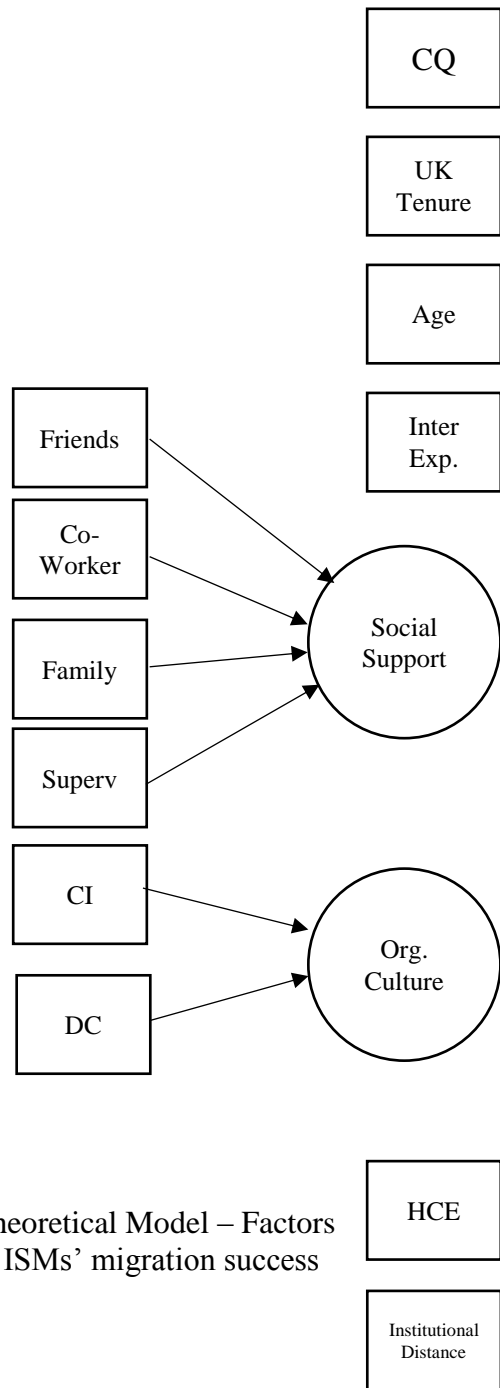
Figure 2: Theoretical Model – Factors Influencing ISMs' migration success

CQ

UK Tenure

Age

Inter Exp.

Friends

Co-Worker

Family

Superv

Social Support

CI

DC

Org. Culture

HCE

Institutional Distance

CQ: All outcomes (+) except Over-Qual (-)

UK Tenure: All outcomes (+) except Over-Qual (-)

Age: All outcomes (+) except Over-Qual (-)

Inter Exp.: All outcomes (+) except Over-Qual (-)

Social Support: All outcomes (+) except Over-Qual

CI: All outcomes (+) except Over-Qual (-)

HCE: All outcomes (-) except Over-Qual (+)

DevIndex: All outcomes (-) except Over-Qual (+)

Job Sat

Career Sat

OBSE

Over-Qual

Met Car Expect

Org. Comm

Car Embed

Life Sat

Met Life Expect

Com Embed

Integration

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4. Methodology

4.1. Methodology Introduction

In the section that follows, various benefits of different types of methodological stances will be addressed, the positive and negative aspects highlighted, and finally a general justification for the chosen method will be illustrated with regards to answering the research question. Important methodological considerations are addressed, but in the first instance, the research philosophy (i.e. epistemology and ontology) will be discussed, before moving on to the first part of the analyses.

4.2 Research Question

For pragmatic reasons, the research questions will be re-stated here.

(1) *To what extent do (organizational and societal) contextual factors and individual characteristics influence international skilled migrants' (ISMs) acculturation dynamics, adjustment processes and migration outcomes?*

(2) *To what extent does acculturation strategy impact holistic migration success?*

4.3. Philosophical research perspective

Before diving into the pragmatics relating to the research approach (i.e. the qualitative versus quantitative debate), the following section will outline the philosophical stance of the current study. The philosophical stance taken with regards to research has massive implications on the research itself, as "research is shaped in fundamental ways by the way we understand and use theory" (Bell et al. 2019, p.25). Most importantly research philosophy "underpin(s) your research strategy and the methods you choose as your strategy (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009, p.108; Bell et al., 2019). Business research philosophy is often divided and understood using both ontology and epistemology. While ontology helps understand the nature of reality in general, epistemology essentially describes the theory of knowledge and what we perceive to be "truth". In general, there is no "right" philosophical way to approach investigating respective phenomena. Ultimately, the way in which the research question has been formulated, defines and guides the research project in terms of philosophical perspective, which is paramount for conducting effective and meaningful research (Lund, 2005; Bryman, 2006b; Wilson & Natale, 2001).

4.3.1 Ontology

As previously, briefly stated, ontology "is concerned with the nature of reality" (Saunders et al. 2012, p.130) and the extent to which that reality can be assessed from both an objective and subjective perspective. The latter of which is also referred to in some cases as constructionism (Bell et al., 2019). In essence, ontology assumes that nature can either be observed by splicing into a continuum between two poles whereby constructs within nature can be seen as separate from the respective social interactions (i.e. objectivism), while on the other hand, subjectivism or constructionism suggests that reality itself is created (and further re-created) and therefore measured by the social interactions between individual aspects of nature itself. Essentially, objectivism suggests that social phenomena and their meanings exist independently from each other and can therefore be viewed separate or independently from social actors. Constructionism (or subjectivism) on the other hand, suggest that social phenomena are "not only produced through social interaction, but are also in constant state of revision" (Bell et al, 2019, p.27; Easterby-Smith et al., 2018).

As described above, research ontologies are often seen as two sides of a continuum, with underlying assumptions of how to render a crisp image of the world. As illustrated in the literature review, much of previous research has been limited as to the inclusive nature of respective studies, such that many studies have looked at the various levels of phenomena, but not necessary all levels (i.e. micro, meso and macro). The ecosystems approach calls for the implementation of this particular approach. Indeed, "worlds are multi-layered with many levels of interacting structures ongoing simultaneously" (Cupchik, 2001). Cupchick (2001), argues that instead of looking at two opposite poles with regards to a continuum, as illustrated in the previous paragraph, ontological stances should be seen as different perspectives which should be used in an iterative process in the pursuit of rendering *truth*, i.e. ontological stances therefore act in a symbiotic relationship, such that the identification of a holistic perspective (i.e. subjectivist or constructivist stances) is seen as the base for the implementation of concrete measurements of a specific constellation of phenomena (i.e. positivistic or objectivistic stances) in a wider ecological fashion (see also O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2014). Within this *constructive realism* based approach, social phenomena are seen as processes between different actors: yes, very similar to the previously identified ecosystems approach. Therefore, it is the context and the current timing which in essence should predict and determine the respective research approach should take. If, for example, the pendulum in recent years of research has had an extremely objective (or positivistic) bias, then rendering deeper meaning in form of more socially constructed approaches will not contrast or devalue the other research but extend it. In

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the pursuit of *truth,* the social scientist should not see past and future research as potentially threatening (to his or her theories and concepts), but rather as potential extension. After all, disproving theories about reality should have less to do with inducing an ego-building strategy, but as a means of apprehending absolute truth in a systematic manner.

This perspective can indeed be observed in the global mobility literature. As suggested previously, early expatriate literature was focused on creating predictive power of certain variables in the pursuit of creating business-building and enhancing decisions. However, these phenomena were to a large extent, studied in isolation and many variables and perspectives which could have explained the overall phenomenon were left out (see e.g. Lazarova et al., *in press*). Over the years however, expatriation as a field has developed into a more holistic field of global mobility, which has been through several iterative pendulum swings from objectivistic and subjectivist perspectives. Thus, furthering the respective field, i.e. through a constructivist realism-perspective. Indeed, it is the inclusive nature of qualitative (subjective) research which has led to the ever louder becoming call for quantitative (objective) research which includes all three levels of the global mobility ecosystem, as illustrated in the conceptual chapter.

While ISM research may still be in its infancy, leaning on prior research can and should be used (Hajro et al., 2019; Crowley-Henry et al., 2019) in order to test how variables lead to respective outcomes. The current state of the global mobility literature, following a constructivist realism-based approach is calling for the implementation of a pendulum swing in the direction of the positivistic perspective of variables, which have been previously identified in an iterative process throughout the past century (Cupchick, 2001). This iterative process and the (relatively recent) identification of ISMs as a salient group of individuals, in turn, led to the formation of the respective research questions, which in-turn determine the philosophical stance and ultimately the research methodological approach.

4.3.2. Epistemology

Epistemology is the theory of knowledge and is the core to determining what social scientists and business researchers claim to be *truth*. The epistemological stance which is taken, therefore has an influence on how data is collected and processed, as it is the basis for determining how we approach a given research topic or question. Quite frequently the literature suggests that there is a general debate in the social sciences with regards to conducting research similar to that of a natural scientist (i.e. using a positivistic approach), as opposed to studying

phenomena from an interpretivist perspective (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018; Saunders et al., 2016; Bell et al., 2019).

According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2018), positivism assumes that "the social world exists externally, and that its properties can be measured through objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation, reflection, or intuition" (p.69). Positivism is said to originate from the natural sciences, with its roots stemming from objectivism. By mimicking the natural science approach to measure reality via instruments and surveys, positivism tests hypotheses as a means of validating and analysing data to obtain truth. While often related to quantitative methods, it is the concept of understanding where meaning and knowledge stems from, from which assumptions can be made. Since the research question (as well as indicated by the literature review) implies there are measurable external factors, which can potentially influence the acculturation-, adjustment- dynamics, and migration outcomes of skilled migrants, the concepts outlined in the previous chapter can be tested and knowledge can be rendered from the measured concepts by accepting or rejecting respective hypotheses. From these results, knowledge or truth can be deduced (Saunders et al., 2016; Easterby-Smith et al. 2018; Bell & Bryman, 2019; O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015). Thus, the research question suggests that a positivistic epistemology will be the best way to approach the aforementioned questions, gaining the most valuable insight from measuring the relationships between the proposed phenomena.

4.3.3. Research Philosophy Justification Summary

Global mobility is a phenomenon which entails many different layers. It has been researched in management research for a good part of a century and has been studied using many different ontological, as well as epistemological perspectives. Constructivist realism stipulates that objectivism and subjectivist, rather than being illustrated as two sides of a continuum, should be seen as two sides of the same coin (O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015), with the ultimate goal in identifying how to render a holistic image of a given phenomenon. It is therefore the state of the research which should direct the overall research ontology, with the ultimate goal of furthering research. The research questions were in essence, based on calls in the literature for more holistic generalisable results in addition to identified gaps. Due to the sheer magnitude which the given levels (micro, meso and macro) entail, in combination with the call for more generalisable results (consider studies have hitherto been mainly theoretical or qualitative, e.g. see Zikic, 2015) extending past research by building on past research in ISM

literature and other adjacent fields, is the most necessary in order to further the field of international skilled migration. Using a constructivist realism approach in combination with a positivistic epistemology is therefore the best way not only to answer the respective research questions, but also further the field of ISMs and global mobility, which should be the target of all research.

4.4. Research Design

Research design can generally be defined as the choice of how to go about answering the research question. From a methodological perspective, the first typical choice made when engaging in answering a given research question, is to determine which research strategy to use, i.e. whether a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed-method approach. The latter of which involves either a hetero- or homogenous mixture of the former two (Bell et al., 2019; Saunders et al., 2016; Allwood, 2012). There are several benefits, as well as deficits attributed to the respective strategy, which can have an impact on the applicability of the data and answering of the research question.

4.4.1. Qualitative Research Strategy

Qualitative research involves the collection of data "about the context and allow a deeper understanding of phenomenon" (Saunders et al., 2012, p.15). The data collected in qualitative research is usually non-numerical in nature and involves the process of subjective interpretation (Cupchik, 2001).

Qualitative research involves the collection of data, which "provide information about context and allow a deeper understanding of phenomena" (Sanders, et al., 2014, p.15). Qualitative data is usually rendered through the subjective interpretation of non-numerical data (Sanders et al. 2014, Bryman & Bell, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009; Berg & Lune, 2014). A qualitative approach can involve exploratory research, is flexible and can lead to theory building, and to the identification of unforeseen variables within a study (Sanders et al., 2014; Bryman & Bell, 2007). It is therefore generally, but not exclusively, said to be inductive in nature (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).

As outlined above, qualitative research benefits from the ability to undertake in-depth analysis, which can lead to high internal validity. In addition, qualitative research is said to be more flexible, which enables the researcher to adapt questions during the process if appropriate

(e.g. through probing questions; O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015). Furthermore, the researcher themselves acknowledges that their presence is part of the study, as it may have an influence on the respective participants' behaviour (Maxwell, 2010; Zikmund et al., 2013; Bryman & Bell, 2007). On the contrary however, qualitative research is said to be very time-consuming, sample sizes tend to be smaller, which in turn lead to lower external validity (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Bryman & Bell, 2007; Payne & Williams, 2005), i.e. lower levels of generalizability. The unstructured nature makes it difficult to confirm reliability, making it difficult to replicate, which also makes accurate longitudinal studies difficult. Finally, due to being the product of the researcher's interpretation, data tends to be highly subjective (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Zikmund et al., 2013; O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015).

4.4.2. Quantitative Research Approach

Quantitative research typically involves the reduction of respective social phenomena (Creswell, 2003) and/or variables in order to collect and process data through statistical methods, which typically render results which are numeric (Saunders et al., 2016; Collis & Hussey, 2013), in order to test relationships between specific variables, and evaluate respective hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2016). Quantitative research often leans on a positivistic approach, as described above and is therefore often portrayed as a deductive approach to test hypotheses and ultimately theory.

There are several benefits attributed to quantitative research, including being able to render generalised assumptions (i.e. external validity), based on the aforementioned testing of hypotheses. Furthermore, quantitative research approaches allow for replications of a given study in the same or alternative context, which allows for a "more accurate" testing of potential frameworks developed. This in turn, is linked with more general results. Furthermore, more often than not, quantitative data collection methods allow for faster data collection, which often lead to larger sample sizes, which provide the previously mentioned higher generalizability (Bryman & Bell, 2007; O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015).

On the other hand, there are also several drawbacks related to quantitative research methods. First, they are often said to be inflexible, as they only capture a certain aspect of a latent construct. The reduction of construct into a set of items (known as scales) also means that there is a certain lack of depth in terms of only being able to identify the what, but not necessarily how or why a certain relationship is being observed. Thus, faster and larger data collection are sacrificed for the depth of the potential analysis.

Previous studies in the field of global mobility have laid a strong fundament on which the current research intends to build. In order to answer the research questions, the main objectives are to (a) identify the causal relationships between key (independent) variables and respective (dependent) outcome variables, as well as (b) identify under which mediating parameters, these outcomes variables are also obtained in a (c) generalisable fashion. The latter of which has been left exposed in current literature, as there has yet been a generalisable study which pertains to how success is obtained by ISMs in their given home context, and under which multi-levelled conditions this is attained. Due to this "call" for quantitative research which encompasses all levels in a generalisable fashion, the most appropriate way to gather data will be through the use of quantitative measures, as the research questions deem the benefits rendered through quantitative methods will clearly outweigh the deficits of sacrificing depth and richness (O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015; Bryman & Bell, 2007).

4.4.3. Survey Research

Survey research is used in a multiplicity of research areas. A survey can generally be defined as "a structured method of asking the same questions in the same order, to different respondents, and creating a database of answers for analysis" (O'Gorman & Macintish, 2015, p. 165). This form of data collection method allows for high quantities of responses within a limited time-frame and due to its highly structured nature, also allows for repetition of the given study to confirm or disprove findings in later studies. In addition, the researcher does not have to be present in order to administer the questionnaire (although this may be different during the creation of the questionnaire, which will be discussed later). Once the data has been collected and collated into a database it can then be analysed, whereby the effect of independent variables can be measured on dependent (outcome) variables. While there are some benefits to administering survey-based research, there are also some drawbacks which essentially mirror those of quantitative research, as illustrated above. In addition, there are also some drawbacks with regards to self-reported data collection, as an individual's perception may not accurately reflect reality (e.g. some people may experience a phenomenon like diversity climate differently; Hair et al., 2020; O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015).

According to O'Gorman & Macintosh (2015), the research question and the conceptual framework are paramount in making a decision to implement this form of instrument. As illustrated previously, due to the state at which the current ISM-research is, and the calls for generalisable, multi-level studies, to measure the complex nature between respective

dependent, independent and mediating variables, it would appear that using a survey to collect data seems most appropriate.

4.5. Ethical Approval

The importance of sound ethics in research is to make sure that the highest benefit from research is attained without harming participants in the process (Maylor & Blackmon, 2005). Thus, to ensure that the high ethical standards were met, the research was executed in accordance with Brunel University London's Research Ethics Committee (BUREC) and the respective *Code of Research Ethics*. This included the submission of a fully completed ethics form, prior to the data collection. The ethics forms were submitted online with the appropriate documentation including company confidentiality forms, Participant information sheets, the pre-written e-mail to the respective organisations (template), and the questionnaire itself.

While the study did involve gathering data from human participants, the only ethical consideration was that of anonymity for participants and participating organisations. Thus, in order to secure the anonymity of participating individuals and organisations, all data was coded based on a number system where no full names were provided. Participants were provided with a participant numbers, which were assigned to the respective interview number. The participants were informed about the respective research and their right to withdraw from the research at any time. The number system thus, did not only provide anonymity, but also the retracting of data should this have been required.

4.6. Data Management

In addition to the coding system illustrated above, all collected data was stored securely. Hard data, such as hard-copies of the questionnaire, were stored in secure locations, either at the researcher's residence or in the researcher's place of work. In order to reduce potential data leakage, the amount of hard data was reduced to a minimum, or it was digitalised (i.e. the filled in questionnaires were scanned and stored on the university network).

Soft-data on the other hand was treated with upmost care. Soft-data files included the electronically filled in questionnaires, and scanned copies of questionnaires which were filled in as hard copies. Data was kept securely on the university network, which is password protected. All data which was used outside of the network, e.g. at the researcher's home computer, was also password protected. For practical purposes, raw data was also kept on

Dropbox, which is a password protected cloud storage system, allowing for secure access to files from remote locations. Once the data had been sufficiently analysed, all data was stored to the university network and a back-up password-protected USB-stick was used for archive purposes. The USB-stick will remain in a secure location in the researcher's residence.

Data rendered from the online version of the questionnaire was completely anonymous. If participants wanted to withdraw, they still had a ticket number, with which this was possible. In addition, if the participants wanted a summarising report of the overall project (upon completion), then they were advised to send a personal message or e-mail. These individuals were then added onto the list of report recipients.

4.7. Population and Sampling Criteria

As mentioned in the introduction and in the literature review section 2.3.1. highlighting, the differences between ISMs and two similar types of international mobility (SIEs and traditional organisational expatriates), ISMs are individuals who possess a tertiary degree or higher, who initiate their own international mobility from a developing or developed country to reside permanently in a developed country without organisational support. These individuals encounter (institutional) barriers, suffer from a negative migrant status, potentially leading to discrimination and/or downward career progression, possess lower levels of personal agency, and are typically researched from a more holistic perspective. Hence, there are six main criteria which differentiate ISMs from other types of international mobility (Hajro et al., 2019). From these six, four were used for selection: Time-orientation, motivation & personal agency, geographic origin, as well as vulnerability & status. More specifically individuals will be selected based on their time-orientation (i.e. those individuals who migrate with the intention of residing permanently or indeterminately in the host country), self-motivation (i.e. initiate their own mobility), having a tertiary degree or higher, having a local contract (as opposed to expatriate contracts), and finally, having migrated to the UK from a different country.

It is important to reiterate that the term "migrant" carries many definitions depending on the respective researcher or organisation. For example, the UN uses a definition which essentially is equivalent to anyone who is currently in the process of global mobility (i.e. the old definition of sojourners). They state that a migrant is "an umbrella term (…) reflecting the common understanding of a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence whether within a country or across international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons" (IOM, 2019). This would mean that the statistics found in their database

are slightly skewed in terms of how many people can actually be classified as (skilled) migrants. A similar observation can be made when looking at how the UK government defines migrants. Again, their documentation implies that all individuals who are foreign to the UK, can be classified as migrants. However, while this may be seen as *faux-pas* by some academics, they do still carry statistics which demarcate short- and long-term migration (i.e. those who stay for over 12 months), as well as demarcate between skilled and unskilled migration (i.e. those who enter under a tier two visa). Nonetheless, despite the efforts to demarcate the various types of internationally mobile entrants into the UK, their parameters do not suffice to an appropriate level. Thus, in order to accurately collect data, the first way in which people were classified, was by asking four main questions, which were also listed in the email template:

1. *Are you a first-generation migrant in the UK?*
2. *Have you attained a bachelor's degree or higher (international equivalents are accepted)?[5]*
3. *Do you intend to stay in the UK on an indeterminate/permanent basis?*
4. *Did you come to the UK on your own initiative?*

Participants were also asked within the questionnaire introduction sheet, not to fill in the questionnaire if they were on an expatriate contract. The questions above were asked either by the researcher in "casual" conversation, whereby the researcher engaged in regular networking events and subtly asked the criteria while in generic conversation. Where research was conducted online, through for example Facebook Groups, the text asking people to take part in the study was devised in such a way, as to indicate the four main criteria. Finally, the online version of the questionnaire was preceded by the four questions highlighted above as a final iteration. This quite repetitive process allowed the data to be untainted (as has been described in the literature review), as past research have on occasion even stated that both SIEs and skilled migrants were placed into one synonymous group (e.g. Al Ariss & Özbilgin, 2010). Thus, this study has already included a certain level of accuracy which studies have rarely used in this particular research niche, which has been commented on regularly by empirical and

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[5] "International equivalents are accepted" was added in order to make sure that those individuals who hold international equivalents, such as the South African Honour's Degree would not feel deterred by the statement. Rather than asking for a *tertiary* degree, which may have confused some individuals, whose first language was not English.

theoretical peer-reviewed journal articles (e.g. McNulty & Brewster, 2017; & Thorn, 2013; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Al Ariss, 2010; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Baruch, Dickmann, Altman & Bournois, 2013; Caligiuri & Bonache, 2016; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014).

Finally, it is also important to reiterate, that the various forms or patterns of global mobility are not static and thus set-in-stone. Indeed, it is possible for an individual to engage in one pattern, while later changing to another, e.g. an SIE may originally plan to come to a country with the intention of residing temporarily, but then deciding that they want to stay, thus becoming a migrant (Bonache et al., 2017; McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Doherty, 2013; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017). The various forms of global mobility are therefore dynamic.

4.8 Questionnaire Design

As illustrated by Collis & Hussey (2014) there are several stages to designing a questionnaire. These include question and instruction design, determining the order of presentation, writing a cover letter, testing the initial questionnaire with a smaller sample (i.e. the pilot study), choosing a distribution and return method, planning a strategy for non-response, and finally testing for validity and reliability of certain variables (Collis & Hussey, 2014). The following section regarding the questionnaire design will be structured accordingly.

4.9. Designing Questions and Instructions

As portrayed by the review of literature surrounding migration and adjacent international mobility literature (i.e. expatriation, self-initiated expatriation, etc.), there are a plethora of variables which potentially have an impact on the integration *success* of respective migrants. Due to this, in order to capture an appropriate overview of the aforementioned phenomena, it was vital to be very selective as to how many scales could be included within the questionnaire. While attention at this stage was paid to quality of respective scales, priority was also given to scales which contained lower numbers of items. While many of the scales being adopted from previous studies, other sections were self-designed. The scales which were adopted from previous studies were done so with permission of the respective authors. Despite measuring certain variables using existing scales, they needed to be adapted to the target population defined above, i.e. ISMs. Changes were kept at a minimum. These will be discussed after a quick discussion of reflective and formative items.

4.9.1. Reflective and Formative Items

In general, there are two types of items: reflexive and formative. Reflexive items generally reflect the overall latent construct in similar iterative ways. This means that if five items are constructed to measure the construct, they will be rather similar, thus allowing for an appropriately high alpha Cronbach variable. A change in the latent variable, will lead to a change in its indicators, i.e. items. An example of this, is the level of over-qualification construct. Within this construct two items aim to identify the level of general over-qualification ("I have competencies/skills that I feel I cannot use in my current organisation" and "I feel overqualified for my current position"). An additional item was then added as a reverse item, as a means of ensuring that people were answering truly and not simply ticking boxes randomly, i.e. internal consistency. In theory, since these items all measure the same concept, it should be possible to actually create a single item which would measure an entire construct (Abdel-Khalek, 2006; Cheung & Lucas, 2014). Causin, Ayoung & Moreo (2011), in their exploration of which management skills are required by expatriates in the Hotel industry, identified the degree to which an organisation supplied expatriates with cross-cultural training. However, despite being used in various other streams of research (e.g. psychology; Cappelleri *et al.*, 2009; Gogol *et al.*, 2014, or pedagogy; Smith et al., 2018), this is often frowned upon (Schmidt, 2018; Oshagbemi, 1999; Postmes et al., 2013). That said, statisticians have identified shorter scales (even single-item scales) to be an appropriate alternative for longer (impractical) measures, as similar results are typically rendered from shorter- as opposed to the respective longer-scales (Lantian et al., 2016; Gogol et al., 2014, Cheung & Lucas, 2014; Littman et al., 2006; Nagy, 2002; O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015). Thus, some constructs with reflexive variables were shortened as to benefit from the best of both worlds, i.e. less time-consuming during data collection, while attaining a certain degree of reliability/validity, i.e. being accepted by the academic realm (Hair et al., 2020).

Alternatively, formative items suggest that each individual item within a construct are somewhat specific, whereby the individual items reflect different aspects of the overriding latent construct. Thus, contrarily to reflexive latent variables, changes in the formative latent variable is not necessarily accompanied by changes in the individual indicators or items. However, "if any one of the indicators changes, then the latent variable also changes" (Hair et el., 2020, p.471). A more generic example of this are the items within the construct of English language proficiency. While there is one reflexive item ("In general, I feel confident using English"), the others are very formative, as they measure different aspects of language proficiency, i.e. writing, speaking, reading comprehension, as well as listening. While this

particular construct may be highly correlated to the systematics of learning languages in a pedagogical setting (i.e. (language) schools), other constructs may be less related. Due to the highly formative nature of such items, it is less likely that certain levels of Alpha Conbach's statistics will be attained (Hair et al., 2020). In general, a large proportion of the literature suggests that the internal consistency should not be lower than 0.7 (e.g. Hair et al., 2020; Saunders et al., 2016). As described in Hair et al.'s (2020) well-cited research methods book, while many studies do utilise Alpha Cronbach as measure of reliability, whilst undertaking structural equation modelling, composite reliability it preferred. In addition, Eisinga et al. (2013) suggest that Alpha Cronbach is indeed known for being over-discriminatory with regards to internal reliability, i.e. it tends to underestimate true reliability. Thus, there have been past studies which have also deemed results under 0.7 as reliable to a certain degree (e.g. Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011). Thus, both forms of reliability were calculated to fulfil both schools of thought. This will also be discussed in the section that follows.

4.9.2. The Questionnaire: Integrating International Skilled Migrants within the Workplace

As previously identified in the literature review, there are many phenomena, which are said to have an impact on the acculturation dynamics, adjustment processes and success outcomes of skilled migrants. While some of these phenomena stem from adjacent literatures (e.g. the expatriate literature), and therefore had appropriate scales which could be adopted, others did not have appropriate scales and thus scales were self-designed based heavily of the literature surrounding global mobility and organisational psychology. This sub-section will therefore have three parts: firstly, all scales which were adopted and unchanged will be generally discussed and a few examples given. Next, those scales where minor changes were necessary will be discussed and the changes justified. Finally, the self-designed scale(s) will be discussed in more detail. An outline of the respective scales and their origin are outlined in Appendix 13. In addition, Table 36 outlines all constructs used, as well as their definitions and their status (self-devised, minor changes, unchanged). That said, most of the items were changed in some way, shape, or form as it was important to adapt the scales to the current research direction, i.e. international skilled migrants.

The only items which remained virtually unchanged were the demographic and control variables. Since the necessary variables included an extremely exhaustive list, it made sense to include an extensive list of control variables, which have previously been used in the literature

and have been deemed important for the study of globally mobile individuals. In past research on global mobility an array of variables have been identified as important to be controlled, ranging from being as simple as a participant's age, gender (Birur & Muthiah, 2013) or time spent within a host country, through to fiercely studied variables, such as past international experience, size of organisation (both capital or FTE-headcounts; Bassino, Dovis & Eng, 2015), or whether an individual had children or not (e.g. Bader, Raede & Froese, 2019;) (previously only studied in detail with regards to SIEs and AEs, but not necessarily skilled migrants). Since these items are relatively straight forward in terms of the actual question posed, it was not necessary to change the respective question.

Most of the scales adopted had some form of change. These changes ranged from small alteration to the items themselves, small changes to the instructions (as to maintain consistency in the entire questionnaire), all the way to changes to the response labels (again, for consistency reasons). The latter of which was undertaking not only for consistency reasons, but also because some of the items which were adopted did not have a "not applicable" option or "I don't know" option. One example of this is the family adjustment scale, which previously did not have a "not applicable option". However, if an individual has no immediate family in their lives, then this would mean that they would have skewed the results to some degree (as they would not have had a chance to state this elsewhere).

In addition, there was a scale or instrument, which was self-designed. This occurred for several reasons, but ultimately was because the literature had not yet designed an appropriate scale to measure the given construct. Most importantly this was the case for Perceived Host-Country Ethnocentrism (HCE). While Templer (2010) has designed a host-country ethnocentrism short-scale, this was from the perspective of the individual's ethnocentrism and not the perceived HCE exerted from host country nationals. Using this as a starting point, scales were created accordingly.

Creating or deducing items from the literature is common and has been within quantitative based research. For example, Nishii's (2013) climate for inclusion construct, which was originally created through deducing items from the literature. In order to assure face validity, Nishii approached experts within her given field for feedback. and asked them to sort her items according to the respective definitions she provided them with. Only those items were retained which received positive feedback. This approach of gaining face validity was adopted as well. Face validity or content validity is also common practice within business management research, as illustrated by the vast array of previous studies which utilise such approaches to get a non-bias opinion (e.g. Birur & Muthiah, 2013; Causin et al., 2011).

Last but not least, institutional distance was measured using the United Nations' Development Index. The UNDev-Index, is a cumulative statistic, which is used to rank the respective level of development of all countries in the world. It is comprised of four key variables: life expectancy at birth, expected years of schooling, mean years of schooling, as well as gross national income, i.e. GNI. The UK is ranked at 15th with .920 overall points (United Nations, 2019). Each individual participant received a value of their self-stated country of origin, and the difference rendered either a positive number (i.e. indicating that they travelled from a country with a lower level of development) or a negative number (i.e. indicating that an individual travelled from one of the 14 countries ranked above the UK). According to Kostova (1997), when looking at institutional distance, one should operationalize the construct in such a way as to best suit the phenomenon under investigation, i.e. ISMs. Thus, following Berry et al's typology for institutional distance, arguably four out of the nine distance dimensions can be captured, either directly or indirectly using the HDI, including political, demographic, knowledge and economic distance.

According to Berry et al. (2010), political distance includes country-membership in larger trade associations, which allow for higher levels of openness to trade. According to Eden & Miller (2004), this has been enforced within developed countries, as regulatory frameworks have become more homogeneous due to globalization pressures, regional integration schemes and international institutions such as the World Trade Organization and the OECD. A sentiment supported by Liou (2013), Goxe & Paris (2016), Akbari (2012), as well as Tung & Lazarova (2006), who have identified more developed countries (as measured by HDI) being members of respective trade blocs and IGOs (e.g., EU and OECD, respectively). Considering HDI is a measure of development (UNDP, 2019; Puumalainen et al., 2015; Duran & Bajo, 2014), this should therefore reflect a certain level of institutional distance in relation to political differences. Secondly, the HDI reflects key demographic distance with regards to life expectancy, which in turn also reflects the institutional distance with regards to countries vis-á-vis, quality of labour (Martins, 2018) and health institutional systems. Thirdly, knowledge distance is reflected by the extent to which the nation has the capacity to create knowledge. While this is measured using articles published, the number of years of schooling, should also reflect this ability, as well. In turn, reflecting the development of the national educational institutional systems. This is supported by Chao & Kumar (2010), who suggest that education is a key facet of institutional distance, while Estrin et al. (2009) utilizes an alternative measure of education to measure human resource distance. Finally, economic distance, is reflected by

GNI, which illustrates the income important for a decent quality of life and reflects the purchasing power of the given consumer (Berry et al., 2010).

In essence, the HDI is an alternative measure of national development and considers the three dimensions of human development, health, education and income, rather than the conventional level of income and rate of economic growth (Al Ariss, 2014; Duran & Bajo, 2014). Despite Kostova et al. (2020) suggesting a multitude of operationalizations of institutional distance, which may have led to a certain degree of confusion, Estrin et al. (2009) suggest that distance has many dimensions, possibly including others which have not yet been investigated in empirical studies. Considering HDI reflects key institutions, which impact an ISM's quality of life comparing to their home country, the HDI seems an appropriate measure, which goes beyond looking at a singular aspect of institutional distance, to cover a multitude of distance measures, as illustrated by the application of Berry et al.'s (2010) dimensions of distance. Indeed, according to Bardhan (2005), the development status of a country is very much a reflection of the respective underlying institutional framework. This is supported by the UNDP's own statement that the composite index "can also be used to question national policy choices", which essentially aims to "stimulate debate about government policy priorities" (UNDP, 2019). Thus, utilizing the HDI, reflects institutional distance from a comparative institutionalist perspective, which emphases "the system of interdependent institutional arrangements in different areas of socio-economic life in a given country", which includes economic, educational, labour, as well as general development level measurements (Kostova et al., 2020, p. 471). Aspects which are all reflected in the HDI index, which justifies its operationalization as proxy-variable.

Scale Title	Scale Family	Construct Definition	Status
Migrants' Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism	Country Characteristics/ Independent Variable	The extent to which migrants perceive the host country members to show a strong affinity towards the host-country culture, as opposed to other cultures, illustrated by prejudicial behaviour towards other cultures and a sense of rigidity to new entrants (Templer, 2010; Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Michailova et al., 2017).	Self-Designed
Institutional Distance	Country Characteristic/ Independent Variable	The difference of institutional profiles of two given countries (Kostova et al., 2020). Using country of origin and the UK as reference points for calculating distance.	Adopted from the United Nations Development Program.
Climate for Inclusion	Organisational Characteristics/ Independent Variable	Theory developed originally by Nishii (2013) which postulates that organisations are more likely to render success from diversity if three main aspects of inclusion are taken into account: Equitable employment practices, integration of differences, as well as inclusion in decision making. An organisations informal and formal structure suggesting a change in interaction patterns leading to the integration of diverse individuals within the respective organisation (Nishii, 2013).	Major Changes
Diversity Climate	Organisational Characteristics/ Independent Variable	Aggregate perceptions about organization's diversity-related formal structure characteristics and informal values (Gonzalez and Denisi, 2009).	Minor Changes
Social Support	Organisational Characteristics/ Independent Variable	The extent to which an individual (perceives to) receive(s) help and/or aid from their social surroundings, sub-divided into personal and work life domains (Frese, 1999).	Minor Changes
Cultural Intelligence	Individual Characteristics/ Independent Variable	Cultural intelligence is the ability that individuals have to interact effectively across cultural contexts and with culturally different individuals (Thomas et al., 2015).	Minor Changes
Language Skills	Individual Characteristics/ Independent Variable	An individual's ability to understand and utilise a given language.	Minor Changes

Adjustment	Outcome Variables/ Dependent Variable	The extent to which an individual feel psychologically comfortable within a given context.	
Acculturation	Outcome Variables/ Dependent Variable	The change in the behavioural repertoire of an individual when they come into close and extensive contact with a new culture.	
Level of Over-Qualification	Outcome Variables/ Dependent Variable	The perceived degree to which an individual's qualifications and skills are commensurate with their current role in their given organisation.	
Met Expectations	Outcome Variables/ Dependent Variable	The extent to which an individual's pre-departure expectations of a host country were met.	
Job-& Life-Satisfaction	Outcome Variables/ Dependent Variable	The extent to which an individual subjectively feels satisfied with his or her respective life domain (i.e. job or life).	
Organisation Based Self-Esteem	Outcome Variables/ Dependent Variable	The extent to which an individual affiliates themselves to the organisations he or she works for.	
Organisational Commitment	Outcome Variables/ Dependent Variable	The extent to which an individual	
Host Country Embeddedness	Outcome Variables/ Dependent Variable	The extent to which an individual is embedded in the local (private-life) community as well as in the professional-community, extrapolated from an individual's framing of potential loss should they be forced or choose to leave a given context (i.e. the UK).	
Career Success	Outcome Variables/ Dependent Variable	The extent to which an individual subjectively feels happy about his or her career in the given context.	
Individual	Demographics	n.a.	Adopted from multiple studies
Organisational	Demographics	n.a.	Adopted from multiple studies

Table 36: Questionnaire Composition – Defining Variables

4.9.2.1. Country Characteristics – Migrant's Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism and Institutional Distance

While the context of the UK has been outlined in the preluding sections, a key-variable to be included within this study, from a macro-perspective, was the **Perceived Level of Host Country Ethnocentrism**. This self-designed scale included five items with an α-score of 0.845, suggesting clear internal consistency. Furthermore, institutional distance was included in the current section through operationalizing the HDI-index, as described previously. The country of origin was captured within the questionnaire, which was used to subtract from the UK HDI-index (.920), which in turn created a positive or a negative number, i.e. trajectory, vis-á-vis the direction of distance (coming from a more or less developed institutional context) and the magnitude or the distance.

4.9.2.2. Meso-Level Characteristics

Three main Meso-level characteristics included climate for inclusion, diversity climate, as well as social support. While the items were left mostly unchanged, some had to be adopted in order to integrate them into a smoothly flowing questionnaire. The items scales, their origin, as well as the (for the most part) minor changes are outlined below.

Nishi's (2013) **Climate for Inclusion (CI)** scale includes three sub-scales including (1) *Foundation of equitable employment practices, (2) Integration of differences and Inclusion in Decision Making (3).* Since a general Diversity Climate scale was included in the questionnaire, this created a slight duplication of variables, and in the spirit of attempting to reduce the number of variables and commensurate with the advice given from expert scholars, the second sub-scale was removed from the questionnaire. While the first sub-scale (dimension one) contains five items with an internal reliability of α = 0.97, the later sub-scale (dimension three) includes four items with an internal reliability of α = 0.93.

The **Diversity Climate** scale was created from two main sources including Herdmann & McMillan-Capegart (2009), as well as McKay, Avery & Morris (2008). The five items extracted for this purpose were slightly changed to maintain the same format, but other than that stayed largely the same. While the first three items were extracted from Herdmann & McMillan-Capegart's (2009) scale with an internal reliability score of α = 0.76, while the latter two were extracted from McKay et al.'s (2008) scale (α = 0.80). Slight changes were made to items in order to mirror a similar style of writing. A further reliability test was run based on the approach, rendering an α-score of 0.909.

The **Social Support** scale was based on Frese's (1999) social support scale, which originally included five items, whereby a number of statements were made followed by a list of groups of individuals (i.e. Co-workers, Supervisor, Family, Friends). In order to balance the distribution of items between the two life domains (i.e. personal and family, as well as work & career), an additional variable was created to mirror the work-life domain (i.e. *I can rely on the following people when things get tough in my personal life*). Finally, the last item was removed (*How easy is it to talk to each of these people*), in order to maintain a clear balance between the two different life domains equally. This resulted in a total alpha Cronbach's score of 0.86, 0.87, 0.89, 0.86 for the groups of co-worker, supervisor, family, and friends, respectively. Finally, while Frese (1999) uses the group others which included friends and relatives, the current study removed the latter half and renamed the overall group at just "friends". This is means of reducing confusion for respondents with regards to potentially having two options to respond to.

4.9.2.3. Individual Characteristics

Two main scales were used to measure micro-level variables which, as discussed in the literature review, may have an impact on ISMs acculturation dynamics, adjustment process, as well as migration success. In addition to these variables, further items which rendered demographic data included participants' current age, past international experience, as well as host country tenure.

Cultural Intelligence (CQ) was measured using a 10-item short-scale designed by Thomas et al. (2015), which included three components: (1) *Knowledge* (2 items), (2) *Skills* (5 items), as well as (3) *Metacognition* (3 items). The response scale was slightly changed for consistency reasons within the questionnaire, i.e. "A little" was changed to "very little", and "A lot" was changed to "very much". This was done in order to make answering the rather lengthily questionnaire as simple as possible. The overall scale has an inter reliability (i.e. Alpha Cronbach score) of the scale is 0.88.

Language skills were measured using a two-pronged approach, including identifying the participants' ability to speak the host-country language (specifically English-language skills), as well as their general language affinity (i.e. their general proficiency in other languages). The former was achieved by adopting Takeuchi et al.'s (2002) language proficiency scale, which consists of five items with an overall α-score of 0.97, suggesting a high degree of internal consistency. The general approach was taken to measuring the language

skills of other languages and the general degree of proficiency. Participants were asked to list all languages they were proficient in, as well as the degree of their proficiency on a five-point scale including the labels "Beginner", "Intermediate", "Advanced", "Fluent", and "Native or Equivalent". This particular scale was included in order to make sure that a general affinity towards languages could be identified.

4.9.2.4.1. Outcome Variables – Overview

Within the current study, there are two types of outcome variables: Intermediary outcome variables, as well as ultimate outcome variables. The intermediary outcomes variables (i.e. acculturation mode as well as adjustment) have previously been seen as a proxy for overall success of global mobility. In this sense, these were included as dependent variables, as well as potential intermediary (or mediating variables) for the ultimate outcome variables. The ultimate outcome variables are those which can then categorised within the holistic migration success matrix, which was outlined in the literature review and reflect sub-constructs to the overall latent variable of success.

While the most popular (in terms of citations and use) adjustment scale was designed by Black and colleagues in a plethora of publications in the late 1980's early 1990's, this scale has come under increased scrutiny in the past decade. Thus, an alternative scale was sought and found in Shaffer et al.'s (2016) **adjustment** scale, which conveniently dissects adjustment in work and family adjustment. Beyond this, it demarcates between the relationship- as well as task-adjustment of the respective sub-scales, resulting in four subscales consisting of three items each. While work role task and relationship adjustment have internal consistency scores of 0.81 and 0.84, respectively, family role task and relationship adjustment have internal consistency scores of 0.88 and 0.87, respectively.

Acculturation was measured based on Lee et al (2017) proprietary scale of acculturation, which allows a demarcation based on the popular 2x2 matrix suggested by Berry (1997). Thus, the overall acculturation scale consists of nine items divided into the three subscales of home-Identity, and host identity. The respective Alpha Cronbach's score are 0.97 and 0.86, respectively. A slight change was made, so that the words "society" were changed to "the UK". This made it clearer what we were trying to pry from the respondents.

Met Expectations were based on a scale which was designed using Cerdin et al.'s (2014) measurement of what met expectations included (i.e. a surprise element, surpassing expectation, as well as a reverse element with regards to perceived disappointment). In order

to maintain a certain level of consistency with regards to the two life domains measured using other scales, the items were duplicated and slightly altered in order to reflect the respective life domains: personal- and work-life. Originally, the scale had an overall internal consistency score of α = 0.71. However, despite efforts by respective third-party expert (from who this scale found its origin), the official publication is yet to be published. Thus, treating this item as quasi self-designed, internal reliability tests were conducted accordingly. While the internal reliability cut-off point was achieved for met expectations in the work domain (α = 0.741), the met expectations in the personal life was left slightly wanting at 0.645. While the Alpha Cronbach coefficient is the most wildly accepted, it is said to underestimate true reliability (Eisinga, Grotenhuis & Pelzer, 2013). Thus, there have been past studies which have also deemed results under 0.7 as reliable to a certain degree (e.g. Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011). Considering that a rounded score would essentially be 0.7, the scale was maintained, although later results were analysed with caution.

Job Satisfaction was measured using a short version of McKay et al.'s (2007) scale, which was based on the seminal work first conducted by Brayfield & Rothe (1951). This scale contains five items, of which two are reversed. The internal reliability of this scale was measured using the Spearman-Brown Formula, rendering an acceptable level of 0.87. For consistency reasons, a further reliability test was run using SPSS during the data analysis, whereby a more than satisfying α-score of 0.876 was attained.

Life Satisfaction was measured using a scale developed by Diener et al. (1985), which consists of a five-item scale, with an internal reliability value of α = 0.87.

To measure **Organisational based self-esteem** Pierce et al.'s (1989) five-item scale was adopted, which originally had an α-score of 0.86. Since one item was removed (in order to reduce the number of scales in the overall questionnaire), a further reliability test was run, rendering an α-score of 0.906.

Organisational commitment was measured using a five-item scale designed and validated by Kehoe & Wright (2010), which rendered an alpha Cronbach value of 0.89. Minor changes were made to some of the items, but the overall content of the items did not change, and the additional reliability test rendered an α-score of 0.878, indicating good internal consistency for the overall scale.

Host Country Embeddedness was measured using the loss-framing sub-scale developed by Tharenou & Cauldfield (2010). Many small changes were made to this item in order to make the scale fit into the respective questionnaire, while some aspects of items were removed as they seemed redundant, e.g. "…I currently live in" was removed from the end of

the items, as this seemed obvious based on the instructions provided (i.e. "If you would have to leave the UK, to what extent would the following be losses or sacrifices to you?"). To ensure that the scales still maintained an acceptable level of internal consistency, a reliability test was executed, rendering a result of 0.876 for Host Country Career Embeddedness, as well as 0.744 for Host Country Community Embeddedness. Thus, indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency.

Greenhaus et al.'s (1990) **Career Success** scale was adopted and a few items were removed in order to shorten the questionnaire. In addition, the focus, which was used to be on the context within a particular organisation, was changed to mirror that of their entire career since moving to the UK (i.e. the new country of residence/host country). A reliability test was run on the now 3 item-scale due to these changes, rendering an α-score of 0.840, i.e. an acceptable level of internal consistency.

Scale Title	Number of Items	Response Scale	Alpha Cronbach (α)
Migrants' Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.862
Climate for Inclusion	9 (5 + 4)	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.894 / .932
Diversity Climate	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.909
Social Support	16 (4 x 4)	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.863 / .888 / .884 / .891
Cultural Intelligence	10 (2 + 5 + 3)	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.776 / .746 / .798
Language Skills	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.943
Adjustment	12	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 6 = not applicable (family)	W:.801 / .892 F:.894 / .858
Acculturation	6 (2 x 3)	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.872 / .834
Level of Over-Qualification	3	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.821
Met Expectations	6	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.741 / .645*
Job-& Life-Satisfaction	10	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	Job: .876 / Life: .872
Organisation Based Self-Esteem	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.906
Organisational Commitment	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.878
Host Country Embeddedness	6	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	Car: .876 / Com: .744
Career Success	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree to some extent; 3 = Uncertain; 4 = Agree to some extent; 5 = Strongly Agree.	.840
Individual Demographics	25	According to Question	N/A
Organisational Demographics	6	According to Question	N/A
Total	145		

* Previously validated, thus retained in analysis.

Table 37: Questionnaire Composition – Scales – Items – Response Scale - (α)

4.9.2.4.2. Assorting Respective Outcome Variables

As discussed in the literature review, past studies have general failed to render comparable results, since they do not take all facets of migration success into account (Hajro, Stahl, Clegg & Lazarova, 2019), i.e. studies have rarely managed to take a multi-level (i.e. micro-, meso-, macro-level) approach into account with regards to ISMs (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013). This insight is however not exclusive to ISMs, as Brewster and colleagues (2014) claim that "clearly, outcomes of expatriation (have) been a tricky and slippery topic (and) recent research on the complexity of expatriation has contributed to making things even more difficult" (p. 1926). Bonache et al. (2017) further this notion by claiming that past research has been more business focused on producing "best practice" results and, thus results were frequently "context free" with regards to globally mobile individuals (Altman & Baruch, 2012). As one of the main contributions of the current study, all facets of migration success were covered in multiple ways. This is important, as global mobility in its infancy, has mainly been dominated by simplistic measures with regards to outcome variables, which usually tied to organisational related outcomes variables (Altman & Baruch, 2012), such as adjustment, performance, short-term return on investment, etc. (McNulty, De Cieri & Hutchings, 2009). This is no longer the case, as more recent studies are increasingly not only becoming more complex from a theoretical standpoint, but also with regards to the outcome variables measured (Brewster, Bonache, Cerdin & Suutari, 2014; McNulty & De Cieri, 2016; Baruch, Altman & Tung, 2016). Thus, the development of effective outcome variables has increased in importance (Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007).

As illustrated by figure 3 below (and previously in the literature review) the outcome variables within this study have been separated as to mirror the respective framework. Thus, there are four main over-riding success types including subjective personal success, objective personal success, subjective professional success, as well as objective professional success.

The subjective-personal quadrant includes life-satisfaction and Met (life) expectations. While, the met (career) expectations, as well as career success and job satisfaction are located within the subjective Workplace and career quadrant. The reason for career success being located in this particular area, is because the chosen variable measures the *satisfaction* of career progress, rather than *actual* progress, which from an objective perspective would be measured, for example, via upward career progression or an increase in salary. In addition to the previous variables, organisational based self-esteem, or an individual feeling of self-worth in relation to their position within the organisation, is located in this quadrant, as well. From an objective personal life perspective, integration can be said to be an objective perspective, since it is one

of the goals of the British Government with regards to different cultures (including migrants; HM Home Office, 2019). Thus, this mediating variable of becoming integrated within society is indeed also an outcome variable identified by the government and can thus be categorised as objective target within the personal life domain. Host country community embeddedness, despite being measured using self-reporting scale, is an additional objective-outcome variables, for similar reasons as integration. The career aspect of the latter variable however, due to its career orientation, is categorised accordingly in the objective, work-life embeddedness quadrant, as organisations aim at embedding all of their employees into their organisation, as well as rendering organisational commitment from their employees. A further self-reporting item, which is an objective goal of most organisations, is organisational commitment, i.e. retaining their employees and reducing attrition (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Guzzo et al., 1994; Hong et al., 2016).

	Subjective	Objective
Personal Life Domain	Life satisfaction Met (Life) Expectations	Host Country Embeddedness (Community) Integration
Workplace / Career	Met (Career) Expectations Job Satisfaction Career Satisfaction Organisational based self-esteem	Host Country Embeddedness (Career) Organizational Commitment

Figure 3: Migration Success – Adopted from Hajro, Stahl, Clegg & Lazarova (2019)

The categorisation of the respective variables into the respective framework will not only allow to address the question of what constitutes success, but also allows a general overview as to heterogeneity of outcome variables, which stresses the necessity to utilise more than just one outcome variable which has previously been the case within global mobility, e.g. adjustment, performance, etc. (e.g. Black, 1992; Black et al., 1991; Okpara & Kabongo, 2011; Okpara, 2016). Finally, this will allow to test the second research question effectively and by doing so either prove or disprove respective hypotheses.

4.9.2.5. Demographics

A host of **individual demographics** were compiled in order to allow a sufficient level of analysis later on. Some variables were very common (e.g. gender, age, religion, nationality, marital status, level of highest qualification, etc.), while others were more research-niche specific (e.g. country of origin, number of countries previously visited, partner's country of origin, age when entering current country of residence, refugee/asylum seeker status upon arrival, spouse/partner's country of residence, as well as the aforementioned language affinity). The total list of measured individual demographic variables can be found in Appendix 13. The importance of including so many control variables, is to reflect the current trend of analysis within the global mobility literature. For example, there is an upcoming trend in demarcating between male and female SIEs, as results are suggesting a difference in ease of adjustment between these two groups of individuals (Cole, 2011; Bader, Froese & Kraeh, 2018). Furthermore, previous international experience is said to change the outcome variables of expatriate assignments (Briscoe, 2014; Alshahrani & Morley, 2015). Due to the overlapping nature of migration with expatriation this could be the case for migrants, as well.

A number of **organisational demographic** variables were also measured, including the respective sector (private or public organisations), supervisor's nationality, size of the organisation (measured using approximate number of employees), as well as the organisations working language were also measured (Appendix 13 for more details). An overview of all variables and their sources are illustrated in table format in Appendix 13.

4.10. Methodology Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the key theoretical principles behind research philosophy and research design. After illustrating the key reasons *why* the specific choice of methodology was chosen, the key principles behind the questionnaire design were followed to create the ultimate questionnaire (see Appendix 15 for "hard" copy of questionnaire). All individual scales were outlined accordingly, and changes highlighted. The *perceived host country ethnocentrism* short scale was devised, based on the literature. Finally, outcome variables were assorted to the respective dimensions. Thus, illustrating the holistic nature of outcome variables selected.

5. Pre-Analysis and Operational Information

5.1. Pre-Analysis Introduction

Before commencing the main data analysis, a series of pre-tests should be executed in order to ensure the research instrument is appropriate and renders the appropriate accuracy of measurement. This section will go through some key stages of pre-analysis, including initial pilot testing and rendering face-validity. Then the respective sampling strategies of the current study, sample size, distribution strategy used to attain response rates, as well as reporting the response rate itself, will be outlined. Finally, initial statistical analysis were carried out, including data screening, missing data, outlier analysis, as well as the normality analysis of variables. These form the base of the main analysis in the next section.

5.2. Mini-Pilot: Completion Timeframe Testing

In order to calculate the amount of time it took to fill in the questionnaire, a small sample of six participants were selected to carry out a mini-pilot before the pilot study, in order to check the time it would take to carry out the questionnaire, as well as give qualitative feedback on items within the questionnaire. These individuals were recruited using the researcher's personal network and they all met the general selection criteria, as to what constitutes an international skilled migrant. The questionnaires took 25, 45, 40, 35, 25 and 20 minutes, respectively, which averages out to approximately 31.66' minutes (or 31:40).

In addition, participants were also asked to comment on any items which they thought were difficult to understand. In this way, some changes were made, such as adding options to the response scale, where a particular question was inapplicable to the particular respondent. This was the case for the family role adjustment scale, which was adopted from Shaffer et al. (2016). Since not all migrants may have immediate family and therefore family life to adjust to when in their host country, a "non-applicable" option was added to the response scale. A further example of how this influenced the questionnaire was for example the use of certain words which seemed too sophisticated. All words which were too complicated were changed accordingly. This is an extremely important task, since the targeted population may not be able to speak English at a high level, which could lead to inaccurate results (O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015).

5.3. Pilot Study

After investing as much rigor as possible into the pre-pilot study phase, the main pilot-study was carried out. Pilot studies are an essential part of any newly created questionnaire or scale (O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015). Within this pilot study, key variables' reliability was tested. Altogether 51 participants were recruited in this initial stage, which as past research has used similar sample sizes for pilot studies, would suggest an appropriate initial sample (e.g. Birur & Muthiah, 2013). Since some minor changes were made to the questionnaire, after the respective pilot (e.g. order of items), the respective data was not utilised for the main study. After receiving feedback from potential participants, which led to subsequent changes of the instrument, expert Feedback was sought from World-leading scholars.

5.4. Expert Feedback – Rendering (Further) Face Validity

In addition to basing some aspects of the questionnaire on the literature, expert feedback from third-party academics was sought in order to receive appropriate feedback and improve the quality of the questionnaire. The feedback received, flowed back into the questionnaire, which was only determined as "finalised" once no more feedback was received. Of the 12 experts asked to provide feedback, 8 responded with a variety of different feedback points.

5.5. Drawbacks to the Questionnaire – A pragmatic dilemma

One major drawback to the questionnaire in general, was the fact that it included a lot of items. This made the questionnaire extremely long (i.e. 201 items). The time to fill in the questionnaire was tested before the main data collection process took place. Being rather long, this was a main drawback of the current study as it may have had an influence on the potential data collected (Hair et al., 2020; Saunders et al., 2016). Since people took part on a voluntary basis, not everyone may have been willing to spend their time on the questionnaire, which means that this can have a severe impact on the response rate (i.e. the number of questionnaires returned).

The JISC Online Survey service offered and used by Brunel University London, has the ability to track where people are currently at in terms of the questionnaire (see Appendix 14). While it is not possible to track the exact person, it does give an indication of how many people completed the whole questionnaire, versus the people who only completed a certain number of questions. The practical dilemma that long questionnaires lead to lower response

rates was supported in this case, as a total of 351 people started the questionnaire at some point and then prematurely stopped. While it is not possible to see who actually started at what time, it is possible to see a general overview of the participants' progress within the survey. Perhaps, because they noticed that the questionnaire was too long, and they could not be bothered to complete the rest of the questionnaire. Thus, one negative aspect of this particular form of data collection was the length of the questionnaire as it severely reduced the response rate. The completion rate of the questionnaire alone illustrated issues which rests at approximately 40%. Clearly, the effects of survey fatigue had a major influence on the data collection process.

5.6. Sampling Method(s)

ISMs are a very specific population of individuals which may differ somewhat from other types of international mobility. Unlike the UN who coarsely define migrants as individuals who live outside of their home country (IOM, 2019), the selection criteria above illustrates a more fine-grained classification, which suggests an answer to the call for more *clean* data when researching populations in international mobility (Tharenou, 2015; McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Andresen et al., 2014; Hajro et al., 2019; Baruch et al., 2016). While this is clearly a step forward from past research, it also creates new hurdles, as the sampling of the suggested population becomes more difficult. Indeed, past global mobility research has previously voiced concerns over the difficulties on gaining access to respective target populations (Brewster, Bonache, Cerdin & Suutari, 2014). Thus, in order to gain access to this very specific group within the limited timeframe within the current research endeavour, the most appropriate sampling methods include *systematic-*, *convenience-,* as well as *snowball-*sampling. While the first can be categorised as probability sampling, the latter two can be categorised under the general category of non-probability sampling. In addition to using more convenient based sampling strategies, systematic sampling was implemented during the main data collection (i.e. not for the pilot study).

5.6.1. Non-Probability Sampling

Non-probability (or non-random sampling) techniques which are frequently used in business research. More specifically, they are used when a complete sample frame (i.e. a large proportion of a targeted population) is not available, or if there are other constrictions to the research itself, e.g. time-limited. Since there is an extremely time-limited nature surrounding

this current project, certain aspects of non-probability sampling were required in order to make use of the allocated time.

Convenience sampling, is relatively self-explanatory, where the sample is readily available to the researcher in terms of accessibility (Bryman & Bell, 2015, p. 201), e.g. where a sociologist researching social class impact on work and private life chooses to start the respective research at the local rugby club of which he or she is a member. The drawbacks include the inability to generalise the findings to due sampling bias, as the sample may not be representative of the target population as a whole. The benefits of this type of sampling are the readily availability and accessibility of data, as well as higher response rates. In addition, this particular sampling method is good when executing pilot studies or initial studies to validate a questionnaire. Since this is a main research outcome (develop a questionnaire which aids the understanding of ISMs), this sampling method seems highly appropriate, especially for the pilot study of the questionnaire (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Finally, since global mobility literature has identified the difficulties with sampling groups of individuals, as they are not always accessible, this form of data collection is a good place to start (Arman & Aycan, 2013).

Snowball-sampling on the other hand is a "technique in which the researcher makes initial contact with a small group of people who are relevant to the research topic and then uses these to establish contacts with others" (Bryman & Bell, 2015, p. 728). Essentially, this enhances the research, such that the negative aspects of simply using convenience sampling are mediated through using participants' network in order to attain more generalizable findings. This is illustrated in the cover letter of the main questionnaire, where the following statement was added: "If you have any friends or colleagues who are immigrants to the UK and may be interested in taking part, please forward the invitation email to them". In addition, the conveniently sampled participants were also asked whether they know anyone who may be interested in taking part in the study. Referred candidates were then asked the same question, and so on. While there are some drawbacks illustrated in the literature with regards to this particular type of sampling technique (i.e. it is reliant on other people's networks) it is still common practice (e.g. Al Ariss, 2014).

5.6.2. Probability Sampling

Systematic Sampling is a form of probability sampling (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012) and is frequently associated with survey-based research. Since the general sample has been identified (i.e. based on the provided definition of a skilled migrant), according to

Saunders et al. (2012), the next phase is to select a frame. Since it is almost impossible to obtain a complete list of *all* skilled migrants in the UK without breaching current GDPR regulations, the systematic nature of this study made use of Facebook groups of various groups of nationalities.

By using a list of countries used for coding, groups from every country in the world were identified, by entering the name of the country or Demonyms (i.e. "Germany" or "Germans") followed by either "in the UK" or "in London" (other cities, such as Birmingham, Edinburgh were also entered). By doing this 116 groups were identified on Facebook containing an initial sample population of 780,706 people (i.e. the sample frame; Saunders et al., 2012). Some groups were closed (meaning one must be accepted by group administrators in order to enter), others were free to enter. In most cases, questions were asked, for example "are you American?". Where these questions did not apply to the researcher, as short synopsis of the research was given to the administrators of the groups. Since it is impossible to post in these groups without consent of the respect group administrators, all ethical measures were met. In some instances, all posts must be assessed and confirmed by group administrators before they are published. Again, since the administrators confirmed the posts, nothing was posted in the respective groups before permission was given.

While a certain city was entered as search term in order to find the groups, it became apparent while posting in groups of the same nationalities in different locations (e.g. Kiwis in Edinburgh and Kiwis in London), that many people did not actually live in the respective city, but in a different city, which illustrates the respective diversity which these groups have (i.e. sampling throughout the UK, rather than just London).

Considering that the number of individuals who are not born in the UK reaches approximately 9.3 million people (Office for national Statistics, 2019), it is safe to say that a large proportion of the potential migrant population was addressed (approximately 8.39% to be more exact) through contacting these groups. While not all of these people can be considered skilled nor migrants using the demarcation discussed above, the next step was to use the aforementioned questions during the sampling process. This allowed for an effective manner to sample this very niche population sample, which suggests a higher level of generalisability, as opposed to just using convenience and snowballing.

Furthermore, since people also had the opportunity to ask questions (for example whether they qualify due to extenuating circumstances), this method also proved extremely effective in communicating with the respective skilled migrant groups. As responses could be discussed privately (via the direct messaging service) or publicly. This also helped to create

somewhat of a FAQ (frequently asked questions) section, whereby other individuals could read the responses and did not need to ask the questions themselves. Due to the very systematic nature and large identified target population, this method naturally received the highest number of responses. Finally, snowball sampling was also created through this particular method, as even those who considered themselves self-initiated expatriates (identified by the researcher), would forward the questionnaire link to friends and family.

This form of data collection is innovative and widely accepted by the literature with more and more studies making use of social media to recruit accurate and balanced samples (e.g. Bader, Raede & Froese, 2019; Bader, Froese & Kraeh, 2018). Since this method did not require the use of a specific employing organisation, it also allows for the sample to be alleviated from potential bias which would have the case if, for example, a (multiple) case study approach was utilised (Andresen, Biemann & Pattie, 2015), i.e. if the data was collected from a single or multiple organisations (Bell et al., 2019). Cao et al. (2013), studying the positive effects of SIEs' protean career attitudes, used InterNations, a social networking site targeted at connecting expatriates, to collect a smaller number of partcipants (nine or 14%). Similarly, in their study on expatriates being exposed to the threat of terrorism, Bader, Raede & Froese (2019) recently made use of InterNations, LinkedIn and Xing (the DACH-market equivalent to LinkedIn) to identify their whole sample (n = 160). Thus, indicating the ease of captivating an appropriate sample.

While this particular approach brings with it many benefits with regards to accessing respective participants and therefore data in a very time- and cost-effective manner (Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011; Aman & Aycan, 2013), it also brings with it couple of negative aspects: a certain level of bias towards those people who are (a) willing to engage within the study out of their own ignition and (b) those people who use the given platforms (i.e. Facebook; Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011). The former is a common issue with regards to bias. However, at the same time, it is most important that all people are participating on their own free-will in order to uphold ethical standards. The latter on the other hand, is negated through the fact that a multiple sampling approach was undertaken (including sampling individuals through personal networks who were not necessarily in the groups identified on Facebook), which in concert could be considered as appropriate in reducing the amount of bias which could be involved.

5.7. Total Sample Size

While the UK government does have statistics relating to the type of work an immigrant may take up, or the number of skilled migrant visas which have been given to non-EU members (i.e. Tier 2 visas), this does not mean that these numbers really reflect the number of skilled migrants within a population. For example, while there are statistics on the number of people working in managerial roles within the UK (Rienzo, 2018), it does not account for those who are underemployed: a frequent occurrence, as previously discussed in the literature review (Al Ariss & Ozbilgin, 2010). Thus, it is impossible to truly identify the sample size of individuals who are skilled migrants and who are working within the UK. As a "rule of thumb" as suggested by Saunders et al. (2012), the general principle of *the more the merrier* will be followed. Thus, following the *law of large numbers* (Saunders et al., 2012).

While there are some drawbacks to the initial aforementioned sampling methods, they seem to be the most appropriate to collect a large amount of data in a limited time-period. This was vital in order to validate the questionnaire in a timely manner. Especially, since the researcher had a limited amount of time in order to carry out the overall research project (i.e. the time of a doctoral program). In addition, as illustrated in the literature review (see section 2.2.3.2. on Social Identity Theory, as well as section 2.4.2. on acculturation strategies) migrants often maintain contact to their culture of origin, as this is the culture with which they identify themselves with (Berry, 1997; 2005, 2008; Hajro et al., 2019). Thus, they are likely (unless assimilated) to be potential gatekeeper and provide access to larger groups of individuals from a similar cultural background. So long as the sampled group does not become lob-sided (i.e. only researching individual from the Middle-East for example) and includes ISMs from a plethora of different cultures, then this sampling method can be seen as extremely useful way of gaining access to a heterogeneous group of individuals within a constrained time-frame. Finally, by extending two non-probability sampling strategies by using a more systematic cluster sampling technique (i.e. using social media to contact skilled migrants), a certain level of external validity and generalisability was rendered. This allowed for the ability to collect a substantial sample size of an extremely niche market, which will be discussed in the data analysis section in more detail.

Thus, the first stage (i.e. the pilot study as well as the initial stages of data collection) of the convenience, snowball sampling approach taken, took place via personal contacts at Brunel University London, as well as through personal contacts. Here, social media, such as Facebook and Instagram aided the connection to the first line of participants. Similarly, the researcher's professional network was tapped into with the aid of LinkedIn. After all leads were

exhausted in the researcher's personal network, the systematic sampling techniques were taken over, as described above.

5.8. Questionnaire Distribution Channels

Questionnaires were distributed using different mediums including online survey sampling (e-)mail-based distribution, internal company mail distribution, and finally, personally distributing hard and soft copies of the questionnaires. Allowing for more flexible response channels. In total 55 "hard" copies (including virtual hard copies) were collected personally, by email and via the post. Finally, 211 were collected via the online version. This resulted in 266 questionnaire responses in total.

While 266 responses may seem low at first, one must take into account that (a) the size of the total target population is actually unknown and (b) the difficulties in collecting data within the field of global mobility (Brewster, Bonache, Cerdin & Suutari, 2014). The former can be explained by the aforementioned issues with regards to who can be classified as skilled migrants versus other forms of global mobility. Since only recently, the literature has slowly seemed to come together with regards to a consensus, the public has not. Thus, while official sources may suggest that there are over 9.3 million migrants within the UK, since they may also include SIEs or even AEs within this statistic, it is difficult to identify the real overall figure, and therefore the "appropriate" number of respondents for the current study. Typically, past studies within the adjacent field of expatriation, have rarely exceeding more than 300 responses (e.g. Cao et al., 2013; Bader et al., 2019; Andresen, et al., 2015; Arman & Aycan, 2013; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Birur & Muthiah, 2013; Bruning, Sonpar & Wang, 2012, Wurtz, 2014). Exceptions do exist (e.g. Selmer & Lauring, 2012, Varma et al., 2011; Shi & Franklin, 2014), however they remain outliers. Thus, illustrating that it has been difficult to identify and captivate respective individuals within a given sample population.

5.9. Response Rate

From the online questionnaire service tool, it was possible to identify how many people viewed the questionnaire and how many people started the questionnaire. Altogether 1267 viewed the questionnaire, while 569 started the questionnaire (see appendix 14). This represents a response rate of around 44.9% from those who started the questionnaire and around 16.7% who finished the questionnaire. The reason for the low response rate could be two-fold.

First of all, a frequent comment by participants was that the questionnaire was too long (see previous section). Secondly, people did mention that they were willing to share the questionnaire with their friends and family (i.e. snowballing). Upon reading the introduction to the questionnaire (i.e. page 1; see appendix 15) people could have noticed that the questionnaire is not directed at them and thus decided not to fill in the questionnaire.

5.10. Screening

When screening the data, IBM SPSS 23 was used and the descriptive statistics as well as the frequencies were computed, as suggested by Tabachnick & Fidell (2013). Within this phase of screening, initial statistics were calculated to aid the process, e.g. ranges of response, means, standard deviations, etc. All items were within the given ranges or categories previously coded, the means and standard deviations "made sense" (Pallant, 2016) and missing data was coded accordingly (i.e. "9999"). If an error was found, e.g. the option "6 = I don't know" was selected, but not coded accordingly within the "variable view" section, the corrections were made accordingly and the tests were run again, until no errors could be identified in this initial phase.

5.11. Missing Data

"Missing data is one of the most pervasive problems in data analysis" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p.62) and it can have a detrimental impact on the results if not treated accordingly (Pallant, 2016). Thus, missing responses were examined before further data analysis was carried out. While the number of missing responses was kept at a minimum through ensuring that all online questions were mandatory, there were some variables where this was not an option, for example, when participants could choose "non-applicable" or "I don't know" for questions where they may have no knowledge of organisational processes (such as Climate for Inclusion or Diversity Climate). For the hard-copies (or virtual hard copies, i.e. PDFs/Docx-responses) this was obviously not an option, so there were some assumingly random cases where data was missing. While some of these missing values could be attained through following up with the responses (most of these responses were personal acquaintances), some still remained unanswered. In an optimal case, there should be no more than 5% of missing responses for any given item. In addition, if the cases are missing completely at random, then there is an extremely low effect on the subsequent analysis. In order to identify this particular

aspect, Little's MCAR test was conducted using IBM SPSS 23's Missing Value Analysis. In order to ensure that the missing data collected was missing completely at random (i.e. MCAR), the attained significance score within this test has to be insignificant (i.e. >.05). In this case, the p-value was .315. Thus, indicating that the missing variables were indeed completely at random.

For most of the variables within the study no missing variables were identified. For all variables which had the option "don't know" or "not applicable" (e.g. the family adjustment scales), the deleted data has meaning, and thus were kept as coded "missing data". A specific example of this is item 25_14, which asks the respondents whether they have children. If they answer no, then they can, for example, not be primary care-givers, list the age of the respective children, etc. Thus, the data has meaning. This can potentially be used for future analysis.

5.12. Outlier Analysis

Before conducting a normality analysis, it is important to test for outliers. Outliers are values which deviate severely from the general norm within a given data-set. The importance of identifying these, is because they can have a detrimental effect on further data analysis as they may, for example, distort respective statistics (e.g. the mean value). This can then lead to Type I, as well as Type II errors within the statistical analysis (Pallant, 2016; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2016).

Outlier analysis is the process of identifying individual variables with extreme case-values. There are various methods of doing so, including graphical representations (such as histograms, boxplots, etc.), as well as statistical methods. The simplest form of looking for outliers, is when looking at the aforementioned descriptive statistics during the screening process, i.e. are there any error values (i.e. mistyped values or values non-coded missing variables, which should be coded as "9999"). After this it is about identifying the extreme cases within the cases which have no errors. A convenient method of doing so is using similar graphical methods, which were also used to test for normality, i.e. histograms and Boxplots.

Using a variable as an example (i.e. figures 4), graphical outlier analyses were carried out. First of all, when looking at the histogram one can see a "tail" which is far removed from the main group of tails to the left. This indicates that these values may be outliers (highlighted by the red box). Furthermore, boxplots are frequently used to identify outliers and, most importantly, extreme values (e.g. highlighted in box-plot A by the red-dotted box).

In order to evaluate the impact which outliers and extreme values may have on the respective statistic, having a look at the 5% *trimmed mean* can be useful. When calculating this statistic, the bottom, as well as the top 5% of the sample are eliminated, creating an adjusted mean. This statistic thus indicates the extent to which the extreme value(s) distort the mean of the overall statistic. This is done by comparing it with the original mean value. The lower the distance between the original mean and the newly created trimmed mean, the lower the impact that extreme responses have. The difference between the chosen example-variable' mean and trimmed-mean is minimal (e.g. work role adjustment: *m = 23.13* and *trimmed-m = 23.24*). Thus, suggesting that the previously identified outliers have no major impact on the given result.

In essence, it is at the discretion of the given researcher as to which cases are deleted based on the grounds of an outlier analysis. With the exception of case 26, no one single participant's responses could be considered extreme. Participant 26 was also a "repeat offender" with regards to having not only an extreme response for work role adjustment, but also having three further aggregated responses which were considered outliers. A further indicator is suggested by Tebachnick and Fidell (2013), who propose that the use of *z*-scores can be of help with regards to identifying outliers. Z-scores are the number of standard deviations a given response is away from the mean response, whereby ±3.29 is used as cut-off point. That said, they also suggest that with an increase in sample size, there may be an increase in number of responses above said cut-off point. When looking at participant 26, the z-score was clearly over the cut-off point (*z = -4.37*) and was therefore deleted. The same procedure was carried out for all other variables. With no further extreme cases being identified for expulsion from the study.
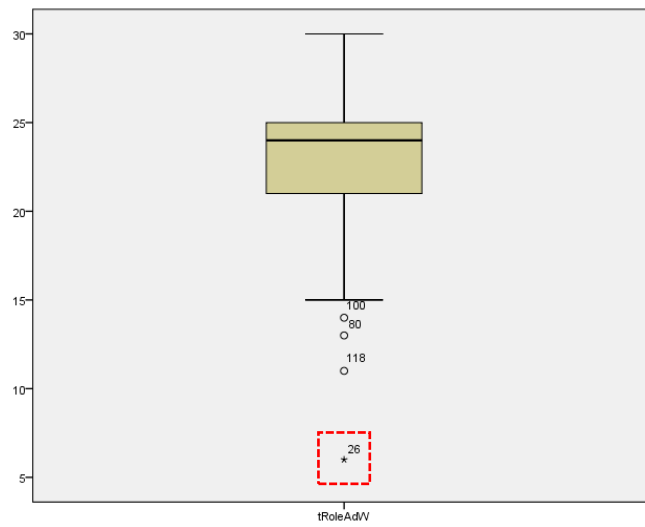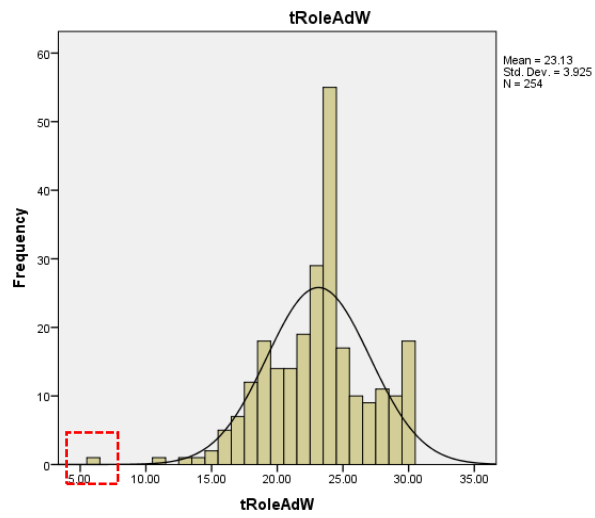
(Case 26 Work Role Adjustment z-score = -4.37)
Figure 4: Outlier identification – Work Role Adjustment (Histogram and Boxplot)

5.13. Normality

Testing for normality within a dataset is the process of checking whether the data which is in the sample is normally distributed on the dependent variables. This has an impact on (a) how descriptive statistics should be reported and (b) which tests will follow if using given variables, i.e. parametric or non-parametric.

5.13.1. Multivariate Sample Normality Testing

Normality is the extent to which collected data is normally distribution around the mean, frequently represented by a classical bell-curve or when mean and media align (Maylor & Blackmond, 2005). Frequently, the choice of statistical analysis is determined on whether there is a normal distribution. When a response distribution on a given scale is normally distributed, parametric tests are suitable for further analysis. If the responses are unevenly distributed, then the likelihood of rendering inferable results is reduced substantially, making non-parametric statistical methods of examination more appropriate (Maylor & Blackmond, 2005). There are several methods which one can utilise in order to test for normality, including graphical, as well as statistical approaches (Tebachnick & Fidell, 2013).

From a statistical perspective, skewness and kurtosis scores are frequently applied. While skewness is used to observe the symmetry of a given distribution, i.e. the extent to which the distribution is centred on the mean, kurtosis refers to the "peakedness" of the given distribution (Hair et al., 2020). In general, a sample measuring along a given scale is said to be normally distributed at the point of zero for both statistical tests, while both variables have general cut-off points of ± 2.58 (Hair et al., 2010). In this respect, all variables fell within the given cut-off ranges. Thus, suggesting a normal distribution (see Appendix 16). Table 38 below, indicates the respective skewness and kurtosis statistics for three chosen example variables, which will be further used throughout this section.

		tSatLife	tMetExpWORK	tMetExpLIFE
N	Valid	253	238	241
	Missing	0	15	12
Mean		16.9427	9.6681	10.2573
Median		17.0000	10.0000	11.0000
Mode		15.00	11.00	12.00
Std. Deviation		3.79140	2.91423	2.65679
Skewness		-.534	-.269	-.410
Std. Error of Skewness		.153	.158	.157
Kurtosis		.755	-.691	-.397
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.305	.314	.312
Minimum		5.00	3.00	3.00
Maximum		25.00	15.00	15.00

Table 38: Descriptive Statistics for four example normality checks.

