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**Exploration of the relationship between cosmopolitanism and
expatriate effectiveness**

Does cosmopolitanism as a state of mind favor satisfaction and success on
international assignments?

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CHAPTER 1. Introduction

1.1 Context

Over the years, the traditional barriers keeping populations apart from each other have been progressively disappearing. Besides its macro dimension, globalization affects individuals' everyday life worldwide. As a matter of fact, people are undeniably traveling faster, further and more frequently than ever. The world has become a large village and imposes no boundaries to ambitious global-minded professionals. We can observe that more and more individuals claim to be “citizens of the world” rather than from their native country. Evidence of this trend can be observed by focusing on university students' aspirations: countless management students dream of traveling and wish to lead a hectic life full of international experiences and exceptional encounters. More than ever, the ideal career path is internationally oriented.

In the world of business, globalization reinforces the struggle of companies to keep successful on the global market. One of the most common strategies used for this purpose is the relocation of some employees. The performance of these workers, called expatriates, is critical for companies, and their management deserves priority attention.

Hence, we can note a convergence of internationally-oriented individuals' ambitions and multinational companies' needs. However, we wish to investigate the extent to which the two trends can be complementary, or in other words, whether the hiring of internationally-oriented individuals benefits to multinational companies. Do these self-claimed “citizen of the world” construct an ideal life project without realizing the difficulties associated to expatriation, or does their intrinsic motivation to work abroad allow them to be more successful than others on international assignments?

1.2 Statement of the problem

The importance of stable traits and dynamic competencies as predictors of expatriate performance have been largely studied in previous literature. Despite evidence that these individual characteristics should be considered seriously, researchers claim that numerous companies still primarily base expatriate selection on technical skills and expatriation

willingness. We believe that the abundance of articles on the topic as well as the differences between research findings make the whole image unclear.

We presume that numerous traits and competences identified as predictors of adjustment and performance can be associated under one unique individual profile: the cosmopolitan. Indeed, cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness have been developed independently in previous literature, although they seem strongly related. In our vision, the cosmopolitan profile has the ability to constitute a serious asset for expatriate selection. Our purpose is to study the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness, with the intuition that cosmopolitan expatriates should be more successful on international assignments than others.

1.3 Introduction to expatriation

Since this paper is about expatriate performance, we think that it is necessary to introduce expatriation before going further.

An expatriate is defined as “*a temporary migrant who is sent to reside overseas to complete an assignment before returning to his or her home country*” (Cohen, as cited in Feitosa, Kreutzer, Kramperth, Kramer & Salas, 2014, p.135). Multinationals often send some of their high level executive overseas to manage the operations of a foreign subsidiary. These managers are responsible for “*transferring technologies, overseeing operational start-ups, managing joint ventures, transmitting organizational culture, penetrating new markets and developing international communication skills*” (Bennett, Aston & Coquhoun, as cited in Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley & Riedel, 2006, p.357). Although expatriation is a commonly used human resource practice, there are still many unsuccessful expatriates, who are costly to companies.

In the course of our readings, we often came along the distinction between self-initiated expatriates and company-backed expatriates. Self-initiated expatriates are defined as “*people who, on their own volition and initiative, seek and find work overseas*” (Froese, 2012, p.1095). On the other hand, company-backed expatriates are “*those employees who are supported by a company to undertake an international assignment*” (Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011,

p.595). Previous literature suggests that a major percentage of expatriates are self-initiated, precisely between 50 and 70 percent of them (Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011). We concern ourselves with both types of expatriates in our study.

In this study, we often use the broad notion “expatriate effectiveness”. These words are used when we consider expatriate performance and expatriate adjustment together. These notions will be defined in the section devoted to their study.

1.4 Motivations

This section presents our managerial, scientific, ethical and societal motivations.

1.4.1 Managerial motivation

Our study aims primarily to contribute to expatriate management, and particularly to expatriate selection. As mentioned earlier, the selection of expatriates is still too often based on individuals’ technical skills. Research on individual characteristics favoring expatriate effectiveness seems to increase the complexity of expatriate selection: from technical competencies to demographic characteristics, from personality traits to international experience or simply willingness to expatriate, researchers have explored a lot of individual factors likely to guarantee expatriation success, and presented divergent findings. We intend to develop a simplified tool to expatriate selection thanks to an existing concept reassembling numerous predictors of expatriate effectiveness: cosmopolitanism.

Secondly, our study aims to contribute to expatriates’ management by facilitating their understanding. This study explores, among others things, cosmopolitan expatriates’ motivations and satisfaction related to their expatriation. If cosmopolitanism is revealed to be beneficial to organizational effectiveness, our study can constitute a useful basis regarding the way international managers should favor the development of cosmopolitan mindsets. Indeed, the need to develop globally competent managers is widely recognized.

1.4.2 Scientific motivation

Cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness seem strongly related, but have been developed independently in previous literature. Our ambition is to demonstrate the utility of their association and to simplify the whole image of individual predictors of expatriate effectiveness. We also intend to deduct from our study some ideas for future research in the field emerging from this new association.

1.4.3 Societal motivation

The disappearance of barriers between countries and populations also involves the increase of multiculturalism within our life and work environments. In such a context, mutual respect and openness to differences are crucial. Our hope is that the cosmopolitan state of mind truly aims cultural diversity and interest for differences. We intend to provide more information about cosmopolitanism in our study and believe that the development of cosmopolitanism among human beings has the potential to facilitate the multicultural co-existence. This subject is more than topical.

1.5 Structure of the study

This study is composed of two main parts. Firstly, the theoretical part, which was established by reviewing the literature, helps our readers to familiarize themselves with our field of research. Secondly, an empirical part, which consists of a data collection and statistical analyses done with SPSS.

The theoretical part takes place in Chapter 2 and provides information about the two concepts that we attempt to associate in this study: cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness. In the section about cosmopolitanism, we attempt to present cosmopolitanism's definition, characteristics, antecedents and nature. We also introduce what has been established in previous literature regarding the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriation willingness. The second section is about expatriate effectiveness and contains information about the cost of failure of expatriates, in order to highlight the importance of expatriate management. This section also focuses on individual predictors of expatriate effectiveness and exposes the current knowledge about the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate

effectiveness. Finally, a small section is dedicated to the introduction of expatriates' satisfaction.

Chapter 3 describes the steps that have been taken during the elaboration of this study, from the formulation of research questions to the end of data collection.

Chapter 4 concerns all our statistical analyses, with the intention of testing our hypotheses.

Finally, Chapter 5 presents a summary of our results, the implications of our study and a last section dedicated to the limitations of our study and ideas for future research.

CHAPTER 2. Literature review

2.1 Cosmopolitanism

2.1.1 Introduction

Cosmopolitanism: this word sounds certainly familiar to you. You may have heard of it or use it from time to time, but it is not sure that you can explain it accurately. Even researchers have difficulty to define this concept. Cosmopolitanism has been drawn from the fields of anthropology and social psychology, and has nowadays growing implications in marketing and management. This concept is at the center of your study.

In the field of human resource, cosmopolitanism has become a desired characteristic of today's global managers. Despite the recognized importance of this individual trait in global leadership and management skills, its potential role in the expatriate context has not been fully examined yet. Cosmopolitanism and expatriation have been developed independently in the literature, although they are obviously related. Indeed, Hannerz (1990) suggested that there is nothing more appropriate than expatriation to be associated with cosmopolitanism. In spite of the fact that a lot of individual characteristics have already been suggested as potential expatriate's success antecedents, we read very few about cosmopolitanism in this context. Therefore, this study aims to study the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriates' effectiveness.

2.1.2 Definition and characteristics of cosmopolitanism

No definition of cosmopolitanism achieved consensus of researchers. The word “*cosmopolitanism*” comes from the Greek “*kosmopolitês*” that can be translated as “*citizens of the world*” (Rizvi, 2005). Used for millennia, the growing interest around this concept led considerable confusion about its meaning. According to Cleveland, Laroche, Takahashi & Erdogan (2014), the term often refers to globalization and urban cultural diversity, or connotes sophisticated tastes and international mobility. By the time of Ancient Greece, people who could be described as cosmopolitans were known to consider humankind more importantly than their own native country. These people were supposed to be open to new cultures, customs and

ideas. Considering that culture is an important concept related to cosmopolitanism, we define it as “*values dimensions that are guiding principles, important life goals and standards which determine social attitudes and ideologies as well as social behavior*” (Triandis, as cited in Cleveland, Erdoğan, Arıkan & Poyraz, 2011, p. 935).

Among all meanings of cosmopolitanism, we choose the one describing cosmopolitanism as an individual characteristic. We believe that cosmopolitan people share common values and interests, or in other words a common state of mind. In this study, we examine expatriates considering themselves as cosmopolitans in the way that “*they are comfortable in many places and able to understand and bridge the differences among them. They move because they find the world attractive, and for them, openness to new experiences is a vocation*” (van Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.1). This definition can be likened to what Delanty (as cited in Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.2) calls “cultural cosmopolitanism”, distinguishing this form of cosmopolitanism from the “moral cosmopolitanism”, which denotes a sense of humanity, and from “political cosmopolitanism”, which designates the emergence of global institutions of power. We complete our definition of cosmopolitanism with a quote from Grinstein & Wathieu (2008): “*Cosmopolitans have the willingness to explore and experience the panoply of transcultural diversity. They consume cultural differences in a reflective manner and do not stand to lose a new and exciting cultural experience.*” (Grinstein & Wathieu, 2008, p.6). Hannerz (1990) specifies that there could not be any cosmopolitans without diversity among people and cultures.

Before going further, we believe that it is important to distinguish the concept of cosmopolitanism from what is known as tourism. Firstly, the core characteristic of tourism is mobility, while someone can be a cosmopolitan without travelling. Secondly, Hannerz (1990) declares that tourists are more spectators than participants. Indeed, unlike the tourist, the cosmopolitan feels equally at home when he is abroad, and wants to immerse himself in other cultures. The tourist may want to involve himself as well, but he is incompetent at it. Despite these differences, Gunesch (2004) declares that the two concepts cannot be considered as opposites. Indeed, a cosmopolitan can be a tourist from time to time and enjoy cultural tourism.

2.1.3 Antecedents of cosmopolitanism

Cosmopolitanism has been and still constitutes a subject of debate, notably regarding its nature. Cleveland, Laroche & Papadopoulos (2009) note that researchers disagree about the constitution of cosmopolitanism: while some argue that it's a learnable skill, other researchers suggest that cosmopolitanism is a personality trait, potentially implicating a predisposition at birth. Our literature review revealed that most authors consider cosmopolitanism as learnable, and as a consequence we decided to study cosmopolitanism as such. Considering the perspective that cosmopolitanism is learnable, we wondered which experiences and skills are likely to predict cosmopolitanism. In our vision, cosmopolitanism is a state of mind involving a set of competences.

Firstly, Hannerz (1990) affirms that people who travel internationally frequently and therefore interact with people from different countries become cosmopolitans. In this sense, Inkson & Myers (2003) agree and suggest that overseas experience is likely to increase cosmopolitanism by increasing global perspective and open-mindedness. Nevertheless, Haa, Held & McLennan (as cited in Cleveland, Laroche, Takahashi & Erdogan, 2014) highlight that cosmopolitanism can nowadays be acquired without foreign traveling, since *"distances have been drastically compressed and people everywhere are more "aware" of the existence of others than ever before"* (Held & McLennan, cited in Cleveland, Laroche, Takahashi & Erdogan, 2014, p.269) thanks to the emergence of global electronic media. An interesting study made by Rizvi (2005) also supports these arguments. By examining the antecedents to students' willingness to study abroad among international students in Australia, the author established that these international students had already a developed "cosmopolitan imaginary" before moving to Australia. Indeed, a lot of them had already travelled overseas and had close relatives or friends who has studied or lived overseas. He supports that this "global imaginary" was also influenced by their exposure to the global media culture.

Secondly, Dewaele & Van Oudenhoven (as cited in Jintae Froese, Jommersbach & Klautzsch, 2013, p.3250) suggest that people who speak numerous languages usually show greater open-mindedness and cultural empathy than others, and as a consequence that foreign language skills are likely to increase an individual's cosmopolitanism.

Cleveland, Laroche & Papadopoulos (2009) have studied the demographic characteristics likely to favor cosmopolitanism. Firstly, Cleveland & al. (2009) establish through their study that nowadays, younger people are more likely to be world-minded, due to their consumption of media enabling global connectivity. Secondly, educated people, thanks to the multicultural environment in which they grow in universities and their greater exposure to outside perspectives, seem to be more cosmopolitans than others. Finally, the authors argue that women are more likely to be cosmopolitan than men, considering that men usually have a stronger predisposition to be self-focused.

Cleveland, Erdoğan, Arıkan, & Poyraz (2011) focused their research on individual and cultural values likely to constitute antecedents of cosmopolitanism. Their results show relevant correlations between cosmopolitanism and a few Schwartz's values, which can be conceptualized as "*the guiding principles in life universally recognized within or across cultures*" (Cleveland & al., 2011, p.936). Indeed, their study shows that cosmopolitanism is positively related to the individual values of universalism, stimulation, benevolence and self-direction. Schwartz (as cited in Cleveland & al., 2011, p.936) defines universalism as "*the tolerance and appreciation for all people, placing importance on equality and justice and the protection of the environment*". Stimulation designates "*prominence of seeking pleasure from daring and novel experiences*" (Cleveland & al., 2011, p.936). Benevolence means "*loyalty and responsibility, sharing with and nurturing others*" (Cleveland & al., 2011, p.936). Finally, self-direction can be defined as "*the desire for independent thought and action through creativity, exploration and freedom*" (Cleveland & al., 2011, p.936). Their study also links cosmopolitanism to four Schwartz's cultural values, which represent "*the implicit or explicit shared abstract ideas about what is good, right and desirable in a given society*" (Schwartz, 1999, p.25). These four cultural values are intellectual autonomy, affective autonomy, egalitarianism and harmony. Intellectual and affective autonomy represent respectively "*a cultural emphasis on the desirability of individuals independently pursuing their own ideas and intellectual directions*" (Schwartz, 1999, p.27) and "*a cultural emphasis on the desirability of individuals independently pursuing affectively positive experiences*" (Schwartz, 1999, p.27). Schwartz (1999) associates intellectual autonomy to curiosity, broadmindedness and creativity and affective autonomy to pleasure, exciting life and varied life. Egalitarianism is defined as "*a*

cultural emphasis on transcendence of selfish interests in favor of voluntary commitment to promoting the welfare of others” (Schwartz, 1999, p. 28), and associated to equality, social justice and freedom, while harmony emphasizes *“a cultural emphasis on fitting harmoniously onto the environment”* (Schwartz, 1999, p.28).

These findings are perfectly coherent with our vision and reflect the definition that we have chosen for cosmopolitanism. They reveal that cosmopolitanism is positively linked to interest for other human beings and cultures, and to openness to new experiences.

2.1.4 Cosmopolitanism and expatriates’ identity

Previous literature has often associated cosmopolitanism with the formation of identity. Indeed, Kennedy (as cited in Andersson, 2013) notes that *“cosmopolitanism should be regarded in relation to processes of identity formation, where mobility and cultural encounters become resources to create a life biography”* (Kennedy, cited in Andersson, 2013, p.157). This idea is coherent with our assumption that cosmopolitanism is a dynamic skill.

The word “identity” is commonly used and known, but giving a definition to this term is not instinctive. Kohonen (2005) states that this concept comes from the Latin words “*idem*” or “*id ens*”, meaning respectively “the same” and the fact that *“the core self remains the same over time although one’s identity is under constant change”* (Kohonen, 2005, p.24). As Berger & Berger (as cited in Bochove & Engbersen, 2013) state, identities are *“appropriated by the individual through a process of interaction with others”* and *“are the product of an interplay of identification and self-identification”* (Berger & Berger, cited in Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.4). Finally, Calhoun (as cited in Rizvi, 2005) adds that *“Identities are always rooted in part in ideals and moral aspirations that we cannot fully realize”* (Calhoun, cited in Rizvi, 2005, p.3).

Previous researchers do not reach a consensus regarding the nature of cosmopolitanism in the identity formation. Some of them (Beck & Yegenoglu, as cited in Cleveland, Laroche, Takahashi & Erdogan, 2014) believe that cosmopolitanism is the opposite of localism, and therefore consider cosmopolitans as people without allegiance to any specific cultural group.

Nevertheless, the majority of researchers tend to consider that globalization enables the formation of a multicultural identity, rather than making cosmopolitan values subordinate national values. In order to examine what is known about this subject in previous literature, the following section concern oneself with multicultural identities.

2.1.4.1 Multicultural identity

Multicultural individuals are “individuals who have an independent understanding of more than one societal culture, which allows them to make informed cultural interpretations in multiple contexts” (Lücke, Kostova & Roth, 2013, p.170). Cultural identity can be defined as “a sense of solidarity with the ideals of a given cultural group and to the attitudes, beliefs and behaviors manifested toward one’s own (and other) cultural groups as a result of this solidarity” (Schwartz, as cited in Lee, 2010, p.57). Multiculturalism has been shown to have a positive impact on work teams, intercultural negotiations, ethics, leadership, cross-border alliances and acquisitions and creativity (Fitzsimmons, Miska & Stahl, Hong, Maddux & Galinsky, as cited in Lücke, Kostova & Roth, 2013, p.177). Also, Brannen & Thomas (2010) suggest that they have greater empathy and flexibility.

Lee (2010) has studied the relationship between dual cultural identities and intercultural effectiveness, which is composed of cultural appropriateness and communication with people from different cultures. Lee (2010) shows that individuals who identify themselves to both their home culture and host culture are more culturally successful than others.

Tharenou (2010) states that the extent to which an individual identifies oneself to his home culture may change with expatriation. Rudmin (2009) defines acculturation as “*the adoption and assimilation of an alien culture*” (Rudmin, 2009, p.109). Therefore, these researchers assume that expatriates may lose their home identity and completely assimilate the host identity, or another degree of acculturation may occur, creating a dual host-home country identity. Berry (as cited in Brannen & Thomas, 2010, p.7) distinguishes four distinct acculturation patterns: assimilation, which is the fact of only identifying oneself to the host culture; integration, where the individual identifies himself to both cultures; separation, when the individual only identifies to the culture of origin; and finally, marginalization, which denotes the situation when the individual identifies with none. This acculturation patterns are

normally associated to biculturalism, but we assume that identities are more complex and consider that this model is still applicable when more than two cultures come into play. If we link the acculturation model to Lee's study, we can say that Lee (2010) considers that integration and marginalization are the best patterns of acculturation to favor expatriate effectiveness.

We have learned in the section focusing on cosmopolitanism that researchers did not find any consensus about the form of cosmopolitanism in identity formation. In our vision, cosmopolitans are either identifying themselves to several cultures, either to none. Our hypothesis is that they are identifying themselves to several cultures, and therefore may be more successful on expatriation than those who do not.

2.1.4.2 Expatriate ambivalent identity: between cosmopolitanism and need for ties

Since our purpose is to study expatriates, we reviewed previous literature about expatriate identity. We noticed that numerous authors differentiate two kinds of expatriates: cosmopolitans and others, although they don't use the same criteria's. This section focuses on these authors.

Firstly, van Bochove & Engbersen (2013) identified two dominant expatriate identities. On the one hand, some expatriates can be considered as cosmopolitans, because they "*are comfortable in many places and able to understand and bridge the differences among them*" (Kanter, as cited in van Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.1). These expatriates move because the world is irresistibly attractive to them and because openness to new experiences is their vocation (Hannertz, 1999). On the other hand, the second image of expatriates describes those who are not comfortable everywhere and who are not really open to other cultures and lifestyles. Rather, these expatriates feel at home in what Fechter (as cited in van Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.1) calls their "*expat bubble*", which involves an "*homogeneous lifestyle in their gated communities*" (Castells, as cited in van Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.1) and "*shelter them off from the environment of the host society*" (Cohen, as cited in Olsen & Martins, 2009, p.313). The differences between these two images are related to the reasons why expatriates live abroad and the ways in which they cope with life abroad. Van Bochove & Engbersen (2013) have established thanks to their study that expatriates tend to have multilayered identities, and that

these two distinctive images of their identities are restrictive. They state that an expatriate tends to behave as a cosmopolitan or as an “organization man or woman” according to the aspect of life that is concerned. According to van Bochove & Engbersen ‘s study (2013), expatriates tend to be organization men in the way that the main reason to move abroad is their job and in the fact that their network of friends in the host country is mainly constituted of fellow expatriates. But at the same time, they can be seen as cosmopolitans in the way that they are willing to integrate the “locals” and bridge differences between their cultures. Thus, van Bochove & Engbersen (2013) conclude that expatriates are usually a mix of the two conflicted images, involving “*particularistic ties as well as a cosmopolitan orientation*” (van Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.1).

Secondly, and in the same vein, Thompson & Tambyah (1999) have discovered through interviews of expatriates in Singapore that expatriates tend to have two conflicting sides. Their study showed that expatriates tend to share a common identity project: being a cosmopolitan, characterized by the vocation of openness to new experiences, the exploration of diversity and the ability to work and live anywhere. They consider this project as central to their self-development, personal fulfilment, sense of life purpose and leisure enjoyment. The authors put into words that this ideology of cosmopolitanism actually provides “*a socio-culturally valorized and personally compelling nexus of meanings from which they understand the benefits and rewards of living as an expatriate*” (Thompson & Tambyah, 1999, p.215). However, they have also identified “*incompatibilities between their nomadic ideals and their countervailing desires for meaningful connections to people and places, a sense of communal belonging, and stable, comfortably familiar routines*” (Thompson & Tambyah, 1999, p.215). They mention ambivalent attitudes toward their status of expatriate: although this status allows them to discover new cultures, it also involves barriers to establish the meaningful relationships and sense of belongings that they desire.

Thirdly, we would like to mention Rizvi’s study (2005), that explored the changes in identities of international students in Australia. The author identified another ambivalent feeling towards status of mobile people. Since international students usually interact frequently with their friends and family in the home country and still, for example, participate in family decisions, Rizvi (2005) argues that these students have a contradictory relationship with the two

places, and tend to feel both insider and outsider in both places. In addition, they argue that the increasing cosmopolitan identity of mobile people makes them valorize more and more cultural diversity and interaction, mobility and flexible citizenship, but can also make them feel frustrated due to the fact that they do not identify a place as their home and therefore have no particular moral responsibilities.

Briefly, the preceding literature brings to light the ambivalent identity of expatriates, their difficulty to find their place between their home and host countries, and the contradiction between their status of expatriate and their desire for real connections with people and places.

These findings about the ambivalent feeling of expatriates regarding their status and lifestyle makes us wonder if the cosmopolitan profile which we have depicted in this study, composed of several individual traits supposed to enhance international effectiveness, really exists. Expatriates' ambivalent feeling may indicate that cosmopolitanism rather represents an ideal for expatriates, this ideal being unreachable and entering in conflict with expatriates' needs for belonging and ties.

2.1.5 Cosmopolitanism: a predictor of expatriation willingness

We explore expatriation willingness, because we believe that this field is strongly related to cosmopolitanism. Indeed, Froese, Jommersbach & Klautzsch's findings (2009) show that cosmopolitanism is a strong predictor of expatriation willingness. This section firstly defines expatriation willingness. Secondly, it examines what is known in this perspective regarding self-initiated expatriates and company-backed expatriates. Indeed, we suppose that differences may exist in terms of motivation for expatriation, since self-expatriates decide by themselves to go abroad, while company-backed decide it after the proposal of the company they work for. This distinction between self-initiated and company-backed expatriates is useful because we assume that self-initiated expatriates are often cosmopolitans. Finally, this presents previous findings regarding the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriation willingness. Appendix 1 describes predictors of expatriation willingness and helps to gain an overview of expatriation willingness.

2.1.5.1 Definition and characteristics of expatriation willingness

Expatriation willingness can be defined as “*the likelihood of an employee accepting a job offer, which requires living and working in a foreign country*” (Borstorff, Harris, Field & Giles, as cited in Jintae Froese, Jommersbach & Klautzsch, 2013, p.3248). Multinational corporations acknowledge the difficulty to find suitable expatriate candidates who are also willing to take on expatriate assignments (Mol, Born, Willemsen, van der Molen & Derous, 2009). This trend is related to the fact that few employees are willing to expatriate, and that as a consequence the selection process is restrained to the few individuals who are interested, even if they are not the most qualified ones. The difficulty of finding willing expatriates has grown with concerns about the perceived difficulty of specific destinations, like China or Russia, or also the uncertainty about the career benefits that are supposed to follow expatriation (Doherty, 2013).

2.1.5.2 Individual motivations for an international assignment

Haines III, Saba & Choquette (2008) have studied the differences between employees with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on international assignments. Extrinsic motivation refers to “*performance in an activity to attain some separable outcome*” (Haines & al., 2008, p.444) while intrinsic motivation refers to “*doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of being involved in the activity itself*” (Haines III & al., 2008, p.444). Research has shown that people with intrinsic motivation tend to seek and conquer optimal challenges, and to show higher levels of interest, excitement and confidence (Deci & Ryan, as cited in Haines III & al. 2008, p.443). Haines III, Saba and Choquette’s findings (2008) show that individuals showing a higher degree of intrinsic motivation for expatriation are more likely to accept an international assignment and to communicate in a foreign language. They also seem to perceive less difficulties associated with expatriation than people exhibiting externally driven motivation.

Regarding individual motivations that influence expatriation willingness, Tharenou (2010) reports from previous literature that career opportunities and work related benefits are positively linked to expatriation willingness, more importantly than any other motivation driver.

Doherty, Dickmann & Mills (2011) have studied the differences of motives of expatriation between company-backed expatriates and self-initiated expatriates. They found that the company-backed expatriates tend to cite more frequently the impact on their career, the potential for skills development and the professional challenge of working abroad as motives of their expatriation. In the opposite, the answers of self-initiated expatriates show that they move primarily because of their desire for adventure, their ability to work and live abroad, and their willingness to see the world. Self-initiated expatriates also tend to escape more often from an undesirable work or personal situation at home than company-backed expatriates. Doherty & al. (2011) as well as Tharenou (2010) also show that while family and spouses are more likely to be barriers to expatriation for company-backed expatriates, considerations of family benefits in the host country apply in the decision to move of self-initiated expatriates.

These findings can briefly be summarized by saying that most company-backed expatriates tend to accept an international assignment for work-related motivations, while self-initiated expatriates tend to expatriate for intrinsic motivations.

2.1.6 Measure of cosmopolitanism

Since there is no definition for cosmopolitanism that has achieved consensus, we found no established measure of cosmopolitanism. Cosmopolitanism can take several meanings, we have chosen one definition in particular and decided to develop our own measure of cosmopolitanism. Firstly, we have decided to use four items for cosmopolitanism from Cleveland, Laroche and Papadopoulos (2009), related to cosmopolitanism in the sense of openness to cultural diversity. We also selected scales for openness to new experience, cultural sensitivity, cultural empathy, open-mindedness, flexibility, agreeability and extraversion because these individual characteristics are related to our chosen definition of cosmopolitanism:

“They are comfortable in many places and able to understand and bridge the differences among them. They move because they find the world attractive, and for them, openness to new experiences is a vocation” (van Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.1). “Cosmopolitans have the willingness to explore and experience the panoply of transcultural diversity. They consume

cultural differences in a reflective manner and do not stand to lose a new and exciting cultural experience.” (Grinstein & Wathieu, 2008, p.6)

In order to assess the extent to which respondents consider themselves as cosmopolitans, we used an additional question developed by Grinstein & Wathieu (2012) which asked them to read a text describing cosmopolitanism and to rate their agreement with it. We used it to assess the self-identification to cosmopolitanism separated from our own cosmopolitanism scale.

2.2 Expatriate effectiveness

2.2.1 Introduction

Most researchers assume that expatriate effectiveness is composed of two core dimensions: expatriate adjustment and expatriate performance, and we follow their example in this study. The relationship between these two dimensions is unclear in previous literature. For example, Lee & Sukoco (2010) claim that when an expatriate is adjusted and reached psychological comfort, this comfort has to get transformed into capabilities in order to impact expatriate performance. However, there is a greater tendency to assume that an expatriate needs to adjust to be successful at work. Indeed, Bruning, Sonpar & Wang (2012) established that poor adjustment is associated to lower job engagement, and is therefore likely to threat performance. Mol, Born, Willemsen & Van Der Molen (2005) have deducted from their meta-analysis that general, interaction and work adjustment are positively linked to performance, but that the effects are only from small to moderate. Finally, Grinstein & Wathieu (2008) have shown that non-work adjustment is not always related to well-being, but that work adjustment is related to assignment performance. Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer & Luk (2005) argue that adjustment also increases job satisfaction and reduces the turnover of expatriates.

2.2.2 Clarification of notions

Before presenting core findings about expatriate performance and expatriate adjustment, we would like to clarify what we mean by these two notions. In this study, we consider that expatriate performance designates the extent to which an expatriate is performing well on the job. The meaning of expatriate adjustment is less intuitive. Expatriate or cross-cultural

adjustment has been defined as “*the degree of comfort or absence of stress associated with being an expatriate*” (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer & Luk, 2005, p. 257). According to Searle & Ward (as cited in Feitosa & al., 2014), adjustment has two aspects. The authors distinguish the psychological aspect, which refers to “*the emotional and mental well-being, and satisfaction of the expatriate*”, from the sociocultural aspect, which refers to “*the ability to “fit in” and execute culturally appropriate behaviors*” (Searle & Ward, cited in Feitosa & al., 2014, p.135). Black & Stephens (as cited in Froese, 2012) distinguish three different facets of adjustment. The first facet is general adjustment, which involves “*the manner in which expatriates cope with living in a foreign country*” (Black & Stephens, cited in Froese, 2012, p.1098). General adjustment includes life adjustment to housing, food, shopping, and so on. The second facet quoted by the authors is interaction adjustment, addressing “*expatriates efforts to establish relationships with locals*” (Black & Stephens, cited in Froese, 2012, p.1098); finally, Black & Stephens (cited in Froese, 2012) mention work adjustment, which involves “*the way expatriates fit into the workplace*” (Black & Stephens, cited in Froese, 2012, p.1098). It refers to the adjustment to job responsibilities, supervision and performance expectations.

2.2.3 The cost of expatriate failure

As we mentioned earlier, this study aims to contribute to international human resource management by providing new information to improve expatriate selection. Indeed, expatriate failure costs a lot to multinational companies. Downes, Varner & Hemmasi (2010) estimate that expatriates may cost one and a half to two times their home country salaries, while Wederspahn (as cited in Feitosa, Kreutzer, Kramperth, Kramer & Salas, 2014, p.135) state that a failure may cost five to ten times the cost of a local hire. Failed assignments include, according to research of Feitosa and al. (2014), early returns, repatriation, low performance, high turnover and transfer rates. Herberholz (2012) adds that unsuccessful assignments can also bring negative implications for the host country.

In 1990, Black & Mendenhall (as cited in Littrell & al., 2006, p.358) have established that early return rates of expatriates could amount 40 percent. In addition, the fact that an expatriate stays in the host country for the whole duration doesn't mean that he is successful:

he may have lost opportunities, delayed productivity or damaged relations, which are also behaviors associated with failure.

Bonache & Noethen (2014) have studied the impact of corporate expatriates' performance on company success, with the assumption that the relationship between these two variables is not linear. According to them, the relationship between expatriate's performance and organization success is rather exponential and depends on the type of assignment the expatriate is facing. The authors differentiate the star assignment from the guardian assignment. A star job typically involves *"the production of knowledge or innovation, where only the (occasional) good idea is adopted after being thoroughly vetted"* (Baron & Kreps, as cited in Bonache & Noethen, 2014, p. 1965) while guardian jobs are *"often found when the work technology involves a complex, interdependent system of production, and overall performance is determined largely by the worst individual contribution or when the organization's reputation is a valuable asset which can suffer disproportionately news of a single mismanagement"* (Baron & Kreps, as cited in Bonache & Noethen, 2014, p. 1965). Hence, Bonache & Noethen (2014) state that performance is much more common among guardian assignments than among star assignments. Briefly, expatriates on star assignment have to try to excel while expatriates on guardian assignment have not to fail. In this perspective, Bonache & Noethen (2014) argue that in the case of star assignment, successful expatriate will lead to huge organizational success, but a failure will not create too much damage. In the opposite, a guardian assignment will involve low organizational success in the case of high expatriate performance, but the expatriate failure will create extraordinary losses. Bonache & Noethen (2014) believe that the management of expatriates should be different according to the type of assignment, and teach us that evaluating performance is not as simple as we might think.

Finally, another indicator of the complexity of expatriate performance evaluation is given by Andreason (2003), who indicates that unsuccessful expatriates who complete the duration of their assignment might in the long run cost more than expatriates who fail by returning earlier to the home country. Indeed, the indirect costs of their failure can include loss of market share, damaged relations with clients, local businesses and government officials. In addition, costs can also arise at the individual level, in the form of loss of self-esteem, self-

confidence and prestige among peers for the expatriate. Briefly, Andreason (2003) assumes that a failure can involve more damaging consequences for a company than a premature return.

2.2.4 Antecedents of expatriate adjustment and performance at the individual level

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer & Luk (2005) have undertaken a meta-analysis of 66 studies with the aim of presenting the antecedents of expatriate adjustment. They discovered that spouse and family adjustment are the most important predictors of expatriate adjustment. Similarly, Kim & Slocum (2008) note that some antecedents of adjustment, such as spousal satisfaction, living arrangements or children's schooling, are beyond the control of human resource managers. From the beginning, this study focuses only on the individual level. Factors on organizational and societal levels are mentioned in previous literature, but we briefly approach them in this study.

This section presents stable traits and dynamic competences identified as antecedents of expatriate adjustment and performance in previous literature.

2.2.4.1 Stable traits

The Big Five Model, composed of five personality traits, has been largely studied in the context of expatriation. Caligiuri (2000) argues that this framework is universally adaptable, and can be applied to any individual from any country. The Big Five traits are extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness, and are believed to be stable over time. They are supposed to allow classification of most personalities. Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black & Ferzandi (2006) state that this model helps to explain employees' attitudes such as stress, job satisfaction or job performance. Table A presents the definition of the Big five traits.

Table A. Definitions of the Big Five traits (Costa & McCrae, as cited in Shaffer and al., 2006, p.9).

Extraversion	Refers to <i>"how individuals express themselves verbally and behaviorally"</i> <i>"Those high on this trait tend to enjoy and be energized by interacting with others"</i>
Agreeableness	Refers to <i>"a tendency to get along well in interpersonal settings"</i> <i>"Those high on this trait are more sympathetic than others, more cooperative, more trusting and more accepting of social circumstances"</i>
Conscientiousness	Refers to <i>"the extent to which individuals are careful, diligent, self-disciplined, and especially, dependable"</i>
Emotional stability	Refers to <i>"a tendency to experience positive emotional states and to respond calmly to stressful events"</i>
Openness to experience	Describes <i>"individuals in terms of their being original, innovative, willing to take risks"</i>

Despite of the amount of studies on the topic, findings about the relationship between the Big Five traits and expatriate adjustment and performance differ from one study to another.

Regarding expatriate adjustment. Downes, Varner & Hemmasi (2010) have found that the traits extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience are positively correlated to expatriate adjustment. Indeed, extraversion is characterized by talkativeness and sociability, and this personality trait is supposed to help expatriates to create networks. Openness to experience is supposed to allow expatriates to create trust and cohesiveness, which are useful to improve performance, thanks to their interest in local traditions and rituals for example. Similarly, Shaffer and al. (2006) have established in a meta-analysis that emotional stability is positively related to work and interaction adjustment, that openness to experience is a predictor of work adjustment and that extraversion is a predictor of general adjustment, with correlations with interaction and work adjustment. In addition, they support that agreeableness is a predictor of interaction adjustment. Finally, Ones & Viswesvaran (as cited in Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012, p.735) have established that conscientiousness is the strongest trait of the Big Five influencing expatriate adjustment and effectiveness. These findings can be summarized by saying that previous literature supports that Big five traits are useful to predict expatriate adjustment.

Regarding expatriate performance, researchers also find divergent results. While a few authors only link one of the five traits to expatriate performance (Downes, Varner & Hemmasi, 2010; Caligiuri, 2000; Brunin, Sonpar & Wang, 2012), others studies show evidence for the reliability of the five traits as predictors of expatriate effectiveness. Hence, Mol, Born,

Willemsen & Van der Molen (2005) have shown a positive correlation between expatriate job performance and extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black & Ferzandi (2006) have identified the traits agreeableness, extraversion and openness to new experiences as predictors of expatriate's performance thanks to their meta-analysis. Meanwhile, Ren, Harrison, Bhaskar-Shrinivas & Shaffer (as cited in Kim & Slocum, 2008, p.110) have found that conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness are negative predictors of expatriate performance.

As we showed, the Big Five traits have all been positively associated to expatriate adjustment and expatriate performance at least once, but there is too many studies with different results to be able to identify which ones tend to be the most important predictors of expatriate effectiveness.

Another individual characteristic that has been linked to expatriate performance in previous literature is self-efficacy. This trait was identified by Tharenou (2010) as a predictor of expatriation willingness (see Appendix 1). According to Claus, Lungu, & Bhattacharjee (2011), there is a strong positive relationship between self-efficacy and job performance. Indeed, the authors argue that people with a high level of self-efficacy are likely to initiate tasks, sustain effort to accomplish their tasks and persist when they face problems or failures. The fact that self-efficacy is linked to expatriation willingness and expatriate performance makes us assume that willingness has an impact on expatriate performance. Since we believe that cosmopolitan expatriates are willing to expatriate for intrinsic motivations, these previous findings strengthen our belief that cosmopolitans are more successful on expatriation.

2.2.4.2 Dynamic competences

Cross-cultural skills

Hough (as cited in Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012, p.736) argues that the Big Five model isn't specific enough to establish the influence of personality traits on expatriate adjustment and performance. Hence, the MPQ, or Multicultural Personality Questionnaire, was developed by Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven (2000) with the aim of measuring multicultural effectiveness. If the Big Five model concerns stable personality traits, the Multicultural Personality questions

includes individual characteristics that may change over time. This instrument is composed of scales for the five traits cultural empathy, open mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability and flexibility. The two researchers claim that the MPQ is more internationally oriented than the Big Five Model and that it should be used for the selection of expatriates. Peltokorpi & Froese (2012) also argue that this model explains more variance on multicultural success than the Big Five and used the MPQ to predict expatriate adjustment and performance. Open-mindedness has been positively associated to interaction adjustment (Ali, Van der Zee & Sanders, as cited in Peltokorpi and al. , 2012, p.736; Peltokorpi and al., 2012) and Cultural Empathy was positively correlated to social support from locals and job satisfaction (Van Oudenhoven and al.; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2012, p.736; Peltokorpi and al., 2012). In addition to these findings, Peltokorpi and al. (2012) have shown that emotional stability is a predictor of general adjustment and that social initiative, which is described by the authors as the tendency to establish contact and to be active in different cultures, is positively related to work adjustment.

Chen & Starostam (as cited in Claus, Lungu, & Bhattacharjee, 2011, p.255) define cultural sensitivity as *“an individual’s ability to develop a positive emotion towards understanding and appreciating cultural differences that promotes appropriate and effective behavior in intercultural communication”* (Claus, Lungu, & Bhattacharjee 2011, p.255). This individual trait has been strongly associated to expatriate job performance, and since Claus, Lungu, & Bhattacharjee (2011) relate it to the characteristic of having a global mindset, we believe that cosmopolitans have this personality trait. Mol and al. (2005) sustain these findings in their meta-analysis a few years earlier.

Earley & Ang (as cited in Lee & Sukoco, 2010, p.964) define cultural intelligence as *“a person’s capability to gather, interpret, and act upon radically different cues to function effectively across cultural settings or in multicultural situations”*. Briefly, it reflects a person’s ability to adapt one’s behaviors appropriately to a new culture. Lee & Sukoco (2010) show in their study that cultural intelligence has positive impact on expatriate adjustment.

Cultural flexibility is defined by Shaffer & al. (2006) as *“the capacity to substitute activities enjoyed in one’s home country with existing, and usually distinct, activities in the host*

country” (Shaffer & al., 2006, p.12). The authors state that cultural flexibility enhances self-esteem and self-confidence. Their findings show that cultural flexibility is strongly related to expatriate adjustment and performance.

In addition to cultural flexibility and sensibility, Caligiuri & Tarique (2012) point out that “tolerance for ambiguity” is also a predictor of expatriate performance. They define it as “*the ability to manage ambiguous, new, different and unpredictable situations*” (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012, p.3). The authors argue that these three dynamic cross-cultural competences are learned thanks to the combination of personality traits (extraversion, openness to experience and ability to manage anxiety), cross-cultural work and non-work experiences.

Language ability

Not surprisingly, the ability to speak the host language is positively related to expatriate job performance (Claus, Lungu, & Bhattacharjee, 2011; Mol & al., 2005). In addition, Kim & Slocum (2008) have demonstrated thanks to their study of Korean expatriates in the United States that English fluency is positively correlated to work and interaction adjustment, as well as to job satisfaction and performance. They also add that interaction adjustment is strongly related to job satisfaction, while work adjustment is strongly correlated to performance. Therefore, we observe that the ability to speak the host language is positively related to expatriate adjustment and performance.

Technical competencies

Claus & al. (2011) note that human capital, defined by Pil & Leana (as cited in Claus & al., 2011, p.256) as “*the individual’s cumulative abilities, knowledge and skills developed through formal and informal education and experience*” is crucial to an individual performance. As we mentioned earlier, technical competences are often used as expatriate selection criteria’s, but numerous researchers argue that they are not sufficient to predict an individual’s performance on expatriation.

Previous international experience

Our literature review reveals a positive linear relationship between previous international experience and expatriate job performance (Claus, Lungu, & Bhattacharjee, 2011). Regarding expatriate adjustment, Mol, Born, Willemsen & Van der Molen (2005) suggest that it may moderate the relationship between previous international experience and expatriate job performance.

Kim & Slocum (2008) argue that the type of previous international experience may influence the extent to which an expatriate is able to adapt to the host environment. Indeed, three expatriates who have respectively worked, studied and traveled abroad are likely to differ in terms of quality of work-related attitudes and behaviors even if they have the same amount of international experience.

According to Lee & Sukoco (2010), expatriates with previous international experience are likely to have higher level of adjustment only if they also have cultural intelligence. However, they find that people with low level of international experience do not need cultural intelligence to adjust correctly. They therefore suggest that cultural intelligence should be considered as a more important predictor of success than international experience in the selection of expatriates.

It is obvious that expatriate adjustment and performance do not only depend on factors on the individual level, but also on organizational and societal factors. Our study focuses on the individual level, but you can find additional information about other factors in Appendix 2.

2.2.5 Differences between self-initiated expatriates and company-backed expatriates

We believe that the distinction between self-initiated expatriates and company-backed expatriates is interesting regarding expatriate effectiveness. Indeed, the first ones have not been sent on assignment by a company, and therefore are not subject to the same kind of requirements. We believe that the failure of a self-initiated expatriate is likely to have more damages for the expatriate himself than for the company. We have read that self-expatriates

tend to look for a job once they are abroad (Froese, 2012), which means that they are normal employees to companies.

The adjustment of self-initiated expatriates has rarely been studied. Froese (2012) and Peltokorpi & Froese (2013) have estimated that self-initiated expatriates tend to be less work adjusted than others and seem to show less job satisfaction. Froese (2012) explains this situation by the fact that fewer self-initiated are employed by international organizations, which are likely to be more equipped to the management of expatriates, and to provide them with more support. According to Froese (2012), self-initiated expatriates also tend to occupy functions at a lower hierarchical level than company-backed expatriates. However, they seem to be more successful in general and interaction adjustment than company-backed expatriates. Since we suppose that self-initiated expatriates are more likely to be cosmopolitans, we believe that cosmopolitans are better than others in terms of interaction and general adjustment.

If Froese (2012) explains the difference in work adjustment by a lack of organizational support provided to self-initiated expatriates, Doherty (2013) highlights the greater difficulty to manage self-initiated expatriates compared to company-backed expatriates. Sullivan & Arthur (as cited in Doherty, 2013, p.451) argue that they are more individualistic, self-reliant, self-directed and proactive and therefore constitute a riskier resource. Indeed, the authors consider that they are more likely to leave the company in the short term to follow their individual goals. In addition, Doherty (2013) states that they are risky because of their lack of organization-specific knowledge and their lack of adjustment to the host corporate culture. On the other hand, Peltokorpi & Froese (2013) reveal that self-initiated expatriates tend to be more adaptable and to show better adjustment to the host culture than company-backed expatriates in Japan. The question is to evaluate if this can be explained by the fact that self-initiated expatriates can choose their destination while company-backed expatriates rarely can, or rather because of differences of competences.

2.2.6 Cosmopolitans' adjustment and performance

As we mentioned earlier, cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness have not been largely studied together. We attempted to gather what is known about their relationship in this section.

Grinstein & Wathieu (2012) have studied the adjustment behavior of expatriates in relationship with their cosmopolitan identity. In their vision, the adjustment strategy that can be expected from cosmopolitan expatriates, considering themselves as “citizens of the world”, is unclear, and they argue that adjustment is not always the best behavior to adopt for expatriates. Indeed, Grinstein and Wathieu (2012) have noticed two different strategies of adjustment. Thus, expatriates may be adaptable to any environment, or rather be seeking global consumption patterns usable in any environment. In their study, the authors show that cosmopolitans' adjustment strategy is related to the duration of their sojourn. They found that cosmopolitans engaged in a short sojourn tend to adjust more than others, while they tend to adjust less for longer sojourn. Grinstein & Wathieu (2012) claim that this difference is roots in the differences of wellbeing between cosmopolitans and others. Indeed, they affirm that cosmopolitans derive wellbeing “*from the pursuit of a global lifestyle that can nevertheless be enriched by short-term experimentation with local choices*” (Grinsten & Wathieu, 2012, p. 4), while non-cosmopolitans adjust only when they believe that this is worthwhile. Grinstein & Wathieu (2008) had already shown in their study in 2008 that these choices of adjustment strategy were correlated to well-being. Driven by curiosity and adventure, cosmopolitans are open to experimentation without taking roots and adjusting to any local environment.