In addition, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were carried out. However, barely any of the dependent variables managed to achieve insignificance, meaning that most variables failed the test. This is, however, not atypical for larger sample sizes and thus further tests for normality were utilised.

In addition to general statistical indicators, graphical aids can be rendered which not only help to identify the normality of distribution, but also the potential outliers within a given sample. Histograms are useful, as they are visualisations of the distributions, whereby at skewness and kurtosis scores of 0, the perfect distribution is represented by a smooth bell-curve. As illustrated by figure 5 below, where skewness is either positive or negative the curve shifts either to the left (i.e. positively skewed) or to the right (negatively skewed).
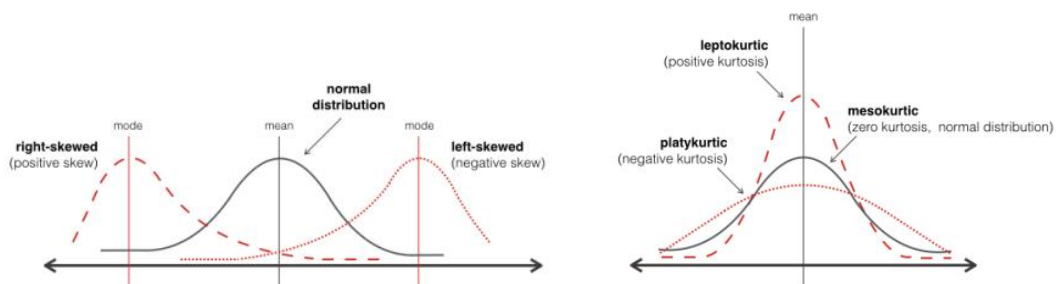
Figure 5: The impact of skewness (Versionone, 2019)

As discussed previously, kurtosis represents the peakedness of the distributed bell-curve. Figure 5 illustrates the impact which kurtosis has on the distribution of a given dependent variable. A positive kurtosis value suggests a leptokurtic curve, while a platykurtic curve suggests a relatively flat distribution (Hair et al., 2020).

A further graphical method of analysis is the distribution of data versus the expected normal distribution, which created a so-called Normal Q-Q plot. When looking at a respective Q-Q plot, normal distribution is represented by all values being in a relative straight line. In addition, detrended Q-Q plots can be utilised, whereby the given values are plotted against the respective straight line. A normal distribution using this method is achieved when observing no major clustering of points with most of the given points "collecting around the zero line" (Pallant, 2016).

Figure 6: Life Satisfaction (Total) – Histogram, Detrended and Normal Q-Q Plot, as well as Boxplot **A**
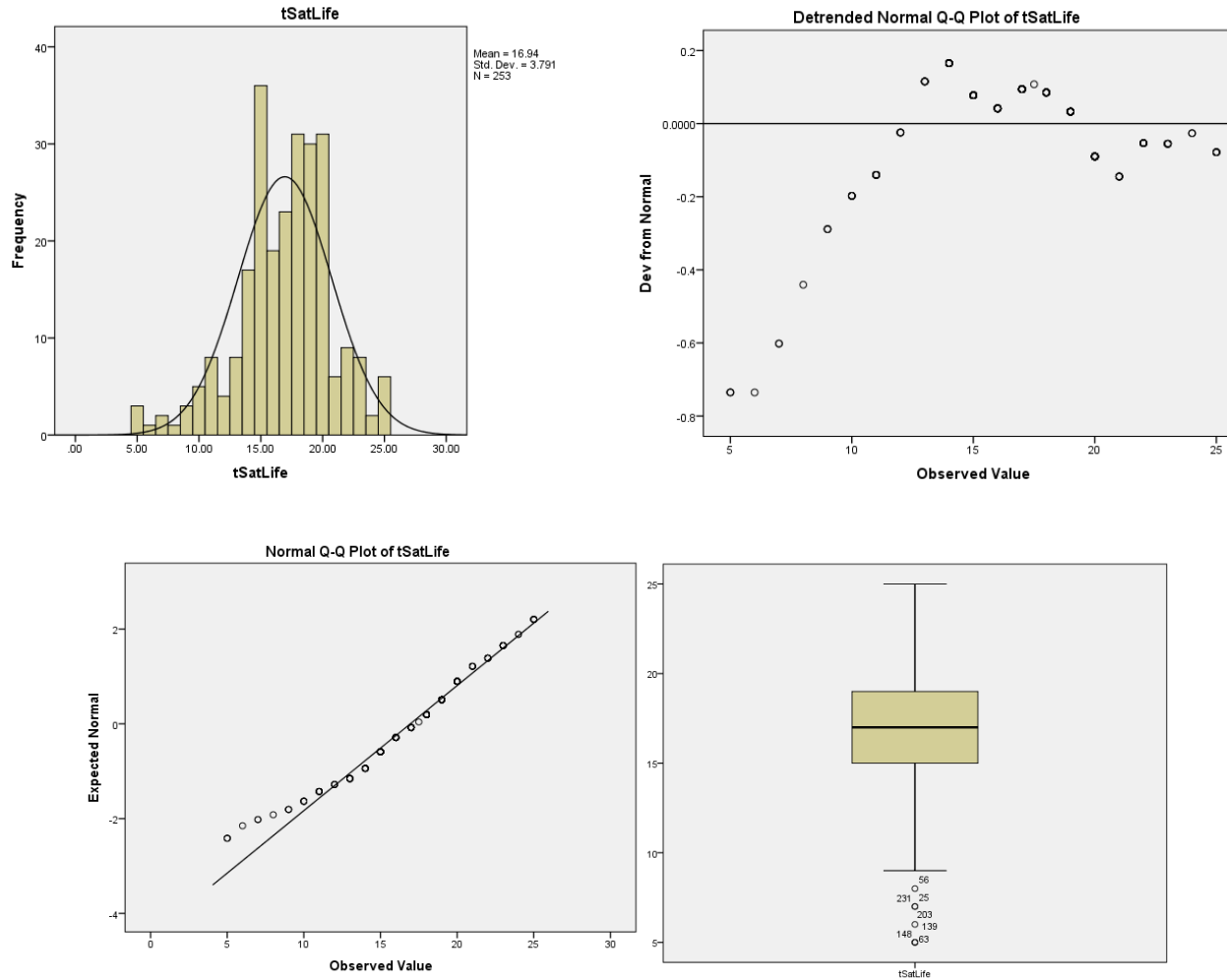
Figure 7: Met Life Expectations (Total) – Histogram, Detrended and Normal Q-Q Plot, as well as Boxplot **B**
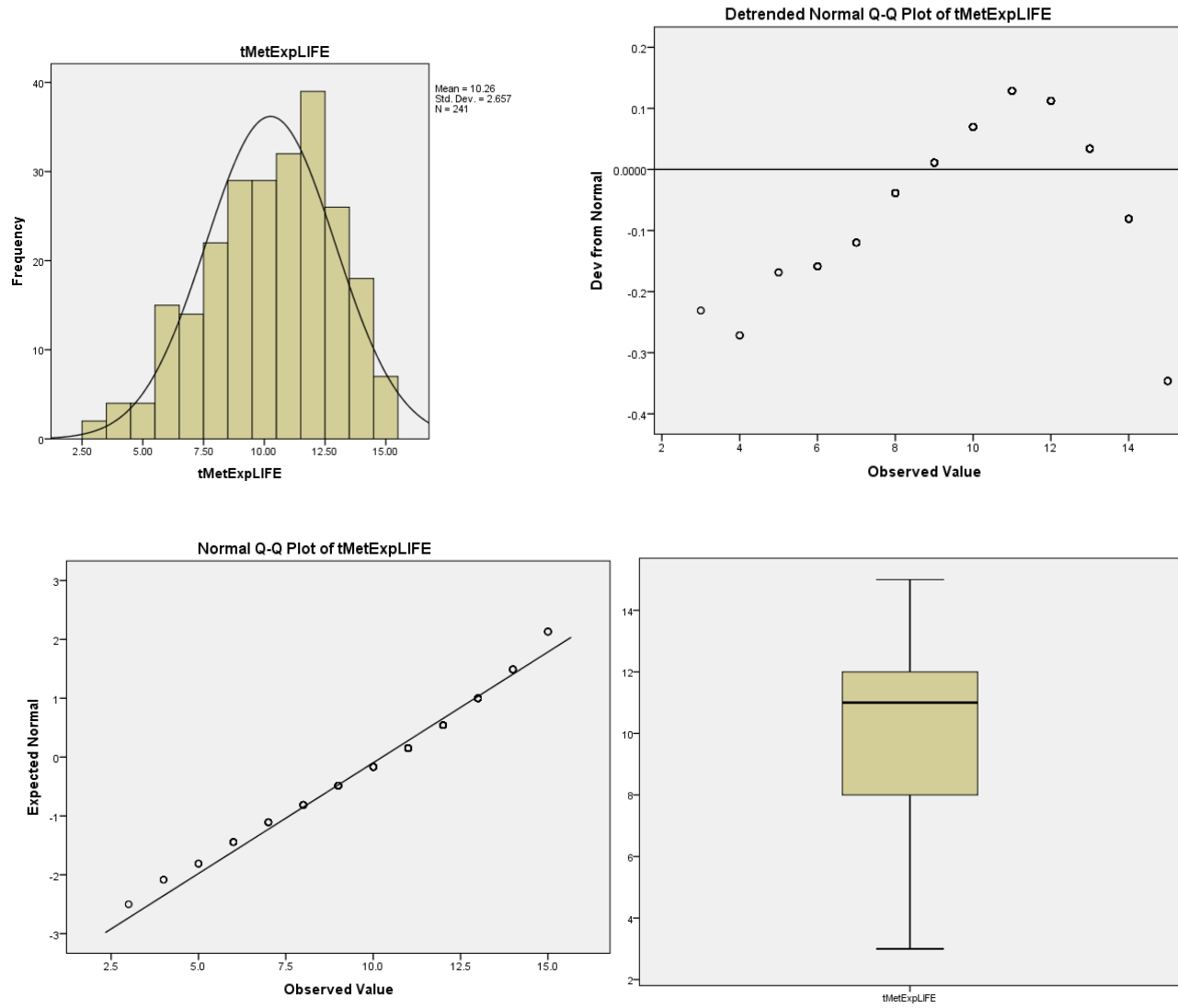
Figure 8: Met Work Expectations (Total) – Histogram, Detrended and Normal Q-Q Plot, as well as Boxplot **C**
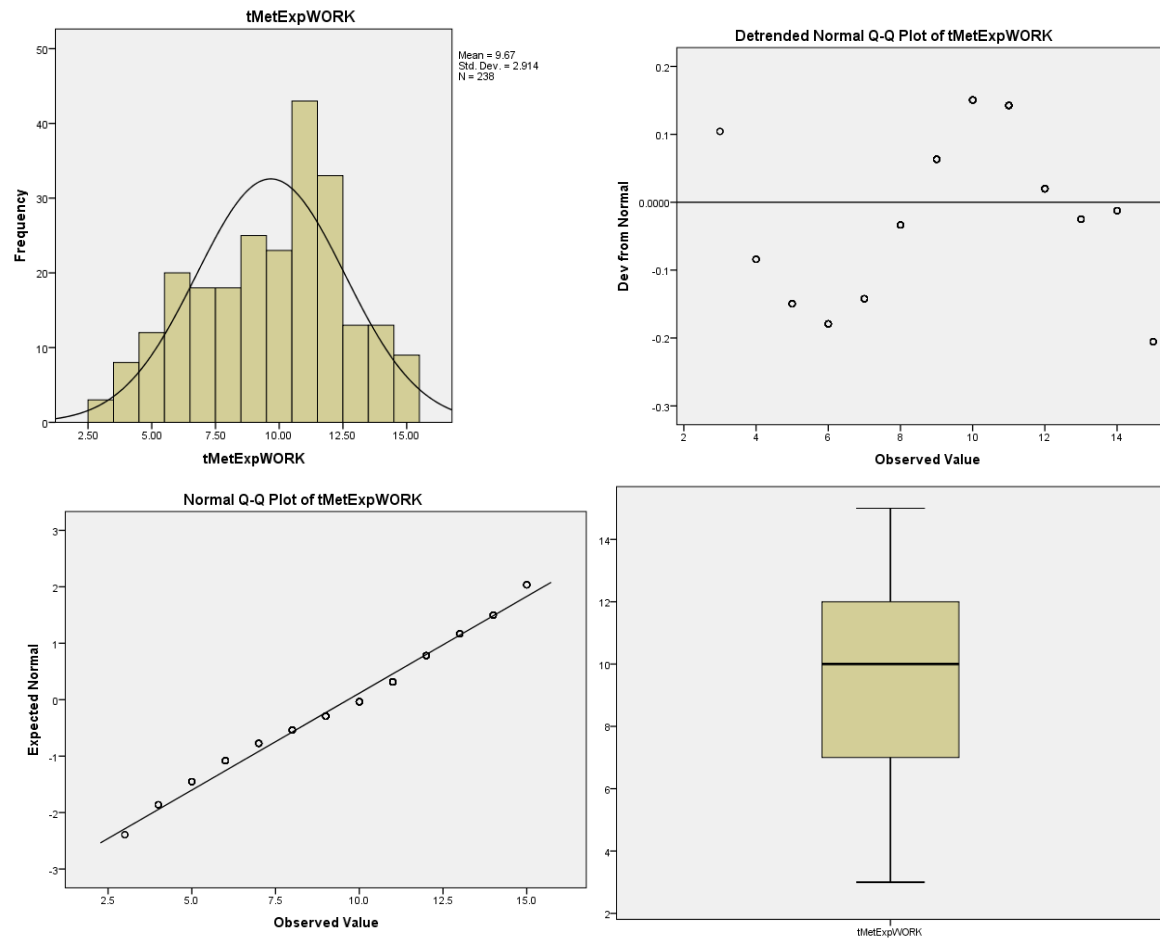
Above are the four examples selected, which illustrate the various aforementioned theoretical concepts. Firstly, the various impacts of skewness and kurtosis variables are observable in the rendered histograms. For example, histograms A (S =-.534), B (S =-.410) and C (S =-.269) have negative skewness values (Figure 6, 7 and 8, respectively). Histogram A has the highest skewness value, which has led to the greatest observable shift to the "right", while histogram C has the lowest value, which has led to a relatively centred bell-curve.

The effect of a positive kurtosis can be observed in the cases of histogram A. Clearly, histogram A has a higher positive kurtosis value (K = .755), which is clearly illustrated by the long tails, which are often discussed in the literature (Pallant, 2016; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Maylor and Blackmond, 2005). Histograms B and C on the other hand, illustrate negative kurtosis values, which leads to more shallow or flat curves (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thus, the peakedness of histogram C is relatively flat (K = -.691), while histogram B is also flat (K = -.397), however clearly not as flat as the former histogram.

The aforementioned examples illustrate how skewness and kurtosis values change the visual depiction of normality of distribution on the respective histograms. Despite the respective changes, i.e. shifts for skewness and changes in peakedness for the kurtosis values, all of the variables illustrate acceptable bell-curve shapes. Thus, supporting the claim for normality of distribution. This was the case for all other variables in the study.

The next tests for normality are illustrated by the detrended normal Q-Q plots, as well as the normal Q-Q plots. As is the case for all of the plots, all of the values represent a relative straight line, i.e. illustrating a normal distribution. Furthermore, when observing the respective detrended normal Q-Q plots, normality is depicted by a lack of majorly clustered values, with most of the values collecting around the respective zero-line (Pallant, 2016). When observing the four variables selected as examples, both tests were successful, suggesting that the variables are normally distributed.

Several tests were run to identify whether the given responses on the dependent variables could be considered normally distributed. All the skewness and kurtosis values were within ±2.58. However, barely any of the variables passed tests of normality in terms of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. Thus, further graphical tests, including histograms, normal Q-Q plots, as well as detrended normal Q-Q plots, were created. All graphical tests indicated normality of distribution. Thus, supporting Tabachnick & Fidell's (2013) claim that when executing analyses with larger sample sizes, the traditional tests for normality can render false results. The tests for normality which were performed in this section,

were also carried out on all other dependent variables. All results from the respective tests indicated normal distribution (see Appendices 16 for the respective tables and graphs).

6. Main Data Analysis - Part I

6.1. Introduction

This section is designated to the first part of the main analysis. It will discuss the key processes surrounding exploratory, as well as confirmatory factor analyses, which are used in the pursuit of confirming reliability, as well as construct validity. In essence, rendering reliability, as well as convergent and diversity validity are the extent to which a given scale and its individual items measures what it is supposed to, while not overlapping with over conceptual constructs (Hair et al., 2010).

6.2. Reliability

Internal Reliability within a scale refers to whether any given scale is measuring the same underlying construct (Pallant, 2016). Since the reliability of a given scale can be dependent on the sample it is measuring, it becomes important to test for reliability for all scales. This can be done in two ways. Firstly, probably the most popular option, is to calculate the alpha Cronbach value (α). Although frequently criticised for underestimating true reliability, this will be used as a starting point. A second methods is using a composite reliability test. In general, an alpha Cronbach value above 0.7 is deemed acceptable in terms of internal consistency, whereby the closer a scale measures to 1, the better (Hair et al., 2020).

As depicted in Table 39 below, all scales past the cut-off point of 0.7, indicating sufficient internal reliability. There was one exception: met family expectations only attained an alpha Cronbach score of .664. Technically, this would suggest that the measurement is inconsistent. However, as suggested by Eisinga et al. (2009), this can be due to the fact that alpha Cronbach frequently underestimate the true reliability of a given scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Since the scale is relatively short, this is a phenomenon which is frequently observed. Pallant (2016), suggests reporting the mean inter-item correlation (IICm), whereby the mean score should optimally range between .2 and .4. Accordingly, the IICm was within the given range (*ICCm = .399*).

Scale Title	Number of Items	Response Scale	Alpha Cronbach α
Migrants' Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.863
Climate for Inclusion	9	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.941
Diversity Climate	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.909
Social Support	12 (3 x 4)	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.858 / .886 / .891
Cultural Intelligence	7	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.840
Language Skills	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.942
Adjustment (Work/Family)	12	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 6 = not applicable (family)	W: .842 F: .896
Acculturation (Home and Host)	6 (3 + 3)	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	Home: .871 Host: .826
Level of Over-Qualification	3	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.820
Met Expectations (Work/Life)	6	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	.758 / .664
Job-& Life-Satisfaction	10	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.	Job: .878 / Life: .870
Organisation Based Self-Esteem	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.904
Organisational Commitment	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	.873
Host Country Embeddedness	6	Likert-Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	Car: .878 / Com: .741
Career Success	5	Likert-Scale: 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree to some extent; 3 = Uncertain; 4 = Agree to some extent; 5 = Strongly Agree.	.841
Individual Demographics	25	According to Question	N/A
Organisational Demographics	6	According to Question	N/A
Total	145		

Table 39: Scale Reliability using Alpha Cronbach (α)

In addition to calculating the respective alpha Cronbach's values, a further method to calculate internal reliability of scales is known as composite reliability. As opposed to alpha Cronbach, this is not as discriminatory versus general reliability (Hair et al., 2020). While all other variables "passed" the alpha Cronbach test, met life expectation did not. Thus, this test was of particular importance. The average variance extracted was calculated which is key to calculating composite reliability. The C.R. has the same cut-off point 0.7. Following the respective formula met life expectation rendered a composite reliability of .77, indicating clear internal reliability. Based on this calculation and that some people use 0.6 as potential cut-off points, this scale was retained in the study. All other variables attained C.R. values of >.7.

6.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis

In addition to testing for internal consistency/reliability, via alpha Cronbach's and composite reliability, it is also necessary to test the scales for convergent, as well as divergent validity. The first step to doing this is to run an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which will aid in the extraction of constructs and more importantly, statistically identify which items are unnecessary. In other words, EFA is a process used to identify the constructs measured, as well as reduce the number of variables within a larger set of variables (Hair et al., 2010; 2020). Using this process, it is then possible to calculate the average variance extracted (AVE), which is key to determining the convergent and divergent validity[6]. In order to conduct a respective EFA, the IBM SPSS 26 statistics software was utilised.

Using a principle component analysis using a VARIMAX rotation, a series of EFAs were run until the respective scales rendered satisfactory levels of both convergent validity, as well as divergent validity. An important initial analytical test which should be run with regards to sphericity, as well as sampling adequacy through Barlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test. While the former requires a significant p-value of >.05 to confirm a correlation within a given set of variables (which is needed in order to identify an underlying factor structure, and ultimately a SEM-pathway analysis), the latter looks at the suitability of the given data with respect to conducting a factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). In the case of the KMO-test, a value of >.60 is required to render any reliable results with regards to extracting appropriate factors through a factor analysis (Kaiser, 1974). Since the two thresholds were attained using the respective tests (see tables 41-43, below). As suggested by Hair et al. (2015),

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[6] This process was also used in order to identify the respective composite reliability (C.R.).

an EFA "can be used to factor analyse either independent or dependent variables (…) separately" (p.411). Thus, an EFA was run for each group of variables respectively. Since all variables attained the respective thresholds, the analysis can proceed the factor analysis stage.

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.862
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5490.830
	df	703
	Sig.	.000

Table 40: KMO & Barlett's Test of Sphericity for Independent Variables

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.875
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4436.971
	df	378
	Sig.	.000

Table 41: KMO & Barlett's Test of Sphericity for Dependent Variables

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.749
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2661.121
	df	210
	Sig.	.000

Table 42: KMO & Barlett's Test of Sphericity for Mediating Variables

Since the aforementioned question involves an array of different analyses, a series of EFAs were run on the variables in order to identify their overall construct validity. Before making assumptions regarding component extraction and the factor loadings, it is necessary to identify which rotation is necessary in order to carry out the respective EFA. This is done by running an EFA with an oblimin (or oblique) rotation. Through running this analysis using IBM SPSS 26, the component correlation matrix is identified. If there are components that measure <.5 then it is suggested to run an orthomax rotation. If the correlation matrix renders

any statistical outputs where the value is ≥.5, then an oblique or oblimin rotation should be used. As can be seen on table 43 below, there were no values above .5. Therefore, an orthomax rotation was chosen and the analysis was run again.

The first thing to look for in the EFA is the respective extracted communalities values. While there is no official cut-off point, social scientists frequently use a cut-off point of all variables being >0.4 (Osborne, 2008; Osborne et al., 2008). If any variables do not attain this given cut-off point, then it is safe to assume that the given item should not be retained within the given study. If all satisfy this initial test, one can move on to the next stage: identifying the number of respective extracted components.

Component extraction can occur based on several approaches. The most popular/frequently cited approach is to observe the calculated eigenvalues or by observing respective scree-plots. Generally, eigenvalues are retained if they measure greater the 1.00 (Hair et al., 2010; Osborne, 2008). For the first set of variables (i.e. model 1a), 18 components were initially extracted with eigenvalues above 1.00. However, no components loaded on two of the components. The second method of observing a scree-plot, whereby the "arm" which jolts sharply to the right is used as cut-off point, was not very useful, considering a relatively smooth transition, perhaps due to the many potential components involved in the study (Hair et al., 2010; Osborne, 2008). This indicated that a certain level of manipulation may be required in order to render an appropriate number of extracted components. The final method to do so, is to follow a so-called "theory-based" approach, which entails fixing the number of components based on theory (i.e. how many components were expected; Hair et al., 2010; Osborne, 2008).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	1.000	-.028	-.120	-.062	-.080	.040	.098	-.202	.319	-.122	.049	-.366	.068	.284	-.228	.234	-.142	.054
2	-.028	1.000	.014	-.030	.113	-.035	-.045	.028	.012	-.079	.007	.022	-.275	-.015	.024	-.036	-.065	-.073
3	-.120	.014	1.000	.196	.113	.043	-.192	.160	-.221	.059	.216	.154	.050	-.180	.116	-.177	.084	-.018
4	-.062	-.030	.196	1.000	-.022	-.059	-.043	-.020	-.040	.226	.103	.106	.002	.004	.042	-.091	.025	-.016
5	-.080	.113	.113	-.022	1.000	.008	-.142	.104	-.113	.065	.124	.211	-.112	-.138	.024	-.131	.056	-.053
6	.040	-.035	.043	-.059	.008	1.000	-.059	.055	.010	.057	-.028	.024	-.069	-.024	-.028	.019	.034	-.034
7	.098	-.045	-.192	-.043	-.142	-.059	1.000	-.185	.230	-.011	-.169	-.149	-.046	.123	-.131	.140	-.017	.030
8	-.202	.028	.160	-.020	.104	.055	-.185	1.000	-.154	.117	.005	.177	-.038	-.235	.080	-.198	.040	-.101
9	.319	.012	-.221	-.040	-.113	.010	.230	-.154	1.000	-.130	-.014	-.303	-.073	.371	-.295	.232	-.180	.043
10	-.122	-.079	.059	.226	.065	.057	-.011	.117	-.130	1.000	.088	.107	.012	-.087	.046	-.194	.143	.045
11	.049	.007	.216	.103	.124	-.028	-.169	.005	-.014	.088	1.000	.036	.055	.029	.068	-.105	.079	-.032
12	-.366	.022	.154	.106	.211	.024	-.149	.177	-.303	.107	.036	1.000	.041	-.282	.191	-.203	.192	-.075
13	.068	-.275	.050	.002	-.112	-.069	-.046	-.038	-.073	.012	.055	.041	1.000	-.002	.039	-.062	.135	.097
14	.284	-.015	-.180	.004	-.138	-.024	.123	-.235	.371	-.087	.029	-.282	-.002	1.000	-.235	.181	-.155	.051
15	-.228	.024	.116	.042	.024	-.028	-.131	.080	-.295	.046	.068	.191	.039	-.235	1.000	-.183	.134	-.038
16	.234	-.036	-.177	-.091	-.131	.019	.140	-.198	.232	-.194	-.105	-.203	-.062	.181	-.183	1.000	-.251	.044
17	-.142	-.065	.084	.025	.056	.034	-.017	.040	-.180	.143	.079	.192	.135	-.155	.134	-.251	1.000	-.001
18	.054	-.073	-.018	-.016	-.053	-.034	.030	-.101	.043	.045	-.032	-.075	.097	.051	-.038	.044	-.001	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 43: Component Correlation Matrix – Choosing a Rotation for the EFA

Based on a theoretical approach the respective factor analyses rendered four mediating latent variables (work adjustment, family adjustment, as well as the acculturation sub-scales host-, and home-identity), seven outcome variables (level of overqualification, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, host country community embeddedness, host country career embeddedness, organisational based self-esteem and organisational commitment), as well as seven independent variables (cultural intelligence, perceived host country ethnocentrism, climate for inclusion, diversity climate and social support, which includes co-worker-, family- and friends'-support; See EFA in appendices 17-19).

6.4. Construct Validity

Construct Validity is essentially the extent to which individual items and their respective latent constructs measure what they are supposed to be measuring accurately (i.e. convergent validity), while at the same not cross-measuring other variables (Hair et al., 2010, 2020). Typically, there are two types of validity: convergent and discriminatory, whereby validity is rendered through a series of tests. In order to fully confirm construct validity, the validity tests were carried out using data rendered from the EFA and later the CFA. The validity tests from the EFA will be presented first.

6.4.1. Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is the concept of the extent to which scales or variables which should be related, are in fact related, i.e. the scale measures what is meant to being measured (Hair et al., 2010; 2020). There are several methods which are used to determine convergent validity, including, average variance extracted (AVE) being above 0.5, whether or not all respective factors load on to the respective components during an exploratory factor analysis, and finally, that these factor loadings are indeed strong enough; typically defined by a cut-off point of around 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010).

Item	Factor Loading (λ)	Alpha Cronbach	Composite Reliability	AVE
Cultural Intelligence	∑= 4.97		0.88	0.510
CQ1	0.73			
CQ2	0.77			
CQ3	0.67			
CQ4	0.78			
CQ5	0.79			
CQ6	Deleted			
CQ7	Deleted			
CQ8	0.65			
CQ9	0.59			
CQ10	Deleted			

Table 44: Cultural Intelligence reliability and convergent validity

As can be seen in Table 44, outlining the factor loadings of the cultural intelligence scale above, three items were deleted due to the factors not loading on the appropriate construct, i.e. indicating issues with regards to convergent validity. Thus, CQ6 and CQ7 were deleted. After which, all items loaded on the respective component (i.e. convergent validity was improved). However, the AVE threshold of >0.5 was not attained, indicating that further revision of the scale had to take place. Thus, item CQ10 was deleted, which satisfied the respective variables, with regards to convergent validity. This increased the convergent and divergent validity of the overall model significantly.

Item	Factor Loading (λ)	Alpha Cronbach	Composite Reliability	AVE
Diversity Climate	$\sum= 3.92$		0.89	0.618
DC1	0.79			
DC2	0.85			
DC3	0.72			
DC4	0.83			
DC5	0.72			
Climate for Inclusion	$\sum= 6.57$		0.91	0.534
CI1	0.73			
CI2	0.72			
CI3	0.69			
CI4	0.69			
CI5	0.71			
CI6	0.73			
CI7	0.77			
CI8	0.77			
CI9	0.75			
Social Support (CW)	$\sum= 3.18$		0.87	0.632
SuppW1_G1	0.652			
SuppP1_G2	0.712			
SuppW1_G3	0.725			
SuppP1_G4	0.77			
Social Support (Fam)	$\sum= 3.37$		0.91	0.710
SuppW3_G1	0.726			
SuppP3_G2	0.757			
SuppW3_G3	0.74			
SuppP3_G4	0.837			
Social Support (Fri)	$\sum= 3.29$		0.89	0.676
SuppW4_G1	0.759			
SuppP4_G2	0.782			
SuppW4_G3	0.781			
SuppP4_G4	0.718			

Table 45: Meso-Level Latent Construct reliability and convergent validity

Table 45 above depicts the respective extracted factor loadings with regards to the meso-level scales. While most of the factor loadings satisfied the respective parameters for convergent validity (i.e. they loaded on the respective components, with strong enough loadings, and AVEs >0.5), the second social support scale did not (i.e. supervisor social

support). This particular scale posed several challenges. First of all, the divergent validity (which will be discussed later) was breached, whereby all four items loaded heavily on the related scale of co-worker social support. In addition, the respective factor loadings did not render enough power such that the AVE was <0.5, despite all factor loadings being "strong" enough (i.e. >0.5). Thus, this scale was deleted from the study. This can potenitally be explained since supervisors may be too similar to co-workers. After deletion the analysis was run once more.

Item	Factor Loading (λ)	Alpha Cronbach	Composite Reliability	AVE
Host Country Ethno.	$\sum = 3.92$		0.89	0.616
HostCEthn1	0.71			
HostCEthn2	0.80			
HostCEthn3	0.74			
HostCEthn4	0.86			
HostCEthn5	0.81			

Table 46: Host Country Ethnocentrism – Latent Construct reliability and convergent validity

The final independent variable perceived host country ethnocentrism (illustrated in Table 46 above) rendered no significant issues, with the factor loadings being high ($\lambda < 0.71$), with appropriate loading onto one factor and an AVE of 0.616. Thus, this scale ticked all the boxes with regards to convergent validity.

Item	Factor Loading (λ)	Alpha Cronbach	Composite Reliability	AVE
Met Career Expectations	∑= n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
MetExp1	Deleted			
MetExp2	Deleted			
MetExp3r	Deleted			
Job Satisfaction	∑= 3.65		0.85	0.537
SatJob1	0.74			
SatJob2	0.65			
SatJob3	0.73			
SatJob4r	0.82			
SatJob5r	0.72			
Career Satisfaction	∑= n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
WSat1	Deleted			
WSat2	Deleted			
WSat3	Deleted			
Organisational Based Self-Esteem	∑= 3.17		0.87	0.631
OrgSelf_est1	0.69			
OrgSelf_est2	0.85			
OrgSelf_est3	0.83			
OrgSelf_est4	0.80			
Level of Over-qualification	∑= -2.39		0.84	0.641
OverQ1	-0.67			
OverQ2	-0.88			
OverQ3r	-0.83			

Table 47: Subjective Career Variables – Latent Construct Reliability and Convergent Validity

Table 47 above concerns the convergent validity-related values which pertain to subjective career success variables (met career expectations, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, organisational based self-esteem, as well as level of perceived over-qualification). While Job Satisfaction, level of perceived over-qualification, as well as organisational based self-esteem proceeded to attain the respective thresholds, the same cannot be said for met-career expectations, as well as career satisfaction. In the case of met career expectations, the items MetExp1 and MetExp3r did not meet the necessary cut-off thresholds of >0.5 (λ= .425 and .432, respectively). In addition, MetExp3r also loaded onto an individual component at a higher level. Thus, indicating that the items did not pass the respective tests of strong enough factor loadings, on a single component. Naturally, the AVE was too low as well (AVE = .29) which further indicates the respective issues with regards to convergent validity, i.e. the items

did not statistically measure what they were supposed to. These were therefore eliminated from the study as well.

In the case of career success (satisfaction), the items did load onto a factor together ($\lambda = 0.604, 0.661,$ and $0.579,$ respectively), however the loadings were not strong enough to render a satisfactory AVE score >0.5. Thus, the scale did not fulfil all parameters for convergent validity and was therefore removed from the study. This left subjective work-domain success to be measured using three variables. Namely, job satisfaction, level of perceived over-qualification, as well as organisational based self-esteem. In the light of this, the respective hypotheses could not be tested and were therefore removed from the current study.

Item	Factor Loading (λ)	Alpha Cronbach	Composite Reliability	AVE
Life Satisfaction	$\sum = 3.97$		0.90	0.635
SatLife1	0.85			
SatLife2	0.81			
SatLife3	0.87			
SatLife4	0.77			
SatLife5	0.67			
Met Life Expectations	$\sum = $ n.a.		n.a.	n.a.
MetExp4	Deleted			
MetExp5	Deleted			
MetExp6r	Deleted			

Table 48: Subjective Life Variables – Convergent Validity Values

Table 48 above depicts the respective values necessary for determining convergent validity for the subjective life success variables (i.e. life satisfaction, as well as Met Life Expectations). While life satisfaction fulfilled the respective factor thresholds of >0.5, as well as loading on the same factor and attaining an AVE of 0.635, the same cannot be said of met life expectations. As was the case with the met career expectation in the subjective career success section above, this scale posed several issues, including insufficient loading "power" of MetExp4 ($\lambda = 0.413$), as well as double loading of the same variable. In addition, the other variables did not manage to attain an appropriate threshold of >0.5 for the AVE (AVE = .30). Thus, this scale was deemed to lack convergent validity and was therefore removed from the present study, along with the respective hypotheses presented earlier.

Item	Factor Loading (λ)	Alpha Cronbach	Composite Reliability	AVE
Organisational Commitment	∑= 3.57		0.84	0.516
OrgCom1	0.66			
OrgCom2	0.82			
OrgCom3	0.81			
OrgCom4	0.64			
OrgCom5	0.64			
HC Embeddedness (Career)	∑= 2.62		0.91	0.764
HostCEmb1	0.88			
HostCEmb2	0.84			
HostCEmb3	0.90			

Table 49: Objective Career Variables – Convergent Validity Values

As can be observed in tables 49 above two variables were used to measure objective career success variables, including organisational commitment, as well as host country career embeddedness. Both variables showed no issues with regards to convergent validity, as both sets of factors loaded on the respective constructs (see Appendix 18), all factor loading bared sufficient strength, and both AVE values were above 0.5 (0.516 and 0.764, respectively). Thus, it can be concluded that both scales attained appropriate levels of convergent validity.

Item	Factor Loading (λ)	Alpha Cronbach	Composite Reliability	AVE
HC Embeddedness (community)	∑= 2.36		0.83	0.622
HostCEmb4	0.82			
HostCEmb5	0.82			
HostCEmb6	0.72			

Table 50: Objective Life Variables – Convergent Validity Values

Finally, objective life success was measured mainly using one variable: host country community embeddedness. Whereby, the factor loadings were all very strong >0.7, the factors all loaded accordingly on a single component, and finally, the AVE was at an appropriate level (0.622). Thus, convergent validity was supported for this variable.

While mainly functioning as a mediating variable, acculturation dynamics can be seen as a form of success as well. As illustrated previously, the home office in the UK also sees integration as a form of success. Thus, while this variable will be used as a mediating variable, it will also be used as a proxy variable for objective life success. The respective convergent validity is outlined in the Table 51 below.

Item	Factor Loading (λ)	Alpha Cronbach	Composite Reliability	AVE
Family Adjustment	$\sum$= 4.72		0.91	0.620
RoleAdF1	0.77			
RoleAdF2	0.78			
RoleAdF3	0.82			
RoleAdF4	0.83			
RoleAdF5	0.79			
RoleAdF6	0.74			
Work Adjustment	$\sum$= 4.46		0.88	0.561
RoleAdW1	0.75			
RoleAdW2	0.77			
RoleAdW3	0.55			
RoleAdW4	0.78			
RoleAdW5	0.83			
RoleAdW6	0.79			
Home ID	$\sum$= 2.63		0.91	0.769
IdenHome1	0.90			
IdenHome2	0.89			
IdenHome3	0.84			
Host ID	$\sum$= 2.48		0.87	0.684
IdenHost1	0.81			
IdenHost2	0.87			
IdenHost3	0.79			

Table 51: Mediating Variables – Acculturation and Adjustment

Table 51 above illustrates the respective values required to confirm convergent validity for the mediating variables acculturation (home- and host-Identity), as well as adjustment (both family-, as well as work-adjustment). Clearly all factor loadings attain the minimum threshold of >0.5, with all factors loading on their respective components. In addition, all AVE scores were >0.5. Thus, it can be concluded that these given scales indeed measured what they were supposed to.

6.4.2. Divergent Validity

In addition to testing for convergent validity, it is also imperative to test for divergent validity of a particular scale (Hair et al., 2010, 2020). Divergent validity suggests that variables which should not be related are in fact not related (Osborne, 2008). Using the same method to measure different variables, then there should be scores which are not correlated. If not, then the method may fail to discriminate between the given measured variables. This is typically indicated by (a) the factor loadings not cross-loading onto a different component, as well as the squared correlation between two components being lower than then given AVE of the given two components/variables.

As briefly discussed above, there were a series of cross-loadings between some of the variables, including the second subscale within the social support scale (i.e. supervisor support) loading onto the co-worker support component, both met expectation subscales loaded onto more than one component, and the career satisfaction loading onto the same component as host community career embeddedness, as well as loading onto the over-qualification component. These items (and if necessary the entire latent constructs) were removed accordingly.

In addition to the previously identified cross-loadings one diversity climate item (DiversC3) loaded on the climate for inclusion component as well. However, considering the actual value was <0.5 ($\lambda = 0.418$) and that a slight overlap was expected (since this scale substituted one of scales which virtually measured the same theoretical concept; see Nishii, 2013), discriminant validity was not undermined. In addition, job satisfaction item SatJob2 cross loaded onto organisational commitment, however this was a weak loading ($\lambda = 0.424$), indicating that the constructs still measured separate constructs overall.

In addition to checking for all variables loading on the appropriate components, an additional test for divergent validity was carried out. This form of divergent validity is executed whereby the $\sqrt{AVE}$ is aligned as to compare with the inter-construct correlations. The respective correlation between the two constructs, must not be above the $\sqrt{AVE}$. As can be observed in Table 52 below, no single construct correlation is higher than the respective $\sqrt{AVE}$ (indicated by the values forming the diagonal line) of the respective constructs. Thus, further confirming divergent validity for all constructs.

	Overq	DC	SS_ Cw	SS_ Fam	SS_ Fri	CI	Role AdW	Role AdF	Org Self_est	Org Com	Sat Job	Sat Life	Host CEthn	Iden Glob	Iden home	Iden host	Host CEmb CAR	HostC Emb COM	CQ
Overq	**0.80**																		
DC	-.323**	**0.79**																	
SS_Cw	-.266**	.348**	**0.79**																
SS_Fam	.096	.143*	.093	**0.84**															
SS_Fri	-.196**	.199**	.394**	.391**	**0.82**														
CI	-.381**	.661**	.436**	.143*	.234**	**0.73**													
Role AdW	-.235**	.386**	.397**	.044	.151*	.450**	**0.75**												
Role AdF	-.034	.113	.122	.447**	.129	.144	.226**	**0.79**											
OrgSelf_est	-.316**	.443**	.372**	.047	.208**	.603**	.470**	.123	**0.79**										
OrgCom	-.337**	.522**	.399**	.065	.179**	.651**	.471**	.086	.665**	**0.72**									
SatJob	-.438**	.455**	.351**	.023	.154*	.579**	.540**	.134*	.560**	.625**	**0.73**								
SatLife	-.310**	.252**	.260**	.261**	.207**	.314**	.255**	.432**	.297**	.227**	.311**	**0.80**							
HostC Ethn	.224**	-.336**	-.186**	.035	-.117	-.186**	-.205**	.002	-.146*	.097	-.201**	-.090	**0.78**						
Iden Glob	.007	-.122	.066	.120	.269**	-.138	0.011	-.077	.090	-.023	-.044	.080	.175**	**0.86**					
Iden home	.019	.008	.017	.065	.181**	.091	-.124*	.091	-.035	.022	-.046	.012	.092	-.046	**0.88**				
Iden host	-.067	.169*	.117	.050	.112	.142*	.241**	.130	.211**	.150*	.104	.236**	-.314**	.061	-.137*	**0.83**			
HostC EmbCAR	-.224**	.145*	.132*	.033	.082	.197**	.179**	.060	.216**	.265**	.203**	.182**	-.139*	-.004	-.165**	.213**	**0.87**		
HostC EmbCOM	-.126*	.118	.178**	.134*	.213**	.075	.064	.086	.092	.064	.018	.258**	-.153*	.130*	-.211**	.370**	.305**	**0.79**	
CQ	.116	-.040	.066	.027	.137*	-.082	.054	-.072	.080	.008	-.024	.062	.173**	.539**	-.005	.153*	-.035	.034	**0.71**

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

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

Table 52: Divergent Validity Test II (EFA) – Comparing the $\sqrt{AVE}$ to the inter-construct correlations.

6.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

While conducting validity test using an EFA may have its merits via the analysis of the various indicators (measured variables), it does not take the relationship which these variables have with regards to the unobserved latent variable. Thus, having carried out the item-reduction, as well as initial tests for reliability and validity using EFA, the next step is to carry out a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), confirm the underlying structure of the previously identified models. Generally, CFA is used to confirm a pre-identified structure or claim (i.e. hypothesized model), whereby the extent to which an observed variable measures the given latent construct and the respective quality of the measurement (Hair et al., 2010, 2020).

According to Zait & Bertea (2011), CFA is most frequently used method to measure respective validity of a given scale. Thus, following the status quo CFA was conducted in order to confirm the previously identified model (i.e. a priori hypothesis about the relationship between a set of measurement items and their respective factors (Netemeyer et al., 2003, p.148). Following Osborne's (2008) advice, the structural equation modelling process was split into two main phases: the measurement and the structural. The reason for doing this, so Osborne, is to address potential misspecification in the measurement model, so that they can be addressed before carrying out the structural model. Thus, as opposed to an all-in-one approach, before proceeding to the pathway analysis which looks at the causal relationships between the given constructs, a series of confirmatory factor analyses were run to confirm the structure of the groups of variables and their respective items (i.e. the measurement model). According to Hair et al. (2010) a CFA's validity should be utilised to test using two main measures, including the aforementioned convergent validity, as well as the goodness-of-fit.

6.5.1. Model Fit Indices

Before analysing the rendered values from any CFA or pathway model, it is customary to ensure that the respective model has the appropriate level of model fit (Osborne, 2008, Hair et al., 2010, 2020). According to Hair et al. (2010) there are several different measures of model fit, which have generally accepted thresholds within the field of international business and management. As is shown in Table 53 below, the model-fit indicators can be categorised under three main headings, including absolute fit, incremental fit, as well as parsimonious fit. While absolute fit includes an insignificant chi-squared statistic (Chisq), a root mean square of error approximation (RMSEA) greater than .08 and a goodness-of-fit index (GFI) greater than .90, parsimonious fit is measured by dividing the respective chi-squared value by the degrees of

freedom (Osborne, 2008). Whereby, a value of lower than 5.0 is required to assume appropriate fit. Finally, Incremental fit includes an array of potential fit indictors, including the confirmatory fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TFI), the normed fit index (NFI), and the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI). These indicators all must attain a value greater than .90 to assume good fit, however a value greater than .95 is preferred (Hair et al., 2013; Osborne, 2008).

It is worth noting, that before choosing the respective fit-indices that the chi-squared achieving insignificance for absolute fit is extremely vulnerable to large sample sizes (Gonzalez-Roma, et al., 2006). Thus, this index was not used within this study, since $N = 253$. In addition, GFI can only be attained if there are no missing data points. Since the participants had the opportunity of checking the box "non-applicable" within some of the scales (e.g. the family adjustment scales), it was deemed inappropriate to compute average values, and thus the estimation of means and estimates was used in order to render the model fit. Thus, RMSEA was used as a proxy-variable for absolute fit. Within the field of international management incremental fit can be measured using the CFI value (Hair et al., 2010. Osborne, 2008). Thus, CFI was used in this case, as well. With regards to parsimonious fit the chi-squared divided by degrees of freedom was used. Despite, methodological-specific industry standards of reporting several items, it is at the researcher's discretion to choose the respective fit indices. Some studies fail to report all fit categories, e.g. Basteleros-Leiva et al. (2018) failed to report a measure for parsimonious fit. Thus, to ensure that all fit indices received attention, at least one indicator was included for each fit category, respectively (i.e. RMSEA, CFI and Chisq/df).

Fit Index Category	Index	Acceptance Level
Absolute Fit	GFI (General Fit Index)	> .95 (good fit) or > .90 (acceptable)
	RMSEA (Root Mean Square of Error Approximation)	< .08 (good fit) or <.1 (acceptable)
	Chisq (χ^2)	P > .05
Incremental Fit	AGFI (Adjusted General Fit Index)	> .95 (good fit) or > .90 (acceptable)
	TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index)	> .95 (good fit) or > .90 (acceptable)
	NLI (Normed Fit Index)	> .95 (good fit) or > .90 (acceptable)
	CFI (Confirmatory Fit Index)	> .95 (good fit) or > .90 (acceptable)
	IFI (Incremental Fit Index	> .95 (good fit) or > .90 (acceptable)
Parsimonious Fit	**Chisq/df** ($\chi^2 \div$ df)	< 5.0

Table 53: Fit Indices for confirmatory factor analysis as well as pathway analysis.

6.5.2. Independent Variables – Confirmation of Measurement Model

Fit Index	RMSEA	CFI	$\chi^2 \div df$
Value	0.062	0.902	1.959

Table 54: Model Fit Indices Independent Variables

			Un-standardized Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardized Estimate (β)	AVE	C.R. α
SS_CW	<---	SS	1.542	.343	4.495	***	.839		
SS_Fri	<---	SS	1.000				.526		
DiversC1	<---	DC	1.076	.068	15.780	***	.847		
DiversC2	<---	DC	.967	.074	12.996	***	.743		
DiversC3	<---	DC	1.254	.077	16.346	***	.878	0.67	0.91
DiversC4	<---	DC	1.000				.828		
DiversC5	<---	DC	1.024	.074	13.895	***	.777		
ClimInc1	<---	CI	.768	.061	12.566	***	.696		
ClimInc2	<---	CI	.767	.059	13.078	***	.712		
ClimInc3	<---	CI	.803	.058	13.935	***	.735		
ClimInc4	<---	CI	.708	.065	10.918	***	.636		
ClimInc5	<---	CI	.890	.054	16.551	***	.814	0.61	0.93
ClimInc6	<---	CI	.845	.052	16.321	***	.806		
ClimInc7	<---	CI	.974	.050	19.300	***	.881		
ClimInc8	<---	CI	1.000				.885		
ClimInc9	<---	CI	1.025	.057	17.937	***	.850		
SuppW1G1	<---	SS_CW	.838	.077	10.841	***	.694		
SuppP1G2	<---	SS_CW	1.186	.096	12.362	***	.784	0.61	0.86
SuppW1G3	<---	SS_CW	1.000				.785		
SuppP1G4	<---	SS_CW	1.132	.085	13.299	***	.848		
SuppW4G1	<---	SS_Fri	1.032	.079	13.036	***	.772		
SuppP4G2	<---	SS_Fri	1.072	.071	15.153	***	.878	0.67	0.89
SuppW4G3	<---	SS_Fri	1.000				.797		
SuppP4G4	<---	SS_Fri	.920	.065	14.245	***	.830		
HostCEthn1	<---	Ethno	.563	.059	9.619	***	.571		
HostCEthn2	<---	Ethno	.816	.064	12.849	***	.710		
HostCEthn3	<---	Ethno	.824	.067	12.285	***	.688	0.57	0.86
HostCEthn4	<---	Ethno	1.000				.878		
HostCEthn5	<---	Ethno	1.078	.063	17.178	***	.870		
CQ5	<---	CQ	1.000				.761		
CQ4	<---	CQ	.988	.087	11.403	***	.753		
CQ3	<---	CQ	.689	.075	9.140	***	.607		
CQ2	<---	CQ	.829	.080	10.373	***	.686	0.44	0.84
CQ1	<---	CQ	.867	.087	9.932	***	.657		
CQ8	<---	CQ	.708	.079	9.012	***	.599		
CQ9	<---	CQ	.885	.107	8.284	***	.552		

Table 55: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results – Independent Variables

6.5.3. Dependent Variables – Confirmation of Measurement Model

Fit Index	RMSEA	CFI	$\chi^2 \div df$
Value	0.059	0.932	1.891

Table 56: Model Fit Indices Dependent Variables

			Un-standardized Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardized Estimate (β)	AVE	C.R. α
Overq3r	<---	Overq	1.000				.797		
Overq2	<---	Overq	1.298	.100	13.034	***	.905	0.63	0.83
Overq1	<---	Overq	.860	.081	10.574	***	.659		
OrgSelf_est4	<---	OrgSelf	1.000				.899		
OrgSelf_est3	<---	OrgSelf	1.058	.050	21.220	***	.903	0.73	0.91
OrgSelf_est2	<---	OrgSelf	.973	.052	18.657	***	.847		
OrgSelf_est1	<---	OrgSelf	1.067	.072	14.915	***	.750		
OrgCom5	<---	OrgCom	1.000				.867		
OrgCom4	<---	OrgCom	1.084	.075	14.382	***	.759		
OrgCom3	<---	OrgCom	1.023	.062	16.472	***	.826	0.60	0.88
OrgCom2	<---	OrgCom	.967	.056	17.173	***	.847		
OrgCom1	<---	OrgCom	.467	.053	8.735	***	.523		
HostCEmb3	<---	CarEmb	1.000				.952		
HostCEmb2	<---	CarEmb	.837	.062	13.570	***	.714	0.73	0.89
HostCEmb1	<---	CarEmb	.920	.050	18.401	***	.875		
HostCEmb6	<---	ComEmb	1.000				.629		
HostCEmb5	<---	ComEmb	1.020	.131	7.791	***	.655	0.50	0.75
HostCEmb4	<---	ComEmb	1.282	.160	7.994	***	.821		
SatJob5r	<---	JobSat	1.000				.583		
SatJob4r	<---	JobSat	1.139	.129	8.848	***	.709		
SatJob3	<---	JobSat	1.308	.135	9.673	***	.817	0.59	0.88
SatJob2	<---	JobSat	1.581	.154	10.277	***	.916		
SatJob1	<---	JobSat	1.124	.120	9.377	***	.776		
SatLife5	<---	LifeSat	1.000				.544		
SatLife4	<---	LifeSat	1.119	.137	8.183	***	.703		
SatLife3	<---	LifeSat	1.246	.137	9.112	***	.862	0.61	0.88
SatLife2	<---	LifeSat	1.254	.139	9.020	***	.843		
SatLife1	<---	LifeSat	1.371	.149	9.225	***	.888		

Table 57: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results – Dependent Variables

6.5.4. Mediating Variables – Confirmation of Measurement Model

Fit Index	RMSEA	CFI	$\chi^2 \div df$
Value	0.077	0.907	2.485

Table 58: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results – Mediating Variables

			Un-standardized Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardized Estimate (β)	AVE	C.R. α
WorkAdjRel	<---	WorkAdj	1.000				.733		
WorkAdj Task	<---	WorkAdj	.787	.213	3.686	***	.713		
Idenhome3	<---	HomeID	1.000				.709		
Idenhome2	<---	HomeID	1.326	.103	12.868	***	.924	0.71	0.88
Idenhome1	<---	HomeID	1.213	.095	12.823	***	.871		
Idenhost3	<---	HostID	1.000				.655		
Idenhost2	<---	HostID	1.544	.151	10.260	***	.925	0.63	0.83
Idenhost1	<---	HostID	1.203	.116	10.391	***	.777		
IdenGlob3	<---	GlobalID	1.000				.762		
IdenGlob2	<---	GlobalID	1.533	.131	11.668	***	.951	0.64	0.84
IdenGlob1	<---	GlobalID	1.040	.097	10.736	***	.669		
RoleAdF5	<---	FamAdj	1.000				.729		
RoleAdF4	<---	FamAdj	1.034	.095	10.857	***	.747		
RoleAdF3	<---	FamAdj	1.349	.119	11.379	***	.859		
RoleAdF2	<---	FamAdj	1.207	.104	11.590	***	.794	0.60	0.90
RoleAdF1	<---	FamAdj	1.286	.109	11.747	***	.820		
RoleAdF6	<---	FamAdj	1.075	.108	9.916	***	.694		
RoleAdW1	<---	WorkAdjTask	.941	.095	9.903	***	.854		
RoleAdW2	<---	WorkAdjTask	.993	.100	9.917	***	.880		
RoleAdW3	<---	WorkAdjTask	1.000				.609		
RoleAdW4	<---	WorkAdjRel	.918	.060	15.184	***	.796	0.68	0.93
RoleAdW5	<---	WorkAdjRel	.937	.055	17.084	***	.877		
RoleAdW6	<---	WorkAdjRel	1.000				.882		

Table 59: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results – Mediating Variables

6.5.5. Summarising CFA Measurement Model Results

When looking at the respective model-fit indices, all groups of variables reflected appropriate fit indices for all three categories of incremental, parsimonious, and absolute fit (see Table 53). Despite meeting the level of acceptable fit (i.e. > 0.90) the CFI values are still below the threshold for "good" fit. However, considering the other fit indices were good as well, this poses no significant issues to overall model fit (Osborne, 2008).

In addition to the previous tests executed using an EFA, additional tests for construct validity can be carried out, i.e. a re-iteration of the respective convergent and divergent validity,

as well as composite reliability tests. According to Hair et al. (2010), all standardised regression weights should be above 0.5 and all critical ratios, should be above 1.96. Whereby, C.R. is the product of the unstandardized regression weight divided by the standard error (S.E). In addition, the respective factor loadings (or standard regression weights) must be significant at P = >0.05. Tables 54 to 59 illustrate the CFA results for the respective constructs included within the current study. They include the unstandardized, as well as the standardized factor loadings, the standard errors, critical ratios, significance values, as well as the respective AVE and composite reliability values. Since all unstandardized factor loadings were significantly related to their respective latent construct, the standardized loadings were >0.5, the AVE values were >.50 and the critical ratios were >1.96, convergent validity can once again be assumed. In addition, as all composite reliability alpha scores were > 0.7, internal reliability was also confirmed.

Finally, in order to test for discriminant validity, the same Square-Root AVE test was carried out as was the case in the previous section. As illustrated in table 60 below, all $\sqrt{AVE}$ were higher than the individual construct correlations (once again indicated by the values forming the diagonal line). Thus, the CFA also confirmed divergent validity, as well. All in all, it can be concluded that the validity for the respective constructs can be confirmed.

	Overq	DC	SS_Cw	SS_Fri	CI	RoleAdW	RoleAdF	OBSE	OrgCom	SatJob	SatLife	HostCEthn	IdenGlob	Idenhome	Idenhost	HostCEmbCAR	HostCEmbCOM	CQ
Overq	**0.79**																	
DC	-.323**	**0.82**																
SS_Cw	-.266**	.348**	**0.78**															
SS_Fri	-.196**	.199**	.394**	**0.82**														
CI	-.381**	.661**	.436**	.234**	**0.78**													
RoleAdW	-.235**	.386**	.397**	.151*	.450**	**0.82**												
RoleAdF	-.034	.113	.122	.129	.144	.226**	**0.78**											
OrgSelf_est	-.316**	.443**	.372**	.208**	.603**	.470**	.123	**0.85**										
OrgCom	-.337**	.522**	.399**	.179**	.651**	.471**	.086	.665**	**0.77**									
SatJob	-.438**	.455**	.351**	.154*	.579**	.540**	.134*	.560**	.625**	**0.77**								
SatLife	-.310**	.252**	.260**	.207**	.314**	.255**	.432**	.297**	.227**	.311**	**0.78**							
HostCEthn	.224**	-.336**	-.186**	-.117	-.186**	-.205**	.002	-.146*	-.097	-.201**	-.090	**0.75**						
IdenGlob	.007	-.122	.066	.269**	-.138	.011	-.077	.090	-.023	-.044	.080	.175**	**0.80**					
Idenhome	.019	.008	.017	.181**	.091	-.124*	.091	-.035	.022	-.046	.012	.092	-.046	**0.84**				
Idenhost	-.067	.169*	.117	.112	.142*	.241**	.130	.211**	.150*	.104	.236**	-.314**	.061	-.137*	**0.79**			
HostCEmbCAR	-.224**	.145*	.132*	.082	.197**	.179**	.060	.216**	.265**	.203**	.182**	-.139*	-.004	-.165**	.213**	**0.85**		
HostCEmbCOM	-.126*	.118	.178**	.213**	.075	.064	.086	0.092	0.064	0.018	.258**	-.153*	.130*	-.211**	.370**	.305**	**0.71**	
CQNEW	.116	-.040	.066	.137*	-.082	.054	-.072	0.080	0.008	-0.024	0.062	.173**	.539**	-.005	.153*	-.035	.034	**0.66**

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

Table 60: Divergent Validity Test II (CFA) – Comparing the $\sqrt{AVE}$ to the inter-construct correlation

There was one minor exception, which did render AVE values of > 0.50. Cultural intelligence attained an AVE of 0.51 in the original test (i.e. the EFA), with all the respective factors loading naturally onto one component. Considering that this particular scale was previously validated by Thomas et al. (2015) it can be considered to fulfil convergent validity to a certain degree and was thus retained in the current study. Once again, caution was taken when making inferences about this particular scale. Thus, after fulfilling the industry standard with regards to pre-tests, as well as reliability and validity of the respective scales, the second stage of the main data analysis could be approached, i.e. addressing the two main research questions, by testing respective structural equation models, which were built on the respective hypotheses.

7. Main Data Analysis II – Testing Theory

7.1. Introduction

The main results of the current study will be presented along a two-pronged approach. After a brief overview of item construct parcelling and an overview of the respective model fit, descriptive statistics will be provided (Results I), as is custom in international recognised peer-reviewed journals (e.g. Thomas et al., 2015; Basteleros-Leive et al., 2018; Okpara, 2016; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011). The second section (Results II) will primarily discuss the use the pathway analysis, as well as the use of mediating variables, and will then follow an underlying structure. The results will be depicted according to the two research questions, as two separate studies, i.e. Models 1a-c, as well as the final MANOVA analysis in order to identify which acculturation strategy renders the most fruitful outcome variables. At the end of each section, results will be summarised.

7.2. Scale Parcelling

Scale parcelling is the process of aggregating individual items of scales into sub-dimensions or a single value (Matsunaga, 2008). The benefits of using scale aggregation have been widely cited with regards to the proccess' ability to increase model fit (Bandelos, 2002), as well as reduce the "nightmare" of integrating a large number of items within a given model (Graham et al., 2000; Matsunaga, 2008). In addition, Matsunaga (2008) illustrates the benefits in terms of reducing the amount of noise, which individual items produce (e.g. via random error values (Little et al., 2002), and the idiosyncratic values attributed to the item which are unrelated to the overall construct in general). In other words, by aggregating large numbers of items into a single value, the psychometric properties of the overall construct can be improved. While there is potential for cross-contamination due to theoretical overlap, so Matsunaga (2008), due to the very elaborate convergent and divergent validity tests illustrated above, this should not pose a significant threat to the overall construct itself.

Further benefits also lie in heightened distribution normality (Nasser & Wiesenbaker, 2003; Bandelos, 2002), which in turn makes it easier to carry out estimations within structural equation modelling, such as maximum likelihood (Matsunaga, 2008). A scale with a large number of items may initially benefit from high psychometric properties, however they reduce the overall model fit, as well (Matsunaga, 2008). In addition, item-based analyses often lead to lower levels of generalisability of findings, as small changes can lead to major changes in estimations (i.e. estimations are instable).

While parcelling may lead to over-stabilization of a given model which is used to test theory, it does allow for the reduction of large quantities of items, which considering the goal of the current study and the attempted inclusivity of micro-, meso-, and macro-level variables, it would seem appropriate to make use of parcelling. Indeed, Matsunaga (2008) specifically states that increased model complexity can lead to enhanced instability pertaining to the estimations. While the overall sample-size well exceeded his recommendation of N=150 (Holbert & Stephenson, 2002), the overall complexity, which has been called on within the literature, warrants the parcelling of given constructs in order to paint a more conclusive image through an ecosystems-theory lens. Thus, the previously validated scales were reduced into total mean scores and the respective models were created in order to answer the research questions, as suggested by Hair et al. (2010), i.e. after the CFA is used to confirm the measurement model and underlying constructs, these are incorporated into what is known as the structural model (Osborne, 2008). This model is then used to measure the predictive power which independent variables have on dependent variables (Hair et al., 2010; Osborne, 2008).

7.3. Results I Descriptive Statistics

7.3.1. Descriptive Demographic Statistics

After eliminating outliers (as outlined in the pre-analysis section above), a total number of 253 participants were retained in the study. As can be seen from figure 9 below, as well as Appendix 36, the participants' country of origin stretched across 47 different countries. While there were individual respondents from some countries (such as Angola, Bangladesh, Croatia, Japan, etc.) the highest concentration of respondents came from South Africa ($N = 35$), closely followed by the USA ($N = 34$) and Germany ($N = 31$). This rather diverse and distributed sample is unprecedented within the field of ISM-research. Respectively, 145 participants were classified as stemming from non-EU countries versus 108 who were from EU countries. 176 participants (69.6%) were female, 75 (29.6%) male, with two participants (0.8%) preferring not to disclose this information. The majority of participants either had a bachelor's ($N = 108$, 42.7%) or a master's degree ($N = 112$, 44.3%), while 30 participants (11.9%) had a doctoral degree. One participant only had a high school diploma. While theoretically this individual was not "highly qualified", the individual approached the researcher and explained that he had built and sold multi-million-dollar companies and was now building a third. Due to the vast experience this individual had accrued in the FinTec industry, an exception was made and he was considered highly skilled and was permitted to join the study. 95 participants worked in

the public sector (37.5%), while 151 (59.7%) worked in the private sector, with 7 (2.8%) selecting the "other" option. Of the 253 participants, 16 (6.7%) worked for organisations with less than 10 employees, 29 (11.5%) worked for organisations with 10 to 49 employees, 39 (15.4%) worked in organisations with 50 to 249 employees, 46 (18.2%) worked in organisations with 250-999 employees, 49 (19.4%) worked in organisations with 1,000 to 4,999 employees and 70 (27.7%) worked in organisations with over 5000 employees. While some of the sample was slightly lob-sided, e.g. the high proportion of female participants (almost 70%!), by-and-large the sample was quite well distributed across all categorical demographic variables. For all tables and pie charts of respective categories, see Appendices 36 through 41.
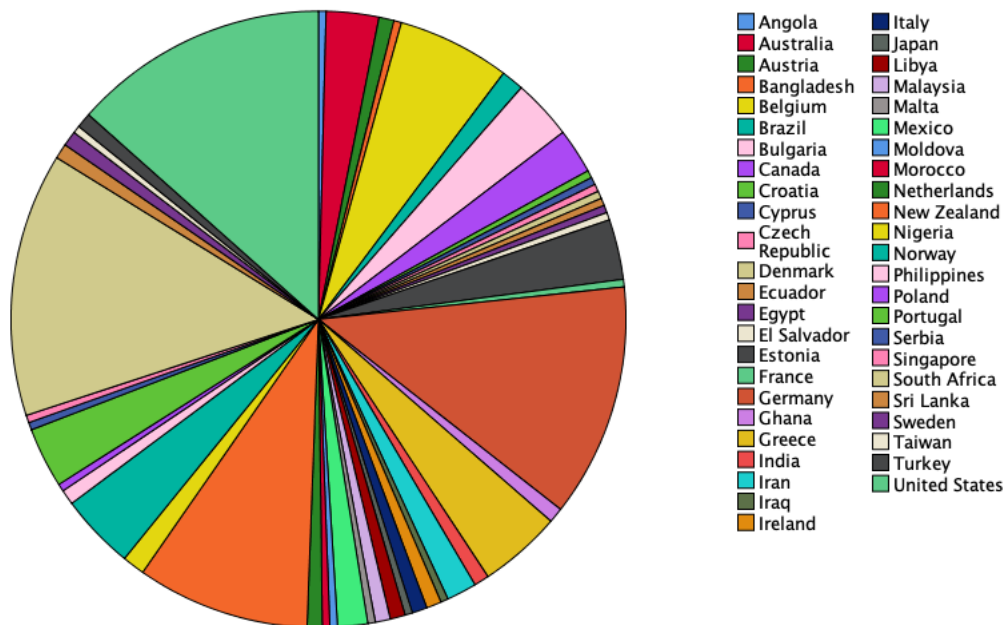
Figure 9: Country of Origin Concentration

Interestingly, and in support of a fundamental argument in the literature, and therefore the first minor contribution towards a large body of literature, as can be observed by Appendix 41 and figure 10 below, a large proportion of people initially came to the UK with a clear intention of not staying. Before completing the questionnaire, participants had to fill in four clearing-questions, which would essentially classify them as ISMs under the previously outlined definition. While 50 (19.6%) did not know whether they wanted to stay or could not remember, 117 (46.2%) participants already had the intention of staying in the UK

permanently. However, 86 (34%) did not want to stay in the UK and ended up settling. This is interesting and confirms the fact that being categorised as one form of global mobility is difficult and that due to changes in intentions, so can the status of which type of global mobility one represents. This further illustrates the importance of giving participants clearing questions, as if they are not available, this can lead to the aforementioned tainted results (Doherty, 2013; BIerwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016; Shaffer et al., 2012; Al Ariss, 2010).
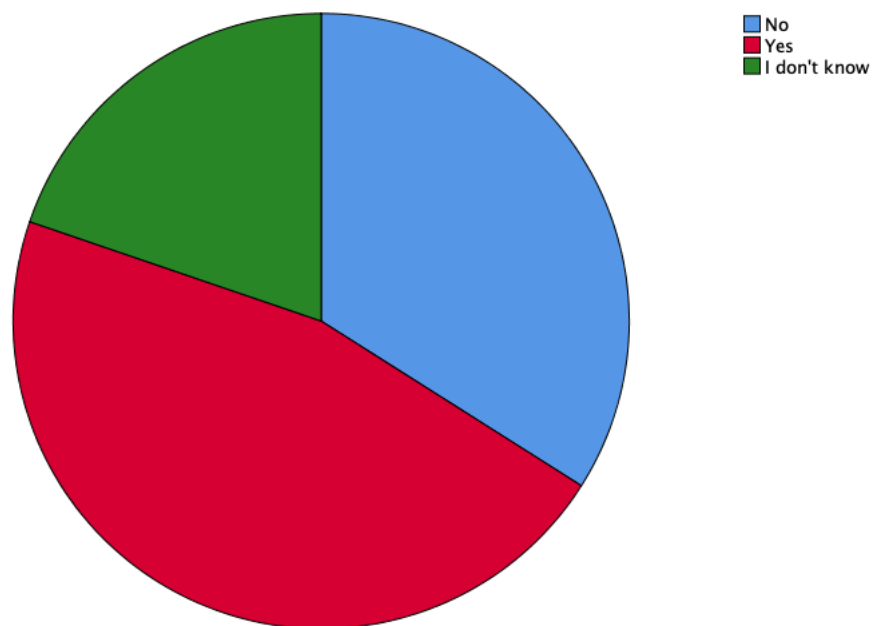
Figure 10: Intention to stay in the UK permanently

7.3.2. Descriptive statistics – Independent Variables.

According to Saunders et al. (2012), the mean is the most frequently utilised measurement of centrality and will therefore be used to present the mean descriptive statistics of the independent variables at all three levels (micro, meso and macro). All likert-scales within the study ranged from 1 to 5. As can be seen in Table 61 below, the mean number of countries visited was 2.51, ranging from 1 to 7. Participants' age ranged from 21 to 64 with a mean age of 36.11 years. The age when migrating ranged from 4 to 54, with an average of 27.40 years, while UK tenure (i.e. time spent in the UK) ranged from 0 to 45 with a mean tenure of 8.72 years. The level of self-reported cultural intelligence ranged from 2.29 to 5.00 with a mean of 4.03.

The level of co-worker social support ranged from 1.00 (indicating virtually no social support given by colleagues) to 5.00, with a mean level of social support of 3.14. A similar level of social support can be observed by friends, which ranged from 1.25 to 5.00, with a mean level of social support resting at 3.88. Climate for inclusion ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean value of 3.43, while diversity climate also ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean value of 3.83.

The level of perceived host country ethnocentrism ranged from 1.00 to 5.00, with a mean level of 2.92, which indicates that on average people perceived lower levels of host country ethnocentrism. Finally, the difference in institutional distance (measured by the UN's HDI) ranged from -.0031 (indicating a downward movement in development) to 0.390, indicating a high level of development movement (i.e. from a country with lower levels of development to a country of high levels of institutional development). The mean "movement" in institutional distance was 0.07. Thus, on average (and as expected) the majority of participants engaged in upward institutional progression.

	N	Min	Max	m	SD
Countries Visited	253	1	7	2.51	0.87
Age (current)	253	21	64	36.11	8.90
Age when Migrating	253	4	54	27.40	8.37
CQ	252	2.29	5.00	4.03	0.51
UK Tenure	253	0.00	45.00	8.72	7.75
Social Support CW	234	1.00	5.00	3.14	0.85
Social Support Friends	248	1.25	5.00	3.88	0.85
Climate for Inclusion	201	1.00	5.00	3.46	0.93
Diversity Climate	221	1.00	5.00	3.83	0.83
Inst. Distance	253	-0.031	0.390	0.07	0.10
Host Country Ethn	253	1.00	5.00	2.92	0.92
Valid N (listwise)	181				

Table 61: Descriptive Statistics of Micro-, Meso- and Macro-Independent Variables

7.4. Results II: Pathway Analysis – Breaking things down into two core studies

This section is dedicated to reporting the pathway analyses for the respective research question 1. Before illustrating the respective results, the principle of the pathway analysis will be briefly described. In addition, the concept of mediation variables will be discussed, and the model fit indices will be provided. Finally, results will be summarised before continuing to the discussion section.

7.4.1. Pathway Analysis

After testing for construct validity and reliability using EFAs and CFAs, respectively, as well as parcelling the items in order to stabilise the complexity within the models (Matsunaga, 2008), a second form of structural equation modelling can be used in order to address the research questions and respective hypotheses: The pathway analysis. In essence, the pathway analysis (or structural model) is a multivariate analysis technique that allows the evaluation of causal relationships between variables within a pre-assumed model, by estimating the paths between respective (latent) constructs (Hair et al., 2010; Osborne, 2008).

7.4.2. A Brief Introduction to Mediation

Mediation occurs when "the effect of an independent variable is transmitted through a third variable", i.e. a mediating variable (Edwards & Lambert, 2007, p. 1). Traditionally, mediation is initially calculated by first evaluating the direct effects between given independent (X) and dependent variables (Y). The respective relationships identified are then known as direct effects (*c*; see Figure 11 below). After significant direct effects have been identified, a mediating variable is inserted (M) and the analysis is run again. Whereby, *a* represents the relationship between X and M and *b* represents the relationship between M and Y. *c'* is the direct effect (see figure 12 below). Using this approach, should an indirect relationship be identified "through" M (i.e. X ⇒ M ⇒ Y or *a* x *b*) and *c'* (i.e. X⇒Y) and subsequently renders a significant direct relationship, then a partial mediating is present. If, on the other hand, the indirect relationship is positive and c' is insignificant, then a full-mediation is present. An important premise for the traditional analysis, is that an initial relationship between X⇒Y is present. If that condition is confirmed, then a mediation variable (i.e. M) can be inserted. If not, then the traditional perspective suggests that no further analysis should take place (Hayes, 2013).
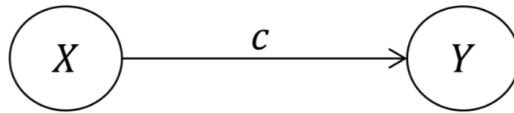
Figure 11: Effect of X and Y without considering mediation (Agler & De Boeck, 2017)
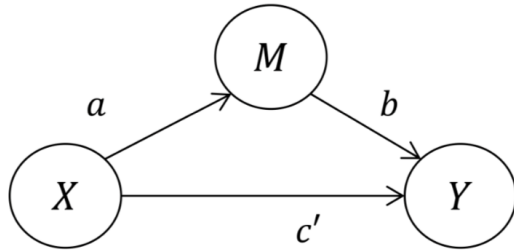

Figure 12: Effect of X and Y including mediation (Agler & De Boeck, 2017)

In recent years however, this traditional approach has become scrutinized and a growing body of literature has voiced concerns with regards to the necessity to have a significant X⇨Y relationship before searching for mediating effects. This literature suggests that the traditional approach to mediation analysis, as guided by Baron & Kenny (1986), potentially leads to elusive conclusions and may cause indirect relationships being missed, which are in fact present within the given data (Rucker et al., 2011; Hayes, 2009). Using the traditional approach can, therefore, impair theory testing (Zhao et al., 2010; Rucker et al., 2011). From this new stance to mediation analysis, mediation analyses should be extended by being theoretically motivated and therefore carried out, despite having insignificant relationships between X⇨Y (i.e. *c*; Cerin & MacKinnon, 2009), as "mediation as practiced in the 21st century no longer imposes evidence of simple association between X and Y as a precondition" (Hayes, 2013, p. 88; Rucker et al., 2011). Thus, the X-Y test is not necessary to establishing mediation and "researchers should not give up on a mediation hypothesis when they fail to find "an effect to be mediated"" (Zhao et al., 2010, p.200).

In essence, mediation is the "flow" of an effect of a respective independent variable, passing through a third variable and onto the dependent variable (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The use of mediating variables, essentially aids the identification of causal mechanisms (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), which, when referring back to the research questions, is a partial aim of the current study, i.e. to identify the effects of adjustment and apprehended identities (i.e. acculturation) on a variety of outcome variables. In the spirit of traditional, as well as the more modern approach to mediation and in order not to "miss" any indirect relationships, the current

study will utilize a hybrid approach. Firstly, using Baron & Kenny's (1986) approach, as well as testing using a theoretically motivated approach to estimating the effects of the previously outlined mediating variables, i.e. acculturation and adjustment. This will also aid the full evaluation of the interconnected nature within the model, which will be the best way to evaluate the application of an ecosystems approach to the field of global mobility. Respecting these two approaches, results will be presented in two separate tables, whereby classical mediation will be presented in one table and additional theoretically driven indirect effects will be presented in a second table, respectively.

7.4.3. Overall Model(s) Fit and Validity Summary

Before reporting the main results, it is important to note at this stage in the study that the results will be following the research questions and a series of models will be considered to best answer the research question. These various models will be discussed here and model fit indices for the respective models will be outlined once more. For research question 1, three models are proposed and tested. First, the direct effects of contextual factors (micro-, meso-, and macro-) on migrations success outcomes variables (model 1a). Secondly, family and work adjustment will be inserted as mediating variables between the respective contextual variables and dependent (outcome) variables (model 1b). The final model for RQ1 is inserting the identity of home and host country as mediating variable (model 1c).

The second and final research question (RQ2) pertains to the effects of specific acculturation strategies on holistic migration success. In essence, does the chosen acculturation strategy or approach lead to higher or lower levels of success. This was tested using a multi-variate analysis of variance (i.e. MANOVA), which will be discussed in greater detail later.

As can be seen in Table 62 below, all three tested structural models attained sufficient levels of model fit, as described previously. After closely examining in extensive detail the various forms of validity and well as reliability, it can be safely said that all facets of validity were met. Those scales which could not render an appropriate level of validity or reliability, as illustrated above, were removed from the study. Furthermore, the pre-analysis showed good levels of distribution, as well as acceptable model fit after collapsing (or parcelling) the scales, as suggested by Matsunaga (2008).

	Model 1a	Model 1b	Model 1c
RMSEA	.060	.043	.041
CFI	.947	.948	.967
NFI	.905	.905	.904
IFI	.952	.954	.969
$\chi^2 \div df$	1.915	1.866	1.428

Table 62: Models 1a – 1c – Model Fit Indices

7.5. Study 1 Results: How contextual factors and individual characteristics influence ISMs' acculturation dynamics, adjustment processes and integration outcomes.

Study one aims at identifying which organisational and societal contextual factors, as well as individual-level characteristics influence the acculturation dynamics, adjustment processes, as well as the integration outcomes of skilled migrants. In essence, three models were created to answer this research question. Model 1a depicts at the direct effects of the obtained contextual factors and individual characteristics on respective outcomes variables. Model 1b looks at the extent to which acculturation identities act as mediator between the variables observed in model 1a, and finally, model 1c looks at adjustment as mediating variable between the variables observed in model 1a.

7.5.1. Direct Effects: Micro-Level Variables

Model 1a below (Figure 13, see also Appendix 42) illustrates the significant effects which the given contextual factors and individual characteristics have on ISMs' outcome variables. Hypothesis 1_a, which predicted that cultural intelligence will be positively related to all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, to which is should be negatively related, was only partially supported, as the only significant relationship observed organisational-based self-esteem was observed. Thus, hypothesis 1_{a-ii} is supported (ß = .124, p = .014), while the others were not. Thus, H_{1a} was given partial support.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H₁₋ₐ₋ᵢ	CQ ⇒ J-Sat	.051	.033	0.645	.519	+	X
H₁₋ₐ₋ᵢᵢ	CQ ⇒ OBSE	.183	.124	2.464	.014	+	✓
H₁₋ₐ₋ᵢᵢᵢ	CQ ⇒ OrCom	.063	.041	0.862	.389	+	X
H₁₋ₐ₋ᵢᵥ	CQ ⇒ CarEm	.001	.000	.005	.966	+	X
H₁₋ₐ₋ᵥ	CQ ⇒ L-Sat	.125	.084	1.422	.155	+	X
H₁₋ₐ₋ᵥᵢ	CQ ⇒ CoEm	.135	.069	1.112	.266	+	X
H₁₋ₐ₋ᵥᵢᵢ	CQ ⇒ OverQ	.154	.072	1.275	.202	-	X

Table 63: Direct Effects of Cultural Intelligence on Migration Success Variable

When looking at the distribution of english language proficiency (see Appendix 45), it quickly became apparent that the proficiency amongst the participants was extremely high. Due to this extremely lob-sided distribution, no relationship amongst variables could be expected and thus, testing hypotheses 2_{a-c} was impossible and these were removed from the study. This includes the potential mediating effects which this variable may have had via adjustment and acculturation (i.e. 2_b and 2_c).

Hypotheses 3_a predicted that higher breadth of past international experience (PIE) of over six months will have a positive effect on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, which should be adversely affected by experience. Interestingly, once again, with the exception of life satisfaction, no direct effects were observed. The effect which PIE had on life satisfaction was negative, indicating that the more international experience one had, the more likely an individual would experience lower level of life satisfaction (ß = -.130, p = .029). When looking at the general estimates, despite only one being significant, it does however give an indication that with a higher breadth of international experience, individuals were more likely to experience negative effects on respective outcome variables, which were more likely to experience a positive effect on the level of overqualification: a counter-intuitive finding. Thus, hypotheses $H_{3-ai-vii}$ were not supported.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H₃₋ₐ₋ᵢ	PIE ⇒ J-Sat	-.049	-.054	-1.053	.292	+	X
H₃₋ₐ₋ᵢᵢ	PIE ⇒ OBSE	-.044	-.050	-.1000	.317	+	X
H₃₋ₐ₋ᵢᵢᵢ	PIE ⇒ OrCom	-.014	-.015	-.322	.748	+	X
H₃₋ₐ₋ᵢᵥ	PIE ⇒ CarEm	-.089	-.069	-1.137	.256	+	X
H₃₋ₐ₋ᵥ	PIE ⇒ L-Sat	-.113	-.130	-2.184	.029	+	X - Opposite
H₃₋ₐ₋ᵥᵢ	PIE ⇒ CoEm	-.084	-.073	-1.174	.240	+	X
H₃₋ₐ₋ᵥᵢᵢ	PIE ⇒ OverQ	.093	.074	1.309	.191	-	X

Table 64: Direct Effects of Past International Experience on Migration Success Variables

Hypotheses H_4 predicted that current age would have a positive impact on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, which was predicted to be adversely affected

by age. While H$_{4\text{-a-I}}$, predicting current age to have a positive impact on job satisfaction was supported (ß = .137, p = .020), all other predictions were not supported (i.e. H$_{4\text{-a-ii}}$ to H$_{4\text{-a-viI}}$). Thus, H$_{4\text{-a}}$ was given minimal support once again.

H$_\#$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{4\text{-a-i}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.012	.137	2.325	.020	+	✓
H$_{4\text{-a-ii}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	.007	.083	1.441	.150	+	X
H$_{4\text{-a-iii}}$	Ag$\Rightarrow$ OrCom	.004	.043	.790	.430	+	X
H$_{4\text{-a-iv}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	-.005	-.041	-.590	.555	+	X
H$_{4\text{-a-v}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.004	.048	.704	.481	+	X
H$_{4\text{-a-vi}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-.014	-.122	-1.708	.088	+	X
H$_{4\text{-a-vii}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-.008	-.063	-.966	.334	-	X

Table 65: Direct Effects of Current Age on Migration Success Variables

The final set of hypotheses predicting micro-level variables suggested that longer time spent in the UK (host country tenure; HCT), will have a positive effect on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, which was expected to be adversely affected. As can be seen in model 1a, as well as Table 66 below, only H$_{5\text{-a-vi}}$ was supported (ß = .143, p = .48), while all other hypotheses were not supported. Thus, H$_{5\text{-a}}$ can once again be given only partial (minimal) support.

H$_\#$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{5\text{-a-i}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.000	-.002	-.028	.977	+	X
H$_{5\text{-a-ii}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-007	.070	1.196	.232	+	X
H$_{5\text{-a-iii}}$	HCT$\Rightarrow$OrCom	-006	.060	1.105	.269	+	X
H$_{5\text{-a-iv}}$	HCT$\Rightarrow$ CarEm	.004	.030	.425	.671	+	X
H$_{5\text{-a-v}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-.006	-.065	-.945	.345	+	X
H$_{5\text{-a-vi}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	.018	.143	1.977	.048	+	✓
H$_{5\text{-a-vii}}$	HCT$\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-.009	-.061	-.930	.353	-	X

Table 66: Direct Effects of Host Country Tenure on Migration Success Variables

7.5.2. Direct Effect: Meso-Level Variables

The next set of variables, the meso-level variables, were compiled into one latent variable, such that co-worker social support and friends social support flowed primarily into the latent variable social support and then into the overriding supportive structure at the meso-level, while climate for inclusion and diversity climate flowed into organisational culture and

then into the same meso-level latent construct[7]. Before going into detail, it can be said that the meso-level variables had the single most influencing effect on outcome variables overall.

As can be seen in Table 67 below, the relationship between the overall latent construct is depicted. This is essentially what Matsunaga (2008) referred to as partial-parcelling, such that a variable can also be categorised into sub-dimensions of an overall latent construct. Before proceeding it is important that the respective estimates load onto the main latent construct with high levels of significance, with C.R. values of above $>\pm1.96$. All conditions were met, which meant the next phase of the analysis could be addressed: Meso-level hypotheses testing.

Description	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value
Meso $\Rightarrow$ CorCulture	.928	n.a.	<.000*
Meso $\Rightarrow$ SocialSup	.619	4.003	<.000
CorCulture $\Rightarrow$ CI	.915	11.299	<.000
CorCulture $\Rightarrow$ DC	.731	n.a.	<.000*
SocialSup $\Rightarrow$ SS_Co-Work	.839	4.390	<.000
SocialSup $\Rightarrow$ SS_Friends	.466	n.a.	<.000*

* by design.

Table 67: Meso-level latent construct.

As depicted in Table 68 below, the newly formed hypotheses suggested that the meso-level supportive construct (including organisational culture and social support) were predicted to have a positive influence on all outcome variables in a similar vein to the previous individual-level variables, with the exception of level of overqualification (i.e. $H_{6-a-vii}$), which is predicted to be adversely affected by the supportive nature of the meso-level.

The results suggest that the supportive nature of the meso-level variables have a positive effect on job satisfaction (ß = .666, p = .000), organisational based self-esteem (ß = .677, p = .000), organisational commitment (ß = .779, p = . 000), career embeddedness (ß = .222, p = .003), life satisfaction (ß = .363, p = .000), while at the same time having a negative effect on perceived level of overqualification (ß = -.448, p = .000). The only hypothesis which was not supported was H_{6-a-vi}, which suggested the meso-level having an impact on the level of

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[7] When instigating the analysis, the respective model had difficulties "fitting". After careful analysis and consultation with several experts, it was suggested that it may be due to the heightened complexity of the model. Thus, it was advised to remove family social support and supervisor social support. This was due to potential theoretical overlap between, friends and family, as well as not all participants having direct (nuclear) family members in the UK. In addition, there may have been some confusion between supervisors and co-workers as flat hierarchies may not include official supervisors as trust is given to employees without formal hierarchical structures in place (George, 2016; Ancona & Backman, 2017). In addition, considering migrants meet their friends at work, but may not be direct co-workers, the meso-level variables were attributed mainly towards the working environment, which meant combining hypotheses 6_a and 7_a into an overriding supportive structure at the "meso" level which focuses (mainly) on the organisational influence on respective outcomes. This was the same for the next models, i.e. H6$_{b-c}$ and H7$_{b-c}$.

community embeddedness. While results show a moderate effect size (ß = .107, p = .147), it was insignificant. Thus, with the minor exception hypotheses H$_{6a}$ were supported.

H$_{\#}$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{6-a-i}$	Meso⇒J-Sat	.938	.666	6.852	.000	+	✓
H$_{6-a-ii}$	Meso⇒OBSE	.905	.677	6.942	.000	+	✓
H$_{6-a-iii}$	Meso⇒OrCom	1.089	.779	7.414	.000	+	✓
H$_{6-a-iv}$	Meso⇒CarEm	.440	.222	2.922	.003	+	✓
H$_{6-a-v}$	Meso ⇒ L-Sat	.486	.363	4.468	.000	+	✓
H$_{6-a-vi}$	Meso ⇒ CoEm	.189	.107	1.449	.147	+	X
H$_{6-a-vii}$	Meso⇒ OverQ	-.864	-.448	-5.323	.000	-	✓

Table 68: Direct Effects of Supportive Meso-Level Structures on Migration Success Variables

7.5.3. Direct Effects: Macro-Level Variables
In addition to the micro- and meso-level variables, two macro-level variables were also taken into consideration separately due to their polarising nature.

H$_{\#}$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{8-a-i}$	HCE ⇒ J-Sat	-.070	-.080	-1.575	.115	-	X
H$_{8-a-ii}$	HCE ⇒ OBSE	-.026	-.031	-.628	.530	-	X
H$_{8-a-iii}$	HCE⇒OrCom	.043	.050	1.061	.289	-	X
H$_{8-a-iv}$	HCE ⇒ CaEm	-.104	-.085	-1.409	.159	-	X
H$_{8-a-v}$	HCE ⇒ L-Sat	-.025	-.031	-.521	.602	-	X
H$_{8-a-vi}$	HCE ⇒ CoEm	-.132	-.122	-1.967	.049	-	✓
H$_{8-a-vii}$	HCE ⇒OverQ	.141	.119	2.107	.035	+	✓

Table 70: Direct Effects of Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism on Migration Success

Table 70 above depicts the results surrounding the effect of perceived host country ethnocentrism on respective outcome variables. The prediction suggests that, as opposed to all variables analysed before, this particular variable is negatively loaded, such that previous literature has identified it as having a negative impact on preferred outcome variables, while the opposite is expected in the exception of overqualification, i.e. with a rise in HCE there should be a rise in perceived level of overqualification. As the results indicate, H$_{8-a-i}$ to H$_{8-a-v}$ showed no significant results, thus a large proportion of the respective results do not support the hypotheses. However, H$_{8-a-vi}$ on the other hand, indicates a negative relationship between HCE and community embeddedness, which is supported by the results (ß = -122, p = .049). The expected positive effect of HCE on level of overqualification was also support (ß = .119, p = .035). Thus, the latter two hypotheses were support, which illustrates moderate support of expected effects mirrored in the previous literature.

The final variables taken into account with regards to the direct effects on respective outcome variables was institutional distance (InD), which as outlined above was measured using the UN Human Development Index (HDI). This statistic was then inserted into the respective models (see for example model 1a below). The hypotheses pertaining to institutional distance suggested that the higher the level of institutional distance, the more negative effects an individual was going to perceive (i.e. the outcome variables), once again, with the exception of perceived level of overqualification.

As indicated in Table 71 below, the expected negative effect of higher institutional distance was rendered, such that higher levels of institutional distance led to higher levels of perceived over-qualification ($ß = .132$, $p = .019$). In addition, no support was given to any other hypothesis. Thus, indicating that the negative aspects of higher levels of institutional distance were experienced, but the positive aspects were not related to higher levels of institutional distance. Interestingly, higher levels of institutional distance was positively related to higher levels of career embeddedness ($ß = .222$, $p = .000$). Thus, not only lending no support for H_{9-a-iv}, but rather suggesting that the higher the level of institutional distance between home and host country, the higher the level of career embeddedness.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H_{9-a-i}	InD $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-.316	-.041	-.801	.423	-	X
H_{9-a-ii}	InD $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-.565	-.077	-1.538	.124	-	X
$H_{9-a-iii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	-.152	-.020	-.422	.673	-	X
H_{9-a-iv}	InD $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	2.422	.222	3.663	.000	-	X - Opposite
H_{9-a-v}	InD $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-.061	-.008	-.140	.889	-	X
H_{9-a-vi}	InD $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-.084	-.009	-.140	.888	-	X
$H_{9-a-vii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	1.404	.132	2.345	.019	+	✓

Table 71: Direct Effects of Institutional Distance (measures by difference in the UN Development Index) on Migration Success Variables

7.5.4. Summary of Direct Effect – Summarizing Model 1a

As illustrated in model 1a below, as well as the previously highlighted results, a different effect can be observed from each independent variable on respective outcome variables. Cultural intelligence showed one predicted positive impact on organisational based self-esteem (i.e. supporting H_{1-a-i}), while current age was positively related to job satisfaction (i.e. supporting H_{4-a-i}). Furthermore, the breadth of past international experience of over six months was counter-intuitively negatively related to life satisfaction (i.e. supporting none of the H_{3-a}, but opening an interesting point of reference for future discussion), while the final micro-level variable, host country tenure, was only positively related to community

embeddedness (i.e. supporting $H_{5\text{-}a\text{-}vi}$). No other significant relationships were rendered through model 1a, as all other micro-level variables rendered no support of the hypotheses pertaining to direct effects.

Furthermore, the supportive nature of the meso-level, measured as latent construct comprised of organisational culture (i.e. diversity climate and climate for inclusion), as well as social support (i.e. social support rendered by co-worker, as well as friends) was the most powerful predictor of positive migration success outcomes (i.e. supporting $H_{6\text{-}a\text{-}i}$, $H_{6\text{-}a\text{-}ii}$, $H_{6\text{-}a\text{-}iii}$, $H_{6\text{-}a\text{-}iv}$, and $H_{6\text{-}a\text{-}v}$), which was illustrated by moderate to strong relationships, while at the same time illustrating the expected negative relationship with perceived level of overqualification (i.e. supporting $H_{6\text{-}a\text{-}vii}$). The only hypothesis which was not supported in this case was $H_{6\text{-}a\text{-}vi}$, which predicted a supportive meso-level structure should be related to community embeddedness.

Finally, model 1a included two macro-level variables: perceived level of host-country ethnocentrism (HCE), as well as institutional distance (InD). The latter was measured using the UN's Human Development Index. At this stage it is also important to mention, that using an official statistic as an external source of data counteracts the negative effects of common methods bias (i.e. the use of only one source of data), which supports the strength of the current study. As expected, HCE was related to higher levels of overqualification, as well as being negatively related to community embeddedness. Thus, supporting $H_{8\text{-}a\text{-}vi}$ and $H_{8\text{-}a\text{-}vii}$. No other direct effects were measured. Therefore, no support was found for $H_{8\text{-}a\text{-}i}$ to $H_{8\text{-}a\text{-}v}$. Last but not least, InD was positively related to level of overqualification, which supported $H_{9\text{-}a\text{-}vii}$. Intriguingly, InD was also positively related to career embeddedness, which therefore indicated the opposite relationship that was expected. Thus, disproving $H_{9\text{-}a\text{-}iv}$. All other relationships rendered no significant results.
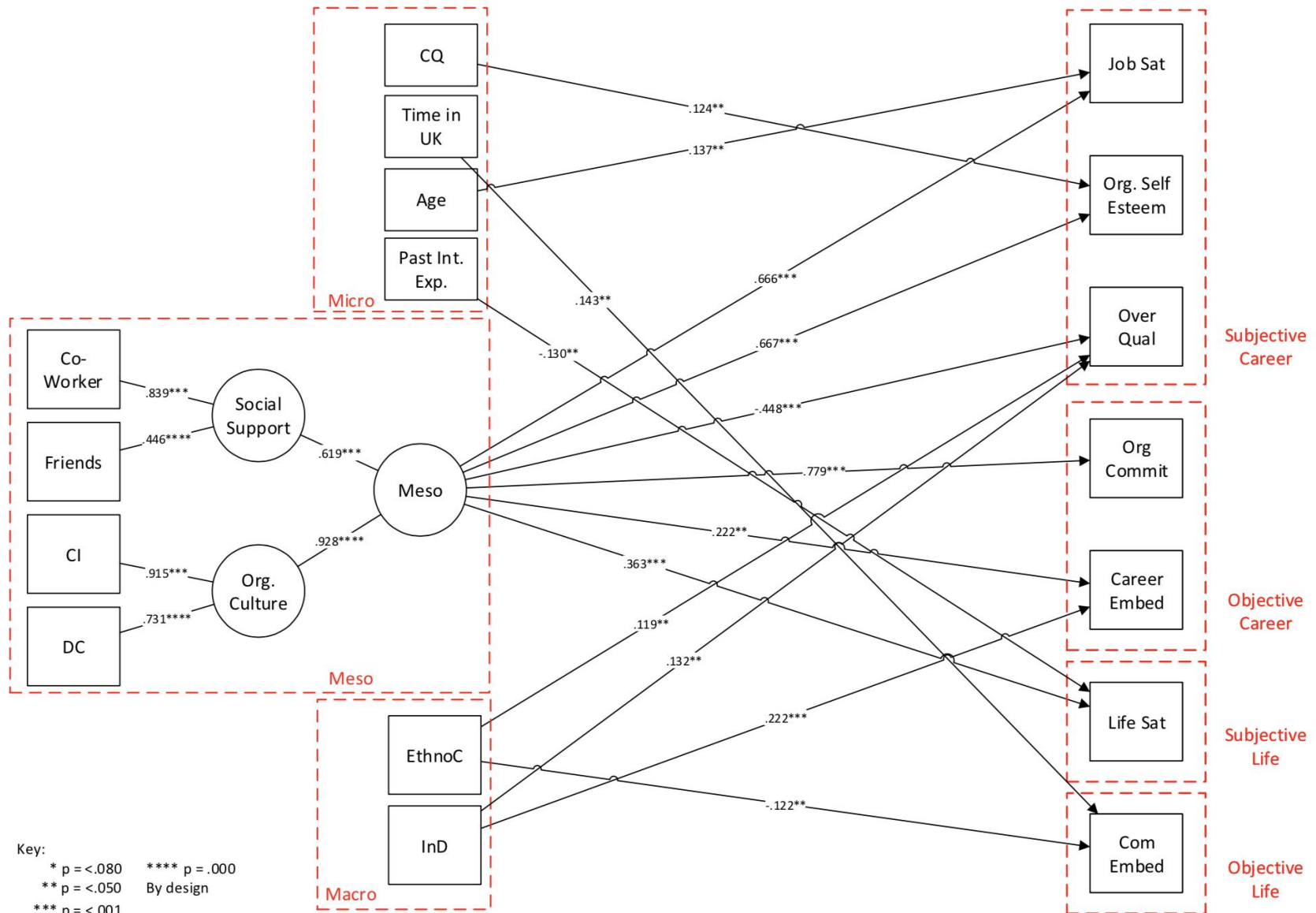
Figure 13 - Model 1a: The direct effects of societal and contextual factors, as well as individual characteristics on the different facets of migration success

7.6. Study 1 - Model 1b: The indirect effects of acculturation identities.

When reporting results pertaining to model 1b, first direct effects will be re-iterated and significant changes will be identified. Then, observed effects of individual characteristics and contextual factors on home and host identity will be reported. Finally, the indirect effects of home and host identity on respective dependent variables will be outlined and the partial and full-mediations, as well as indirect effects highlighted accordingly[8].

7.6.1. Direct Effects: Micro-Level Variables

Model 1b (Figure 14) below illustrates the significant effects which the given contextual factors and individual characteristics have on ISMs' outcome variables, as well as the mediating role of acculturation identity dynamics, i.e. home and host identities. Hypothesis 1_{b1}, which predicted that cultural intelligence will be positively related to all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, to which is should be negatively related, was only partially supported, once again (see Table 72 below). The only significant relationship observed organisational-based self-esteem was observed. Thus, hypothesis 1_{b1-ii} is supported ($ß = .158$, $p = .044$), while the others were not, as all other variables rendered no significant effects, such that CQ was unrelated to job satisfaction ($ß = .032$, $p = .599$); CQ was unrelated to organisational commitment ($ß = .017$, $p = .732$); CQ was unrelated to career embeddedness ($ß = -.041$, $p = .521$); CQ was unrelated to life Satisfaction ($ß = .028$, $p = .654$); CQ was unrelated to community embeddedness ($ß = -.034$, $p = .581$); and finally, CQ was unrelated to level of perceived overqualification ($ß = .048$, $p = .427$). These results are summarised in table 72 below. Thus, H_{1b1} was given partial support.

$H_\#$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H_{1-b1-i}	CQ $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.050	.032	.585	.559	+	X
$H_{1-b1-ii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	.158	.107	2.014	.044	+	✓
$H_{1-b1-iii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	.027	.017	.342	.732	+	X
$H_{1-b1-iv}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	-.267	-.041	-.641	.521	+	X
H_{1-b1-v}	CQ $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.041	.028	.449	.654	+	X
$H_{1-b1-vi}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-.199	-.034	-.552	.581	+	X
$H_{1-b1-vii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	.102	.048	.795	.427	-	X

Table 72: Direct Effects of Cultural Intelligence on Migration Success Variable (when mediating variables home and host identity were included)

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[8] All results for study 1a-c can be found in Appendices 42-44

Hypotheses 3_{b1} predicted that higher breadth of past international experience (PIE) of over six months will have a positive effect on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, which should be adversely affected by experience. Upon inserting of the respective mediating variables, home and host identity, no significant direct relationship of independent contextual factors, as well as individual characteristics on the previously highlighted (dependent) outcome variables were observed (see Table 73), such that PIE was not related to job satisfaction ($ß = -.081$, $p = .166$); PIE was not related to organisational based self-esteem ($ß = -.034$, $p = .551$); PIE was not related to organisational commitment ($ß = .012$, $p = .831$); PIE was not related to career embeddedness ($ß = -.041$, $p = .546$); PIE was not related to life satisfaction ($ß = -.052$, $p = .439$); PIE was not related to community embeddedness ($ß = .055$, $p = .409$); and finally, PIE was not related to perceived level of overqualification ($ß = .155$, $p = .057$). Although the latter was approaching significance, the critical ratio was also outside of the suggested range of $>\pm1.96$. Thus, H_{3b1} was holistically rejected.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H_{3-b1-i}	PIE $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-.074	-.081	-1.386	.166	+	X
H_{3-b1-ii}	PIE $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-.030	-.034	-.597	.551	+	X
H_{3-b1-iii}	PIE $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	.011	.012	.214	.831	+	X
H_{3-b1-iv}	PIE $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	-.159	-.041	-.604	.546	+	X
H_{3-b1-v}	PIE $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-.045	-.052	-.774	.439	+	X
H_{3-b1-vi}	PIE $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	.188	.055	.826	.409	+	X
H_{3-b1-vii}	PIE $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	.155	-.124	1.902	.057	-	X

Table 73: Direct Effects of Past International Experience on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included)

Hypotheses H_{4b1} predicted that current age would have a positive impact on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, which was predicted to be adversely affected by age. While H_{4-a-I}, predicting age to have a positive impact on job satisfaction was supported ($ß = .137$, $p = .020$), however conversely to model 1a, age was also negatively related to host country community embeddedness ($ß = -.131$, $p = .050$). This is the next difference compared to model 1a. All other relationships rendered no significant relationships, such that age was not related to organisational based self-esteem ($ß = .081$, $p = .165$), organisational commitment ($ß = .043$, $p = .431$), career embeddedness ($ß = -.054$, $p = .433$), life satisfaction ($ß = .051$, $p = .451$), and perceived level of overqualification ($ß = -.055$, $p = .404$). Thus, while H_{4-b1-i} was supported, all other hypotheses within H_{4-b1} can be rejected, while the counter-intuitive finding identified by H_{4-b1-vi} is an interesting point of departure for the next chapter (see Table 74 below): the discussion section.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H4-b1-i	Ag ⟹ J-Sat	.011	.121	2.038	.042	+	✓
H4-b1-ii	Ag ⟹ OBSE	.007	.081	1.389	.165	+	X
H4-b1-iii	Ag⟹ OrCom	.004	.043	.787	.431	+	X
H4-b1-iv	Ag ⟹ CarEm	-.020	-.054	-.785	.433	+	X
H4-b1-v	Ag ⟹ L-Sat	.004	.051	.754	451	+	X
H4-b1-vi	Ag ⟹ CoEm	-.044	-.131	-1.960	.050	+	X - Opposite
H4-b1-vii	Ag ⟹ OverQ	-.007	-.055	-.834	.404	-	X

Table 74: Direct Effects of Current Age on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included)

The final set of hypotheses predicting micro-level variables suggested that longer time spent in the UK (host country tenure; HCT), will have a positive effect on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, which was expected to be adversely affected. As can be seen in Table 75 below, no significant direct relationships were found as host country tenure was not related to job satisfaction (ß = .003, p = .963), organisational based self-esteem (ß = .052, p = .384), organisational commitment (ß = .044, p = .429), career embeddedness (ß = -.012, p = .876), life satisfaction (ß = -.110, p = .115), community embeddedness (ß = .044, p = .522) or perceived level of overqualification (ß = -.081, p = .232). Thus, after inserting acculturation identities as mediator, no direct effects were measured with regards to HCT.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H5b1-i	HCT ⟹ J-Sat	.000	.003	.046	.963	+	X
H5b1-ii	HCT ⟹ OBSE	.005	.052	.871	.384	+	X
H5b1-iii	HCT⟹OrCom	.005	.044	.791	.429	+	X
H5b1-iv	HCT⟹ CarEm	-.005	-.012	-.168	.876	+	X
H5b1-v	HCT ⟹ L-Sat	-.011	-.110	-1.576	.115	+	X
H5b1-vi	HCT ⟹ CoEm	.017	.044	.640	.522	+	X
H5b1-vii	HCT⟹ OverQ	-.011	-.081	-1.196	.232	-	X

Table 75: Direct Effects of Host Country Tenure on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included)

7.6.2. Direct Effect: Meso-Level Variables

As was the case for the last models, the meso-level variables, were compiled into one latent variable, such that co-worker social support and friends social support flowed primarily into the latent variable social support and then into the overriding supportive structure at the meso-level, while climate for inclusion and diversity climate flowed into organisational culture and then into the same meso-level latent construct[9].

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[9] See explanation in previous section 7.4.2.

As can be seen in Table 76 below, the relationship between the overall latent construct is depicted. This is essentially what Matsunaga (2008) referred to as partial-parcelling, such that a variable can also be categorised into sub-dimensions of an overall latent construct. Before proceeding it is important that the respective estimates load onto the main latent construct with high levels of significance, with C.R. values of above $>\pm1.96$. All conditions were met, which meant the next phase of the analysis could be addressed: Meso-level hypotheses testing.

Description	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value
Meso $\Rightarrow$ CorCulture	.920	n.a.	<.000*
Meso $\Rightarrow$ SocialSup	.635	4.192	<.000
CorCulture $\Rightarrow$ CI	.913	11.315	<.000
CorCulture $\Rightarrow$ DC	.733	n.a.	<.000*
SocialSup $\Rightarrow$ SS_Co-Work	.824	4.579	<.000
SocialSup $\Rightarrow$ SS_Friends	.474	n.a.	<.000*

* by design.

Table 76: Meso-level latent construct (when mediator variables home and host identity were included).

As depicted in Table 77 below, the hypotheses H_{6b1} suggest that the meso-level supportive construct (including organisational culture and social support) were predicted to have a positive influence on all outcome variables in a similar vein to the previous individual-level variables, with the exception of level of overqualification (i.e. $H_{6b1-vii}$), which is predicted to be adversely affected by the supportive nature of the meso-level.

Similar to relationships observed in model 1a, the results suggest that the supportive nature of the meso-level variables have a positive effect on job satisfaction (ß = .691, p = .000), organisational based self-esteem (ß = .685, p = .000), organisational commitment (ß = .780, p = .000), career embeddedness (ß = .232, p = .002), life satisfaction (ß = .359, p = .000), while at the same time having a negative effect on perceived level of overqualification (ß = -.468, p = .000). The only hypothesis which was not supported was H_{6b1-vi}, which suggested the meso-level having an impact on the level of community embeddedness. While results show a moderate effect size (ß = .104, p = .137), it was insignificant. Thus, with the minor exception hypotheses H_{6b1} were supported. No differences were observed with respect to the effect of the supportive meso-level structure on respective dependent variables after inserting the mediating variables.

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H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{6\text{-b1-i}}$	Meso⇒ J-Sat	.987	.691	6.945	.000	+	✓
H$_{6\text{-b1-ii}}$	Meso⇒ OBSE	.921	.685	6.971	.000	+	✓
H$_{6\text{-b1-iii}}$	Meso⇒OrCom	1.104	.780	7.436	.000	+	✓
H$_{6\text{-b1-iv}}$	Meso⇒ CarEm	1.393	.232	3.070	.002	+	✓
H$_{6\text{-b1-v}}$	Meso⇒ L-Sat	.484	.359	4.438	.000	+	✓
H$_{6\text{-b1-vi}}$	Meso⇒ CoEm	.553	.104	1.486	.137	+	X
H$_{6\text{-b1-vii}}$	Meso⇒ OverQ	-.908	-.468	-5.439	.000	-	✓

Table 77: Direct Effects of Supportive Meso-Level Structures on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included).

7.6.3. Direct Effects: Macro-Level Variables

In addition to the micro- and meso-level variables, two macro-level variables were also taken into consideration separately due to their polarising nature.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{8\text{-b1-i}}$	HCE⇒ J-Sat	.	.	.	.	-	X*
H$_{8\text{-b1-ii}}$	HCE⇒ OBSE	.	.	.	.	-	X*
H$_{8\text{-b1-iii}}$	HCE⇒OrCom	.084	.096	2.242	.025	-	X - Opposite
H$_{8\text{-b1-iv}}$	HCE⇒ CaEm	-.061	-.017	-.259	.795	-	X
H$_{8\text{-b1-v}}$	HCE⇒ L-Sat	.041	.050	.804	.422	-	X
H$_{8\text{-b1-vi}}$	HCE⇒ CoEm	.045	.014	.223	.823	-	X
H$_{8\text{-b1-vii}}$	HCE⇒OverQ	.149	.126	2.114	.034	+	✓

Table 78: Direct Effects of Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included). * = removed due to no significant relationship being observed, which significantly improved model fit indices.

H$_{8\text{-b1}}$ predicted that host country ethnocentrism will have a negative impact on preferred outcome variables, while the opposite is expected in the exception of overqualification, i.e. with a rise in HCE there should be a rise in perceived level of overqualification. As model 1b (and Table 78 above) indicate(s), H$_{8\text{-b1-i}}$ and H$_{8\text{-b1-ii}}$, as well as H$_{8\text{-b1-iv}}$ to H$_{8\text{-b1-vi}}$ showed no significant results. Thus, a large proportion of the respective results do not support the hypotheses. However, H$_{8\text{-b1-iii}}$ on the other hand, predicted a negative relationship between HCE and organisational commitment, which was not supported as results suggest the opposite (ß = .096, p = .025), such that the higher the perceived level of host country ethnocentrism the more committed individuals are to their organisations. The expected positive effect of HCE on level of overqualification was also once again support (ß = .126, p = .034). Thus, only the last variable fulfilled the expectations as illustrated in the literature, while H$_{8\text{-b1-iii}}$ suggests a counter-intuitive finding, such that people are more committed to their respective places of work when they perceive higher levels of ethnocentrism. This represents the main change when

inserting the mediating variable: HCE no longer has a direct effect on community embeddedness, while organisational commitment shows a positive relationship.

The final variables taken into account with regards to the direct effects on respective outcome variables was institutional distance. The hypotheses pertaining to institutional distance suggested that the higher the level of institutional distance, the more negative effects an individual was going to perceive (i.e. the outcome variables), once again, with the exception of perceived level of overqualification.

As illustrated in model 1b (see also Table 79 below), the expected negative effect of higher institutional distance was rendered, such that higher levels of institutional distance led to higher levels of perceived over-qualification (ß = .122, p = .027). In addition, no support was given to any other hypothesis. Thus, indicating that the negative aspects of higher levels of institutional distance were experienced, but the positive aspects were not related to higher levels of institutional distance. Interestingly, higher levels of institutional distance was positively related to higher levels of career embeddedness (ß = .229, p = .000). Thus, not only lending no support for H_{9-a-iv}, but rather suggesting that the higher the level of institutional distance between home and host country, the higher the level of career embeddedness.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H_{9-b1-i}	InD $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.	.	.	.	-	X*
$H_{9-b1-ii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-.484	-.066	-1.364	.173	-	X
$H_{9-b1-iii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	-.068	-.009	-.201	.841	-	X
$H_{9-b1-iv}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	7.510	.229	3.882	.000	-	X - Opposite
H_{9-b1-v}	InD $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-.018	-.002	-.043	.965	-	X
$H_{9-b1-vi}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-.354	-.012	-.212	.832	-	X
$H_{9-b1-vii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	1.290	.122	2.217	.027	+	✓

Table 79: Direct Effects of Institutional Distance (measures by difference in the UN Development Index) on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included). * = removed due to no significant relationship being observed, which significantly improved model fit indices.

7.6.4. Direct Effects – Changes Summary

Before proceeding to looking at the indirect effects, this section will quickly summarise the areas of difference between the previous model 1a and the current model 1b. By and large, the results illustrated significant stability across the two models, with most variables directly effecting respective dependent variables in a similar fashion, i.e. while the statistics were not identical (which would be very worrisome) they did illustrate similar trends of respective variables, only with a few exceptions.

7.6.5. Indirect Effects – The indirect Effects of Acculturation

This section is dedicated to presenting the indirect effects rendered from model 1b. First, the significant relationships between independent and mediating variables will be presented, followed by the relationships between the mediating and the dependent variables. Finally, the individual (partial-)mediations (including indirect effects) will be summarised.

Table 80 below illustrates the first step of the mediation effects. The expectation was such that CQ, past international experience, host country tenure, as well as meso-level supportive structure would be negatively associated to home identity (H_{1b2}, H_{3b2}, H_{5b2} & H_{6b2}), while current age was expected to have no effect (H_{4b2}). HCE and institutional distance on the other hand, were expected to have a positive effect on home country identity (H_{8b2} & H_{9b2}). While host country ethnocentrism was positively related to home identity (ß = .136, p = .037) and age had no significant effect as (ß = -.085, p = .254), all other independent variables illustrated no significant effects on the mediating variable home identity: CQ (ß = -.039, p = .545), past international experience (ß = -.092, p = .158), host country tenure (ß = -.087, p = .250), meso-level supportive structure (ß = .078, p = .315), as well as institutional distance (ß = .031, p = .634). Thus, only H_{8b2} and H_{4b2} were supported, while all other hypotheses were rejected.

$H_\#$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H_{1b2}	CQ $\Rightarrow$ HmID	-.058	-.039	-.605	.545	-	X
H_{3b2}	PIE $\Rightarrow$ HmID	-.079	-.092	-1.412	.158	-	X
H_{4b2}	Age $\Rightarrow$ HmID	-.007	-.085	-1.141	.254	neut.	✓
H_{5b2}	HCT $\Rightarrow$ HmID	-.008	-.087	-1.151	.250	-	X
H_{6b2}	Meso$\Rightarrow$HmID	.104	.078	1.006	.315	-	X
H_{8b2}	HCE $\Rightarrow$ HmID	.111	.136	2.082	.037	+	✓
H_{9b2}	InD $\Rightarrow$ HmID	.224	.031	.476	.634	+	X

Table 80: Effects of independent variables on Home Identity (mediating variables)

Table 81 below illustrates the relationships between independent variables and the other mediating variable, host identity. It was expected that CQ, past international experience, host country tenure and meso-level supportive structure were predicted to have a positive effect on host country identity (i.e. H_{1b3}, H_{3b3}, H_{5b3} & H_{6b3}), while current age was predicted to have no significant effect (H_{4b3}). HCE and institutional distance (i.e., H_{8b3} & H_{9b3}) on the other hand, were predicted to have a negative effect on host country identity. As can be seen in the Table 81 below and later in model 1b (page 180), cultural intelligence (ß = .264, p = .000) and host country tenure (ß = .210, p = .002) show positive effects on host country identity, as predicted. Thus, confirming H_{1b3} and H_{5b3} respectively. In addition, to the expected negative relationship

between HCE and host country identity (ß = -.307, p = .000), past international experience rendered a significant negative relationship to host country identity: the opposite of what was initially expected (ß = -.370, p = .000). Age on the other hand, had the expected non-significant relationship (H$_{4b3}$; ß = -.021, p = .745), while all other independent variables showed no significant relationships: Meso-level supportive structure (H$_{6b3}$; ß = .045, p = .501); institutional distance (H$_{9b3}$; ß = .003, p = .955). Thus, the latter two outlined hypotheses were rejected, while the former initially outlined hypotheses were supported. Finally, H$_{3b3}$ rendered the opposite effect to that which was expected. Illustrating another interesting point of departure for the discussion section.

H$_\#$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{1b3}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ HsID	.383	.264	4.530	.000	+	✓
H$_{3b3}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ HsID	-.315	-.370	-6.183	.000	+	X - Opposite
H$_{4b3}$	Age $\Rightarrow$ HsID	-.002	-.021	-.325	.745	Neut.	✓
H$_{5b3}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ HsID	.020	.210	3.153	.002	+	✓
H$_{6b3}$	Meso $\Rightarrow$ HsID	.059	.045	.672	.501	+	X
H$_{8b3}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ HsID	-.248	-.307	-5.247	.000	-	✓
H$_{9b3}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ HsID	.023	.003	.056	.955	-	X

Table 81: Effects of independent variables on Host Identity (mediating variables)

After highlighting the relationships from the independent to the dependent mediating variables, the next step will be to describe the effects of the respective mediating variables on the outcome variables.

Table 82 below, illustrates the predicted relationships, such that home identity was predicted to have a negative effect on the first six dependent variables, while having a negative effect on OverQ. As illustrated, two hypotheses were supported, including home country identity having a negative impact on career embeddedness (ß = -.188, p = .005), as well as community embeddedness (ß = -.182, p = .006). No predicted relationships were confirmed between home country identity and job satisfaction (ß = -.088, p = .140), organisational based self-esteem (ß = -.054, p = .140), organisational commitment (ß = -.005, p = .932), life-satisfaction (ß = -.009, p = .886), as well as perceived level of overqualification (ß = .057, p = .377). Thus, H$_{4b4}$ and H$_{6b4}$ were supported, while all others were rejected.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{1b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-.094	-.088	-1.475	.140	-	X
H$_{2b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$OBSE	.055	-.054	-.927	.354	-	X
H$_{3b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$OrCo	-.005	-.005	-.085	.932	-	X
H$_{4b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$CaEm	-.845	-.188	-2.789	.005	-	✓
H$_{5b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-.010	-.009	-.143	.886	-	X
H$_{6b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$CoEm	-.723	-.182	-2.773	.006	-	✓
H$_{7b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$OvrQ	.083	.057	.884	.377	+	X

Table 82: The effects of Home Identity (mediating variable) on dependent variables.

Similar to Table 82 above, Table 83 below illustrates the predicted and actual relationships of host identity on respective outcome variables. As predicted by H$_{5b5}$ and H$_{6b5}$, host country identity was positively related to life satisfaction (ß = .212, p = .011) and community embeddedness (ß = .388, p = .000). Thus, respective hypotheses were supported. No other predicted relationships were rendered, such that the relationships between host country identity and job-satisfaction (ß = -.048, p = .492), organisational based self-esteem (ß = .054, p = .434), organisational commitment (ß = .072, p = .296), career embeddedness (ß = .123, p = .145), as well as perceived level of overqualification (ß = .174, p = .142), were all insignificant. Therefore, other than the two aforementioned hypotheses, all respective hypotheses were rejected.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{1b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-.052	-.048	-.688	.492	+	X
H$_{2b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ OBSE	.054	.054	.782	.434	+	X
H$_{3b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ OrCo	.077	.072	1.045	.296	+	X
H$_{4b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ CaEm	.557	.123	1.457	.145	+	X
H$_{5b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.217	.212	2.534	.011	+	✓
H$_{6b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ CoEm	1.557	.388	4.615	.000	+	✓
H$_{7b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$OverQ	.174	.119	1.467	.142	-	X

Table 83: The effects of Host Identity (mediating variable) on dependent variables.

7.6.6. Summarising Model 1b – Indirect Effects of Acculturation

After all relationships to and from the respective mediating variables, home and host identity, have been outlined, Tables 84 and 85 below capture all mediating an indirect effects, respectively. Thus, host country identity fully (or perfectly; Osborne, 2008; Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017; Shrout & Bolger, 2002) mediated the relationship between host country tenure (HCT) and community embeddedness (ß$_3$ = .081). Host country ID also fully mediated the relationship between past international experience (PIE) and life satisfaction (ß$_3$ = -.078), as well as between PIE and community embeddedness (ß$_3$ = -.144). Host country identity fully

mediated the relationship between level of host country ethnocentrism (HCE) and community embeddedness ($\beta_3 = -.119$). Last but not least, home identity fully mediated the relationship between HCE community embeddedness ($\beta_3 = -.025$).

H#	Description	β_1	p_1	H#	Description	β_2	p_2	Full/Partial (F/P)	Effect Size (β_c)
H_{5b3}	HCT⟹HsID	.210	.002	H_{6b5}	HsID⟹CoEm	.388	.000	F	.081
H_{3b3}	PIE⟹HsID	-.370	.000	H_{5b5}	HsID⟹L-Sat	.212	.011	F	-.078
H_{8b2}	HCE⟹HmID	.136	.037	H_{6b4}	HmID⟹CoEm	-.182	.006	F	-.025
H_{8b3}	HCE⟹HsID	-.307	.000	H_{6b5}	HsID⟹CoEm	.388	.000	F	-.119

Table 84: Observed traditional mediating effects of acculturation identities: Home and Host Country Identities

In addition to the traditional full mediations illustrated above, further indirect effects were measured (see table 85 below), taking a theoretical approach as outlined by Rucker et al. (2011) and Hayes (2013). Thus, indirect relationships could be observed between CQ and life satisfaction ($\beta_3 = .056$), as well as community embeddedness ($\beta_3 = .106$) through host country ID. A further indirect relationship could be observed from HCT to life satisfaction through host ID ($\beta_3 = .045$), as well as from PIE to community embeddedness through host country ID ($\beta_3 = -.144$). Furthermore, an indirect relationship was rendered between HCE and career embeddedness through home country ID ($\beta_3 = -.026$), as well as a final indirect relationship from HCE and life satisfaction through host country ID ($\beta_3 = -.065$). All of the aforementioned indirect effects (i.e. through the traditional and "modern" approach) have been drawn out and illustrated in Figure 12 below.

H#	Description	β_1	p_1	H#	Description	β_2	p_2	Effect Size (β_c)
H_{1b3}	CQ⟹HsID	.264	.000	H_{5b5}	HsID⟹L-Sat	.212	.011	.056
H_{1b3}	CQ⟹HsID	.264	.000	H_{6b5}	HsID⟹CoEm	.388	.000	.106
H_{5b3}	HCT⟹HsID	.210	.002	H_{5b5}	HsID⟹L-Sat	.212	.011	.045
H_{3b3}	PIE⟹HsID	-.370	.000	H_{6b5}	HsID⟹CoEm	.388	.000	-.144
H_{8b2}	HCE⟹HmID	.136	.037	H_{4b4}	HmID⟹CaEm	-.188	.005	-.026
H_{8b3}	HCE⟹HsID	-.307	.000	H_{5b5}	HsID⟹L-Sat	.212	.011	-.065

Table 85: Observed indirect effects of acculturation identities: Home and Host Country Identities.
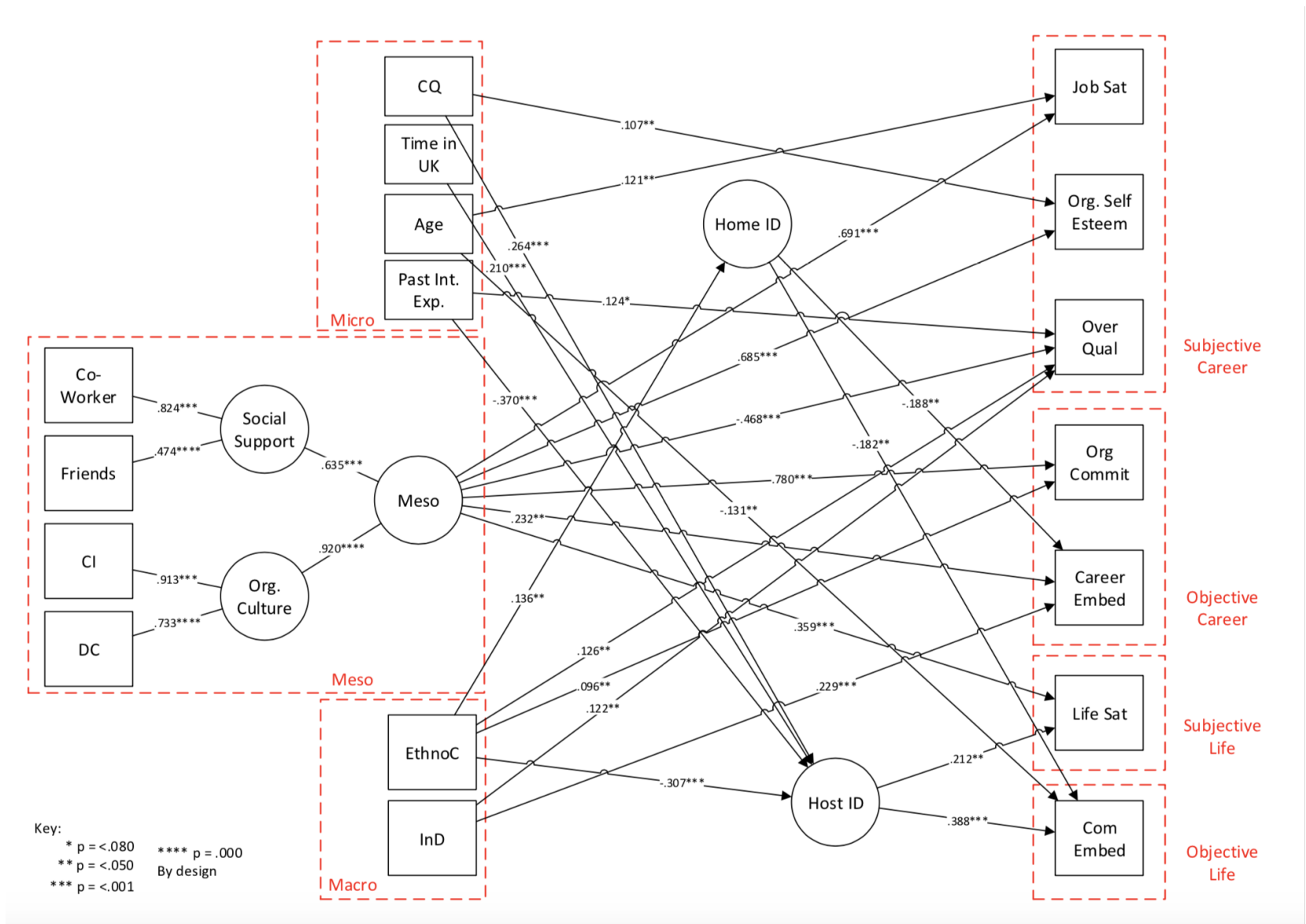
Figure 14 - Model 1b: The direct effects of societal and contextual factors, as well as individual characteristics on the different facets of migration success – including Home and Host Identity Configuration.

7.7. Model 1c: The direct and indirect effects of adjustment on dependent (outcome) variables.

This section is the final section for model 1 and will outline the indirect effects which adjustment has on respective outcome variables. Similar to the previous section on acculturation identities, this section will take a similar format, such that initially the direct effects will be re-iterated and specific differences between the other two models will be highlighted. Then the effects of independent variables on the two adjustment types, family and work adjustment, will be outlined. Next the relationships between the mediating variables and the dependent variables will be outlined, followed by a final summary of the respective mediating and indirect effects will be outlined respectively.

7.7.1. Direct Effects – Micro-Level Variables (Adjustment)

Hypotheses 1_{c1} predicted that cultural intelligence would have a positive effect on all outcome variables, with the exception of perceived level of overqualification, which was predicted to have an adverse effect, i.e. be negatively correlated to CQ. As can been seen in Table 86 below, CQ has a positive effect on organisational based self-esteem (ß = .107, p = .033), as well as life satisfaction (ß = .110, p = .046). The latter of which illustrates a minor deviation from the previous two models, which did not observe the same effect. Other than the two relationships, no other significant direct effects between cultural intelligence and dependent variables were found, such that CQ was not significantly related to job satisfaction (ß = .004, p = .932), organisational commitment (ß = .026, p = .590), career embeddedness (ß = -.003, p = .960), community embeddedness (ß = .081, p = .197), as well as perceived level of overqualification (ß = .071, p = .218), when the work- and family- adjustment were included. Thus, H_{1c1} was only given partial support, with a majority of the respective variables rendering no significant relationships.

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H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{1\text{-c1-i}}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.007	.004	.085	.932	+	X
H$_{1\text{-c1-ii}}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	.159	.107	2.132	.033	+	✓
H$_{1\text{-c1-iii}}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	.040	.026	.539	.590	+	X
H$_{1\text{-c1-iv}}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	-.007	-.003	-.050	.960	+	X
H$_{1\text{-c1-v}}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.163	.110	2.000	.046	+	✓
H$_{1\text{-c1-vi}}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	.158	.081	1.291	.197	+	X
H$_{1\text{-c1-vii}}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	.152	.071	1.232	.218	-	X

Table 86: Direct Effects of Cultural Intelligence on Migration Success Variable (when mediating variables work- and family-adjustment were included)

Hypotheses 3$_{c1}$ predicted that higher breadth of past international experience (PIE) of over six months will have a positive effect on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, which should be adversely affected by experience. Upon inserting of the respective mediating variables, work- and family-adjustment, no significant direct relationship between PIE and previously highlighted (dependent) outcome variables were observed (see Table 87), such that PIE was not related to job satisfaction (ß = -.052, p = .294); PIE was not related to organisational based self-esteem (ß = -.052, p = .305); PIE was not related to organisational commitment (ß = -.026, p = .586); PIE was not related to career embeddedness (ß = -.073, p = .241); PIE was not related to life satisfaction (ß = -.065, p = .239); PIE was not related to community embeddedness (ß = -.059, p = .348); and finally, PIE was not related to perceived level of overqualification (ß = .084, p = .148). Thus, H$_{3c1}$ was holistically rejected.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H$_{3\text{-c1-i}}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-.048	-.052	-1.050	.294	+	X
H$_{3\text{-c1-ii}}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-.045	-.052	-1.025	.305	+	X
H$_{3\text{-c1-iii}}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	-.024	-.026	-.544	.586	+	X
H$_{3\text{-c1-iv}}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	-.094	-.073	-1.172	.241	+	X
H$_{3\text{-c1-v}}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-.057	-.065	-1.177	.239	+	X
H$_{3\text{-c1-vi}}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-.068	-.059	-.938	.348	+	X
H$_{3\text{-c1-vii}}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	.106	.084	1.446	.148	-	X

Table 87: Direct Effects of Past International Experience on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables work- and family-adjustment were included)

Hypotheses H$_{4b1}$ predicted that current age would have a positive impact on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification, which was predicted to be adversely affected by age. As illustrated in Table 88 below, while H$_{4\text{-a-I}}$, predicting age to have a positive impact on job satisfaction was supported (ß = .121, p = .034), all other dependent variables showed no significant relationships, such that age was not related to organisational based self-esteem (ß = .082, p = .156), organisational commitment (ß = .051, p = .931), career embeddedness (ß = -.038, p = .588), life satisfaction (ß = .025, p = .690), community embeddedness (ß = -.120, p =

.096), as well as overqualification (ß = -.078, p = .240). Thus, reflecting the initial direct effects from model 1a and different from 1b, respectively. Thus, while $H_{4\text{-c1-i}}$ was supported, all other hypotheses ($H_{4\text{-c1-ii}}$ to $H_{4\text{-c1-vii}}$) can be rejected.

$H_\#$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
$H_{4\text{-c1-i}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.011	.121	2.118	.034	+	✓
$H_{4\text{-c1-ii}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	.007	.082	1.418	.156	+	X
$H_{4\text{-c1-iii}}$	Ag$\Rightarrow$ OrCom	.005	.051	.931	.352	+	X
$H_{4\text{-c1-iv}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	-.005	-.038	-.541	.588	+	X
$H_{4\text{-c1-v}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.002	.025	.399	.690	+	X
$H_{4\text{-c1-vi}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-.013	-.120	-1.666	.096	+	X
$H_{4\text{-c1-vii}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-.010	-.078	-1.174	.240	-	X

Table 88: Direct Effects of Current Age on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables work- and family-adjustment were included)

Once again, the final set of hypotheses predicting micro-level variables suggested that longer time spent in the UK (host country tenure; HCT), will have a positive effect on all outcome variables, with the exception of overqualification which was expected to be adversely affected. As can be seen in Table 89 below and similar to model 1a, HCT was significantly, positively related to community embeddedness (ß = .143, p = .046). Thus, lending support to $H_{5c1\text{-vi}}$. All other observed relationships were insignificant, such that HCT was not significantly related to job satisfaction (ß = .005, p = .931), organisational based self-esteem (ß = .070, p = .222), organisational commitment (ß = .058, p = .290), career embeddedness (ß = .029, ß = .685), life satisfaction (ß = -.053, p = .398), as well as perceived level of overqualification (ß = -.057, p = .392). Thus, after inserting adjustment as mediator, only $H_{5c1\text{-vi}}$ could be supported, while all others were rejected (i.e. $H_{5c1\text{-I}}$ to $H_{5c1\text{-v}}$ and $H_{5c1\text{-vii}}$).

$H_\#$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
$H_{5c1\text{-i}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.001	.005	.087	.931	+	X
$H_{5c1\text{-ii}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	.007	.070	1.222	.222	+	X
$H_{5c1\text{-iii}}$	HCT$\Rightarrow$OrCom	.006	.058	1.058	.290	+	X
$H_{5c1\text{-iv}}$	HCT$\Rightarrow$ CarEm	.004	.029	.406	.685	+	X
$H_{5c1\text{-v}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-.005	-.053	-.845	.398	+	X
$H_{5c1\text{-vi}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	.018	.143	1.991	.046	+	✓
$H_{5c1\text{-vii}}$	HCT$\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-.008	-.057	-.856	.392	-	X

Table 89: Direct Effects of Host Country Tenure on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables work- and family-adjustment were included)

7.7.2. Direct Effect: Meso-Level Variables (Adjustment)

As was the case for the last models, the meso-level variables, were compiled into one latent variable, such that co-worker social support and friends social support flowed primarily

into the latent variable social support and then into the overriding supportive structure at the meso-level, while climate for inclusion and diversity climate flowed into organisational culture and then into the same meso-level latent construct[10].

As can be seen in Table 90 below, the relationship between the overall latent construct is depicted. This is essentially what Matsunaga (2008) referred to as partial-parcelling, such that a variable can also be categorised into sub-dimensions of an overall latent construct. Before proceeding it is important that the respective estimates load onto the main latent construct with high levels of significance, with C.R. values of above >±1.96. All conditions were met, which meant the next phase of the analysis could be addressed: Meso-level hypotheses testing.

Description	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value
Meso $\Rightarrow$ CorCulture	.892	n.a.	<.000*
Meso $\Rightarrow$ SocialSup	.629	4.111	<.000
CorCulture $\Rightarrow$ CI	.908	11.202	<.000
CorCulture $\Rightarrow$ DC	.734	n.a.	<.000*
SocialSup $\Rightarrow$ SS_Co-Work	.842	4.501	<.000
SocialSup $\Rightarrow$ SS_Friends	.464	n.a.	<.000*

* by design.

Table 90: Meso-level latent construct (when mediator variables work- and family-adjustment were included).

As depicted in Table 91 below, the hypotheses H_{6c1} suggest that the meso-level supportive construct (including organisational culture and social support) were predicted to have a positive influence on all outcome variables in a similar vein to the previous individual-level variables, with the exception of level of overqualification (i.e. $H_{6c1-vii}$), which is predicted to be adversely affected by the supportive nature of the meso-level.

Similar to relationships observed in model 1a and 1b, the results suggest that the supportive nature of the meso-level variables have a positive effect on job satisfaction (ß = .596, p = .000), organisational based self-esteem (ß = .660, p = .000), organisational commitment (ß = .802, p = .000), career embeddedness (ß = .235, p = .002), life satisfaction (ß = .338, p = .000), while at the same time having a negative effect on perceived level of overqualification (ß = -.520, p = .000). The only hypothesis which was not supported was H_{6c1-vi}, which suggested the meso-level having an impact on the level of community embeddedness. While results show a moderate effect size (ß = .149, p = .150), it was insignificant. Thus, with the minor exception hypotheses H_{6c1} were supported. No differences were observed with

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[10] See explanation in section 7.4.2.

respect to the effect of the supportive meso-level structure on respective dependent variables after inserting the mediating variables.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H_{6-c1-i}	Meso$\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.869	.596	5.022	.000	+	✓
$H_{6-c1-ii}$	Meso$\Rightarrow$ OBSE	.916	.660	5.210	.000	+	✓
$H_{6-c1-iii}$	Meso$\Rightarrow$OrCom	1.167	.802	5.683	.000	+	✓
$H_{6-c1-iv}$	Meso$\Rightarrow$ CarEm	.484	.235	2.229	.026	+	✓
H_{6-c1-v}	Meso$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.471	.338	3.310	.000	+	✓
$H_{6-c1-vi}$	Meso$\Rightarrow$ CoEm	.272	.149	1.439	.150	+	X
$H_{6-c1-vii}$	Meso$\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-1.042	-.520	-4.303	.000	-	✓

Table 91: Direct Effects of Supportive Meso-Level Structures on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables work- and family-adjustment were included).

7.7.3. Direct Effects: Macro-Level Variables (Adjustment)

In addition to the micro- and meso-level variables, two macro-level variables were also taken into consideration separately due to their polarising nature. H_{8-c1} predicted that host country ethnocentrism will have a negative impact on preferred outcome variables, while the opposite is expected in the exception of overqualification, i.e. with a rise in HCE there should be a rise in perceived level of overqualification. As illustrated in model 1c and Table 92 below, H_{8-b1-i} to H_{8-b1-v} showed no significant results. Thus, a large proportion of the respective results do not support the hypotheses, such that HCE showed no significant relationship with job satisfaction (ß = -.051, p = .300, organisational based self-esteem (ß =-.014, ß = .781), organisational commitment (ß = .064, p = .184), career embeddedness (ß = -.082, p = .184) and life satisfaction (ß = -.051, p = .358). $H_{8-c1-vi}$ and $H_{8-c1-vii}$ were supported, suggesting the expected positive relationship between HCE and community embeddedness (ß = -.132, p = .035), as well as the expected negative relationship between HCE and level of overqualification (ß = .121, p = .036). Thus, the results from model 1a, were once again supported.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H_{8-c1-i}	HCE$\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-.044	-.051	-1.036	.300	-	X
$H_{8-c1-ii}$	HCE$\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-.012	-.014	-.278	.781	-	X
$H_{8-c1-iii}$	HCE$\Rightarrow$OrCom	.055	.064	1.327	.184	-	X
$H_{8-c1-iv}$	HCE$\Rightarrow$ CaEm	-.100	-.082	-1.329	.184	-	X
H_{8-c1-v}	HCE$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-.042	-.051	-.919	.358	-	X
$H_{8-c1-vi}$	HCE$\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-.143	-.132	-2.112	.035	-	✓
$H_{8-c1-vii}$	HCE$\Rightarrow$OverQ	-144	.121	2.092	.036	+	✓

Table 92: Direct Effects of Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables work- and family-adjustment were included).

The final variables taken into account with regards to the direct effects on respective outcome variables was institutional distance[11]. It was predicted that the higher the level of institutional distance, the more negative effects an individual was going to perceived (i.e. the outcome variables), once again, with the exception of perceived level of overqualification.

As illustrated in Table 93 below, the expected negative effect of higher institutional distance was rendered, such that higher levels of institutional distance led to higher levels of perceived over-qualification (ß = .115, p = .048). In addition, no support was given to any other hypothesis. Thus, indicating that the negative aspects of higher levels of institutional distance were experienced, but the positive aspects were not related to higher levels of institutional distance. Interestingly, higher levels of institutional distance were positively related to higher levels of career embeddedness (ß = .228, p = .000). Thus, not only lending no support for $H_{9\text{-c-iv}}$, but rather suggesting that the higher the level of institutional distance between home and host country, the higher the level of career embeddedness.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
$H_{9\text{-c1-i}}$	InD ⇒ J-Sat	-.358	-.046	-.934	.351	-	X
$H_{9\text{-c1-ii}}$	InD ⇒ OBSE	-.523	-.071	-1.410	.159	-	X
$H_{9\text{-c1-iii}}$	InD ⇒ OrCom	-.017	-.002	-.046	.963	-	X
$H_{9\text{-c1-iv}}$	InD ⇒ CarEm	2.492	.228	3.696	.000	-	X - Opposite
$H_{9\text{-c1-v}}$	InD ⇒ L-Sat	-.411	-.056	-1.008	.313	-	X
$H_{9\text{-c1-vi}}$	InD ⇒ CoEm	-.143	-.015	-.235	.814	-	X
$H_{9\text{-c1-vii}}$	InD ⇒ OverQ	1.215	.115	1.973	.048	+	✓

Table 93: Direct Effects of Institutional Distance (measures by difference in the UN Development Index) on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables work- and family-adjustment were included).

7.7.4. Direct Effects (Adjustment) – Changes Summary

Before proceeding to looking at the indirect effects, this section will quickly summarise the areas of difference between the previous model 1a, as well as 1b and the current model 1c. By and large, the results illustrated significant stability across all three models, with most variables directly effecting respective dependent variables in a similar fashion, i.e. while the statistics were not identical (which would be very worrisome) they did illustrate similar trends of respective variables, only with a few exceptions.

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[11] See previous section 7.4.3. for description of this variable.

7.7.5. Indirect Effects (Adjustment)

This section is dedicated to presenting the indirect effects rendered from model 1c. First, the significant relationships between independent and mediating (i.e. intermediary) variables will be presented, followed by the relationships between the mediating (i.e. intermediary) and the dependent variables. Finally, the individual (partial-)mediations and indirect effects will be summarised.

Table 94 below, illustrates the effects which independent variables have on the work adjustment. As depicted in the respective table, Meso-level supportive structure had a positive effect on work-adjustment ($ß = .562$, $p = .000$) and host country ethnocentrism had a negative effect on work adjustment ($ß$ -.120, $p = .029$). Thus, supporting H_{6c2} and H_{8c2}, respectively. All other variables rendered no significant relationship, such that cultural intelligence ($ß = .101$, $p = .066$), past international experience ($ß = -.032$, $p = .557$), current age ($ß = .103$, $p = 102$), host country tenure ($ß = -.025$, $p = .700$), and institutional distance ($ß = .076$, $p = .165$), showed no significant positive or negative relationships. Thus, all other hypotheses were rejected.

$H_{\#}$	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H_{1c2}	CQ $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	.123	.101	1.838	.066	+	X
H_{3c2}	PIE $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	-.023	-.032	-.587	.557	+	X
H_{4c2}	Age $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	.007	.103	1.634	.102	+	X
H_{5c2}	HCT $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	-.002	-.025	-.386	.700	+	X
H_{6c2}	Meso$\Rightarrow$ WAd	.642	.562	6.136	.000	+	✓
H_{8c2}	HCE $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	-.081	-.120	-2.189	.029	-	✓
H_{9c2}	InD $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	.459	.076	1.388	.165	-	X

Table 94: Effects of independent variables on Work Adjustment

Table 95 below, depicts the effects of respective independent variables on family adjustment. Meso-level supportive structure rendered a significant positive relationship with family adjustment ($ß = .214$, $p = .007$), as expected. Thus, lending support for H_{6c3}. While, past international experience ($ß = -.162$, $p = .012$), as well as institutional distance ($ß = .138$, $p = .031$) rendered significant relationships, these were the opposite of what was expected, such that PIE was expected to render a positive relationship, while institutional distance was expected to render a significant negative relationship. Thus, H_{3c3} and H_{9c3}, as well as all other hypotheses can be rejected accordingly. However, these do render interesting points of departure for the discussion section, once again.

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H₁c₃	CQ ⇒ FAdj	-.113	-.066	-1.029	.303	+	X
H₃c₃	PIE ⇒ FAdj	-.162	-.162	-2.514	.012	+	X - Opposite
H₄c₃	Age ⇒ FAdj	.008	.079	1.068	.286	+	X
H₅c₃	HCT ⇒ FAdj	-.004	-.036	-.478	.633	+	X
H₆c₃	Meso⇒ FAdj	.342	.214	2.713	.007	+	✓
H₈c₃	HCE ⇒ FAdj	.055	.058	.899	.368	-	X
H₉c₃	InD ⇒ FAdj	1.170	.138	2.157	.031	-	X - Opposite

Table 95: Effects of independent variables on Family Adjustment

The next Table 96, illustrates the second phase of the mediation measurement, i.e. work adjustment's effect on respective dependent variables. As can be seen in the table, work adjustment was unsurprisingly positively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = .182$, $p = .024$). Thus, H_{1c4} was supported. All other hypotheses were rejected (i.e. H_{2c4} to H_{7c4}), as all other relationships rendered no significant effects: organisational based self-esteem ($\beta = .081$, $p = .337$); organisational commitment ($\beta = .027$, $p = .761$); career embeddedness ($\beta = .001$, $p = .990$); life satisfaction ($\beta = -.042$, $p = .600$); community embeddedness ($\beta = -.075$, $p = .382$); perceived level of overqualification ($\beta = .077$, $p = .379$).

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H₁c₄	AdjW⇒ J-Sat	.232	.182	2.259	.024	+	✓
H₂c₄	AdjW ⇒OBSE	.098	.081	.960	.337	+	X
H₃c₄	AdjW ⇒OrCo	.034	.027	.112	.761	+	X
H₄c₄	AdjW ⇒CaEm	.002	.001	.013	.990	+	X
H₅c₄	AdjW ⇒ L-Sat	-.051	-.042	-.525	.600	+	X
H₆c₄	AdjW ⇒CoEm	-.120	-.075	-.874	.382	+	X
H₇c₄	AdjW ⇒OvrQ	.135	.077	.880	.379	-	X

Table 96: The effects of Work Adjustment on dependent variables.

Similar to the previous table, Table 97 below reflects the positive relationships between family adjustment and respective dependent (outcome) variables. Life satisfaction was significantly positively affected by family adjustment, thus lending support for H_{5c5}. All other hypotheses were rejected, as once again no significant relationships were measured between family adjustment and respective dependent variables: job satisfaction ($\beta = -.042$, $p = .464$), organisational based self-esteem ($\beta = -.043$, $p = .460$), organisational commitment ($\beta = -.092$, $p = .104$), career embeddedness ($\beta = -.038$, $p = .672$), community embeddedness ($\beta = .092$, $p = .191$), level of over-qualification ($\beta = .057$, $p = .388$).

H#	Description	Unstd.	Std. Est. (ß)	C.R.	p-value	Pred	Verdict
H_{1c5}	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-.038	-.042	-.733	.464	+	X
H_{2c5}	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-.038	-.043	-.739	.460	+	X
H_{3c5}	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ OrCo	-.084	-.092	-1.627	.104	+	X
H_{4c5}	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ CaEm	-.038	-.029	-.423	.672	+	X
H_{5c5}	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.336	.386	6.322	.000	+	✓
H_{6c5}	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	.105	.092	1.309	.191	+	X
H_{7c5}	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	.072	.057	.864	.388	-	X

Table 97: The effects of Family Adjustment on dependent variables.

7.7.6. Summarising Model 1c: Mediating and Indirect Effects of Adjustment

As depicted in Table 98 and 99 below, three traditional mediating effects of work- and family-adjustment can be observed respectively. Firstly, work adjustment partially mediated the initial relationship between Meso-level supportive structure and job satisfaction, with a moderate indirect effect size ($ß_3 = .102$), which in combination with the previously highlighted direct effect size ($ß_d = .596$), renders a total effect size of $ß_t = .698$[12]. Family adjustment also fully mediated the relationship between past international experience and life-satisfaction, such that a perfect weak indirect effect size of $ß_t = -.060$ was rendered. Due to the negative relationship between past international experience and adjustment, the next part of the mediation is negatively affected. Family adjustment also rendered a weak to moderate partial mediation between meso-level support structure and life satisfaction of $ß_i = .076$, with an overall strong total effect size of $ß_t = (ß_{i1} * ß_{i2}) + ß_d = (.196 * .386) + .338 = .414$.

H#	Description	$ß_1$	p_1	H#	Description	$ß_2$	p_2	Full/Partial (F/P)	Effect Size ($ß_3$)
H_{6c2}	Meso$\Rightarrow$AdjW	.562	.000	H_{1c4}	AdjW$\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.182	.024	P	.102
H_{3c3}	PIE$\Rightarrow$ AdjF	-.156	.012	H_{5c5}	AdjF$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.386	.000	F	-.060
H_{6c3}	Meso$\Rightarrow$ AdjF	.196	.007	H_{5c5}	AdjF$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.386	.000	P	.076

* Approaching significance

Table 98: Observed mediating effects of Family- and Work-Adjustment

In addition, to the classical partial and full mediations identified above, three additional indirect effects were rendered through the theory-based approach. Thus, a further indirect relationship was brought to the fore between host country ethnocentrism and job satisfaction through work adjustment. Albeit, a weak relationship, where $ß_3 = -.022$. The negative total effects can be explained through the negative impact which host country ethnocentrism has on adjustment which in turn negatively effects job satisfaction, i.e. because adjustment is

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[12] Total effect size is calculated from the product of the indirect regression weights and adding the direct effects, i.e. $(ß_{i1} * ß_{i2}) + ß_d = ß_t$ or $ß_t = (.562 * .182) + .596 = .698$

negatively affected the indirect effect is negative too. Finally, a second indirect relationship was identified between institutional distance and life satisfaction through family adjustment (β_3 = .055). All respective indirect effects are depicted in model 1c below.

H#	Description	β_1	p_1	H#	Description	β_2	p_2	Effect Size (β_3)
H_{8c2}	HCE$\Rightarrow$ AdjW	-.120	.029	H_{1c4}	AdjW$\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	.182	.024	-.022
H_{9c3}	InD$\Rightarrow$ AdjF	.143	.031	H_{5c5}	AdjF$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	.386	.000	.055

Table 99: Observed indirect effects of Family- and Work-Adjustment
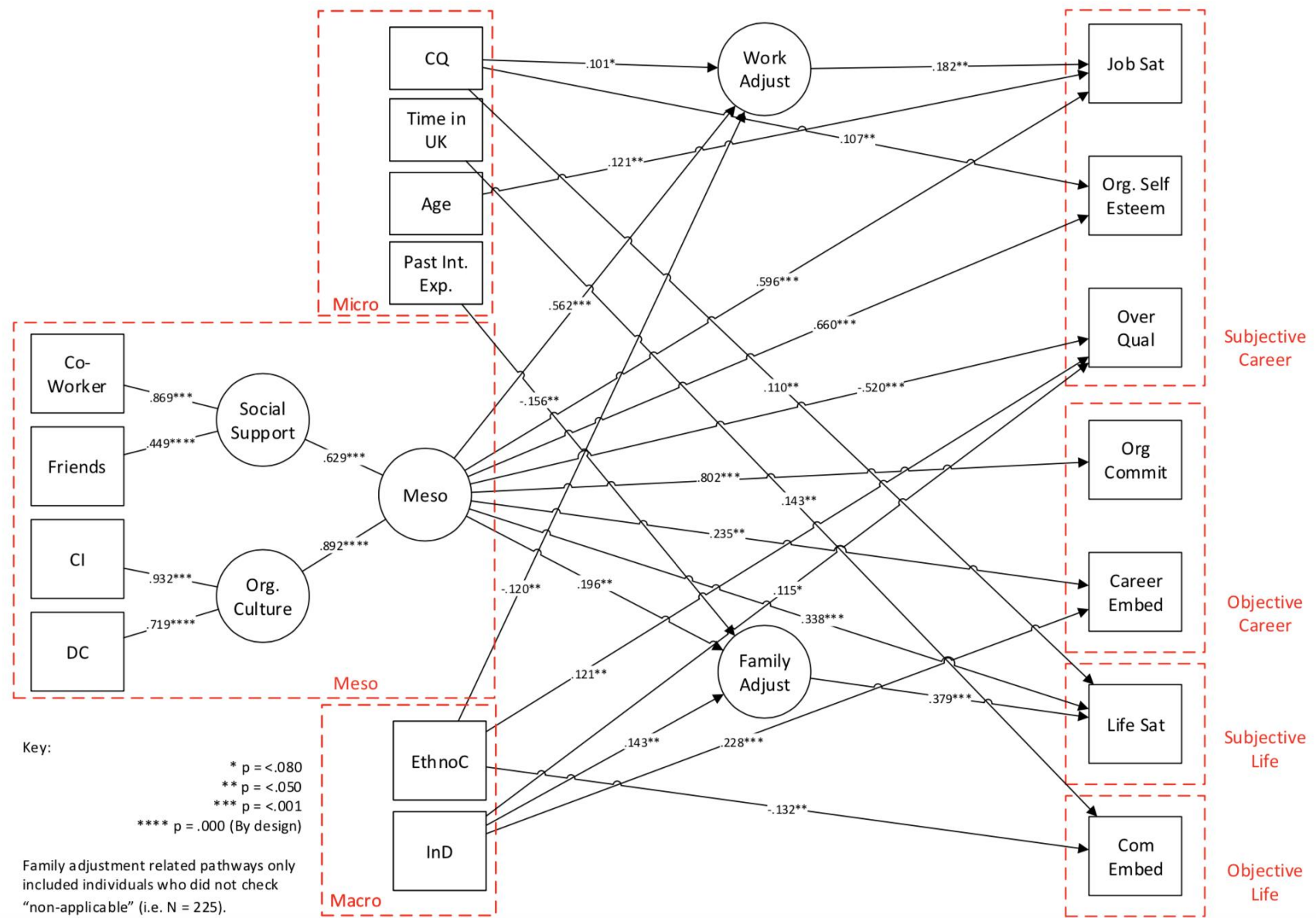
Figure 15: Model 1c – The direct and indirect effects of independent variables on dependent outcome variables after including work- and family adjustment

7.8. Study 2 – The influence of Acculturation Identity Configurations

7.8.1. Introduction

After analysing the results for the first research question using structural equation modelling, the next research question, pertaining to the effects of acculturation strategies on outcomes variables, will be addressed next. In order to do so, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was implemented in order to render the different effects of the given identity groups (i.e. integration, assimilation, separation and marginalisation) have on respective outcome variables. Once again, upon completion of the data analysis reporting, the results will be summarised.

7.8.2. Main Findings of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

While the previous study showed that having a certain identity configuration can mediate between independent and dependent variables, an important question, which has yet to be looked at by the literature using quantitative methods of analysis, is the effect of certain acculturation configurations or strategies, i.e. integration, assimilation, marginalisation and separation, on given outcome variables. It was hypothesised, counter to what a large proportion of the literature suggests, that assimilated individuals will score higher on outcome variables compared to other groups, while integration will still score high (2nd highest) and segregation will score lowest. Marginalised individuals on the other hand, will score moderately (i.e. 3rd highest or 2nd lowest). In order to test this, a MANOVA was conducted in order to see whether having a certain identity configuration would render a significant difference in outcome variables. There are several phases or steps to a MANOVA, which will be explained in greater detail below.

		Value Label	N
Acculturation Type	1	Integration	159
	2	Assimilation	33
	3	Segregation	40
	4	Marginalisation	5

Table 100: Acculturation Strategy Groups – Sample

As can be seen in Table 100 above, of the 253 participants in the overall study a larger proportion were integrated ($N_i = 159$), while assimilation and segregations also had substantial number of people ($N_a = 33$, $N_s = 40$, respectively). Due to the low number of marginalised

individuals ($N_m = 5$), this group of individuals was not further considered during the study. Thus, from this point on, only the results and intergroup comparisons between the three remaining groups will be reported.

The Table 101 below illustrates the descriptive statistics (i.e. the mean and standard deviation scores) of the respective dependent variables which will be analysed. As can be seen for each respective acculturation group, mean statistics and respective standard deviations of dependent variables are presented, for example the total mean score for perceived level of overqualification is $m = 2.68$ (S.D. $= 1.09$), while integrated individuals showed a mean score of $m = 2.65$ (S.D. 1.10), assimilated individuals had a mean of $m = 2.73$ (S.D. $= 1.18$) and segregated individuals has a mean level of overqualification of $m = 2.80$ (S.D. $= 1.01$).