Shaffer and al. (2006) defined ethnocentrism as “*the propensity to view one's own cultural traditions and behaviors as “right” and those of others as “wrong”*” (Black, as cited in Shaffer and al., 2006, p.13). This definition indicates that ethnocentrism is the opposite of cosmopolitanism. Shaffer and al. (2006) argue that ethnocentrism is a predictor of negative interaction adjustment, and is correlated negatively to general adjustment. In addition to their findings about the link between ethnocentrism and adjustment, Shaffer & al. (2006) also sustain that ethnocentrism has a negative impact on contextual performance, which is described by McEvoy & Buller (2013) as the performance dimension that “*includes behaviors that support the social and organizational environment such as perseverance, offering extra help or*

mentoring colleagues, working outside one's job description as necessary and working cooperatively on teams" (McEvoy & Buller, 2013, p.224). These findings indicate that cosmopolitanism is likely to favor adjustment and performance.

2.2.8 Measure of performance

Many authors, including McEvoy & Buller (2013), claim the unavailability of job performance criteria's for expatriates. Indeed, advice regarding the evaluation of expatriate performance differ from one study to another. For example, Downes, Varner & Hemmasi (2010) suggest, thanks to extensive discussions with former expatriates, that performance has to be assessed according to the goals of the international assignment, or what the expatriate considered as the goals. Cascio (as cited in McEvoy & Buller, 2013, p.224) state that companies should evaluate both contextual and task performance. Bonache & Noethen (2014) affirm that researchers commonly use the expatriate's completion of the assignment as a measure of expatriate performance.

Among all expatriate performance scales, we have decided to use Lee & Donohue's measure (2012). In fact, these authors have developed a multi-dimensional measure of expatriate performance based on Campbell's model of job performance. Lee & Donohue (2012) argue that their model is useful to determine to what extent individual characteristics, for example, predict variance in the six components of performance, which are: task performance, communication performance, demonstrating effort, maintaining discipline, teamwork and leadership and finally managerial and administrative task performance. Very few studies have used this model until now.

2.3 Satisfaction

2.3.1 Introduction

After the review of literature dedicated to cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness, we were able to identify gaps and assumptions. Our main assumption can be summarized by saying that cosmopolitan expatriates are likely to be more successful than others, because their decision to expatriate is linked to the fulfillment of their desire for adventure and new

experiences, and to their ability to deal with multiculturalism. Hence, we believe that these motivation drivers allow cosmopolitans to be more satisfied with their life and work on expatriation, and consequently lead them to adjust better and perform better on their job. Satisfaction has therefore a central role in this study, this is the reason why this section briefly introduces this notion. We concern ourselves with job satisfaction, life satisfaction and expatriation satisfaction.

2.3.3 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined as “*the extent to which one feels positively or negatively about the intrinsic and/or extrinsic aspects of one’s job*” (Hunt, Chonko & Wood, as cited in Bhuian & Mengue, 2002, p.3).

Workers’ job satisfaction is clearly one widely researched concept in literature. This interest for work satisfaction is based on the idea that satisfied workers are key to organizational effectiveness (Naumaan, 1993). As Jones (2006) suggests, researchers have explored the postulation that “the happy worker is a productive worker” and found that the relationship between job satisfaction and performance is not as strong as expected. In addition, the direction of the relationship is unclear: satisfaction is likely to predict performance, but performance is also likely to induce satisfaction.

2.3.2 Expatriates and job satisfaction

Bonache (2005) has shown that expatriates are generally more satisfied with their job than domestic employees and repatriates, in terms of task variety and autonomy, opportunities for learning and degree of responsibilities, but that they also tend to be less satisfied with the company’s internal communication.

Downes, Thomas & McLarney (2000) demonstrated that expatriate job satisfaction is significantly related to organizational performance, in the sense of profitability, and that this relationship is moderated by the international orientation of the organization. Indeed, their findings showed a significant decrease in the contribution of expatriate satisfaction to performance as internationalization progresses.

2.3.4 Relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction

Life satisfaction refers to an individual's overall well-being and specifically reflects "*an individual's quality of life including physical and material well-being, interpersonal relations, social activities, personal development and fulfillment and recreation*" (Qu & Zhao, 2012, p.23). Jones (2006) states that individuals who are satisfied with their life are much more likely to be satisfied with their job and showed that life satisfaction is a significant predictor of performance.

Numerous researchers suggest that people who choose goals in adequacy with their ideals and interests are happier than others (Judge, Bono, Erez & Locke, 2005). Judge and al. (2005) concerned themselves with the relationship between core self-evaluations and satisfaction. Hence, Judge and al. (2005) found that people who have a good image of themselves tend to pursue this kind of goals to a greater extent than people with a negative self-perception. The authors also showed that work goal self-concordance mediates part of the relationship between core self-evaluation, defined as "*the fundamental assessments that people make about their worthiness, competence, and capabilities*" (Judge, Bono, Erez & Locke, 2005, p.257) and job and life satisfaction. Since we believe that expatriation is in adequacy with ideals of cosmopolitans, these findings strengthen our intuition that cosmopolitans are happier on expatriation than others. Similarly, Cao, Hirschi & Deller (2013) found that the relationships between protean career attitude and career satisfaction, life satisfaction and the intention to stay in the host country are mediated by expatriate adjustment. They define protean career attitude as "*career management that is self-directed and driven by personal values*" (Cao & al., 2013, p.57) and suggest that it was found to predict subjective and objective career success. Our intuition is that in the case of cosmopolitan expatriates who follow protean career attitudes as well, satisfaction arises from the pursuit of these protean goals and therefore has a mediating role between cosmopolitanism and the different dimensions of expatriate effectiveness.

This short section about satisfaction allows us to show that our hypothesis makes sense, since life satisfaction and the pursuit of goals in adequacy with ideals and interest have been shown to enhance effectiveness. In addition to life satisfaction and job satisfaction, we believe

that the extent to which an individual is satisfied with its expatriation has an impact on the relationship between cosmopolitanism and effectiveness. This is the reason why we will add to our analysis the dimension of expatriation satisfaction.

2.4 Summary

Our literature review aimed to introduce the concepts that will be used in our analyses and to set the scene of our study.

Firstly, we concerned ourselves with cosmopolitanism. We learned that there is no consensus among researchers regarding the sense of cosmopolitanism, its nature in the formation of identity and its measurement. Firstly, we have associated two descriptions of cosmopolitans by Van Bochove & Engbersen (2013) and Grinstein & Wathieu (2008) in order to specify the sense we give to cosmopolitanism in this study. In our view, cosmopolitans are people who *“are comfortable in many places and able to understand and bridge the differences among them. They move because they find the world attractive, and for them, openness to new experiences is a vocation”* (van Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.1). *“Cosmopolitans have the willingness to explore and experience the panoply of transcultural diversity. They consume cultural differences in a reflective manner and do not stand to lose a new and exciting cultural experience.”* (Grinstein & Wathieu, 2008, p.6). We have presented individual characteristics which have been identified in previous literature as antecedents of cosmopolitanism such as overseas experience or the ability to speak numerous languages. We also learned that cosmopolitanism is a predictor of willingness to expatriate. Regarding the measurement of cosmopolitanism, we have decided to form our own scale to fill the existent gap in previous literature with the aim of assessing cosmopolitanism in the sense of our definition above.

The second part of our literature review involved expatriate effectiveness. We distinguished expatriate adjustment and expatriate performance and highlighted the costs of expatriate failure. Then, we presented the antecedents of expatriate adjustment, and expatriate performance, and notices similarities with them and our definition of cosmopolitanism. Finally, we presented the limited research findings regarding the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness.

The third part of our literature review was shorter and aimed to introduce the role of satisfaction in effectiveness. We were able to find evidence that life satisfaction and the pursuit of goals in adequacy with ideals and interest favor effectiveness, which strengthen our hypothesis that cosmopolitan expatriates are more successful than others on expatriation.

Despite the obviousness of the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness, the two concepts had not yet been gathered in such a study. Our literature review confirmed our intuition and we intend to fill gaps thanks to our empirical study.

CHAPTER 3. Methodology

This section describes the steps that have been taken to write this study, from the formulation of research questions to the completion of data collection. Our methodology has mostly been guided by the work “Research methods for business students” by Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2009). The formulation of our research topic and a description of the steps which preceded the formulation of our research questions are in Appendix 3.

3.1 Formulation of research questions, hypothesis and design research model

While designing our research questions, we kept in mind the advice of Saunders & al. (2009, p.33) to use the Goldilocks test. Indeed, we considered that our questions are not to be too big, too small, too hot, and more importantly, had to bring new insights. This section follows our line of thoughts as our literature review has progressed. In this study, we place ourselves in what Saunders & al. (2009) call a deductive process: we intend to explain causal relationships through the deduction of hypothesis.

Although cosmopolitanism and expatriation intuitively seem to be strongly related, these two concepts have been developed independently in the literature. Our study strives to establish clearly the links between them, and more specifically the relationship that may exist between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness. Thanks to the preceding literature review, we have been able to identify numerous individual characteristics involved in cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness prediction. In addition, we have developed our research questions on the basis of what had not been studied yet in previous literature. Our purpose is to fill the gap between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness, with the assumption that cosmopolitan expatriates should be more satisfied on expatriation and consequently more successful. These gaps are expressed in the following research questions.

Research question 1. What are the characteristics of cosmopolitanism?

Cleveland, Laroche, Takahashi & Erdogan (2014) have developed a scale for cosmopolitanism, but we believe that it only assesses the interest of respondents for other cultures. We found no other scale for cosmopolitanism that had been validated in previous

literature. In our opinion, Cosmopolitanism is not limited to interest in other cultures, and is related to other individual characteristics. In this perspective, we selected several individual traits included in our literature review that are, in our opinion, strongly related to our chosen definition of cosmopolitanism. We made the hypothesis that these individual traits are predictors of cosmopolitanism.

A first hypothesis was designed to verify whether respondents who obtain high scores on the scale for cosmopolitanism actually identify themselves to cosmopolitanism. Self-identification to cosmopolitanism will be assessed by asking respondents to rate their agreement with a text describing cosmopolitan state of mind.

H1: Cosmopolitan respondents identify themselves to cosmopolitanism

H2: Open-mindedness, cultural empathy, cultural flexibility, cultural sensitivity, extraversion, openness to new experiences and agreeableness are predictors of cosmopolitanism

Research Question 2. Does cosmopolitanism imply a multicultural identity?

Based on our literature review, we predict that cosmopolitans tend to have multicultural identities rather than to identify to no culture at all.

H3: Cosmopolitan expatriates tend to identify themselves with several cultures.

Research Question 3. Cosmopolitanism: successful personality trait or utopia for both expatriate and manager?

Our literature review reveals that expatriates who identify themselves to cosmopolitanism tend to show an ambivalent feeling towards their expatriate status. Their heart waver between cosmopolitan desires and needs for ties with people and places. In this perspective, we wondered if cosmopolitanism reflects an actual profile beneficial to companies or rather constitutes an ideal “state of mind” that many people pretend to have, this ideal being contradictory with needs for ties with people and places. This research questions is constituted of several underlying questions. Firstly, we will explore the motivation drivers of cosmopolitan

expatriates, with the assumption that real cosmopolitans expatriate for intrinsic motivations. Secondly, we will concern ourselves with the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness. Finally, we hypothesize that satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness.

Subquestion 1. Do motivation drivers for expatriation differ between cosmopolitans and not cosmopolitans?

We believe that cosmopolitan people decide to expatriate for intrinsic reasons rather than for job-related benefits. The word “intrinsic” involves “*the pursuit of a goal because of the enjoyment it provides*” (Judge & al., 2005, p.258). This hypothesis will be tested thanks to a multiple choice question embodying eighteen motivational drivers. The respondents will be asked to choose the three most important ones involved in their decision to expatriate. Hence, we believe that cosmopolitan expatriates expatriate for the following motivation drivers: “to see the world”, “confidence in ability to work and live abroad”, “desire for adventure”, “desire to live in the host country”, “host culture” and “successful previous experience in the foreign environment”.

H4: Cosmopolitans tend to expatriate for the following motivations: “to see the world”, “confidence in ability to work and live abroad”, “desire for adventure”, “desire to live in the host country”, “host culture” and “successful previous experience in the foreign environment” rather than for career-related motivations.

Subquestion 2. What is the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness?

Considering our literature review, we assume that cosmopolitan people are effective on international expatriation. Indeed, some individual characteristics that we consider as parts of cosmopolitanism have been identified as predictors of expatriate effectiveness. Since expatriate effectiveness is constituted of cross-cultural adjustment, job performance and unwillingness to return prematurely, we study the link between these expatriate outcomes and cosmopolitanism.

H5: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to general, interaction and work adjustment on expatriation

H6: Cosmopolitanism is negatively correlated willingness to return prematurely to the home country

H7: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to job performance on expatriation

Subquestion 3. Does the satisfaction of expatriates play a mediating role between cosmopolitanism and performance?

If cosmopolitanism is a real state of mind, cosmopolitan expatriates are supposed to be satisfied with their way of life and with their job. As a reminder, our main assumption is that cosmopolitan expatriates are likely to be more successful than others, because their decision to expatriate is linked to the fulfillment of their desire for adventure and new experiences, and to their ability to deal with multiculturalism. Hence, we believe that these motivation drivers allow cosmopolitans to be more satisfied with their life and work on expatriation, and consequently lead them to adjust better and perform better on their job. This assumption involves a positive linear relationship between cosmopolitanism and satisfaction.

H8: Cosmopolitanism is correlated to life satisfaction, expatriation satisfaction and work satisfaction during an international assignment.

If H8 is confirmed and if cosmopolitan people show high expatriate effectiveness, we suppose that expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationships between cosmopolitanism and the different dimensions of expatriate effectiveness.

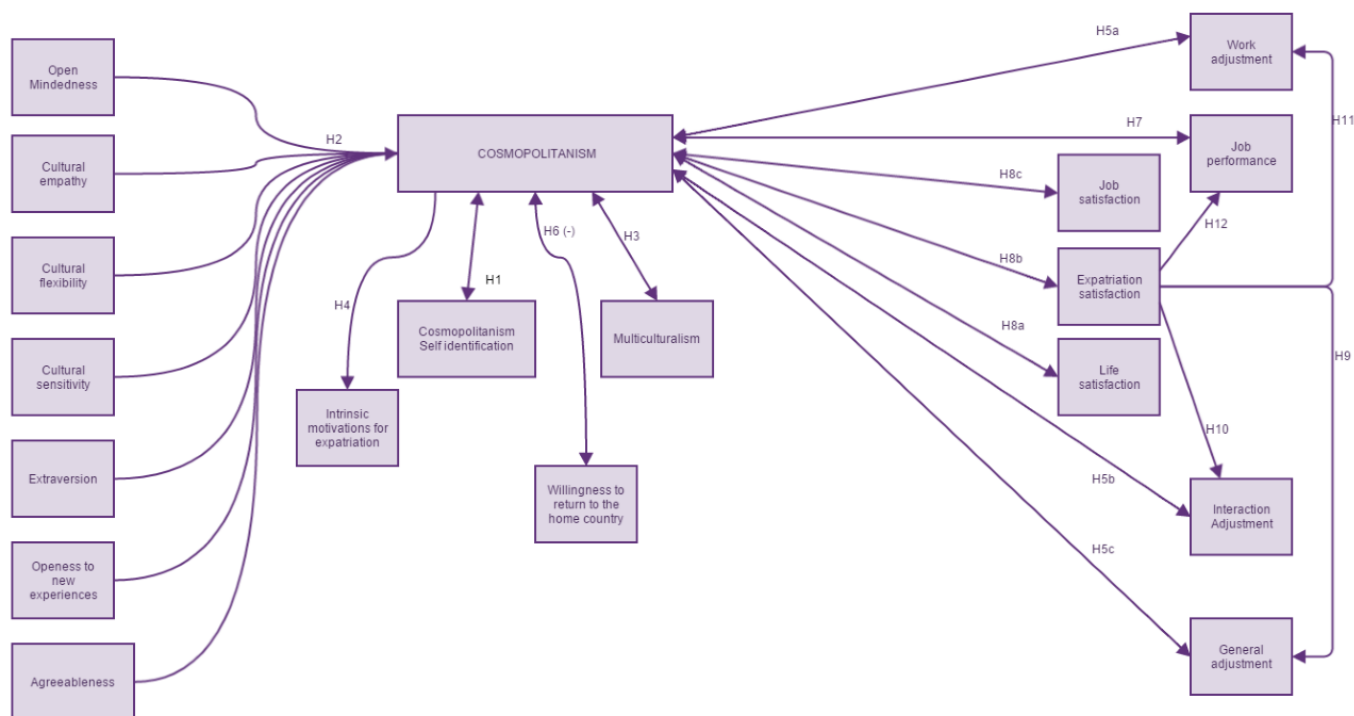
H9: Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and general adjustment

H10: Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and interaction adjustment

H11: Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and work adjustment

H12: Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and job performance

Figure 1. Research design Model



Source: own contribution.

3.2 Data Collection

3.2.1 Research Design

Considering that our purpose is to establish potential relationships between variables, we deduct that our study can be considered as an explanatory research. (Saunders & al., 2009, p.140). Most variables included in our research are continuous, which means that their values “consist of numbers that represent a measurement and involve a large range of possible answers” (Larson-Hall, 2009, p.33). Indeed, they are much more useful than ordinal variables in terms of analysis. We consider our variables, measured with seven-point Likert scales, as interval data, which means that “equal intervals on the scale represent equal differences in the property being measured” (Field, 2013, p.10).

We have decided to use the survey strategy, which will allow us to collect quantitative data. The data gathered will then be analyzed thanks to descriptive and inferential statistics with

SPSS. The survey takes the form of a questionnaire, this method allowing the standardization of questions and easy comparison of responses. The questionnaire was online and developed with Lime Survey.

Regarding the choice of research population, we had to consider our resources and access to the population. Since expatriates are a highly demanded population for research, and considering our limited access to these people, we have decided not to be too restrictive regarding the research population. Therefore, we have considered that every individual who is currently working in a country different from his country of origin would be considered as a potential respondent. This choice limits our ability to generalize the results of this study, since our sample is very small compared to the whole population of expatriates.

We used two main sampling techniques. Firstly, we used what Saunders & al. (2009) call the “self-selection technique”, since expatriates were free to decide if they wished to participate to the survey or not. Indeed, we posted our questionnaire on numerous social networks’ groups for expatriates and asked for their help. Secondly, we used what Saunders & al. (2009, p.240) name “the snowball sampling”. It consisted in contacting a few expatriates in the population or people likely to know some expatriates, thanks to our network, and ask these cases to identify other expatriates, and ask them to repeat the process. We recognized that this technique was risk-taking, in the fact that the expatriates in our sample are for example more likely to work in Europe, or to be similar in another way to the respondents who identified them. In other words, the risk was to obtain a too homogeneous sample.

3.2.2 Questionnaire development

We have chosen the questionnaire as data collection instrument, because we needed to standardize questions and to make sure that all respondents understand our questions in the same way, in order to be able to interpret results and to bring to light relationships that may exist between variables. Appendix 4 presents the items and variables that have been used in our questionnaire. Our questionnaire can be found in Appendix 5.

Our questionnaire was developed with the aim to test our hypotheses: the variables, the relationships that we intended to test and their direction were established before the questionnaire design.

We have decided to use adopted and adapted questions from other studies in our questionnaire. This decision allowed us to ensure an already tested reliability. All questions were closed, and most of them were rating questions, using a seven-point Likert scale and asking respondents to rate their agreement to the question. All questions were mandatory, this is the reason why we only received fully completed questionnaires. We also asked respondents to indicate their age, gender, host country, home country, duration of expatriation and previous experience in the host country.

Regarding the presentation of our questionnaire on Lime Survey, it was preceded by an introductory message, stating briefly the purpose of our study and what is expected from the respondents in terms of time and answers. We decided to display the questionnaire on one single page, in order to let respondents note how long the questionnaire was. Indeed, we believe that people are less likely to abandon or leave the questionnaire uncompleted if they know from the beginning how long the questionnaire is.

In order to enhance internal validity of our questionnaire, that Saunders & al. (2009, p.372) define as “*the ability of your questionnaire to measure what you intent to measure*”, we insisted on the fact that honesty was crucial to the study, and that the data collected would remain anonymous.

3.2.3 Trial Run

“However pressed for time you are, do your best to give the questionnaire a trial run” (Bell, as cited in Saunders & al., 2009, p.394)

Saunders & al. (2009) recommended to undertake a pilot test before launching the questionnaire. We asked ten people from our network, and who had already been on

expatriation, to answer the questionnaire and give their feedback in terms of time spent to answer, clarity of questions and general opinion. No questions was reported as unclear or difficult to understand, and most respondents mentioned that the topic was really interested. However, the trial run made us realize that the questionnaire required about fifteen minutes, which was more time than we expected. We had already limited the number of items used for each variable, and decided to mention the length of completion in the introductory message, in order to reduce eventual discouragement during completion. We also checked each completed questionnaire to check if the respondents' answers made sense.

3.2.4 Questionnaire administration

Due to our limited time, the data collection lasted two weeks. As said previously, we launched the questionnaire online with Lime Survey. The channels which were the most importantly used were the social networks Facebook and LinkedIn, and specifically their groups dedicated to expatriates. We attempted to choose groups dedicated to countries from different continents, in order to maximize our chances to get respondents from all over the world. The disadvantage of these groups was that we often had to wait for permission to access the group before being able to post on the page. Unfortunately, some groups were accessible only after the two weeks of data collection. A list containing the groups on which we were able to post before the end of data completion can be found in Appendix 6.

In addition, we also contacted numerous international mobility managers from multinationals by e-mail, and asked them to spread our questionnaire among their expatriates. We got in touch with these managers thanks to our snowball sampling technique.

Finally, a mass mailing was sent to former students from the Louvain School of management who became expatriates in order to encourage them to participate to the survey.

3.2.5 Sample size

It is important to estimate the minimum sample size before launching a survey.

We have attempted to determine the optimal sample size for our study. To do so, we had to determine our level of confidence, or in other words “*how confident we need to be that the estimate is accurate*” (Saunders, 2009, p.581) as well as the margin of error that we can tolerate. We used a formula proposed by De Moerloose, Jeandrain & Swaen (2009).

The formula to calculate a minimum sample size is:

$$n = [(Z\alpha) \cdot (s)/E]^2$$

Where

n is the minimum sample size required

s is the Standard deviation

E is the margin of error required

α is the confidence level required

$Z\alpha$ is a constant from the normal distribution

We fixed our confidence level at 95% and our margin of error of 10%. In this way, $Z\alpha = 1.96$ and $E = 0.1$. We used the responses of the first 30 respondents at the question about “self-identification to Cosmopolitanism” to determine the standard deviation. We arrived to $s = 0.930$.

We have then: $n = ((1.96 \cdot 0.930)/0.1)^2$

$n = 332$ respondents

Due to our limited time and limited access to respondents, we were only able to accumulate 151 completed questionnaires. Unfortunately, we could not reach the theoretical minimum.