	Acculturation Type	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Level of Over-qualification	1 Integration	2.6499	1.09647	159
	2 Assimilation	2.7273	1.17690	33
	3 Segregation	2.8000	1.00653	40
	4 Marginalisation	2.4667	1.16905	5
	Total	2.6821	1.08978	237
Organisational Based Self-Esteem	1 Integration	3.6792	.75689	159
	2 Assimilation	3.7576	.58458	33
	3 Segregation	3.3750	.81650	40
	4 Marginalisation	3.8000	.48088	5
	Total	3.6414	.74792	237
Organisational Commitment	1 Integration	3.7082	.78619	159
	2 Assimilation	3.7576	.83330	33
	3 Segregation	3.5350	.74749	40
	4 Marginalisation	3.6000	.92736	5
	Total	3.6835	.78736	237
Job Satisfaction	1 Integration	3.7421	.82165	159
	2 Assimilation	3.8667	.75443	33
	3 Segregation	3.6200	.76299	40
	4 Marginalisation	3.7600	.65422	5
	Total	3.7392	.79832	237
Life Satisfaction	1 Integration	3.4868	.77051	159
	2 Assimilation	3.5091	.63657	33
	3 Segregation	3.1125	.69548	40
	4 Marginalisation	2.4400	.84143	5
	Total	3.4046	.76459	237
Career Embeddedness	1 Integration	3.6646	1.09628	159
	2 Assimilation	4.2020	.96443	33
	3 Segregation	3.3083	1.27073	40
	4 Marginalisation	3.7333	1.09036	5
	Total	3.6807	1.13113	237
Community Embeddedness	1 Integration	3.4717	.93555	159
	2 Assimilation	3.8788	.85317	33
	3 Segregation	2.7375	.99062	40
	4 Marginalisation	2.6667	.70711	5
	Total	3.3875	.98816	237

Table 101: Descriptive statistics for Acculturation Strategy Grouping

The first output to be taken into consideration is the Box's test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, which in an optimal case will be insignificance, such that p > .05 (Pallant, 2016, Box, 1949). As can be seen in the output below, the significance value is above the threshold and equal covariance is assumed.

Box's M	46.686
F	.772
df1	56
df2	26192.137
Sig.	.894

Table 102: Box's text of Covariance Matrices

The next phase of a MANOVA is found within the multivariate tests table (see table 103 below), such that the acculturation effect, Wilks' Lambda (λ) score must be significant. This statistic illustrates whether or not there is a significant difference between the respective outcome variables based on their acculturation dynamic. As can be seen by the relevant statistic, a significant difference between the respective outcome variables pertaining to their acculturation strategy was observed, such that $F_{(21, 652)} = 2.720$, $p < .0005$; Wilk's $\lambda = .786$, partial $\eta^2 = .077$.

	Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial η^2
Acculturation	Pillai's Trace	.225	2.653	21.000	687.000	.000	.075
	Wilks' Lambda	.786	2.720	21.000	652.372	.000	.077
	Hotelling's Trace	.259	2.781	21.000	677.000	.000	.079
	Roy's Largest Root	.192	6.289[c]	7.000	229.000	.000	.161

Table 103: Multivariable Tests

The next important step is to test for the homogenizing error variance, illustrated in table 104 below. Using Levene's test, all respective dependent variables need to attain an insignificant result, whereby $p > .05$. This is particularly important, considering the sample sizes are not equal throughout. Thus, having an insignificant result is paramount to continue with the next step of analysis. As can be observed, all respective significance values ranged between $p = .134$ to .948. Thus, satisfying the parameters for this test, as well.

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Level of Over-Qual	.348	3	233	.790
OBSE	1.877	3	233	.134
OrgCom	.121	3	233	.948
Job Satisfaction	.086	3	233	.967
Life Satisfaction	.730	3	233	.535
Career Embeddedness	1.559	3	233	.200
Comm. Embeddedness	.582	3	233	.628

Table 104: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

The next step of the analysis is to test the respective relationships between dependent and independent variables separately using a series of univariate ANOVAs. Within this part of the analysis it is important the respective ANOVA renders a significant value at $p < .05$. As can be observed, significant differences amongst groups was identified for life satisfaction, career-, as well as community embeddedness. For life satisfaction - $F (3, 233) = 5.743$, $p < .001$; partial $\eta^2 = .069$; career embeddedness - $F (3, 233) = 3.938$, $p < .009$; partial $\eta^2 = .048$; community embeddedness - $F (3, 233) = 11.001$, $p < .0005$; partial $\eta^2 = .124$. All other variables, rendered no significant univariate ANOVA results, indicating no difference, based on acculturation type: Level of overqualification - $F (3, 233) = .284$, $p < .837$; partial $\eta^2 = .004$; organisational based self-esteem - $F (3, 233) = 2.201$, $p < .089$; partial $\eta^2 = .028$; organizational commitment - $F (3, 233) = .640$, $p < .590$; partial $\eta^2 = .008$; job satisfaction - $F (3, 233) = .576$, $p < .631$; partial $\eta^2 = .007$.

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial η²
Acculturation	OverQual	1.020	3	.340	.284	.837	.004
	OBSE	3.638	3	1.213	2.201	.089	.028
	OrgCom	1.195	3	.398	.640	.590	.008
	SatJob	1.108	3	.369	.576	.631	.007
	SatLife	9.500	3	3.167	5.743	.001	.069
	CareerEmbedd.	14.570	3	4.857	3.938	.009	.048
	CommEmdedd.	28.590	3	9.530	11.001	.000	.124
Error	OverQual	279.256	233	1.199			
	OBSE	128.377	233	.551			
	OrgCom	145.111	233	.623			
	SatJob	149.297	233	.641			
	SatLife	128.465	233	.551			
	CareerEmbedd.	287.383	233	1.233			
	CommEmdedd.	201.854	233	.866			

Table 105: Tests Between Subject Effects.

After conducting several univariate ANOVAs to determine where the differences between the respective groups lie, the next phase is to conduct a series of t-tests to identify to what extent the differences are present and between respective groups. As illustrated in table 106 below, significant observed differences in life satisfaction were measured between integrated and segregated individuals (m_Δ = .374, S.E. = .131, p = .005), but not between integrated and assimilated individuals (m_Δ = -.022, S.E. = .142, p = .875), while assimilated individuals also showed significant differences (m_Δ = .397, S.E. = .175, p = .024) to segregated individuals. Thus, segregated individuals were significantly less satisfied with their lives, than assimilated or integrated individuals were. Furthermore, assimilated individuals show higher career embeddedness than integrated (m_Δ = .537, S.E. = .212, p = .012), as well as segregated individuals (m_Δ = .8937, S.E. = .261, p =.001), while no significant difference was observed between integrated and segregated individuals (m_Δ = .356, S.E. = .196, p = .071). Finally, while assimilated individuals showed significantly higher levels of community embeddedness than segregated (m_Δ = 1.14, S.E. = 2.19, p = .000), as well as integrated individuals (m_Δ = .407, S.E. = .178, p = .023), integrated individuals also showed higher levels of community embeddedness than segregated individuals (m_Δ = .734, S.E. = .165, p = .000).

Dependent Variable	(I) Acculturaiton 1	(J) Acculturation 2	Mean Difference $m_\Delta = (I-J)$	Std. Error	Sig.
Life Satisfaction	1 Integration	2 Assimilation	-.0223	.14204	.875
		3 Segregation	.3743*	.13134	.005
	2 Assimilation	1 Integration	.0223	.14204	.875
		3 Segregation	.3966*	.17462	.024
	3 Segregation	1 Integration	-.3743*	.13134	.005
		2 Assimilation	-.3966*	.17462	.024
CareerEmbedded.	1 Integration	2 Assimilation	-.5374*	.21245	.012
		3 Segregation	.3562	.19645	.071
	2 Assimilation	1 Integration	.5374*	.21245	.012
		3 Segregation	.8937*	.26117	.001
	3 Segregation	1 Integration	-.3562	.19645	.071
		2 Assimilation	-.8937*	.26117	.001
CommEmbedded.	1 Integration	2 Assimilation	-.4071*	.17805	.023
		3 Segregation	.7342*	.16464	.000
	2 Assimilation	1 Integration	.4071*	.17805	.023
		3 Segregation	1.1413*	.21888	.000
	3 Segregation	1 Integration	-.7342*	.16464	.000
		2 Assimilation	-1.1413*	.21888	.000

Table 106: Differences in outcome variables pertaining to acculturation type membership

7.8.3. Summary – The Effect of Acculturation Strategy on Holistic Migration Success

Thus, to summarise, while integration showed significantly higher amounts of community embeddedness and life satisfaction (i.e. subjective and objective life success) than segregated individuals, they showed lower levels of career embeddedness and community embeddedness than assimilated individuals. Finally, assimilated individuals showed higher levels of career- as well as community embeddedness than both segregated and integrated individuals, while at the same time showing higher levels of life-satisfaction than segregated individuals. No significant difference between other variables were observed, based on the acculturation strategy. Hypothesis 10_d could not be tested due to the limited number of participants (i.e. marginalised individuals), i.e. it was not supported, nor rejected. Hypothesis 10_a on the other hand was supported, such that assimilation was the most successful, while integrated shows a higher level of success then segregated individuals in multiple facets (i.e. lending support for H10$_b$). Finally, segregated individuals were indeed showed significantly negative differences versus the other two groups, respectively across all variables, indicating that it is the least successful type of acculturation strategy to assume. Thus, lending support for hypothesis 10_d. Essentially, it can be concluded that hypothesis 10, in general, was supported.

8. Discussion and Conclusion

8.1. Introduction[13]

In this section the respective results will be reflected upon and discussed with respect to the literature. Based on the analysis provided in the previous section, an array of hypotheses were tested. These will now be compared and contrasted to the literature, respectively and conclusions are drawn.

This section is structured as follows: first the results of study 1 will be presented in a slightly different fashion to the previous section, whereby the direct effects of the mediating variables (acculturation identities and adjustment) will be illustrated (i.e. the effect of the mediating variables on respective outcomes). The, direct and indirect effects of respective independent variables will be discussed. First, looking at direct effects on outcome variables, then looking at the effects on respective mediating variables, which in turn will shed light on the indirect effects of the respective variables. Finally, the respective discussed effects will be discussed in reflection of the ecosystems theory approach taken within the current study and conclusions will be outlined. After the direct effects and mediating effects are discussed, the discussion of study 2 will take place, such that the results will be juxtaposed in accordance with the literature on acculturation dynamics and their respective effects. In addition, many of these hypotheses were predicted based in adjacent literature, i.e. AEs and SIEs. Thus, the current study is as much confirmatory as it is exploratory, despite using a quantitative methodological approach.

Finally, before continuing to the discussion, the research questions will be re-stated:

(1) *To what extent do (organizational and societal) contextual factors and individual characteristics influence international skilled migrants' (ISMs) acculturation dynamics, adjustment processes and migration outcomes?*

(2) *To what extent does acculturation strategy impact holistic migration success?*

While, the first question reflects the results obtained in model 1a-1c respectively, the second question reflects the aforementioned analysis of the various acculturation strategies/dynamics (i.e. integration, assimilation and separation), to see if previous research on

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[13] Key Terms: AE = Assigned Expatriates, SIEs = Self-Initiated Expatriates, ISMs = International Skilled Migrants.

acculturation, stating the clear benefits of integration over other forms of acculturation, can be quantitatively verified.

8.2. Discussion of Study 1 – The Influence of Individual Characteristics, as well as Meso-Level and Societal Contextual Factors on Key Processes and Migration Success

8.2.1. Effects of Adjustment on Outcome Variables

As mentioned in the literature review section of adjustment (see section 2.4.1.), to the knowledge of the researcher, not a single article has yet looked at the effects of adjustment on outcome variables, as this relationship remains purely theoretical (see e.g. Hajro et al., 2019). Those studies which have included adjustment, have mainly used it as proxy-variable for success both for SIEs (e.g., Fontinha et al., 2018) and ISMs (e.g., Winterheller & Hirt, 2017), rather than as intermediary process, which mirrors the scientific research community's behaviour previously observed in the AE-literature (Takeuchi, 2010; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013). Thus, using the AE literature as (the only) point of reference, hypotheses were formed based on the beneficial effects observed in the respective field (Bhasker-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003), as suggested by Hajro et al. (2019) and Crowley-Henry et al. (2018). The general consensus of adjustment is that globally mobile individuals who exert higher levels of it, will experience higher levels of individual success and be more likely to contribute towards organisational success (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Naumann, 1993; Hechanova et al., 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Takeuchi, 2010; Selmer et al., 2015; Cao et al., 2012), and vice-versa. In addition to being the first study to look at the effects of adjustment (as mediating variable or process variable) on dependent outcomes variables, the current study also looks at two dimensions of adjustment, namely work-, as well as non-work (or family) adjustment, to paint a more holistic picture of the true phenomenon, as suggested by the theoretical and psychometric improvements by Haslberger et al. (2013) and Shaffer et al. (2016), respectively.

Results from the current study which were illustrated in model 1c, mirror a large part of the literature previously only observed in the AE and SIE literature, while at the same time confirming the importance of adjustment in adapting to short-term changes in the ISMs' environment, as suggested by the limited literature on adjustment in the context of ISMs' mobility

(Hajro et al., 2019). Results showed that with higher levels of work-adjustment, ISMs' experienced a higher level of job satisfaction. This confirms the previous theoretical assumptions suggested within the ISM literature (i.e. Hajro et al., 2019), while also confirming a number of studies (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003; Takeuchi, 2010; Selmer et al., 2015; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). Furthermore, Takeuchi's (2010) results suggesting higher levels of (family adjustment) leads to higher levels of life satisfaction, was also confirmed. Thus, illuminating the importance of learning from the related field of expatriation (both SIEs and AEs; Lazarova et al., *forthcoming*; Hajro et al., 2019; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018).

While the previously theoretical implications within the ISM literature, as well as (work- and family-) adjustment's positive effects on work- and life-satisfaction previously observed in the expatriate literature were confirmed, no further effects of adjustment on respective outcome variables were observed, as all other relationships remained insignificant. This is interesting as it does not confirm previous observations as to the beneficial effects of adjustment on organisational commitment, previously observed by Hechanova et al. (2003), as well as Takeuchi (2010), as well as Takeuchi et al. (2009). In addition, despite being used as proxy-variable in past studies on expatriates (Takeuchi, 2010; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013), no other effects were observed. This suggests, that as ISMs are largely responsible for finding their own employment, feeling psychologically comfortable may not necessarily have an influence on their desire to stay in an organisation. In addition, previous models (such as that of Takeuchi et al., 2009) do not include many variables (i.e., six latent constructs), which means the observed relationship between work adjustment and commitment in their case was relatively low ($\beta = .21$, $p < .05$). It is likely that such "low" effects sizes are suppressed by other variables when the complexity of models increases (Matsunaga, 2008). Thus, based on the findings on adjustment, future researchers should avert from using adjustment as holistic outcome variable.

To summarise, the current study has confirmed certain aspects of the previous expatriate literature, such that family- and work-adjustment have a significant positive affect on life- and job-satisfaction, respectively. However, the lack of confirmation of any other variables, is almost equally as important, as this should be observed as cautionary to global mobility researchers. Adjustment should not be seen as holistic proxy variable for ISM success, as it did not render significant effects on the other six outcome variables. Thus, confirming that adjustment should be

seen as a mediating variable which can have an influence on success of globally mobile individuals, but not in its entirety.

8.2.2. Effects of Acculturation on Outcome Variables

While the current study is the first to research the effects of adjustment on ISM-success variables, acculturation has been looked at in a greater amount of detail (Berry, 1997; Berry, 1990a; Berry & Sam, 1996; Berry, 2005; Ward & Kennedy, 1993; Hajro et al., 2017a; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Cox, 1993). However, despite more frequently discussed within the ISM literature, the findings remain either theoretical (e.g. Berry, 1997) or qualitative (e.g. Hajro et al., 2017a)[14]. Thus, the present study, once again, extends the literature by looking at acculturation using a quantitative approach. Acculturation is the change in behavioural repertoire which is experience when two cultures come into extended contact with each other (Berry, 1997, 2005, 2008; Oerlemans & Peeters, 2010; Lachunga, 2008; Kuo & Roysicar, 2004, Redfield et al., 1935). As outlined previously, this discussion will be primarily based on social identity theory and well as social categorisation theory, which will look at the overall effects of obtaining a host or home identity. The traditional analysis of how effective a given acculturation strategy is, as suggested by Berry (1997, 2005, 2008), will be reviewed in study 2.

In general, the results in this study reveal two key findings. While host identity configuration is related to beneficial outcomes variables, such that the two observed significant relationships to life satisfaction and community embeddedness were positive, ISMs in the UK, who had a high level of home identity configuration, exhibited significant results which were negatively related to both career- and community embeddedness. At this point it is important to note that respective identity configurations did not influence the outcome variables holistically, but only influenced objective career- (i.e., career embeddedness), as well as life-success (e.g. community embeddedness), as well as subjective life success (i.e. life satisfaction).

In essence, these results do reflect the previous literature, such that the importance of obtaining the host country identity (in this case British identity), has been widely discussed in the literature as previous studies have frequently suggested that in order to successfully migrate, one must integrate within the host society (Berry, 1997, 2008; Hajro et al., 2019). In addition,

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[14] For a notable exception see Lee et al. (2017).

internalising the host culture is more likely to lead to learning the host country language, which means the ISM is more likely to lead to success of the migrants in terms of voicing their opinions, which leads to benefits from diversity, as well (Roberge & v. Dick, 2010; Ci, et al., 2017; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Ely & Thomas, 2001). If individuals voice their opinion and the climate for inclusion allows it (Nishii, 2013; Garavan et al., 2019), then the individual is more likely to contribute towards meaningful work (v Knippenberg et al., 2004), which as discussed previously is important for international (Hess et al., 2019), as well as local employees alike (Steger, 2016; Brafford & Rebele, 2018). Thus, learning to fit in to the host culture in general (i.e. apprehending a certain level of British identity), is important to be successful in the given context (Rumbaut, 1997). This is also the case as the understanding of the host culture, also means that individuals are more likely to act in-line with the status quo. This theoretically reduces the chance of conflict, which can occur if there is enhanced diversity, as illustrated previously (Dwertmann & Stich, 2004; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Cox, 1993; v Knippenberg et al., 2004). Reduced conflict therefore explains the higher levels of life satisfaction, as well as community embeddedness, as the level of acculturation alignment is higher, i.e. the extent to which the individual ISMs' and the host societies expectations of each other are in unison with each other. A key facet previously identified by Berry (2008), as well.

Contrarily to the observed benefits of having a host identity reflecting certain aspects of the literature, the results suggesting that people who have a home identity will experience negative outcome variables, also reflects certain aspects of the literature. If an individual has high levels of home country identity, this could be seen as a deep-level form of diversity, which is often not readily identifiable. This can lead to more conflict later on, as people may perceive the individuals as acting against the status quo, which may be perceived by host country nationals (HCNs) as deviant, which may lead to individuals being ostracised and experiencing negative effects with regards to the observed outcome variables. This notion finds its origin in social identity theory, which stipulates that people will converse with people who are salient, which enhances self-esteem. This salience can be based on an array of criteria, including culture (Jackson et al., 2003; Cole & Salimath, 2013; Lauring & Selmer, 2013; Turner, 2007; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; van Ewijk et al., 2011; Harrison et al., 1998). Thus, categorising people from an ISMs' home culture as in-group member, if respective identity configurations are high, and HCNs (i.e. British locals) as out-group members. This is especially the case if the dominant society shows nationalistic

tendencies (Berry, 2008). As outlined in the introduction, European countries have experienced a heightened right-wing shift, while Great Britain has decided to leave EU (OECD, 2016; BBC, 2016; Adler, 2016; Brown, 2015). These events could be seen as hindering people from fully integrating into society, as suggested by Berry's framework. Thus, If one is classified as out-group member, in this case due to cultural group affiliation, then one is less likely to feel like career and community related aspects of the host country could be classified as losses, as these individuals which are categorised as outgroup members, are therefore more likely to be victims of stereotyping and discrimination (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Dwyer et al., 2003). This in turn, makes it more likely for ISMs to experience adverse effects with respect to outcome variables, which have been frequently cited in the past (Pearson et al., 2012; Al Ariss, 2010; Carr et al., 2005; Zikic et al., 2010; Hajro et al., 2017; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018).

In sum, the results illustrated, with respect to the effects of home and host identity configurations (i.e. acculturation), reflect to a large extent the literature and can be interpreted using social identity theory. It would seem that culture represents a deep-level diversity trait which can lead to negative ISM outcomes, while apprehending leads to benefits: both observations which confirm and extend past literature, in general. But what leads to acculturating a certain identity configurations and previously highlighted adjustment levels? And what else leads to ISMs' success in the UK? These questions will be addressed in the following section.

8.2.3. The Influence of Independent Variables on Dependent and Mediating Variables

After highlighting the benefits and downsides of adjustment and acculturation, respectively, this section is aimed at illustrating the observations made with respect to direct effects of all independent variables on dependent (i.e. outcome) variables, including the three key levels: the micro-, meso-, and macro-level. In addition, the influence of independent variables on mediating variables and the subsequent indirect effects on outcome variables will also be discussed. At this point, it is important to reiterate that the current study, is one of the first quantitative attempts to include an array of different independent and dependent variables into one model, which means the observed effects may perceived to be lower than in previous studies which have only used a selected number of variables.

8.2.3.1. Micro-Level Effects

As illustrated previously, several micro-level variables were taken into account, including cultural intelligence, past international experience, host country tenure and current age. As illustrated in the results section, a significant number of positive relationships were observed, which reflect a large proportion of the literature. However, on the other hand, a large proportion of hypotheses were not supported.

8.2.3.1.1. Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

Cultural intelligence has often been named as a key variable pertaining to success of internationally mobile individuals (Shaffer et al., 2012, Ang et al., 2007) and can be defined as an individual's ability to interact effectively across cultural contexts and with culturally different individuals (Thomas et al., 2015). While the research on migrants specifically has been rather limited some have linked CQ to success within organisations (Jiang et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2011; Onca & Bido, 2019; Wingerden & Van der Stoep, 2018). The same was observed in the expatriate literature, e.g. Froese & Peltokorpi (2011) found that a facet of cultural intelligence was related to job satisfaction for both AEs and SIEs, which was also supported by Bücker et al. (2014). Furthermore, Malek & Budhwar (2013) support the benefits of CQ, such that they observed direct effects on expatriates' performance in Malaysia, in addition to leading to heightened levels of adjustment, which in turn led to performance, as well. In sum, the general holistic consensus is that cultural intelligence leads to benefits across the board, within the expatriate and the migration literature.

This holistic, across-the-board benefit was not necessarily supported by the current study. The only direct effect which was measured in the direct effects model (1a) was that it had a significant beneficial effect on organisational based self-esteem. In essence, this is the extent to which an individual believes "that they can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the context of an organisation" (Pierce et al., 1989, 625) and is an important subjective work success variable. The positive relationship to this particular variable aligns closely to the previous literature, such that ISMs with higher levels of CQ are more likely to voice their opinions (Jiang et al., 2018; Bücker et al., 2018) and contribute towards meaningful work, which is important to employees, in general (Steger, 2016; Brafford & Rebele, 2018) and especially globally mobile

individuals (Hess et al., 2019). Mirroring past literature, this positive relationship thus suggests that individuals with high levels of cultural intelligence are more likely to engage in more fulfilling work, which in turn is reflected in form of identifying with a respective organisation that the ISMs work for, i.e. exhibiting higher levels of organisational based self-esteem. Thus, the previously identified benefits were confirmed to a certain extent.

While the specific relationship illustrated above confirms the respective literature to a certain degree, the other six variables were not influenced by CQ, i.e. CQ was not directly related to any other outcome variable, with the exception of life satisfaction, where a significant direct relationship was observed when adjustment was added as a mediator variable. This phenomenon is known as suppression, whereby an effect may be suppressed without the presence of a given mediating variable (Cheung & Lau, 2008). In general, these results are supported by Lee & Sukoco (2010), as well as Ward et al. (2009), who identified no direct benefits of cultural intelligence on performance. Based on these studies, it may be completely common to render insignificant results of CQ on success of ISMs. Higher levels of cultural intelligence leading to life satisfaction on the other hand, which was observed when implementing the respective mediating variable, also makes logical sense. Being able to engage and manoeuvre the respective host culture (i.e. understand and process the host culture) is expected to lead to higher levels of non-work life satisfaction, as people are more likely to operate within different cultural contexts (Thomas et al., 2008; Thomas et al., 2015).

While Lee and Sukoco (2010), suggest that there may not be direct effects observed from CQ, when taking a closer look at previous studies looking at the predictive strength of cultural intelligence however, often looked at CQ separately (e.g., Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011). However, previous attempts to split up cultural intelligence into sub-dimensions, rendered a significant amount of scrutiny, as CQ is supposed to render an amalgamated/aggregated score, similar to that of traditional intelligence scores (e.g., IQ or emotional intelligence; Thomas et al., 2008; 2015; Huff et al., 2014). Within these new conceptualisations and psychometric improvements to CQ (Thomas et al., 2008; Thomas et al., 2015), motivational CQ, was classified as not part of CQ. Past studies using motivational CQ as separated sub-dimension of CQ indeed rendered positive relationships to respective outcome variables. However, they also rendered non-significant relationships between actual dimensions of CQ (i.e., knowledge, metacognition and skills; Thomas et al., 2015) and respective outcome variables (Wu & Ang, 2011; Huff et al., 2014). Thus, once

again illustrating that the previously identified benefits of CQ, according to Thomas et al. (2015), may not lead to benefits across the board, when it comes to ISMs' success. This can be attributed to previous studies praising the benefits of CQ, while actually looking at a different, separated construct, as the studies frequently rendered insignificant results for the actual facets of cultural intelligence. Perhaps, more work is needed with regards to furthering the scale itself. Unless the reason lies somewhere else.

As briefly mentioned in section 2.6.1.1.3., it is also important to mention that those who engage in global mobility for career purposes, i.e., having an international career anchor, may have a higher level of CQ in the first place (Lazarova et al., 2014), unless forced to migrate (i.e. being refugee or asylum seekers). Therefore, the individuals may already have a higher amount of CQ. While the mean range of participants' CQ lies between 2.29 and 5.00, the centred mean overall lies at 4.03. Thus, supporting previously identified "sub-hypothesis" that globally mobile individuals, in this case ISMs, have higher levels of cultural intelligence (Cerdin & Perganeux, 2010). This can obviously have an influence on the normality of distribution of responses on the CQ scale, which would in turn have an influence on the predictive power of the scale based on the sample. However, when looking at the skewness and kurtosis levels in this particular case are very close to optimal 0 at $s = -.036$, $k = -.133$. Looking at the respective histogram, however, does indicate a higher level of CQ, which could also be a potential explanation for the high rejection of respective hypotheses (see Figure 16 below). That said, the skewness and kurtosis values do not illustrate that this should have a major influence on the respective results, which indicates that there may be a different source to the rendering.
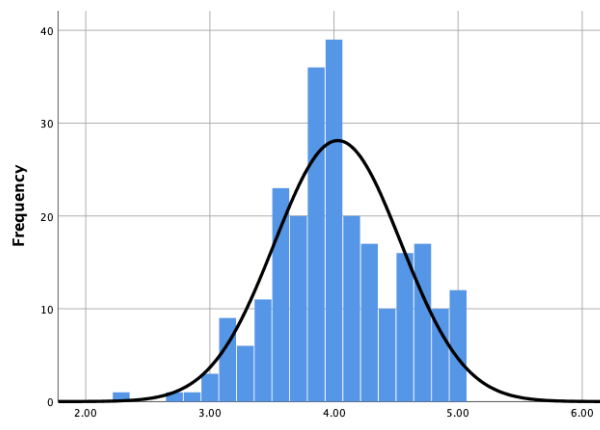
Figure 16: Normal Distribution of Cultural Intelligence

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One final argument for observing this phenomenon, is that the questionnaire was extremely long, and participants could have suffered from survey fatigue, such that the focus on a given questionnaire (which bearing in mind is not paid, but voluntary) was lost. This is also why many method books, such as that of Saunders et al. (2016) or Pallant (2016), suggest keeping questionnaire length to a minimum. In addition, to mainly using one sampling method, in turn potentially leading to common methods bias, the length of the questionnaire can be seen as a major weakness of the current study which may have caused a certain number of potential participants to prematurely abort the questionnaire, or pay less attention to the questionnaire during the time they were filling it in.

In addition to the direct effects discussed above CQ also showed a positive moderate relationship to host country identity, which in turn is related to life satisfaction, as well as community embeddedness. In a similar vein to the direct effect measured when inserting adjustment as a mediating, higher levels of CQ are likely to lead to higher levels of host country identity configuration. This makes complete sense as higher levels of CQ also involve key facets, such as knowledge of a given culture, being able to empathise with people from a given culture, and most importantly, being able to make sense of a given culture, i.e. metacognition. As discussed previously, being able to render higher levels of host country identity brings with it benefits which have previously been identified and can be traced back to being able to engage and manoeuvre the respective host culture (i.e. understand and process the host culture). Thus, leading to higher levels of life satisfaction, as people are more likely to operate within different cultural contexts (Thomas et al., 2008; Thomas et al., 2015).

To summarise, CQ has previously been identified as key for globally mobile individuals, especially expatriates and migrants who often spend long periods of time in their respective host country (Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011; Chen et al., 2011; Ang et al., 2007; Jiang et al., 2018). According to past research, the perceived effects which CQ can also potentially lead to higher rate of migrant workers voicing their thoughts in a given new cultural context (Bücker et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2018), which is invaluable for organisations to experience the benefits of cultural diversity (v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Zikic, 2015). Individuals who voice their opinions are more likely to contribute towards cultural diversity of an organisation, which can render benefits including creativity and innovation (Limaye, 1994; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Dwertmann & Stich, 2013). Considering the importance of making meaningful

contributions to globally mobile individuals (Hess et al., 2019) and employees in general (Steger, 2016; Brafford & Rebele, 2018), it is not surprising that individuals experience heightened organisational based self-esteem and the observed benefits of being able to manoeuvre the host country cultural context also seems intuitive. In addition, the observed indirect effects of CQ being positively related to host country identity configuration also makes sense, as higher CQ means people are more likely to process and given culture, which logically makes it more likely for people to adopt the British identity, which in turn leads to life satisfaction and community embeddedness. Despite these interesting results, the current study illustrates limited direct predictive power of cultural intelligence on success outcomes. Thus, the mixed results of previous studies were confirmed, and it can also be confirmed that CQ can have a positive effect on given outcome variables, but not necessarily all.

8.2.3.1.2. Past International Experience (PIE)

With the commercialisation of airlines in the post-WWII era, people's propensity to travel the world has been increasing exponentially (Altman et al., 2016; Van Vleck, 2013). Thus, PIE is another variable which has attracted a lot of attention in past research within the global mobility literature. Especially, in the expatriate literature, where the positive effects of PIE on outcome variables has received a lot of support with regards to performance and adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003; Takeuchi et al., 2019, Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Black et al., 1991). In addition, the expatriate literature suggests that PIE enhances sociocultural career capital (Jokinen et al., 2008), while at the same acts as reference point to reducing the amount of stress which individuals experience during their international experience. This is particularly important, as is aids a realistic assessment of expectations when experiencing the international mobility, which as we know from the ISM literature is key. Cerdin et al. (2014), for example, found that if expectations are too far off (i.e. if expectations were framed more positively and actual experience was negative), then this can have a detrimental effect on whether an individual will be motivated to migrate and ultimate integrate. Thereby, not leading to respective outcome variables (Cerdin et al., 2014). Clearly, there is a high number of studies

which mainly attest to the fact that past international experience can have a benefit on individual- and organisational-level success variables.

Being in its infancy, the ISM literature has largely overlooked this key facet. Rather than highlighting the benefits of past international experience, a lot of past experience has been attributed to skill-discounting (e.g., Zikic et al., 2010), talent-waste (Ramboarison-Lelao et al., 2012), underemployment (Pearson et al., 2012; Yu, 2019), as well as assuming that previous international experience accumulated by ISMs, occurred in their respective home countries (Zikic, 2015; Shirmohammadi et al., 2019). However, there has also been a growing body of literature, examining the benefits of PIE, such as source of competitiveness for organisations (Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss, 2018), enhance network building skills for migrants (Plöger & Kubek, 2016), as well as easing the adjustment process while moving to another country (Plöger & Becker, 2015). Other studies have identified the benefits of past international experience, as it allows for access to labour markets (Föbler & Imani, 2017; Syed & Murray, 2009), enhances self-efficacy, while priming ISMs for international labour markets (Liao, 2019) and is also a prerequisite for gaining access to top-level managerial positions (Davoine & Ravesi, 2013). Thus, on the one side, the literature suggests that PIE can be discriminated against, recent studies have also outlined the potentially beneficial effects of past international experience.

Despite past results suggesting PIE having a positive effect on outcome variables, the results from the current study paint a rather different picture, such that only one direct relationship was observed in model 1a (i.e. on life satisfaction), which was subsequently suppressed by mediating variables, once they were inserted (i.e. acculturation and adjustment, respectively). Despite a large body of literature attesting to the benefits of PIEs on success of ISMs and other forms of global mobility (i.e. SIEs and Aes), a small body of literature has also identified no significant results between PIE and outcome variables (e.g. Black & Gregersen, 1991), which was the case for respective time in the respective countries, as well as for gender differences (Torbiörn, 1982). A potential explanation of this phenomenon was outlined previously, whereby it is posited that it is not the mere presence of international experience but the depth of the respective experience which leads to respective benefits (Leung et al., 2008), i.e. quality over quantity of international experiences (Maddux & Galinsky, 2009). All members of the current study were active members of the labour market, which reflects the usefulness of PIE to gain access to the labour market, as suggested by Föbker & Imani (2017). However, despite rendering the reasons

for previous past international experience of individual participants, it was difficult to imply whether these international experiences were meaningful or "deep", i.e. perhaps the ISMs who were previously SIEs, AEs or tourists in other countries stayed in previously mentioned expatriate enclaves (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009) and thus did not take advantage of the learning experience within a new culture. These individuals would therefore not benefit from the respective enhanced knowledge gathered of the culture, which could have led to enhanced cultural intelligence (Thomas et al., 2015).

Despite the potential lack of depth experienced within the given past international experience leading to insignificant results, this does not necessarily explain the initially direct and then indirect negative effects of PIE on life satisfaction. These effects on life satisfaction could be explained by the previously outlined social identity theory, whereby individuals categorise other individuals as in- or out-group members based on level of salience, which boosts self-esteem (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; Sabharwal, 2014). Salience is determined based on an array of surface-level categories, such as gender, age or ethnicity, as well as deep-level diversity, including personality and culture. According to Fitzsimmons (2013), individuals can internalise a series of cultural identities, which can coarsely be compartmentalised along a two-dimensional matrix (see Figure 15 below). Identities range from single dominant identities (i.e. prioritizing a certain identity) to multiple identity aggregation, whereby all cultural identities are given equal value. In addition, identities can also be categorised from separated (i.e. compartmentalised) to integrated. In the former case, identities are kept distinctly separate from each other, while in the latter they are integrated, which also facilitates identity switching. Having multiple identities, which are organised hierarchically (i.e. prioritizing), means that despite having internalised several identities, since one prioritizes one given identity, this can lead to categorising the host country nationals as out-group members, which suggests that it will be more difficult to socially integrate within British society, as one is in turn categorised as out-group member (Fitzsimmons, 2013). Thus, an ISM is more likely to experience discrimination, which can lead to lower levels of life satisfaction (Knippenberg et al., 2004; Dwyer et al., 2003). Alternatively, if an individual has multiple identities which are aggregated, which means that individuals with such an identity configuration may only associate themselves with similar individuals, which increase differences to host-country nationals, who have a monocultural identity configuration (Fitzsimmons, 2013). Thus, having multiple identity configurations may be a potential source of deep-level diversity, which in turn

can lead to the categorisation as out-group members (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998), which may lead to ISMs experiencing difficulties adjusting to the new culture. This may also reduce the motivation to learn a new culture (i.e. apprehend the host identity). As illustrated by the results, this seems to explain the indirect results, such that individuals, may give a certain priority to another culture or be seen as out-group members due to their multiple identity configuration. This in turn reduces the chance of adjusting (as illustrated in model 1c), as well as the likelihood of apprehending the host culture into their given behavioural repertoire (as illustrated in model 1b. The need to integrate a given culture is widely cited as an important facet, when it comes to experiencing success in a new cultural context and the benefits of apprehending the host-culture have been widely cited (see e.g. Gillespie et al., 2010; Berry, 1997, 2008), which was outlined previously in this chapter. This is confirmed in the two respective models (1b and 1c), as the benefits of family adjustment as well as, the importance of apprehending the host culture, both lead to enhanced life satisfaction, while apprehending a host-culture identity also leads to enhanced community embeddedness, as illustrated previously.
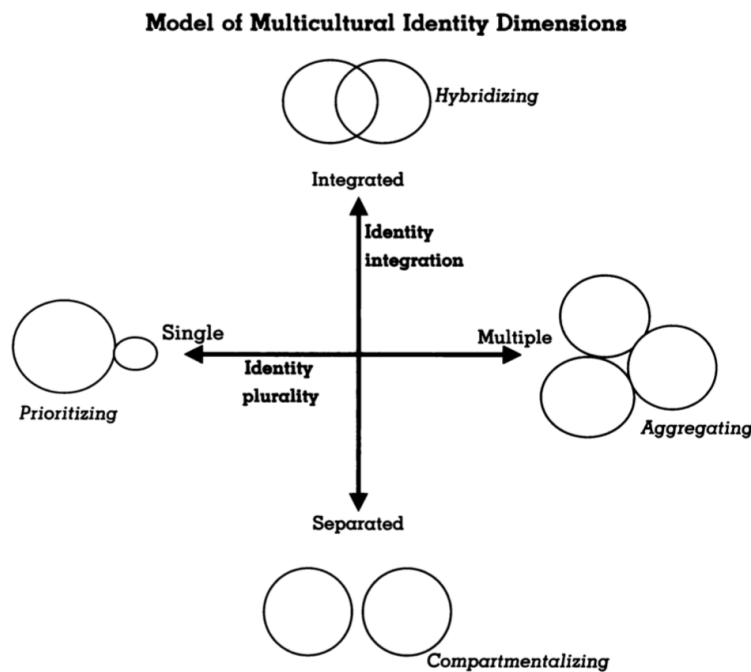
Figure 17: Model of Multicultural Identity Dimensions (Fitzsimmons, 2013)

8.2.3.1.3 Host Country Tenure

Host country tenure (HCT) has been identified in general, as a vital antecedent variable to migrant and global mobility success. Results from the current study indicate a significant direct relationship between host country tenure and community embeddedness, as well as a positive significant relationship to host country identity configuration, which is turn is related to life satisfaction, as well as community embeddedness. All other relationships, both direct and indirect, rendered no significant results. In general, it can be said that these results reflect the literature to a certain extent but not in its entirety.

The migration literature has frequently suggested that time in a given host country is important to attaining several levels of success (Pearson et al., 2012; Shirmohammadi et al., 2019; Yu, 2019; Sardana et al., 2016). In addition, the same can be said for the expatriate literature (Takeuchi et al., 2019; Stahl & Caliguiri, 2005; Torbiörn, 1982; Black & Gregersen, 1991, Black & Stephens, 1991; Feldman & Thomas, 1992). According to Shirmohammadi et al. (2019) for example, time in the host country leads to higher levels of local career capital, which is important to attaining work-related success variables, since local career capital (such as experience), is less likely to be discriminated against, compared to foreign career capital (Yu, 2019; Sardana et al., 2016). In turn, this can then lead to benefits such as higher career success (Shirmohammade et al., 2019). This particular relationship towards beneficial work-related outcomes, both subjective and objective, was not observed following the analysed results within the current study. Shirmohammadi et al. (2019) also suggest, that HCT should also lead to improved occupational status (Liversage, 2009), through the previously mentioned local career capital. Ramboarison-Lelao et al. (2012) for example, suggest that in order to gain access to the highly regulated medical professions, some qualified doctors initially work as nurses in order to gain experience in the local context, which over time allows these individuals to work as physicians. Thus, theoretically this should have led to higher levels of job satisfaction, career embeddedness, and other work-related subjective and objective outcome variables. However, these aspects of the literature were not confirmed. This could be explained through the Pearson et al.'s (2012) categorisations. They stipulate that although people may experience similar phases in general terms (i.e. striving, struggling, satisficing and succeeding), these different phases may be experienced in different orders and at different times. Thus, while striving is essentially the most successful phase, within which an ISM may feel they are surfing the wave of success, this may be attained by different

people at different times. This would suggest that, while past research suggests a general linear model, this may not be fully accurate, in general. Furthermore, this may also be based on the type of organisations they work for. Some organisations may have a more multicultural strategy and may be more likely to employ people with international backgrounds (Cox, 1993; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Föbker & Imani, 2017). Bjerregaard's (2014) study on SIEs, for example, suggests that while foreign nationals may experience resentment from host country macro-level (i.e., institutional-level) public-sector organisations, private-sector institutions may act in a completely different manner. Thus, while potentially influencing work-related outcomes, this may be different from person-to-person and may also be influenced by the respective organisation in which a person initially finds employment. In addition, as illustrated by Takeuchi et al. (2019) who looked at work-related performance in various groups of expatriates (i.e., objective work-related success), different grades of experience and organisational tenure also have an influence on whether an individual improves over time. Based on their study, individuals who had high organisational tenure, as well as previous international experience, were more likely to show higher levels of respective outcome variables. Perhaps, this would be necessary, i.e., to include various other variables in unison and create respective categories, to see if similar observations can be made more ISMs in their respective organisations. Last, but not least, some professions may be more regulated than others (Cerdin et al., 2014; Ramboarison-Lelao et al., 2012; Zikic & Richardson, 2016; Hajro et al., 2019), which means that some individuals may need more time to integrate and experience beneficial work-related outcomes than other. A future study may aim at investigating the difference in industry or job-role, as this could therefore have an influence on the extent to which time impacts the aforementioned mediating- and outcome-variables.

While no direct or indirect relationships were measured towards work-related outcome variables, what was confirmed was the expected effect which time played on community embeddedness (i.e., objective private-life success). Based on previous research, it is expected that individuals who have been in Britain for longer periods of time, should also experience higher levels of embeddedness within the given community. Using the acculturation literature as a starting point, theoretically, this suggests that higher levels of HCT should lead to higher levels of British culture internalisation. Based on the results and especially the eventual suppression of direct effects, when host and home identity configuration were inserted as mediating variable, the theories of acculturation are fully confirmed. As suggested by the mere definition of acculturation,

time plays an important role in learning a host culture as the change in behavioural repertoire occurs during *extended contact* between two cultures (Berry, 1997, 2003, 2008; Redfield et al., 1936), e.g., it may take some time to learn the host-country language (i.e. English), which comes with various nuances, such as accents and dialects (Pearson et al., 2012; Föbker & Imani, 2017). Thus, the literature also suggests, that HCT should have a positive effect on host country identity configuration, as learning and internalising a culture can take time (Fitzsimmons, 2013).

Needless to say, the extant literature on expatriation, which also confirmed the importance of time leading to work-related success, were also disconfirmed and could not be applied to this particular study on ISMs in the UK. Some of the most traditional studies, such as that of Torbiörn (1982) who suggest potential benefits of HCT. Subsequently, several studies have supported similar claims, e.g., Feldman & Thomas (1992), identified that longer time on an international assignment allows expatriates to utilise more effective coping strategies, in turn leading to more desirable outcome variables. Stahl & Caliguiri's (2005) study on German expatriates in Japan, on the other hand, were also disconfirmed, as no relationship was measured between time spent in the host country and non-work adjustment. Thus, while the literature on (skilled) migrants was partially confirmed in the British context with respect to the private-life domain, it was disconfirmed in terms of the work-life domain, while results from the expatriate literature were not applicable to the migration literature. Thus, despite using the expatriate literature as a starting point to create testable hypotheses, the current study suggests that different results can be observed with respect to different forms of global mobility.

In summary, the current study confirms only part of previously observed relationships which have frequently been observed pertaining to the positive relationship between time spent in the host country and success. While the benefits were observed via host country identity configuration, with regards to the private, i.e., non-work, domain, the same cannot be said for the work-life domain. Past research in the migration literature suggests that time is an important aspect with regards to work-related success variables, as it gives the ISM the opportunity to learn the respective culture, the language (or get used to local accents and dialects), as well as build vital local career capital, which is less likely to be discriminated against, compared to foreign work experience. Thus, the general expectation of rendering benefits from longer time spent in the UK, which is also backed up by the expatriate literature was not confirmed. Further investigation into various categories of employees, including organisational tenure, public- versus private-

organisation employment, could be beneficial. In essence, more in-depth studies looking at specific variables could be undertaken and potentially replicated more accurately using ISMs, in order to render more specific results with respect to individual variables. However, this is a different approach to that taken by the current study (i.e., being more holistic to simulate the complex nature of ISMs in a given context).

8.2.3.1.4. Current Age

As opposed to the other micro-level variables, age has surprisingly not been a dominant variable in past research, as much of the research have used past international experience instead. While there may be a link between the two (Chen et al., 2011), Wechtler et al. (2015) suggest that the two variables should be treated independently from each other. Results from the current study suggest that age is related positively to job satisfaction, while at the same time negatively related to community embeddedness. All other observations were insignificant, including indirect effects of age via the aforementioned mediating variables adjustment and acculturation.

Considering the literature usually uses past international experience, evidence of the effects of participants' current age are rather limited, the results of the current study are invaluable to the extension of the literature. In general, when age is included within studies, it is merely presented as a descriptive statistic and not taken into further account (e.g. Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011; Cole, 2011; Stahl & Caliguiri, 2005; Stahl et al., 2002). However, studying biographical variables, including age, would significantly advance the ISM-literature (Crowley-Henry et al., 2018). While qualitative studies on ISMs suggest that migrants with higher ages may struggle to adjust (e.g. Zikic et al., 2010), this was not confirmed by the current study. In addition, the expected insignificant relationships between age and the two acculturation (i.e. mediation) latent constructs were confirmed. This confirms that age may be more relevant upon time of arrival, as suggested by the acculturation literature, which suggests that migrants with lower ages upon arrival are more likely to have smoother acculturation journeys (Berry, 1997; 2003; 2008). However, this research pertains to the age upon entry and not the age during the cross-section under investigation.

When looking at the very limited global mobility literature, which has investigated the effects of age at the cross-section of a given study on outcome variables, findings appear

inconclusive. Zikic et al. (2010), for example, illustrate the benefits of younger age, i.e., easing the adjustment: the feeling of comfort in a given foreign culture (Okpara & Kobongo, 2011; Lazarova et al., 2010; Shaffer et al., 2012; Shaffer et al., 2016; Hasleberger et al., 2013; Potosky, 2016; Black 1988). Results illustrating the negative effects of older age, or the benefits of younger age at time of the current study, would suggest results along a similar vein. Whereby, when including the mediating variable acculturation, a direct effect was unveiled, which indicated that having a higher age was indeed related negatively to community embeddedness. Thus, lending partial support for the previously identified negative relationship between age and one outcome variable.

Instead of lower age being hailed, higher age can supposedly carry with it many benefits. A small body of literature has identified the importance of higher age vis-à-vis satisfaction. For example, Mor Barak et al. (2015) suggest that younger individuals were more likely to exert lower levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. While the latter was not supported in the current study, the former was. Thus, Birur & Muthiah's (2013) claims that younger individuals follow the general industry-trend that younger individuals have higher levels of attrition, or higher levels of organisational commitment, were rejected. The results illustrating heightened job satisfaction are further echoed by Froese & Peltokorpi's (2011) study on expatriates, which supports the claim that the older the individual, the higher the level of satisfaction. Finally, studies related to age and its positive relationship to adjustment (e.g. Templer et al., 2006; Peltokorpi, 2008) were not confirmed.

Being a relatively understudied variable within the general global mobility literature, especially within the ISM literature, age has been largely overlooked. Previous literature would indicate that higher age should be negatively related to outcome variables. This was confirmed with respect to the negative effects on community embeddedness, however not for any other variable. While this lends partial support for previous literature, the positive relationship between higher age and job satisfaction, up until now, also received (limited) support. As expected, and due to the fact that age is most likely to be influenced by the age of arrival, whereby a younger age would be more beneficial, no significant relationships with home or host identity were expected. Thus, the results of the current study confirm that age might not be synchronous variables and also lends support to Hajro et al.'s (2019) migration success framework. Their framework illustrates that success should be measured using multiple variables in the personal-life and work-life domains, as well as subjective and objective success in the given domains. This, in turn, supports

the need to make use of a more proliferated, encompassing set of variables when undertaking research. Thereby, supporting Baruch et al.'s (2016) argument for adopting an ecosystems approach, by being more holistic.

8.2.3.1.5 Micro-Level Summary

In summary, results from the current study confirm, to a certain extent, what previous studies have previously observed, i.e. that individual-, micro-level variables, including cultural intelligence, past international experience, host country tenure and age, can have an influence on respective outcome variables. Both directly and indirectly. At the same time however, a lot of the hypotheses were not confirmed. Illustrating (a) the importance of including several outcome variables, and (b) the importance of incorporating a more holistic perspective. Thus, lending support of the ecosystems theory approach. Finally, results also illustrated that micro-level variables triggered unexpected findings which support previous inconsistent findings. More specifically, literature which had previously identified younger age and the potential beneficial effects were only partially confirmed, while at the same time supporting an opposing body of literature, which attests to the benefits of older age. This also illustrates that, at least in the case of ISMs in the UK, the influence of respective variables is asymmetrical in terms of the beneficial or detrimental effects vis-á-vis measured outcome variables. This, thus indicates the versatile influencing nature of variables on different facets of life success. In this particular case, age had a positive influence on subjective career success (i.e. measured by job satisfaction), while at the same time having a negative influence on objective private life success.

8.2.3.2. Meso-level Supportive Structure (MLSS)

With individual-level variables generally confirming past literature, meso-level variables, were combined into one latent construct, which was dubbed *meso-level supportive structure (MLSS)*, which is comprised of social support (both friends and co-workers), as well as organisational level variables climate for inclusive and diversity climate, which combined formed the sub-latent construct organisational culture/climate. While individual-level variables confirmed results to a certain extent, a lot of hypotheses could not be supported. MLSS on the other hand

confirmed next to all hypotheses. Thus, illustrating the extreme importance of MLSS on the success of ISMs in the UK. Only one outcome variable was not influenced by MLSS: community embeddedness. Other than this exception, the results confirm and thereby extend the literature on diversity climate, social support and climate for inclusion by developing the concept of MLSS.

Research within the field of global mobility in general, and more specifically the migration literature, is riddled with support of the three key variables within the newly identified latent variable. Social support, for example has long been seen as key for the overcoming of stressful events (Kim et al., 2008), such as moving, settling and adapting to a new country, i.e. migration. While many migrants move alone or at least leave part of their social support network at home (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016; Janta et al., 2011), the ISM literature all suggests that social support is key for intermediate outcome variables, such as adjustment (Zikic, 2015) and (social) integration (Pearson et al., 2012; Zikic et al., 2010; Kuhlmann et al., 2016), as well as outcomes, such as gaining knowledge (Janta et al., 2012) and access to the respective labour market (Janta et al., 2011), job satisfaction, organisational commitment (Kuhlmann et al., 2016). Without respective support networks, Zikic (2015) suggests that people will likely suffer from downward career progression, i.e. increased levels of over-qualification. The beneficial trends of social support observed in the literature have a strong and significant contribution towards MLSS.

In addition to the ISM literature, the expatriate literature, is also riddled with ample support of results produced within the current study. For example, various types of social support have been identified as source of information within the host country (Toh & Denisii, 2007; Black et al., 1991) and has also been linked to enhanced performance while abroad (Kraimer et al., 2001). Peltokorpi & Froese (2009) on the other hand, suggest that an expatriate's inability or unwillingness to create social ties can lead to negative outcomes, including loneliness, boredom and alienation, i.e. having social support should avert an expatriate, and in the case of the current study ISMs, from international mobility having a negative influence of life satisfaction. Furthermore, Pires et al.'s (2006) study suggests that increased social support leads to more favourable adjustment levels, as well as satisfaction, which was partially attributed to reduced culture shock. Ballesteros-Leiva et al. (2018), looking at both SIEs and AEs, also observed the benefits of social support, which reflect the results in the current study. They identified that enhanced levels of support from family and friends (the latter of which was measured specifically in the current study) leads to less experienced conflict. In addition, co-worker support was found

to lead to enhanced life-enrichment, while social support in the work domain, also had an influence of private life success variables. In essence, mirroring the results of the current study, whereby the MLSS has an influence on life satisfaction, as well as on adjustment. The latter of which also has an indirect positive relationship to life satisfaction. Thus, indicating a partial mediating effect of MLSS on life satisfaction. In addition, while research on SIEs (i.e. the closest form of global mobility to ISMs) in extremely limited in this regard, results indicated that for SIEs, co-worker support was extremely vital in reducing work-life conflict. Finally, Howe-Walsh & Schyns' (2010) theoretical propositions on the benefits of social support on self-initiating global mobility (i.e. SIEs) was given support, as they predict social support from co-workers to lead to enhanced adjustment. In summary, the research within the field of global mobility and more specifically on ISMs, was confirmed by the current study, vis-à-vis the beneficial effects of social support. However, this was only one facet of the overriding concept of meso-level supportive structure.

In addition to supporting the literature on social support, the current study also confirms (a majority) of the literature on diversity climate and climate for inclusion. From the diversity literature, there are studies which date back a good part of two decades, which suggest the benefits of having a good diversity climate. Cox's (1993) study for example, was one of the first to look at the benefits of a multi-cultural climate on integration of talent within organisations. This was later confirmed by Ely & Thomas (2001), who created a three-categorisation model. While they identified that organisations can either follow a box-ticking procedure to diversity (i.e. discrimination-and-fairness approach) and an access-and-legitimacy approach (e.g. to gain access to a certain target market), the supposed most effective and beneficial manner of integrating diversity was the integration-and-learning approach. Whereby, people experience the most value for their diversity, which was also most likely to lead to beneficial sides of diversity management, while at the same time reducing the negative effects that were frequently attributed towards diversity, including discrimination and stereotyping. The beneficial facets which were previously identified in the adjacent research niche of diversity management, have also found their way into the global mobility literature. This is particularly important, as the mere presence of diversity may lead to more conflict then benefits (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Dwyer et al., 2003; Choi & Rainy, 2009), while the appropriate organisational culture, will allow for the individual to be themselves and feel psychologically safe (Ci et al., 2017). Thus, allowing the respective individual to express the important task-relevant information (Roberge & v. Dick, 2010;

Williams & O'Reilly, 1998; Zikic, 2015). This will in turn, allow the individual to contribute towards meaningful work (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Cox, 1993; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004). This will lead to beneficial outcomes, as undertaking meaningful work is important to ISMs (Hess et al., 2019) and employees as a whole (Steger, 2016; Brafford & Rebele, 2018).

The benefits of a beneficial diversity climate were extended by Nishii in 2013, who suggested that in addition to integrating differences into the general corporate culture, it is also important to have equal employment practices, as well as including people from different backgrounds in decision making processes. In essence, as this concept has been disseminated, it also reflects the axiomatic change in rhetoric from integrating differences to valuing differences (Boekhorst, 2015; Nishii, 2013). Previously designed diversity management practices focused on reducing bias in decision-making moments. However, they tend not to eradicate the source of discrimination. For example, diversity management practices which were designed to reduce the bias against traditionally or historically disadvantaged (minority) groups. These practices have often faced resentment and a certain level of blacklash, after the fact, from those who are not affected, or who are negatively affected, by the given practices. Building on this concept, in order to benefit from diversity, organisations must create an environment which is inclusive for *all* employees, not just a select minority (Ferdman & Davidson, 2004; Shore et al., 2011; Nishii, 2013; Broekhorst, 2015). The introduction of a climate for inclusion subsequently invalidates status rankings, which leads to higher levels of psychological safety, which as illustrated above, is key in benefitting from diversity (Broekhorst, 2015). The consequence: an inclusive climate which is characterised by less negative social categorising, higher psychological safety and comfort, which in turn lead to the benefits of diversity (e.g. creativity; Ci et al., 2017; innovation; Chun et al., 2015; Dias-Garcia et al., 2013) and individual level benefits, such as increased organisational commitment (Li et al., 2019) and reduced conflict amongst organisational members (Nishii, 2013).

The positive influence of enhanced diversity efforts has hitherto received only limited attention in the global mobility literature. Of the limited attention, which previous literature has paid to this vital topic, Choi & Rainey (2009) confirmed that the mere presence of diversity had a negative impact on organisational performance and the organisations with high diversity management efforts, experienced higher levels of performance. One further exception is demonstrated by Mor Barak et al. (2015), who identified an array of benefits, which were traceable to diversity climate and climate for inclusion, encompassing higher levels of job satisfaction,

organisational commitment, intention to stay in the respective organisation and increased work engagement, while at the same time leading negating detrimental effects of diversity, e.g. diversity. Finally, Hajro, Gibson & Pudelko (2017b) observed that enhanced diversity climate gave rise to different knowledge, insights and views, which in turn was utilised to inform and enhance work processes.

When looking at the results of the current study, diversity climate and climate for inclusion, were two of the most influential facets of MLSS. Illustrated by high effect sizes towards the overall latent construct. Despite past studies identifying meso-level variables as key to the success of globally mobile individuals and more specifically migrants (Guo & Al Ariss, 2010; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Hajro et al., 2019), up until now, only a limited number of articles have actively sought to divulge a certain level of understanding as to their effect on different levels of success variables (Backhoerst et al., 2015). Almost surprisingly, despite the highly complex nature of the designed models included in the current study, MLSS was the single most predictive variable within the study, such that it illustrated (a) highest number of direct effects on dependent variables, while (b) consistently showing extremely high effect sizes and (c) almost confirming all hypotheses. In summary, these results confirm the important role which organisations play with regards to the success of skilled migrants in the UK. While other variables had an effect on respective dependent variables, MLSS would appear to be the most influential pertaining to holistic migration success. The only facet, which was not reflected in the literature, was the extent to which MLSS effects the apprehension of British culture (i.e. host country identity). Previous literature suggested that enhanced social support leads to learning of cultural specific behaviour (Janta et al., 2012) and lack of integration (Zikic et al., 2010), which as suggested by the acculturation literature is most likely going to lead to lower level of holistic migration success (Hajro et al. 2017; Berry, 1997). This is an interesting counter-intuitive finding, which suggests while on the one hand, ISMs who work for an organisation with organisational culture, characterised by high levels inclusion efforts, will experience the highest levels of success, this success is not mediated by acculturation. Indicating that organisational culture does not influence acculturation dynamics and that these are mainly influenced by individual- and macro-level variables.

Finally, as expected and illustrated in past research on social support, but not so much by the diversity literature, MLSS was positively related to work- as well as family-adjustment, which

as discussed in the first section of the discussion leads to life- and job-satisfaction. Interestingly, while the positive effects of social support on adjustment has been previously observed (e.g. Kraimer et al., 2001; Pires et al., 2006), the same cannot be said for CI and DC. Thus, the overriding latent construct, MLSS, does not only confirm previous literature, but extends it, such that it has direct as well as indirect effects on outcome variables. At the same time, the concept of MLSS is a novel and innovative manner of integrating variables which have previously only been looked at in isolation, which indicates that previous studies have frequently missed a significant part of an overriding construct. This is a significant contribution towards the literature!

8.2.3.3. Macro-level Variables

The final group of variables which were taken into account within model 1a-c are macro-level variables. These variables represent the country-level variables which have previously been identified as key to the success of globally mobile individuals. These include institutional distance, as well as perceived level of host-country ethnocentrism. As illustrated in the results section, observed relationships between the macro-level variables mirror those of the individual-level variables, such that they do not have an overriding effect on all outcome variables, as was in the unequivocal case of the meso-level supportive structure. Thus, this section will discuss the partial support of the literature.

8.2.3.3.1. Institutional Distance

As discussed in the literature review, the study of cultural distance is often an extremely difficult endeavour, with an array of different criteria and classifications. Some are simpler, as is the case with anthropologist Hall's high- and low-context culture, while others are more complex, such as that of House et al. (2004) and Hofstede (2001). While Gelfand et al.'s (2011) provide a useful starting point in this regard, their perspective on culture tightness-looseness has only been conducted for 33 countries and considering the high number of different countries (i.e. 47) from which participants stemmed, this seemed slightly underdeveloped. However, according to Gelfand et al. (2011), institutions often mirror the host culture. Indeed, institutions and the respective distance from former host countries has been a point of discussion across the wider global mobility

literature. For example, Xu et al. (2004) have identified institutional distance in general, leads to less favourable outcomes through increased difficulties to attaining expatriation success. The (skilled) migration literature, on the other hand, is abundant in examples of how institutions often pose one of the cited barriers, which is faced by skilled migrants, as it is often the institutional hurdle which either catalyses or hinders an ISMs' integration within the labour market (Zikic & Richardson, 2016). The latter of which is particularly apparent in highly regulated professions, such as the medical profession (Zikic & Richardson, 2016; Cerdin et al., 2014).

When looking at the direct effects of the current study, higher levels of institutional distance cause ISMs in the UK to perceive higher levels of overqualification, as well as higher level of career embeddedness. This is interesting, as on the one side, ISMs are experiencing a negative outcome variable, while at the same time a positive one. The former clearly reflects the literature very accurately, as institutional barriers are often encountered when, for example, accrediting foreign qualifications (Magadevan & Zeh, 2015; Cerdin et al., 2014; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Liversage, 2009), which naturally would lead to heightened levels of overqualification. This phenomenon is often attributed to quasi-purposefully constructed bureaucratic barriers, which often lead to a homogenisation of a country's population, which is referred to as *entrenched discrimination* (Hajro et al., 2019; Bingelli et al. 2013). Pearson et al. (2012), also made a similar observation, as Irish institutions often view foreign qualifications with heightened levels of scrutiny, caution and above all, distrust. Thereby, illustrating distance in educational institutions: an integral part of the HDI, which was used to operationalise institutional distance. This is also supported by Bjerregaard's (2014) study on SIEs in Nordic countries. In their study, despite the employing organisation being forthcoming and supporting the integration of skilled self-initiated individuals, public organisations often put in place hurdles which ISMs had to overcome. Thus, the literature is abundant with explanations of how institutional distance may lead to heightened levels of overqualifications.

Despite heightened levels of overqualification, ISMs also experienced heightened levels of career embeddedness. While this may seem counterintuitive, there is a simple explanation for this, which is also reflected in the literature. With higher institutional distance, usually is accompanied by higher salaries and career opportunities, as compared to a given ISM's home country. This is particularly evident in Pearson et al.'s (2012) study, where one of their interviewees stated that they would earn more money in a week picking up glasses in a nightclub in Ireland than they did

working as a manager in a telecommunications company in a month. Clearly, this disparity between wages (i.e. economic distance) is an obvious explanation for why, despite having employment which is incommensurate to ISMs' respective qualifications, ISMs still feel that their careers are embedded and leaving the UK would lead to a feeling of loss of vis-à-vis their careers. Thus, the initial perception of a counter-intuitive result is actually one of the main motivations for migrating in the first place: money and professional opportunities (Engelbrecht, 2006; Pearson et al., 2012; Ha et al., 2019; Cerdin et al., 2014).

In addition to the direct effects, on life satisfaction, as higher levels of institutional distance also led to family adjustment. Considering adjustment has rarely been looked at from an ISM-perspective, these results are novel. An explanation to this, can be given from Engelbrecht (2006), who claim that one of the main reasons more migration is security. Thus, the higher the institutional distance the higher safety could be perceived in the UK. This is a classic case of gain-framing, whereby an individual perceives higher quality of life, including security, to be part of the motivation to migrate, which in turn can have a beneficial effect on integration outcomes (Cerdin et al., 2014). Considering the main facet of adjustment includes the feeling of comfort (Black et al., 1991), it is not surprising that with a higher level of institutional distance may be accompanied by heightened levels of family adjustment, which in turn leads to higher levels of life satisfactions.

Finally, while the results do reflect a substantial part of the literature, they do not have a supposed impact on acculturation, nor do results indicate an influence on other outcome variables other than the aforementioned three. Similar to the previous results discussed with regards to micro-level independent variables, this may have several reasons, including (a) methodological and/or (b) the specific context of the UK. The first reason has already been indicated previously, the methodological issues pertaining to having such as complex model. While the model has been reduced through item-parcelling, it is still fairly complex, which may mean that only the stronger effects may "come through" to the surface during the current analysis (Matsunaga, 2008).

The second, and more likely option is related to English being one of the most dominant languages globally. Liversage (2009b) suggests that the institution play a big role vis-à-vis the integration of migrants and more specifically their ability to learn a given language and "become Danish" (p. 243). In their study on Denmark, they noticed that despite having institutional practices in place, these practices were also the ones hindering individuals from learning the given host country language and culture in general. Since learning the host country language (i.e. English) is

an important factor leading to the creation of new social ties within the host country, as well as learn the given culture as a whole. In turn, it would be expected that ISMs may suffer from lack of integration and other negative outcomes previously outlined in the literature review, such as stress, low social interaction (Syed & Murray, 2009), limit the ability to access the local job market (Stevens, 2005), increased levels of overqualifications as discussed above (Janta et al., 2012), and finally lower levels of adjustment (Takeuchi et al., 2002). However, this was not the case. One potential explanation is that English is the so-called *lingua franca* to which most people revert to when they do not speak a common tongue (Föbker & Imani, 2017). Due to heightened level of English spread throughout the world, it is perhaps not surprising that this language-barrier may not be as high as that presented in countries where the official language is not spoken as liberally around the World, e.g. Japan, Portuguese, or even Thai. Thus, while institutional barriers may hinder the learning of the host country language, which in turn lead to lower levels of cultural integration and other negative outcome variables, this may not be as dominant in the UK.

All-in-all, the results from the current study do reflect a large proportion of the literature in some way or another. While the results lend support of main-stream literature pertaining to the impact which institutional distance can have on levels of overqualification, the other results required a deeper level of explanation, as they initially would seem counter-intuitive. Finally, the lack of any relationship between some of the variables could have been explained by Liversage's (2009b) claims of one main reason for not integrating or experiencing migration success, being lack of ability to learn the host country language. However, considering all participants in the current study reported "flying colours" with regards to English language proficiency, it is not surprising that less significant relationships were observed.

8.2.3.3.2. Host Country Ethnocentrism

Host country ethnocentrism (HCE) is the final macro-level variable, as well as the final variable, which will be discussed in this study. Illustrating the extent to which host country nationals (i.e. the British) feel superior towards other cultures (Arman & Aycan, 2013), this particular variable is visible throughout the global mobility literature. The current study suggests that higher levels of HCE will have a positive effect on level of overqualification and a negative effect on community embeddedness. In addition, indirect effects were also observed, such that

higher levels of HCE were positively related to home country ID, while negatively related to host country ID. In turn (and as illustrated in the previous sections), a positive effect on home country ID, led to a negative effect on career- and community embeddedness, respectively. Indicating that higher amounts of HCE, in turn leads to higher levels of home ID, which ultimately reduce career and community embeddedness. The negative impact which HCE has on host country ID, on the other and, suggests that ISMs are less likely to experience life satisfaction, as well as community embeddedness. Thus, indicating, that HCE has a two-pronged negative effect on acculturation dynamics when it is high, while it can also have a potentially two-pronged positive impact on acculturation dynamics if it is low. When including acculturation as mediating variable, a further relationship came to the fore: HCE had a positive relationship with organisational commitment. Finally, a significant negative relationship was found between HCE and work adjustment, which in turn negated the level of job satisfaction. A series of results, some of which accurately reflect the literature, while others need slightly more explanation.

In general, it was hypothesised that HCE would have a negative impact on all outcome variables with the exception of overqualification, which was expected to show the inverse effect. In general, this can be explained through Berry's third pillar of acculturation, which stipulates that regardless of whether an individual tries to internalise or reject their respective home or host cultures, the macro-environment will ultimately set the scene with regards to what the societal expectations are with regards to acculturation (Berry, 1997; 2008; Hajro et al., 2019). Thus, if a society has inheritably high levels of HCE, then they will perceive themselves to be more superior than others. Extrapolating from social identity theory, this can therefore be a source of creating in- and out-group members (Arman & Aycan, 2013), which can therefore lead to negative outcomes, such as discrimination and prejudice (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016). Considering the last section on institutional distance and the potential of accompanied entrenched discrimination (Hajro et al., 2019; Bingelli et al., 2013) and the frequent under-valuing of qualifications (Mahadevan & Zeh, 2015; Cerdin et al., 2014; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Liversage, 2009; Pearson et al., 2012), this lends full support for the observed relationship with level of overqualification. It is therefore, also not unsurprising that heightened levels of HCE is accompanied by lower levels of community embeddedness, which was observed in models 1a and 1c, respectively.

In addition, when inserting acculturation as mediating variable, HCE had the expected negative impact on internalisation of British culture (i.e. host country identity), while having a

positive influence on home country maintenance. These results also reflect the acculturation literature, such that if the host society does not allow for others to become part of their society, due to enhanced HCE, in turn leading ISMs being classified as out-group members, then ISMs are more likely to reject the respective host culture. At the same time, this can lead to maintaining or even over-glorifying their home culture (Hajro et al., 2019; Berry, 1997; 2008), as has been frequently observed in expatriate literature, due to enhanced culture shock (Oberg, 1954; Pires et al., 2006). This notion was supported by Hajro, Zilinkaite & Stahl (2017), who, in a qualitative study, found that ISMs were less likely to internalise the given host cultures when HCE was low, while at the same time were more likely to hold on, or maintain, their host culture, when HCE was high. In essence, they found that societies which exerted high level of HCE, often forced ISMs to separate (i.e. maintain home culture while rejecting host culture). As discussed previously, this has been confirmed via a respective mediating (i.e. indirect) effect. Such that a negative relationship with host identity, negates the otherwise positive effects of host ID on life satisfaction. In addition, as HCE leads to higher levels of cultural maintenance (i.e. home ID), and, in-line with Hajro et al.'s (2017b) study, in turn bridges the negative indirect effect on career and community embeddedness. Representing indirect effects via home ID, while confirming partial mediation for host ID.

In addition to the expected negative effects of HCE rendered and discussed above, when inserting acculturation as mediating variable, a further relationship was uncovered: the positive effect of HCE on organisational commitment. This is a novel finding and suggests that despite experiencing heightened levels of HCE, ISMs in the UK were less likely to look for alternative employment opportunities. One potential explanation of this is explained through the field of coping and suggests that one form of coping is simply accepting the fact that *things are how they are* and that not much can actively be done to solve the respective problem. Often categorised as emotion-focused coping strategy, this reaction is used to reduce the emotional turmoil in which an ISM may find themselves (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Nakonz & Shik, 2008, Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). While past literature on coping, suggests only negative effects of emotion focused coping (see for example, Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Herman & Tetrick, 2009), this would suggest that engaging with emotion-focused coping actually leads to a positive outcome for organisations, such that if there is nothing that ISMs can do to resolve or alter the source of stress (i.e. through implementing problem-focused coping), then ISMs are likely to target the form of stress with

emotion-focused coping, which leads to a positive outcome, for the organisation. In other words, the demise of the ISM experiencing heightened HCE and their lack of ability to change the respective issue could, in turn lead to benefits for the organisation in form of heightened organisational commitment. The potential positive impact of emotion-focused coping strategies has been discussed by Hajro and her colleagues (2017), who suggested that skilled migrants often do not have the opportunity to address the source of the given stressor through problem-focused coping, which has often been touted as the more beneficial forms of coping (Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Herman & Tetrick, 2009; Hajro et al., 2019). Instead, this could therefore help explain the positive outcome rendered from an otherwise negatively poled independent variable. Suggesting that emotion-focused coping is an important functional resource to deal with environmental stressors by reducing respective stressors through targeting the emotional response (Hajro et al., 2019).

Finally, the last effect, which was observed with respect to HCE, was its negative influence on work adjustment. As previously stated, the ISM literature has overlooked adjustment as an important variable within the migration journey (Harjo et al., 2019). Thus, when looking at the expatriate literature, it quickly becomes apparent that the observed negative relationship of HCE on work adjustment (and its subsequent negating impact on job satisfaction) is in-line with past research. Past research has generally suggested the negative effects which HCE has on adjustment, as it reduces globally mobile individuals' ability to adjust (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016; Chang, 1997). For example, in a study on "classical" assigned expatriates, Peltokorpi & Froese (2009) found that AEs experiencing high levels of HCE will experience low levels of work adjustment. Thus, hindering an individual's ability to function at work in a given host country. Similar sentiments were also echoed by Templer (2010), who identified that high levels of sub-ordinate ethnocentrism will also be accompanied with AEs struggling to adjust. Last but not least, in his study on SIEs in the Nordic welfare state Denmark, Bjerregaard (2014) identified that if private sector institutions acted negatively towards SIEs, then they would in turn have troubles integrating.

Thus, it can be summarised, the direct, as well as the indirect results of the current study compliment the literature with only one minor exception. The mainstream literature surrounding the effects of ethnocentrism on host and home identity reflect the expected outcomes suggested by the acculturation literature, while the hypothesis proposed by the expatriate literature was

confirmed, i.e. ethnocentrism leads to reduced work-adjustment. The negative direct effects initially expected of HCE were confirmed, such that HCE had a negative impact on community embeddedness, as well as a positive relationship with level of overqualification. A potential explanation was provided, thus borrowing from the adjacent coping literature, which suggests a potential explanation based on emotion-focused coping. Combined, the results suggest that HCE had an impact on six of seven outcome variables, with two being explained through direct effects and a further four being attributed to the mediating (or indirect) variables adjustment (one mediating/indirect effect), as well as acculturation (three mediating/indirect effects). Thus, as illustrated by the literature, host country ethnocentrism has a significant impact on the migration success of ISMs in the UK.

8.2.3.3. Conclusion: A Concert of Variables - An Ecosystems Approach

As discussed above, while some hypotheses could generally be accepted, others rendered only partial or no support for variables, which had previously been identified as important factors within the literature. While this may seem worrisome, it does reflect what has previously been discussed in the literature in terms of the ecosystems theoretical approach. The ecosystems theory approach stipulates that nothing happens in isolation and that each variable can have an effect on respective outcome variables (Baruch et al., 2016). However, the more complexity a model gains, the lower the effect sizes of given variables will be. Despite the highly complex model however, relatively high effect sizes were observed and every single variable, which passed the initial screening process and was ultimately utilised in the study, had an (in)direct effect on at least one outcome variable! While this supports the individual-level hypotheses, respectively, most importantly, it supports the claim that there is a highly complex host of variables, reflecting the respective micro-, meso-, and macro-level influences on ISMs' outcomes. These have direct and indirect effects via key processes, i.e. acculturation and adjustment, which in turn can catalyse or hinder respective integration efforts and ultimately migration success. Thus, results from this study clearly support the application of the ecosystems theory approach.

Hitherto, no research has attempted to render such a complex model (Hajro et al., 2019; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018) and while parcelling may have respective downsides with regards to psychometric properties of given scales (Matsunaga, 2008), it does allow for a more complex and

most importantly holistic perspective on the key individual characteristics, as well as institutional and organisational factors, which influence the success of ISMs, through key processes. In essence, providing a closer reflection of the real-world phenomena. Thus, while many individual hypotheses were rejected, the overall hypothesis that various variables act in concert with each other (as suggested by Hajro et al., 2019), rather than previously identified in the literature in isolation, i.e. supporting the general hypothesis of the current study. Throughout the past decade there has been an increasing call for cleaner and more holistic research as past studies have (a) not looked skilled migrants accurately and (b) not looked at skilled migration (or many forms of global mobility, including expatriation) from a multiple-level perspective (Hajro et al., 2019; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018). Thereby, embracing a more holistic perspective, as suggested by the ecosystems-theory approach has led to a more realistic view of level of complexity, which is involved when studying ISMs and respective phenomena.

Thus, to address research question 1[15], as suggested by the ecosystems approach, ISMs' success in the UK are affected by a multitude of variables at three key levels: the micro-, meso- and macro-level. While some of these variables facilitate more holistic migration success than others, when looked at in concert, all outcome variables are affected in multiple ways. This highlights the importance of (a) looking at more than one level when identifying influencing antecedent variables, while at the same time (b) highlighting the importance of taking more than one or two outcome variable(s) into account. Hitherto, past research has usually looked at either included limited independent variables, while usually also including limited outcome variables (e.g. job or life satisfaction, adjustment, etc.).

Along this vein, different independent variables have proven to have different effects. Some, e.g. current age, only have limited effects on respective mediating and outcome variables, while others, including meso-level supportive structure, had a more holistic direct effects. Others however, had more indirect effects, as was the case with the last variable discussed: host country ethnocentrism. In addition, no single variable accounted for every single success variable. Thus, highlighting the importance of measuring more than one outcome variable, as well as the importance of including mediating variables. The latter of the two has often been the case when

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[15] RQ1: *To what extent do (organizational and societal) contextual factors and individual characteristics influence international skilled migrants' (ISMs) acculturation dynamics, adjustment processes and migration outcomes?*

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studying expatriates. Quite frequently, previous research on expatriates has looked at adjustment (a mediating variable) as proxy variable for success (Ballesteros-Leiva et al., 2017; Shaffer et al., 2012; Potowsky, 2016; Lazarova et al., 2010; Takeuchi, 2010; Caligiuri & Tung, 1999; Caligiui & Lazarova, 2002). At least in the case of ISMs in the UK, this approach has proven to be too simplistic, based on the results of the current study. The results of the current study, while confirming the importance as highlighted by the likes of Hajro et al.'s (2019) theoretical paper, suggest that the previous work on expatriates cannot be fully applied to ISMs in the UK, as they only benefit from increased job- and life-satisfaction, when work- and family-adjustment are higher, respectively.

In addition, while spoken of in awe within most of the expatriate literature, cultural intelligence (CQ) was not the "big hitter" which it was expected to be. The past expatriate literature is abundant in statements illustrating the importance of respective internationally assigned employees of having high levels of CQ in order to attain success on international assignments. While certain effects were observed in the current study, the most important variable with regards to holistic migration success, was indeed meso-level supportive structure. That said, following the ecosystems theory approach, it is the amalgamation or "concert" of variables that is vital (Hajro et al., 2019), in order to paint a more holistic picture of the true nature of ISMs' success in a given host country (Baruch et al., 2016).

Thus, it can be concluded that different variables, at different levels can have an impact on different outcome variables, both directly and indirectly. These effects are observable in a complex and dynamic network of relationships. Whereby, some variables have come to the fore as more impactful, while others may be less impactful. Nonetheless, all variables could have a beneficial or detrimental effect on respective outcome variables. This highlights the importance of the newly devised methodological, theoretical model of migration success, such that depending on how one observes success, different variables can be deemed beneficial or not. Finally, while some variables, such a MLSS, can be deemed extremely beneficial, others do not have an across the board symmetrical effect on outcomes, i.e. they are not negative or positive, but can have an influence on outcome variables in different ways, e.g. despite the literature claiming that host country ethnocentrism is a negative antecedent variable of success in the expatriate literature, it also led to heightened organisational commitment, while also leading to higher levels of overqualification: a negative outcome. Similarly, age had a positive impact on job satisfaction,

while also having a negative effect on community embeddedness. This fact further illustrates the importance of taking a more holistic view on how to measure success, as taking one or two variables may lead to a gross over-simplification of claims, which in turn essentially creates tainted claims. Thereby, not serving the academic community as a whole. In sum, the vast network of direct and indirect relationships between independent and dependent variables identified in the current study allow the sheer complexity of ISMs to come to the fore. No individual variable can be seen as all-encompassing. At the same time some variables do not have an overall positive influence. Thus overall, the results mirror a more holistic picture of international skilled migration, which warrants an ecosystems approach in order to fully understand what leads to skilled migrant success and what hinders it.

8.3. Study 2: The Effects of Acculturation Strategy on Holistic Migration Success

Within the global mobility literature, acculturation has often been cited as a key factor pertaining to the success of people engaging in extended periods of cross-cultural contact and is a pivotal process, which can have implications on whether a skilled migrant will be successful in their respective new context (Berry, 1997, 2005, 2008; Kuo, 2014; Hajro et al., 2019). However, despite this widely cited theoretical framework being developed over the years, only very few quantitative studies have actually attempted render more generalisable findings or even attempt to verify the respective theoretical and qualitative assumptions which have previously been posited. The traditional acculturation model include four main strategies or modes, which ISMs can engage in which include: maintaining one's home culture, and (subjectively) deciding not to internalise the host culture (i.e. separation); maintain one's home culture and internalising the host culture (i.e. integration); casting off the home culture, while internalising the host culture (i.e. assimilation); and finally, casting off the home culture, while at the same time deciding not to apprehend the host culture (i.e. marginalisation). The general consensus within the acculturation literature stipulates that integration is the most affective form of acculturation, marginalisation is least associated with outcome variables, while separation and assimilation being considered "in between" or leading to moderate levels of success (Berry, 1997, 2008; Hajro et al., 2019).

When looking at the results rendered by the MANOVA in the latter part of the results section, it becomes apparent that significant differences between the respective acculturation modes were observed among three main variables, including life satisfaction, as well as community and career host country embeddedness. The latter two are characterised by the extent to which the respective ISM would consider aspects of the community and their career prospects within the UK as loss were they to leave (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).[16] Based on the results and as expected, integrated individuals showed higher levels of life satisfaction and community embeddedness than separated individuals. Thus, indicating that integrated individuals experienced higher levels of objective, as well as subjective life success than separated individuals. These results reflect accurately what previous literature suggests, such that integrated individuals were

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[16] At this point it is important to re-iterate that, despite exceeding the expected number of participants significantly, only five participants were classified as marginalized. Clearly, this is not enough to perform any form of meaningful statistical analysis (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2016). Thus, the results rendered pertaining to marginalized individuals were disregarded from further discussion.

expected to score higher on several outcome variables. However, the other results illustrated a rather surprising perspective.

While the previous literature suggests the highest level of holistic success to be rendered through individuals utilising an integration-based acculturative approach, the current study suggests that assimilated individuals rendered the highest amount of success across the board. More specifically, in the two outcome variables, community- and career-embeddedness, as assimilated individuals rendered significantly higher levels of community- and career-embeddedness over integrated individuals. At the same time, assimilated individuals experienced higher levels of success than separated individuals, such that in addition to the previously mentioned variables, they also had higher levels of life-satisfaction than separated individuals. While the former observation argues against most of the previous literature (i.e. assimilation over integration), the second observation putting assimilation above segregation is also not in-line with past research, as these approaches are supposed to render moderate levels of success (Hajro et al., 2019). This is however, not the first time that results have been identified, which initially argue against Berry's acculturation model.

While Lee et al. (2017) supposedly found "counter-intuitive" findings that marginalised individuals were more effective than integrated individuals, Gillespie et al. (2010) have criticised the concept for being too simplistic and out-dated, which essentially has been confirmed by Fitzsimmons' (2013) theoretical paper, suggesting that there are several forms of integration, which can have an effect on how dominant a given culture is configured within an individual's psychology. However, when taking a look at Lee et al.'s (2017) work, they use a very limited and almost niche approach to measuring success, as they only look at managerial performance. That said, they do confirm that integrated individuals are still successful, just not as successful as marginalised individuals. Gillespie et al. (2010) essentially confirm these results, by suggesting that cosmopolitan (i.e. people who are culturally independent) and bi-cultural individuals (i.e. integrated individuals) are most likely to attain top-management positions. While these do indeed suggest that potential changes could, or even should be made, to update respective acculturation theorem, they only focus on organisationally related goals, which does not necessarily confirm or disconfirm the entirety of the theorem. The current study on the other hand, takes eight outcome variables into account. Including one variable which according to the UK's migration policy can only be attained if individuals engage in integration-based acculturation, i.e. maintaining their

home culture, while at the same time adopting a British cultural identity (HM Home Office, 2019). To the knowledge of the researcher, this is the first study which has taken such a holistic view of migration success variables to test acculturation.

The effects of Brexit may also explain the results of assimilation. As suggested by a qualitative comment by a potential participant, who responded to a conversation held on social media:

"I was completely fine with (living in the UK) and ready to make those concessions - I mean I have for the past 10 years. But Brexit has just changed everything. I just don't feel welcomed anymore, even though I have not met anyone who openly voted for Brexit." *Anonymous Potential Participant*

Taking this line of thought, it would seem that the right-wing shift in Europe, despite calling for integration within national immigration policy (HM Home Office, 2019), has also taken place in the UK. Particularly, this quote illustrates a potential explanation and confirmation of past theories developed by Berry (1997), such that it is at the host-society's discretion as to determine how they accept outsiders. This is the third pillar suggested by Berry in his later work (2008), which stipulates that the host country has expectations of how foreigners are supposed to act. Since migration is a frequently politicised tool for right-wing politics (Van der Brug et al., 2015), it is not surprising that the UK may have taken an assimilation approach to acculturating foreigners. Thus, this would explain why the current study has observed assimilation as the most affective acculturation strategy, leading to the highest form of holistic migration success.

Finally, using a social identity theory perspective, it makes sense that individuals engaging in assimilation will be more successful than individuals who engage in separation. The key premise for SIT being distinguishing between groups of individuals based on given attributes. Acting in-line with a given culture would illustrate an individual's willingness to become part of society (i.e. through integration or assimilation), while those illustrating strong cultural maintenance are more likely to be classified as outgroup members, based on behavioural observations which are exerted through cultural configurations (Hajro et al., 2017; Jackson et al., 2003; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Lauring & Selmer, 2013; Tyran & Gibson, 2008).

Taking this point a step further by evaluating the results using a self-concept theory (SCT), integrated individuals may face misinterpreting social cues and stimuli through misuse of a given internalised culture. According to SCT, people interpret social situations based on their self-concept. A self-concept is defined as "a set of cognitive structures (self-schemas) that provide for individual expertise in particular social domains (Markus et al., 1985, p.1494). During social encounters a given individual will utilise said schemata. The more identities an individual has, the more likely an individual is to be successful in cross-cultural situations, given the identities are equal (Fitzsimmons, 2013). If not, then an individual is most likely to revert back to the more dominant identity, which in turn, may make it difficult to switch between cultural schemata, leading to ineffective implementation of appropriate behaviour. This may then lead to lower levels of success (Baumeister et a., 1985). If one has "shed" the original culture (i.e. assimilated; Berry, 1997; 2008), then one can only revert to the host cultural schemas one has learned. Thereby, it could be suggested, that one is less likely to exert behaviour typical of the host culture, thus leading to higher levels of respective outcome variables due to being classified as in-group member. Conversely, while still able to exert more typical behaviour, an integrated ISM may on occasion interpret the social situation using the wrong schema and thus exert atypical behaviour. In turn, leading to being re-categorised as out-group member and may therefore experience higher levels of success than separated individuals, as illustrated above, however lower levels of success than assimilated individuals. Thus, some individual may suffer from switching between their identities and may experience *acculturative misalignments*. This misalignment would also be experienced by separated individuals. Since they have maintained their home culture, while rejecting the host culture they are most likely to revert to schemas which are typical to their home culture, while atypical to their host culture. Their interpretation of the given social surroundings in a new culture, are therefore most likely to occur based on said schemata and they will execute behaviours accordingly. Thus, rendering them as out-group members based on these social cues and reactions, i.e. deep-level differences (Jackson et al., 2003; Cole & Salimath, 2013; Lauring & Selmer, 2013; Turner, 2007; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; van Ewijk, 2011; Harrison et al., 1998).

Thus, the results of the current study confirm, to a certain extent, previous literature: apprehension of the host culture is paramount in the success of ISMs in the UK. Failure to do so, will lead to lower levels of success, as illustrated by results rendered through separated individuals. The counter-intuitive findings of the previous study, pertaining to assimilated individuals being

more successful than integrated and separated individuals, can be explained based on two premises. One suggestion illustrated the importance of Berry's (2008) previously identified third pillar, which suggests that the host country culture will ultimately determine which facet of acculturative strategy will be most acceptable. Considering the recent right-wing shift in many countries across Europe, including the recent Brexit referendum, this could be an explanation for individual's being most successful when taking an assimilation approach to acculturating in the UK. An alternative explanation was provided in-line with self-concept theory, which states that individual interpret social situations using their self-concepts or identities. If an individual was unable to use the appropriate social schema to interpret a given situation, this would lead to potentially exerting atypical behaviour, which may lead to being classified as out-group member. This is frequently linked to negative outcomes, such as discrimination and stereotyping. The repetition of the current study within a different context (i.e. country) would be necessary to confirm the proposed options, which both offer an explanation for the respective results.

To answer the second research question[17], it can be concluded that in the UK, ISMs who adopt an assimilation-based acculturation strategy, will render the highest amount of holistic migration success. Despite documents from the Home Office illustrating the UK's supposed strategy of integrating individuals as key success factor, the results suggest that in order to obtain the highest amount of community embeddedness and career embeddedness, an individual should shed one's previous culture, while apprehending the host culture as much as possible, i.e. ISMs will render the most holistic amount of success if they become "British". Initially, this may seem counter-intuitive to Berry's original framework, however following the third pillar of acculturation confirms these observations. Especially, considering the political turmoil which the UK has currently passed through.

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[17] RQ2: To what extent does acculturation strategy impact holistic migration success?

8.4. Key Contributions

The current study provides key contributions from a multitude of perspectives including, but not exclusively relating to theory, methodology, empirical, managerial, as well as policy- and practice-based contributions. These will be outlined next.

8.4.1 Empirical Contributions

Three main empirical contributions were made in the current study, including one of the first uses of clean samples, the importance of including multiple perspectives on measuring success, as well as utilising a more holistic perspective of an ecosystems theoretical approach. While other more minor empirical contributions were made during the study, as illustrated previously, the aforementioned three were the most impactful.

In order to render clean results, one must have a clean sample. "Garbage in, garbage out" is one of the frequently used colloquialisms when reading up on statistical analysis and represents the importance of making sure the value chain of results is not disturbed. One means of assuring this, is through a clean sample. Previous literature has often mixed samples between self-initiated expatriates, short-term assignees, "classical" assigned expatriate and migrants. However, recently there has almost been an explosion of articles contesting the importance of having clear criteria to select respective samples. Indeed, despite being the bedrock of current global mobility literature, it has only been recently that people have been defining the various sub-groups of expatriates and thereby of global mobility, in general (e.g. Hajro et al., 2019: Shaffer et al., 2012; Andresen et al., 2014; McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Baruch et al., 2016). Naturally, there have not been many studies, which have included clean samples, due to the continuous debate on what does and does not constitute skilled migrants versus other forms of global mobility. While some suggest that the difference between ISMs and expatriate lies mainly in axiomatic status differentials (Cranston, 2017), others are adamant about the differences between the respective groups (e.g. McNulty & Brewster, 2017). Following Hajro et al.'s (2019) summarising criteria, sampling was undertaken using multiple checks pertaining to sampling criteria to ensure that the sample of ISMs would be clean. This occurred when speaking to the respective potential participants; it included in the sample description within e-mails; in information page immediately before the questionnaire; and as mandatory questions during the questionnaire itself. Through such a rigorous approach, a clean

sample was ensured and participants who did not classify as international skilled migrants were removed, accordingly. Considering the very novel nature of sample discussions in the global mobility literature, the implementation of an appropriate sampling technique is a further contribution towards the literature, as all results rendered will be clean and accurate, with respect to sampling criteria. Thus, answering the call for a growing body of literature for utilising conceptual clarity (Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Doherty et al., 2013; Doherty, 2012; Dorsch et al., 2012; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018) and clean results, which are comparable, thus more accurately reflecting the respective phenomena in focus (Doherty , 2013; Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016; Shaffer et al., 2012; Al Ariss, 2010). In essence, this allows for replications of the current study at different time periods and therefore allows future studies to build on the current results, as the sample was clearly described and collected in a clean manner. While, applying a set of criteria for selecting migrants posed some challenges during data collection, i.e. it was more difficult than simply collecting data from all people who could be considered first generation migrants based on the UN's simplistic definition[18], it is important to render accurate and clean results.

In addition, it is also important to think about how success should be measured. Past literature within the realm of global mobility has often looked at variables, such as adjustment (Hajro et al., 2019; Ballesteros-Leiva et al., 2017; Shaffer et al., 2012; Potowsky, 2016; Lazarova et al., 2010; Takeuchi, 2010; e.g. Caligiuri & Tung, 1999; Caligiui & Lazarova, 2002), as well as job-, life- (Cao et al., 2012), and career satisfaction (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Cerdin et al., 2014). However, they have often failed to look at success from a more holistic perspective. Using Hajro et al.'s (2019) *dimensions of integration success* as a basis, the current study not only improves the nomenclature of the term itself to *migration success*, but has also included at total of seven success criteria. This revealed a series of interesting relationships between variables, which only exist if such a plethora of outcome variables are included. The dimensions of migration success are occasionally addressed in isolation, e.g. objective and subjective, or family and work life domains, but these dimensions have yet to be included into one study. Thus, by applying an ecosystems theory approach, this particular study is the first to identify and utilise the whole spectrum of migration success in one study.

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[18] UN's definition of a Migrant: "Someone who changes his or her country of usual residence, irrespective of the reason for migration or legal status" (IOM, 2019).

This is important for two reasons. First of all, not all people perceive success to be the same (Brewster et al., 2014; Hajro et al., 2019), which is a key facet of migration success. Success can be measured in the private- and work-life domains, as well as from objective and subjective perspectives. For example, one may consider an individual to be successful if he or she has attained higher levels of job- and/or life-satisfaction, but if said individual earns a considerable amount less or works in a job which is incommensurate with their given qualifications, then this could be considered exploitation or talent waste. Following this logic, if only job and life satisfaction were included, then results would have mirrored much of the expatriate literature, suggesting that work- and family-adjustment are proxy-variables for success. By including five more outcomes variables, however, suggests that adjustment has an effect , yes, but said effect is not as all-encompassing as previously suggested.

In addition, while perceptions may differ as to how to categorise success, independent variables may have a different impact on given outcome variables. This would suggest that what could be categorised as successful could be negatively and positively influenced, depending on the perspective which you are taking. Thus, the heightened complexity which is proposed by the ecosystems theory approach extends to the means by which you measure success, as the aforementioned complex web of relationships extends to the outcomes variables, which should be selected. Thus, by applying the ecosystems theory approach, an array of outcome variables were included, which support Hajro et al.'s (2019) theoretical claims of dimensions of integration success. Success is stakeholder-specific and depending on which outcome variables are included in a given study, different inferences could be made. This therefore argues for implementing multiple measures of success, in order to capture a holistic perspective of success, which reflects the true complexity of this real-world phenomenon, as an ISM's life (both work and private) does not happen in isolation to the organisations and societies in which they work.

The ecosystems approach stipulates that nothing in the social world happens in isolation. Being one of the greatest challenges of our time (OECD, 2016) and as illustrated above, migration is a social phenomenon which does not happen in isolation either. In addition, to including a multi-faceted approach to measuring success, all independent variables, across all levels, had some form of impact, whether direct or indirect, on respective outcome variables. These did not have the same influencing direction (i.e. some had a negative and a positive impact on different outcome variables). This lends further support of an ecosystems-theory based approach. The current study

is one of the first studies world-wide to adopt an ecosystems theory approach using quantitative methods within the field of skilled migration and global mobility, as a whole. While several theoretical papers have attested to the importance of including a more inclusive perspective from micro-, through meso-, to macro-levels, no study until this point, has attempted to do so (Guo & Al Ariss, 2013; Crowley-Henry et al., 2018; Hajro et al., 2019; Baruch et al., 2016). The results from this study, to a large extent, mirror past research by confirming previously identified relationships between independent variables, mediating process variables and dependent outcome variables. However, including all of these variables into one model, is indeed novel. Thus, in addition to confirming past results, the ecosystems theoretical approach was also supported and illustrates the importance of including independent variables at all levels, as all independent variables illustrated differentiated effects on respective dependent variables. There are several benefits to implementing such an approach, including not missing the influence of a given level of variables (e.g. the meso-level; Bjerregaard, 2014), as well as not making over-exaggerated inferences about relationships identified in over-simplistic models. Two notable examples of such inferences, are of course the independent variable cultural intelligence, as well as the mediating variable adjustment. Hitherto, both have been touted as key variables to the success of globally mobile individuals. However, the current study illustrates rather limited predictive power pertaining to holistic migration success. On the one hand, it can therefore be said that skilled migrants should not be treated the same as assigned expatriates, and on the other side, adjustment and cultural intelligence prove less important, when measuring success itself from a more holistic perspective. This in turn, lends further support for including higher levels of complexity, including a higher number of levels of independent variables, as well as dimensions of success in order to render a more accurate image of this real-work phenomenon.

In sum, the empirical results of the current study further the fields of skilled migration and global mobility as a whole. Through the use of criteria to obtain a clean sample of ISMs, the utilisation of an array of outcome variables, as well as the integration of independent variables from multiple levels, the current study on the one hand, has managed to incorporate an extreme amount of complexity into a single model, which hitherto has not yet been attempted beyond theoretical or qualitative articles. In addition, through the application of a strict and rigorous sampling criteria, a clean sample also reduced potentially tainted results through enhanced focus on a particular sample. Thus, through skilled manoeuvring of methodological skills, by reducing

the complexity at the item and latent construct level, incorporating multiple success variables, as well as applying enhanced rigour to sampling, the study has managed to create a trifecta of empirical contributions toward the (skilled) migration literature and by extrapolation the global mobility literature, as a whole. Furthermore, the individually observed results in isolation, to a large extent confirm a series of previously hypothesised effects of individual characteristics, as well as organisational and societal contextual factors on respective dependent variables. However, it is the sheer complexity which was incorporated through the guidance of an ecosystems approach which makes this study special. In conclusion, the application of an ecosystems theory approach illustrated that independent variables influence an array of outcome variables differently, directly and indirectly through key processes, which gives a snapshot of the complexity of real-work phenomena. Failing to include the complexity, which is suggested by the ecosystems theory approach, in essence fails to study the true influencing factors of a phenomenon. Thus, in an attempt to evaluate a broader spectrum of given variables with the overriding goal of teasing out a full evaluation of a phenomenon, the ecosystems theory provides a solid guiding framework. As outlined in the methodology section, from a constructivist realism perspective, research endeavours should be carried out depending on the current state of the literature, with and overriding goal of developing the overall field in which the research is being conducted (O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015). Considering the literature has been asking for a more encompassing, holistic approach (Crowley-Henry, et al., 2018; Hajro, et al., 2019; Sardana, et al., 2016; Mahadevan & Zeh, 2015; Guo & Al Ariss, 2015; Al Ariss, et al., 2012), the application of the ecosystems yheory to the current study, answers the call from a constructivsit realism perspective. Thereby, developing the field of skilled migrations further by confirming theory, acknowledging complexity and applying clarity in a sophisticated, as well as rigiourous manner.

8.4.2. Theoretical Contributions

In addition to empirical results highlighted above, the current study has also made minor contributions at a theoretical level. As briefly mentioned above, the current study has coined key phrases and constructs which have yet been identified, including meso-level supportive structure, migration success, as well as the theory of acculturative misalignment. In addition, key theories were tested, which create a point of departure for future research endeavours. Together with the

empirical contributions, the theoretical contributions illustrate the magnitude of effects which were rendered through incorporating so much complexity, via an application of the ecosystems theory approach.

The introduction of key phrases to aid the explanation of past and present observations has been important throughout this study. While Hajro et al. (2019) refer to success in a similar vein to the current study, their use of semantics remains an issue. Using the words "dimensions of integration success" puts a too high, and in fact deceptive, positive spin on the word *integration*. Thus, the term migration success was coined in the current study, which encompasses "the extent to which a migrant attains success in all facets of his or her life, from a subjective and objective perspective", i.e. from a subjective and objective perspective, as well as work- and family-domains. An individual who attains success across the board in the four subsequent categories can be considered holistically successful. Thus, holistic migration success should be defined as "attaining full objective and subjective success in both the private- and work-domain", preferably characterised by multiple means of measurement. The particular importance of not using the word *integration* and *success* in the same term, is due to the fact, that all facets of the acculturative framework can be measured along the same success criteria, and it is not about whether an individual has integrated, which determines his or her success. This becomes apparent in the current study, as well as in Lee et al.' (2017) study, which has suggested marginalised individuals to be more successful. Thus, *success* of the migration process, not of the acculturative process, should be in focus.

In addition to migration success being coined, the acculturative misalignment was also coined, which looks at "the extent to which an individual's acculturative actions align with the expectations posed by the respective society". While described as an important aspect by Berry (2008), it was not named. Based on self-concept theory, acculturative (mis)alignment is concerned with the (sub)conscious (mis)interpretation of social cues and stimuli through self-concepts. Misinterpretation of respective stimuli through the utilisation of the wrong cultural schema can lead to negative outcomes as the misalignment of how someone should behave (defined by the respective society) and how they are behaving, categorises an individual as out-group member, which ultimately has an influence on their migration success, as defined previously. These two concepts work hand-in-hand, as the misuse of cultural knowledge, whether consciously or not, may lead to negative outcome variables.

Finally, through allowing the data to "speak", a new latent construct was identified: Meso-level supportive structure (MLSS), which will henceforth be defined as *the informal and formal meso-level structures in place, which aid an individual's ability to attain holistic migration success in both the work- and private-life domains*. The importance here is the incorporation of the (informal) supportive network (i.e. social support network), as well as the formal organisational support structures put in place (i.e. the diversity climate and climate for inclusion). Together, these variables create a powerful construct, which in terms of direct effects on holistic migration success, comes second to none of the other incorporated variables. Further inquisition of this newly identified phenomenon in form of a qualitative examination, would be required to further render the essence of this extremely vital variable. While new as a latent construct, MLSS confirms past research and should not be seen as completely novel, per se, but as a novel combination of variables which were included. Further qualitative work will be necessary to assess the latent construct.

At this point, it is important to mention that while these contributions do aid the general development and understanding of the field of ISM-related research as a whole, the current study was indeed quantitative in nature and was thereby not undertaken in order to build theory, as would be the case if a qualitative study had been undertaken (Bryman & Bell, 2007). As stipulated in the conceptual, as well as methodology chapters, the current study was focused on testing theory, i.e., the application of various previously identified dependent and independent variables through the operationalisation of the ecosystems theory approach. Thus, the theoretical contributions within the study should be considered minor, compared to the empirical implications, which were illustrated in the previous section. The latter of which represented the necessity for the approach called for in the literature, as past studies were either qualitative or theoretical. Thus, being a quantitative study, other than the minor theoretical implications listed above, the current study's main theoretical contributions lay in the testing of theory with respect to ISMs in the UK.

In this vein, in addition to confirming the overriding theme of needing to include greater complexity using an ecosystems theory approach discussed above, the current study makes an important inference with regards to adjustment. Up until now, adjustment had been previously been used as proxy for success (Ballesteros-Leiva et al., 2017; Shaffer et al., 2012; Potowsky, 2016; Lazarova et al., 2010; Takeuchi, 2010; e.g. Caligiuri & Tung, 1999; Caligiui & Lazarova, 2002). However, at least in the case of ISMs, the current study confirms that adjustment and success (i.e. outcome variables) should be treated as separate. Thus, confirming Bierwiaczonek &

Walduz' (2016) claims that outcomes should be seen as "distal consequences of (adjustment) rather than as synonyms" (p. 772). This was unveiled, as respective adjustment variables only rendered limited relationships to the included outcome variables. Further studies should include alternative outcome variables in order to solidify this claim.

Key theoretical concepts are introduced and thereby represent theoretical contributions which this study exhibits in reflection of the literature. At the same time, it is important to mentioned that in line with the previously outlined constructivist realism perspective, the current study's main aims were indeed to test theory, rather than build theory, by using a quantitative approach. Hence, results mainly contribute towards furthering the understanding of the effects of previously outlined theoretical constructs, by using an encompassing theoretical framework: the ecosystems theory approach. In addition, through the introduction of the term holistic migration success and building on the past theory suggested by Hajro et al. (2019), future studies should take a moment to think about which variables to include in order to paint a more accurate picture of respective independent variable effects on mediating or ultimate outcome variables. In addition, acculturation misalignment was introduced which illustrates the importance of aligning expectations and actions through the application of self-concept theory. Finally, the introduction of MLSS is a further concept which was introduced, which extends the literature in terms of creating an overring latent construct which has the strongest predictive power of direct impact on dependent success variables. Being a quantitative study, building theory is difficult (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Saunders et al., 2016). Hence, the current study's theoretical contributions mentioned above should largely be seen as confirmation of the testing of previous studies, while the concepts introduced represent minor theoretical additions to the current literature. Thus, the overall constructivist realist perspective was achieved, as this perspective suggests that a research approach should be to further develop the field which is under investigation (Cupchik, 2001; O'Gorman & Macintosh, 2015).

8.4.3. Methodological Contribution

As key objective of the current study lay in creating a more holistic understanding of the nature of skilled migration in the UK, one key challenge was finding and integrating shorter-scales within the given questionnaire. In the case of host-country ethnocentrism, no short-scale was

found. Thus, based on the definition provided in the literature, a scale was created which distilled the essence of the phenomenon. This therefore led to the creation of minor methodological contribution. This was validated (to a certain degree) through the current study and will offer future researchers the opportunity to take this variable into account without having to include an exorbitant number of items. Rendering initial forms of validity and reliability, this scale will ease the use of this extremely important variable, which has an effect on six outcome variables, directly and indirectly. Thus, from a methodological perspective, the current research project has provided a further contribution in form of the creation of a short scale for host country ethnocentrism, which can be deemed reliable and valid for the current study's sample. The expectations illustrated in the literature, such that ethnocentrism is likely to overqualification, were reflected in the current study, as were other predictable relationships, e.g. those towards home and host identity configurations. Thus, through the initial validation, the scale adds towards the contemporary literature, by offering future social- and business-scientists an effective but efficient manner of measuring the perceived level of host country ethnocentrism. A key word here is "initial". While the validation and reliability analysis throughout the current study followed key procedures, which have been outlined in much detail, further evaluation of the scale must be undertaken in order to be classified as fully validated. In addition to the expert advice gathered to aid face or qualitative validity of the given scale, further tests are necessary to ultimately confirm the psychometric properties of the scale. For example, a confirmatory study using an alternative sample would be beneficial, whereby a sample could be selected from ISMs who live in other countries. Thus, despite further steps being necessary to fully confirm validation of the given ethnocentrism scale, the current study has made a preliminary methodological contribution towards the creation of a perceived host country ethnocentrism scale.

8.4.4. Managerial Implications

In addition to the aforementioned empirical, theoretical, as well as methodological contributions, the results of the current study also have several managerial implications, including the heightened importance identified with MLSS, as well as the importance of gaining insights on individual level characteristics. Integrating the individual level differences and developing a meso-level supportive structure are the two aspects which organisations can and should influence.

To raise the most obvious implications illustrated in the results is in the importance of creating an inclusive corporate culture, while offering ample support structure and opportunities for social interaction with colleagues. Considering the importance of the MLSS, organisations must therefore, do all they can to (a) integrate cultural diversity, (b) creating equitable employment practices, as well as (c) including the diversity in decision making (Nishii, 2013), while at the same time giving enough opportunities to mingle with colleagues in for example, corporate events, away days and inaugural programs, which allow for a swift onboarding process. These together, must create the opportunity to build psychological safety, so that individuals can voice their opinions. The voicing of an individual's opinions in turn contributes towards the benefits of diversity (i.e. creativity, enhanced problem solving, innovation, etc.; Limaye, 1994; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Dwertmann & Stich, 2013). In addition, employees in general (Steger, 2016; Brafford & Rebele, 2018) and migrants in particular (Hess et al., 2019), often strive to work on meaningful tasks. This in turn leads to many benefits, while on the counter-side, if not present, may lead to the negative effects of diversity, e.g. discrimination and stereotyping (Dwertmann & Stich, 2013; v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Dwyer et al., 2003). Thus, diversity remains a double-edged sword, whereby benefits can lead to an extrapolating high number of benefits, as illustrated by the current study. However, on the other hand, diversity can also have a negative effect if not integrated properly, as it is the integration and valuing of differences and not its mere presence which leads to key benefits (v. Knippenberg et al., 2004; Dywer et al., 2003; Lau & Murnigham, 1998; Wyatt-Nichol & Antwi-Boasiako, 2012). While the importance of managing diversity and its beneficial case for businesses has been documented (see e.g. ACCA, 2014), migration success is very much linked to the creation and mobilisation of a meso-level supportive structure. Thus, organisations must assume their responsibility in an ever-globalising world. More specifically, they need to ensure that their employees are integrated within their organisations, in order to benefit from the positive sides of diversity, but also not to incur the penalties of not incorporating diversity, which may lead to subsequent negative effects. Being able to create a meso-level supportive structure on the other hand, will allow organisations to thrive based on their diversity, as ISMs will feel more likely to share relevant task information, which in turn will lead to meaningful contributions. The ability to partake in meaningful work and by being categorised as in-group member, explains the benefits experienced by ISMs in the UK pertaining to the effects of MLSS.

Related to elements of good diversity practice, but in this case from a second angle, in addition to ensuring an appropriate MLSS, organisations must also treat employees as individuals, when integrating differences. As the results from the current study reveal, people have different forms of micro-level characteristics: various individual characteristics and experiences which individuals have collected throughout their lifetimes, which may have an effect on respective outcome variables. Thus, the older an ISM is for example, the more likely they are to be satisfied with their jobs. In addition, past international experience has a negative impact on host identity, which as is known from Berry's acculturation model (1997, 2008) and from the current study, leads to downsides of less favourable acculturation strategies. Therefore, organisations need to take individual level characteristics into account when devising HR-processes. For example, during the onboarding phase, an individual's background should be paid special attention to and the needs of the individual should be addressed, and processes tailored accordingly.

In essence, the managerial implications of the current study indicate that organisations need to take individual level characteristics into account, as these can have effects on an individuals' success. In order to do so, organisations must provide individuals with a respective meso-level supportive structure, which reaps the benefits of diversity, rather than suffering from the frequently identified negative facets.

8.4.5. Policy and Practice Implications

As is evident in the current study, there are a multitude of ways to define success, as well as a plethora of different variables both independent and mediating variables, which can lead to the success of migrants in a given host country, i.e. the UK. Accordingly, policy makers need to appreciate fully, the complexity of the given phenomenon when devising policy, as suggested by the ecosystems theory approach. Nothing happens in isolation and key factors are interconnected: key aspects of the ecosystems theory approach which should be appreciated by practitioners. Thus, in order to ensure successful policy implementation, one must not only take the individual aspects into account in isolation but accept the complex nature of ISMs when settling in the host nation. In order to do so, policy makers should consider how they consider success, which societal and organisational contextual factors and individual characteristics (in concert) lead to success and

finally, which key processes should be considered or moderated when attempting to roll-out a coordinated policy plan and/or initiatives.

Identifying how to measure success and establishing a point of reference to calculate improvements is the first step, which should be taken, when devising integration related policy. As suggested by integration success (i.e. migration success) devised by Hajro et al. (2019) and supported by the current study, different stakeholders within society will indeed have different measures to success. What is defined as successful for one party, may not be defined as success for another (Lazarova et al., *forthcoming*; Brewster et al., 2014; Hajro et al. 2019). Therefore, it is important, before devising respective policy, to identify how success is, or will be, measured (Lessard-Phillips & Galandi, 2015). What key performance indicators, whether qualitative or quantitative, can be initially measured, in order keep track of success of given policies and measures to improve the success of ISMs? This is an important question. Especially, considering an individual may be considered successful if he or she has a job and is paying taxes. However, to what extent is the role commensurate with given qualifications? If this is not the case, it may mean that they are indeed unsuccessful in applying their full potential. This, in turn, would suggest that talent is being wasted and that there may be entrenched discrimination present. Thus, stakeholder centric policy KPIs (key performance indicators) must be developed, in order to determine success of respective policy and by extrapolation, skilled migrants' success. If not, then one may run the risk of measuring success in one area of life, e.g., in the private life domain, but not in the work-life domain (Hajro et al., 2019).

As stipulated by the ecosystems theory approach illustrated in the current study, policy makers and practitioners must consider an array of different influencing variables when it comes to devising policy. It is not enough to look at supporting, e.g., organisations as key stakeholders in attempting to render successful migrants through taking advantage of diversity and inclusive climates, but also consider other aspects, such as the institutional distance to their home countries, the overall feeling of superiority of the host country nationals (i.e. UK citizens' ethnocentrism), as well as the individual characteristics of migrants themselves. Micro-level variables, for example, all had a different impact on different outcome variables. Therefore, on the one hand, it is important to identify key aspects which influence respective success variables, as discussed above, while at the same time it is important to think about ways of developing integration policies, which focus on the individual themselves. What becomes apparent through the investigation of individual level

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variables, is that each individual has a different background and may experience success in certain areas only after a certain amount of time has gone by, i.e., when they have accumulated extensive amount of host country tenure. In essence, this would mean that policy makers need to fully understand the various elements at each respective level, which they must apply when creating meaningful policy. Only when considering the entirety of the phenomenon during policy creation, can more holistic initiatives be rolled out in concert and in a more coordinated fashion, rather than rolling out policies which only focus on one particular level, i.e. either micro-, meso- or macro-level in isolation, respectively. This lends particular support of applying an ecosystems approach when applying theory beyond research.

One hypothetical example of taking a multi-level approach to policy application could be the creation of an independent (non-)governmental agency, which acts as a more customer focused body to advise key stakeholders, i.e. organisations and migrants alike. Such an intermediating organisation would act as go-between to help overcome some of the major issues related to bureaucracy and supposed entrenched discrimination. This will help people, who have no prior information, gain access to important, relevant information, which may facilitate the integration or assimilation of ISMs (depending on what is preferred by the given host country). In addition, such agencies should provide information on how to facilitate the integration of ISMs into the workplace. Not only by, for example, creating workshops on advising how to write effective job applications, but also by working with large organisations with international reach.

Such agencies exist, for example, in Switzerland and act as intermediary between key stakeholders, i.e., the local communities, key economic players and policy makers. They offer advice in different languages and advise migrants in an array of different aspects, including employment, visas, education and development, family-related advice, translations, all the way to insurance queries (FMZ, 2021; FMZ 2020; FMZ, 2014). Building a similar agency-structure in the UK would (a) reduce the effects of enhanced institutional distance by making respective information available, (b) provide companies with much needed talent, which is otherwise missing in many sectors (Hajro et al., 2019; Odey, 2021; OECD, 2006; OECD, 2014; OECD, 2016; United Nations, 2003; Crowley-Henry, et al., 2018; News.gov.scot, 2017; Summers, 2018; Li, et al., 2014; Bozionelos, 2009), and finally, (c) allow ISMs in the UK to integrate into the workplace. The latter of which is important, as discussed consistently throughout the current study, organisations play central roles with regards to holistic migrations success.

Furthermore, advisory services could be offered by specially trained professionals, which would take the individual-level factors into account. Thereby, creating semi-tailored integration plans based on individual level factors. While, integration courses, including application workshops outlined above, are not new and offered in countries, such as Germany (BAMF, 2020), using such an agency as networking catalyser to create connections to businesses or organisations, who are in dire need of talent, would create a triple-helix success opportunity for: (i) the migrants, who will experience swifter integration into the job market and experience higher levels of holistic migration success if organisations have appropriate MLSS; (ii) for organisations who are in need of talented individuals where there are skill-shortages; and finally, (iii) for the society as a whole who will benefit from these individuals enhancing the competitiveness of the host country, i.e. the UK. The key aspect here is making information, which may be difficult to find, readily available, in order to streamline the active incorporation of skilled migrants into the workforce and the UK society in a more efficient manner. The respective agency would be an option of doing so. An array of outcomes could be traced from this hypothetical option, if an appropriate number of independent influencing factors were taken into account.

In addition to considering the respective independent and dependent variables, policy makers should also consider key processes, which aid achieving higher outcome variables, while reducing adverse effects of others. Two key processes were taken into account in the current study: acculturation and adjustment. Understanding these processes could be key when devising policy and integration initiatives. For example, as outlined in the findings above, host and home identity configurations are not directly supported by organisations. While, MLSS does not aid the apprehension of the UK host culture, cultural intelligence, as well as host country tenure do. At the same time, past international experience has a negative effect on UK culture apprehension, as does ethnocentrism. This means that while one can take advantage of those who have higher levels of CQ and have lived in the UK for longer periods of time, this may be more difficult if people have extensive previous international experience. By understanding what leads to the more favourable integration outcome, i.e., assimilation, one can further support the given key process of UK culture apprehension, while targeting the aspects which would work against it, e.g. host country ethnocentrism. The latter of which, may include creating initiatives to counter ethnocentric perceptions, which in turn may lead to less discrimination and prejudice (Arman & Aycan, 2013),

as well as ability to function in the host country (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Templer, 2010). A sentiment previously suggested by Lessard-Phillips & Galandi (2015).

Similarly, to the case of acculturation, adjustment also led to indirect effects on life satisfaction. While past international experience had a similar negative indirect effect on life satisfaction through family adjustment, institutional distance, as well as MLSS had an indirect relationship. Highlighting further complexity, MLSS unsurprisingly had a positive impact on work adjustment, which in turn influenced job satisfaction. While adjustment may have not highlighted the great plethora of overriding positive relationships, as suggested by the expatriate-literature's application (e.g. Hechanova et al., 2003; Shaffer et al., 2016; Shaffer et al., 2012; Wu & Ang, 2011), what these results do imply for policy makers overall, is that they must consider the processes which influence outcome variables. These key processes may be opportunities for policy makers, as they can become focal points for initiatives to moderate more favourable (i.e., increasing positive, while reducing negative) outcomes of the aforementioned processes.

As suggested by the results of the current study, ISMs' success is extremely complex. There is an array of different means of defining success and even more factors influencing success. These influencing factors include independent micro-, meso- and macro-level factors, as well as key process variables, which illustrate a highly complex network. The target of policy makers should be to embrace this complexity, rather than trying to oversimplify it. As stipulated by the ecosystems theory, everything is connected, and nothing occurs in isolation. Therefore, tailoring policy initiatives to target various aspects highlighted in the current study and *beyond*, through devising a coordinated approach, would play into addressing the phenomenon in its entirety. The hypothetical example of creating an additional client-focused agency, is but a mere example of how one could potentially roll-out an initiative which can influence migrants and the key stakeholders in different ways. The key overall message is to appreciate complexity of the given phenomenon when devising policy, as the given antecedent variables identified "work in concert rather than in isolation" (Hajro et al., 2019, p. 345) and thus, policy makers must address the concert of variables together and not in isolation.

8.5. Limitations

The perfect study does not exist within the social scientific realm, and the current study is no exception. Whether using a qualitative, quantitative or mixed-method design, there will most probably be issues, which cannot be averted. While the current study has benefitted from an unprecedented level of complexity, which has allowed for a holistic perspective on the relationship between key variables, a few limitations should be noted, including unexpected sampling issues, common method bias using a quantitative design, and finally the context.

When conducting the data analysis for the second study, which looked at the effects of acculturation strategy on the migration success of ISMs in the UK, it became apparent that a very low number of participants could be categorised as marginalised. So little in fact, that rendering statistics on the fourth group of acculturated individuals was indeed superfluous. This meant that the previously identified benefits (see e.g. Lee et al., 2017) or drawbacks (see e.g. Hajro et al., 2019; Berry, 1997, 2008) of being marginalised could not be tested. A potential reason for this could have been because of language barriers. The questionnaire was carried out in English only. This means that people who do not speak the host country language could not contribute towards the study. As illustrated by Liversage (2009a, 2009b), having the capability to speak the host country language is an important ability which allows for individuals to successfully become British (or in the study's case Danish). In addition, in order to recruit respective individuals, the invitation and information sheet must also be translated, in order to attract participants. Thus, it would have been beneficial to translate the questionnaire into several languages, which may have increased the number of marginalised individuals.

Furthermore, while the sample had its aforementioned strengths in terms of its relatively balanced population, as stated earlier, it was impossible to identify the actual number of ISMs, as defined by the most recent literature. Since the overall number of ISMs in the UK remains unknown, this makes the generalisability of the results, within the current study, questionable. In other words, it is, at the moment, impossible to tell whether the sample within the current study is representative of the total population of ISMs in the UK, which means that results must be viewed with caution accordingly.

The second limitation pertains to only using a single method. Using a single method, i.e. the self-reporting questionnaire, brings with it a few downsides. Primarily, there is still an element of subjectivism in responses (Bryman & Bell, 2015). While participants were advised to be as

honest as possible, this did limit the collection of certain forms of data, e.g. objective success scales of how successful an individual ISM's career was. This particular scale, career success, essentially mirrored that of job satisfaction with a more long-term perspective. When conducting exploratory factor analyses, despite all efforts, this particular scale continuously loaded only the same construct as life satisfaction, thus indicating that this subjective scale measured the same thing. This may be related back to the subjective nature of the self-reporting scale. Despite the drawbacks of the current method, these limitations were reduced by incorporating infallible individual- and macro-level characteristics and contextual variables, respectively. Individual level characteristics such as age, host country tenure, as well as past international experience simply stated facts, i.e. historical background of participants. In addition to extending the literature by including these separate characteristics proved useful and clearly illustrated separate constructs, as indicated by the literature. In order to overcome criticisms with regards to previous forms of measuring cultural distance, institutional distance was included by operationalising HDI. Using the respective statistic allowed for incorporating a sophisticated statistic. Thus, utilising relatively infallible self-reporting micro-level variables, in combination of using the internationally recognised institutional ranking system developed by the UN, the negative facets of a single method self-reporting questionnaire were mitigated. That said, as suggested by Kostova et al. (2020), measuring institutional distance via a composite statistic does bring with it a certain elements of scrutiny, which should also be acknowledged. Especially, considering the general literature has not quite decided on a given means to measure institutional distance in practice.

Extrapolating from the common methods bias highlighted above, a key macro-level variable limitation must be acknowledged. Despite, the overall expectations of perceived host country ethnocentrism on outcome variables being confirmed, the scale and the overriding latent construct which it is supposed to reflect (i.e. host country ethnocentrism) was based on personal reflection, which in turn begs the question as to the extent to which the responses reflect the actual level of ethnocentrism versus the perceived level of ethnocentrism. While, Florkowski & Fogel (1999) have taken a similar approach to the current study and claim that globally mobile individuals' "perceptions of host country national ethnocentrism may not differ sizeably from the reality of their situation" (p. 785), they also acknowledge that there is still a risk of under-reporting the actual level of ethnocentrism. Thus, despite the confirmatory nature of the current study, which may lend support of Florkowski & Fogel's (1999) statement and thereby supporting previous

empirical claims pertaining to the potential (negative) effects of ethnocentrism (e.g. Arman & Aycan, 2013; Hajro, Zilinskaite & Stahl, 2017; Templer, 2010), one must acknowledge that the measured ethnocentrism value may be distorted.

Last but not least, one further weakness is illustrated by the cross-sectional design of the current study. Considering some of the main mediating factors are indeed processes (i.e. adjustment and acculturation), there is no proof in the literature which suggested that each ISM will experience these processes in a symmetrical manner. In fact, as illustrated by Pearson et al. (2012), while migrants may encounter similar phases ranging from more challenging to striving, these do not happen in a specific period of time or even order. Similarly, Takeuchi et al. (2019), in their study of expatriate performance abroad, classified individuals into four clusters of individuals. Each cluster showed a different level of performance over time. Thus, While, a cross-sectional design may give an initial indication of how phenomena are related, increasing numbers of studies are adopting a longitudinal design, as illustrated in Takeuchi et al.'s (2019) case.

8.6. Future Research Directions

The current study has provided a great overview of the extent to which variables at multiple levels lead to the success of skilled migrants directly, as well as indirectly through mediating variables. The results of the current study have set a solid foundation for the study on ISMs in the UK, using an unprecedented amount of complexity. In order to further develop the field of skilled migration and global mobility as a whole, a number of future research directions will be discussed next, including the need to look at the influence of sub-groups, conducting a comparative study between ISMs and adjacent forms of global mobility, conducting a follow-through study using a qualitative design in order to gain depth, as well as building on the holistic migration success concept by including different sources of measuring success, as well as incorporating all perspectives of holistic migration success in order to paint a more well-rounded picture.

8.6.1. Future Research Directions – Further Sub-Group Analyses

In the current study only one form of sub-group analysis was carried out (i.e. the specific acculturation strategies adopted). The major part of the analysis however, involved a more generic

overview of migrants rather than looking at different sub-groups, which could potentially have an influence on the acculturation dynamics, adjustments processes, as well as generic outcome variables. As illustrated by Bjerregaard (2014) working for a public sector organisation can be a completely different ballgame than working for a private sector organisation. Despite most recent Brexit plans (i.e. Great Britain leaving the EU), hitherto ISMs and migrants in general are allowed to move freely within the EU, so long as they possessed a passport of one of the EU-member states. This may pose an additional structural or institutional barrier, experienced previously only by ISMs who come from outside the EU. In addition, looking at the difference between male and female ISMs may also be a vital perspective to look at. As illustrated by the German Federal office for migration and refugees (BAMF), this would appear to be a key group which may be worth comparing (BAMF, 2020b). Potentially being influenced by the traditional cultural views vis-à-vis countries of origin, (typically) males will assume more dominant roles within society. This is often why AEs or SIEs sent to such countries also tend to be male than female, as illustrated by Alshahrani & Morley (2015), who's sample constituted 90% male versus 10% female participants. Syed et al. (2014), despite admittedly not focusing their study on gender differences, confirm the traditional male dominated culture within Jordanian society. This is further confirmed by Al Ariss & Syed (2011), who suggest that gender is a major factor when deploying respective career capital. Further groups which could be analysed include asylum seeker/refugee status, marital status, educational level (e.g. bachelor's, master's, doctorate, etc). The latter of which would be vital for discerning the potential differences between ISMs' specific educational level. Clearly, a vast number of sub-groups can be examined, which illustrates the sheer magnitude of diversity which this group entails, despite being treated as homogenous group with "uneducated" migrants (Zikic, 2015).

8.6.2. Future Research Directions – Comparisons between ISMs and Other Forms of Global Work

In addition to looking at the various sub-groups within the current sample, it would also be a sound idea to undertake a cross-group analysis with other forms of global mobility. While some of the results essentially echoed those illustrated in the literature, it would be beneficial to collect data from the three adjacent forms of global mobility, i.e. ISMs, SIEs and traditional or classical

AEs. This will allow others to gain specific insights on how globally mobile individuals differ, other than previously discussed semantic reasons, i.e. the axiomatic status differential perspective. Hitherto the current study, no major quantitative study has attempted to look at ISMs in such a detailed fashion. Naturally, if that has yet been the case, then it makes it difficult to find a study which has statistically proven differences between ISMs and other forms of global mobility. Being the most similar forms of global mobility, including SIEs and AEs would therefore benefit the development of the field of global mobility. Similar to previous studies comparing the latter two alternative forms of global mobility (see e.g. Andresen et al., 2016; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009), interesting insights could be rendered from comparing different forms of global mobility to ISMs, respectively. This would also lend favour of the two emerging schools of thought: those who see the necessity to invest time in creating demarcating criteria for various forms of global mobility and those who think it is an overly exacerbated task, which created more complexity than clarity (Lazarova et al., *in print*). Creating a comparison between SIEs and ISMs on a statistical basis could therefore put this discussion to bed, such that if differences are identified then future studies should continue to disseminate between the two forms of global mobility. On the other hand, if no differences are identified, then the latter school of thought would be supported and future research, despite acknowledging the theoretical differences between ISMs and SIEs would indeed have to incorporate them under the same umbrella during studies.

8.6.3. Future Research Directions – A Qualitative Follow-Through Study

While the current study has taken advantage of an unprecedented quantitative research design, the drawbacks of the design itself (i.e. being able to identify differences, but not establish concrete meaning; Bryman & Bell, 2015; Saunders et al., 2016) call for a follow-up study looking at establishing the 'why', which would establish more deep-level explanation, and would be able to improve the understanding for the observed relationships, as suggested at the end of the theoretical implicagtions section. Despite the current study being based on a solid literature foundation of ISM and more general adjacent global mobility literature, the hypotheses and respective results which were confirmed or disconfirmed are still deductive inferences. Thus, while no major flaws in execution were identified, the drawbacks of a primarily quantitative study generally include a certain lack of "depth". Therefore, in order to further interpret the results from

the current study and develop theory, a future qualitative study should be carried out, to unveil the depth which would unequivocally compliment the current study's results.

8.6.4. Future Research Directions – Including different sources of holistic migration success

The current study used primarily data from a single primary data source, i.e. the *integrating migrants in the workforce* questionnaire. This was specifically designed for the current study and for the most part borrowed and adapted from past studies. Along this vein, outcome variables were selected due to their notable mentioning in past studies. The amalgamation of various success variables was used to be the first study to test the concept of holistic migration success. An important concept which entails an array of different forms of measuring success, which accurately highlighted one of the literature's main flaws: the scarcity of various forms of outcome variables. In order to further the concept of holistic migration success, it will be necessary to go beyond a single method and thus, include different perspectives of success. For example, Takeuchi et al. (2019) included archival job performance appraisals within their study. In addition, creating a formula to identify the standard of living affordable with past versus current salary, would be an interesting approach to see if an individual has or has taken a step forward in their careers based on salary in respect to the affordability of life. As illustrated in in Pearson et al.'s (2012), while not making progression in their careers, ISMs stated that they earned a lot more during manual labour jobs in their host country, than they did in their host country in a white-collar job. While the salary differences alone would suggest success from an objective perspective, the likelihood that an individual will be able to have the same increase in quality in life is doubtful. Nonetheless, different perspectives of migration success should be included in order to draw a more accurate picture of this newly identified concept.

8.6.5. Future Research Directions – Adding a dimension for migration success

Finally, it was noticed in the process of the current study that holistic migration success has multiple perspectives (see Figure 16 below). For example, according to the UK's policy document on integration, the government (macro-level) wants people to be embedded and approach acculturation using an integration strategy (HM Home Office, 2019). On the other hand,

organisations benefit from committed employees. However, as was shown in model 1b, ISMs who experienced higher levels of host country ethnocentrism had higher levels of organisational commitment, while at the same time experiencing higher levels of overqualification. Thus, organisations may benefit from committed employees, however these ISMs will more likely be working in job incommensurate with their respective qualifications. This means they will be less likely to make meaningful contributions towards the organisations, which as illustrated above is important for all employees, whether internationally mobile (Hess et al., 2019) or not (Steger, 2016; Brafford & Rebele, 2018). In addition, if people are overqualified, an organisation may profit, however the individual will not and due to these individuals not maximising their potential, neither will the society in which the respective ISMs find themselves. Thus, the respective potential is squandered. Therefore, it is important to add an additional facet to migration success, i.e. the micro- (the ISM themselves), the meso- (the organisation or social groups) and the macro-level (society). As illustrated by Berry's (1997, 2008) framework, as well as the newly introduced concept of acculturative misalignment, it is proposed that in order to attain success on all levels, their needs to be an aligned understanding and effort to work towards success given success variables. For example, an individual wants to have a decent salary, job and life satisfaction and not be discriminated against. Organisations are looking for committed employees, who are engaged and who produce accurate results in key areas, where there may be skills shortages. Finally, the overall society in which the organisation and individual ISM find themselves demand that ISMs make an effort to integrate, learn the language and abide to local laws, as well as customs. As soon as one of these levels misaligns, this then leads to misalignment, which basically means someone, or groups of individuals, will not be satisfied. This integrates the importance of the organisation, the individual, as well as Berry's third pillar, which stipulates individuals can only manoeuvre their acculturative strategy in the midst of what society allows. Thus, if people are happy with what society suggests. For example, the tightest national cultures, such Japan or North Korea, may never accept outsiders as integrated and will always see them as foreign (Gelfand et al., 2006; 2011). However, if the individual is happy with this, and organisations still make use of their skills, then all can benefit. That said, in order to fully benefit from diversity, organisations and societies should integrate different perspectives, including cultural perspectives. Thus, as a final point of this theoretical concept being proposed, in order for societies overall to benefit from ISMs, they should allow ISMs to integrate, organisations should introduce a climate

for inclusion in order for these individuals to fully utilise their skills-sets and finally, individuals should make all efforts to integrate, by learning the host culture, while also maintaining their home culture. In theory, this should lead to the highest level of holistic migration success across the board, as individuals will contribute towards the organisations (as suggested by the ecosystems theory approach), which can lead to maximising their potential and can also lead to increased innovation and creativity, as illustrated by the diversity and inclusion literature. Naturally, there may be situations where an organisation may benefit from an individual who is marginalised (e.g. Lee et al., 2017). However, while these individuals may be successful along one criterion, this will not reflect holistic migration success in its entirety.
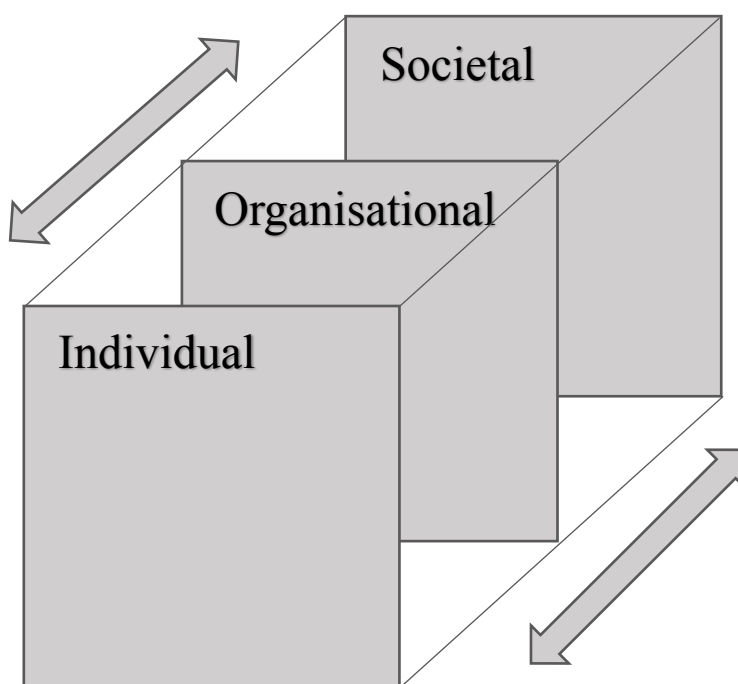
Figure 18: Holistic Migration Success: The third dimension – Perspective

8.6.6. Final comments – A summary

Overall, this study addressed an understudied group of globally mobile individuals: the international skilled migrant. A group of individuals who hitherto the current study, have remained understudied, especially using quantitative methods. The current study has shed light on this politicised subject, by revealing the importance of incorporating a high level of complexity by including multiple independent variable levels (i.e. micro, meso and macro), mediating processes

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(i.e. acculturation and adjustment), as well as a highly sophisticated measurement of holistic migration success.

As suggested by the ecosystems theory and in response to recent literature calling for more complex studies, the current study has taken an audacious attempt to fulfil the respective call, which has led to the confirmation of a key concept: independent variables have the potential to influence outcomes on three levels via multiple mediating processes. Thus, influencing factors should be investigated in concert rather than in isolation in order to capture a more holistic view of this extremely complex phenomenon. Furthermore, the second research question and the accompanying results, have taken a first quantitative "stab" at rendering insights into the statistical importance of one form of acculturation strategy over another. Again, an unprecedented facet of the current study, vis-à-vis ISMs.

Finally, while the current study has made a series of contributions, including empirical, theoretical, methodological, managerial, as well as political, it was acknowledged that no study is perfect and despite several benefits, there were a series of downsides which have been discussed as well. These and other interesting future research avenues were then discussed, as this study does indeed set the foundation for this highly important, yet understudied field of research.

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10. Appendices:

Appendix 1: Acculturation Strategies (Berry, 1997)

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│            ISSUE 1              │
├─────────────────────────────────┤
│   Is it considered to be of     │
│   value to maintain one's       │
│   identity and characteristics? │
│                                 │
│   "YES"  ◄─────►   "NO"        │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
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┌───────────────────────────┐
│          ISSUE 2          │
├───────────────────────────┤
│                    "YES"  │
│  Is it considered to be     ▲ │
│  of value to maintain       │ │
│  relationships with         │ │
│  larger society?            ▼ │
│                    "NO"   │
└───────────────────────────┘
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INTEGRATION   ASSIMILATION

SEPARATION/   MARGINALIZATION
SEGREGATION
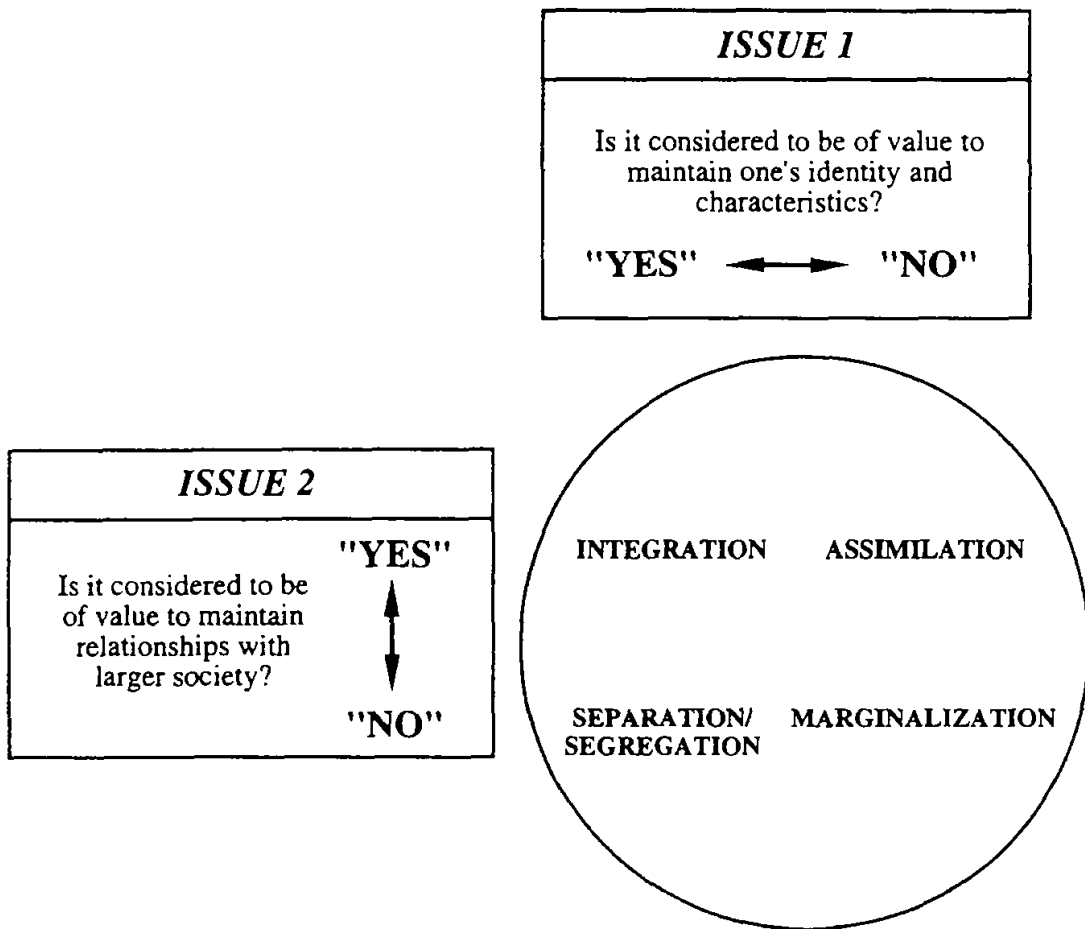
Appendix 2: Categorization-Elaboration Model (CEM) (v. Knippenberg et al., 2004)
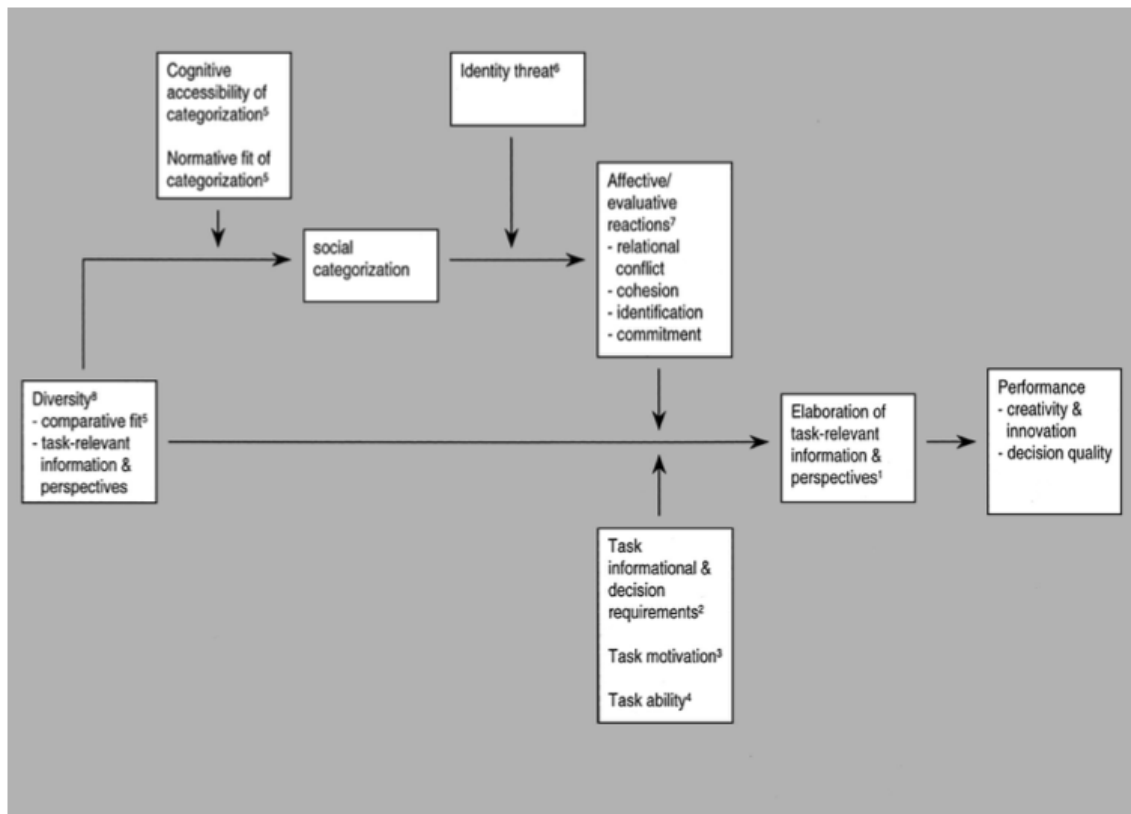
Appendix 3: Prototype Model of business expatriates – Illustrating Conceptual overlaps between the different types of international mobility (McNulty & Brewster, 2017)
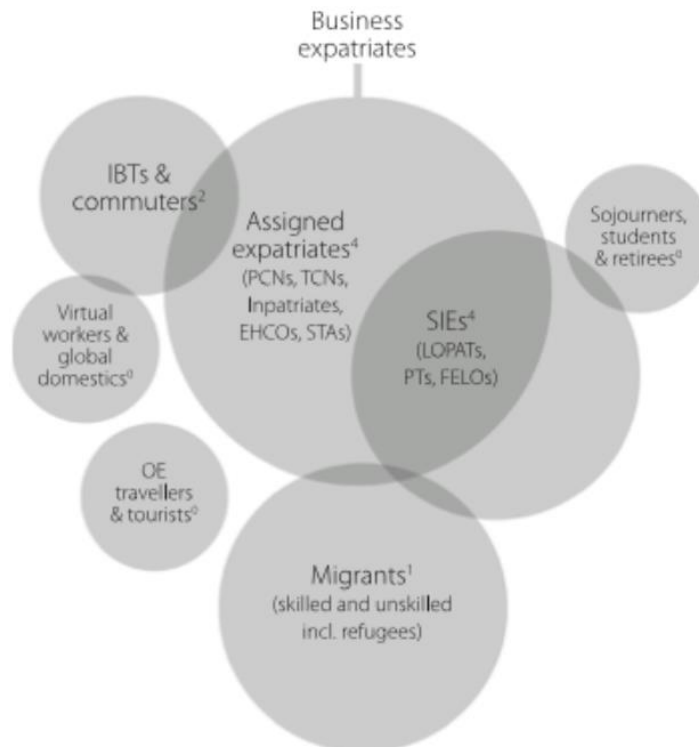
Appendix 4: Antecedents for Acculturation and Adjustment for Global Work Experience: Individual-/Micro-Level

Title	HQMs	Self-Initiated Expatriates	Assigned Expatriates
Language Skills	+ Acculturation / Higher employment rates. - Low language ability ➢ acculturative stress	+ Adjustment	+ Adjustment / Work Performance
Cultural Intelligence	+ Cultural knowledge ➢ an indicator for sociocultural adaptation	+ Protean career attitude and career network size + Subjective and Objective career success + Job satisfaction	+ Adjustment and Job Performance + Job satisfaction
(Met) Expectations	+ Moderator for motivation to integrate	+ Unmet expectations ➢ use of social support + Moderator for motivation to integrate + Unmet expectation can lead to assimilation/integration	+ Realistic expectations related to work adjustment
Motivation to migrate / overseas assignment	+/- Depends on the motivation + Moderator of acculturation + Higher level of choice ➢ higher levels of pre-departure achievement motivation	+/- Depending on the motivation, the outcome may be easier to control/attain + Intrinsic motivation = higher adjustment	+ Work / General adjustment - Low levels of personal agency ➢ Less likely to fully immerse in the culture, i.e. integrate + Career commitment is positively linked with willingness to go abroad + Willingness to go abroad and to a dissimilar culture is positively related to adjustment
Emotion-Focused Coping	+ Acculturaiton/Adjustment		+/- Adjustment / Depends on individual - (Repatriation) Adjustment + Acculturation / Adjustment
Problem-Focused Coping	+ Acculturaiton + Acculturation / Adjustment		+ Adjustment and repatriation adjustment +/- Depends on individual
Motivation to Integrate	+ Integration	+ Adjustment	
Family	- Female discrimination	- Female career movement + Family = Social Support ➢ Adjustment + Strong familial ties ➢ Less likely to expatriate - Family emotional demands = negative family adjustment + Family encouragement is related to intention to repatriate + Spouse Adjustment ➢ Expatriate adjustment	+ Strong familial ties ➢ Less likely to accept global work experience + Family support ➢ expatriate success + Family support ➢ family-role adjustment + Family Adjustment ➢ expatriate adjustment + Partner Support ➢ expatriate adjustment - Number and age of children - Dual career couples - Loss of partner

Career / Symbolic Capital	+ Leads to adjustment/acculturation ➢ career progression + Education ➢ – Acculturation + Protean career attitude, CQ & career network size ☐ (career success + Cultural adjustment) ➢ career success	+ Positive aspect towards self-expatriation/career success - Does not necessarily mitigate all issues, e.g. overcoming the feeling of being an outsider. + Recent experience ➢ mono-cultural-kid adult adjustment + General adjustment for third culture kids + Past international experience ➢ adaptation	+ Experience / Background ➢ access to job market / international experience + (Specific) Past experience ➢ adjustment + Previous international assignment ➢ CQ + International Experience ➢ adjustment - Adjustment
Age	+ Younger ➢ smoother acculturation	+ Increase in age ➢ job satisfaction + Younger ➢ more motivated by adventure, money, career, and less risk adverse	+ Increase in age ➢ job satisfaction + Older ➢ higher cultural empathy + Older ➢ Work adjustment
Gender	- Females ➢ greater risk of suffering due to gender issues if there is a difference in female roles within the society (see also cultural distance)	- Females ➢ greater risk of sacrificing career progression or suffering from underutilisation of skills, e.g. selection bias, promotion, etc. + Males ➢ more motivated by money and life changing opportunities than females + Females ➢ more likely to self-initiate their career than males	- Some cultures are male-dominated ➢ more difficult for women to adapt. + Males ➢ higher emotional stability than females - Females face more barriers in regards to work permit / visas, selection bias / promotion decisions ➢ career constraints + Marital Status + Positive status ➢ less discrimination
Status	- Reduction of status compared to the previous society ➢ stress/dissatisfaction - Negative impact on career outcomes + Can lead to assimilation + Status can be valued e.g. culture specific skills	- Leads to reduced attempts to want to make long-term friends, i.e. temporary visa	
Personality		+ Flexibility and open-mindedness ➢ increased ability to deal with transience (academic careers)	+ Job Satisfaction: Cultural Empathy + Social Initiative ➢ Adjustment + Personality ➢ coping predisposition + Entrepreneurial - External locus of control + Flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, emotional sensitivity, positive affectivity, extroversion, self-monitoring, optimism, emotional resilience, career proactivity, open-mindedness, and cultural empathy ➢ Adjustment + Self-efficacy ➢ Adjustment

Notes: + = Positive Relationship; 0 = No Relationship; - = Negative relationship; +/- = Both Positive and Negative Relationship identified.

Appendix 5: **Antecedents for Acculturation and Adjustment for Global Work Experience: Meso-Level**

Title	HQMs	Self-Initiated Expatriates	Assigned Expatriates
Climate for Inclusion	+ Integration	+	+
1. Foundation of Equitable Employment Practices	+ Lack □ separation / Excess □ integration + Moderator to integration + High performance HR practices □ organizational performance, affective employee commitment	+ High performance HR practices are linked to organizational performance, affective employee commitment	+ High performance HR practices are linked to organizational performance, affective employee commitment + Supportive organisational Culture □ Adjustment
2. Integration of differences	+ Integration - Lack of integration □ exclusion/separation		
3. Inclusion in Decision making	+ Integration		
Social Support	+ Acculturation / Psychological adaptation - Lack of social support □ separation / marginalisation + "Social Capital" □ career success	+ Social support (Supervisor Support and co-worker support) □ Adjustment + Job Satisfaction - Lack □ more difficult to obtain work satisfaction	+ (Perceived) Social Support (incl. co-workers, supervisors, HCN, and other AEs) □ Adjustment + Job Satisfaction
Top Management Support Corporate Strategy			+ Has the potential to positively impact HR practices - / + Impacts the HR strategies implemented, e.g. (-) Multi-domestic approach □ lack of HR support structures vs. (+) Global orientation □ more HR practices □ adjustment more likely + □ Expatriate success
Organizational Support / Factors	+ Acculturation / Adaptation	+ SIEs would benefit from on-going organisational support	- Mediates hardships of cultural distance + Organisational Support (e.g. logistical support) □ Adjustment (e.g. logistical support) □ Performance
HR practices	- Recruitment and selection processes can lead to over-qualification and discrimination + Cross Cultural Training □ Acculturation / Adaptation + High commitment-based HR practices □ alignment of individual and organisational interests	- Recruitment and selection processes can lead to over-qualification and discrimination + Cross Cultural Training □ Adjustment + High commitment-based HR practices □ alignment of individual and organisational interests □ work performance and effectiveness + Mentor □ adjustment. + HR Support □ Adjustment	+ /- Cross Cultural Training □ Adjustment (dependent on training type) - Cross Cultural Training □ Ineffective and costly + Mentoring □ Career progression + Commitment based HR practices □ Adjustment + Organisational commitment

			+ High commitment-based HR practices → alignment of individual and organisational interests → assignment success
Role Clarity		+ Cross-cultural adjustment = Work Adjustment	+ Adjustment
Role Discretion			+ Adjustment
Role Conflict			- Adjustment
Role Ambiguity			- Increased stressors and lower adjustment
Supervisor Nationality		+ Foreign supervisor → increased job satisfaction	+ Foreign supervisor → increased job satisfaction
Financial Incentives	n.a.	0 Not related work-effectiveness/ -performance and Job satisfaction + Motivation to migrate/expatriate	+ Business expatriates → more affected + Motivation to migrate/expatriate + Adjustment
Organisational Tenure			+ Adjustment
Competitive Advantage			+ The **overall** goal of successful expatriation
High work pressure			- Maladjustment
Unfavourable Physical Environment			- Maladjustment
Organisational Size			+ Larger organisational size → Adjustment
Leader Member Exchange (LMX)			+ Adjustment
Organisational Level			- Higher level → less likely to benefit from problem focused coping and adjust to the non-work life (vice versa) - General and work adjustment + Adjustment (interaction)

Notes: + = Positive Relationship; 0 = No Relationship; - = Negative relationship; +/- = Both Positive and Negative Relationship identified.

Appendix 6: **Antecedents for Acculturation and Adjustment for Global Work Experience: Societal- / Macro / Level**

Title	HQMs	Self-Initiated Expatriates	Assigned Expatriates
Host Country Ethnocentrism Societal Attitudes e.g. Pluralism	- Integration - Immigration status → reduced career chances + Acculturation		- Assignment failure and culture shock - Expatriate ethnocentrism → Maladjustment.
Cultural Distance / Novelty / "Toughness"	- Greater → More difficult to adapt and thus acculturate - Greater cultural distance → reduces employment chances => not able to integrate	- Greater distance → Harder to adjust. - Acculturative stress - Lower cultural distance → more likely migrants are to move to a specific country - Larger distance → lower job satisfaction (increased distance → stress and anxiety) - Very large and small distance → Greater adjustment issues: Non-linear curve suggested	- Greater distance → lower Adjustment, reduced integration into host culture, perceived isolation and reduced job satisfaction (through stress & anxiety) -/+ Inconsistent results + Low cultural distance reduces chances of culture shock → adjustment process - Spouse adjustment
Political Factors/ Immigration policies / regulations	+ Acceptance of qualifications and work experience → migratory success + Favourable immigration policies → Integration - Structural barriers → career constraints → cannot fully use their career capital (e.g. credentials) higher levels of over-qualification - Family Stress and mental health problems	- Work permits lead to career constraints → over-qualification - Can be counterproductive, if differences are not accepted	- Work permits lead to career constraints (SEE Org. Support for mediation)
Economic Factors Discrimination, Prejudice & Stigmatisation	+ Influences the motivation to migrate - Negative impact on motivation to integrate and integration capabilities + Anxiety and depression → lower self-esteem - Adjustment - Qualifications - Marginalisation / Separation - Discrimination → Exclusion/Separation	+ Influences the motivation to migrate - Marginalisation / Separation - Previous education / experiences not being recognised → underutilisation of skills	
Standard of living Domestic Support			+ Increased →Adjustment + Adjustment
Push / Pull	- Both push (reactive) and pull (proactive) motivations to migrate → reduced integration	+/- Depending on the specific factors → success or failure	

Notes: + = Positive Relationship; 0 = No Relationship; - = Negative relationship; +/- = Both Positive and Negative Relationship identified.