We calculate our response rate according to the number of people who clicked on the link to reach the questionnaire. There were 640 people who clicked on the link and arrived on the link, but only 151 expatriates completed the questionnaire. Consequently, our response rate is 23.6%. Considering that a 20% response rate is commonly recognized as good for an online survey, this result is satisfactory.

CHAPTER 4. Results

4.1 Sample

Within two weeks of data collection, we gathered 151 fully completed questionnaires. This section describes our sample in terms of individual characteristics. More information can be found in Appendix 7.

Our sample is composed of 68 women and 83 men, representing thus respectively 55% and 45%. Respondents are divided into five age categories: respondents in the twenties, in the thirties, in the forties, in the fifties and finally respondents over 60 years old. Hence, 37.75% of our respondents are in the twenties, 33.11% of them are in the thirties, 15.23% of our respondents are between 40 and 49 years old, 7.95% are in the fifties and finally, 5.96% of them are over 60 years old. We can notice that nearly three out of four respondents are between 20 and 40 years old, what means that our sample is mostly composed of young adults.

An important individual characteristic to our study is whether respondents are self-initiated expatriates, or whether they accepted an international assignment for the company they work for. Our sample is composed of 118 self-initiated expatriates and 33 company-backed expatriates, which respectively represent 78.15% and 21.85% of the whole sample.

We also asked our respondents to select their home and host continents and to mention their home and host countries. Several trends regarding these characteristics can be identified. Firstly, our study involves nearly exclusively expatriates coming from developed countries. Secondly, we notice that most of them moved to another developed country. Thirdly, European respondents constitute 73, 51 % of our sample. This situation is probably due to our methods of sampling and respondents' possible willingness to be in solidarity with people from their region of origin. Finally, Europe is also the most represented host continent in our sample, since 48, 34% of our respondents are expatriates in Europe. We note that nearly half of our European respondents did not leave the old continent when they expatriated.

Regarding the duration of assignment, more than half of our respondents (55.6%) have been on expatriation for more than five years. We believe that this finding can be linked to the fact that our sample is mainly composed of self-initiated expatriates.

Finally, respondents were also questioned about their experience in the host country. Hence, 48.3% of people had already visited their host country before expatriating, while 36.4% of them had never been to the host country before. Few (7.3%) used to study in the host country before expatriation, and 7.9% of respondents had already worked in the country before expatriation. Once more, we believe that this finding is logical if we consider that most of our respondents are self-initiated expatriates.

4.2 Preliminary studies

After two weeks of data collection thanks to our online questionnaire on Lime Survey, we imported all responses in an Excel table. This step was necessary to transform each response category into numerical data and to replace questions by variable names before being able to use the data with SPSS. We checked for errors and transferred them into SPSS, where we tackled the preparation of variables. Indeed, we had to reverse scores for several questions: “I function best in familiar setting”, “I look for regularity in life”, “I want predictability” (cultural flexibility), “I am not interested in other people’s problems” (agreeableness), “I rarely start conversations”, “I am quiet around strangers”, “I don’t like to draw attention to myself” (extraversion), “I am a nervous person”, “I am apt to feel lonely” (emotional stability), “I don’t like the idea of change” (openness to new experiences), “I don’t like to tell people which culture I am from” (identification to home culture), “I would not feel proud to be a member of the host culture” (identification to the host culture) and “I miss the life I used to have in my home country” (expatriation satisfaction). At this point, the preparation of variables was completed, and we could start preliminary studies. Indeed, we had to assess reliability and validity of construction of our data before testing our hypotheses.

4.2.1 Reliability Analysis with Cronbach’s alpha

This section concerns the reliability and the internal consistency of questions. Saunders & al. (2009, p.156) define reliability as “*the extent to which the data collection techniques or*

analysis procedures will yield consistent findings". Larson-Hall (2009, p.170) adds that "*a test is reliable if the same person taking it again would get the same score*". According to Saunders (2009), the Cronbach's alpha is one of the most commonly used method to examine internal consistency. Briefly, it consists of correlating the responses to each question related to a variable with those to other questions related to the same variable. We calculated Cronbach's alpha for each variable, and took action in order to maximize it. Indeed, we considered that a set of items had to reach a minimum 0.7 Cronbach's alpha to be reliable (Larson-Hall, 2009). Results for each variable can be found in Appendix 8.

4.2.2 Validity of constructions of variables: Principal Component Analysis

Saunders (2009, p.157) states that "*validity is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about*". Our purpose was then to check whether the questionnaire measured the aimed dimensions distinctly. We used the Principal Component analysis in order to assess validity. In this way, we associated items that were likely to be part of a same component and used the factor analysis on each group of items. One of our purpose was to reduce our numerous variables related to individual characteristics into reduced valid scales. We also wanted to reinforce the cosmopolitanism scale. We did three Principal Component analyses, and the different Component Matrix can be found in Appendix 9.

Firstly, we used the Principal Component analysis on the items assessing individual characteristics. Indeed, the different scales came from different sources, and we hoped for identifying some new associations between items and reducing the number of variables. The Principal Component analysis identified 7 distinct components, and allowed us to reduce the number of variables in our study.

The first component was formed with the initial scale for cosmopolitanism (4 items), 3 items from the initial scale for "cultural sensitivity", and one item from the initial scale for "openness to new experiences". This association was confirmed with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.889. This new variable was called **cosmopolitanism**, since all the items regrouped in the component correspond to our chosen definition of cosmopolitanism.

The second component was made of the initial scale for agreeableness (3 items), 3 items from the initial scale for “cultural empathy” and 2 items from the initial scale for open-mindedness. The Cronbach’s alpha calculated for this second component equals 0.817. Considering the different items regrouped under this component, we named this new variable “**Interest for others**”.

The third component is composed of the initial scale for cultural flexibility and 3 items of the initial scale for “openness to new experience”. The Cronbach’s alpha of this component is 0.780, once more, we named the variable according to its items: we called the variable “**openness to change**”.

The fourth component is composed of three items of the initial scale for emotional stability. The name of the variable remained “**emotional stability**”, and it allowed us to reach a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.751.

The fifth component was made of the initial scale for extraversion and one item from the initial scale for emotional stability. In order to reach a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.755, we deleted the item “I am apt to feel lonely”, which came from the emotional stability scale. Consequently, this fifth variable kept the name “**extraversion**”.

The sixth component is composed of two items: one from the initial scale for open-mindedness, and the other from the initial scale for cultural empathy. We calculated a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.696 for this variable and we named it “**Openness to diversity**”.

Finally, the last component was made of one item from the initial scale for cultural empathy and one item from the initial scale for open-mindedness. This new component didn’t reach a satisfactory Cronbach’s alpha (0.619), this is the reason why it was not created, and the two items were deleted from our data set.

Secondly, we use the Principal Component Analysis on the performance scale. We explored the possibility that the different dimensions of performance may be reduced. The result of the Principal Component Analysis allowed us to separate the performance dimensions into

two distinct components. Hence, the items “How effective are you conveying ideas verbally?”, “How effective are your communication exchanges”, “How much do you do things to help and support teammates?”, “How successful are you at arguing effectively to your position?”, “How much do you facilitate peer and team performance”, “How volunteer are you to do additional tasks that are not formally part of your job?” and “How effective are you at maintaining good working relationships?” have been associated and form one single component named “**Extra-role job performance**” while the four last items: “*How successful are you at fulfilling the responsibilities in the job description ?*”, “*How successful are you at meeting the job objectives?*”, “*How successful are you at meeting formal requirements of the job?*” and “*How successful are you at complying with organizational values and policies?*” constitute the new variable “**Job-specific performance**”. We have chosen to call the first component “extra-role job performance” because the items composing it refer to behaviors that exceed the job requirements. The separation of performance in two distinct components was confirmed by a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,825 for the “extra-role job performance” variable, and a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,852 for the new variable “Job-specific performance”.

Thanks to the different Cronbach’s alpha calculations and Principal Component analyses, we were in possession of the variables we could use. We computed a mean score for each variable composed of several items. Later, we also created a new categorical variable, based on the scores obtained by respondents on the new scale for cosmopolitanism. This walk was necessary to some of our analyses dedicated to categorical variables. As a reminder, a categorical variable’s values “*basically do not have any inherent numerical value and consist of categories where one category is not rated any higher than any other*” (Larson-Hall, 2009, p.33).

4.2.3 Descriptive statistics

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Identification to home culture	151	1,33	7	5,1082	1,3236
Life satisfaction	151	1,67	7	4,9249	1,33953
Expatriation satisfaction	151	1,33	7	5,2892	1,20596
Job-specific performance	151	3,5	7	5,745	0,8881
Non Job-specific performance	151	2,86	7	5,6159	0,84695
Job Satisfaction	151	1,67	7	5,5596	1,26247
Job adjustment	151	2,67	7	5,6181	1,01207
General adjustment	151	1,25	7	5,5447	1,14786
Interaction adjustment	151	1	7	5,1898	1,55135
New component: cosmopolitanism	151	3,5	7	5,8353	0,74824
Interest for others	151	2,78	6,78	5,298	0,82556
Openess to change	151	1,67	6,83	4,9327	0,93674
Emotional stability	151	1	7	4,7572	1,35588
Extraversion	151	1	7	4,606	1,39953
Openess to diversity	151	2,5	7	5,3311	1,01635
Valid N (listwise)	151				

Source: own contribution

As we can note in Table 1, each variable has a mean around 5, which is above the neutral answer 4. Regarding the standard variation, we know that it is significantly high when it equals half of the mean, what is not the case for any of our variables. However, this preliminary analysis allows us to observe that our variables will at least bring us some information, since their variance is not equal to 0. The variables which tend to vary the most are interaction adjustment, extraversion, emotional stability, identification to the home culture and life satisfaction.

4.2.4 One sample t-test

In order to determine when a variable can be considered as significantly high, we used one sample t-tests. Generally speaking, a t-test determines “*if the differences between groups are small enough to attribute them to the random variation in scores that would happen each time we take a new sample of the same population, or whether the differences are large enough that the two groups can be said to belong to two different populations*” (Larson-Hall, 2009, p.136). In this context, we want to make sure that the value that we will consider as significantly

high (or low) for variables has no chance to correspond to the mean. In particular, this test is useful to the variable cosmopolitanism, because some statistical tests require the creation of a categorical variable for cosmopolitanism. Tables 2 and 3 show the results for the two t-tests.

Table 2. One Sample t-test for the value 4

One-Sample Test							
	Test Value = 4	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Identification to home culture	10,288	150	0	1,10817	0,8953	1,321	
Life satisfaction	8,485	150	0	0,92494	0,7096	1,1403	
Expatriation satisfaction	13,136	150	0	1,28918	1,0953	1,4831	
Job-specific performance	24,145	150	0	1,74503	1,6022	1,8878	
Non Job-specific performance	23,445	150	0	1,61589	1,4797	1,7521	
Job Satisfaction	15,18	150	0	1,5596	1,3566	1,7626	
Job adjustment	19,646	150	0	1,6181	1,4554	1,7808	
General adjustment	16,537	150	0	1,5447	1,3601	1,7293	
Interaction adjustment	9,425	150	0	1,18985	0,9404	1,4393	
Cosmopolitanism	30,14	150	0	1,83526	1,7149	1,9556	
Interest for others	19,321	150	0	1,29801	1,1653	1,4308	
Openess to change	12,235	150	0	0,93267	0,782	1,0833	
Emotional stability	6,862	150	0	0,75717	0,5392	0,9752	
Extraversion	5,32	150	0	0,60596	0,3809	0,831	
Openess to diversity	16,094	150	0	1,33113	1,1677	1,4946	
I am thinking of going back to my home country earlier	-10,719	150	0	-1,437	-1,7	-1,17	

Source: own contribution

H₀: the mean of the sample is equal to 4 (Table 2)

Table 3. One Sample t-test for the value 6

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 6	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t				Lower	Upper
Identification to home culture	-8,28	150	0	-0,89183	-1,1047	-0,679
Life satisfaction	-9,862	150	0	-1,07506	-1,2904	-0,8597
Expatriation satisfaction	-7,243	150	0	-0,71082	-0,9047	-0,5169
Job-specific performance	-3,528	150	0,001	-0,25497	-0,3978	-0,1122
Non Job-specific performance	-5,573	150	0	-0,38411	-0,5203	-0,2479
Job Satisfaction	-4,287	150	0	-0,4404	-0,6434	-0,2374
Job adjustment	-4,637	150	0	-0,3819	-0,5446	-0,2192
General adjustment	-4,874	150	0	-0,4553	-0,6399	-0,2707
Interaction adjustment	-6,417	150	0	-0,81015	-1,0596	-0,5607
Cosmopolitanism	-2,705	150	0,008	-0,16474	-0,2851	-0,0444
Interest for others	-10,449	150	0	-0,70199	-0,8347	-0,5692
Openess to change	-14,001	150	0	-1,06733	-1,218	-0,9167
Emotional stability	-11,264	150	0	-1,24283	-1,4608	-1,0248
Extraversion	-12,24	150	0	-1,39404	-1,6191	-1,169
Openess to diversity	-8,087	150	0	-0,66887	-0,8323	-0,5054
I am thinking of going back to my home countrv earlier	-25,636	150	0	-3,437	-3,7	-3,17

Source: own contribution

H0: the mean of the sample is equal to 6 (Table 3)

Our variables were assessed by seven-point Likert scales, and considering that all variables' means are around 5, we decided to fix that a variable would be considered as significantly high when its value equals or is above 6. Similarly, we decided that the variable would be considered as significantly low when its value equals or is inferior to 4.

We have decided to use the significance level $\alpha=0.05\%$ for all our analyses, because it is the most commonly used level. The significance level is the probability to say that the H_0 hypothesis is wrong when it is correct, or in statistical jargon, to make a type I error. Another important number to our analysis is the p-value, which is “*the probability that the observed test result occurred by chance alone*” (Saunders, 2009, p.450). When p-value is smaller or equal to the level of significance, we reject the null hypothesis and we can assume that the result is statistically significant.

Thanks to the two one sample t-tests, we note that the probability to observe a sample of this size with its mean taken from a population with a mean equal to 4 or 6 is inferior to 0,005%. The p-values are always smaller than the level of significance, which means that we can reject the null hypothesis, and that it is reasonable to consider 6 as a high score for variables, and 4 as a low value for variables.

Thanks to this preliminary study, we created the categorical variable for cosmopolitanism by considering that cosmopolitan expatriates are respondents who obtained a score equal or higher than 6 on the cosmopolitanism scale.

4.2.5 Cosmopolitan respondents within our sample

Before starting to test our hypotheses, we studied the differences in characteristics between cosmopolitan respondents and others.

We undertook a Chi-square for group independence analysis to observe the differences between cosmopolitan respondents and others in our sample, in terms of gender, type of

expatriate and home continent. The Chi square test calculates the difference between observed scores and expected scores and divides this difference by the expected score (Larson-Hall, 2009).

Cosmopolitan respondents and their gender

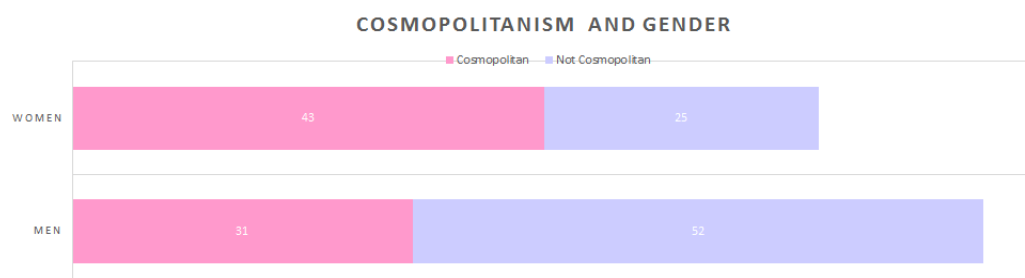
Table 4. Crosstabulation: cosmopolitanism and gender

Gender * Cosmopolitanism Crosstabulation						
			Cosmopolitanism		Total	
			0 Not Cosmopolita n	1 Cosmopolita n		
Gender	0 Man	Count	52	31	83	
		% within Gender	62,7%	37,3%	100,0%	
		% within Cosmopolitanism	67,5%	41,9%	55,0%	
		% of Total	34,4%	20,5%	55,0%	
	1 Woman	Count	25	43	68	
		% within Gender	36,8%	63,2%	100,0%	
		% within Cosmopolitanism	32,5%	58,1%	45,0%	
		% of Total	16,6%	28,5%	45,0%	
	Total		Count	77	74	151
			% within Gender	51,0%	49,0%	100,0%
% within Cosmopolitanism			100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	
% of Total			51,0%	49,0%	100,0%	

Source: own contribution

Table 4 indicates that our sample involves more cosmopolitan women (43) than men (31) while there are more men (83) than women (68) in the whole sample. Indeed, we observe that 63.2% of cosmopolitan respondents are women, while women only constitute 45% of the whole sample. This situation is coherent with findings in previous literature, since cosmopolitanism is composed of qualities that are commonly believed to be feminine. Figure 1 represents the repartition of cosmopolitan respondents according to gender.

Figure 1. Repartition of cosmopolitan respondents according to their gender



Source: own contribution

Table 5. Chi square for group independence analysis: cosmopolitanism and gender

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10,022 ^a	1	,002		
Continuity Correction ^b	9,013	1	,003		
Likelihood Ratio	10,134	1	,001		
Fisher's Exact Test				,002	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	9,956	1	,002		
N of Valid Cases	151				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 33,32.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Source: own contribution

H₀: there is no relationship between cosmopolitanism and gender

Table 5 shows the results of the Chi square analysis for cosmopolitanism and gender. The Pearson chi-square is the statistic normally reported for this test, and account for 10.022, with 1 degree of freedom (since there are two variables). The p-value of the Chi-square is inferior to the level of significance, which means that we can reject H₀ and deduct with a level of significance of 0.05% that there is a relationship between cosmopolitanism and gender.

Larson- Hall (2009, p.393) state that “*the effect size measures how much effect can be attributed to the influence of an independent variable on a dependent variable, or to the relationship between variables*”. In this case, we used Phi, which is a percentage variance effect size. Phi is showed in Table 6 and equals 25.8% for the relationship between cosmopolitanism and gender.

Table 6. Effect size between cosmopolitanism and gender

Symmetric Measures		
	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal Phi	,258	,002
Cramer's V	,258	,002
N of Valid Cases	151	

Source: own contribution

We also used an independent-samples t-test with the continuous variable of cosmopolitanism to verify our result. The independent samples t-test analysis can be found in Appendix 10.

Cosmopolitan respondents and type of expatriation

Table 7 shows the repartition of self-initiated expatriates and company-backed expatriates according to the degree of cosmopolitanism. It does not show a particular tendency.

Table 7. Crosstabulations: cosmopolitanism and type of expatriate

Cosmopolitanism * Type of expatriate Crosstabulation

Count			
	Type of expatriate		Total
	1 Self-initiated expatriate	2 Company-backed expatriate	
Cosmopolitanism 0 Not Cosmopolitan	57	20	77
1 Cosmopolitan	61	13	74
Total	118	33	151

Source: own contribution

Table 8. Chi square for group independence analysis: cosmopolitanism and type of expatriation

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,561 ^a	1	,211		
Continuity Correction ^b	1,108	1	,293		
Likelihood Ratio	1,572	1	,210		
Fisher's Exact Test				,241	,146
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,551	1	,213		
N of Valid Cases	151				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16,17.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Source: own contribution

H0: there is no relationship between cosmopolitanism and the type of expatriate

Table 8 shows the Chi-square test for cosmopolitanism and the type of expatriate. In this case, the p-value is greater than the level of significance (0.05). Consequently, we cannot reject H0 and are not able to state that there is a relationship between cosmopolitanism and the type of expatriate. There may be one, but we cannot make any conclusion with certainty.

Cosmopolitan respondents and their home continent

Table 9 does not indicate any particular difference between groups.

Table 9. Crosstabulations: Cosmopolitanism and home continent

Cosmopolitanism * Home continent Crosstabulation

Count	Home continent						Total
	1 Europe	2 North America	South/Central America	4 Asia	5 Oceania	6 Africa	
Cosmopolitanism 0 Not Cosmopolitan	56	14	2	3	2	0	77
1 Cosmopolitan	55	8	3	4	1	3	74
Total	111	22	5	7	3	3	151

Source: own contribution

Table 10. Chi square for group independence analysis: cosmopolitanism and home continent

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,264 ^a	5	,385
Likelihood Ratio	6,450	5	,265
Linear-by-Linear Association	,719	1	,396
N of Valid Cases	151		

a. 8 cells (66,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count

Source: own contribution

H0: *There is no relationship between cosmopolitanism and home continent of respondents*

As we can see in Table 10, the p-value related to the Pearson Chi-square is above the level of significance (0.05), and as a consequence no conclusion can be stated with this sample.

4.2.6 Assumptions for Parametric Statistics

Saunders & al. (2009) differentiate two groups of statistical significance tests: non parametric statistics and parametric statistics. They state that the first ones are to be used when data is not normally distributed, contrary to parametric statistics, which are used for numerical data and therefore considered as more powerful. However, parametric statistics involve several assumptions that need to be satisfied. Larson-Hall (2009) states that a lot of researchers continue to use parametric tests even if their data didn't meet these assumptions, and that there is a debate among statistical experts regarding the necessity to satisfy these assumptions. We have decided to be transparent and to show them anyway.

Saunders & al. (2009, p.449) mention the most important assumptions for parametric tests:

1. The data cases should be *independent*, what means that the selection of any one case for your sample should not affect the probability of any other case being included in the same sample;
2. The data used should be *numerical*.

These two assumptions are respected, since our data is numerical and that each respondent answered to each question only one time. Independence is also concerned by the effect of one respondent's behavior to the behavior of another respondent, what is not the case in our study. The two following assumptions need more analysis of data.

3. The data cases should be taken from *normally distributed populations*;
4. The populations from which the data cases are drawn should have *equal variances*; Larson-Hall (2009, p.86) adds that variance "*measures the average squared distance from the mean to any point*".