Appendix 7: Differentiating between different types of international mobility (extended + sources)

Type of employee	Geographic Origin & Destination	Motivation / Personal Agency	Duration of Stay	Health, Status & Power	Organisational Support	Outcomes / Success Measurement
Skilled Migrants/HQMs	• Typically flow from developing nations flows in the direction of the developed (rich) nations or from developed to developed nations (Carr, et al., 2005; Harvey, 2012; Baruch et al., 2007).	• Self-motivated. (Cerdin, Dine, & Brewster, 2014; Carr, Inkson, & Thorn, 2005; Al Ariss, Koall, Özbiligin, & Suutari, 2012; Tharenou, 2015). • Similar to the reasons illustrated in the SIE literature (Cerdin, Diné & Brewster, 2014; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Carr et al., 2005; Harvey. 2012), i.e. Cultural factors, international experience, family factors, economic reasons (Harvey, 2012). • Leave home countries due to political factors and insecurities, economic problems. Personal based (Harvey, 2012). • Personal Agency: Very low (e.g. desperate migration, refugees) - High (Choice / dream migration) (Cerdin et al., 2014; Al Ariss &	• Planned Permanent basis (McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Cerdin, Dine, & Brewster, 2014; Carr, Inkson, & Thorn, 2005; Al Ariss, 2010; Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013; Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2012; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Tharenou, 2015; Cranston, 2017; Lowe et al., 2011)	• Are not necessarily employed by an organisation. (McNulty & Brewster, 2017) • University Educated or equivalent (i.e. tertiary degree) from home country (Cerdin, Dine, & Brewster, 2014; Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2012; Tharenou, 2015; Cranston, 2017; Harvey, 2012). • "Highly Educated and experienced individuals" (Al Ariss & Syed, 2011, p. 286). • Local contracts = lower cost (Cerdin, et al., 2014). • Negative Status (Al Ariss, Koall, Özbiligin, & Suutari, 2012); Winterheller & Hirt, 2017; Harvey, 2012; Doherty et al., 2013). • Can be treated better or worse than HCN counterparts when coming from a developed to a	• Individual / Self-Funded (Al Ariss, Koall, Özbiligin, & Suutari, 2012; Tharenou, 2015; Doherty et al., 2013). • No organisational Support (Doherty et al., 2013) OR • Sponsored by employing organisation (Tharenou, 2015).	• Acculturation, i.e. integration (Berry, 1997; Cerdin et al., 2014). To less extent Adjustment (Winterheller & Hirt, 2017) • Strong focus on subjective success (Cao et al., 2012; Al Ariss, 2010). • Overall: Successful acculturation (job- and life-satisfaction & career success) (Cerdin et al., 2012). • Strong focus on life Satisfaction (Zikic et al., 2010), e.g. family happiness. • Career Satisfaction (Salary, promotions, etc.) / Job Satisfaction (Zikic et al., 2010; Cerdin et al., 2014; Cao et al., 2012; Al Ariss, 2010 - Objective). • Career Success (Winterheller & Hirt, 2017 / Cao et al., 2012; Al Ariss et al., 2012).

			Crowley-Henry, 2013; Al Ariss, 2010)		developed country (Harvey, 2012). • Focuses on work/employment rather than careers (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013). • Susceptible to discrimination and downward career progression (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Winterheller & Hirt, 2017; Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010). • Do not fully enjoy respective career choices (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013)		• Individual/Family migration Focus (Doherty et al., 2013).
Business Expatriates	Assigned Expatriates	• Due to the organizational support, the world of the organization is their oyster (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). • Employer is mostly from the AEs' national origin (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). • Typically works in one assigned country (Shaffer et al., 2012; Cerdin & Perganeux, 2010).	• Sent by the organization (McNulty, De Cieri, & Hutchings, 2009; Al Ariss, 2010; Al Ariss, Koall, Özbiligin, & Suutari, 2012; Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013; Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen, & Bolino, 2012; Inkson, Pringle, Arthur, & Barry, 1997; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Jokinen, Brewster & Suutari, 2008; Tharenou, 2015; Doherty, Dickmann &	• Planned Temporary o Short-term o Med-term o Long-term • 12-36 months (Tahvanainen, et al., 2005; Mayerhofer, et al., 2004; Collings, et al., 2014). • 1-5 years (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010) (McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Shaffer et al., 2012; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Cerdin & Parganeux,	• Must be employed by an organization i.e. a MNE or global organization (McNulty & Brewster, 2017). • Cannot have citizenship of host-country (McNulty & Brewster, 2017). • Must operate in legal boundaries (McNulty & Brewster, 2017). • Accompanied by family (Starr & Currie, 2009; Mayerhofer, et al., 2004; Demel &	• The organisation is responsible for aiding and funding expatriation and repatriation, including family relocation, general funding, additional pay, help with bureaucracy, etc. • Encounter less structural barriers. (Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Shaffer et al., 2012; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011; Starr & Currie, 2009; Tahavanainen et al., 2005; Mayerhofer et al., 2004;	• Overall: Adjustment (Takeuchi, 2010; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991): Leading to organisational success (Mayerhofer et al., 2004). • Completion of a specific organisational project / assignment: management development, coordination and control, information exchange, and succession planning (McNulty, De Cieri, & Hutchings, 2009;

Mills, 2011; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Cerdin & Parganeux, 2010; Biemanm & Andresen, 2010; Takeuchi, 2010)

- Certain level personal agency (Shaffer et al., 2012; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014). However, this is reduced later once accepting an assignment, since an individual is scared of "political black eye" (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998).
- Motive: Financial benefits, personal interest in international experience, career progress, personal development (Al Ariss & Cowley-Henry, 2013; Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011; Richardson & Mallon, 2005)
- Sent abroad primarily due to their skills, i.e. skilled, educated, typically higher positions.

(McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Inkson, Pringle, Arthur, & Barry, 1997;

2010; Cranston, 2017; van Bochove & Engebersen, 2015)

Mayrhofer, 2010; Collings, et al., 2014).

- Higher Status (Cranston, 2017).
- Temporariness: less integration (no talk about acculturation).
- Job assigned before leaving
- Sent abroad primarily due to their skills, i.e. skilled, educated, typically higher positions.

(McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Inkson, Pringle, Arthur, & Barry, 1997; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; McNulty, De Cieri, & Hutchings, 2009; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014)

McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Doherty et al., 2013; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010)

- Expensive for organisations (Bozkurt & Mohr, 2011)

Shaffer et al., 2012; Inkson et al., 1997; Tharenou, 2015; Cerdin & Parganeux, 2010; Collings et al., 2014).

- Career Success / Development (Hippler et al., 2014)
- Extrinsic Career Success, e.g. promotions or Salary (Cao et al., 2012)
- Job Satisfaction (Selmer & Lauring, 2012; Hechanova et al., 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009)
- Work effectiveness (Selmer & Lauring, 2012)
- "General" Satisfaction (Hippler et al., 2014).
- Life/Non-work satisfaction (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998)
- Job Performance (Selmer & Lauring, 2012; Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Hippler et al., 2014; Lazarova et al., 2010; Hechanova et al., 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005)
- Family role performance

	Suutari & Brewster, 2000; McNulty, De Cieri, & Hutchings, 2009; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014)					(Lazarova et al., 2010). • Intension to stay on assignment / Withdrawal Cognitions (Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Hechanova et al., 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). • Enhancement of work related skills (Feldman & Thomas, 1998; Jokinen et al., 2008). • Organisational commitment (Hechanova et al., 2003) • Family adjustment (Caliguiri et al., 1998) • Corporate / Career Focus (Doherty et al., 2013) • Job and Long-term career paths (Mayerhofer et al. 2004)

Self-initiated Expatriates (SIEs)	• More likely to choose a location which is close-by due to ease of travel during job seeking, i.e. limited options.
	• Most commonly works in foreign organisations.
	• The individual must move away from the home country to another country. Although closer countries are more likely, there is no limit as to how
		• Self-motivated (Al Ariss & Cowley-Henry, 2013; Al Ariss, 2010; Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013; Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2012; Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen, & Bolino, 2012; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010; Cerdin & Selmer,	• Planned Temporary (Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013; Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2012; Shaffer et al., 2012; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Cranston, 2017).
			  o Short-term
			  o Mid-term
			  o Long-term
				• Those who are more educated are older.
				• Highly susceptible to culture shock, as they must cope with this without extensive organisational support (Shaffer et al., 2012)
				• The older the individuals the less likely they are to travel abroad without prior arrangements.
					• Self-funded (Shaffer et al., 2012; Tharenou, 2015; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011; Doherty et al., 2013; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010)
					• The individual is responsible for the expatriation and repatriation from their assignments (Suutari & Brewster, 2000;
						• Overall: Adjustment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009).
						• Work / Task Performance (Shaffer et al., 2012; Selmer & Lauring, 2012; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Bozionelos, 2009; Doherty et al., 2013)
						• Work Effectiveness (Shaffer et al., 2012)

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far an individual can go! (Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

- Works in one country (Shaffer et al., 2012; Tharenou, 2015).
- Selective due to personal agency (Doherty et al., 2011)
- Home Country -> "Attractive" Country (i.e. both developed and developing) (Doherty et al., 2011; Richardson & Zikic, 2007; Al Ariss, 2010)
  - Developing -> Developed (Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010;)

  - Developed -> Developed (Al Ariss / Özbiligin, 2010; Selmer & Lauring, 2012)

(Suutari & Brewster, 2000)

2014; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Jokinen, Brewster & Suutari, 2008; Tharenou, 2015; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011; Cerdin & Parganeux, 2010; Collings et al., 2014).

- High level of personal agency (Shaffer et al., 2012; Al Ariss, 2010; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013)
- Motivations: Personal motivation towards internationalism (i.e. adventure/exploring), increased career options, financial reasons, increased quality of life, personal development, etc. (Al Ariss & Cowley-Henry, 2013; Carr, Inkson, & Thorn, 2005; Shaffer, et al., 2012; Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010; Baruch & Forstenlechner, 2017; Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011l; Richardson & Mallon, 2005).
- More heterogeneous, e.g. early and late careers, managers,

  - o Indefinite
- Job, typically, found upon arrival (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Tharenou, 2015).

(McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Al Ariss & Cowley-Henry, 2013)

- Encounter structural barriers such as obtaining visas and work permits, which often lead to career constraints (Shaffer et al., 2012; Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Car et al., 2005; Al Ariss & Syed, 2011).
- Must be employed by either an MNE or local organization (intention). (McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Tharenou, 2015).
- Cannot have citizenship of host-country (McNulty & Brewster, 2017).
- More positive connotations in terms of status (Al Ariss, 2010; Cranston, 2017), compared to migrants.
- Temporary status: less interaction, feeling alone and lower psychological well-being (Richardson & Zikic, 2007).
- More likely to engage in sociocultural adjustment rather than psychological

Tharenou, 2015; Biemanm & Andresen, 2010; Selmer & Lauring, 2014; Collings et al., 2014; Al Ariss et al., 2012).

- Initial expatriation can be funded by a former employer (see Cerdin & Selmer, 2014).
- No Org. Support (Doherty et al., 2013; Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009)

(Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013; Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2012; Shaffer et al., 2012; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014)

- Job Satisfaction (Shaffer et al., 2012; Richardson & Zikic, 2007; Lauring & Selmer, 2012; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Tharenau & Caulfield, 2010).
- Career Success (Cao et al., 2012).
- Career Satisfaction (Shaffer et al., 2012)
- Life Satisfaction (Tharenau & Caulfield, 2010; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013)
- Career Development / Advancement (Shaffer et al., 2012; Cao et al., 2012)
- Well-being (Shaffer et al., 2012).
- Career Capital (Jokinen et al., 2008)
- Early return (Bozionelos, 2009; Tharenau & Caulfield, 2010)
- Individual / Career Focus (Doherty et al. 2013).
- Women: Family & Personal life are more important, rather than building a career (Fitzgerald & Howe-Walsh, 2008).

skilled individuals (Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Biemanm & Andresen, 2010; Suutari & Brewster, 2000;).

- Location & host country reputation are important drivers for move (Doherty et al., 2011).
- Vertical progression not always first priority (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013).

(Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Inkson et al, 1997; McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Al Ariss & Cowley-Henry, 2013; Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013)

adjustment due to the temporary stay (vice-versa for immigrants) (Cerdin & Selmer, 2014).

- Highly educated/qualified, managers & skilled individuals such as hairdressers (Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014).
- Very heterogenic group of people (Selmer & Lauring, 2014).
- Local contracts = Cheaper (Shaffer et al., 2012; Richardson & Mallon, 2005).
- Job, typically, found upon arrival (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Tharenou, 2015).

(Suutari & Brewster, 2000)

Global Travellers (Short-term Assignees/Flexpartiates/IBTs/International Commuters)						
• Determined by organisation • A single to several countries per international assignment. (Shaffer et al., 2012; Mayrhofer et al. 2011; Collings et al., 2014)	• Employees are sent • Organisational reasons: to transfer skills / knowledge, solve problems, develop management or enhance management control, organisational development, network building, fill skill gaps (Shaffer et al., 2012: Collings et al., 2007; Tahvanainen, et al., 2005; Colling et al., 2014; Mäkelä et al., 2015). • Personal development and financial incentives generally seen as motivation to engage in global work experience (Shaffer et al., 2012; Tahvanainen et al., 2005; Mayrhofer et al., 2011). • International travel is expected of them, thus they have lower levels of personal agency (Shaffer et al., 2012; Mayrhofer et al., 2011, 2004).	• ST-Assignees + Flexpatriate: Usually 1-12 months (Shaffer et al., 2012; Starr & Currie, 2009; Tahvanainen, et al., 2005; Mayerhofer et al., 2004; Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Collings, et al., 2007; Tahvanainen, et al., 2005; Bozkurt & Mohr, 2011; Starr, 2009; Collings, et al., 2014). • IBTs: 1-3 weeks / Very Short-term / Regular Travel (Shaffer et al., 2012; Collings et al., 2014; Collings, et al., 2007; Bozkurt & Mohr, 2011; Starr & Currie, 2009; Collings et al., 2014).	• Family often "remain in the home country"/ no physical relocation (Collings, et al., 2007, p. 205; Starr & Currie, 2009; Tahvanainen, et al., 2005; Collings, et al., 2014; Shaffer et al., 2012; Mayerhofer et al., 2011; Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Mäkelä et al., 2015) • Repatriation is "unproblematic" (Tahvanainen, et al., 2005, p. 667; Starr, 2009). • More cost efficient than traditional AEs (Tahvanainen, et al., 2005; Collings, et al., 2014) • Salary, pension, etc. often paid in home country (Collings, et al., 2014; Tahvanainen, et al., 2005). • IBTs: Do not experience the vast amount of boundaries (Collings, Scullion, & Morley, 2007). • Sent because of skills / education (Collings et al., 2014; Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007) • Status = High	• Funded by organisation (Shaffer et al., 2012 (Tahvanainen, et al., 2005). • Less HRM Necessary (Mayerhofer et al., 2004), i.e. Less focus on career management by organization, Doherty et al., 2013) e.g. avoidance of repatriation and career issues (Starr, 2009) and from and organisational perspective (Tahvanainen et al., 2005; Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010).	• Company Focus / Career. • Intrinsic Success, e.g. personal growth, well-being/health, etc. (Shaffer et al., 2012; Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010) • Private life / W-L Balance (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010) • Job & career satisfaction (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010) • Extrinsic Career Success (Demel & Mayrhofer) e.g. Salary, promotions, etc. • Career development / Success (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010) •

Appendix 8: **Antecedents/Drivers/Outcomes of Acculturation: Micro-Level**

Levels	Title	Migrants	HQMs	Self-Initiated Expatriates	Assigned Expatriates
Micro-Level (Individual)	Language Skills	+ Higher skills = higher employment rates (Pearson, et al., 2012).	+ (Hajro, et al., 2017) + Higher skills = higher employment rates (Pearson, et al., 2012; Winterheller & Hirt, 2017). - Low language ability can be a key source of acculturative stress (Marin & Chun, 2010).	+ Important for adjustment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009).	+ (Tung, 1998): leads to higher work performance. + (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005): Cultural / interaction (moderating) adjustment. + Actual proficiency as well as willingness to use the language (Mendenhall & Oddou; 1985). + Interaction adjustment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012; Takeuchi, 2010). + (Lazarova et al., 2010; Hechanova et al., 2003)
	Cultural Intelligence	+ Cultural knowledge = an indicator for sociocultural adaptation (Berry, 1997).	+ Cultural knowledge = an indicator for sociocultural adaptation (Berry, 1997).	+ Has a positive influence on protean career attitude and career network size (Cao, Hirishi & Deller, 2012). + Subjective and Objective career success (Cao, Hirshi & Deller, 2012). + Cultural empathy is related to job satisfaction on an international assignment (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011)	+ (Wang, 2016), and job performance. + Cultural empathy is related to job satisfaction on an international assignment (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011) + Motivational CQ to Adjustment (Templer et al., 2006)
	(Met) Expectations	+ (Berry, 1997).	+ (Cerdin, et al., 2014): Moderator for motivation to integrate (also see Berry, 1997).	+ Unmet expectations can lead to the use of social support in order to attain success (Khalaf & Alkobaisi, 1999). + Can be a moderator for motivation to integrate (Khalaf & Alkobaisi, 1999). + Unmet expectation can lead to assimilation/integration of host country culture, e.g. religion (Khalaf & Alkobaisi, 1999).	+ Realistic Job Preview/briefing is related to work adjustment (Templer et al., 2006).

Job / Career Satisfaction		+ (Cerdin, et al., 2014) Integration (p. 166); see also (Zikic, et al., 2010)	+ Positive work outcome stemming from positive adaptation (Lauring & Selmer, 2012; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998).	+ (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005)
Life Satisfaction		+ (Cerdin, et al., 2014) integration p. 166; see also (Zikic, et al., 2010)	+ Non-work satisfaction = desired outcome of adjustment (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998).	
(Work/Task) Performance			+ Positive outcome of successful adjustment (Selmer & Lauring, 2012).	+ Positively related to positive adjustment (Lazarova et al. 2010) - Low performance as an outcome of maladjustment (Takeuchi, 2010)
Career Development / Advancement / Success		+ (Cerdin, et al., 2014) integration p. 166		+ Overall adjustment (Hippler et al., 2014).
Level of Over-qualification	- The higher the over-qualification the lower the lower the (job) satisfaction (Al Ariss, 2010)	- The higher the over-qualification the lower the integration (life/job satisfaction) and leads to lower levels of job involvement (Pearson, et al., 2012; Al Ariss, 2010).	- Higher over-qualification leads to higher levels of (job/career) dissatisfaction (Shaffer et al., 2012).	
Motivation to migrate (gain/loss framing) / Motivation for overseas assignment (Expats)	+ Moderator of acculturation (Berry, 1997). + Influences the motivation to adjust and the level of adjustment (Pires et al., 2006).	+/- As it depends on the motivation to migrate (Cerdin, et al., 2014): Influences motivation to integrate, but not integration directly (Pearson, et al., 2012; Zikic, et al., 2010). Also briefly mentioned in Lazarus (1997). + Moderator of acculturation (Berry, 1997) + Those who choose to leave have higher levels of pre-departure achievement motivation than those who want to stay (Boneva et al., 1998).	+/- (Selmer & Lauring, 2012; Richardson & Zikic, 2007: Explorer/architect): Depending on the motivation, the outcome of the respective expatriate may be easier to control/attain. + Self-initiated leads to higher levels of (family) adjustment, due to higher intrinsic motivation (Shaffer et al., 2016).	+ Work / General adjustment (+ for Japanese) (Chang, 1997) - In general the organisation decides whether the expatriate stays or goes, i.e. lower levels of personal agency. Less likely to fully immerse in the culture, i.e. integrate (Pires et al., 2006). + Career commitment is positively linked with willingness to go abroad (Shaffer et al., 2012). + Willingness to go abroad and to a dissimilar culture is

				positively related to adjustment (Lazarova et al., 2010).
Organisational Commitment	+ Partial mediator between HR practices and organizational citizenship (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE). + Full mediator between HR practices and intent to stay in organisation (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE).	+ Partial mediator between HR practices and organizational citizenship (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE). + Full mediator between HR practices and intent to stay in organisation (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE).	+ Partial mediator between HR practices and organizational citizenship (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE). + Full mediator between HR practices and intent to stay in organisation (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE).	+ Partial mediator between HR practices and organizational citizenship (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE). + Full mediator between HR practices and intent to stay in organisation (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE).
Host Country Embeddedness			+ Higher host country embeddedness (career & community) leads to a reduced chance in repatriation and increasing host country satisfaction (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).	
Emotion-Focused Coping	+ (Weishaar, 2010) – Coping strategies in general (Also see Berry, 1997)	+ (Hajro, et al., 2017; Al Arisss, 2010, p.351)		+ Psychological reappraisal, skills acquisition, job satisfaction, & internal work motivation / - psychological withdrawal is negatively related to the association of host nationals and psychological stress; Palliative Coping Negatively correlated to intent to stay on assignment and job satisfaction, as well as positively related to psychological health problems (Feldman & Thomas, 1992)

			+/- depending on the individual and the situation (Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). - (Repatriation) Adjustment (Herman & Tetrick, 2009). + Periodic psychological withdrawal leads to acculturation (e.g. religious worship) (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) - (Potosky, 2016). + GENERAL Coping Skills (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Problem-Focused Coping	+ (Weishaar, 2010) – Coping strategies in general (Also see Berry, 1997)	+ (Hajro, et al., 2017; Al Ariss, 2010, p.351) + (Zikic, et al., 2010): Pursuing further education.	+ Building relationships with host country colleagues and negatively related to stress (Feldman & Thomas, 1992) + (Repatriation) Interaction and Work adjustment (Herman & Tetrick, 2009). +/- Depending on the individual and the situation (Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). + Boundary spanning reactions/ out of one's "comfort zone" (Potosky, 2016). + GENERAL coping skills (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Premature repatriation / return			- Premature repatriation as negative outcome of maladjustment (Takeuchi, 2010). + Those promised a job upon repatriation were more satisfied (Tung, 1998). - Adapting too well can lead to culture shock upon return (Tung, 1998).

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Motivation to integrate (MTI)	+ integration (Cerdin, et al., 2014)	+ The higher the intention, the more likelihood there is for successful adjustment (Selmer & Lauring, 2012). + Motivation to adjust goes hand-in-hand with HR support, leading to adjustment (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).	
Utilization of social networks	+ Important to find employment (Pearson, et al., 2012; Al Ariss, 2010, p.351)		
Family Situation	- Can lead to greater discrimination of women/women take up primary care roles (Pearson, et al., 2012).	- Having a family can negatively impact career chances for females with families and respective responsibilities (Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010). + Those who have a family can look to them as source of social support (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). + Strong familial ties = Less likely to accept global work experience (Shaffer et al., 2012; Carr et al., 2005). - Family emotional demands has a negative relationship with family role adjustment (Shaffer et al., 2016). + Family instrumental support is related to adjustment (Shaffer et al., 2016). + Family encouragement is related to intention to repatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) + Family instrumental support with family role adjustment (Shaffer et al., 2016)	+ Strong familial ties = Less likely to accept global work experience (Shaffer et al., 2012; Carr et al., 2005). + Family support leads to expatriate success (Shaffer et al. 2012; Tung, 1998; Lazarova et al. 2010). + Family Emotional support positively related to family-role adjustment (i.e. higher than for SIEs) (Shaffer et al., 2016). + Family Adjustment leads to expatriate adjustment (Black, 1988) + Spouse Adjustment leads to expatriate adjustment (Black & Stephens, 1989; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Lazarova et al., 2010). + Family adjustment expatriate adjustment (Caligiuri et al., 1998). + Partner Support (Waxin, 2004; Lazarova et al., 2010) - Number and age of children (Lazarova et al., 2010)

Pre-departure (labour market) knowledge		+ More research = lower level of underemployment (Pearson, et al., 2012) = higher satisfaction = higher levels of integration.		- Dual career couples (Lazarova et al., 2010). - Loss of partner (Lazarova et al., 2010). -/+ work / interaction (+/--) / General (+) adjustment: depending on individual (Chang, 1997). + CQ and work/general adjustment (Templer et al., 2006). + (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Career Orientation (see also motivation to migrate).		+ Embracing: More likely to overcome challenges on all levels (Zikic, et al., 2010). Embracing leads to more successful use of emotion-/problem-focused coping strategies. Both are highlighted in the text.		
Career / Symbolic Capital (e.g. gateways, additional education, relevant experience in respected country/industry, etc.)	+ Higher education is a predicator of lower stress and smoother acculturation (Berry, 1997).	+ Leads to adjustment (career progression) if the right "investment" is made (Winterheller & Hirt, 2017; Al Ariss, 2010, p.350). + Education e.g. (Berry, 1997). + Protean career attitude, CQ & career network size: on career success AND on Cultural adjustment, which in turn positively effects career success (Cao, Hirshi & Deller, 2012)	+ Positive aspect towards self-expatriation/career success, i.e. job/life satisfaction (W/L Balance) (Al Ariss & Cowley-Henry, 2013). - Past international experience does not necessarily make issues such as the temporary nature of an assignment less problematic (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). - Does not help overcome the feeling of being an outsider (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). + Recent experience for mono-cultural/ only general adjustment for third culture kids (Selmer & Lauring, 2014).	+ Can help immigrants find jobs (Thite et al., 2009), by acting as bridges between two location, they become expatriates. + Previous experience interaction & work adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). + Past experience - Work (Chang, 1997) + Past experience (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011). + Specific past experience: Interaction adjustment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012). + Previous international assignment and CQ (Templer et al., 2006)

			+ Past international experience and past experience with different cultures will allow SIEs to adapt more easily (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010)	+ International Experience (Waxin, 2004) interaction adjustment. + Number of previous assignments (Lazarova et al., 2010). + General and work adjustment / - to interaction adjustment (Hechanova et al., 2003). + (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Stress / Shocks	- (Weishaar, 2010) - Can lead to psychopathological disorders (Berry, 1997), i.e. life dissatisfaction.	- Can lead to psychopathological disorders (Berry, 1997), i.e. life dissatisfaction. +/- Can lead to motivation to adapt to host culture or stay largely separate (Zikic, et al., 2010).	+ Related to the repatriation of SIEs in form of Shocks, or major events leading to the impulsive behaviour to want to return to one's home country and can be positive or negative (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). - Can lead to psychopathological disorders (Berry, 1997), i.e. life dissatisfaction.	- Can lead to psychopathological disorders (Berry, 1997), i.e. life dissatisfaction. - Can have a negative impact on satisfaction and performance (Pires et al., 2006), which can lead to premature expatriation. - Excessive demands lead to adjustment difficulties (Lazarova et al., 2010). + Successful overcoming of stressors or demands, can lead to positive desired outcomes, e.g. organizational commitment or job satisfaction (Lazarova et al., 2010). - Family responsibility (Lazarova et al., 2010).
Time spent on international assignment/abroad	+ / - At different times of acculturation, different aspects are highlighted and thus there is no clear correlation between time and acculturation as suggested by the U-Curve (Berry, 1997).	+ / - At different times of acculturation, different aspects are highlighted and thus there is no clear correlation between time and acculturation as suggested by the U-Curve (Berry, 1997).	- Negatively related to repatriation (0.10) (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). + Small correlation to work performance, work effectiveness and job satisfaction (Selmer & Lauring, 2012).	+ The more time goes by, the more likely an individual is to feeling adjusted (Tung, 1998). + No relationship between work adjustment and time. However, positively related to non-work adjustment.

				- Increased time on (multiple) international assignment(s) decreases the strength of internal ties leading to lack of opportunities upon repatriation (Shaffer et al., 2012) + Time spent on assignment (Takeuchi, 2010; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). 0 No correlation with interaction adjustment (Waxin, 2004). + (Lazarova et al., 2010)
(Premature) Repatriation	n.a.	n.a.	- If career opportunities abroad are greater they therefore make people more likely to stay abroad (Push) (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). + Home country pull-aspects, such as family or lifestyle (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010) (Also see Toren, 1976).	- Cross-cultural adjustment may be an antecedent of expatriates' intention to stay on an international assignment (Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). + Can be caused by cultural maladjustment or job dissatisfaction (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).
Intension to repatriate			+ Related to repatriation through job search as well as directly (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).	
Job Search			+ Influences the actual repatriation (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).	
Lifestyle			+ Related to intension to repatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).	
Modes of engagement		+ Three of the four options (not the opt out option) can lead to successful integration/acculturation, as		

Age	+ The younger the individual, the "smoother" the acculturation process (Berry, 1997, p.21).	they are similar to coping strategies (Al Ariss, 2010). + The younger the individual, the "smoother" the acculturation process (Berry, 1997, p.21). + (Hajro, et al., 2017): lower age higher motivation to integrate, vice versa. + (Winterheller & Hirt, 2017): indicates less of acculturation issues for younger professionals.	+ The older the participant the higher the **job satisfaction** while on an international assignment (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011) + Younger = more motivated by adventure, money, career, and less risk adverse (Shaffer et al., 2012).	+ The older the participant the higher the **job satisfaction** while on an international assignment (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011) + The older the participants, the higher the higher the levels of cultural empathy (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012). + Work adjustment (Templer et al., 2006).
Gender	- Females are at greater risk of suffering due to gender issues if there is a difference in female roles within the society (Berry, 1997).	- Females are at greater risk of suffering due to gender issues if there is a difference in female roles within the society (Berry, 1997).	- Females are at greater risk of having to sacrifice career progression or suffer from underutilisation of skills, e.g. due to child caring responsibilities (Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010). (See also: Family situation). + Males are more motivated by money and opportunities to change their lives than are females (Shaffer et al., 2012). + Females are more likely to self-initiated their career than male counterparts (Shaffer et al., 2012). - Females suffer from selection bias in regards to promotion decisions (Shaffer et al., 2012).	- Linked to cultural distance/toughness, some cultures are male-dominated, thus making it more difficult for women to adapt to the respective culture (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Lazarova et al., 2010). + Men show higher emotional stability than women (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012). - Face more barriers in regards to work permit and visas leading to career constraints, e.g. lower career satisfaction, lower salaries, fewer promotions, (Shaffer et al., 2012; Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010). - Suffer from selection bias in regards to promotion decisions (Shaffer et al., 2012). + Male (Lazarova et al., 2010).

Status	- Migration often leads to reduction of one's status compared to the previous society, which can lead to stress/dissatisfaction etc. (Berry, 1997). (Also see discrimination)	- Migration often leads to reduction of one's status compared to the previous society, which can lead to stress/dissatisfaction etc. (Berry, 1997). (Also see discrimination) - Negative impact on career outcomes in Austria (i.e. speaks about "downplaying status", a.k.a. assimilation). + Can be positive if cultural specific skills are required (Winterheller & Hirt, 2017). + Under specific conditions can the status be valued (Winterheller & Hirt, 2017).	- Leads to reduced attempts to want to make long-term friends, i.e. temporary visa (Richardson & Zikic, 2007).	+ Marital Status (Lazarova et al., 2010). + More positive status -> Less discrimination (Cranston, 2017).
Self-efficacy				+ Interaction / work adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005) + (Potosky, 2016; Lazarova et al., 2010) + Family-role adjustment (Shaffer et al., 2016)
Relational skills				+ Adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005) C/W = moderating. + (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Spousal Adjustment			+ Adjustment (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016)	+ Moderate to strong to moderate for adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). + Adjustment (Bierwiaczonek & Walduz, 2016) + Work / Interaction / General (Chang, 1997)

			- Spouse maladjustment can spill-over and have a negative impact on expatriate adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005;).
Association with Host Nationals			+ Work / Interaction adjustment (+/0) (Chang, 1997)
Personal Agency	+ See motivation to migrate: desperate migration and motivation to integrate (Cerdin et al., 2014).	- Used to explain why people may not deliver the desired outcomes of work-performance / - Effectiveness and job satisfaction (Selmer & Lauring, 2012).	+ Intention to stay on assignment (expatriate assignment success) (Feldman & Thomas, 1992). - Lower = less likely that an individual is to want to immerse themselves in the host culture, i.e. integration (Pires et al., 2006).
Personality		+ Flexibility and open-mindedness as a means of dealing with transience among academic careers abroad (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). Not officially labelled as such.	+ Job Satisfaction: Cultural Empathy (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012) + Open mindedness and interaction adjustment. Emotional stability and cultural empathy, and general adjustment. Social initiative and work adjustment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012). + related to adjustment process (Pires et al., 2006) + Could have an influence on what type of coping strategy one uses (Potosky, 2016). + Entrepreneurial (Shaffer et al., 2012). + Adjustability (Waxin, 2004) - External locus of control (Lazarova et al., 2010) + Flexibility, openness, empathy, tolerance for

		ambiguity, emotional sensitivity, positive affectivity, extroversion, self-monitoring, optimism (see EF Coping), Emotional resilience, Career proactivity (Lazarova et al., 2010).
Technical Abilities		+ (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). + (Waxin, 2004)
Country of Origin / National Identity	+ Third-culture-kid adults: Leads to higher levels of general adjustment. 0 for work and interaction adjustment (Selmer & Lauring, 2014). + National identity is related to intention to repatriate (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).	+ / - Can have a positive impact on personality traits, e.g. Americans having higher levels of open-mindedness than Europeans, however no significant impact on results of adjustment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012. +/- Has an impact on various antecedents, including partner support, social orientation, willingness to communicate, openness, supervisory support & inter-cultural training (Waxin, 2004) + Direct significant impact on interaction adjustment (Waxin, 2004).
Work-Family Conflict		- has a negative impact on performance (vice-versa for Family-Work conflict) (Takeuchi, 2010)
Withdrawal Cognition		- Negatively related (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005).

Appendix 9: **Antecedents/Drivers/Outcomes of Acculturation: Meso-Level**

<div style="writing-mode: vertical-lr">Meso-Level (Organisational)</div>

Climate for Inclusion		+ (Hajro, et al., 2017) in general		
4. Foundation of Equitable Employment Practices	+ High performance HR practices are linked to (organizational performance), affective employee commitment (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE) (see also organisational commitment).	+ (Hajro, et al., 2017) (Not exclusive): Lack of leads to separation / Excess = integration. + Moderator to integration through mitigation of losses. Beneficial practices leads to increased motivation to integrate (Cerdin, et al., 2014, p. 163). + High performance HR practices are linked to (organizational performance), affective employee commitment (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE) (see also organisational commitment).	+ High performance HR practices are linked to (organizational performance), affective employee commitment (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE) (see also organisational commitment).	+ High performance HR practices are linked to (organizational performance), affective employee commitment (Kehoe & Wright, 2013) (DOMENSTIC LITERATURE) (see also organisational commitment). + Supportive organisational Culture (Lazarova et al., 2010).
5. Integration of differences		+ (Hajro, et al., 2017) - Lack of integration or in extreme cases discrimination leads to exclusion/separation (Al Ariss, 2010, p. 348).		
6. Inclusion in Decision making		+ (Hajro, et al., 2017)		
Diversity Climate				
Social Support	+ Moderator (Weishaar, 2010; Berry, 1997) + For Psychological adaptation (Berry, 1997). - Lack of Social support can lead to marginalisation (Berry, 1997). + Use of surrogates may aid adjustment process (Pires et al., 2006).	+ (Hajro, et al., 2017; Berry, 1997) - Lack of social support can lead to separation/marginalisation (Zikic, et al., 2010; Berry, 1997). + "Social Capital" (Winterheller & Hirt, 2017, p. 228) can aid career success.	+ Supervisor Support: Job Satisfaction (Aspect of inter-cultural adjustment) (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011; Peltocorpi & Froese, 2012) + Co-worker support (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010) + Interaction adjustment (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015; Howe-Walsch, and Schyns, 2010).	+ Co-worker support (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005) + Interaction adjustment (Shaffer, Harrison & Gilley, 1999; Waxin, 2004). + Supervisor Support: Job Satisfaction (Aspect of inter-cultural adjustment) (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011)

	+ For Psychological adaptation (Berry, 1997).	- Lack of social support makes it more difficult to obtain work satisfaction (i.e. major outcome variable) (Shaffer et al., 2012; Richardson & Zikic, 2007)	+ Perceived Social Support (Potosky, 2016) + Family emotional support and family role adjustment (Shaffer et al., 2016). + Supervisor Support (Waxin, 2004; Lazarova et al., 2010) + From HCNs (Lazarova et al., 2010; Feldman & Thomas, 1992) + From other expatriates (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Top Management Support Corporate Strategy			+ Has the potential to positively impact HR practices (Takeuchi, 2010). - / + Will have an impact on the HR strategies implemented (Takeuchi, 2010): e.g. Multi-domestic approach = lack of HR support structures in place. + Global orientation: more HR practices = higher likelihood of adjustment (Takeuchi, 2010). + Can facilitate expatriate success (Feldman & Thomas, 1992).
Organizational Support / Factors	+ (Zikic, et al., 2010) (TBC)	+ SIEs would benefit from on-going organisational support (Richardson & Zikic, 2007; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).	+ Logistical support (Cultural (moderating)/ Interaction) weak (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Shaffer, Harrison & Gilley, 1999; Lazarova et al., 2010). - Mediates hardships of cultural distance (Froese & peltokorpi, 2011). + Can ask organisations "to run interference" in regards to visas, etc.

| HR practices | + High commitment-based HR practices as a form of aligning individual and organisational interests (Collings & Smith, 2006; Kehoe & Wright, 2013). | Recruitment and selection processes can lead to:
- Over-qualification (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015)
- Discrimination (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015)
____
CCT:
+ (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015)
+ (Hajro, et al., 2017)
____
+ High commitment-based HR practices as a form of aligning individual and organisational interests (Collings & Smith, 2006; Kehoe & Wright, 2013). | Recruitment and selection processes can lead to:
- Over-qualification (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015)
- Discrimination (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015)
____
CCT:
+ (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010)
____
+ High commitment-based HR practices as a form of aligning individual and organisational interests (Collings & Smith, 2006; Kehoe & Wright, 2013), which is said to be related to work performance and effectiveness (Selmer & Lauring, 2012).
____
+ Possessing a mentor will have a positive impact on adjustment (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).
____ | + Adjustment leading to performance (Kraimer et al., 2001).
+ (Takeuchi, 2010)
+ Perceived Organisational Support (Lazarova et al., 2010).
+ Support spouse to get a job, schooling for children (Lazarova et al., 2010)
CCT:
+ Self-initiated and Company provided initiated training + for Americans (Chang, 1997): Lower failure rates.
+ General conventional training and adjustment. General experimental training and adjustment. Specific Conventional Cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment. Specific experimental cross-cultural training and adjustment (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011).
- More ineffective and costly (Pires et al., 2006).
+ Interaction adjustment (Waxin, 2004)
+ Facilitates adjustment: dependent on type of training (Waxin, 2005).
+ (Lazarova et al., 2010)
____
Mentoring:
+ Those individiuals who had a mentor were more likely to progress in their career (Shaffer et al., 2012; Takeuchi, 2010). |

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		___
	+ HR Support (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010)	
		+ Commitment based HR practices may lead to higher levels of adjustment and commitment to the organisation (Takeuchi, 2010; Kehoe & Wright, 2013).
		+ High commitment-based HR practices as a form of aligning individual and organisational interests (Collings & Smith, 2006; Kehoe & Wright, 2013), which is said to lead to assignment success (Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Shaffer et al., 2012).
Role Clarity	+ Cross-cultural adjustment: Work Adjustment (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015; Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010)	+ (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Lazarova et al., 2010).
Role Discretion		+ (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Lazarova et al., 2010). + Work / General (0/+) Adjustment (Chang, 1997)
Role Conflict		- Role Conflict: moderate - moderating (Work / Interaction) (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). - Work (Chang, 1997) - (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Role Ambiguity		- Work Adjustment (Chang, 1997) - Adjustment (Takeuchi, 2010; Lazarova et al., 2010) - Cause stressors (Takeuchi, 2010)
Supervisor Nationality	+ Having a foreign supervisor will lead to higher levels of	+ Having a foreign supervisor will lead to higher levels of

	job satisfaction (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011).	job satisfaction (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011).
Work Effectiveness	+ Positive work outcome (Selmer & Lauring, 2012).	
Financial Incentives (Financial rewards, compensation packages & fringe benfits)	0 Not related to the outcome variables of work-effectiveness/-performance and Job satisfaction (Selmer & Lauring, 2012), perhaps due to academic expatriate sample. + (Shaffer et al., 2012) Motivation to migrate/expatriate.	+ Business expatriates may be more affected by this outcome (Selmer & Lauring, 2012). + (Shaffer et al., 2012) motivation to migrate/expatriate. + (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Organisational Tenure		+ Work and interaction adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). + (Lazarova et al., 2010; Tung, 1998)
Competitive Advantage		+ The overall goal of successful expatriation, e.g. transfer of tacit knowledge (Takeuchi, 2010).
Role Overload		- (Lazarova et al., 2010)
International Mobility		- (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Regional Responsibility		- (Lazarova et al., 2010)
High work pressure		- (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Unfavourable Physical Environment		- (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Emotionally demanding interaction with clients		- (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Organisational Size		+ Larger organisational size (Lazarova et al., 2010).
Communication with head office		+ (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Leader Member Exchange (LMX)		+ (Lazarova et al., 2010)

Organisational Level	- The higher the level the less likely an individual is to benefit from problem focused coping and adjust to the non-work life and vice versa (Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005. + The lower the level the higher the benefits of using problem focused coping strategies (Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). - General and work adjustment + Interaction Adjustment (Hechanova et al., 2003). + (Lazarova et al., 2010)

Appendix 9b: **Antecedents/Drivers/Outcomes of Acculturation: Macro-Level**

Macro-Level (Societal)				
Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism	- Can hinder the Migrants gaining appropriate level of employment (Al Ariss, 2010)	- (Hajro, et al., 2017) - (Zikic, et al., 2010, p. 675) - (Winterheller & Hirt, 2017) reduced career chances due to immigration status. - (Al Ariss, 2010, p. 347).		- Leads to assignment failure and culture shock (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012). - Ethnocentric tendencies of expatriates (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Societal Attitudes e.g. Pluralism	+ (Berry, 1997)	+ (Berry, 1997)		
Cultural Distance / Novelty / "Toughness"	- Greater = more difficult to adapt and thus acculturate (Berry, 1997).	- Greater = more difficult to adapt and thus acculturate (Berry, 1997). - Larger the cultural distance the least likely an individual is to receive employment (Carr et al., 2005), therefore not able to integrate (job performance is part of migration success, which is an outcome of integration).	- Larger the cultural distance, the more resources are used, which one has less of in the host country, thus moderating the relationship between career capital and cultural adjustment, as well as between cultural adjustment and career success (Cao, Hirshi & Deller, 2012). - Can lead to acculturative stress (Cao, Hirshi & Deller, 2012). - Lower the cultural distance the more likely migrants are to move to a specific country (Carr et al., 2005). - Negative impact on expatriate job satisfaction, as increased distance leads to stress and anxiety (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011). - The more distant the host culture, the more difficult it is to become adjusted to the host culture and form social relationships (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). - Very large and small cultural distance can lead to greater	- More likely to "fraternize" with other expatriates if in "Asia or less developed countries" (Tung, 1998). - Not related to work-adjustment, however negatively related to non-work adjustment (Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). - Cultural-, interaction-, work- (moderating) adjustments (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). - Can negatively impact integration into local culture (Feldman & Thomas, 1992). - Negative impact on expatriate job satisfaction, as increased distance leads to stress and anxiety (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011). -/+ Inconsistent results (Haslberger, Brewster & Hippler, 2013). - Can lead to perceived isolation, usually only among expatriate partners (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985).

			adjustment issues: Non-linear curve suggested (Lauring & Selmer, 2009).	+ Low cultural distance reduces chances of culture shock, which facilitates adjustment process (Pires et al., 2006). - Spouse adjustment (Black & Stephens, 1989). - (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Political Factors/ Immigration policies / regulations	- Work permits lead to career constraints. e.g. migrants work at lower levels than their qualifications, which leads to dissatisfaction (Al Ariss, 2010) + Favourable immigration policies (Berry, 1997)	+ Acceptance of qualifications and work experience important for migratory success (Pearson, et al., 2012). - Structural barriers have a negative influence on the individuals' career outcome (Zikic, et al., 2010; Winterheller & Hirt, 2017), as they cannot fully use their career capital (Al Ariss, 2010). + Favourable immigration policies (Berry, 1997). + Can be a "push" factor (Carr et al., 2005). - Can lead to career constraints (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015) as it can lead to not accepting credentials, in turn leading to higher levels of over-qualification. + Family Stress (Carr et al., 2005). + Career blockage Carr et al., 2005). + Acute mental health problems Carr et al., 2005).	- Work permits lead to career constraints, as it can lead to over-qualification within the workplace (Al Ariss, 2010). - Can be counterproductive, if differences are not accepted (Al Ariss & Özbiligin, 2010).	- Work permits lead to career constraints (Al Ariss, 2010; Shaffer et al., 2012). (SEE Org. Support for mediation)

Economic Factors		+ Influences the Motivation to Migrate (Carr et al., 2005).	+ Influences the Motivation to Migrate (Carr et al., 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2012).
Discrimination, Prejudice & Stigmatisation	- In accessing jobs (Al Ariss, 2010) - (Berry, 1997). +/- Depending on the individual and the situation Moresanu & Fox (2013), explain the apprehension of host country value, cultural shedding of old cultures, marginalisation, as well as separation	- Can have a negative impact on motivation to integrate and integration capabilities (Carr et al., 2005, p.292). + Anxiety and depress -> lower self-esteem (Carr et al., 2005). - (Hajro, et al., 2017) - Qualifications (Zikic, et al., 2010; Al Ariss, 2010). - (Berry, 1997).	- Not understanding due to being a "Westerner" leading to becoming an out-group member (Richardson & Zikic, 2007). - Previous education / experiences not being recognised leading to underutilisation of skills (Shaffer et al., 2012).
Increased Standard of living/quality of life			+ (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Domestic Support (Drivers, Gardeners, etc).			+ (Lazarova et al., 2010)
Push / Pull (Internal/external)	- Both push (reactive) and pull (proactive) motivations to migrate can lead to reduced integration (Berry, 1997).	- Both push (reactive) and pull (proactive) motivations to migrate can lead to reduced integration (Berry, 1997).	+/- Depending on the specific factors, they can lead to success of expatriation or early return (Toren, 1976; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

Appendix 10: Hypotheses Tables for Model 1b – The predicted direct effects of individual characteristics, as well as meso- and macro-level factors on migration success variables.

H#	Description	Pred
$H_{1\text{-}a\text{-}i}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{1\text{-}a\text{-}ii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{1\text{-}a\text{-}iii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
$H_{1\text{-}a\text{-}iv}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{1\text{-}a\text{-}v}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{1\text{-}a\text{-}vi}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{1\text{-}a\text{-}vii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 2: Direct Effects of Cultural Intelligence on Migration Success Variable

H#	Description	Pred
$H_{2\text{-}a\text{-}i}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{2\text{-}a\text{-}ii}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{2\text{-}a\text{-}iii}$	ELP$\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
$H_{2\text{-}a\text{-}iv}$	ELP$\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{2\text{-}a\text{-}v}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{2\text{-}a\text{-}vi}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{2\text{-}a\text{-}vii}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 3: Direct Effects of English Language Proficiency on Migration Success Variables

H#	Description	Pred
$H_{3\text{-}a\text{-}i}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{3\text{-}a\text{-}ii}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{3\text{-}a\text{-}iii}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
$H_{3\text{-}a\text{-}iv}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{3\text{-}a\text{-}v}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{3\text{-}a\text{-}vi}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{3\text{-}a\text{-}vii}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 4: Direct Effects of Past International Experience on Migration Success Variables

H#	Description	Pred
$H_{4\text{-}a\text{-}i}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{4\text{-}a\text{-}ii}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{4\text{-}a\text{-}iii}$	Ag$\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
$H_{4\text{-}a\text{-}iv}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{4\text{-}a\text{-}v}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{4\text{-}a\text{-}vi}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{4\text{-}a\text{-}vii}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 5: Direct Effects of Age on Migration Success Variables

H#	Description	Pred
$H_{5\text{-}a\text{-}i}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{5\text{-}a\text{-}ii}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{5\text{-}a\text{-}iii}$	HCT$\Rightarrow$OrCom	+
$H_{5\text{-}a\text{-}iv}$	HCT$\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{5\text{-}a\text{-}v}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{5\text{-}a\text{-}vi}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{5\text{-}a\text{-}vii}$	HCT$\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 6: Direct Effects of Host Country Tenure on Migration Success Variables

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{6-a-i}$	CI$\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{6-a-ii}$	CI $\Rightarrow$OBSE	+
H$_{6-a-iii}$	CI $\Rightarrow$OrCom	+
H$_{6-a-iv}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{6-a-v}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{6-a-vi}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{6-a-vii}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 7: Direct Effects of Climate for Inclusion on Migration Success Variables

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{7-a-i}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{7-a-ii}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{7-a-iii}$	SS$\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
H$_{7-a-iv}$	SS$\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{7-a-v}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{7-a-vi}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{7-a-vii}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 8: Direct Effects of Social Support on Migration Success Variables

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{8-a-i}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-
H$_{8-a-ii}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-
H$_{8-a-iii}$	HCE$\Rightarrow$OrCom	-
H$_{8-a-iv}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ CaEm	-
H$_{8-a-v}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-
H$_{8-a-vi}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-
H$_{8-a-vii}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$OverQ	+

Table 9: Direct Effects of Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism on Migration Success Variables

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{9-a-i}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-
H$_{9-a-ii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-
H$_{9-a-iii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$OrCom	-
H$_{9-a-iv}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	-
H$_{9-a-v}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-
H$_{9-a-vi}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-
H$_{9-a-vii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	+

Table 10: Direct Effects of Institutional Distance (measures by difference in the UN Development Index) on Migration Success Variables

Appendix 11: Hypotheses Tables for Model 1b – The predicted direct and indirect effects of individual characteristics, as well as meso- and macro-level factors on migration success variables, when acculturation was included as mediating variable.

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{1-b1-i}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{1-b1-ii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{1-b1-iii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
H$_{1-b1-iv}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{1-b1-v}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{1-b1-vi}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{1-b1-vii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 11: Direct Effects of Cultural Intelligence on Migration Success Variable (when mediating variables home and host identity were included)

$H_\#$	Description	Pred
$H_{2\text{-}b1\text{-}i}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{2\text{-}b1\text{-}ii}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{2\text{-}b1\text{-}iii}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
$H_{2\text{-}b1\text{-}iv}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{2\text{-}b1\text{-}v}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{2\text{-}b1\text{-}vi}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{2\text{-}b1\text{-}vii}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 12: Direct Effects of English Language Proficiency on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included)

$H_\#$	Description	Pred
$H_{3\text{-}b1\text{-}i}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{3\text{-}b1\text{-}ii}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{3\text{-}b1\text{-}iii}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
$H_{3\text{-}b1\text{-}iv}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{3\text{-}b1\text{-}v}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{3\text{-}b1\text{-}vi}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{3\text{-}b1\text{-}vii}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 13: Direct Effects of Past International Experience on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included)

$H_\#$	Description	Pred
$H_{4\text{-}b1\text{-}i}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{4\text{-}b1\text{-}ii}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{4\text{-}b1\text{-}iii}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
$H_{4\text{-}b1\text{-}iv}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{4\text{-}b1\text{-}v}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{4\text{-}b1\text{-}vi}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{4\text{-}b1\text{-}vii}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 14: Direct Effects of Age on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included)

$H_\#$	Description	Pred
$H_{5b1\text{-}i}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{5b1\text{-}ii}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{5b1\text{-}iii}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
$H_{5b1\text{-}iv}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{5b1\text{-}v}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{5b1\text{-}vi}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{5b1\text{-}vii}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 15: Direct Effects of Host Country Tenure on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included)

$H_\#$	Description	Pred
$H_{6\text{-}b1\text{-}i}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
$H_{6\text{-}b1\text{-}ii}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
$H_{6\text{-}b1\text{-}iii}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
$H_{6\text{-}b1\text{-}iv}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
$H_{6\text{-}b1\text{-}v}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
$H_{6\text{-}b1\text{-}vi}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
$H_{6\text{-}b1\text{-}vii}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 16: Direct Effects of Climate for Inclusion on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included).

H#	Description	Pred
H7-b1-i	SS⇒ J-Sat	+
H7-b1-ii	SS⇒ OBSE	+
H7-b1-iii	SS⇒OrCom	+
H7-b1-iv	SS⇒ CarEm	+
H7-b1-v	SS⇒ L-Sat	+
H7-b1-vi	SS⇒ CoEm	+
H7-b1-vii	SS⇒ OverQ	-

Table 17: Direct Effects of Social Support on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included).

H#	Description	Pred
H8-b1-i	HCE⇒ J-Sat	-
H8-b1-ii	HCE⇒ OBSE	-
H8-b1-iii	HCE⇒OrCom	-
H8-b1-iv	HCE⇒ CaEm	-
H8-b1-v	HCE⇒ L-Sat	-
H8-b1-vi	HCE⇒ CoEm	-
H8-b1-vii	HCE⇒OverQ	+

Table 18: Direct Effects of Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included).

H#	Description	Pred
H9-b1-i	InD ⇒ J-Sat	-
H9-b1-ii	InD ⇒ OBSE	-
H9-b1-iii	InD ⇒OrCom	-
H9-b1-iv	InD ⇒ CarEm	-
H9-b1-v	InD ⇒ L-Sat	-
H9-b1-vi	InD ⇒ CoEm	-
H9-b1-vii	InD ⇒ OverQ	+

Table 19: Direct Effects of Institutional Distance (measures by difference in the UN Development Index) on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variables home and host identity were included).

H#	Description	Pred
H1b2	CQ ⇒ HmID	-
H2b2	ELP⇒ HmID	-
H3b2	PIE ⇒ HmID	-
H4b2	Age ⇒ HmID	+
H5b2	HCT ⇒ HmID	-
H6b2	CI⇒HmID	-
H7b2	SS⇒HmID	-
H8b2	HCE ⇒ HmID	+
H9b2	InD ⇒ HmID	+

Table 20: Effects of independent variables on Home Identity (when mediator variables home and host identity were included).

H#	Description	Pred
H1b3	CQ ⇒ HsID	+
H2b3	ELP⇒ HsID	+
H3b3	PIE ⇒ HsID	+
H4b3	Age ⇒ HsID	-
H5b3	HCT ⇒ HsID	+
H6b3	CI⇒HsID	+
H7b3	SS⇒ HsID	+
H8b3	HCE ⇒ HsID	-
H9b3	InD ⇒ HsID	-

Table 21: Effects of independent variables on Host Identity (when mediator variables home and host identity were included).

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{1b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-
H$_{2b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$OBSE	-
H$_{3b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$OrCo	-
H$_{4b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$CaEm	-
H$_{5b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-
H$_{6b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$CoEm	-
H$_{7b4}$	HmID$\Rightarrow$OvrQ	+

Table 22: The effects of Home Identity (mediating variable) on dependent variables.

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{1b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{2b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{3b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ OrCo	+
H$_{4b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ CaEm	+
H$_{5b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{6b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{7b5}$	HsID$\Rightarrow$OverQ	-

Table XCX: The effects of Host Identity (mediating variable) on dependent variables.

Appendix 12: Hypotheses Tables for Model 1c – The predicted direct and indirect effects of individual characteristics, as well as meso- and macro-level factors on migration success variables, when adjustment was included as mediating variable.

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{1-c1-i}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{1-c1-ii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{1-c1-iii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
H$_{1-c1-iv}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{1-c1-v}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{1-c1-vi}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{1-c1-vii}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 23: Direct Effects of Cultural Intelligence on Migration Success Variable (when mediator variable adjustment was included)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{2-c1-i}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{2-c1-ii}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{2-c1-iii}$	ELP$\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
H$_{2-c1-iv}$	ELP$\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{2-c1-v}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{2-c1-vi}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{2-c1-vii}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 24: Direct Effects of English Language Proficiency on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variable adjustment was included)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{3-c1-i}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{3-c1-ii}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{3-c1-iii}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
H$_{3-c1-iv}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{3-c1-v}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{3-c1-vi}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{3-c1-vii}$	PIE$\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 25: Direct Effects of Past International Experience on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variable adjustment was included)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{4\text{-c1-i}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{4\text{-c1-ii}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{4\text{-c1-iii}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
H$_{4\text{-c1-iv}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{4\text{-c1-v}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{4\text{-c1-vi}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{4\text{-c1-vii}}$	Ag $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 26: Direct Effects of Age on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variable adjustment was included)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{5c1\text{-i}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{5c1\text{-ii}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{5c1\text{-iii}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
H$_{5c1\text{-iv}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{5c1\text{-v}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{5c1\text{-vi}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{5c1\text{-vii}}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 27: Direct Effects of Host Country Tenure on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variable adjustment was included)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{6\text{-c1-i}}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{6\text{-c1-ii}}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{6\text{-c1-iii}}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
H$_{6\text{-c1-iv}}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{6\text{-c1-v}}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{6\text{-c1-vi}}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{6\text{-c1-vii}}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 28: Direct Effects of Climate for Inclusion on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variable adjustment was included)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{7\text{-c1-i}}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{7\text{-c1-ii}}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{7\text{-c1-iii}}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	+
H$_{7\text{-c1-iv}}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	+
H$_{7\text{-c1-v}}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{7\text{-c1-vi}}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{7\text{-c1-vii}}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 29: Direct Effects of Social Support on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variable adjustment was included)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{8\text{-c1-i}}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-
H$_{8\text{-c1-ii}}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-
H$_{8\text{-c1-iii}}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	-
H$_{8\text{-c1-iv}}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ CaEm	-
H$_{8\text{-c1-v}}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-
H$_{8\text{-c1-vi}}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-
H$_{8\text{-c1-vii}}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	+

Table 30: Direct Effects of Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variable adjustment was included)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{9\text{-}c1\text{-}i}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	-
H$_{9\text{-}c1\text{-}ii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	-
H$_{9\text{-}c1\text{-}iii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OrCom	-
H$_{9\text{-}c1\text{-}iv}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ CarEm	-
H$_{9\text{-}c1\text{-}v}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	-
H$_{9\text{-}c1\text{-}vi}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	-
H$_{9\text{-}c1\text{-}vii}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	+

Table 31: Direct Effects of Institutional Distance (measures by difference in the UN Development Index) on Migration Success Variables (when mediator variable adjustment was included)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{1c2}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	+
H$_{2c2}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	+
H$_{3c2}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	+
H$_{4c2}$	Age $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	-
H$_{5c2}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	+
H$_{6c2}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	+
H$_{7c2}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	+
H$_{8c2}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	-
H$_{9c2}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ WAdj	-

Table 32: Effects of independent variables on Work Adjustment (mediating variables)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{1c3}$	CQ $\Rightarrow$ FAdj	+
H$_{2c3}$	ELP $\Rightarrow$ FAdj	+
H$_{3c3}$	PIE $\Rightarrow$ FAdj	+
H$_{4c3}$	Age $\Rightarrow$ FAdj	-
H$_{5c3}$	HCT $\Rightarrow$ FAdj	+
H$_{6c3}$	CI $\Rightarrow$ FAdj	+
H$_{7c3}$	SS $\Rightarrow$ FAdj	+
H$_{8c3}$	HCE $\Rightarrow$ FAdj	-
H$_{9c3}$	InD $\Rightarrow$ FAdj	-

Table 33: Effects of independent variables on Family Adjustment (mediating variables)

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{1c4}$	AdjW $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{2c4}$	AdjW $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{3c4}$	AdjW $\Rightarrow$ OrCo	+
H$_{4c4}$	AdjW $\Rightarrow$ CaEm	+
H$_{5c4}$	AdjW $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{6c4}$	AdjW $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{7c4}$	AdjW $\Rightarrow$ OvrQ	-

Table 34: The effects of Home Identity (mediating variable) on dependent variables.

H#	Description	Pred
H$_{1c5}$	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ J-Sat	+
H$_{2c5}$	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ OBSE	+
H$_{3c5}$	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ OrCo	+
H$_{4c5}$	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ CaEm	+
H$_{5c5}$	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ L-Sat	+
H$_{6c5}$	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ CoEm	+
H$_{7c5}$	AdjF $\Rightarrow$ OverQ	-

Table 35: The effects of Host Identity (mediating variable) on dependent variables.

Appendix 13: Entire Scale Set – Questionnaire Composition Overview

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I. Country Characteristics

PHCE: Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism	
Source: Self-Developed	Instructions: Below are some statements related to Country X. To what extent do you agree with the following statements? Please choose the appropriate answer for each item.
Response Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.	
1. Perceived Host Ethnocentrism a. The culture in COUNTRY X is very rigid. b. Local nationals always believe that their way is the right way. c. Organisations in Country X prefer to employ local nationals whenever possible. d. Local nationals show a great level of prejudice against immigrants. e. Local nationals believe themselves to be superior towards other cultures/nationalities.	
Alpha Cronbach: Cronbach's Alpha 0.845	Standardised Alpha 0.849	

II. Organisational Characteristics

CI: Climate for Inclusion	
Source: Nishii, L., H. (2013). The Benefits of Climate for Inclusion for Gender-Diverse Groups. *Academy of Management Journal, 56, 6*, 1754-1774. Short 15 item version	Instructions: Below are different statements about your organisation. Please indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements. Please choose the appropriate answer for each statement.

Response Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very Little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very Much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know

1. **Dimension 1: Foundation of equitable employment practices:**

   a. My organisation has a fair promotion process.

   b. The performance review process is fair in my organisation.

   c. My organisation invests in the development of all its employees.

   d. Employees in my organisation receive "equal pay for equal work".

   e. My organisation provides safe ways for employees to voice their opinions.

2. **Dimension 3: Inclusion in decision making**

   a. In my organisation employee input is actively sought.

   b. In my organisation everyone's ideas for how to do things better are given serious consideration.

   c. In my organisation, employees' insights are used to rethink or redefine work practices.

   d. Top management exercises the belief that problem solving is improved when input from different roles, ranks, and functions is considered.

Cronbach Alpha - Fairness of Employment Practices = 0.93; Inclusion in Decision Making = 0.97. Original questionnaire = 31 items. We removed dimension 2: integration of differences. The instructions were devised by us as these were not indicated in the study itself. The scales were adapted in order to maintain consistent scale rating. Dimension 1, item e: We changed "grievances" to "opinions".

DC: Diversity Climate	
Source: EUDiM Questionnaire This is a proprietary scale, please do not use without permission	Instructions: Below are some statements on cultural diversity in your organisation. To what extent do you agree with the following statements? Please choose the appropriate answer for each statement.

Response scale: 1= Not at all; 2=Very little; 3=Somewhat; 4=Very much; 5=Extremely; 99=Don't know
1. Cultural Diversity Climate a. Our organisation values cultural differences in its workforce. b. Our organisation strives to have a very diverse workforce. c. Our organisation makes sure that the opinions and input of employees from different cultural backgrounds are heard. d. Our organisation maintains a diversity-friendly work environment. e. Our organisation makes it clear that cultural differences must be respected.
The EUDiM questionnaire items were used 1 to 1. They were made up from two sources: Herdmann & McMillan-Capehart (2009) (first three) & McKay, Avery & Morris (2008) (Last two). Alpha Cronbach's for the former = 0.76 and the latter (d) is 0.80. The instructions were slightly changed: instead of the final word being "item" we chose "statement".

SS: Social Support	
Source: EUDiM Questionnaire (Frese, 1999), adopted from House (n.d.) and Caplan, Cobb, French, van Harrison, and Pinneau (1975). This is a proprietary scale, please do not use without permission	Instructions: Below are different statements about your social environment. To what extent do you agree with these statements. Please choose the appropriate answer for each group of people.

Response Scale: 1= Not at all; 2=Very little; 3=Somewhat; 4=Very much; 5=Extremely; 99=Don't know
1. Co-Workers

a. I can rely on the following people when things get tough at work. - Co-workers

b. I can rely on the following people when things get tough in my personal life. - Co-workers

c. The following people care about my work-related problems. - Co-workers

d. The following people care about my personal problems. - Co-workers

2. **Family**

a. I can rely on the following people when things get tough at work. – Family/Spouse/Partner

b. I can rely on the following people when things get tough in my personal life. - Family/Spouse/Partner

c. The following people care about my work-related problems. - Family/Spouse/Partner

d. The following people care about my personal problems. - Family/Spouse/Partner

3. **Friends**

a. I can rely on the following people when things get tough at work. - Friends

b. I can rely on the following people when things get tough in my personal life. - Friends

c. The following people care about my work-related problems. - Friends

d. The following people care about my personal problems. - Friends

4. **Supervisor**

a. I can rely on the following people when things get tough at work. - Supervisor

b. I can rely on the following people when things get tough in my personal life. - Supervisor

c. The following people care about my work-related problems. - Supervisor

d. The following people care about my personal problems. - Supervisor

Adopted from EUDiM, which was already one items shorter than the original scale: "how easy is it to talk to each of the following people?". The EUDiM study also focused on slightly different groups of people as one can see above. We slightly changed the wording of the instructions to include "work and social environment" rather than simply "social environment". Cronbach Alphas in the orginal scale were: Co-Workers = .86; Other (included relatives and friends in Frese (1999) = .89; Wife (Family) = .87; Supervisor = .86. Finally, we made slight changes to balance out the responses between the two life domains (i.e. work and personal). We now have two main statements which pertain to each respective domain. We added "Spouse/Partner" to the family option, to make it more inclusive. The order in the questionnaire is "Co-worker", "Supervisor", "Family/Spouse/Partner", and "Friends".

III. Individual Characteristics

CQ: Cultural Intelligence	
Source: Thomas, D. C., Liao, Y., Aycan, Z., Cerdlin, J.-L., Ravlin, E. C., Stahl, G. K., et al. (2015). Cultural Intelligence: A Theory-Based, short form measure. *Journal of International Business Studies , 46*, 1099-1118.	Instructions: Below are 10 statements about your experience when interacting with people from other cultures. Please indicate to what extent each of the following statements describes you. Please choose the appropriate answer for each statement.
Response Scale: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little, 3 = Somewhat, 4 = Very much, 5 = Extremely	

1. Knowledge Items:
a. I know the ways in which cultures around the world are different.
b. I can give examples of cultural differences from my personal experience, reading, and so on.
2. Skills Items:
a. I enjoy talking with people from different cultures.
b. I have the ability to accurately understand the feelings of people from other cultures.
c. I sometimes try to understand people from another culture by imagining how something looks from their perspective.
d. I can change my behaviour to suit different cultural situations and people.
e. I accept delays without becoming upset when in different cultural situations and with culturally different people.
3. Metacognition Items: a. I am aware of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with someone from another culture.
b. I think a lot about the influence that culture has on my behaviour and that of others who are culturally different.
c. I am aware that I need to plan my course of action when in different cultural situations and with culturally different people.
Cronbach Alpha: Total = 0.88; Average = 0.85   We slightly adapted the scales to be consistent with the rest of our questionnaire – "A little" was changed to "Very Little" – "A lot" was changed to "Very Much".   We also added "please choose the appropriate answer for each statement" for consistency reasons.
L: Language Skills

Source: Sebastian Reiche	Instructions: Next, here are a few questions regarding your language skills: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

| Response Scale: Questions 1-3: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little, 3 = Somewhat, 4 = Very much, 5 = Extremely - Question 4: Fill in question. ||

4. Language Skills

   a. In general, I feel confident using Language X.

   b. I feel confident writing in Language X.

   c. I feel confident speaking in Language X.

   d. I feel confident reading and understanding Language X.

   e. I feel confident listening to Language X.

We slightly changed the first item, putting the "in general" in front of the sentence rather than after.
We slightly changed the instructions to go with scale changes, which we made for consistency (see below).
We also slightly changed the rating scale to be more consistent with the rest of the questionnaire – "A little", "A lot", and "Extremely well" were changed to "Very little", "Very much", and "Extremely" respectively.

IV. Outcomes

A: Adjustment	
Source: Schaffer, M. A., Reiche B. Sebastian, Dimitrova, M., Lazarova, M., Chen, S., Westman, M. & Wurtz, O. (2016). Work- and family-role adjustment of different types of global professionals: Scale development and validation. *Journal of International Business Studies, 47, 2*, 113-139.	Instructions: **Work:** Below are some statements on you and your work life in Country X. To what extent do you agree with these statements? Please indicate the extent to which you feel comfortable with each aspect of your employment since moving to Country X. Please choose the appropriate answer for each aspect. **Family:** Below are some statements on and your family life in Country X. To what extent do you agree with these statements?

	Please indicate the extent to which you feel comfortable with each aspect of your family life since moving to Country X. By "family" we mean the immediate family or partner (whether they accompany you in Country X or not). If you have no immediate family or partner, please tick "non-applicable". Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> aspect.

Response Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Not Applicable (Family adjustment only).

1. **Work Role Task Adjustment** – Cronbach Alpha = 0.81 (p.117)

   a. I feel comfortable with my specific job responsibilities.

   b. I feel comfortable with my activities or tasks at work.

   c. I feel comfortable with my workload.

2. **Work Role Relationship Adjustment** – Cronbach Alpha = 0.84 (p.117)

   a. I feel comfortable with the communications among my colleagues (e.g., co-workers, direct reports).

   b. I feel comfortable with the collegiality among colleagues.

   c. I feel comfortable with the teamwork among my colleagues.

3. **Family Role Task Adjustment** – Cronbach Alpha = 0.88 (p.117)

   a. I feel comfortable with the amount of time I spend with family members.

   b. I feel comfortable with the quality of time I spend with family members.

   c. I feel comfortable with my participation in family activities and tasks.

4. **Family Role Relationship Adjustment** – Cronbach Alpha = 0.87 (p.117)

   a. I feel comfortable with my relationship with my partner/family.

b. I feel comfortable with how we make decisions as a family.
c. I feel comfortable with how my family members resolve conflict.

The only items we did not include were those that were deleted after the scale purification in the original study: 4 items.
Slightly altered instructions: The introduction was added "Below are some statements on you and your life…" – We added "…since moving to country X" – We added "Please choose the appropriate answer for each aspect" for consistency reasons.
"Not applicable" response option was added to family adjustment scales.
We added "I feel comfortable with…" to the beginning of all items, to make it easier for candidates to respond.
Response scale was adapted to the rest of the questionnaire.
Internal consistencies:
Family role adjustment (4.a.) changed was slightly changed.

AO: Acculturation Outcomes - Identity Configuration

Adopted from source – Shokef, E., & Erez, M. 2006. Global work culture and global identity, as a platform for a shared understanding in multicultural teams. In E. Salas (Ed.). *Research on Managing Groups and Teams*, 9: 325-352.	Instructions: Next, here are a few questions regarding your relationship with your country of origin/country of residence/ the global community. Please read each of the following statements and indicate the extent to which each statement best describes you as you really are.

Response Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely; 99 = Don't know.

1. **Home Identity** – Cronbach Alpha: 0.87

   a. I see myself as part of my country of origin.

   b. I feel a strong attachment towards my country of origin.

   c. (I define myself based on my country of origin.)

   d. I relate to people from my country of origin with great ease.

e. (I feel a strong attachment towards people from my country of origin.)

2. **Host Identity** – Cronbach Alpha: 0.86

   a. I see myself as part of Country X.

   b. I feel a strong attachment towards Country X.

   c. (I define myself based on Country X.)

   d. I relate to people from Country X with ease.

   e. (I feel a strong attachment towards people from Country X.)

3. **Global Identity** – Cronbach Alpha: 0.86

   a. I see myself as part of the global international community.

   b. (I feel a strong attachment towards the world environment I belong to.)

   c. (I would define myself as a citizen of the global world.)

   d. I relate to people from different parts of the world with ease.

   e. I feel a strong attachment towards people from all around the world.

Wording slightly changed. No longer society and we have consistently used the wording "current country of residence"
The items remained grouped at home, host, and global items and were distributed throughout the questionnaire in order to reduce order effect issues.
6.d. was slightly changed. We removed: "as if they were close acquaintances or associates."
5.d. was slightly changed. We removed "as if they were close acquaintances or associates."

3.d. was slightly changed. We shortened It to make it similar to the other two scales.

LOQ: Level of Over-qualification

Source: EUDiM This is a proprietary scale, please do not use without permission	**Instructions:** Below are some statements about you and your job. To what extent do you agree with these statements? Please choose the appropriate answer for each statement.

Response scale: 1= Not at all; 2=Very little; 3=Somewhat; 4=Very much; 5=Extremely; 99 = Don't know.

1. Overqualified

    a. I have competencies/skills that I feel I cannot use in my current position.

    b. I feel overqualified for my current position.

    c. My current position reflects the level of my qualifications (reverse).

Item 3 was developed by us.
We did not include response option 99 = Don't know. Cronbach Alpha: 0.720 | Standardised Alpha: 0.722

MEx: Met Expectations

Source: EUDiM based on: Cerdin, J.-L., Dine, M., A., & Brewster, C. (2014). Qualified immigrants' success: Exploring the motivation to migrate and to integrate. *Journal of International Business*. 45, 151-168. This is a proprietary scale, please do not use without permission	Instructions: Below are some statements about your expectations in life, as well as at work. To what extent do you agree with these statements? Please choose the appropriate answer for each item.

Response scale: 1= Not at all; 2=Very little; 3=Somewhat; 4=Very much; 5=Extremely; 99=Don't know

1. Met Expectations - Work

    a. What I found in my current organisation in Country X surpassed my expectations.

    b. I have been surprised with how good working-life is in Country X.

    c. I find the reality of working in Country X disappointing.

2. Met Expectations - Life

a. What I found in my personal life in ==Country X== has surpassed my expectations.

b. I have been surprised by how good the quality of life is in ==Country X==.

c. I find the reality of living in ==Country X== disappointing.

Adopted from the EUDiM, however we duplicated the items and re-wrote them so that we covered the two life domains: private life and working life.
Cronbach Alpha for original: 0.71.
10.b. We added "…the quality of life…"
Small changed were made to make more grammatical sense, e.g. surprised "by" rather than "with" 2.b..

JLS: Job and Life Satisfaction

Source: EUDiM	Instructions:
This is a proprietary scale, please do not use without permission. Job Satisfaction: McKay et al., 2007 from Brayfield & Rothe, 1951 – Short form used as in the EUDiM study. Life Satisfaction: Diener et al., 1985	**Job Satisfaction:** Below are some (additional) statements on you and your job. To what extent do you agree with these statements? **Life Satisfaction:** Below are some statement on you and your personal life. (Both) Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

Response scale: 1= Not at all; 2=Very little; 3=Somewhat; 4=Very much; 5=Extremely; 99=Don't know

1. Job Satisfaction

a. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.

b. I feel satisfied with my present job.

c. Each day at work seems like it will never end. (reverse)

d. I find real enjoyment in my work.

e. I consider my job rather unpleasant. (reverse)

2. Life Satisfaction

a. In most ways my life ideal.

b. The conditions of my life are excellent.

c. I am satisfied with my life.

d. So far I have attained the important things I want in life.

e. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Alpha Cronbach: Life Satisfaction = 0.87; Job Satisfaciton = Brayfield & Rothe (1951) - Spearman-Brown Formula - 0.87.
Slight changes to the instructions: "your life and job" to "you and your job". Slight changes to 12.d. "gotten" was replaced by "attained".
"Please choose the appropriate answer for each item" was changed to "Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement."
The order of the items for job satisfaction were changed to consider order bias.

OBSE: Organisational-Based Self-Esteem	
Source: Pierce, J. L., Gardner, D. G., Cummings, L. L. & Dunham, R. B. (1989). Organization-based self-esteem: construct definition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal,* 32, 3, 622-648	Instructions: Below are several statements that pertain to how you perceive your role in your current organisation. Please, indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements.

Response scale: 1= Not at all; 2=Very little; 3=Somewhat; 4=Very much; 5=Extremely

1. Organisational-Based Self-Esteem

a. My opinion counts in my organisation.

b. I am taken seriously in my organisation.

c. (I am important in my organisation.)

d. I am trusted in my organisation.
e. My organisation has faith in me.
Reduced the scale from 10 to 5 items and we changed the wording from "around here" to "in my organisation". Alpha Cronbach = 0.86 Slightly changed A from "I count in my organisation" to "My Opinion counts in my organisation. E. was changed to "my organisation has faith in me" from "there is faith in me in my organisation".

OCt: Organisational Commitment	
Source: Kehoe, R. R., Wright, P. (2010). The Impact of High Performance HR Practices on Employees' Attitudes and Behaviours. *Journal of Management*, 39 (2), 366-391	Instructions: Below are several statements highlighting the relationship between you and the organisation you work for. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

Response scale: 1= Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely.

1. **Organisational Commitment**
   a. I am willing to work hard to help my organisation succeed.

   b. I am proud to work for my organisation.

   c. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.

   d. I would refer a friend to come and work for my organisation.

   e. Overall, I am satisfied working for my organisation.

Alpha Cronbach score = 0.89
Changed the wording slightly to consistently say "my organisation" rather than "my company" or entering the name of the organisation. The introduction/instructions was/were changed slightly for consistency reasons. Slightly changed 14.d. "…to come *AND* work *FOR*…" The response scale was slightly changed in order to be more consistent with the rest of the questionnaire. 1.a. was slightly changed to "work hard" from "work harder". 1.e. was slightly changed from "working at" to "working for my organisation".

HCE: Host-Country Embeddedness	
Source: Tharenau, P. & Cauldfield, N. (2010). Will I stay or will I go? Explaining repatriation by self-initiated expatriates. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 53, 5, 1009-1028.	Instructions: Below are some statements on the losses and sacrifices you would have to make if you moved back the country from which you migrated to Country X. Please choose the appropriate answer for

	each item. If you would have to leave Country X, to what extent would the following be losses or sacrifices to you?
Response Scale: 1 = Not at all; 2 = Very little; 3 = Somewhat; 4 = Very much; 5 = Extremely	

1. Host Country Career Embeddedness

a. If you would have to leave Country X, to what extent would the following be losses or sacrifices for you?
   i. The career and development opportunities I have in Country X.
   ii. The money I earn or can earn in Country X.
   iii. The professional opportunities I have in Country X.

2. Host Country Community Embeddedness

a. If you would have to leave Country X, to what extent would the following be losses or sacrifices for you?
   i. The range of social activities and events I have in Country X.
   ii. The friends and social ties I have in Country X.
   iii. The lifestyle of country X.

3 out of 10 items from the original scale.
Slightly changed the instructions. Slightly changed item 15.a.iii, "business" was replaced by "professional". 16.a.iii. "currently" was added. Instruction "a" used to be "To what extent would these be sacrifices or losses for you if you moved home from abroad?"
The items have been slightly changed from "here/abroad" to "(in) Country X". This applies to the first five items. Replaced most positive response with "extremely". Slightly changed the instructions (23.04.2018) to "…country from which you migrated to Country X
Instructions were further changed to make them more simple. From "moving back to country of origin" became, "If you would have to leave Country X". This shortened wordcount.
2.iii. was changed: We removed "…I currently live in". This was pretty obvious and thus redundant.

CS: Career Success

Source: Greenhaus, J. H., Parasuraman, S. & Wormley, W. M. (1990). Effects of Race on Organizational Experiences, Job Performance Evaluations, and Career Outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33, 1, 64-86.	Instruction: Below are several statements about you and your job. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.
5-point scale: 1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree to some extent; 3 = Uncertain; 4 = Disagree to some extent; 5 = Strongly disagree.	

1. Career Satisfaction

a. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career since migrating to Country X.

b. (I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards my overall career goals since joining my current organisation in Country X.)

c. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for income since moving to Country X.

d. (I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement since joining my current organisation in Country X.)

e. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards achieving my goals for the development of new skills since migrating to Country X.

Cronbach Alpha = 0.88. The items were slightly adopted to consistently state "in country X", as well as "since joining my current organisation".
The instructions have been changed slightly to make it less obvious what we are measuring and to increase consistency.
17.a. "joining my current organisation in" was taken out and "migrating to" added.
17.c. "joining my current organisation in" was taken out and "since moving to" added.
17.e. "meeting" was taken out and "achieving" added. In addition, we changed the way the item was phrased to focus on the general career rather than the career in a specific organisation.
17.b and d were taken out for the main questionnaire.

VI. Demographics

Source: Self-Developed / EUDiM Questionnaire This is a proprietary scale, please do not use without permission	Instructions: The following questions have been devised to capture demographics variables, which may prove to influence results of later questions. They are for statistical purposes only. Your answers will be treated absolutely confidentially and none of this information will be attributed to you personally.

IDm: Individual Demographics		
Category	**Item**	**Types of Answer**
1. Age	How old are you?	Fill in question
2. Gender	What is your gender?	Options: a) Male; b) Female; c) Prefer not to disclose.
3. Religion	What religion do you practice (N/A if non-applicable)?	Fill in question
4. Country of Birth	Where were you born?	Fill in question
5. Country of Origin	What is your country of origin? / "Please indicate your country of origin:"	Fill in question
6. Age when entering country of residence	How old were you when you came to Country X?	Fill in question
7. Years working for employer	If you are employed by an organisation, how long have you worked for your current employer?	Fill in question "years"
8. Nationality	What is your nationality (please list multiple if applicable)?	Fill in question
9. Marital Status	What is your marital status?	Options: a) Single; c) Married/ comparative relationship.
10. Partner's country of origin	Where is your partner from (e.g. husband/wife)? (N/A if non-applicable)	Fill in question
11. Occupation in Company	What is your current occupation in Country X?	Fill in question
12. Previous occupation	What was your occupation before migrating to Country X?	Fill in question

13. Organisational employed or self-employed?	Are you employed by an organisation or self-employed?	Option: a) Employed by an organisation; b) Self-employed
14. Contract Type/ PT-FT	What type of contract do you have (please tick multiple boxes if applicable)?	Options: a) Full-time; b) Part-time; Contract Type: c) Contract based; d) Permanent; e) Other.
15. Educational Level	Please list your qualifications (a) and the country (or countries) you attained them in (b):	a) Options: i. High / Secondary School; ii. Bachelor Degree or comparable; iii. Master Degree or comparable; iv. PhD; v. Other + Fill in. b) Fill in question
16. Country of residence before current country	In which country did you live immediately before coming to Country X?	Fill in question
17. Intention to reside permanently	When you came to Country X, did you have the intention to reside permanently in Country X?	Options: a) Yes; b) No; c) I don't know
18. Current position	What is your current position?	Fill in question
19. Past International Experienced (lived)	Please list the countries you have lived in (for over 6 months), the amount of time you spent in each respective country and the purpose of your stay (work, leisure, etc.). Please round up or down to the nearest half year:	Fill in question Table format.
20. Number of employers	NEW: Can you please indicate the number of organisations you have worked for since moving to COUNTRY X How many employers have you had since you came to Country x?	Fill in question
21. Refugee status	Did you have a refugee/asylum seeker status when you moved to Country X?	Options: a) Yes; b) No
22. Partner/Spouse same country of residence?	Does your spouse/partner reside with you in Country X? (N/A if not applicable)	Options: a) Yes; b) No

23. Partner/Spouse employment status	Is your spouse/partner currently in employment?	Options: a) Yes; b) No
24. Number of children and respective age	Do you have children? If so, please state the age of each child.	Options: a) Yes; b) No AND fill in question for the age(s).
25. Care-giving role	Are you the primary care-giver for your children?	Options: a) Yes; b) No
26. Language - Generic	Please list the languages you are proficient in and the degree of your proficiency (beginner, intermediate, advanced, fluent or native). Please tick the appropriate boxes:	Fill in: Fill in the given languages in one column. Options: a) Beginner; b) Intermediate; c) Advanced; d) Fluent; e) Native or equivalent.

ODm: Organisational Demographics		
Category	**Item**	**Types of Answer**
27. Number of employees	How many employees does your organisation employ? Please state an approximate figure.	Fill In Question
28. Organisation's industry	What industry does your organisation operate in?	Fill In Question
29. Working Language	What is your organisation's working language?	Fill In Question
30. Supervisor's nationality	What is your supervisor's nationality?	Fill In Question
31. Organisational Origin	Where is your organisation's origin (i.e. in which country is the main headquarter located)?	Fill In Question
32. Public or Private Sector	Do you work for a private company or a public-sector / non-profit organisation?	Option a) Private company; b) Public sector / non-profit organisation; c) Other + Fill in.

VII.   Coping Scales

Please note that we have reduced the number of coping items to half as a result of the validation study. We have included only those items that have significantly high loadings and Cronbach's Alpha. These are the highlighted items. Not highlighted items have been excluded from the questionnaire.

Instructions Work-Life	Instructions Private-Life
Integration in the workplace in a new country can involve various challenges and problems. When faced with challenges in the work-place and in your career, to what extent do/did you use the following strategies?	Integration in a new country can involve various challenges and problems. When faced with challenges in your personal life, to what extent do you use the following coping strategies? Please choose the appropriate answer for each statement

Response Scale: 1 = Never; 2 = Seldom; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; 5 = Always; Not applicable

EF: Emotion Focused	
A. Work & Career Life Domain	**B. Private & Family Life Domain**
1. Creating positive social distinction *(refers to highly-qualified migrants' attempts to maintain or (re-)create a positive sense of self-worth by distancing themselves from lowly qualified migrants and/or emphasizing their unique competences)* a. I distance myself from lowly qualified migrants at work, who come from my country of origin. b. I remind myself that due to my migration background I have work related competencies that local nationals don't necessarily have. c. I tell myself that people with my international profile are very important for contemporary organisations. d. I compare my achievements to those of colleagues in a similar role to me, who have not achieved as much as I have. (α = .624)	**1. Creating positive social distinction** *(refers to highly-qualified migrants' attempts to maintain or (re-)create a positive sense of self-worth by distancing themselves from lowly qualified migrants and/or emphasizing their unique competences)* a. I distance myself from lowly qualified migrants in my close vicinity, who come from my country of origin. b. I remind myself that due to my migration background I have social competencies that local nationals don't necessarily have. c. I believe that people with my international background are able to connect with people from different cultures more effectively in social life. d. I compare my personal-/social-life to that of other migrants who have not settled in as well as I have. (α = .537)
2. Preservation *(refers to migrants' attempts to preserve their heritage culture and maintain a psychological attachment to their respective roots)* a. I prefer to work with people from my country of origin. b. It is important to me that my colleagues at work know where I come from.	**2. Preservation** *(refers to migrants' attempts to preserve their heritage culture and maintain a psychological attachment to their respective roots)* a. I often visit social establishments that resemble aspects of my country of origin (e.g. food or music.) with family and/or friends. b. It is important to me to let my acquaintances know where I come from.

c. I have developed a stronger country of origin pride since I started working in Country X.	c. It occurs to me that I have developed a stronger home country pride since moving to Country X.
d. I think with pride of my country of origin when faced with challenges at work in Country X.	d. I think with pride of my country of origin when faced with challenges in my personal life in Country X.
e. I think of myself more as a 'world citizen' while at work. (reverse)	e. I think of myself more as a 'world citizen' in my personal- and social-life. (reverse)
(α = .670)	(α = .505)
3. **Expectation Adjustment** *(refers to migrants' attempts to adjust their expectations and goals in order to avoid disappointments and/or deal with experiences that are beyond the individual's control (e.g. discrimination))*	3. **Expectation Adjustment** *(refers to migrants' attempts to adjust their expectations and goals in order to avoid disappointments and/or deal with experiences that are beyond the individual's control (e.g. discrimination))*
a. I adjust my expectations at work in order to avoid disappointment.	a. I try to have realistic expectations regarding quality of life to avoid disappointments.
b. I adjust my professional goals when faced with challenges in Country X. (I have a clear set of professional goals which I am not willing to compromise on. (reverse))	b. I have clear expectations of my personal life that I am not willing to compromise on. (reverse)
c. I make sure my expectations are flexible in order to adjust to unforeseeable target deviations at work.	c. I maintain flexible expectations regarding social and personal life since moving to Country X.
d. I deviate from my professional targets since moving to Country X.	d. I deviate from the expectations I have regarding quality of life in my personal life since moving to Country X.
e. I developed more realistic expectations in my professional life since moving to Country X.	
(α = .569)	(α = .606)
4. **Positive Reappraisal:** *(refers to migrants' attempts to emphasize the positive in a difficult situation and delay short-term material or social success or even short-term emotional gratification in order to achieve long-term goals)*	4. **Positive Reappraisal:** *(refers to migrants' attempts to emphasize the positive in a difficult situation and delay short-term material or social success or even short-term emotional gratification in order to achieve long-term goals)*
a. When I find myself in a very challenging situation at work, I try to look at the situation from a more positive perspective.	a. I tend to think about the bright sides of life when faced with challenges in social-/ personal-life.

b. I tend to remind myself of my long-term goals when hitting a rough patch at work. c. I look at challenging situations at work as learning/personal-growth opportunities. d. I focus on the more positive aspects when in a challenging situation at work. (α = .735)	b. I keep telling myself that my family will benefit in the long-run when hitting a rough patch in my personal life. c. When facing challenges in my personal life, I like to believe that "what does not kill you makes you stronger". d. I think about how fortunate I am to live in Country X despite the challenges that I face in social and personal life. (α = .678)
5. **Acceptance** *(refers to migrants' attempts to accept the reality of a stressful situation in circumstances in which the stressor is something that must be accommodated or/and cannot easily be changed. This coping strategy differs from expectation adjustment, as the latter involves a deliberate effort to actively change ones perspective in the event of a stressor, while this strategy describes the action of becoming passive in the event of a stressor)* a. I believe that it will be an uphill battle to change the organisation I work for. b. I feel that I have to accept less than optimal solutions when working with local nationals. c. I accept that discrimination is part of everyday life at work. d. I keep telling myself that migrants must accept comparatively worse working conditions than local nationals. (α = .719)	5. **Acceptance** *(refers to migrants' attempts to accept the reality of a stressful situation in circumstances in which the stressor is something that must be accommodated or/and cannot easily be changed. This coping strategy differs from expectation adjustment, as the latter involves a deliberate effort to actively change ones perspective in the event of a stressor, while this strategy describes the action of becoming passive in the event of a stressor)* a. I remind myself that even if I move to a different country my situation is not going to improve. b. I accept that the quality of social life is generally lower for migrants in Country X. c. I accept that discrimination is part of social life in Country X. d. I accept that migrants have a hard time being accepted by local nationals in social life. (α = .606)

6. <u>Seeking Emotional Support</u> *(refers to migrants' attempts to protect themselves from the deleterious effects of stress by seeking acceptance, encouragement, empathy, and caring from colleagues and/or friends and family)* a. I seek emotional support from colleagues when encountering difficult situations at work. b. When things get tough at work, I seek emotional support from my international colleagues (including people from my country of origin). c. I seek emotional support from local nationals when things get tough at work. d. When things get tough at work I find ways to cheer myself up. (α = .655)	**6. <u>Seeking Emotional Support</u>** *(refers to migrants' attempts to protect themselves from the deleterious effects of stress by seeking acceptance, encouragement, empathy, and caring from colleagues and/or friends and family)* a. I talk to friends or family when encountering difficult situations in Country X. b. I seek emotional support from my international friends (including those from my country of origin) when things get tough in my personal life. c. I seek emotional support from local nationals when things get tough in my personal life. d. When things get tough in my personal life domain I find ways to cheer myself up. (α = .029)
7. <u>Escapism & Denial</u> *(refers to migrants' attempts to deal with stressors by refusing to accept certain actions have taken place, or by physically and/or mentally removing themselves from the situation, e.g. leaving an employer, day-dreaming, etc.).* a. I try to block out things that bother me at work as best as I can. b. I am considering leaving the organisation if things do not improve in the near future. c. I find myself procrastinating when encountering challenging situations at work in Country X. d. Whilst working in Country X, I ignore negative experiences at work. (α = .472)	**7. <u>Escapism & Denial</u>** *(refers to migrants' attempts to deal with stressors by refusing to accept certain actions have taken place, or by physically and/or mentally removing themselves from the situation, e.g. leaving an employer, day-dreaming, etc.).* a. I try to block out things that bother me in my personal life as best as I can. b. I am considering leaving Country X if things do not improve in the near future. c. I find myself day-dreaming when confronted with challenging situations in my social life in Country X. d. I ignore negative experiences in my social life in Country X. (α = .721)

PF: Problem Focused	
A. Work & Career Life Domain	**B. Private & Family Life Domain**
8. **Building and leveraging social networks** *(refers to migrants' attempts to expand their professional and/or social network for instrumental reasons such as achieving work related targets and/or resolving challenges encountered in the host country)* a. I actively work towards expanding my professional network of local nationals. b. I actively work towards expanding my professional network of international colleagues, including migrants from my country of origin. c. I use personal networks to achieve work related goals. d. I use connections to advance my career, since it is more difficult to do so via the traditional channel of submitting job applications. (α = .830)	8. **Building and leveraging social networks** *(refers to migrants' attempts to expand their professional and/or social network for instrumental reasons such as achieving work related targets and/or resolving challenges encountered in the host country)* a. I actively work towards expanding my social network of local nationals. b. I actively work towards expanding my social network of international acquaintances, including migrants from my country of origin. c. I use personal networks to access social groups in order to deal with respective challenges in Country X. d. I ask friends to help me access certain social groups, which would otherwise take longer to enter. (α = .750)
9. **Seeking Task Support** *(refers to migrants' attempts to obtain support required to accomplish tasks and/or resolve problems)* a. I seek task support from other international colleagues (including people from my country of origin) when things get tough at work. b. I seek task support from local nationals when things get tough at work. c. I ask colleagues for help when I cannot complete a work-related task by myself. d. I prefer to search for solutions to problems at work by myself, and only look for help from others as a last resort. (reverse)	9. **Seeking Task Support** *(refers to migrants' attempts to obtain support required to accomplish tasks and/or resolve problems)* a. I seek task support from international acquaintances (including those from my country of origin) when things get tough in my social life (e.g., translation, finding and/or going to city offices, dealing with bureaucracy, etc.). b. I seek task support from local nationals when things get tough in my social life (e.g., translation, finding and/or going to city offices, dealing with bureaucracy, etc.). c. I ask for help from friends and/or family if I come across a barrier at local authorities (doctor, insurance, police, etc.).

	d. I prefer to search for solutions to problems in social life by myself, and only look for help from others as a last resort. (reverse)
10. **Skills development** *(refers to migrants' attempts to develop themselves and their skill sets to add value for their organisations, their own career development and/or improve their cultural knowledge of the host-country)* a. I actively work on improving my professional skills when facing challenges at work. b. I take part in languages courses in order to enhance my career prospects. c. I seek training opportunities when confronted with work-related barriers. d. I engage in further skill development courses when I notice that my current abilities do not allow me to complete work-related tasks. (α = .656)	**10.** **Skills development** *(refers to migrants' attempts to develop themselves and their skill sets to improve their cultural knowledge of the host-country, enhance their social skills and/or feel better integrated into the new society)* a. I engage in further education in order to understand my social surroundings (e.g. Country X's history and/or culture, language courses, etc.). b. I take/took part in language courses in order to feel integrated in Country X. c. I engage in further education (e.g. Country X's history and/or culture, language courses, etc.) when confronted with social barriers in Country X. d. I engage in further education in order to enhance my social status. (α = .874)
11. **Social Learning** *(refers to migrants' attempts to learn from personal experience, host country nationals, and/or well-adjusted migrants via reflection, external feedback, observation, imitation, and modelling)* a. I modify my behaviour based on external feedback from local nationals and/or well-adjusted migrants at work. b. When faced with a challenging situation at work, I observe local nationals and/or other culturally aware migrants to determine the best course of action. c. I adjust my behaviour to remedy past cultural mistakes in order to become more effective at work. d. I observe local nationals and/or well-adjusted migrants at work in order to adjust my behaviour to better fit in with the work culture of Country X. (α = .825)	**11.** **Social Learning** *(refers to migrants' attempts to learn from personal experience, host country nationals and/or well-adjusted migrants via reflection, external feedback, observation, imitation, and modelling)* a. I modify my behaviour based on external feedback from local nationals and/or well-adjusted migrants in my personal life. b. When faced with a challenging situation in my personal life, I observe local nationals and/or other culturally aware migrants to determine the best course of action. c. I adjust my behaviour to remedy past cultural mistakes in order to enhance my social life. d. I observe local nationals and/or well-adjusted migrants in my personal life in order to adjust my behaviour to better fit in with the local culture in Country X. (α = .746)

12. Exploring and Exploiting new opportunities *(refers to migrants' attempts to (pro-) actively search for new opportunities and/or come up with alternative strategies)*	**12. Exploring and Exploiting new opportunities** *(refers to migrants' attempts to (pro-) actively search for new opportunities and/or come up with alternative strategies)*
a. I actively explore new job opportunities when faced with challenges at work.	a. I actively explore new opportunities when faced with challenges in my social and/or personal life.
b. I actively search for new career opportunities (e.g. changing positions or employer) if I feel I am not progressing to my own satisfaction.	b. I actively seek opportunities to enhance my social and personal life (e.g. trying out new activities, hobbies, etc.).
c. I am willing to change my career path if my original plan has not worked.	c. I try to find different solutions to personal-life related challenges if my original plan is unsuccessful.
d. I try to understand why things are not going as planned at work and come up with alternative strategies.	d. I try to understand why things are not going as planned in my personal life and come up with potential solutions.
(α = .738)	(α = .695)
13. Active Coping *(refers to migrants' attempts to try to remove stressors by taking active steps)*	**13. Active Coping** *(refers to migrants' attempts to try to remove stressors by taking active steps)*
a. I tackle the issue head-on when facing challenges at work.	a. When faced with challenges in my social life in Country X, I tackle the respective issues head-on.
b. When faced with challenges at work, I direct my energy to actively solve problems.	b. I direct my energy to actively solve problems when faced with challenges in my social life.
c. When faced with challenges at work, I try to overcome them no matter how big they are.	c. I actively target issues when faced with challenges in my social life.
d. When faced with a conflicting situation at work I express my concerns straight to the point to my colleagues and/or superiors.	d. When faced with a conflicting situation in my social life, I express my concerns straight to the point.
(α = .725)	(α = .784)
14. Restraint Coping *(refers to migrants' attempts to try to remove stressors by reducing impulsive, premature action and waiting for the right time to address respective issues)*	**14. Restraint Coping** *(refers to migrants' attempts to try to remove stressors by reducing impulsive, premature action and waiting for the right time to address respective issues)*
a. When faced with challenges at work I wait for the right time to address the respective issues.	a. When faced with challenges in my personal life, I wait for the right time to address the respective issues.
b. I wait for the opportune moment to deal with challenges at work.	b. I wait for the opportune moment to deal with challenges in my personal life.

c. When dealing with challenges at work, I restrain myself from acting on impulse in order to reduce any negative impact my impulsive actions may have. d. When faced with challenges at work, I take the time to systematically address the respective issues rather than acting on impulse. (α = .683)	c. When dealing with challenges in my social life, I restrain myself from acting on impulse in order to reduce any negative impact my impulsive actions may have. d. When faced with challenges in my social life, I take the time to systematically address the respective issue(s) rather than by acting on impulse. (α = .750)

Appendix 14: JISC Online Survey – Response Rate Overview

Completed responses   218 (109% response rate)

Respondent progress

p.1	p.2	p.3	p.4	p.5	p.6	p.7	p.8	p.9	p.10	p.11	p.12	p.13	p.14	p.15	p.16	p.17	p.18	p.19	p.20	p.21
698	48	80	17	55	14	18	32	15	9	7	5	2	2	15	26	0	0	3	3	218

Appendix 15: "Integrating Skilled Migrants into their Workplace" Questionnaire

Questionnaire

"Integrating Skilled-Migrants into their Workplaces"

Dear Respondent,

Our consortium of research institutions from **Austria, Germany, France, Sweden, Spain, Switzerland, Finland, Russia, the UK, Canada, Australia and the USA** aims to gather information about the situation of skilled immigrant employees in these countries. To gain deeper insight into the present situation of these individuals, identify areas where change is needed, and formulate recommendations, we need **your support!**

On the following pages, you will find questions about your integration into the workplace and new country of residence. Some of the questions may seem similar, but they are designed to capture different facets of strategies being employed in response to challenges in your professional and private life. There are **no trick questions** and we believe that you will find this questionnaire interesting.

Please answer as honestly as possible. It will take approximately 30 minutes to complete the survey. Under no circumstances will your responses be made available to anyone in your firm. You will remain absolutely **anonymous**. If you have friends or colleagues, who are immigrants to the UK and may be interested in taking part, please forward the invitation email to them.

In this study we are interested in skilled migrants (i.e. individuals with a university/ college degree who have moved to work and live abroad on an indeterminate basis), not in expatriates (i.e. individuals who are transferred by their organisations to a new country on a temporary basis). If you are on an expatriate contract, please do not complete this questionnaire.

We wish to thank you for your participation in our study. Through your cooperation we will be able to advance our understanding of the coping strategies and integration dynamics of skilled migrants in various countries.

If you have further questions or comments, please do not hesitate to contact us. In return for your cooperation, we are happy to send you **a report summarising the main findings and managerial implications of our study**. Our contact details are provided below:

Sincerely,

Callen C. Clegg
Brunel University London
College of Business, Arts & Social Sciences
Brunel Business School
Uxbridge, UB8 3PH, United Kingdom
Email: callen.clegg@brunel.ac.uk

First of all, we would like to ask you to provide some information about yourself.

Your answers will be treated with absolute confidentiality and none of this information will be attributed to you personally.

Country of origin is the country you were born in AND/OR the country where you spent the most formative years of your life.

1. **Please indicate your country of origin:** _____

2. **Please list the countries you have lived in (for over 6 months), the amount of time you spent in each respective country and the purpose of your stay. Please round up or down to the nearest half year:**

Countries lived in for over 6 months (including your country of origin)	The amount of time spent in each respective country	The purpose of stay (work, leisure, etc.)

3. **Please list the languages you are proficient in and the degree of your proficiency (beginner, intermediate, advanced, fluent or native). Please tick the appropriate boxes:**

Language	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced	Fluent	Native or Equivalent
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. **Next, here are a few questions regarding your English skills:**

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

	Not at all	Very	Somewha	Very much	Extremel
1. In general, I feel confident using English.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel confident writing in English.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I feel confident speaking in English.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I feel confident reading and understanding English.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I feel confident listening to English.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. **Below are some statements about you and your job. To what extent do you agree with these statements?**

Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> statement.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
1. I have competencies/skills that I feel I cannot use in my current position.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel overqualified for my current position.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. My current position reflects the level of my qualifications.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. **Below are different statements about your organisation.**

Please, indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements.

Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> statement.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely	Don't know
1. My organisation has a fair promotion process.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The performance review process is fair in my organisation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. My organisation invests in the development of all its employees.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Employees in my organisation receive "equal pay for equal work".	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. My organisation provides safe ways for employees to voice their opinions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. In my organisation employee input is actively sought.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. In my organisation everyone's ideas for how to do things better are given serious consideration.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. In my organisation, employees' insights are used to rethink or redefine work practices.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Top management exercises the belief that problem solving is improved when input from different roles, ranks, and functions is considered.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. Next, here are a few questions regarding your relationship with your country of origin:

Please read each of the following statements and indicate the extent to which each statement best describes you as you really are.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely	Don't
1. I see myself as part of my country of origin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel a strong attachment towards my country of origin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I relate to people from my country of origin with great ease.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Below are some statements on cultural diversity in your organisation.

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> statement.

	Not at all	Very	Somewhat	Very	Extremely	Don't
1. Our organisation values cultural differences in its workforce.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Our organisation strives to have a very diverse workforce.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Our organisation makes sure that the opinions and input of employees from different cultural backgrounds are heard.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Our organisation maintains a diversity-friendly work environment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Our organisation makes it clear that cultural differences must be respected.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. Below are different statements about your support network.

To what extent do you agree with these statements?

Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> group of people.

I can rely on the following people when things get tough at work.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely	Don't know
Co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Family/Spouse/Partner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I can rely on the following people when things get tough in my personal life.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely	Don't know
Co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Family/Spouse/Partner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Continued… To what extent do you agree with these statements?

Please choose the appropriate answer for each group of people.

The following people care about my work-related problems.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely	Don't know
Co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Family/Spouse/Partner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The following people care about my personal problems.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely	Don't know
Co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Supervisor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Family/Spouse/Partner	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. Below are 10 statements about your experience when interacting with people from other cultures.

Please indicate to what extent each of the following statements describes you.

Please choose the appropriate answer for each statement.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very	Extremely
1. I know the ways in which cultures around the world are different.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I can give examples of cultural differences from my personal experience, reading, and so on.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I enjoy talking with people from different cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I have the ability to accurately understand the feelings of people from other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I sometimes try to understand people from another culture by imagining how something looks from their perspective.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I can change my behaviour to suit different cultural situations and people.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I accept delays without becoming upset when in different cultural situations and with culturally different people.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I am aware of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with someone from another culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I think a lot about the influence that culture has on my behaviour and that of others who are culturally different.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. I am aware that I need to plan my course of action when in different cultural situations and with culturally different people.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. Below are some statements on you and your work life in the UK. To what extent do you agree with these statements?

Please indicate the extent to which you feel comfortable with each aspect of your employment since moving to the UK.

Please choose the appropriate answer for each aspect.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
1. I feel comfortable with my specific job responsibilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel comfortable with my activities or tasks at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I feel comfortable with my workload.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I feel comfortable with the communication among my colleagues (e.g. co-workers, direct reports).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I feel comfortable with the collegiality among colleagues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I feel comfortable with the teamwork among my colleagues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. Below are some statements on and your family life in the UK. To what extent do you agree with these statements?

Please indicate the extent to which you feel comfortable with each aspect of your family life since moving to the UK. By "family" we mean the immediate family or partner (whether they accompany you in the UK or not). If you have no immediate family or partner, please tick "non-applicable".

Please choose the appropriate answer for each aspect.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely	Not applicable
1. I feel comfortable with the amount of time I spend with family members.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel comfortable with the quality of time I spend with family members.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I feel comfortable with my participation in family activities and tasks.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I feel comfortable with my relationship with my partner/family.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I feel comfortable with how we make decisions as a family.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I feel comfortable with how my family members resolve conflict.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. Next, here are a few questions regarding your integration into the UK:

Please read each of the following statements and indicate the extent to which each statement best describes you as you really are.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely	Don't know
1. I see myself as part of the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel a strong attachment towards the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I relate to people from the UK with ease.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. Below are some statements about your expectations in life, as well as at work.

To what extent do you agree with these statements?

Please choose the appropriate answer for each item.

		Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very	Extremely	Don't
1.	What I found in my current organisation in the UK surpassed my expectations.	□	□	□	□	□	□
2.	I have been surprised by how good working-life is in the UK.	□	□	□	□	□	□
3.	I find the reality of working in the UK disappointing.	□	□	□	□	□	□
4.	What I have found in my personal life in the UK has surpassed my expectations.	□	□	□	□	□	□
5.	I have been surprised by how good the quality of life is in the UK.	□	□	□	□	□	□
6.	I find the reality of living in the UK disappointing.	□	□	□	□	□	□

15. Below are several statements that pertain to how you perceive your role in your current organisation.

Please, indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements.

		Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very	Extremely
1.	My opinion counts in my organisation.	□	□	□	□	□
2.	I am trusted in my organisation.	□	□	□	□	□
3.	I am taken seriously in my organisation.	□	□	□	□	□
4.	My organisation has faith in me.	□	□	□	□	□

16. Below are several statements highlighting the relationship between you and the organisation you work for.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement.

		Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
1.	I am willing to work hard to help my organisation succeed.	□	□	□	□	□
2.	I am proud to work for my organisation.	□	□	□	□	□
3.	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	□	□	□	□	□
4.	I would refer a friend to come and work for my organisation.	□	□	□	□	□
5.	Overall, I am satisfied working for my organisation.	□	□	□	□	□

17. Below are some statements on the losses and sacrifices you would have to make if you moved back to the country from which you migrated to the UK.

Please choose the appropriate answer for each item.

If you would have to leave the UK, to what extent would the following be losses or sacrifices for you?

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very much | Extremely | Don't know

1. The career and development opportunities I have in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The money I earn or can earn in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The professional opportunities I have in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. The range of social activities and events I have in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. The friends and social ties I have in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. The lifestyle of the country that I currently live in.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

18. Below are several statements about you and your job.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly	Disagree to some	Uncertain	Agree to some extent	Strongly agree
1. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career since migrating to the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards meeting my goals for income since moving to the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward achieving my goals for the development of new skills since migrating to the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

19. Below are some additional statements about you and your job.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with <u>each</u> statement.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very	Extremely
1. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel satisfied with my present job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I find real enjoyment in my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I consider my job rather unpleasant.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Each day at work seems like it will never end.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

20. Below are some statements about you and your personal life.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with <u>each</u> statement.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
1. In most ways my life is ideal.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I am satisfied with my life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
4. So far I have attained the important things I want in life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21. Below are some statements related to the UK. To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> statement.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely
1. The culture in the UK is very rigid.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Local nationals always believe that their way is the right way.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Organisations in the UK prefer to employ local nationals whenever possible.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Local nationals show a great level of prejudice against immigrants.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Local nationals believe themselves to be superior towards other cultures/nationalities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

22. Next, here are a few questions regarding your relationship with the global community:

Please read each of the following statements and indicate the extent to which each statement best describes you as you really are.

	Not at all	Very little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely	Don't know
1. I see myself as part of the global international community.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel a strong attachment towards people from all around the world.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I relate to people from different parts of the world with ease.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

You are almost there… The final set of questions pertains to how you deal with the challenges faced in your personal and work life.

23. Integration in the workplace in a new country can involve various challenges and problems. When faced with challenges in the <u>work-place and in your career in the UK</u>, to what extent do/did you use the following strategies?

Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> statement.

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Not applicable
1. I actively explore new job opportunities when faced with challenges at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Not
2. I seek emotional support from colleagues when encountering difficult situations at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. When faced with challenges at work, I take the time to systematically address the respective issues rather than acting on impulse.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I think with pride of my country of origin when faced with challenges at work in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I remind myself that due to my migration background I have work related competencies that local nationals don't necessarily have.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I adjust my professional goals when faced with challenges at work in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I use personal networks to achieve work related goals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I focus on the more positive aspects when in a challenging situation at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. When faced with challenges at work, I try to overcome them no matter how big they are.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. I observe local nationals and/or well-adjusted migrants at work in order to adjust my behaviour to better fit in with the work culture of the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. I accept that discrimination is part of everyday life at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I engage in further skill development courses when I notice that my current abilities do not allow me to complete work-related tasks.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. When faced with challenges at work, I direct my energy to actively solve problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. I keep telling myself that migrants must accept comparatively worse working conditions than local nationals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. I look at challenging situations at work as learning/personal-growth opportunities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. I actively work towards expanding my professional network of local nationals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. When dealing with challenges at work, I restrain myself from acting on impulse in order to reduce any negative impact my impulsive actions may have.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. I actively search for new career opportunities (e.g. changing positions or employer) if I feel I am not progressing to my own satisfaction.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. I adjust my expectations at work to avoid disappointment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. When things get tough at work, I seek emotional support from my international colleagues (including people from my country of origin).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. When I find myself in a very challenging situation at work, I try to look at the situation from a more positive perspective.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Continued... When faced with challenges in the the <u>work-place and in your career in</u> the UK, to what extent do/did you use the following coping strategies?

Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> statement.

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Not
22. When faced with a challenging situation at work, I observe local nationals and/or other culturally aware migrants to determine the best course of action.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. I tell myself that people with my international profile are very important for contemporary organisations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Not applicable
24. I seek emotional support from local nationals when things get tough at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. I prefer to work with people from my country of origin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. I developed more realistic expectations in my professional life since moving to the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. I modify my behaviour based on external feedback from local nationals and/or well-adjusted migrants at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. I feel that I have to accept less than optimal solutions when working with local nationals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. I actively work towards expanding my professional network of international colleagues, including migrants from my country of origin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. I seek training opportunities when confronted with work-related barriers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

24. Integration in a new country can involve various challenges and problems.

When faced with challenges in your <u>personal- and social-life in the UK</u>, to what extent do/did you use the following strategies?

Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> statement.

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always	Not applicable
1. I actively explore new opportunities when faced with challenges in my social and/or personal life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. When faced with challenges in my social life, I take the time to systematically address the respective issue(s) rather than by acting on impulse.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I use personal networks to access social groups in order to deal with respective challenges in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I actively target issues when faced with challenges in my social life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I observe local nationals and/or well-adjusted migrants in my personal life in order to adjust my behaviour to better fit in with the local culture in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I accept that discrimination is part of social life in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I direct my energy to actively solve problems when faced with challenges in my social life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I accept that migrants have a hard time being accepted by local nationals in social life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I try to have realistic expectations regarding quality of life to avoid disappointments.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Continued... When faced with challenges in your <u>personal- and social-life</u> in the UK, to what extent do/did you use the following coping strategies?

Please choose the appropriate answer for <u>each</u> statement.

	Never	Seldom	Sometime	Often	Always	Not applicable
10. I engage in further education in order to understand my social surroundings (e.g. the UK's history and/or culture, language courses, etc.).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. When facing challenges in my personal life, I like to believe that "what does not kill you makes you stronger".	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I actively work towards expanding my social network of local nationals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. When faced with challenges in my social life in the UK, I tackle the respective issues head-on.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. I take/took part in language courses in order to feel integrated in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. I tend to think about the bright sides of life when faced with challenges in social-/personal-life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. When faced with a challenging situation in my personal life, I observe local nationals and/or other culturally aware migrants to determine the best course of action.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. I try to find different solutions to personal-life related challenges if my original plan is unsuccessful.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. I wait for the opportune moment to deal with challenges in my personal life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. I try to block out things that bother me in my personal life as best as I can.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. I ignore negative experiences in my social life in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. I try to understand why things are not going as planned in my personal life and come up with potential solutions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. I modify my behaviour based on external feedback from local nationals and/or well-adjusted migrants in my personal life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. I deviate from the expectations I have regarding quality of life in my personal life since moving to the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. I accept that the quality of social life is generally lower for migrants in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. When faced with challenges in my personal life, I wait for the right time to address the respective issues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. I actively work towards expanding my social network of international acquaintances, including migrants from my country of origin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. I engage in further education (e.g. the UK's history and/or culture, language courses, etc.) when confronted with social barriers in the UK.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

25. We would like to finish with some additional information about yourself and your organisation.

Your answers will be treated absolutely confidentially and none of this information will be attributed to you personally.

How old are you? _____ Years

What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female
☐ Prefer not to disclose

What religion do you practice? (N/A if not-applicable) _____

Where were you born? _____

What is your nationality? Please list multiple if applicable? _____

How old were you when you came to the UK? _____ Years

In which country did you live immediately before coming to the UK? _____

Did you have a refugee/asylum seeker status when you moved to the UK? ☐ Yes ☐ No

When you came to the UK, did you have the intention to reside permanently in the UK? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ I don't know

What is your marital status? ☐ Single ☐ Married / similar relationship

Where is your partner from (e.g. husband/wife)?
(N/A if not applicable) _____

Does your spouse/partner reside with you in the UK?
(N/A if not applicable) ☐ Yes ☐ No

Is your spouse/partner currently in employment? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Do you have children? ☐ Yes ☐ No

If so, please state the age of each child _____

Are you the primary care-giver for your children? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Please list your highest qualification and the country you attained it in: ☐ High / Secondary School ☐ Bachelor's Degree or comparable

☐ Masters Degree or comparable ☐ PhD

☐ Other: _____

Obtained in: _____

What is your current occupation in the UK? _____

What was your occupation before migrating to the UK? _____

Are you employed by an organisation or self-employed? ☐ Employed by organisation ☐ Self-employed

What is your current position? _____

What type of contract do you have?
(please tick multiple if applicable) ☐ Full-time ☐ Contract based ☐ Permanent
☐ Part-time ☐ Other

How many employees does your organisation employ? Please state an approximate figure. _____

Do you work for a private company or a public-sector/ non-profit organisation? ☐ Private Company
☐ Public sector / non-profit organisation
☐ Other _____

If you are employed by an organisation, how long have you worked for your current employer? _____ Years

What industry does your organisation operate in? _____

What is your organisation's working language? _____

What is your supervisor's nationality?   _____

Where is your organisation's origin?   _____
(i.e. in which country is the main headquarter located)

Thank you very much for taking the time to answer these questions. By taking part in our survey, you have significantly contributed to the success of the project. If you are interested in receiving a report summarising the main findings and managerial implications of our study, please send a short e-mail to:
callen.clegg@brunel.ac.uk

Appendix 16: Normality Graphs for Over-qualification

Histogram — tOverq. Mean = 8.11, Std. Dev. = 3.318, N = 254

Normal Q-Q Plot of tOverq

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tOverq
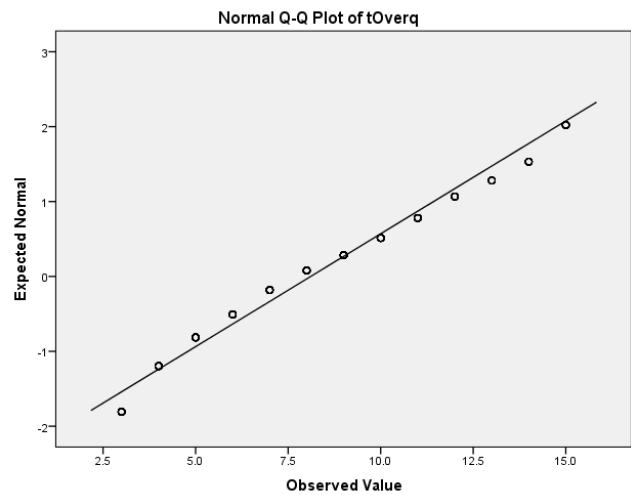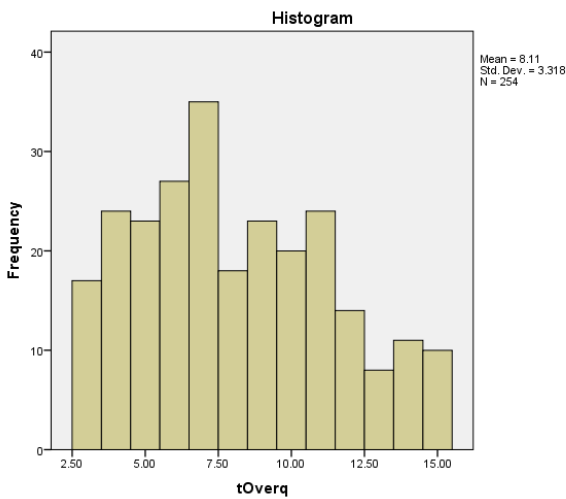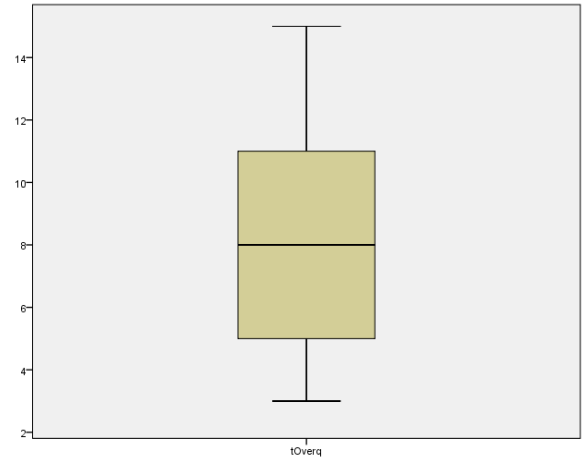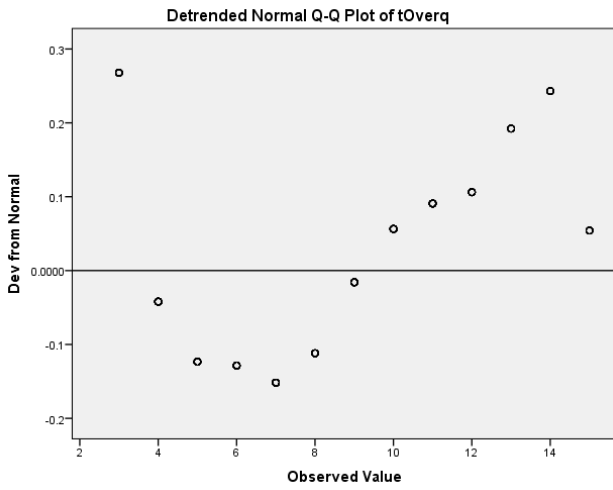
Appendix 17: Normality Graphs for Role Adjustment (Work)

Histogram

Mean = 23.13
Std. Dev. = 3.925
N = 254

Normal Q-Q Plot of tRoleAdW

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tRoleAdW
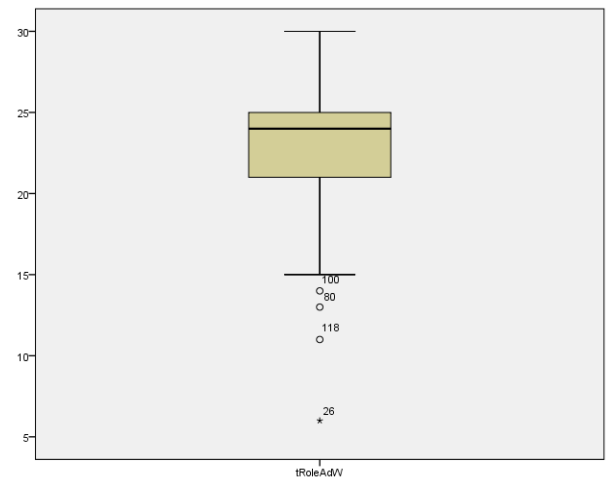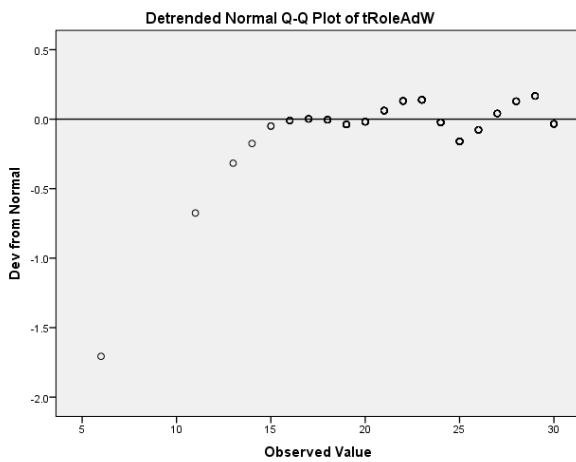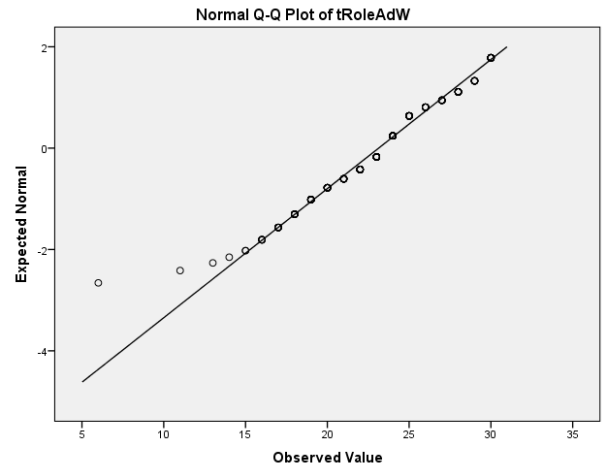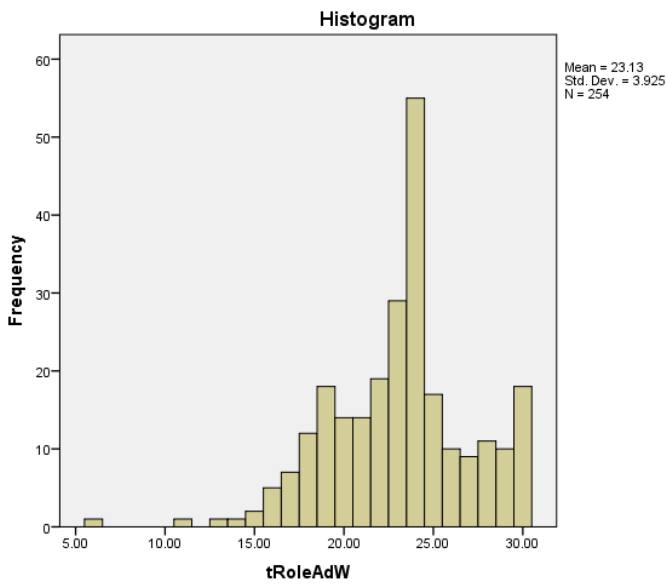
Appendix 18: Normality Graphs for Role Adjustment (Family)

Histogram

Normal Q-Q Plot of tRoleAdF

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tRoleAdF
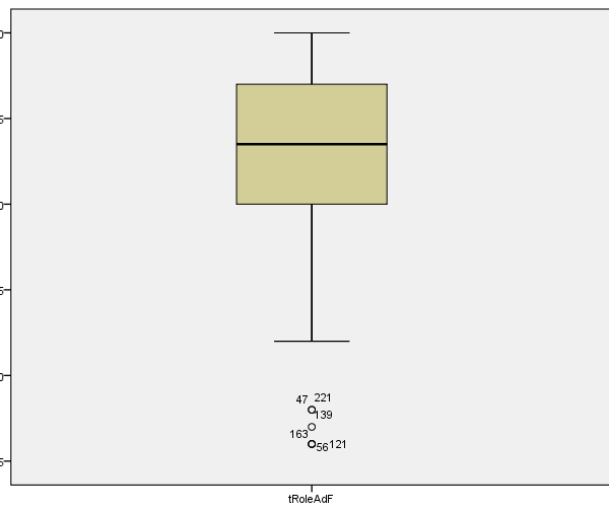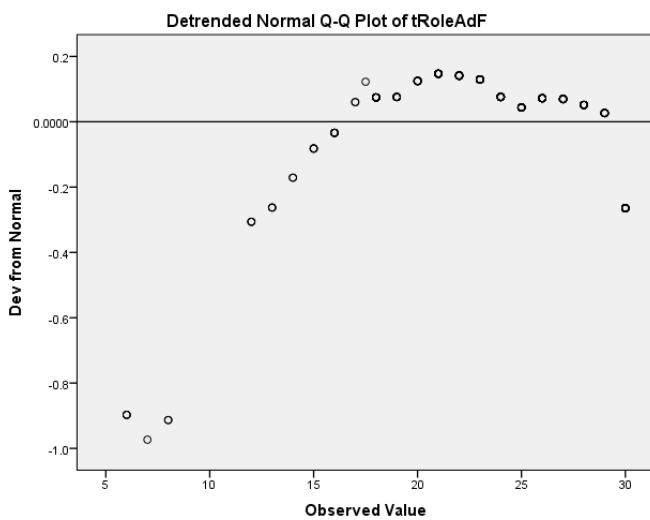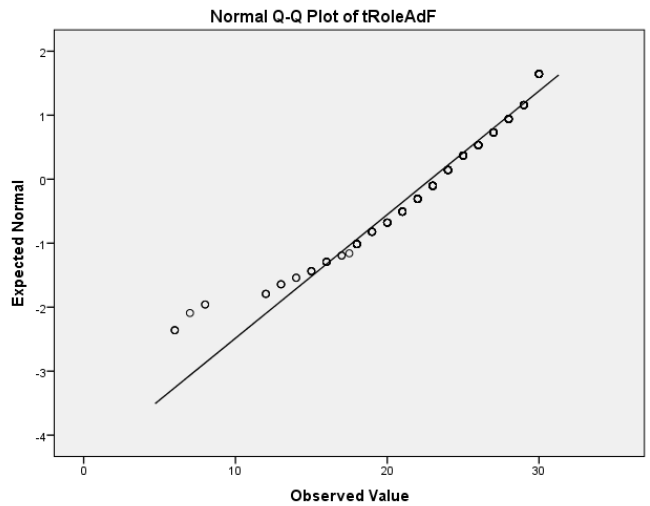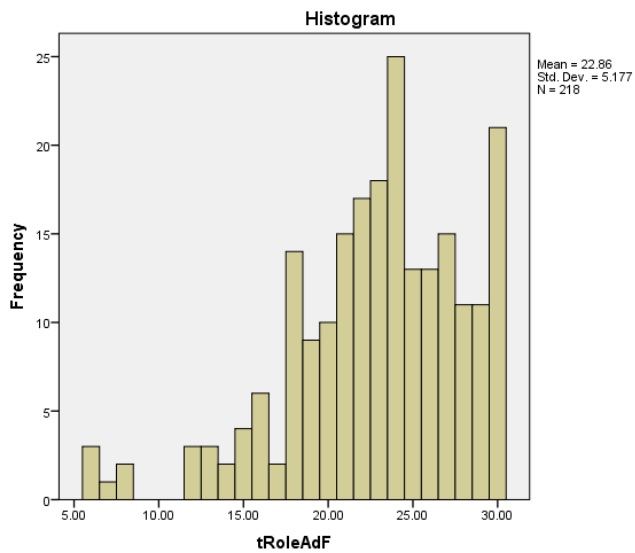
Appendix 19: Normality Graphs for Organisational-based self-esteem

Histogram

Normal Q-Q Plot of tOrgSelf_est

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tOrgSelf_est
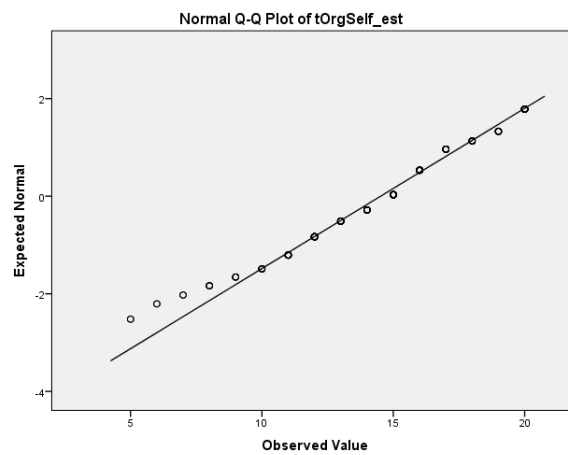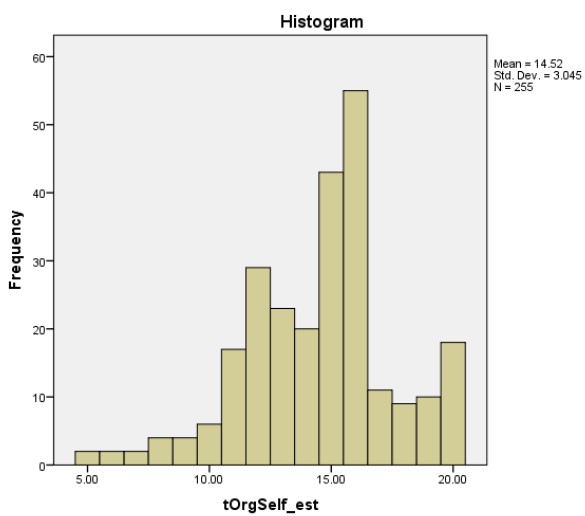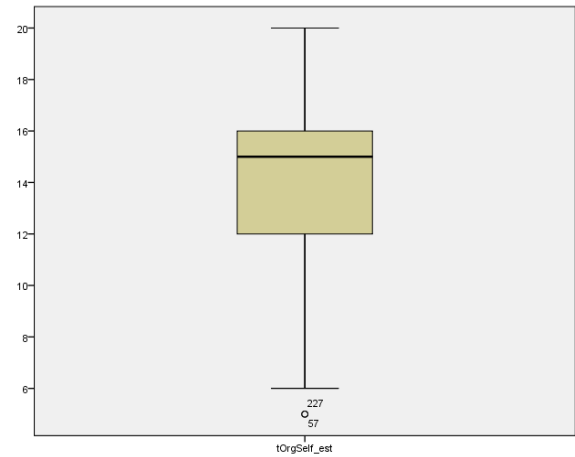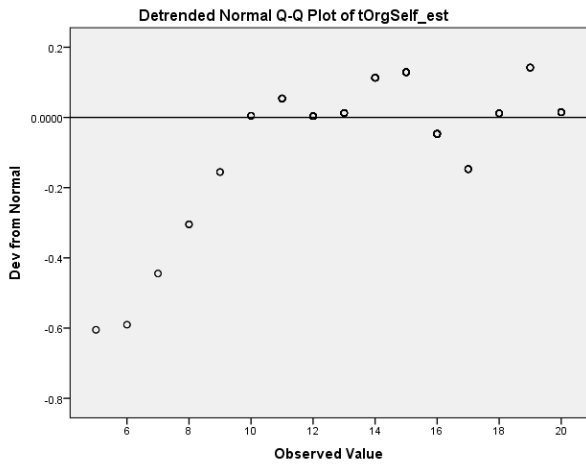
Appendix 20: Normality Graphs for Organisational Commitment

Histogram

Mean = 18.37
Std. Dev. = 3.996
N = 255

Normal Q-Q Plot of tOrgCom

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tOrgCom
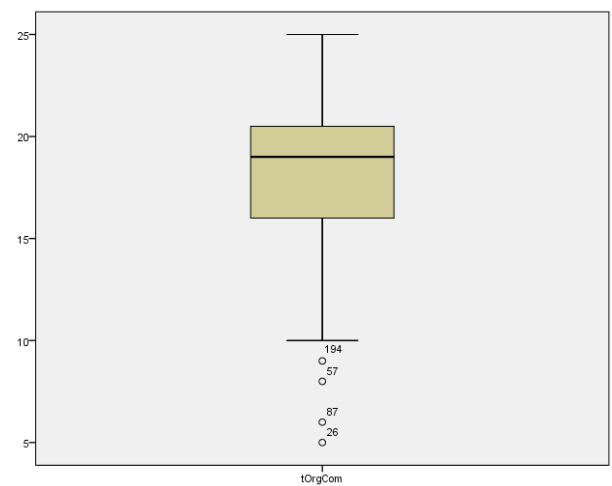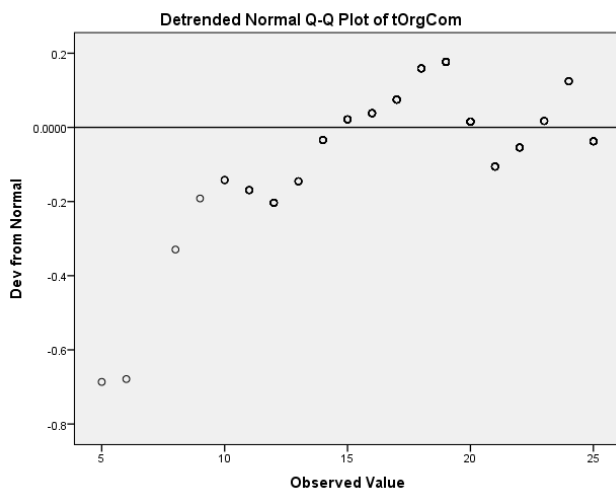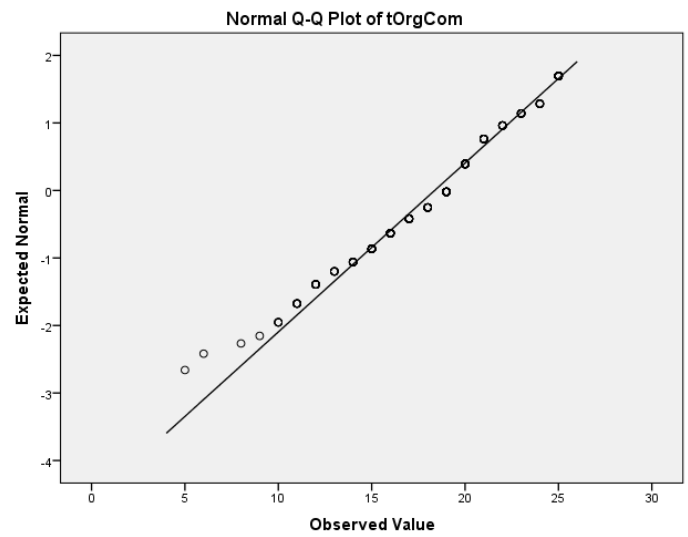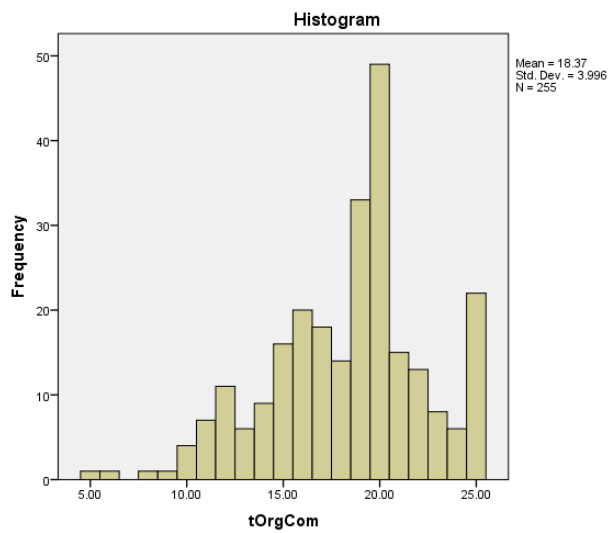
Appendix 21: Normality Graphs for Host Country Embeddedness

Histogram

Mean = 21.24
Std. Dev. = 5.17
N = 242

Normal Q-Q Plot of tHostCEmb

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tHostCEmb
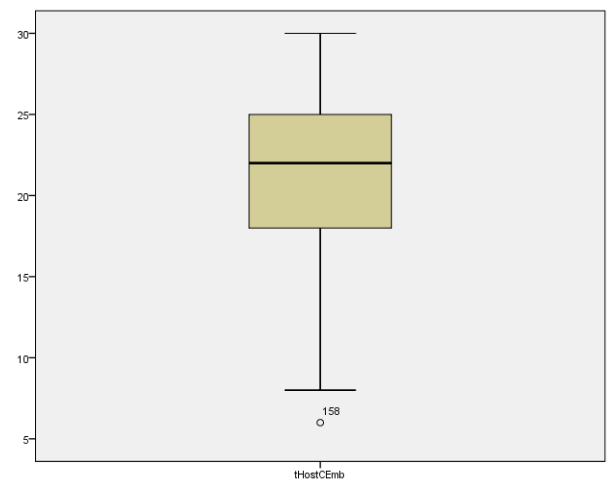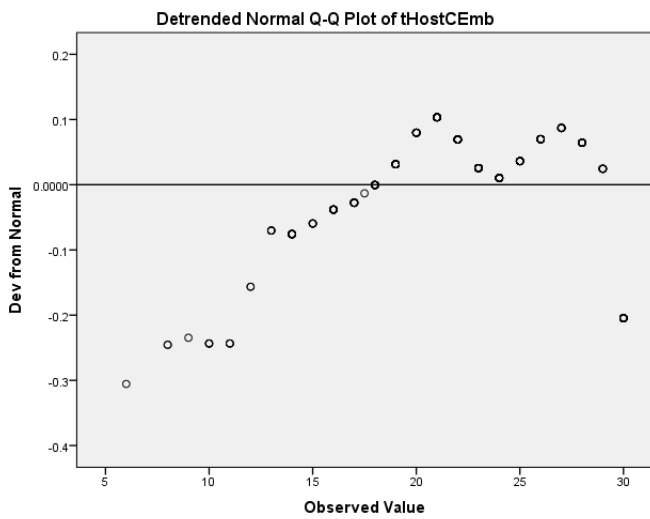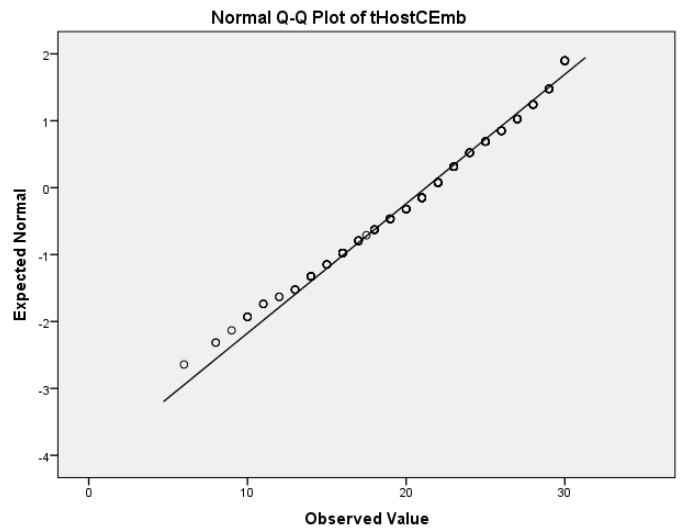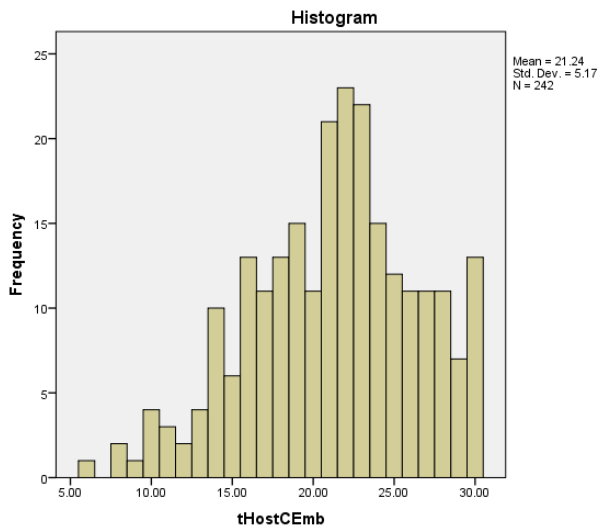
Appendix 22: Normality Graphs for Career Success
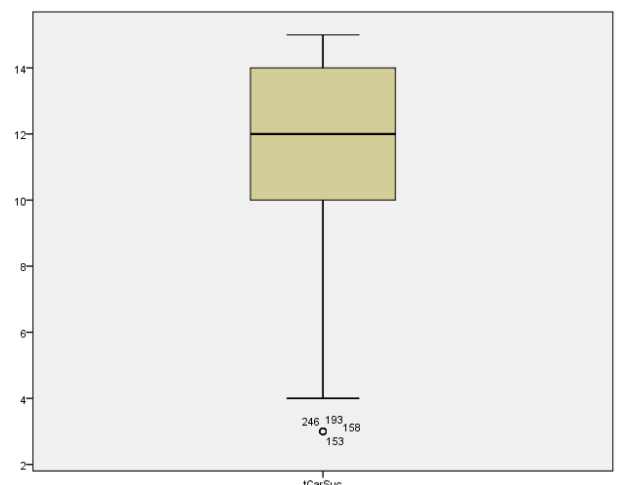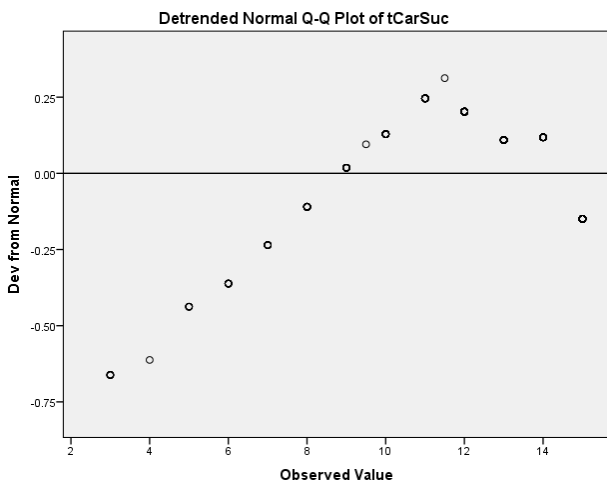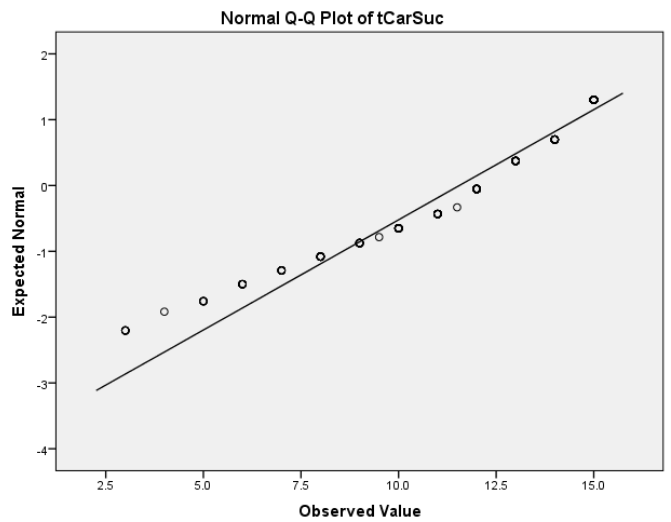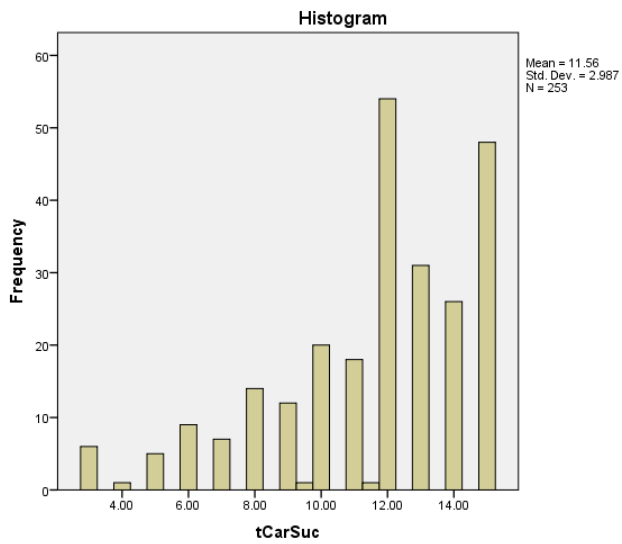
Appendix 23: Normality Graphs for Job Satisfaction

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tSatJob
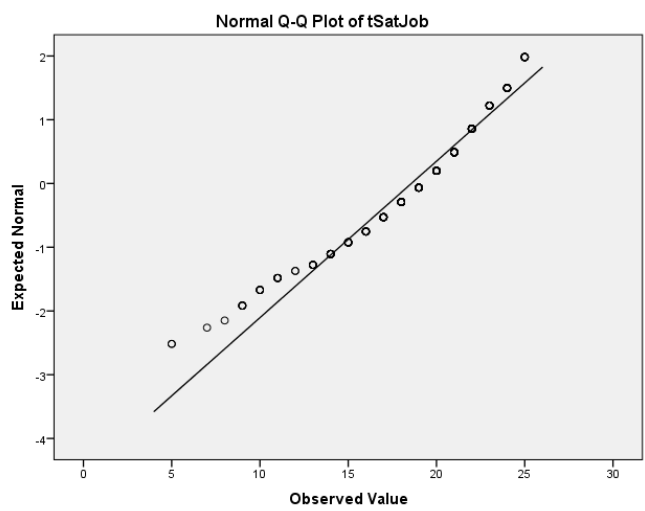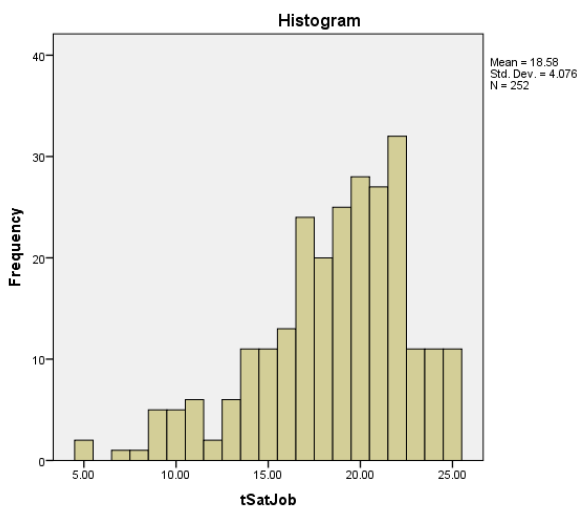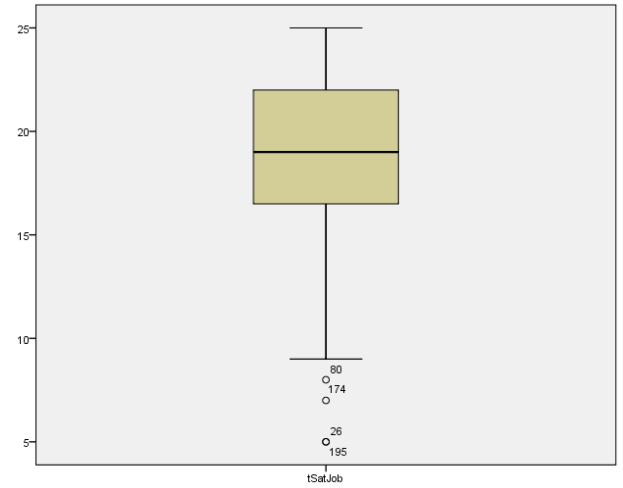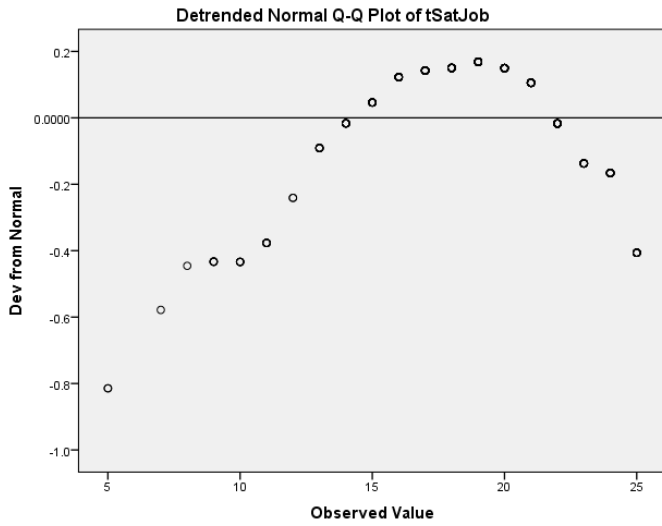
Appendix 24: Normality Graphs for Life Satisfaction

Histogram

Mean = 16.98
Std. Dev. = 3.811
N = 255

tSatLife

Normal Q-Q Plot of tSatLife

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tSatLife
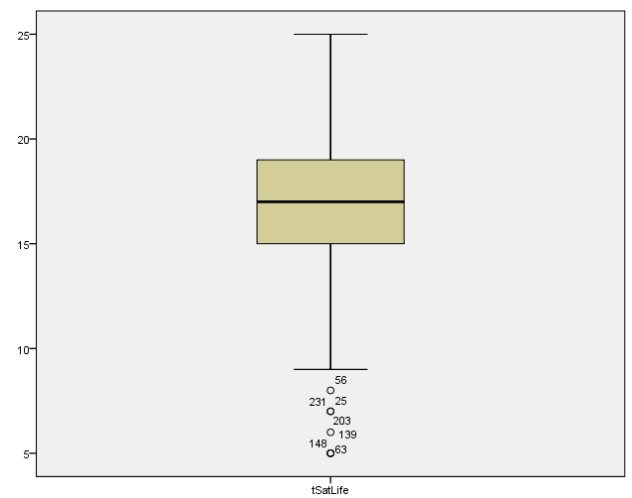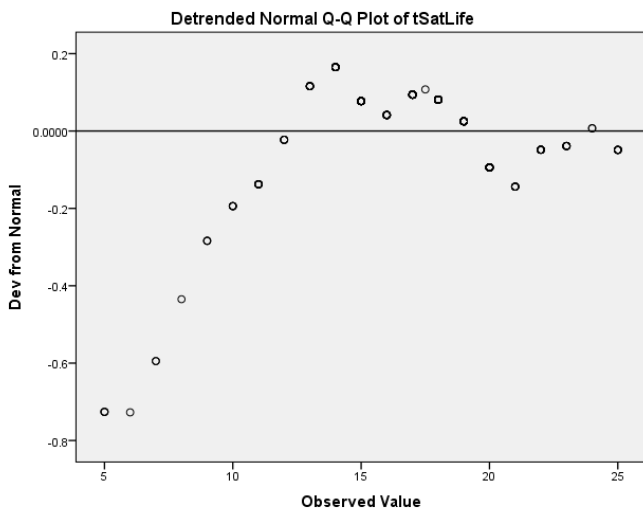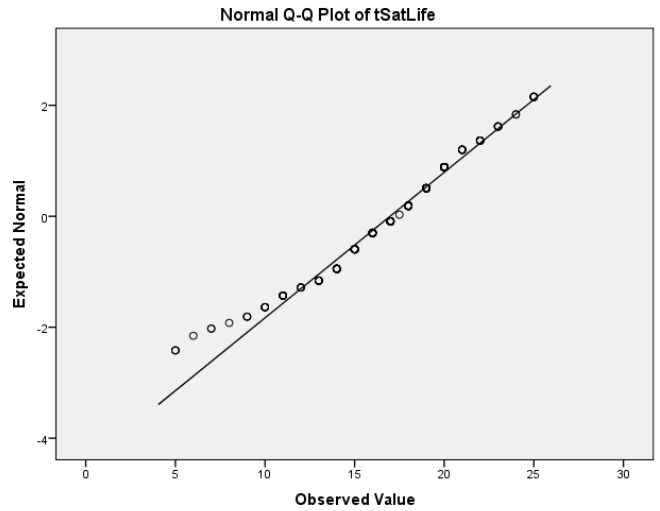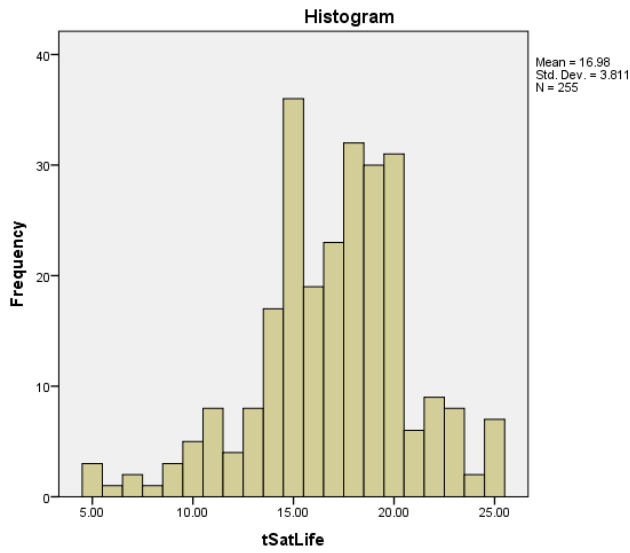
Appendix 25: Normality Graphs for Met Expectations - Work