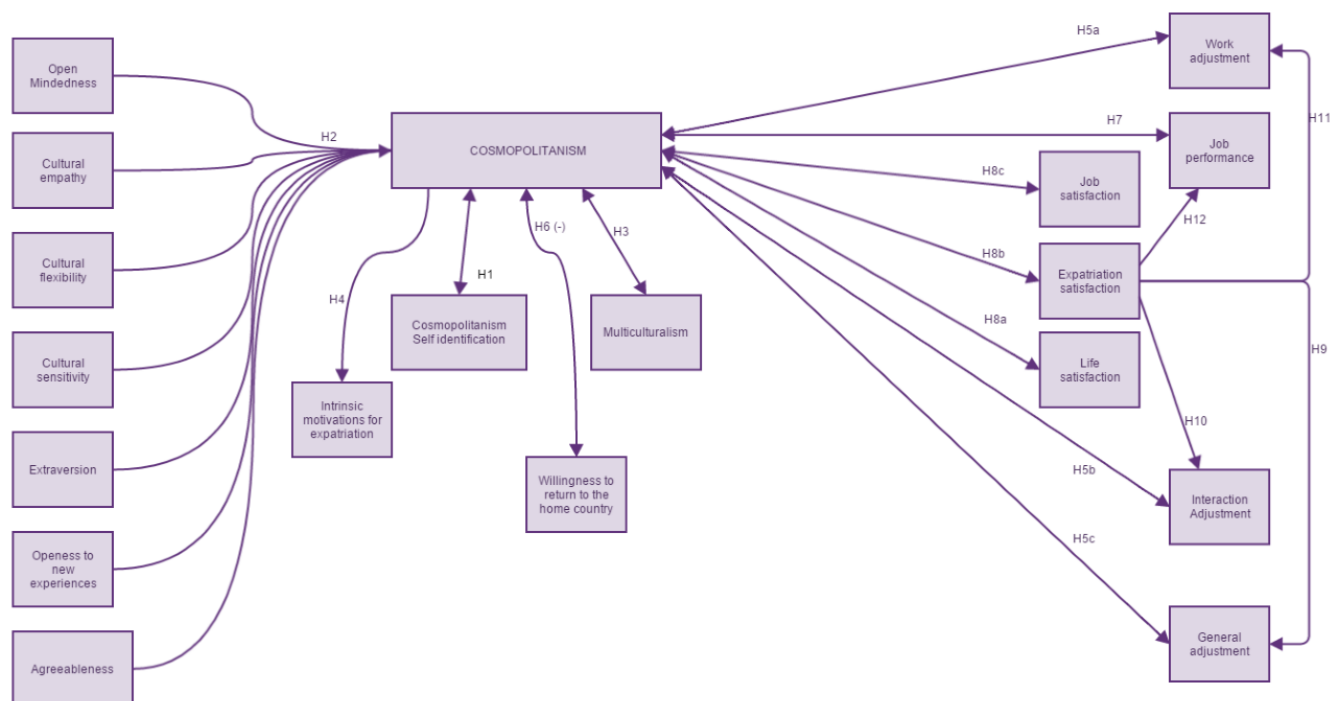
Regarding the assumption of normality, we have decided to study Skewness and kurtosis. They are both concerned with the shape of distributions. Larson-Hall (2009, p.69) specifies that skewness refers to the symmetry around the mean, while kurtosis, refers to the pointy or flat character of the shape of the curve in the middle. Porte (as cited in Larson-

Hall, 2009, p.78) states that normality is not violated if the skewness level is less than 1. The kurtosis level has also to be inferior to 1.5. We analyzed skewness and kurtosis data for our variables and noted that no variable seemed to be cause for concern regarding normality. The descriptive table with skewness and kurtosis values can be found in Appendix 11.

The assumption for homogeneity of variance will be tested for each test separately in our study.

4.3 Hypotheses testing and results interpretation

Figure 2. Research Model



Source: own contribution

We are now able to test our hypotheses, which are summarized in Figure 2. As commonly done in statistics and as in the preliminary studies, we will set up a null hypothesis (H0) for each test, stating that there is no difference between groups or no relationships between variables, and try to prove that it is false. (Larson-Hall, 2009). Once we reject the null hypothesis, we accept the alternative hypothesis, which states the opposite of the null hypothesis. We will still use the most commonly used level of significance, which is 0.05.

4.3.1 What are the characteristics of cosmopolitanism?

H1: Cosmopolitan expatriates highly identify themselves to cosmopolitanism

Firstly, we tested whether cosmopolitanism and self-identification to cosmopolitanism are correlated. Correlation looks at how two measurements vary together (Larson-Hall, 2009). It concerns two continuous variables, this is why we used the continuous variable for cosmopolitanism to calculate the Pearson correlation. It should be reminded that we assessed self-identification to cosmopolitanism by asking respondents to rate their agreement with a text describing cosmopolitanism.

Table 11. Descriptive statistics

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Self-identification as cosmopolitan	4,57	1,679	151
New component: cosmopolitanism	5,8353	0,74824	151

Source: own contribution

Table 11 shows descriptive statistics regarding the two variables. We notice that the mean score on the scale for cosmopolitanism is significantly higher than the mean for the variable “self-identification as cosmopolitan”. This situation can reflect the fact that respondents easily identify themselves to separated qualities of cosmopolitanism but that the text describing cosmopolitanism doesn’t correspond to their vision of life.

Table 12. Correlations

Correlations			
		Self-identification as cosmopolitan	New component: cosmopolitanism
Self-identification as cosmopolitan	Pearson Correlation	1	,318**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0
	N	151	151
New component: cosmopolitanism	Pearson Correlation	,318**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	
	N	151	151

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

Source: own contribution

H0: There is no correlation between the variables

Table 12 shows the correlations between the two variables. Pearson correlation's coefficient, r , is “a measure of the strength of a relationship between two variables” (Field, 2013, p.82). Since the p-value is null, we can reject H_0 and assume that there is a correlation between the two variables at the 0.01 level of significance. Table 12 shows a statistically significant correlation of 0.318, which correspond to a moderate positive linear relationship.

These findings already confirm our hypothesis and show that people who obtain high scores on the scale for cosmopolitanism also identify themselves to cosmopolitanism more importantly than others. We also noticed that the mean score for the variable “self-identification as cosmopolitan” is relatively lower than the mean score on the scale for cosmopolitanism. This may mean that respondents are more hesitant to identify themselves to cosmopolitanism than to separate components of cosmopolitanism expressed by items.

Secondly, we used an Independent Samples t-test to compare means between cosmopolitans and not cosmopolitan respondents regarding self-identification as cosmopolitan.

Table 13. Group statistics

Group Statistics				
Cosmopolitanism	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Self-identification as cosmopolitan				
0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	4,18	1,707	,195
1 Cosmopolitan	74	4,97	1,561	,181

Source: own contribution

Table 13 shows that there is a difference of mean in our sample between cosmopolitan respondents and not cosmopolitan respondents regarding the degree of self-identification to cosmopolitanism. Table 14 shows the Independent Samples Test results.

Table 14. Independent Samples Test

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Self-identification as cosmopolitan	Equal variances assumed	,781	,378	-2,968	149	,003	-,791	,267	-1,318	-,264
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,974	148,641	,003	-,791	,266	-1,317	-,265

Source: own contribution

Regarding Levene's Test for Equality of Variances,

H0: Equality of variance between the two groups

Since the p-value for Levene's Test is greater than the level of significance (0.05), we cannot reject H0, and have to consider the first row for the t-test for Equality of Means.

Regarding t-test for Equality of Means,

H0: There is no difference of mean between cosmopolitans and not cosmopolitan respondents

We can reject H0 for the t-test for Equality of Means since the p-value is smaller than 0.05. We can conclude with a level of significance of 0.05 that there is a difference of mean in the degree of self-identification to cosmopolitanism between cosmopolitan respondents and not cosmopolitan respondents, or in other words, respondents who obtained a mean above 6 on the scale for cosmopolitanism tend to identify themselves more importantly to cosmopolitanism than others.

We verified our result with a non-parametric test, since the assumption of normality is not respected. We obtained the same result: we could reject H0 and assume that there is a difference of distribution between the two groups in terms of degree of self-identification to cosmopolitanism. The results of the Mann Whitley U test can be found in Appendix 12.

H2: Open-mindedness, cultural empathy, cultural flexibility, cultural sensitivity, extraversion, openness to new experiences and agreeableness are predictors of cosmopolitanism.

Thanks to the Principal Component analysis, the different scales taken from previous literature have been associated to form six new components. Hence, the variables

“open-mindedness”, “cultural empathy”, “cultural flexibility”, “cultural sensitivity”, “openness to new experiences” and “agreeableness” have been replaced by the new variables “interest for others”, “openness to change” and “openness to diversity”. The two variables “extraversion” and “emotional stability” remained separated from other variables.

H2: Interest for others, Openness to change, Openness to diversity, extraversion and emotional stability are predictors of cosmopolitanism

Firstly, we looked for relationships between cosmopolitanism and other variables thanks to a calculation of Pearson correlation's coefficients.

Table 15. Correlations

Correlations

		New component: cosmopolitanism	Interest for others	Openness to change	Emotional stability	Extraversion	Openness to diversity
New component: cosmopolitanism	Pearson Correlation	1	,595**	,405**	,252**	,067	,545**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000	,000	,002	,414	,000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151

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

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

Source: own contribution

H0: There is no relationship between the two variables

Table 15 shows the correlations between variables. All p-values allow us to reject H0 except for the variable extraversion. We observe that there is a statistically significant relationship between cosmopolitanism and the variables “interest for others” (0.595), “openness to diversity” (0.545), “openness to change” (0.405) and “emotional stability” (0.252). These results mean that cosmopolitanism has a strong positive linear relationship with “interest for others” and “openness to diversity”, a moderate positive linear relationship with “openness to change” and a weak positive linear relationship with “emotional stability”. These findings are statistically significant at the 0.01 level of significance. These results confirm that linear relationships exist between cosmopolitanism and the independent variables, apart from extraversion. We can already predict that extraversion will not be as significant as other independent variables regarding the prediction of cosmopolitanism.

At this point, we believe that openness to change, emotional stability, extraversion, openness to diversity and interest for others are predictors of cosmopolitanism. In order to test our hypothesis, we used a Linear Regression analysis. Indeed, multiple regression “*looks at the relationships among multiple variables to try to make a prediction about how some variables (independent variables) may predict scores on another variable (dependent variable)*” (Larson-Hall, 2009, p.133). Tabachnick & Fidell (as cited in Larson-Hall, 2009, p.184) state that a multiple regression requires at least $N=50+8 \times \text{number of explanatory variables}$. We are able to use a multiple regression analysis, since 151 is greater than $50+8 \times 5=90$.

We have decided to address assumption in detail for this Multiple Regression Analysis in Appendix 13.

Table 16. Multiple regression of Cosmopolitanism: Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.730 ^a	.534	.518	.51975

a. Predictors: (Constant), Openness to diversity, Emotional stability, Extraversion, Openness to change, Interest for others

Source: own contribution

Table 16 summarizes the Multiple Regression Analysis. The coefficient of determination (R Square) “*measures the proportion of the variation in a dependent variable that can be explained statistically by the independent variable*” (Saunders & al., 2009, p.461). This model summary states that 53.4% of the total variance of cosmopolitanism can be explained by the variation of openness to change, extraversion, emotional stability, openness to diversity and interest for others. We have to mention that we used here a standard regression, what means that the importance of the independent variable depends on how much it uniquely overlaps with the dependent variable (Larson-Hall, 2009, p.179). The adjusted R Square corrects for positive bias in the R square estimation and equals 51.8%.

The next step in the Regression analysis is an ANOVA test.

Table 17. Multiple regression of Cosmopolitanism: ANOVA

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	44,811	5	8,962	33,176	,000 ^b
	Residual	39,170	145	,270		
	Total	83,980	150			

a. Dependent Variable: New component: cosmopolitanism

b. Predictors: (Constant), Openness to diversity, Emotional stability, Extraversion, Openness to change, Interest for others

Source: own contribution

H0: the predictive power of the model is equal to 0

Table 17 shows the Analysis of Variance for our Multiple Regression. Since the p-value is equal to 0, it is lower than the level of significance (0.05). Hence, we can reject H0 and assume that the model has predictive power. The Total sum of squares is to get a sense of the magnitude of how much the actual points differ from our estimate of their middle point, it measures the total variance. (Larson-Hall, 2009).

Table 18. Multiple regression of Cosmopolitanism: Coefficients table

Coefficients ^a													
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1,582	,357		4,437	,000	,878	2,287					
	Interest for others	,378	,059	,417	6,383	,000	,261	,495	,595	,468	,362	,754	1,326
	Openness to change	,206	,048	,257	4,319	,000	,111	,300	,405	,338	,245	,906	1,104
	Emotional stability	,054	,033	,098	1,659	,099	-,010	,119	,252	,136	,094	,921	1,086
	Extraversion	-,041	,031	-,077	-1,313	,191	-,103	,021	,067	-,108	-,074	,947	1,056
	Openness to diversity	,219	,048	,298	4,574	,000	,124	,314	,545	,355	,259	,760	1,316

a. Dependent Variable: New component: cosmopolitanism

Source: own contribution

H0: there is no linear relationship between the combination of independent variables and cosmopolitanism

Table 18 is important to our analysis, because it provides information about each independent variable in the regression equation. The unstandardized coefficients are the ones we use to write the regression equation, while standardized coefficients give “*the coefficients that would result if they were fit to standardized data*” (Larson-Hall, 2009, p.193). In our case, we can say for example that a change of 1 in Interest for others is associated with a change of

0.378 of cosmopolitanism. Saunders & al (2009, p.463) state that the adjusted R Square takes into account the number of independent variables in the regression equation. In fact, β indicates the change in standard deviation for cosmopolitanism for one additional standard deviation for the independent variable, when all others variables are constant. We can say that one additional standard deviation for interest for others is associated with a change of 0.417 change in standard deviation for cosmopolitanism.

The t-test associated with each line tests whether each variable contributes significantly to the equation (Tabachnick & Fidell, as cited in Larson-Hall, 2009, p.193). We observe that p-values related to the t-test for the independent variables extraversion and emotional stability are superior to the level of significance 0.05, and consequently we assume that these two variables do not contribute significantly to the model. Hence, we can write:

$$\text{Cosmopolitanism} = 1.582 + 0.378 * (\text{Interest for others}) + 0.206 * (\text{Openness to change}) + 0.219 * (\text{Openness to diversity}) + \text{error}$$

Under the Correlations section in Table 18, we note the Column labeled “Part” is used to assess the unique contribution of each variable to the overall R Square. (Larson-Hall, 2009). The three most important variables are Interest for others (0.362), Openness to diversity (0.259) and Openness to change (0.245).

Our hypothesis was confirmed for the variables Interest for others, Openness to diversity and openness to change. However, we were not able to prove that agreeability and emotional stability are predictors of cosmopolitanism.

4.3.2 Does cosmopolitanism imply a multicultural identity?

H3: Cosmopolitan expatriates tend to identify themselves with several cultures.

Originally, we intended to answer this question and test this hypothesis thanks to two variables designating respectively the degree of identification to the home culture and the degree of identification to the host culture. Unfortunately, the calculation of Cronbach’s alphas made us decide not to use the scale for identification to the host culture, because of its lack of

reliability. As a consequence, we were not able to test the hypothesis. However, we analyzed the data collected for the variable “identification to the home country”. We used an independent samples t-test to see if we can note a difference of mean between Cosmopolitan respondents and others.

Table 19. Cosmopolitanism and identification to home culture

Report			
Identification to home culture			
Cosmopolitanism	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
0 Not Cosmopolitan	4,9827	77	1,21744
1 Cosmopolitan	5,2387	74	1,42228
Total	5,1082	151	1,3236

Source: own contribution

We observe in Table 19 a difference of mean between cosmopolitan respondents and others regarding the degree of identification to the home culture within our sample. Table 20 shows the Independent Samples Test results regarding identification to the home culture among cosmopolitans and not cosmopolitans;

Table 20. Independent Samples Test: Identification to home culture

		Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Identification to home culture	Equal variances assumed	,781	,378	-1,190	149	,236	-,25605	,21517	-,68124	,16913
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,186	143,607	,237	-,25605	,21584	-,68268	,17057

Source: own contribution

Regarding Levene's Test for Equality of Variances,

H0: Equality of variances between the two groups

Since the p-value is greater than the level of significance (0.05), we cannot reject the null hypothesis and have to consider the first row for the t-test for Equality of means.

Regarding the t-Test,

H0: Equality of means between the two groups

The p-value is greater than the level of significance (0.05), which means that we are not able to reject H_0 , and cannot make conclusions regarding the equality of means for the variable “identification to the home culture” between cosmopolitan respondents and others.

4.3.3 Cosmopolitanism: successful personality trait or utopia for both expatriate and manager?

Do motivation drivers for expatriation differ between cosmopolitans and not cosmopolitans?

H4: Cosmopolitans tend to expatriate for the following motivation drivers: “to see the world”, “confidence in ability to work and live abroad”, “desire for adventure”, “desire to live in the host country”, “host culture” and “successful previous experience in the foreign environment” rather than for career-related motivations.

In order to answer this question, we designed a multiple-choice question composed of eighteen motivation drivers. We asked respondents to choose the three most influent motivation drivers in their expatriation decision and to rank them from first to third.

Firstly, we analyzed the data without separating cosmopolitans from others. The three most cited motivation drivers were “Impact on career”, “To see the world” and “Desire for adventure. Table 21 summarizes expatriates’ responses.

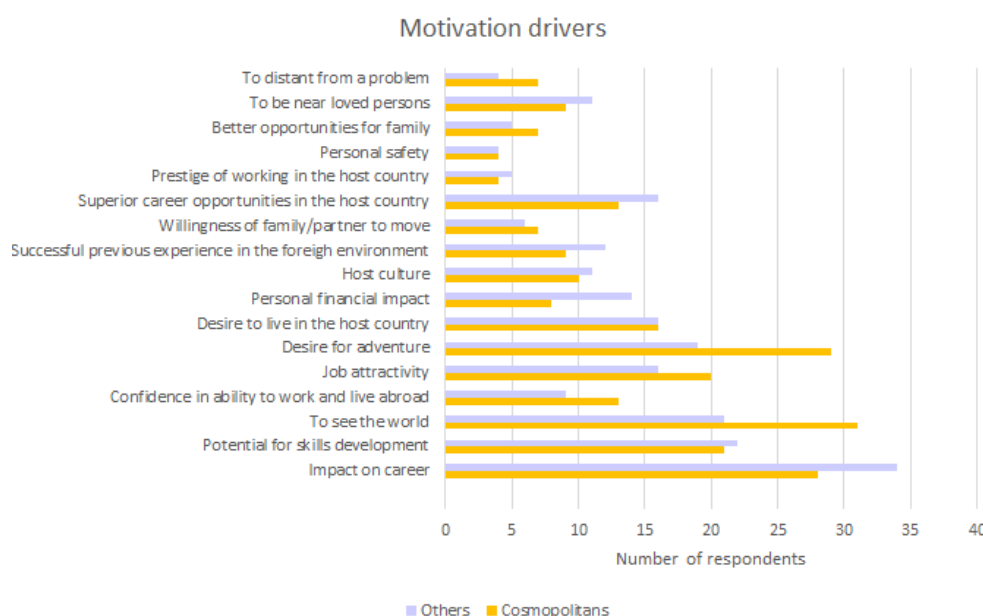
Table 21. Motivation drivers

Reasons for expatriation	Frequency	%	Ranking	Middle ranking by expatriates	Ranking	aggregate ranking
Impact on career	62	12,45	1	1,70	1	1
Potential for skills development	43	8,63	4	2,00	6	4
To see the world	52	10,44	2	2,06	7	3
Confidence in ability to work and live abroad	22	4,42	9	2,27	10	8
Job attractivity	36	7,23	6	1,79	4	4
Desire for adventure	48	9,64	3	1,74	3	2
Desire to live in the host country	32	6,43	7	2,35	12	8
Personal financial impact	22	4,42	11	2,29	11	9
Host culture	21	4,22	8	2,00	6	6
Successful previous experience in the foreign environment	21	4,22	10	2,55	14	11
Willingness of family/partner to move	13	2,61	12	1,80	5	7
Superior career opportunities in the host country	29	5,82	7	2,00	6	5
Prestige of working in the host country	9	1,81	15	2,17	8	10
Personal safety	8	1,61	14	2,50	13	12
Better opportunities for family	12	2,41	12	1,70	1	5
To be near loved persons	20	4,02	11	1,71	2	5
To distant from a problem	11	2,21	13	3,00	15	13
Professional challenge of working abroad	37	7,43	5	2,24	9	6
TOTAL	498	100,00		2,10		

Source: own contribution

Secondly, we explored the repartition of cosmopolitan respondents and not cosmopolitan respondents for each motivation driver. Figure 3 shows this repartition.

Figure 3. Motivation drivers and cosmopolitanism



Source: own contribution

Figure 3 shows that the motivation drivers “to see the world” and “desire for adventure” are more frequently chosen by cosmopolitans than by not cosmopolitans. We observe the opposite situation for the motivation driver “Impact on career”, which confirm our hypothesis.

Finally, we used Chi-square analyses to observe the relationships between cosmopolitanism and the different motivation drivers. Since our study includes a lot of motivation drivers, we have decided to use the Chi-square analysis on the most relevant ones to our study: “Impact on career”, “to see the world”, “Desire for adventure”, “Confidence in ability to work and live abroad”, “personal financial impact”, “successful experience in the host country” and “host culture”. Their crosstabs can be found in Appendix 14. The most important finding is that the motivation drivers “desire for adventure” and “to see the world” are often ranked first by cosmopolitan respondents. Once again, these findings confirm our hypothesis.

What is the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness?

An analysis of potential relationships between variables of interest was executed with Pearson correlations. As a reminder, H5 concerned the relationship between cosmopolitanism and adjustment, H6 concerned the relationship between cosmopolitanism and the willingness to return prematurely to the home country and H7 was dedicated to the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate performance.

H5a: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to job adjustment

H5b: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to interaction adjustment

H5c: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to general adjustment

H6: Cosmopolitanism is negatively correlated to willingness to go back to the home country

H7a: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to job-specific performance

H7b: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to extra-role job performance

Table 21. Correlations: Cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness dimensions

		Correlations						
		New component: cosmopolitanism	Job-specific performance	Non Job-specific performance	Job adjustment	General adjustment	Interaction adjustment	I am thinking of going back to my home country earlier
New component: cosmopolitanism	Pearson Correlation	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
	N	151						
Job-specific performance	Pearson Correlation	,170	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,037						
	N	151	151					
Non Job-specific performance	Pearson Correlation	,210	,651	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,010	,000					
	N	151	151	151				
Job adjustment	Pearson Correlation	,137	,627	,524	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,093	,000	,000				
	N	151	151	151	151			
General adjustment	Pearson Correlation	,184	,390	,302	,345	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,023	,000	,000	,000			
	N	151	151	151	151	151		
Interaction adjustment	Pearson Correlation	,197	,237	,303	,310	,521	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,016	,003	,000	,000	,000		
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	
I am thinking of going back to my home country earlier	Pearson Correlation	-,204	-,061	-,037	-,083	-,352	-,325	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,012	,459	,650	,308	,000	,000	
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151

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

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

Source: own contribution

Several statistically significant linear relationships are revealed thanks to the calculation of Pearson correlations in Table 21. Firstly, we observe weak positive relationships between cosmopolitanism and job-specific performance (0.05 level of significance), extra-role job performance (0.01 level of significance), general adjustment (0.05 level of significance) and interaction adjustment (0.01 level of significance). Cosmopolitanism has also a weak negative linear relationship with the willingness to return to the home country. These findings confirm our assumptions, even if we expected the linear relationships to be stronger. Only H5a could not be confirmed, because its p-value is greater than the level of significance.