Histogram

Normal Q-Q Plot of tMetExpWORK

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tMetExpWORK
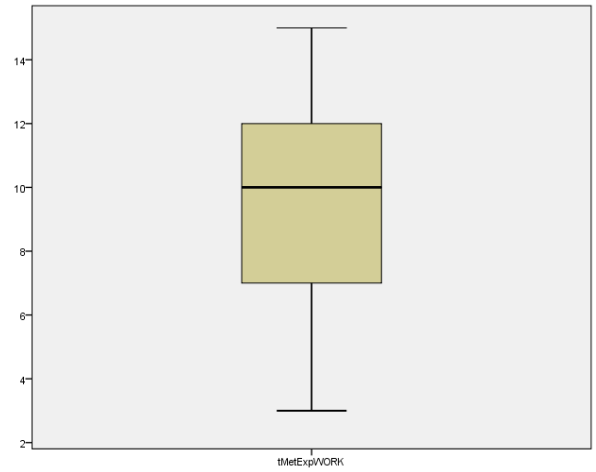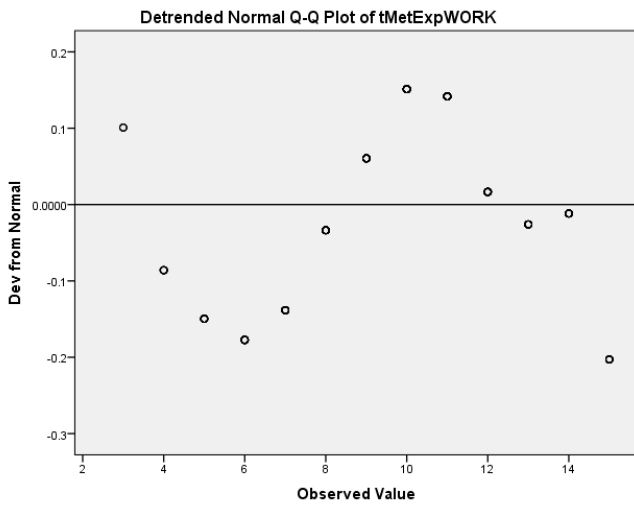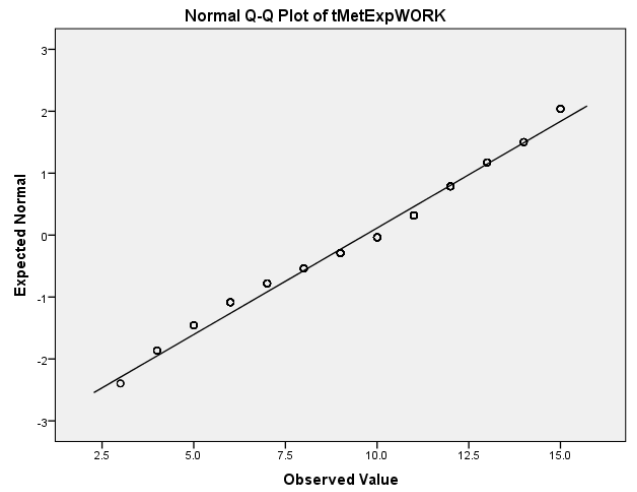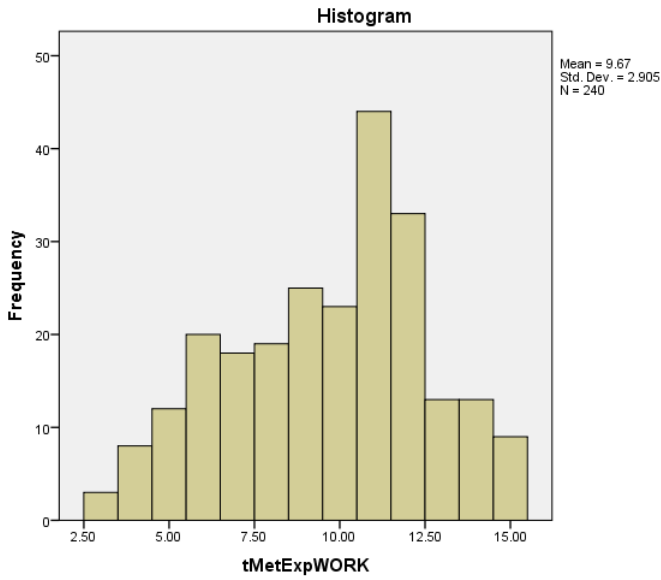
Appendix 26: Normality Graphs for Met Expectations - Life

Histogram

Normal Q-Q Plot of tMetExpLIFE

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tMetExpLIFE
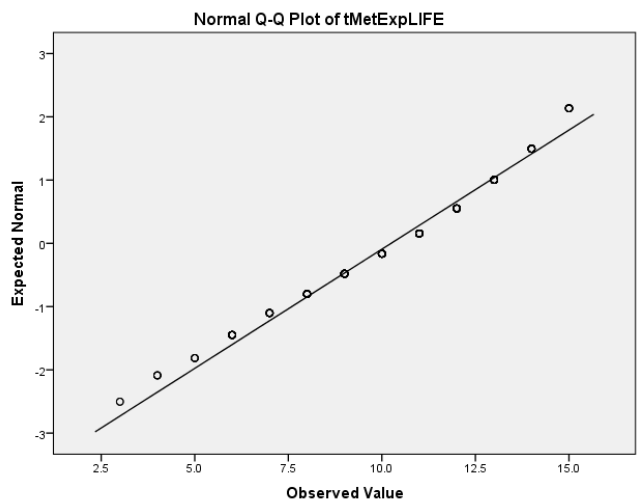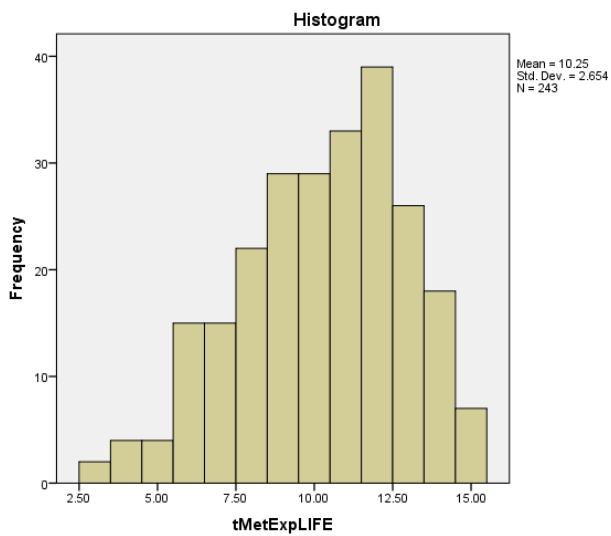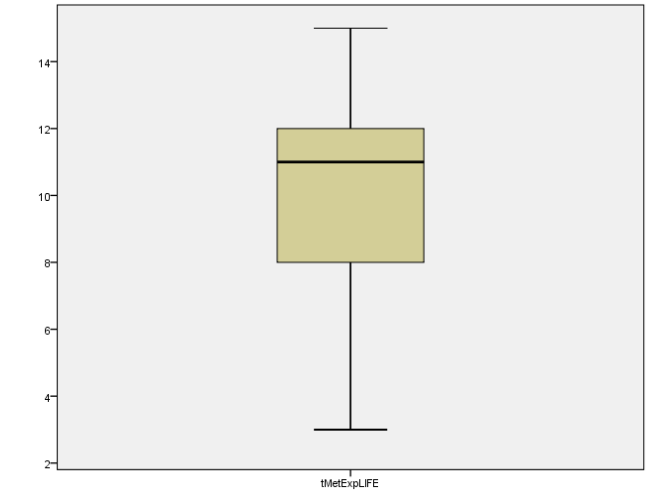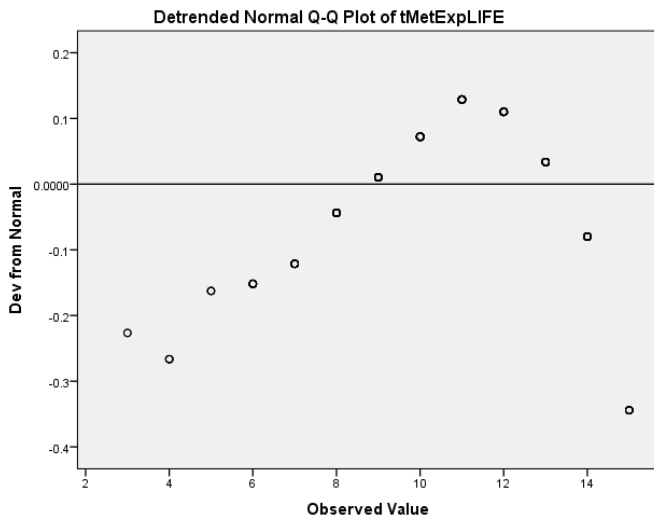
Appendix 27: Normality Graphs for Host Country Career Embeddedness

Histogram

Mean = 10.98
Std. Dev. = 3.408
N = 248

Normal Q-Q Plot of tHostCEmbCAR

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tHostCEmbCAR
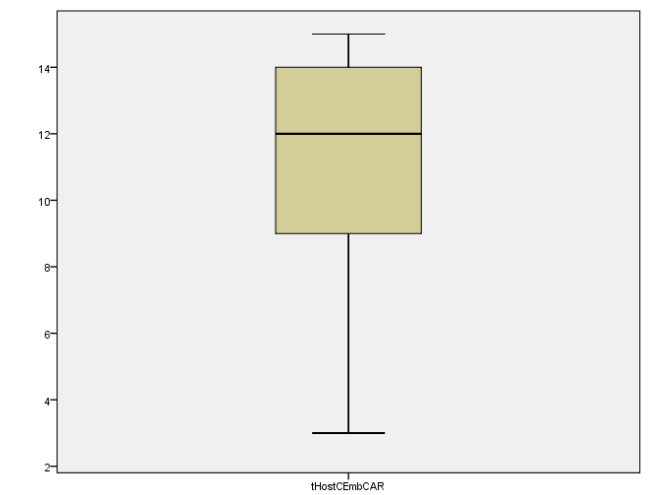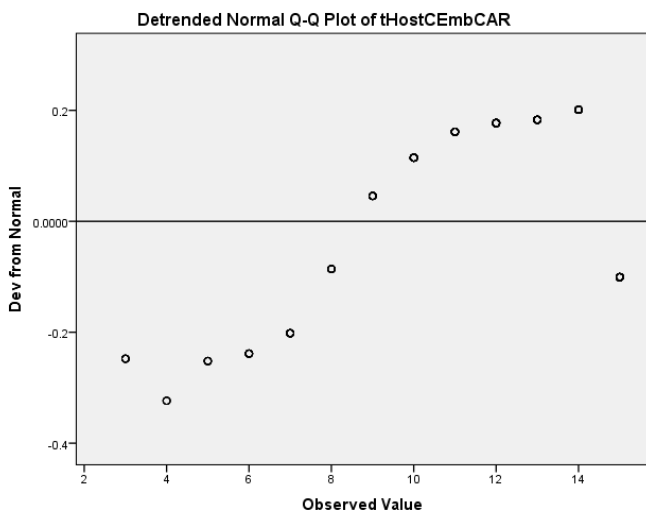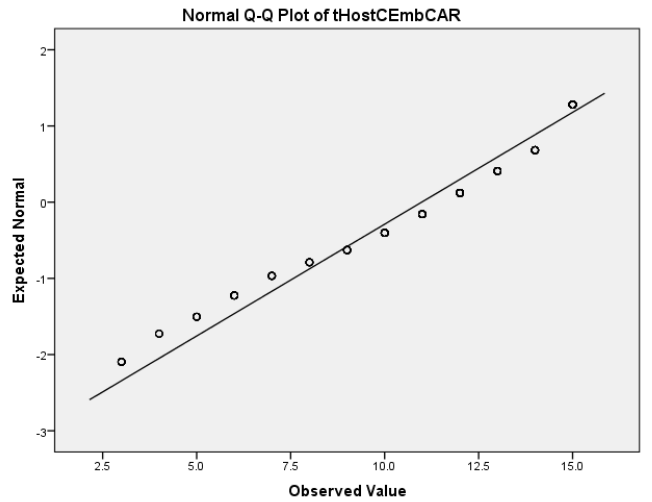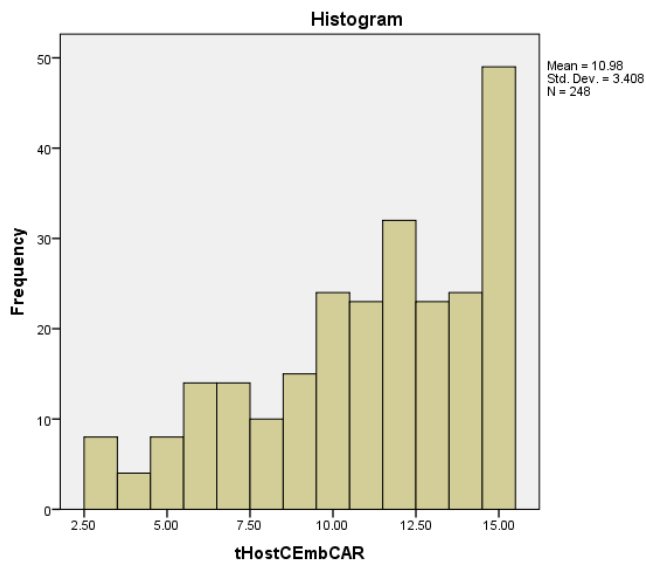
Appendix 28: Normality Graphs for Host Country Community Embeddedness
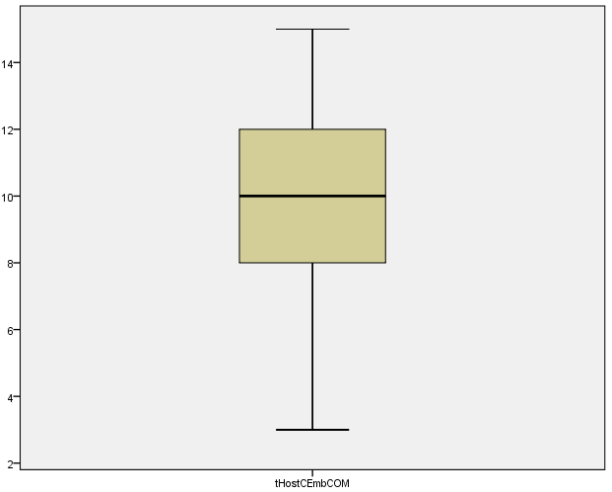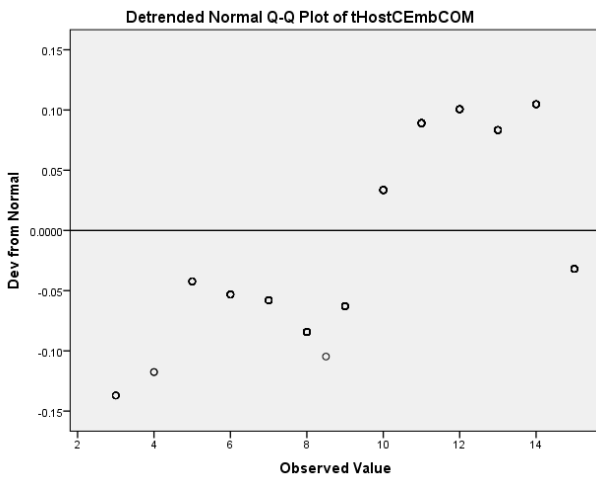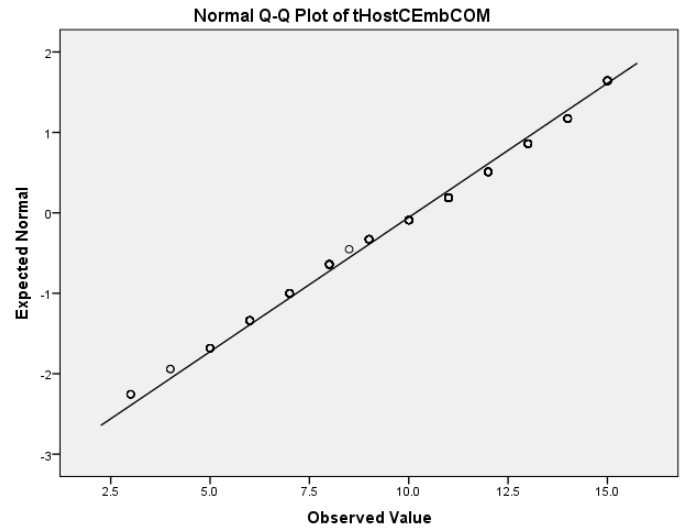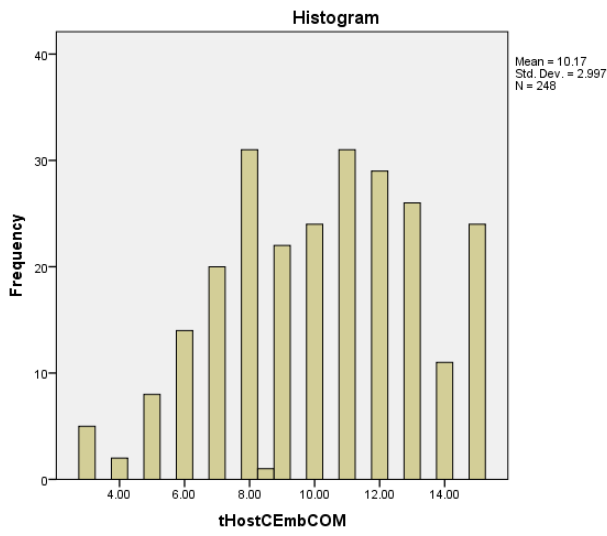
Appendix 29: Normality Graphs for Perceived Host Country Ethnocentrism

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tHostCEthn
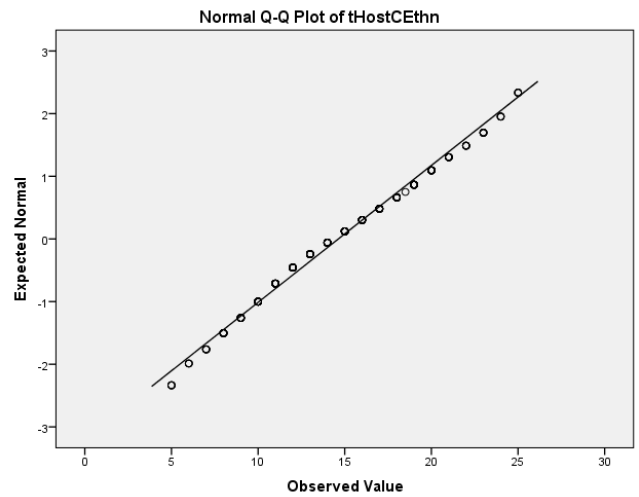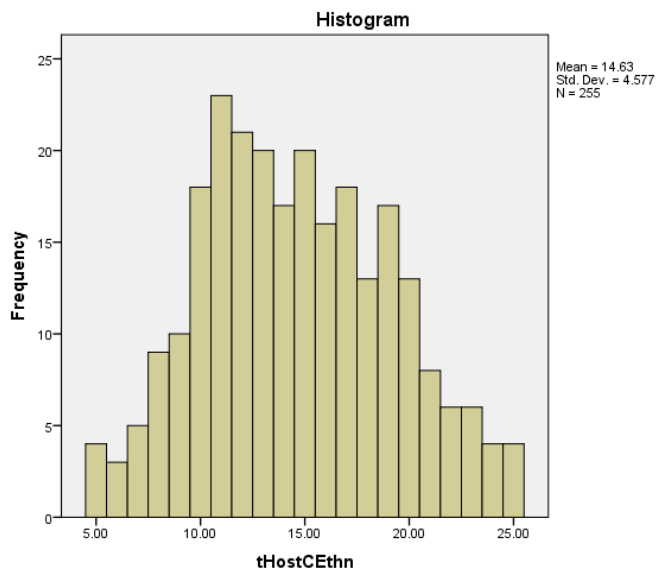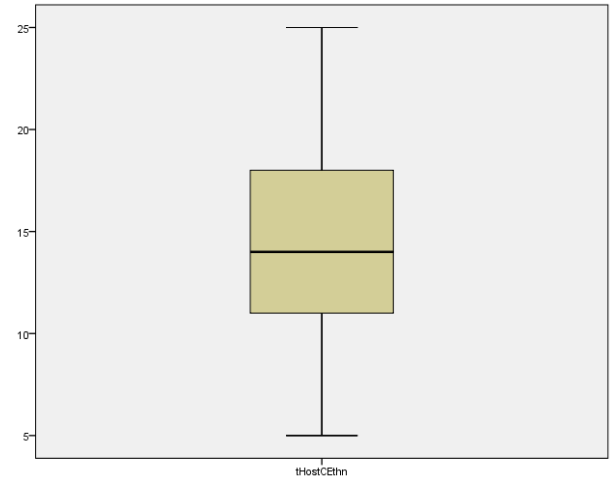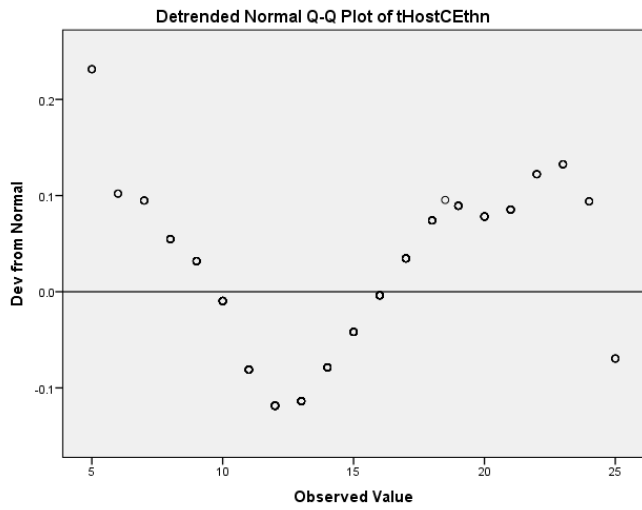
Appendix 30: Normality Graphs for Home Identity

Histogram

Mean = 11.60
Std. Dev. = 2.812
N = 255

Normal Q-Q Plot of tIdenhome

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tIdenhome

370
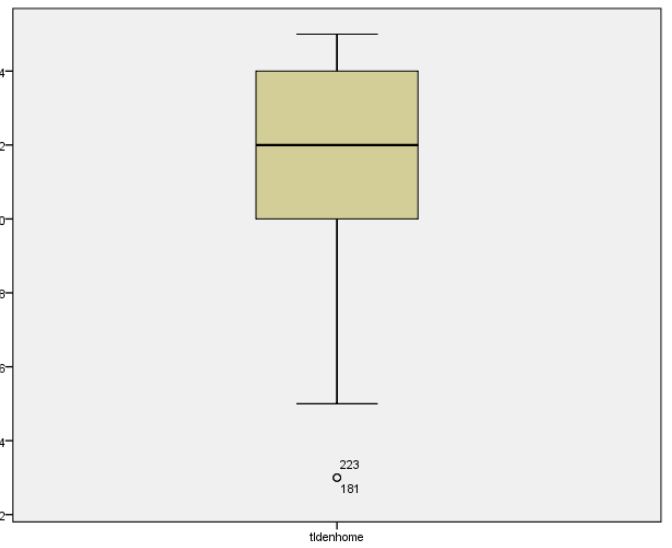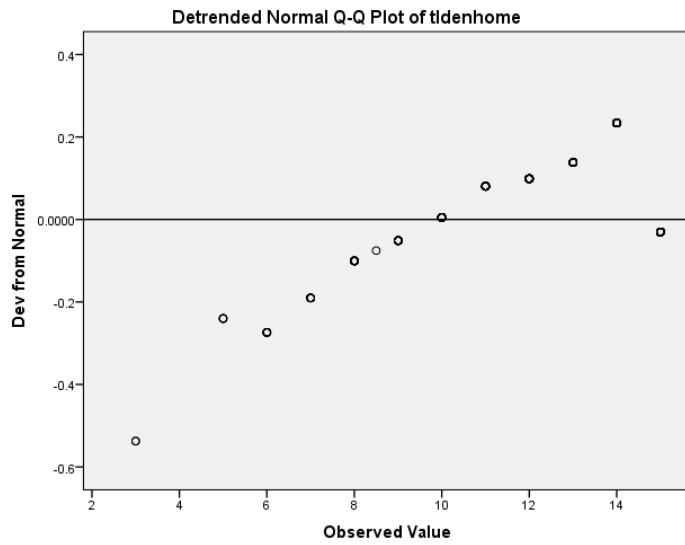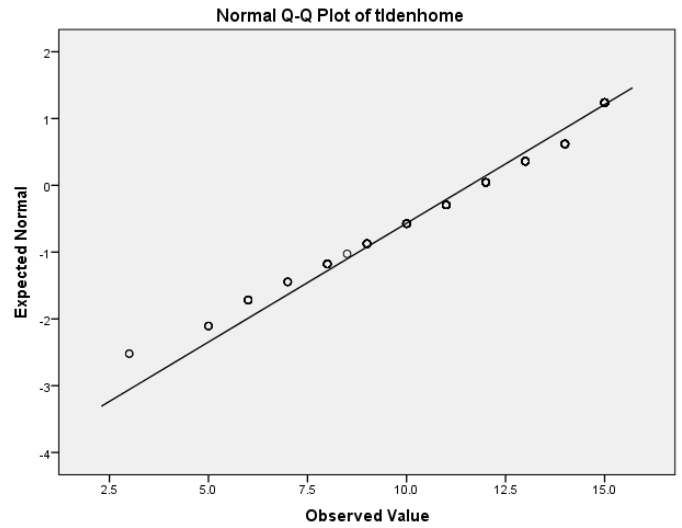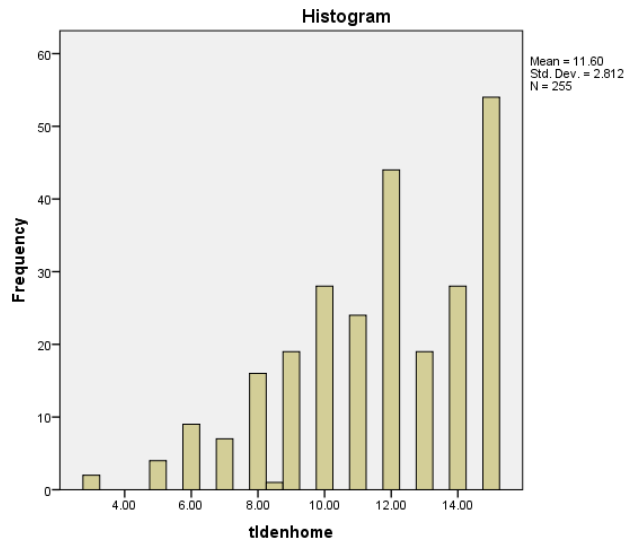
Appendix 31: Normality Graphs for Host Identity
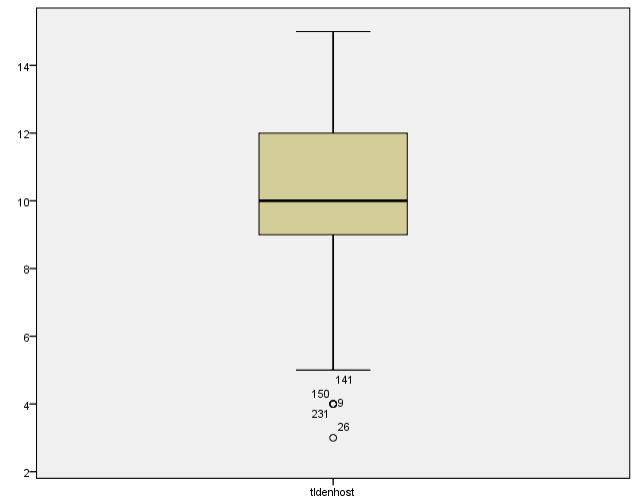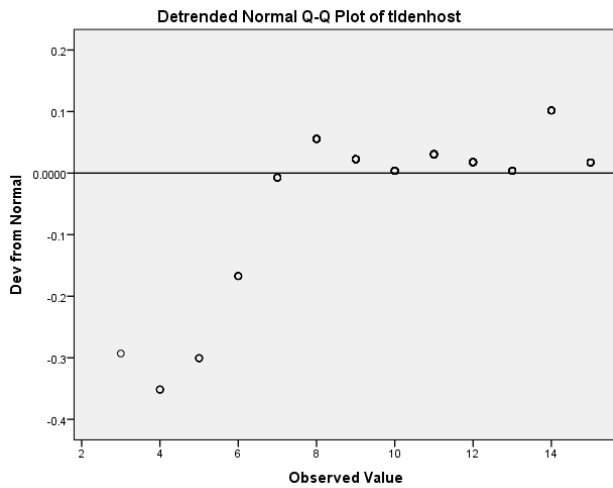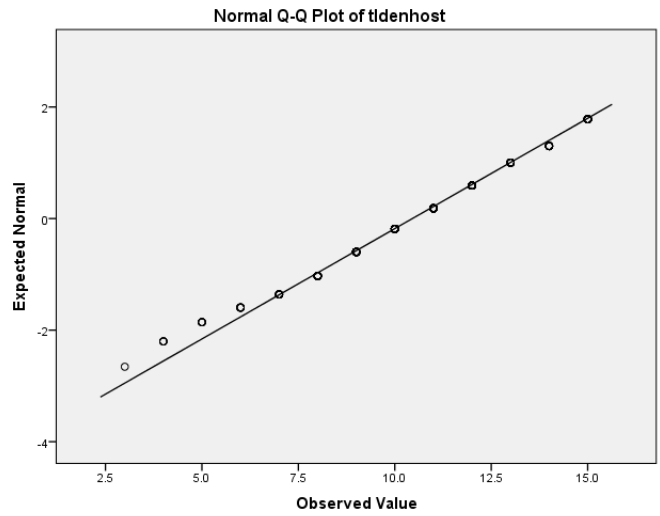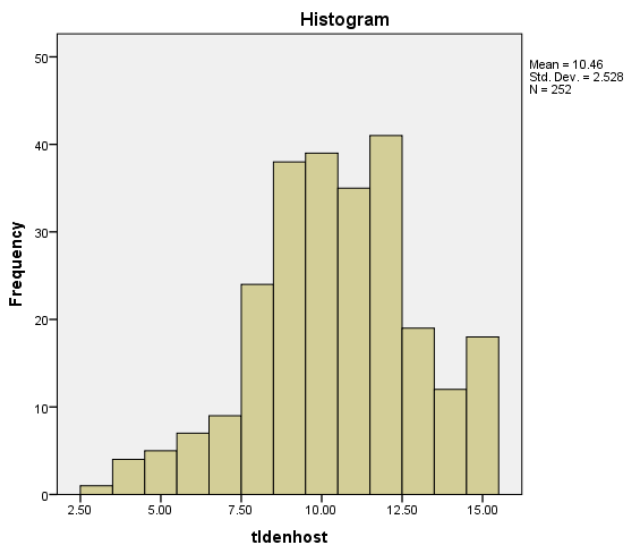
Appendix 32: Normality Graphs for Global Identity

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of tIdenGlob
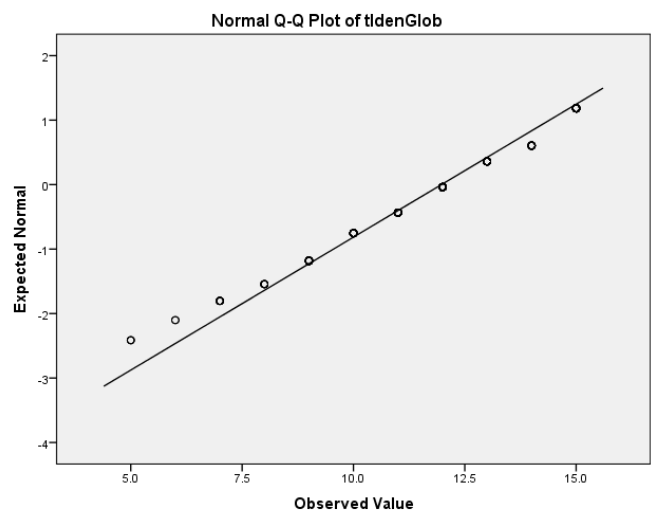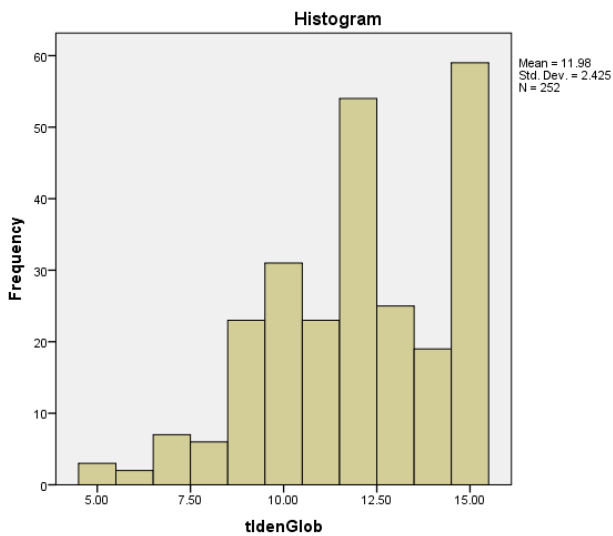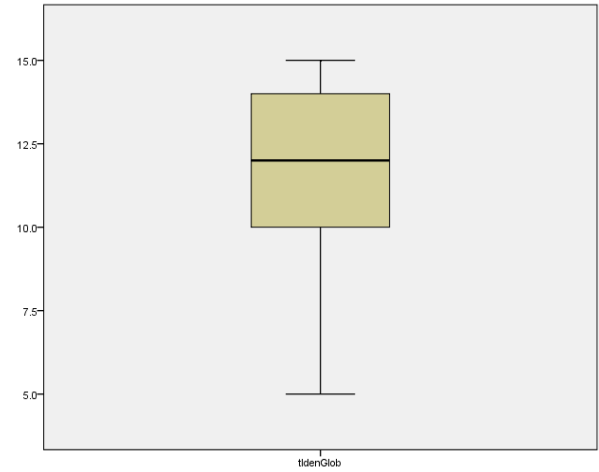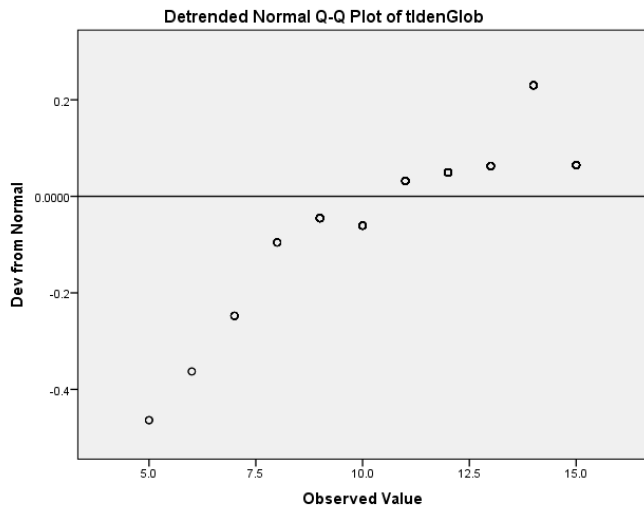
Appendix 33: EFA Results – Mediating Variables

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
RoleAdW1		.774			
RoleAdW2		.744			
RoleAdW3		.589			
RoleAdW4		.804			
RoleAdW5		.769			
RoleAdW6		.776			
RoleAdF1	.804				
RoleAdF2	.818				
RoleAdF3	.845				
RoleAdF4	.823				
RoleAdF5	.774				
RoleAdF6	.727				
Idenhome1			.903		
Idenhome2			.891		
Idenhome3			.835		
Idenhost1				.813	
Idenhost2				.872	
Idenhost3				.794	
IdenGlob1					.811
IdenGlob2					.907
IdenGlob3					.860

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.771	22.717	22.717	4.771	22.717	22.717	4.021	19.146	19.146
2	3.371	16.050	38.768	3.371	16.050	38.768	3.503	16.682	35.828
3	2.305	10.977	49.744	2.305	10.977	49.744	2.472	11.770	47.598
4	2.217	10.558	60.303	2.217	10.558	60.303	2.331	11.101	58.699
5	1.984	9.449	69.752	1.984	9.449	69.752	2.321	11.053	69.752
6	1.176	5.601	75.353						
7	.803	3.825	79.178						
8	.560	2.667	81.845						
9	.538	2.560	84.405						
10	.484	2.303	86.707						
11	.394	1.876	88.583						
12	.372	1.771	90.354						
13	.355	1.692	92.045						
14	.292	1.388	93.434						
15	.285	1.358	94.792						
16	.238	1.133	95.925						
17	.211	1.004	96.929						
18	.181	.862	97.791						
19	.172	.818	98.609						
20	.166	.790	99.400						
21	.126	.600	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 34: EFA Results – Dependent Variables

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overq1						-.674	
Overq2						-.882	
Overq3r						-.832	
OrgSelf_est1				.693			
OrgSelf_est2				.851			
OrgSelf_est3				.825			
OrgSelf_est4				.800			
OrgCom1		.656					
OrgCom2		.823					
OrgCom3		.810					
OrgCom4		.637					

OrgCom5		.640			
HostCEmb1				.881	
HostCEmb2				.841	
HostCEmb3				.899	
HostCEmb4					.824
HostCEmb5					.818
HostCEmb6					.719
SatJob1			.742		
SatJob2		.424	.650		
SatJob3			.731		
SatJob4r			.816		
SatJob5r			.715		
SatLife1	.847				
SatLife2	.812				
SatLife3	.868				
SatLife4	.770				
SatLife5	.673				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.917	31.847	31.847	8.917	31.847	31.847	3.532	12.615	12.615
2	3.271	11.683	43.530	3.271	11.683	43.530	3.438	12.280	24.895
3	2.397	8.562	52.093	2.397	8.562	52.093	3.395	12.124	37.019
4	1.995	7.126	59.219	1.995	7.126	59.219	3.166	11.308	48.326
5	1.466	5.236	64.454	1.466	5.236	64.454	2.513	8.975	57.301
6	1.296	4.628	69.082	1.296	4.628	69.082	2.407	8.597	65.898
7	1.124	4.014	73.096	1.124	4.014	73.096	2.015	7.197	73.096
8	.758	2.707	75.803						
9	.741	2.645	78.448						
10	.661	2.360	80.809						
11	.591	2.112	82.920						
12	.494	1.763	84.683						
13	.464	1.657	86.340						
14	.436	1.557	87.897						
15	.408	1.456	89.353						
16	.353	1.260	90.613						
17	.331	1.182	91.795						
18	.306	1.094	92.889						
19	.281	1.005	93.894						

20	.270	.963	94.856				
21	.254	.909	95.765				
22	.218	.777	96.542				
23	.204	.729	97.271				
24	.188	.672	97.943				
25	.172	.613	98.557				
26	.159	.569	99.126				
27	.134	.480	99.606				
28	.110	.394	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 35: EFA Results – Independent Variables

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CQ1			.733				
CQ2			.771				
CQ3			.667				
CQ4			.776				
CQ5			.787				
CQ8			.648				
CQ9			.590				
ClimInc1	.732						
ClimInc2	.721						
ClimInc3	.690						
ClimInc4	.693						
ClimInc5	.714						
ClimInc6	.728						
ClimInc7	.771						
ClimInc8	.771						
ClimInc9	.750						
DiversC1		.792					
DiversC2		.853					
DiversC3	.418	.724					
DiversC4		.832					
DiversC5		.720					
SuppW1_G1					.775		
SuppP1_G2					.803		
SuppW1_G3					.764		
SuppP1_G4					.836		
SuppW3_G1							.785
SuppP3_G2							.854
SuppW3_G3							.819

375

SuppP3_G4			.908
SuppW4_G1		.846	
SuppP4_G2		.820	
SuppW4_G3		.847	
SuppP4_G4		.773	
HostCEthn1	.711		
HostCEthn2	.803		
HostCEthn3	.738		
HostCEthn4	.857		
HostCEthn5	.807		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

 Rotation Method: Equamax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.760	25.685	25.685	9.760	25.685	25.685	5.404	14.220	14.220
2	4.410	11.607	37.292	4.410	11.607	37.292	4.002	10.531	24.751
3	3.379	8.892	46.184	3.379	8.892	46.184	3.665	9.645	34.396
4	3.009	7.919	54.103	3.009	7.919	54.103	3.415	8.987	43.382
5	2.375	6.251	60.354	2.375	6.251	60.354	3.203	8.429	51.811
6	1.549	4.077	64.431	1.549	4.077	64.431	3.203	8.428	60.239
7	1.526	4.016	68.447	1.526	4.016	68.447	3.119	8.207	68.447
8	1.023	2.691	71.138						
9	.937	2.467	73.604						
10	.823	2.167	75.771						
11	.722	1.900	77.671						
12	.683	1.796	79.467						
13	.598	1.573	81.040						
14	.539	1.418	82.458						
15	.532	1.401	83.860						
16	.465	1.225	85.085						
17	.455	1.197	86.282						
18	.438	1.153	87.435						
19	.415	1.092	88.527						
20	.394	1.037	89.564						
21	.353	.928	90.492						
22	.331	.871	91.363						
23	.324	.852	92.215						
24	.322	.848	93.063						
25	.289	.760	93.823						
26	.286	.752	94.575						

27	.258	.680	95.255
28	.254	.669	95.924
29	.226	.595	96.519
30	.194	.510	97.029
31	.189	.498	97.527
32	.170	.448	97.975
33	.156	.410	98.385
34	.143	.376	98.761
35	.136	.357	99.118
36	.122	.321	99.439
37	.109	.286	99.725
38	.104	.275	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 36: Descriptive Statistics - Country of Origin Distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Angola	1	.4	.4	.4
Australia	7	2.8	2.8	3.2
Austria	2	.8	.8	4.0
Bangladesh	1	.4	.4	4.3
Belgium	15	5.9	5.9	10.3
Brazil	3	1.2	1.2	11.5
Bulgaria	8	3.2	3.2	14.6
Canada	6	2.4	2.4	17.0
Croatia	1	.4	.4	17.4
Cyprus	1	.4	.4	17.8
Czech Republic	1	.4	.4	18.2
Denmark	1	.4	.4	18.6
Ecuador	1	.4	.4	19.0
Egypt	1	.4	.4	19.4
El Salvador	1	.4	.4	19.8
Estonia	8	3.2	3.2	22.9
France	1	.4	.4	23.3
Germany	31	12.3	12.3	35.6
Ghana	2	.8	.8	36.4
Greece	11	4.3	4.3	40.7
India	2	.8	.8	41.5
Iran	4	1.6	1.6	43.1
Iraq	1	.4	.4	43.5
Ireland	2	.8	.8	44.3
Italy	2	.8	.8	45.1
Japan	1	.4	.4	45.5
Libya	2	.8	.8	46.2
Malaysia	2	.8	.8	47.0
Malta	1	.4	.4	47.4
Mexico	4	1.6	1.6	49.0
Moldova	1	.4	.4	49.4
Morocco	1	.4	.4	49.8
Netherlands	2	.8	.8	50.6
New Zealand	23	9.1	9.1	59.7
Nigeria	3	1.2	1.2	60.9

Norway	10	4.0	4.0	64.8
Philippines	2	.8	.8	65.6
Poland	1	.4	.4	66.0
Portugal	8	3.2	3.2	69.2
Serbia	1	.4	.4	69.6
Singapore	1	.4	.4	70.0
South Africa	35	13.8	13.8	83.8
Sri Lanka	2	.8	.8	84.6
Sweden	2	.8	.8	85.4
Taiwan	1	.4	.4	85.8
Turkey	2	.8	.8	86.6
United States	34	13.4	13.4	100.0
Total	253	100.0	100.0	

Appendix 37: EU State Membership versus Non-membership

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Non-EU	145	57.3	57.3	57.3
EU	108	42.7	42.7	100.0
Total	253	100.0	100.0	

Appendix 38 – EU state Membership versus Non-Membership
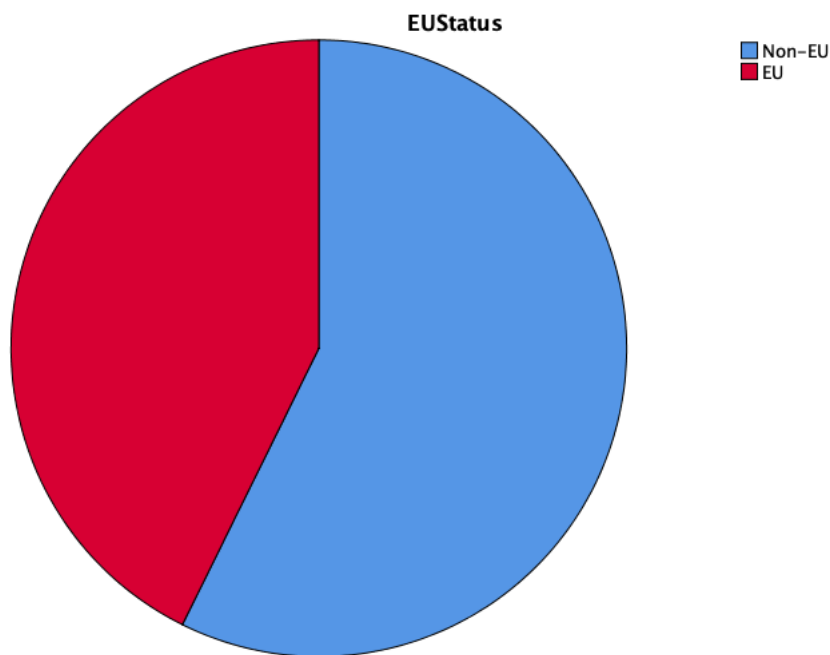
Appendix 39: Participant Gender Distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	176	69.6	69.6	69.6

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	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	75	29.6	29.6	99.2
Prefer not to disclose	2	.8	.8	100.0
Total	253	100.0	100.0	

Appendix 40: Participant Gender Split
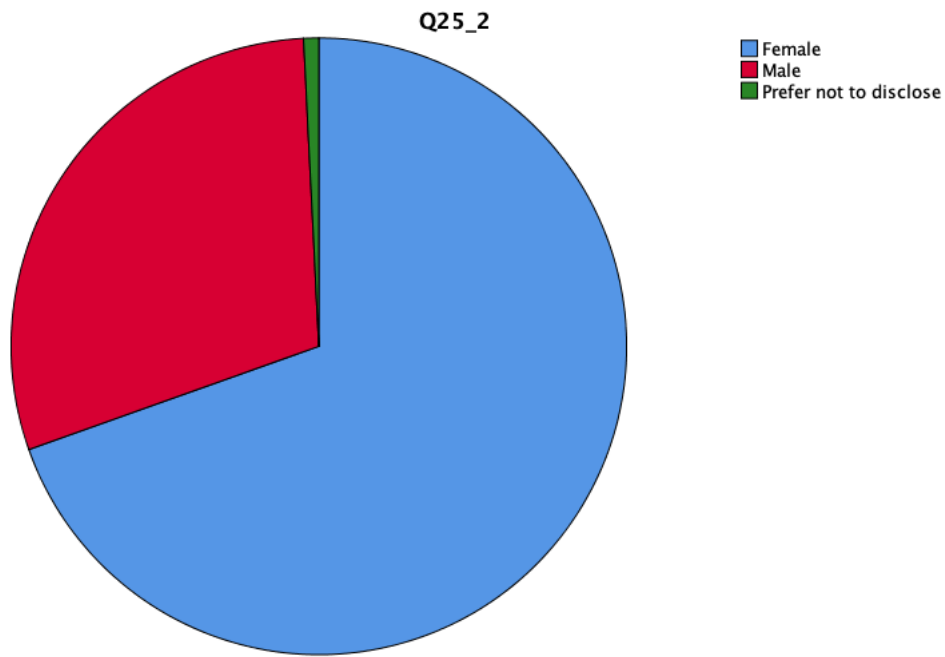
Appendix 41 – Primary Intention to Stay Distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
No	86	34.0	34.0	34.0
Yes	117	46.2	46.2	80.2
I don't know	50	19.8	19.8	100.0
Total	253	100.0	100.0	

Appendix 42: Structural Equation Modelling with IBM SPSS AMOS – Model 1a Results

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
CorCulture	<---	Meso	1.000				

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			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P Label
SocialSup	<---	Meso	.432	.108	4.003	***
mtSocialSupport_Cw	<---	SocialSup	1.804	.411	4.390	***
mtSocialSupport_Fri	<---	SocialSup	1.000			
mtCI	<---	CorCulture	1.412	.125	11.299	***
mtDC	<---	CorCulture	1.000			
mtSatJob	<---	Meso	.938	.137	6.852	***
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Meso	.905	.130	6.942	***
mtOverq	<---	Meso	-.864	.162	-5.323	***
mtOrgCom	<---	Meso	1.089	.147	7.414	***
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Meso	.440	.151	2.922	.003
mtSatLife	<---	Meso	.486	.109	4.468	***
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtCQNEW	.183	.074	2.464	.014
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.132	.067	-1.967	.049
mtOverq	<---	mtHostCEthn	.141	.067	2.107	.035
mtSatJob	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.070	.044	-1.575	.115
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Meso	.189	.130	1.449	.147
mtSatLife	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.025	.049	-.521	.602
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.104	.074	-1.409	.159
mtOrgCom	<---	mtHostCEthn	.043	.040	1.061	.289
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.026	.041	-.628	.530
mtSatJob	<---	mtCQNEW	.051	.080	.645	.519
mtOverq	<---	mtCQNEW	.154	.121	1.275	.202
mtOrgCom	<---	mtCQNEW	.063	.073	.862	.389
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtCQNEW	.001	.134	.005	.996
mtSatLife	<---	mtCQNEW	.125	.088	1.422	.155
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtCQNEW	.135	.121	1.112	.266
mtSatJob	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.316	.394	-.801	.423
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.565	.367	-1.538	.124
mtOverq	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	1.404	.599	2.345	.019
mtOrgCom	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.152	.360	-.422	.673
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	2.422	.661	3.663	***
mtSatLife	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.061	.435	-.140	.889
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.084	.599	-.140	.888
mtSatJob	<---	TimeinCounRes	.000	.006	-.028	.977
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	TimeinCounRes	.007	.006	1.196	.232
mtOverq	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.009	.009	-.930	.353
mtOrgCom	<---	TimeinCounRes	.006	.006	1.105	.269
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	TimeinCounRes	.004	.010	.425	.671
mtSatLife	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.006	.007	-.945	.345
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	TimeinCounRes	.018	.009	1.977	.048
mtSatJob	<---	Q25_1	.012	.005	2.325	.020

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P Label
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Q25_1	.007	.005	1.441	.150
mtOverq	<---	Q25_1	-.008	.008	-.966	.334
mtOrgCom	<---	Q25_1	.004	.005	.790	.430
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Q25_1	-.005	.009	-.590	.555
mtSatLife	<---	Q25_1	.004	.006	.704	.481
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Q25_1	-.014	.008	-1.708	.088
mtSatJob	<---	Count_Numb	-.049	.047	-1.053	.292
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Count_Numb	-.044	.044	-1.000	.317
mtOverq	<---	Count_Numb	.093	.071	1.309	.191
mtOrgCom	<---	Count_Numb	-.014	.043	-.322	.748
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Count_Numb	-.089	.079	-1.137	.256
mtSatLife	<---	Count_Numb	-.113	.052	-2.184	.029
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Count_Numb	-.084	.071	-1.174	.240

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
CorCulture	<---	Meso	.928
SocialSup	<---	Meso	.619
mtSocialSupport_Cw	<---	SocialSup	.839
mtSocialSupport_Fri	<---	SocialSup	.466
mtCI	<---	CorCulture	.915
mtDC	<---	CorCulture	.731
mtSatJob	<---	Meso	.666
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Meso	.677
mtOverq	<---	Meso	-.448
mtOrgCom	<---	Meso	.779
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Meso	.222
mtSatLife	<---	Meso	.363
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtCQNEW	.124
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.122
mtOverq	<---	mtHostCEthn	.119
mtSatJob	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.080
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Meso	.107
mtSatLife	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.031
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.085
mtOrgCom	<---	mtHostCEthn	.050
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.031
mtSatJob	<---	mtCQNEW	.033
mtOverq	<---	mtCQNEW	.072
mtOrgCom	<---	mtCQNEW	.041
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtCQNEW	.000
mtSatLife	<---	mtCQNEW	.084

			Estimate
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtCQNEW	.069
mtSatJob	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.041
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.077
mtOverq	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.132
mtOrgCom	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.020
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.222
mtSatLife	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.008
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.009
mtSatJob	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.002
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	TimeinCounRes	.070
mtOverq	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.061
mtOrgCom	<---	TimeinCounRes	.060
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	TimeinCounRes	.030
mtSatLife	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.065
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	TimeinCounRes	.143
mtSatJob	<---	Q25_1	.137
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Q25_1	.083
mtOverq	<---	Q25_1	-.063
mtOrgCom	<---	Q25_1	.043
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Q25_1	-.041
mtSatLife	<---	Q25_1	.048
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Q25_1	-.122
mtSatJob	<---	Count_Numb	-.054
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Count_Numb	-.050
mtOverq	<---	Count_Numb	.074
mtOrgCom	<---	Count_Numb	-.015
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Count_Numb	-.069
mtSatLife	<---	Count_Numb	-.130
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Count_Numb	-.073

Appendix 43: Structural Equation Modelling with IBM SPSS AMOS – Model 1b Results - Acculturation

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
CorCulture	<---	Meso	1.000				
SocialSup	<---	Meso	.455	.109	4.192	***	
Host	<---	mtCQNEW	.383	.085	4.530	***	
Host	<---	Meso	.059	.088	.672	.501	
Host	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.248	.047	-5.247	***	
			382				

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P Label
Host	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.023	.407	.056	.955
Home	<---	mtCQNEW	-.058	.095	-.605	.545
Home	<---	Meso	.104	.103	1.006	.315
Home	<---	mtHostCEthn	.111	.053	2.082	.037
Home	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.224	.470	.476	.634
Host	<---	Q25_1	-.002	.005	-.325	.745
Host	<---	TimeinCounRes	.020	.006	3.153	.002
Home	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.008	.007	-1.151	.250
Home	<---	Q25_1	-.007	.006	-1.141	.254
Host	<---	Count_Numb	-.315	.051	-6.183	***
Home	<---	Count_Numb	-.079	.056	-1.412	.158
mtSocialSupport_Cw	<---	SocialSup	1.741	.380	4.579	***
mtSocialSupport_Fri	<---	SocialSup	1.000			
mtCI	<---	CorCulture	1.404	.124	11.315	***
mtDC	<---	CorCulture	1.000			
Idenhost1	<---	Host	1.000			
Idenhost2	<---	Host	1.217	.087	13.953	***
Idenhost3	<---	Host	.817	.077	10.583	***
Idenhome3	<---	Home	1.000			
Idenhome2	<---	Home	1.317	.101	13.056	***
Idenhome1	<---	Home	1.220	.094	12.946	***
mtSatJob	<---	Host	-.052	.075	-.688	.492
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Host	.054	.070	.782	.434
mtOverq	<---	Host	.174	.119	1.467	.142
mtOrgCom	<---	Host	.077	.074	1.045	.296
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Host	.557	.382	1.457	.145
mtSatLife	<---	Host	.217	.085	2.534	.011
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Host	1.557	.337	4.615	***
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Home	-.723	.261	-2.773	.006
mtSatLife	<---	Home	-.010	.066	-.143	.886
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Home	-.845	.303	-2.789	.005
mtOrgCom	<---	Home	-.005	.059	-.085	.932
mtOverq	<---	Home	.083	.093	.884	.377
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Home	-.055	.059	-.927	.354
mtSatJob	<---	Home	-.094	.064	-1.475	.140
mtSatJob	<---	Meso	.987	.142	6.945	***
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Meso	.921	.132	6.971	***
mtOverq	<---	Meso	-.908	.167	-5.439	***
mtOrgCom	<---	Meso	1.104	.148	7.436	***
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Meso	1.393	.454	3.070	.002
mtSatLife	<---	Meso	.484	.109	4.438	***

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P Label
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Meso	.553	.372	1.486	.137
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtHostCEthn	.045	.203	.223	.823
mtSatLife	<---	mtHostCEthn	.041	.051	.804	.422
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.061	.234	-.259	.795
mtOrgCom	<---	mtHostCEthn	.084	.037	2.242	.025
mtOverq	<---	mtHostCEthn	.149	.070	2.114	.034
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	7.510	1.935	3.882	***
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.354	1.668	-.212	.832
mtSatLife	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.018	.425	-.043	.965
mtOrgCom	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.068	.341	-.201	.841
mtOverq	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	1.290	.582	2.217	.027
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.484	.355	-1.364	.173
mtSatJob	<---	Count_Numb	-.074	.054	-1.386	.166
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtCQNEW	.158	.078	2.014	.044
mtOverq	<---	Q25_1	-.007	.008	-.834	.404
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Count_Numb	-.030	.050	-.597	.551
mtOverq	<---	Count_Numb	.155	.081	1.902	.057
mtOrgCom	<---	Count_Numb	.011	.049	.214	.831
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Count_Numb	-.159	.263	-.604	.546
mtSatLife	<---	Count_Numb	-.045	.058	-.774	.439
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Count_Numb	.188	.228	.826	.409
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	TimeinCounRes	.017	.027	.640	.522
mtSatLife	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.011	.007	-1.576	.115
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.005	.031	-.168	.867
mtOrgCom	<---	TimeinCounRes	.005	.006	.791	.429
mtOverq	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.011	.009	-1.196	.232
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	TimeinCounRes	.005	.006	.871	.384
mtSatJob	<---	TimeinCounRes	.000	.006	.046	.963
mtSatJob	<---	Q25_1	.011	.005	2.038	.042
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Q25_1	.007	.005	1.389	.165
mtOrgCom	<---	Q25_1	.004	.005	.787	.431
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Q25_1	-.020	.026	-.785	.433
mtSatLife	<---	Q25_1	.004	.006	.754	.451
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Q25_1	-.044	.022	-1.960	.050
mtSatJob	<---	mtCQNEW	.050	.085	.585	.559
mtOverq	<---	mtCQNEW	.102	.128	.795	.427
mtOrgCom	<---	mtCQNEW	.027	.078	.342	.732
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtCQNEW	-.267	.416	-.641	.521
mtSatLife	<---	mtCQNEW	.041	.092	.449	.654
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtCQNEW	-.199	.360	-.552	.581

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
CorCulture	<---	Meso	.920
SocialSup	<---	Meso	.635
Host	<---	mtCQNEW	.264
Host	<---	Meso	.045
Host	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.307
Host	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.003
Home	<---	mtCQNEW	-.039
Home	<---	Meso	.078
Home	<---	mtHostCEthn	.136
Home	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.031
Host	<---	Q25_1	-.021
Host	<---	TimeinCounRes	.210
Home	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.087
Home	<---	Q25_1	-.085
Host	<---	Count_Numb	-.370
Home	<---	Count_Numb	-.092
mtSocialSupport_Cw	<---	SocialSup	.824
mtSocialSupport_Fri	<---	SocialSup	.474
mtCI	<---	CorCulture	.913
mtDC	<---	CorCulture	.733
Idenhost1	<---	Host	.796
Idenhost2	<---	Host	.900
Idenhost3	<---	Host	.658
Idenhome3	<---	Home	.711
Idenhome2	<---	Home	.919
Idenhome1	<---	Home	.877
mtSatJob	<---	Host	-.048
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Host	.054
mtOverq	<---	Host	.119
mtOrgCom	<---	Host	.072
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Host	.123
mtSatLife	<---	Host	.212
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Host	.388
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Home	-.182
mtSatLife	<---	Home	-.009
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Home	-.188
mtOrgCom	<---	Home	-.005
mtOverq	<---	Home	.057
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Home	-.054
mtSatJob	<---	Home	-.088
mtSatJob	<---	Meso	.691
			385

			Estimate
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Meso	.685
mtOverq	<---	Meso	-.468
mtOrgCom	<---	Meso	.780
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Meso	.232
mtSatLife	<---	Meso	.359
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Meso	.104
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtHostCEthn	.014
mtSatLife	<---	mtHostCEthn	.050
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.017
mtOrgCom	<---	mtHostCEthn	.096
mtOverq	<---	mtHostCEthn	.126
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.229
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.012
mtSatLife	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.002
mtOrgCom	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.009
mtOverq	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.122
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.066
mtSatJob	<---	Count_Numb	-.081
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtCQNEW	.107
mtOverq	<---	Q25_1	-.055
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Count_Numb	-.034
mtOverq	<---	Count_Numb	.124
mtOrgCom	<---	Count_Numb	.012
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Count_Numb	-.041
mtSatLife	<---	Count_Numb	-.052
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Count_Numb	.055
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	TimeinCounRes	.044
mtSatLife	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.110
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.012
mtOrgCom	<---	TimeinCounRes	.044
mtOverq	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.081
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	TimeinCounRes	.052
mtSatJob	<---	TimeinCounRes	.003
mtSatJob	<---	Q25_1	.121
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Q25_1	.081
mtOrgCom	<---	Q25_1	.043
tHostCEmbCAR	<---	Q25_1	-.054
mtSatLife	<---	Q25_1	.051
tHostCEmbCOM	<---	Q25_1	-.131
mtSatJob	<---	mtCQNEW	.032
mtOverq	<---	mtCQNEW	.048

		Estimate			
mtOrgCom	<--- mtCQNEW	.017			
tHostCEmbCAR	<--- mtCQNEW	-.041			
mtSatLife	<--- mtCQNEW	.028			
tHostCEmbCOM	<--- mtCQNEW	-.034			

Appendix 44: Structural Equation Modelling with IBM SPSS AMOS – Model 1c Results - Adjustment

Regression Weights: (All - Default model)

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P Label
CorCulture	<--- Meso	1.000			
SocialSup	<--- Meso	.455	.111	4.111	***
mtRoleAdW	<--- mtCQNEW	.123	.067	1.838	.066
mtRoleAdF	<--- mtCQNEW	-.113	.110	-1.029	.303
mtRoleAdW	<--- Meso	.642	.105	6.136	***
mtRoleAdF	<--- Meso	.342	.126	2.713	.007
mtRoleAdF	<--- mtHostCEthn	.055	.061	.899	.368
mtRoleAdW	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.081	.037	-2.189	.029
mtRoleAdF	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	1.170	.542	2.157	.031
mtRoleAdW	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	.459	.331	1.388	.165
mtRoleAdW	<--- Count_Numb	-.023	.039	-.587	.557
mtRoleAdF	<--- Count_Numb	-.162	.064	-2.514	.012
mtRoleAdW	<--- TimeinCounRes	-.002	.005	-.386	.700
mtRoleAdF	<--- TimeinCounRes	-.004	.008	-.478	.633
mtRoleAdW	<--- Q25_1	.007	.004	1.634	.102
mtRoleAdF	<--- Q25_1	.008	.007	1.068	.286
mtSocialSupport_Cw	<--- SocialSup	1.817	.404	4.501	***
mtSocialSupport_Fri	<--- SocialSup	1.000			
mtCI	<--- CorCulture	1.393	.124	11.202	***
mtDC	<--- CorCulture	1.000			
mtSatJob	<--- mtRoleAdW	.232	.103	2.259	.024
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- mtRoleAdW	.098	.102	.960	.337
mtOverq	<--- mtRoleAdW	.135	.154	.880	.379
mtOrgCom	<--- mtRoleAdW	.034	.112	.305	.761
mtHostCEmbCAR	<--- mtRoleAdW	.002	.155	.013	.990
mtSatLife	<--- mtRoleAdW	-.051	.097	-.525	.600
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- mtRoleAdF	.105	.080	1.309	.191
mtSatLife	<--- mtRoleAdF	.336	.053	6.322	***
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.143	.068	-2.112	.035
mtSatLife	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.042	.045	-.919	.358
mtSatJob	<--- Meso	.869	.173	5.022	***
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- Meso	.916	.176	5.210	***

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P Label
mtOverq	<---	Meso	-1.042	.242	-4.303	***
mtOrgCom	<---	Meso	1.167	.205	5.683	***
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Meso	.484	.217	2.229	.026
mtSatLife	<---	Meso	.471	.142	3.310	***
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Meso	.272	.189	1.439	.150
mtSatJob	<---	mtCQNEW	.007	.077	.085	.932
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtCQNEW	.159	.074	2.132	.033
mtOverq	<---	mtCQNEW	.152	.124	1.232	.218
mtOrgCom	<---	mtCQNEW	.040	.074	.539	.590
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtCQNEW	-.007	.135	-.050	.960
mtSatLife	<---	mtCQNEW	.163	.082	2.000	.046
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtCQNEW	.158	.122	1.291	.197
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.143	.608	-.235	.814
mtSatLife	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.411	.407	-1.008	.313
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	2.492	.674	3.696	***
mtOrgCom	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.017	.371	-.046	.963
mtOverq	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	1.215	.616	1.973	.048
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.523	.371	-1.410	.159
mtSatJob	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.358	.384	-.934	.351
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.100	.075	-1.329	.184
mtOrgCom	<---	mtHostCEthn	.055	.041	1.327	.184
mtOverq	<---	mtHostCEthn	.144	.069	2.092	.036
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.012	.041	-.278	.781
mtSatJob	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.044	.043	-1.036	.300
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.038	.089	-.423	.672
mtOrgCom	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.084	.052	-1.627	.104
mtOverq	<---	mtRoleAdF	.072	.083	.864	.388
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.038	.051	-.739	.460
mtSatJob	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.038	.052	-.733	.464
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtRoleAdW	-.120	.138	-.874	.382
mtSatLife	<---	Count_Numb	-.057	.048	-1.177	.239
mtSatJob	<---	TimeinCounRes	.001	.006	.087	.931
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	TimeinCounRes	.007	.006	1.222	.222
mtOverq	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.008	.009	-.856	.392
mtOrgCom	<---	TimeinCounRes	.006	.006	1.058	.290
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	TimeinCounRes	.004	.010	.406	.685
mtSatLife	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.005	.006	-.845	.398
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	TimeinCounRes	.018	.009	1.991	.046
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Q25_1	-.013	.008	-1.666	.096
mtSatLife	<---	Q25_1	.002	.005	.399	.690
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Q25_1	-.005	.009	-.541	.588

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
mtOrgCom	<--- Q25_1	.005	.005	.931	.352	
mtOverq	<--- Q25_1	-.010	.008	-1.174	.240	
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- Q25_1	.007	.005	1.418	.156	
mtSatJob	<--- Q25_1	.011	.005	2.118	.034	
mtSatJob	<--- Count_Numb	-.048	.045	-1.050	.294	
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- Count_Numb	-.045	.044	-1.025	.305	
mtOverq	<--- Count_Numb	.106	.073	1.446	.148	
mtOrgCom	<--- Count_Numb	-.024	.044	-.544	.586	
mtHostCEmbCAR	<--- Count_Numb	-.094	.080	-1.172	.241	
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- Count_Numb	-.068	.072	-.938	.348	

Standardized Regression Weights: (All - Default model)

		Estimate
CorCulture	<--- Meso	.892
SocialSup	<--- Meso	.629
mtRoleAdW	<--- mtCQNEW	.101
mtRoleAdF	<--- mtCQNEW	-.066
mtRoleAdW	<--- Meso	.562
mtRoleAdF	<--- Meso	.214
mtRoleAdF	<--- mtHostCEthn	.058
mtRoleAdW	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.120
mtRoleAdF	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	.138
mtRoleAdW	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	.076
mtRoleAdW	<--- Count_Numb	-.032
mtRoleAdF	<--- Count_Numb	-.162
mtRoleAdW	<--- TimeinCounRes	-.025
mtRoleAdF	<--- TimeinCounRes	-.036
mtRoleAdW	<--- Q25_1	.103
mtRoleAdF	<--- Q25_1	.079
mtSocialSupport_Cw	<--- SocialSup	.842
mtSocialSupport_Fri	<--- SocialSup	.464
mtCI	<--- CorCulture	.908
mtDC	<--- CorCulture	.734
mtSatJob	<--- mtRoleAdW	.182
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- mtRoleAdW	.081
mtOverq	<--- mtRoleAdW	.077
mtOrgCom	<--- mtRoleAdW	.027
mtHostCEmbCAR	<--- mtRoleAdW	.001
mtSatLife	<--- mtRoleAdW	-.042
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- mtRoleAdF	.092
mtSatLife	<--- mtRoleAdF	.386
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.132

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			Estimate
mtSatLife	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.051
mtSatJob	<---	Meso	.596
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Meso	.660
mtOverq	<---	Meso	-.520
mtOrgCom	<---	Meso	.802
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Meso	.235
mtSatLife	<---	Meso	.338
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Meso	.149
mtSatJob	<---	mtCQNEW	.004
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtCQNEW	.107
mtOverq	<---	mtCQNEW	.071
mtOrgCom	<---	mtCQNEW	.026
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtCQNEW	-.003
mtSatLife	<---	mtCQNEW	.110
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtCQNEW	.081
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.015
mtSatLife	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.056
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.228
mtOrgCom	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.002
mtOverq	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.115
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.071
mtSatJob	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.046
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.082
mtOrgCom	<---	mtHostCEthn	.064
mtOverq	<---	mtHostCEthn	.121
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.014
mtSatJob	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.051
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.029
mtOrgCom	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.092
mtOverq	<---	mtRoleAdF	.057
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.043
mtSatJob	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.042
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtRoleAdW	-.075
mtSatLife	<---	Count_Numb	-.065
mtSatJob	<---	TimeinCounRes	.005
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	TimeinCounRes	.070
mtOverq	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.057
mtOrgCom	<---	TimeinCounRes	.058
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	TimeinCounRes	.029
mtSatLife	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.053
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	TimeinCounRes	.143

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			Estimate
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Q25_1	-.120
mtSatLife	<---	Q25_1	.025
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Q25_1	-.038
mtOrgCom	<---	Q25_1	.051
mtOverq	<---	Q25_1	-.078
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Q25_1	.082
mtSatJob	<---	Q25_1	.121
mtSatJob	<---	Count_Numb	-.052
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Count_Numb	-.052
mtOverq	<---	Count_Numb	.084
mtOrgCom	<---	Count_Numb	-.026
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Count_Numb	-.073
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Count_Numb	-.059

Regression Weights: (Family - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
CorCulture	<---	Meso	1.000				
SocialSup	<---	Meso	.375	.110	3.402	***	
mtRoleAdW	<---	mtCQNEW	.099	.071	1.408	.159	
mtRoleAdF	<---	mtCQNEW	-.110	.108	-1.014	.310	
mtRoleAdW	<---	Meso	.582	.104	5.575	***	
mtRoleAdF	<---	Meso	.292	.119	2.452	.014	
mtRoleAdF	<---	mtHostCEthn	.052	.060	.871	.384	
mtRoleAdW	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.068	.039	-1.744	.081	
mtRoleAdF	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	1.192	.542	2.197	.028	
mtRoleAdW	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.489	.354	1.383	.167	
mtRoleAdW	<---	Count_Numb	.001	.046	.012	.991	
mtRoleAdF	<---	Count_Numb	-.168	.070	-2.384	.017	
mtRoleAdW	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.002	.005	-.376	.707	
mtRoleAdF	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.004	.008	-.518	.604	
mtRoleAdW	<---	Q25_1	.008	.005	1.773	.076	
mtRoleAdF	<---	Q25_1	.006	.007	.880	.379	
mtSocialSupport_Cw	<---	SocialSup	1.985	.537	3.696	***	
mtSocialSupport_Fri	<---	SocialSup	1.000				
mtCI	<---	CorCulture	1.331	.121	11.002	***	
mtDC	<---	CorCulture	1.000				
mtSatJob	<---	mtRoleAdW	.264	.107	2.464	.014	
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtRoleAdW	.149	.104	1.440	.150	
mtOverq	<---	mtRoleAdW	.096	.157	.610	.542	

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
mtOrgCom	<--- mtRoleAdW	.073	.115	.637	.524	
mtHostCEmbCAR	<--- mtRoleAdW	.082	.158	.520	.603	
mtSatLife	<--- mtRoleAdW	.001	.094	.013	.990	
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- mtRoleAdF	.098	.080	1.220	.222	
mtSatLife	<--- mtRoleAdF	.323	.053	6.122	***	
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.157	.069	-2.270	.023	
mtSatLife	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.046	.046	-1.009	.313	
mtSatJob	<--- Meso	.823	.173	4.751	***	
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- Meso	.841	.171	4.911	***	
mtOverq	<--- Meso	-.932	.234	-3.989	***	
mtOrgCom	<--- Meso	1.057	.201	5.264	***	
mtHostCEmbCAR	<--- Meso	.441	.209	2.109	.035	
mtSatLife	<--- Meso	.380	.130	2.922	.003	
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- Meso	.143	.177	.810	.418	
mtSatJob	<--- mtCQNEW	.019	.080	.237	.813	
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- mtCQNEW	.169	.076	2.228	.026	
mtOverq	<--- mtCQNEW	.171	.128	1.335	.182	
mtOrgCom	<--- mtCQNEW	.032	.077	.412	.681	
mtHostCEmbCAR	<--- mtCQNEW	.086	.140	.618	.537	
mtSatLife	<--- mtCQNEW	.165	.082	2.024	.043	
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- mtCQNEW	.213	.125	1.713	.087	
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	-.166	.631	-.264	.792	
mtSatLife	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	-.384	.414	-.926	.354	
mtHostCEmbCAR	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	2.526	.709	3.565	***	
mtOrgCom	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	.042	.394	.107	.915	
mtOverq	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	1.301	.649	2.004	.045	
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	-.606	.384	-1.578	.115	
mtSatJob	<--- UNDevIndexDifFig	-.337	.408	-.825	.409	
mtHostCEmbCAR	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.111	.078	-1.425	.154	
mtOrgCom	<--- mtHostCEthn	.066	.043	1.536	.125	
mtOverq	<--- mtHostCEthn	.164	.071	2.304	.021	
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.014	.042	-.329	.742	
mtSatJob	<--- mtHostCEthn	-.051	.045	-1.137	.255	
mtHostCEmbCAR	<--- mtRoleAdF	-.044	.090	-.484	.628	
mtOrgCom	<--- mtRoleAdF	-.084	.053	-1.596	.111	
mtOverq	<--- mtRoleAdF	.078	.084	.927	.354	
mtOrgSelf_est	<--- mtRoleAdF	-.029	.051	-.574	.566	
mtSatJob	<--- mtRoleAdF	-.037	.053	-.684	.494	
mtHostCEmbCOM	<--- mtRoleAdW	-.054	.138	-.392	.695	
mtSatLife	<--- Count_Numb	-.065	.053	-1.224	.221	
mtSatJob	<--- TimeinCounRes	.003	.006	.563	.573	

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P Label
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	TimeinCounRes	.007	.006	1.268	.205
mtOverq	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.008	.010	-.795	.427
mtOrgCom	<---	TimeinCounRes	.008	.006	1.350	.177
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.001	.011	-.047	.963
mtSatLife	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.006	.006	-.914	.361
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	TimeinCounRes	.015	.010	1.544	.122
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Q25_1	-.017	.008	-2.093	.036
mtSatLife	<---	Q25_1	-.001	.005	-.116	.908
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Q25_1	-.008	.009	-.893	.372
mtOrgCom	<---	Q25_1	.006	.005	1.090	.276
mtOverq	<---	Q25_1	-.009	.008	-1.038	.299
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Q25_1	.006	.005	1.236	.216
mtSatJob	<---	Q25_1	.012	.005	2.212	.027
mtSatJob	<---	Count_Numb	-.054	.052	-1.023	.306
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Count_Numb	-.054	.049	-1.084	.278
mtOverq	<---	Count_Numb	.090	.084	1.080	.280
mtOrgCom	<---	Count_Numb	-.026	.051	-.516	.606
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Count_Numb	-.041	.091	-.447	.655
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Count_Numb	-.048	.081	-.588	.557

Standardized Regression Weights: (Family - Default model)

			Estimate
CorCulture	<---	Meso	.905
SocialSup	<---	Meso	.577
mtRoleAdW	<---	mtCQNEW	.083
mtRoleAdF	<---	mtCQNEW	-.066
mtRoleAdW	<---	Meso	.539
mtRoleAdF	<---	Meso	.196
mtRoleAdF	<---	mtHostCEthn	.057
mtRoleAdW	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.102
mtRoleAdF	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.143
mtRoleAdW	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.081
mtRoleAdW	<---	Count_Numb	.001
mtRoleAdF	<---	Count_Numb	-.156
mtRoleAdW	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.025
mtRoleAdF	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.038
mtRoleAdW	<---	Q25_1	.116
mtRoleAdF	<---	Q25_1	.064
mtSocialSupport_Cw	<---	SocialSup	.867
mtSocialSupport_Fri	<---	SocialSup	.441
mtCI	<---	CorCulture	.902
mtDC	<---	CorCulture	.756

			Estimate
mtSatJob	<---	mtRoleAdW	.202
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtRoleAdW	.123
mtOverq	<---	mtRoleAdW	.055
mtOrgCom	<---	mtRoleAdW	.057
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtRoleAdW	.045
mtSatLife	<---	mtRoleAdW	.001
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtRoleAdF	.086
mtSatLife	<---	mtRoleAdF	.379
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.149
mtSatLife	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.058
mtSatJob	<---	Meso	.585
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Meso	.641
mtOverq	<---	Meso	-.493
mtOrgCom	<---	Meso	.765
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Meso	.226
mtSatLife	<---	Meso	.299
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Meso	.084
mtSatJob	<---	mtCQNEW	.012
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtCQNEW	.116
mtOverq	<---	mtCQNEW	.082
mtOrgCom	<---	mtCQNEW	.021
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtCQNEW	.040
mtSatLife	<---	mtCQNEW	.118
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtCQNEW	.113
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.017
mtSatLife	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.054
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.232
mtOrgCom	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.005
mtOverq	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	.123
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.083
mtSatJob	<---	UNDevIndexDifFig	-.043
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.092
mtOrgCom	<---	mtHostCEthn	.078
mtOverq	<---	mtHostCEthn	.140
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.017
mtSatJob	<---	mtHostCEthn	-.058
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.033
mtOrgCom	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.091
mtOverq	<---	mtRoleAdF	.061
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.033
mtSatJob	<---	mtRoleAdF	-.039

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			Estimate
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	mtRoleAdW	-.034
mtSatLife	<---	Count_Numb	-.071
mtSatJob	<---	TimeinCounRes	.032
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	TimeinCounRes	.073
mtOverq	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.054
mtOrgCom	<---	TimeinCounRes	.075
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.003
mtSatLife	<---	TimeinCounRes	-.059
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	TimeinCounRes	.112
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Q25_1	-.153
mtSatLife	<---	Q25_1	-.007
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Q25_1	-.064
mtOrgCom	<---	Q25_1	.062
mtOverq	<---	Q25_1	-.071
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Q25_1	.072
mtSatJob	<---	Q25_1	.127
mtSatJob	<---	Count_Numb	-.053
mtOrgSelf_est	<---	Count_Numb	-.057
mtOverq	<---	Count_Numb	.066
mtOrgCom	<---	Count_Numb	-.026
mtHostCEmbCAR	<---	Count_Numb	-.029
mtHostCEmbCOM	<---	Count_Numb	-.039

Appendix 45: Distribution of English Language Proficiency (ELP)

Histogram

Mean = 4.83
Std. Dev. = .404
N = 253