In addition, we can identify strong linear relationships between several variables. Hence, Job-specific and Extra-role job performance are both strongly positively correlated to job adjustment (0.01 significance level). Job specific and extra-role job performance are as well strongly positively correlated (0.01 significance level). We also observe that there is a strong positive linear relationship between general adjustment and interaction adjustment (0.01 level of significance). Another interesting finding is that willingness to return to the home country

has a moderate negative linear relationship with interaction adjustment as well as with general adjustment (0.01 level of significance). It is important to remember that the fact that two variables are correlated does not mean that there is a causal relationship between them.

We also studied group statistics in order to observe differences between cosmopolitans and others regarding the different dimensions of expatriate effectiveness. Table 22 shows the Group statistics.

Table 22. Group statistics

Group Statistics					
Cosmopolitanism		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Job-specific performance	0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	5,6883	,84015	,09574
	1 Cosmopolitan	74	5,8041	,93749	,10898
Extra performance	0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	5,5121	,83536	,09520
	1 Cosmopolitan	74	5,7239	,85103	,09893
Job adjustment	0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	5,5671	,93669	,10675
	1 Cosmopolitan	74	5,6712	1,08889	,12658
General adjustment	0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	5,4188	1,12056	,12770
	1 Cosmopolitan	74	5,6757	1,16875	,13586
Interaction adjustment	0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	5,0693	1,51921	,17313
	1 Cosmopolitan	74	5,3153	1,58464	,18421
I am thinking of going back to my home country earlier	0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	2,74	1,802	,205
	1 Cosmopolitan	74	2,38	1,459	,170

Source: own contribution

We notice in Table 22 that the means for job specific performance, extra-role job performance, job adjustment, general adjustment and interaction adjustment are higher for cosmopolitans than others. We also observe that cosmopolitan respondents are less willing to go back to their home country than others. However, the independent samples t-test did not bring any statistically significant result, which means that we cannot reject the H0 that means are equal across the two groups (Appendix 15). We believe that the p-values of the t-test would have been smaller with a larger sample and that H0 could have been rejected.

Does satisfaction play a moderating role between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness?

Our study involved three dimensions of satisfaction: life satisfaction, job satisfaction and expatriation satisfaction. Our last research question concerns the relationships between satisfaction, cosmopolitanism and performance. The first step to answer our research question

was to look for linear relationships between cosmopolitanism and the different dimensions of satisfaction.

H8a: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to life satisfaction during an international assignment.

H8b: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to expatriation satisfaction during an international assignment.

H8c: Cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to work satisfaction during an international assignment.

Firstly, we used Pearson correlation's coefficients on the four variables and were able to identify several statistically significant linear relationships.

Table 23. Correlations: Cosmopolitanism and satisfaction

		Correlations			
		New component: cosmopolitanism	Life satisfaction	Expatriation satisfaction	Job Satisfaction
New component: cosmopolitanism	Pearson	1			
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
Life satisfaction	N	151			
	Pearson	,152	1		
	Correlation				
Expatriation satisfaction	Sig. (2-tailed)	,062			
	N	151	151		
	Pearson	,347**	,543**	1	
Job Satisfaction	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000		
	N	151	151	151	
	Pearson	,127	,493**	,482**	1
	Correlation				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,121	,000	,000	
	N	151	151	151	151

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

Source: own contribution

Table 23 shows that there is a statistically significant relationship between cosmopolitanism and Expatriation satisfaction (0.347, 0.01 level of significance). The p-values for the relationships between the other dimensions of satisfaction and cosmopolitanism did not allow us to assume correlations between them. However, we note that life satisfaction and Expatriation satisfaction are strongly positively correlated (0.543, 0.01 level of significance), and that job satisfaction is strongly positively correlated with both life satisfaction (0.493, 0.01 level of significance) and expatriate satisfaction (0.482, 0.01 level of significance).

Secondly, we used an independent samples t-test to verify if there are differences of means between cosmopolitan respondents and others regarding the different dimensions of satisfaction.

Table 24. Group Statistics

Group Statistics				
Cosmopolitanism	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Life satisfaction 0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	4,8225	1,26188	,14381
1 Cosmopolitan	74	5,0315	1,41655	,16467
Expatriation satisfaction 0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	5,0736	1,20867	,13774
1 Cosmopolitan	74	5,5135	1,16936	,13593
Job Satisfaction 0 Not Cosmopolitan	77	5,5043	1,21995	,13903
1 Cosmopolitan	74	5,6171	1,31110	,15241

Source: own contribution

Table 24 shows that means of cosmopolitans are higher than means of not cosmopolitan respondents regarding the three dimensions of satisfaction in our sample. In order to visualize the differences between cosmopolitan expatriates and others within our sample, we have studied the boxplots for the different dimensions of satisfaction in Appendix 16. Table 25 shows the results for the Independent Samples t-test.

Table 25. Independent Samples Test

Independent Samples Test									
		Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	of the Difference Lower Upper
Life satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	1,069	,303	-,958	149	,339	-,20902	,21812	-,64003 ,22199
	Equal variances not assumed			-,956	145,512	,341	-,20902	,21862	-,64111 ,22307
Expatriation satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	,007	,931	-2,272	149	,025	-,43992	,19365	-,82258 -,05726
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,273	148,993	,024	-,43992	,19352	-,82232 -,05752
Job Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	,270	,604	-,548	149	,585	-,11279	,20600	-,51984 ,29427
	Equal variances not assumed			-,547	147,160	,585	-,11279	,20630	-,52047 ,29490

Source: own contribution

Regarding the Levene's Test for equality of variance:

H0: equality of variances

The Levene's test is for equality of variances. Since the p-values of the Levene's test are greater than 0.05, we keep H_0 and assume that variances are equal. As a consequence, we will have to consider the first row for each variable.

Regarding the t-test,

H₀: equality of means between groups

The independent samples t-test shows that we can assume a difference of means between cosmopolitan and others regarding expatriation satisfaction. Indeed, the p-value is smaller than the level of significance (0.05) for this variable, but not for the two other dimensions of satisfaction. It allows us to reject H_0 that assumes the equality of means in expatriation satisfaction between groups. In other words, we can believe that cosmopolitans are more satisfied with their expatriation than others.

Hence, our T-test shows that only the difference of mean regarding expatriation satisfaction is statistically significant. This result already brings new information to answer our research question: cosmopolitans seem not to be disappointed of expatriation, which means that cosmopolitanism may be a real individual characteristic and set of competences.

We decided to use a non-parametric test in order to verify our results. Indeed, non-parametric statistics do not require normal distribution but rather assume that population distributions are equal, which implies that variances are equal as well. Other requirements of non-parametric tests are that sampling is random and observations are independent. We undertook a non-parametric Mann Whitney U test. Its results can be found in Appendix 17. They do not differ from the results with the t-test.

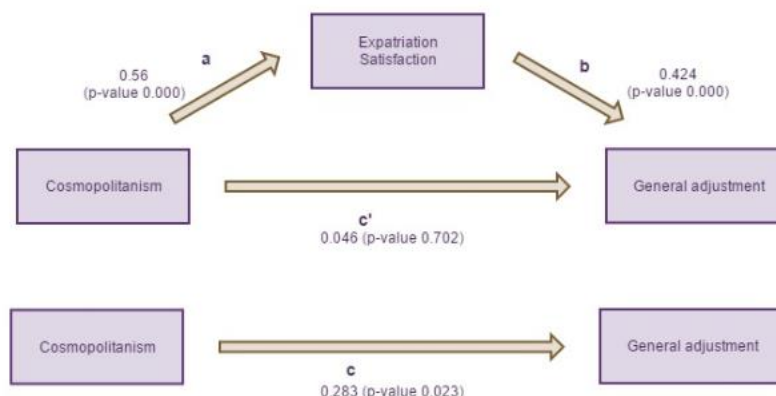
Now that we have found that there is a correlation between cosmopolitanism and expatriation satisfaction, we have to assess whether this dimension of satisfaction mediate the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness. A variable may be called a mediator "*to the extent that it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion*" (Baron & Kenny, as cited in Preacher & Hayes, 2004, p.717). We used a method suggested by

Delobbe (n.d). This method consists of linear regressions, which involve several assumptions. The tests for these assumptions can be found in Appendix 18.

Expatriation satisfaction will be considered as a mediator variable if cosmopolitanism significantly predicts the dimension of expatriate effectiveness, if cosmopolitanism significantly predicts expatriation satisfaction and if expatriation satisfaction significantly predicts the dimension of expatriate effectiveness controlling for cosmopolitanism. Complete mediation occurs if cosmopolitanism no longer affects the dimension of expatriate effectiveness after expatriation satisfaction has been controlled, while partial mediation occurs in the case in which the path from cosmopolitanism to the dimension of expatriate effectiveness is reduced in absolute size but is still different from zero when expatriation satisfaction is introduced. Appendix 19 shows the analyses for our hypotheses of mediation in detail.

H9: Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and general adjustment

Firstly, we studied the relationship between cosmopolitanism (as the independent variable) and expatriation satisfaction (as the dependent variable). We observed that cosmopolitanism explains 11.5% of variance of expatriation satisfaction and that it significantly contributes to the prediction of expatriation satisfaction. The second step consisted in applying a simple regression on the relationship between cosmopolitanism and general adjustment, followed by a multiple regression with cosmopolitanism and expatriation satisfaction as independent variables and general adjustment as dependent variable. We noted that cosmopolitanism explains 3.4% of the variance of general adjustment, while cosmopolitanism and expatriation together explain 19.7% of the variance of general adjustment.

Figure 4. Mediation Model: General adjustment

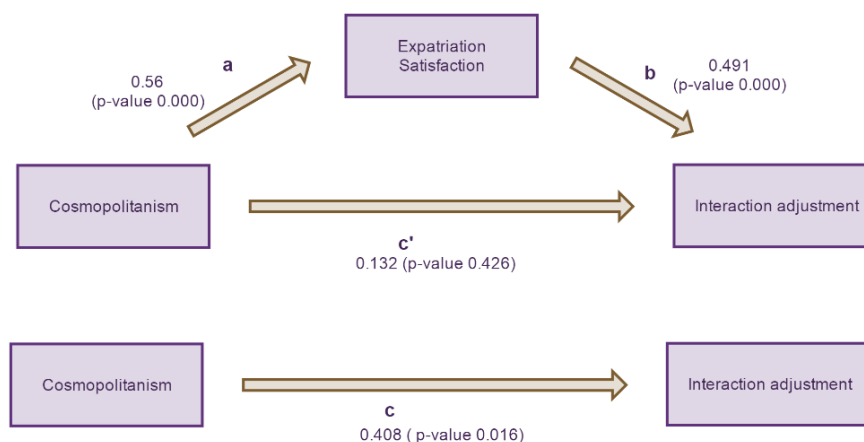
Source: own contribution

Figure 4 summarizes the results of our mediation analysis. The values associated to each relationship correspond to unstandardized coefficients. In this case, we can say for example that a change of 1 in Cosmopolitanism is associated with a change of 0.56 in expatriation satisfaction and a change of 0.283 in general adjustment.

The four conditions to assume a complete mediation are respected. Cosmopolitanism has a statistically significant effect on expatriation satisfaction, expatriation satisfaction has a statistically significant impact on general adjustment, cosmopolitanism has a statistically significant effect on general adjustment and the effect of cosmopolitanism becomes 0 when it is controlled by the mediator variable, which is expatriation satisfaction here. We can assume that there is a **complete mediation** because the path c' becomes insignificant when expatriation satisfaction is controlled. Our hypothesis is confirmed.

H10: Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and interaction adjustment

The first simple regression shows that cosmopolitanism explains 3.2% of the variation of interaction adjustment, while the multiple regression indicates that cosmopolitanism and expatriate satisfaction together explain 15.6% of the total variation interaction adjustment.

Figure 5. Mediation Model: Interaction adjustment

Source: own contribution

Figure 5 shows the unstandardized coefficients and the p-values that we have found for this hypothesis of mediation. Since the relationships between cosmopolitanism, expatriation satisfaction and interaction adjustment are significant and the effect of cosmopolitanism on interaction adjustment decreases to 0 with the inclusion of expatriation satisfaction, we can assume that there is **complete mediation**. H10 is confirmed.

H11: Expatriate satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and work adjustment

Table 26. Multiple regression for work adjustment

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,137 ^a	,019	,012	1,00586	,019	2,858	1	149	,093
2	,317 ^b	,100	,088	,96634	,082	13,438	1	148	,000

a. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

Source: own contribution

Table 26 summarizes our multiple regression analysis for work adjustment. In this case, we were not able to reject H0 and therefore could not consider that cosmopolitanism predicts

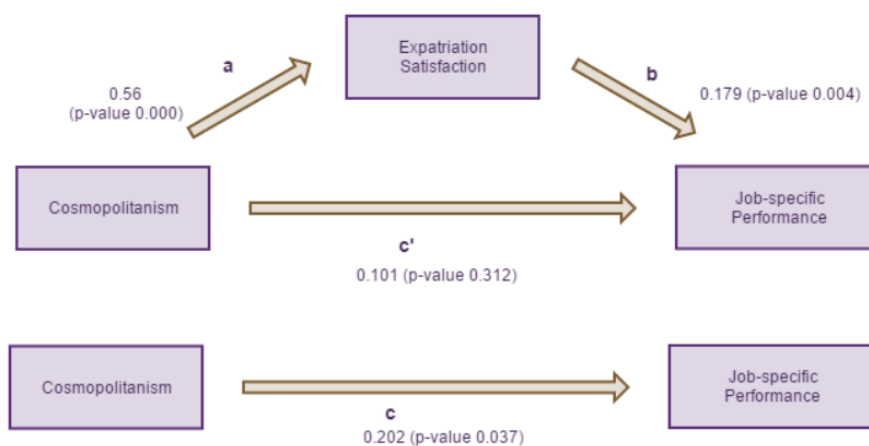
Job adjustment. One condition to mediation is that the relationship between the independent variable and the mediating variable must be significant. The p-value 0.093 shows that it is not the case here, and therefore, we could not test our hypothesis. This situation is logical since there were no statistically significant correlation between cosmopolitanism and work adjustment.

H12: Expatriate satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and job performance

As explained earlier, we have divided performance in two dimensions: job-specific performance and extra-role job performance. We undertook the mediation analysis for both. We started with job specific performance.

As you can see in Appendix 19, we observe thanks to the simple regression analysis that cosmopolitanism explains 2.2% of the variance of job-specific performance, and thanks to the multiple regression analysis that cosmopolitanism and expatriation satisfaction account for 6.9% of the variance of job-specific performance.

Figure 6. Mediation Model: Job-specific Performance



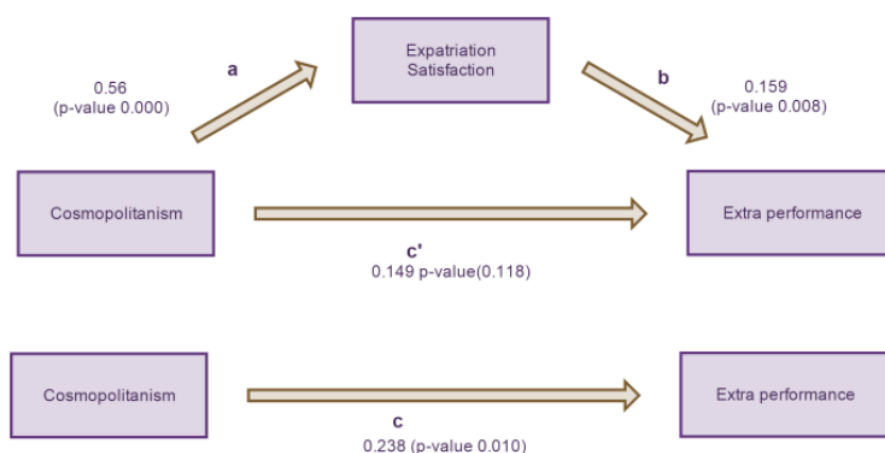
Source: own contribution

Since all relationships are significant except the effect of cosmopolitanism on job-specific performance once that expatriation satisfaction has been controlled, we assume that there is a **complete mediation**.

The last mediation model concerns cosmopolitanism and extra-role job performance. This last variable concerns the performance at work that exceeds the job requirements.

Our regression analyses indicate that cosmopolitanism explains 3.8% of the variance of extra-role job performance while cosmopolitanism and expatriation satisfaction explain 7.7% of the variance of extra-role job performance.

Figure 7. Mediation Model: Extra-role job performance



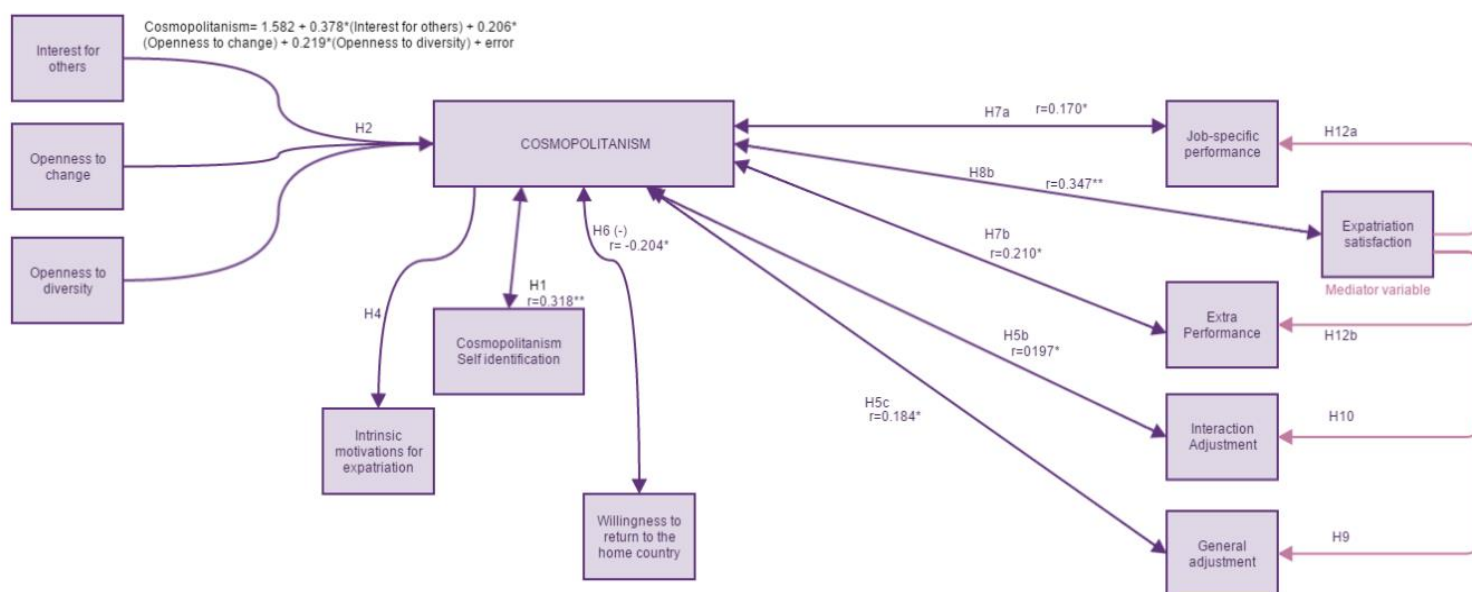
Source: own contribution

Figure 7 summarizes the mediation model for this last hypothesis. Since the path c' becomes insignificant with the inclusion of expatriation satisfaction, we can once again deduct that expatriation satisfaction **completely mediates** the relationship between cosmopolitanism and extra-role job performance.

The results of the five hypotheses' tests of mediation indicate that expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and general adjustment, interaction adjustment, job-specific performance and extra-role job performance. Although the percentage of variance explained by cosmopolitanism and cosmopolitanism associated to expatriation satisfaction are not extremely high, we can deduct several implications from these findings. Cosmopolitan expatriates have been identified according to their self-identification to some individual characteristics. We have seen in previous literature that cosmopolitanism can be innate as well as a learnable trait, but by asking people to express themselves about their

own individual characteristics, cosmopolitanism can be understood as a state of mind in the context of our empirical study. Our mediation hypotheses show that cosmopolitan expatriates tend to be more satisfied with their expatriation experience, and this situation results in higher effectiveness. Figure 8 summarizes the relationships that were established thanks to our analyses.

Figure 8. Confirmed Hypotheses



Source: own contribution

4.4 Summary

Our statistical analyses allowed us to confirm most of our hypotheses. We discovered that cosmopolitanism, which is above all characterized by an individual's interest for other cultures and openness to new experiences, can be predicted by several individual characteristics. Firstly, cosmopolitan people are people with interest for other human beings. They take time for others and attach importance to them. Secondly, cosmopolitans are not afraid of change in general. Finally, they are enthusiastic for diversity and differences between cultures and people. These results allow us to gather indicators for expatriation willingness and expatriate effectiveness cited in previous literature in one single profile. We discovered that these people, following their vocation to new experiences, decide often to expatriate in order to

see the world or to follow their desire for adventure. Our main hypothesis was that these people, because of their intrinsic motivation to expatriate and their individual qualities, are better than others on expatriation, and that this effectiveness is mediated by their superior satisfaction. Despite our limited sample, we were able to prove that cosmopolitanism is correlated to the different dimensions of expatriate effectiveness, apart from job adjustment. We have also shown that cosmopolitan expatriates tend to be more satisfied with their expatriation than others, which indicates that cosmopolitanism is a real state of mind and does not implicate disillusion. To us, the superior satisfaction of cosmopolitan expatriates can be explained by the fact that expatriation provides cosmopolitans with adventure, change and culture diversity, which fulfill their desires. Finally, we demonstrated that expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and the different dimensions of expatriate effectiveness: general adjustment, interaction adjustment, job-specific performance and extra-role performance.

4.5 Discussion

This study brought two separated fields of research together and demonstrated the utility to study cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness jointly. Indeed, it attempted to allocate to cosmopolitanism a definition and a measurement scale, which were missing in previous literature, and suggests that cosmopolitanism as a profile gathers individual predictors of expatriate effectiveness and expatriation willingness found in previous research. Briefly, we believe that our study simplifies the whole image of individual predictors of expatriation willingness. Previously identified as a predictor of expatriation willingness, and as an ambiguous part of expatriates' identity, cosmopolitanism constitutes in this study a new asset to expatriate selection. We showed that cosmopolitanism is correlated to expatriation satisfaction, which means that cosmopolitan expatriates were aware of the potential difficulties related to expatriation, or that they possess competencies enabling them to remove barriers associated to expatriation more easily than others. Since cosmopolitanism was shown to be correlated to general adjustment, interaction adjustment, job-specific performance and extra-role performance, we assume that the cosmopolitan state of mind enables expatriates to cross obstacles with less difficulties. Our study suggests that cosmopolitanism is constituted of particular interests, desires and traits, making people more likely to be successful on

international assignments. This ideal profile does not represent utopia for international managers and should be used in the context of expatriate selection. Our study confirms that the pursuit of goals in adequacy with ideals and interests favors effectiveness, thanks to superior satisfaction. We believe that this finding also has implications for individuals' choices of career path in general. People should primarily follow their intrinsic motivations and desires, in the interests of themselves and of the companies they work for.

CHAPTER 5. Conclusion

5.1 Summary of our study

This study aimed to associate two related fields which had, however, been studied separately in previous literature: cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness. In the context of our study, cosmopolitan people are particular in the way that *“they are comfortable in many places and able to understand and bridge the differences among them. They move because they find the world attractive, and for them, openness to new experiences is a vocation”* (van Bochove & Engbersen, 2013, p.1). In addition, *“Cosmopolitans have the willingness to explore and experience the panoply of transcultural diversity. They consume cultural differences in a reflective manner and do not stand to lose a new and exciting cultural experience”* (Grinstein & Wathieu, 2008, p.6). Cosmopolitanism combines several individual characteristics identified in previous literature as predictors of expatriation willingness and expatriate effectiveness. Our main assumption was that cosmopolitan expatriates are more successful than others, because their decision to expatriate is linked to the fulfillment of their desires for adventure and for new experiences, and to their ability to deal with multiculturalism. We hypothesized that these motivation drivers allow cosmopolitans to be more satisfied with their life and work on expatriation, and consequently lead them to adjust better and perform better on their job. Thanks to our statistical analyses, we were able to show that cosmopolitanism is positively correlated to expatriation satisfaction, general adjustment, interaction adjustment, job-specific performance and extra-role job performance. We also confirmed that expatriation satisfaction completely mediates the relationships between cosmopolitanism and general adjustment (1), interaction adjustment (2) job-specific performance (3) and extra-role job performance (4). These findings assure that the cosmopolitan profile has potential to be leveraged in the field of expatriate selection. The results of our study also suggest that curiosity and openness to the world are beneficial to both companies and our society.

5.2 Implications

5.2.1 Theoretical implications

This study aimed to bring together two related fields of research that have, until now, been explored independently: cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness. This study simplifies previous findings by gathering under one single profile the most cited predictors of expatriation willingness and expatriate effectiveness. Cosmopolitanism as the ideal expatriate profile constitutes an undeveloped area of research and should gain interest as globalization progresses. Our study established the basis for the exploitation of cosmopolitanism in the expatriation context by identifying its characteristics and its relationships with expatriate effectiveness and satisfaction on expatriation.

5.2.2 Managerial implications

We believe that the cosmopolitan profile has potential to be leveraged in the field of expatriate selection. Indeed, the need for competent and willing expatriates is topical. The results of this study provide evidence that the assessment of individual characteristics and the hunting for cosmopolitan workers by international human resource managers is beneficial to companies. Managers should pay attention to the extent to which potential candidates are interested in other people, are open to new experiences and to culture diversity and also are resistant and not reluctant to change in general. Also, managers should favor the development of a cosmopolitan state of mind among their workers. Finally, we believe that our study contributes to international human resource management by revealing that expatriation satisfaction plays an important role in expatriate effectiveness. Human resources practitioners should take satisfaction into account and not underestimate its impact.

5.2.3 Societal implications

The increasing multiculturalism of our life and work environments implicates the permanent co-existence of differences within our life and work environments. In such a context, mutual respect and openness to diversity are crucial. Cosmopolitanism does not only have

potential in the field of management: it also represents a state of mind that facilitates the co-existence of differences and a set of competences that make cultural differences become valuable assets rather than obstacles. The cultivation of diversity in our borderless world involves the development of a cosmopolitan society. The most important issue is certainly to establish how human beings can develop the cosmopolitan state of mind.

5.3 Limitations and future research

Although our study brings theoretical, managerial and societal implications, we have to recognize that it involves several limitations.

Firstly, the most important limitation of our study is that all data collected regarding expatriates' personality, satisfaction and effectiveness have been provided by expatriates only. They provided the dependent and the independent data at the same time and as a consequence our study may suffer from common method bias. In order to address this issue, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis including the variables of individual characteristics, satisfaction and effectiveness. It showed us that no single factor could explain most of the variance (One single factor only explains 19.72% of the variance). This result shows that common method bias should not have posed a serious problem in our study. You can find the table related to the confirmatory factor analysis in Appendix 20. However, even if we have encouraged respondents to be fully honest in their responses, they may have answered what they thought their boss would like them to respond, or they may have overestimated or underestimated their competences. We therefore highlight that further research should include supervisors, peers and objective personnel data to reduce bias due to self-representation.

Secondly, the expatriate experience is unique to each person, and we were able to collect only few information about expatriates. The prediction of expatriate effectiveness is complex and can involve a large range of factors. Therefore, we are aware that all factors likely to influence cosmopolitanism, satisfaction and the dimensions of expatriate effectiveness are not included in our study. Hence, further research should include more variables.

Thirdly, the characteristics of our respondents limit the extent to which our results are generalizable. The population of expatriates is very large, and our sample composed of 151 respondents is too limited to transfer our conclusion to the whole population of expatriates in the world. Further research should include more respondents to confirm our findings.

Finally, we believe that the way expatriates rate their satisfaction and performance may vary over time according to the more recent events which occurred in their life or at work. This limitation can be designated as a potential participant error, which constitutes a threat to the reliability of our study. Future researchers in this field should consider to undertake a longitudinal study rather than a cross-sectional study like ours.

Despite the above limitations, this study also brings to light new research areas for future investigation.

We believe that the relationship between cosmopolitanism and expatriation effectiveness should be studied with qualitative data. Indeed, the expatriate experience is unique to each individual and is difficult to generalize. We believe that there is more to know about the dilemma that expatriates face between their global state of mind and their need for ties with people and places. Satisfaction should also be studied in this context with qualitative data.

Lack of consensus on the definition and measurement of cosmopolitanism made us develop our own scale for cosmopolitanism, attempting to associate the different features that characterize this individual profile. The scale was validated thanks to a Principal Component Analysis and its reliability was satisfactory. However, there is still a need to validate and develop a widely recognized scale for cosmopolitanism.

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Appendix

Appendix 1

Factors influencing expatriation willingness

We concern ourselves with individual factors likely to predict expatriation willingness. As we have mentioned in the section about identity, Brewer and Gardner (1996) distinguish three components of identity: personal identity, relational identity and collective identity. This appendix presents more information about predictors of expatriation willingness.

Personal identity and expatriation willingness

Firstly, Tharenou (2010) argues that people who are highly achievement-oriented are likely to be more willing to move to large developed companies, because this environment would allow them to compete against standards of excellence.

Another personal characteristic that Tharenou (2010) quotes is self-efficacy, which is defined as “whether a person is certain that he or she can meet the challenges of working and living in a country with a culture different from their own”(Tharenou, 2010, p.111). Tharenou (2010) argues that individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to be willing to expatriate. Similarly, Locke & Durham (as cited in Mol, Born, Willemsen, van der Molen & Derous, 2009, p.4) declare that people’s core self-evaluations, indicated by the four traits self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control and emotional stability, influence their willingness to expatriate. Therefore, someone with a low opinion of oneself will be less willing to expatriate.

Mol and al. (2009), have tested the validity of the five-factor model to predict expatriation willingness. Hence, emotional stability, extraversion, openness to new experiences and conscientiousness are shown to predict expatriation willingness. The authors also identified foreign travel, countries visited on holiday, travel remoteness, foreign living experience, number of friends abroad and language ability as predictors of expatriation willingness. Mol and al. (2009) demonstrate that the strongest predictors of expatriation willingness are these contextual variables, followed by individual attributes such as cultural flexibility and cultural sensibility. Surprisingly, no relationship between expatriation willingness and the fact of liking travel was found in their study.

Relational identity and expatriation willingness

As we have mentioned in the previous section, Tharenou (2010) and Kim & Froese (2012) suggest that individuals who show a high level of commitment to their work, or in other words, who are willing to spend a lot of time and energy for work, are more likely to accept an international assignment. This commitment to work, that researchers call occupational role commitment, competes with the marital role commitment, which denotes people who are highly committed to their marital role and put it ahead of everything else and therefore, who are less willing to expatriate according to the authors. Similarly, professionals with a high need for affiliation are more likely to stay in the home country with their relatives and friends rather than accepting to expatriate (Tharenou, 2010).

Community identity and expatriation willingness

Saxenian (as cited in Tharenou, 2010, p.108) explains that collective identity can explain an expatriate's willingness to repatriate to his home country to set up entrepreneurial ventures and help the local economy, or one's willingness to return to the home country to transmit knowledge, expertise and investment to help the development of new business at home.

Other factors influencing expatriation willingness

Kim & Froese (2012) suggest that several characteristics of the host country may affect expatriation willingness. Firstly, they and Tharenou (2010) claim that employees tend to prefer culturally similar countries. Secondly, expatriation in economically developed countries tend to be more easily accepted. This situation is due to the fact that people believe that the adjustment to high living standards will be easier. In addition, we know that the most cited motivation drivers for expatriation are career benefits, and that moving into advanced economies guarantees high income. Thirdly, Kim & Froese (2012) assert that expatriation willingness is positively related to English as the host country's language.

Super, Savickas & Super (as cited in Tharenou, 2010, p. 108) argue that some life stages are more favorable to mobility. Indeed, they argue in their Super's life stage theory that

professionals are more likely to be in an exploring stage between their late teens and their mid-twenties. *“At this time, adventure and leisure, personal and professional development dominate. Their personality is central and they are motivated to expatriate by a desire for adventure and personal growth, and repatriate relatively quickly, once these needs are met”* (Tharenou, 2010, p.108). The authors believe that people tend then to settle down and consolidate their advancement at work and build a family, for their own needs or those of their partner and family. It is the establishment stage. The following stage is the maintenance life stage, when the career and family are established, and the last stage is the decelerating life stage, when people plan their retirement. These two last stages are less likely to be favorable to expatriation.

Tharenou (2010) explains the differences between men and women regarding willingness to expatriate thanks to the gender role theory. Since men view themselves as the provider for the family, they consider their work obligations as their first priority, and therefore mention employment opportunities and income more frequently than women as the reason for their self-initiated expatriation. In the opposite, women identify themselves as the caregiver for the family, and consider that a decision to expatriate would enter in contradiction with their traditional family role. They experience social pressure to not relocate and women's motivation drivers for self-expatriation are marriage, a partner abroad, a partner's employment or escape. However Tharenou (2010) adds that once women have reached a life stage with less family responsibilities, they may consider mobility more seriously.

Appendix 2

Factors influencing adjustment and performance: organizational and societal level

Organizational level

The organizational level focuses on HR processes and organizational characteristics likely to influence expatriate job performance. Indeed, the way expatriates are selected, trained and managed impacts their adjustment and performance.

Expatriate Selection

Many studies have been written with the purpose to improve the criteria's that should be taken into account for the expatriate selection. Cheng & Lin (as cited in Claus, & al., 2011, p.258) argue that personal abilities should have a dominant influence on overseas performance, rather than technical or functional expertise or expatriation willingness which are usually the primarily used criteria's in expatriate selection. Given the critical role of selection in expatriation performance and as a consequence on organizational consequence, this process needs all international human resource managers' attention.

Although studies have established traits and competencies that should be considered in the expatriate selection process, McEvoy & Buller (2013) state that the process tend to be unstructured and informal in practice. This question has no explanation as far as we know. We believe that the numerous skills that have been advanced in the literature may be unclear to international human resource managers, due to their quantity and variability.

Expatriate Training

Numerous studies show the benefits of expatriate training (Feitosa and al., 2014). Expatriate training generates important expenses for companies, this is why the assessment of their usefulness is crucial. Feitosa and al. (2014) state that the two purposes of training offered to expatriates should be to maximize learning as well as to apply the learned material outside the training environment, with the purpose of enabling the adjustment of the expatriate.

Feitosa and al. (2014) establish a few recommendations regarding training design, considering previous findings. Firstly, they believe that expatriate training should come in different forms. Littrell and al. (2006) add that training should be designed according to the specific needs of expatriates. This practice involves an assessment of expatriates' needs before training and departure. Andreason (2003) also claims that the level of training should be designed according to the cultural distance between the home and the host country, the assignment's duration, the degree of interaction with locals and the differences in tasks to be performed on the job.

Considering that cultural sensitivity is positively related to expatriate job performance, cultural training is argued to be effective (Mol and al., 2005). Similarly, Brislin & Yoshida (as cited in Feitosa and al., 2014, 142) suggest that training should include knowledge about roles, moral, rituals and superstitions inherent to the host culture. Naturally, Andreason (2003) states that a lack of language training can have damaged results on effective cross-cultural communication.

Andreason (2003) reports that expatriates and their families are less often adjusted when they don't benefit from organizational support. The author states that expatriates who benefit from role clarity, role discretion, social support from co-workers and superiors are likely to result in better work adjustment on expatriation. Kaimmer, Wayne & Jaworski (as cited in Andreason, 2003, p.551) have demonstrated that the extent to which employees believe that their organization values their work, career and well-being is related to general and interaction adjustment, but also to better job performance.

Finally, Andreason (2003) mentions the necessity to prepare spouse and family to expatriation. Indeed, he reports that the most cited reason for premature return in European firms is the inability of the spouse to adjust. Black & Stephens (as cited in Andreason, 2003, p.551) have shown that spouse and family's adjustments are highly correlated to the adjustment of the expatriate.

Performance Management processes

Claus, Lungu, & Bhattacharjee (2011) argue that the design, implementation and evaluation of the performance process of expatriates have an impact on expatriate performance. McEvoy & Buller (2013) add thanks to interviews with international human resource managers that expatriate performance can be evaluated either by the manager from the home country with the back-home appraisal system, or by the host country site manager using local appraisal system. What is sure is that the perception of performance vary from one company to another.

Organizational Context dimensions

Suitari & Tahvanainen (as cited in Claus and al., 2011, p.260) have studied the impact of organizational context on expatriate performance management. The authors argue that individual decision-making control has a positive impact on job performance, that the size of the company or the host unit and the position of the expatriate are likely to influence the formality of practices and therefore of performance appraisal, from which expatriate performance is derived.

Societal level

Finally, this third level concerns the broader societal, cultural and institutional context of expatriate performance management.

Cultural distance

Claus & al. (2011) associate cultural distance to the difference between the host and home cultures. It can be the source of culture shock, and plays a critical role in adjustment. Most of researchers associate cultural distance with low job performance.

Institutional distance

Since values and norms are institutionalized in society, Claus & al. (2011) believe crucial to assess expatriate's ability to cope with how things get done in a different institutional context, and argue that a great institutional distance is associated with low adjustment and job performance.

Level of development

Finally, Claus & al. (2011) argue that expatriate adjustment and performance are influenced by differences in level of development between host and home countries. Therefore, they suppose that an individual who comes from an emerging (developed) country should better perform in an emerging (developed) country than an individual who experiences a change in the level of development.

Appendix 3

Formulation of research topic and preliminary literature review

The first step of this study was definitely the choice of our research topic. According to Saunders & al. (2009), there are several attributes likely to predict how satisfactory a research topic is.

Firstly, we had to pay attention to the feasibility of the topic. By the time, we already knew that the main subject of this study would be expatriation. Indeed, we were interested in the field, since it has an international dimension and concerns a particular experience of human beings. On the advice of Saunders and al. (2009) we took into account our actual research skills, the available time, as well as our access to data to design our methodology.

Secondly, the authors argue that a good research topic has also to be worthwhile, in the way that it has to meet the standards of what is expected from us by the university, but also that it has to bring new insights into the chosen topic. Considering these criteria's, we perceived that we had to design a research topic bearing in mind that we had limited access to expatriate information and limited time. As we wanted to bring new insights to the field of international human resource management, we decided that our study would be about expatriates' performance.

Once we had determined that our study was going to be about expatriate effectiveness, we decided to undertake a preliminary study of the field, thanks to a first review of the literature. The first purpose of this literature review was to explore what had already been established concerning expatriation, and more precisely about expatriate performance. We searched for articles in several databases thanks to the access provided by the UCL. The most importantly used databases were Proquest and Emerald. We used the key words "expatriate", "expatriation", "international assignment" and "effectiveness", "performance" and "success" in Boolean searches. The numerous articles about expatriate effectiveness made clear that a lot of predictors for performance had already been put into light, but also that findings differ from one author to another. Particularly, we noticed that expatriates' performance had already been linked to a lot of individual characteristics, and especially to personality traits. This area was

interesting to us, but the quantity and diversity of results about the relationship between personality and expatriation success made the whole image unclear.

After our first literature review about expatriates' performance, we decided to get inspiration through discussion with people concerned by the topic. One person suggested us to read an inspiring article called "Trying to be a cosmopolitan" (Thompson & Tambyah, 1999). Willing to know more about cosmopolitanism and its potential links with expatriation, we searched for another flow of articles on the same databases and with the same keywords plus "cosmopolitanism", "cosmopolitan" and "global mindset". We also selected articles according to the sense that was given to the notion of cosmopolitanism, considering only those defining cosmopolitanism as a global "state of mind". We arrived to the conclusion that even if cosmopolitanism and expatriation seem to be highly related, they had not been studying together in previous literature. Interested by these two topics, we decided that our study would be about the potential relationship existing between expatriation success and cosmopolitanism. We spend a lot of time on this "research topic definition" step, and we believe that it was necessary to be sure that our study would bring new insights. Once we were determined to study cosmopolitanism and expatriates' performance, we started our actual literature review, using some of the articles that we had already read, and some new articles found as our work proceeded. We also paid attention to include up-to-date literature in our study. We attempted to review the most relevant and significant findings about our topic and to present the key points in a logical way. Our literature review was developed in order to present the background knowledge necessary to fully understand our objectives and hypothesis.

Thanks to our literature review, we were able to identify research questions and hypotheses to test in our empirical study. We were then able to drawn up our theoretical part.

Appendix 4

Items included in our questionnaire

Table A. Items included in our questionnaire

Variable	Items	References
SELF-IDENTIFICATION TO COSMOPOLITANISM		Cannon & Yapra (2002)
1	Read the text and rate your agreement with the text on a seven-point Likert scale: "Many of my friends long to go home. I have no home. Or rather. I feel like my home is the world. I like to experience the best of what the world has to offer. I have friends all over the world, and I enjoy the texture and variety the world has to offer. I have my favorite foods, but they don't represent any particular culture. I simply like them because they are good. The same is true of my friends. I savor them when we can get together, even if that is only once every 10 or 20 years. We may communicate by email, or call, if the occasion arises but I don't pine away when they are not around me. Life is too short for that. I live in Singapore, but I could live just as well in New York, Kiev, or Rio de Janeiro. I like to visit smaller, less cosmopolitan cities because they are interesting. But I wouldn't want to live there. They don't offer the variety or the level of excellence. I have come to enjoy. Most of all, I like to travel. If I want culture, I go to London; if I want art, I go to Paris; if I want intellect, I go to Moscow. It's all out there. You just have to find out where. "	
COSMOPOLITANISM		Cleveland, Laroche & Papadopoulos (2009)
1	I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their view and approaches	
2	I like to learn about other ways of life	
3	I find people from other cultures stimulating	
4	I like to observe people from other countries, to see what I can learn from them	
LIFE SATISFACTION		Diener and al. (1985)
1	In most ways my life is close to my ideal	
2	I am satisfied with my life	
3	So far I have gotten the important things I want in life	
EXPATRIATION SATISFACTION		Self-developed Self-developed Self-developed Self-developed
1	I love being an expatriate	
2	Expatriation has increased my satisfaction with life	
3	Expatriation is exactly how I expected it	
4	I miss the life I used to have in my home country	
WORK SATISFACTION		Quinn, R. P., & Shepard, L. J. (1974)
1	All in all, I am satisfied with my job	
2	Knowing what I know now, if I had to decide all over again whether to take the job I now have, I would decide without any hesitation to take the same job	
3	In general I would say that my job measures up to the sort of job I wanted when I took it	
GENERAL ADJUSTMENT		Black (1991)
1	Adjustment to living conditions in general	
2	Adjustment to housing conditions	
3	Adjustment to food	
4	Adjustment to entertainment, recreation facilities and opportunities	
INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT		Black (1991)
1	Socializing with nationals	
2	Interaction with nationals outside of work	
3	Interacting with nationals on a day-to-day basis	
JOB ADJUSTMENT		Black (1991)
1	Specific job responsibilities	
2	Performance standards and expectations	
3	Supervisors responsibilities	

Variable	Items	References
JOB PERFORMANCE	Task performance 1 Meet the job objectives 2 Fulfill the responsibilities in the job description 3 Meet formal requirement of the job Teamwork and leadership 1 Do things to help and support teammates 2 Facilitate peer and team performance 3 Agree effectively to own position when appropriate Demonstrating effort 1 Volunteer to do additional tasks that are not formally par of his/her job Communication performance 1 Effectively conveys ideas verbally 2 Have effective communication exchanges Maintaining good working relationships 1 Comply with organizational values and policies 2 Maintain good working relationships	Lee and Donohue (2012)
IDENTIFICATION TO HOME CULTURE	1 I feel proud to be a member of my own culture 2 I feel close to people of my culture of origin 3 I don't like to tell others which culture I am from (-)	Lee (2010)
IDENTIFICATION TO HOST CULTURE	4 I have a strong desire to know about the life of people from the host culture 5 I feel close to the people of the host culture 6 I would not feel proud to be a member of the host culture (-)	Lee (2010)
WILLINGNESS TO RETURN	1 I am thinking of going back to my home country earlier	Self-developed
DECISION TO EXPATRIATE	1 Choose the three most important motivation drivers and rank them from first to third in your case: Impact on career, confidence in ability to work and live abroad, job attractivity, desire for adventure, desire to live in the host country, personal financial impact, host culture, successful experience in the foreign environment, willingness of family/partner to move, superior career opportunities in the host country, prestige of working in the host country, personal safety, better opportunities for family, to be near loved persons, to distant from a problem, professional challenge of working abroad	Doherty (2011)
OPEN-MINDEDNESS	1 I get involved in other cultures 2 I have broad range of interests 3 I find other religions interesting 4 I seek people from different backgrounds	Van der Zee & van Oudenhoven (2000)
CULTURAL EMPATHY	1 I pay attention to the emotions of others 2 I am a good listener 3 I notice when someone is on trouble 4 I sympathize with others	van der Zee, van Oudenhoven, Ponterotto & Fietzer (2013)
CULTURAL FLEXIBILITY	1 I dislike routine 2 I want predictability (-) 3 I function best in a familiar setting (-) 4 I look for regularity in life (-)	van der Zee, van Oudenhoven, Ponterotto & Fietzer (2013)
CULTURAL SENSITIVITY	1 I have a feeling of enjoyment towards differences between my culturally-distinct counterparts and me 2 I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures 3 I respect the ways people from different cultures behave 4 I try to obtain as much information as I can when interacting with people from different cultures	Chen & Starosta (2000)
EMOTIONAL STABILITY	1 I don't get upset easily 2 I am a nervous person 3 I am apt to feel lonely (-) 4 I keep calm when things don't go well	Goldberg (1999)
EXTRAVERSION	1 I rarely start conversations 2 I don't like to draw attention to myself (-) 3 I am quiet around strangers (-)	Goldberg (1999)
OPENNESS TO NEW EXPERIENCES	1 I prefer variety to routine 2 I don't like the idea of change (-) 3 I like to begin new things	Goldberg (1999)
AGREEABLENESS	1 I sympathize with others' feelings 2 I take time out for others 3 I make people feel at ease 4 I am not interested in other people's problems (-)	Goldberg (1999)

Appendix 5

Questionnaire

Study about the relationship between expatriates' experience and their performance

Dear Sir or Madam,

Thank you for following the link. I already thank you warmly for your contribution.

I am a Belgian student in Management and my thesis has a very interesting purpose: studying the relationship that may exist between expatriates' personality traits, life satisfaction and performance. The results of this study are going to provide more information about the expatriate experience and particularly, should help international human resource managers to improve expatriate selection processes.

This survey will take between 15 and 20 minutes of your time, but your contribution is crucial to my project. You will answer questions about you, your life as an expatriate and your job.

It is extremely important that you answer these questions as honestly as possible. Your responses will remain confidential and data from this research will be reported only in the aggregate.

Again, thank you for your time and support.

Gaëlle

Who are you?

1 Are you...

☐ a man?

☐ a woman?

2 How old are you?

☐ 20-29

☐ 30-39

☐ 40-49

☐ 50-59

☐ 60 and over

3 Are you a self-initiated expatriate or a company-backed expatriate?

☐ I am a self-initiated expatriate

☐ I am a company-backed expatriate

4 Where are you from? Please indicate your home country.

- ☐ Europe
- ☐ North America
- ☐ South or Central America
- ☐ Asia
- ☐ Oceania
- ☐ Africa

5 Where do you currently live as an expatriate? Please indicate the country.

- ☐ Europe
- ☐ North America
- ☐ South or Central America
- ☐ Asia
- ☐ Oceania
- ☐ Africa

6 How long are you expected to stay on expatriation?

- ☐ 3-6 months
- ☐ 6 months -1 year
- ☐ 1 year-3 years
- ☐ 3 years-5 years
- ☐ More than 5 years

7 Do you have previous experience in the country you currently live in?

- ☐ Yes, I used to study in this country
- ☐ Yes, I had already visited this country
- ☐ Yes, I used to work in this country
- ☐ No, I had never been to this country before

8 Select in the following list the three most important factors which made you willing to expatriate and rank them from first to third.

- ☐ Impact on career
- ☐ Potential for skills development
- ☐ To see the world
- ☐ Confidence in your ability to work and live abroad
- ☐ The job attractivity
- ☐ Desire for adventure
- ☐ Desire to live in the host country
- ☐ Personal financial impact
- ☐ Host culture
- ☐ Successful previous experience in the foreign environment
- ☐ Willingness of family/partner to move
- ☐ Superior career opportunities in the host country
- ☐ Prestige of working in the host country
- ☐ Personal safety
- ☐ Better opportunities for your family
- ☐ To be near loved persons
- ☐ To distant yourselves from a problem
- ☐ Professional challenge of working abroad

9 Read the text below and rate your agreement with it.

1: Strongly disagree; 2: Disagree; 3: Neither agree nor disagree; 4: Agree; 5: Strongly agree

“Many of my friends long to go home. I have no home. Or rather. I feel like my home is the world. I like to experience the best of what the world has to offer. I have friends all over the world, and I enjoy the texture and variety the world has to offer. I have my favorite foods, but they don’t represent any particular culture. I simply like them because they are good. The same is true of my friends. I savor them when we can get together, even if that is only once every 10 or 20 years. We may communicate by email, or call, if the occasion arises but I don’t pine away when they are not around me. Life is too short for that. I live in Singapore, but I could live just as well in New York, Kiev, or Rio de Janeiro. I like to visit smaller, less cosmopolitan cities because they are interesting. But I wouldn’t want to live there. They don’t offer the variety or the level of excellence. I have come to enjoy. Most of all, I like to travel. If I want culture, I go to

11 Rate your agreement with the following sentences about your home culture and the host culture (the one from the country you currently live in).

I feel proud to be a member of my own culture

12 Rate your agreement with the following sentences about your life as an expatriate.

[illegible]

Adjustment

16 Considering that adjustment is "the degree of comfort" that you feel, please indicate the degree to which you feel adjusted to the following items.

How adjusted are you to....

1: Not at all adjusted; 2: Not adjusted; 3: Slightly not adjusted; 4: Neither adjusted nor not adjusted; 5: Slightly adjusted; 6: Adjusted; 7: Completely adjusted

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
...your job and responsibilities?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...supervising national subordinates?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...performance standards and expectations that you have to meet?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...general living conditions in the host country?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...housing conditions in the host country?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...food in the host country?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...the entertainment available in the host country?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...socializing with host nationals?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...interacting with host nationals outside of work?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thank you for your help!

I wish you all the best for your life and career!

Appendix 6

Data collection: social networks' groups and websites

Table B. Groups used for our data collection

LinkedIn Groups	Facebook Groups	Websites
Expats in Brussels Belgians living in the US Expats in Belgium Expatriates Group Expats in the Netherlands Expats in Switzerland Expats in Germany Expats in Spain Expats Indonesia Indian expatriates in Africa	Expatriates in Costa Rica Expatriates in Malaysia Expats in Copenhagen Expatriates in Russia Expats living in Rome Expats at Montréal Expats in Valencia Expats and locals living in Phnom Penh French speaking belgians in Australia Belgians in NY Expats Utrecht Expats in Bolivia Luxembourg Expats Expatriates in the Netherlands American expatriates Expats and locals living in Siem Reap, Cambodia Expatriates in Paris Hong-Kong Expatriates Expats living in Rome Expats living in the Philippines Expats living in the Dominican Republic Belgians in London Expats living in Mexico	Expatica InterNations

Appendix 7

Description of our sample

Figure A. Characteristics of our respondents (own contribution)

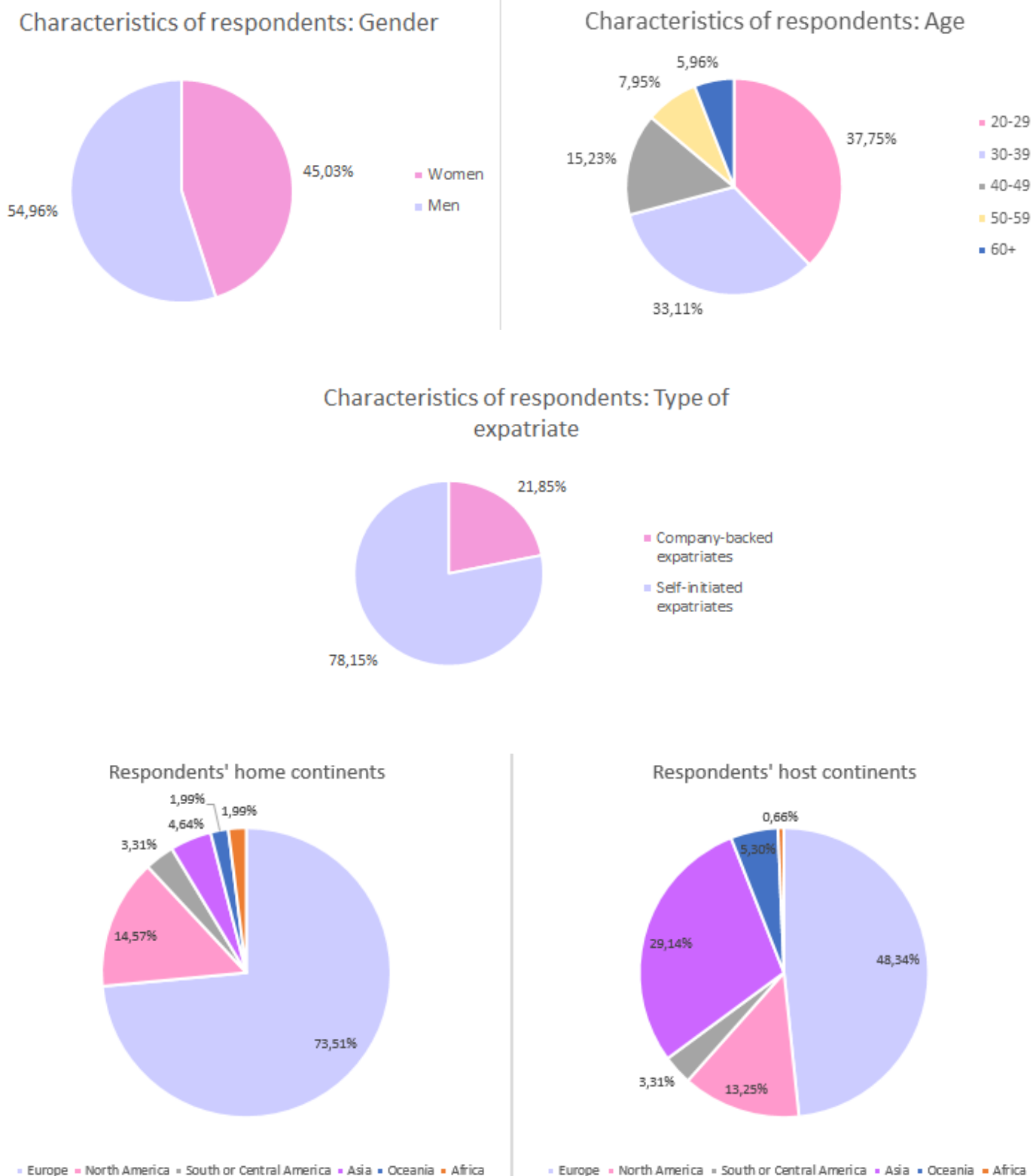


Table C. Host and Home continents of respondents (own contribution)

HOME CONTINENT	Nbr	%	HOST CONTINENT	Nbr	%
<i>Europe</i>	111	73,51	<i>Europe</i>	73	48,34
<i>North America</i>	22	14,57	<i>North America</i>	20	13,25
<i>South/Central America</i>	5	3,31	<i>South/Central America</i>	5	3,31
<i>Asia</i>	7	4,64	<i>Asia</i>	44	29,14
<i>Oceania</i>	3	1,99	<i>Oceania</i>	8	5,30
<i>Africa</i>	3	1,99	<i>Africa</i>	1	0,66
Total	151	100,00		151	100,00

Table D. Host continents of European respondents (own contribution)

European respondents' host continents	Nbr	%
<i>Europe</i>	53	47,75
<i>North America</i>	19	17,12
<i>South/Central America</i>	3	2,70
<i>Asia</i>	29	26,13
<i>Oceania</i>	7	6,31
Total	111	100,00

Table E. Home countries of respondents (own contribution)

Europe	North America	South or Central America	Asia	Oceania	Africa
• Belgium • Finland • France • Germany • Greece • Hungary • Ireland • Italy • Malta • Norway • Poland • Portugal • Romania • Spain • Switzerland • Turkey • United Kingdom	• Canada • United States	• Argentina • Brasil • Colombia • Dominican Republic • Venezuela	• Hong Kong • India • Malaysia	• Australia • New Zealand	• South Africa • Tunisia

Table F: Host countries of respondents (own contribution)

Europe	North America	South or Central America	Asia	Oceania	Africa
• Belgium • France • Germany • Iceland • Ireland • Luxembourg • Poland • Spain • Sweden • Switzerland • United Kingdom • Denmark	• Canada • Mexico • United States	• Brasil • Costa Rica • Dominican Republic	• Arab Emirates • Cambodia • China • Hong Kong • India • Indonesia • Philippines • Vietnam	• Australia	• Kuwait

Table G. Experience of respondents in the host country (own contribution)

Experience in the host country				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1 I used to study in this country	11	7,3	7,3	7,3
2 I had already visited this country before	73	48,3	48,3	55,6
3 I used to work in this country	12	7,9	7,9	63,6
4 I had never been in this country before	55	36,4	36,4	100
Total	151	100	100	

Table H. Duration of assignment of our respondents (own contribution)

Duration of assignment				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1 3-6 months	2	1,3	1,3	1,3
2 6 months- 1 year	9	6	6	7,3
3 1 year- 3 years	32	21,2	21,2	28,5
4 3 years- 5 years	24	15,9	15,9	44,4
5 5+ years	84	55,6	55,6	100
Total	151	100	100	

Appendix 8

Cronbach's alphas calculations

This appendix states the Cronbach's alpha that we have calculated for each variable.

Cultural empathy: we obtained a Cronbach's alpha of 0.716 with the four items "I am a good listener", "I notice when someone is on trouble", "I sympathize easily with others" and "I pay attention to the emotions of others."

Cultural flexibility: we deleted the item "I dislike routine" in order to reach a Cronbach's alpha of 0,761 and kept "I function best in familiar setting", "I look for regularity in life" and "I want predictability".

Cultural sensitivity: The four items "I have a feeling of enjoyment towards differences between my culturally-distinct counterparts and me", "I respect the ways people from different cultures behave", "I try to obtain as much information as I can when interacting with people from different cultures" and "I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures" allowed us to reach a Cronbach's alpha of 0,743.

Open-mindedness: we got a Cronbach's alpha of 0.557 with the four items "I get involved in other cultures", "I have broad ranges of interests", "I find other religions interesting" and "I seek people from different backgrounds". No suppression of item could improve the Cronbach's alpha. We decided to keep this set of items until the Principal Component Analysis, and we will see that it was useful, since the set of items has been broken up to form new components.

Agreeableness: We kept the three items "I take time out for others", "I am not interested in other people's problems" and "I sympathize with others' feelings" and delete the item "I make people feel at ease and obtained a Cronbach's alpha of 0,673. Once more, this Cronbach's alpha was not ideal, but we kept it for the Principal Component analysis.

Emotional Stability: We kept the four items “I don’t get upset easily”, “I keep calm when things don’t go well”, “I am a nervous person” and “I am apt to feel lonely”, and got a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,705.

Cosmopolitanism: The items “I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their view and approaches”, “I find people from other cultures stimulating”, “I like to learn about other ways of life”, and “I like to observe people from other countries to see what I can learn from them” led us to a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,847.

Extraversion: This variable was assessed by the three items “I rarely start conversations”, “I am quiet around strangers” and “I don’t like to draw attention to myself”. The last one was deleted to reach a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,755.

Openness to new experiences: the four items “I prefer variety to routine”, “I don’t like the idea of change”, “I am always open to new experiences” and “I like to begin new things” resulted in a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,698.

Identification to home culture: The three items “I feel proud to be a member of my own culture”, “I feel close to the people of my culture of origin” and “I don’t like to tell others which culture I am from” allowed us to reach a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,764.

Identification to host culture: We obtained a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,560 with the items “I have a strong desire to know about the life of people from the host culture”, “I feel close to the people of the host culture”, and “I would not feel proud to be a member of the host culture”. We could not reach a higher Cronbach’s alpha, and this is why we decided not to use this variable in the study, because of its lack of reliability. Indeed, this variable was not part of our Principal Component analysis.

Life satisfaction: The items “In most ways my current life is close to my ideal”, “I am satisfied with my current life” and “So far I have gotten the important things I want in life” allowed us to reach a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,842.

Expatriation satisfaction: The suppression of the item “Expatriation is exactly as I expected” makes us reach a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,762 with the three following items: “Expatriation has increased my satisfaction with life”, “I love being an expatriate” and “I miss the life I used to have in my home country”.

Performance: We have decided to use items developed by Lee and Donohue (2012) to assess performance. This scale divided performance in several dimensions. Firstly, task performance consists of meeting the job objectives, fulfilling the responsibilities in the job description and meeting formal requirement of the job, and we reached a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,904 for this dimension. Secondly, the dimension teamwork performance is composed of the items “help and support provided to teammates”, “facilitation of peer and team performance” and “arguing effectively to a position”. The Cronbach’s alpha for this dimension was 0,726. Thirdly, Communication performance was assessed by the effectiveness at conveying ideas verbally and at communication exchanges, and these two items allowed us to reach a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,849. The other dimensions of performance were assessed by one item in our study, this is why we had not to calculate their Cronbach’s alpha.

Job Satisfaction: The three items “In general, I would say that my job measures up to the sort of job I wanted when I took it”, “Knowing what I know now, if I had to decide all over again whether to take the job I now have, I would decide without any hesitation to take the same job”, “All in all, I am satisfied with my job” resulted in a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,895.

Job adjustment: The three items “adjustment to job and responsibilities”, “adjustment to supervising national subordinates” and “adjustment to performance standards and expectations that have to be met” constitute job adjustment and got to a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,831.

General adjustment: “Adjustment to general living conditions in the host country”, “Adjustment to housing conditions in the host country”, “Adjustment to food in the host country” and “Adjustment to the entertainment available in the host country” were used to assess general adjustment, and allowed us to obtain a Cronbach’s alpha of 0,747.

Interaction Adjustment: We obtained a Cronbach's alpha of 0,920 thanks to the three items "adjustment to socializing with host nationals", "adjustment to interacting with host nationals outside of work" and "Adjustment to interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis".

Appendix 9

Principal Component Analyses

Bartlett's Test tests the null Hypothesis that all correlations are equal to zero. The result that we obtained for this test can be found in Table I. Since the p-value is equal to 0, we can reject H0 and admit that at least one correlation exists. Since the KMO is greater than 0.7, we will be able to factorize the data (Carricano & Poujol, 2008, p.57).

Table I. KMO & Bartlett's Test: items related to individual traits (own contribution)

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	,830
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	2284,366
	df
	496
	Sig.
	,000

Table J shows the Rotated Component Matrix that allowed us to factorize our data.

Table J. Rotated Component Matrix: Items related to individual traits (own contribution)

Rotated Component Matrix ^a							
	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
COS1 I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their view and approaches	,797	,145	,181	,138	,020	,054	,067
COS4 I like to observe people from other countries, to see what I can learn from them	,777	,214	,109	,020	-,118	,108	,127
CUSE2 I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	,743	,220	,228	,165	,039	,245	,043
CUSE4 I try to obtain as much information as I can when interacting with people from different cultures	,696	,140	-,161	,099	,048	,159	,247
COS2 I like to learn about other ways of life	,678	,352	,242	-,028	-,003	,068	-,124
CUSE3 I respect the ways people from different cultures behave	,639	,115	,080	,068	,120	,052	,096
COS3 I find people from other cultures stimulating	,628	,222	,119	,017	-,123	,320	,213
OPNE4 I am always open to new experiences	,423	,245	,348	,382	-,144	,191	-,175
AGR1 I sympathize with others' feelings	,165	,781	-,111	,001	,013	,175	-,037
CUEM1 I pay attention to the emotions of others	,159	,734	-,008	,077	,023	,100	,324
CUEM4 I sympathize easily with others	,370	,691	-,083	,014	,042	,137	-,177
AGR3 I am not interested in other people's problems	,164	,662	,099	-,139	-,006	-,119	,108
AGR2 I take time out for others	,067	,600	,022	,056	,328	,311	,156
CUEM3 I notice when someone is on trouble	,199	,590	,081	,105	,281	,037	,368
OPM3 I have broad range of interests	,239	,455	,208	,359	,087	-,077	-,096
OPM2 I find other religions interesting	,229	,440	-,055	,006	-,148	,283	,021
CUFL4 I look for regularity in life	,089	-,089	,824	-,046	,058	-,178	,073
CUFL2 I want predictability	-,041	,015	,765	,079	-,095	,172	-,001
CUFL3 I function best in familiar setting	,214	-,109	,692	,121	,149	-,152	,049
OPNE2 I don't like the idea of change	,245	,034	,661	,245	,152	,105	,003
OPNE1 I prefer variety to routine	,053	,195	,521	,021	-,353	,340	-,071
OPNE3 I like to begin new things	,355	,255	,425	,073	-,121	,190	-,257
EMSTA1 I don't get upset easily	,176	,000	,016	,817	-,068	-,021	,002
EMSTA4 I keep calm when things don't go well	,202	,040	,098	,811	-,037	,104	,182
EMSTA2 I am a nervous person	-,123	-,041	,190	,722	,309	-,016	,093
EXT3 I am quiet around strangers	,108	,106	-,026	,107	,847	-,005	-,039
EXT1 I rarely start conversations	,010	,126	,033	-,124	,796	,139	-,069
EMSTA3 I am apt to feel lonely	-,241	-,048	,095	,315	,541	-,017	,326
OPM4 I seek people from different backgrounds	,342	,153	-,006	-,027	,084	,719	,041
CUSE1 I have a feeling of enjoyment towards differences between my culturally-distinct counterparts and me	,314	,151	,102	,089	,138	,686	,238
CUEM2 I am a good listener	,276	,174	-,019	,144	-,044	,108	,733
OPM1 I get involved in other cultures	,399	,222	,039	,080	,023	,283	,511

Table K and Table L are related to the different items that we used to assess respondents' performance.

Table K. KMO & Bartlett's test: Items related to performance (own contribution)

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	,845
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	890,770
	df
	55
	Sig.
	,000

Table L. Totated Component Matrix: items related ti performance (own contribution)

Rotated Component Matrix ^a		
	Component	
	1	2
COMPERF1 How effective are you at conveying ideas verbally?	0,814	0,181
COMPERF2 How effective are your communication exchanges?	0,806	0,122
TMWK1 How much do you do things to help and support teammates?	0,718	0,26
TMWK3 How successful are you at arguing effectively to your position?	0,648	0,319
TMWK2 How much do you facilitate peer and team performance?	0,583	0,449
DEMEFF How volunteer are you to do additional tasks that are not formally part of your job?	0,57	0,2
WORKREL1 How effective are you at maintaining good working relationships?	0,563	0,406
TASK2 How successful are you at fulfilling the responsibilities in the job description?	0,235	0,893
TASK1 How successful are you at meeting the job objectives?	0,2	0,867
TASK3 How successful are you at meeting formal requirements of the job?	0,305	0,845
OSPNPERF1 How successful are you at complying with organizational values and policies?	0,409	0,421

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 10

Independent samples t-test for gender and cosmopolitanism

In order to confirm that there is a relationship between cosmopolitanism and gender, we used a t-test for independent samples, since it allowed us to use cosmopolitanism as a continuous variable. We obtained the same result than with the Chi-square analysis.

Table M. Group statistics: cosmopolitanism and Gender (own contribution)

Group Statistics				
Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
New component: 0 Man cosmopolitanism	83	5,7244	,69344	,07611
1 Woman	68	5,9706	,79443	,09634

In Table M, we notice that women's mean for cosmopolitanism is higher than men's mean. We also observe that there is more variance in cosmopolitanism for women than for men, since their standard variation is higher.

Table N. Independent Samples Test: cosmopolitanism and gender

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
New component: cosmopolitanism	Equal variances assumed	,590	,444	-2,032	149	,044	-,24619	,12113	-,48555	-,00684
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,005	134,068	,047	-,24619	,12278	-,48902	-,00336

Regarding Levene's Test for equality of variance,

H₀: Variances are equal

Since the p-value for Levene's Test for Equality of variances in Table N is greater than the level of significance (0.05), we cannot reject H₀ and have to consider the first row of the table.

Regarding the Independent Samples t-test,

H₀: There is no difference of means for cosmopolitanism between men and women

Since the p-value is inferior to 0.05 in Table N, we can reject H_0 and conclude that there is a difference of mean between men and women regarding cosmopolitanism.

Appendix 11

Kurtosis and Skewness of variables

Table O. Kurtosis and Skewness of variables (own contribution)

	Identification to home culture	Life satisfaction	Expatriation satisfaction	Job-specific performance	Non Job-specific performance	Job Satisfaction	Job adjustment
N Valid	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Skewness	-,541	-,451	-,641	-,495	-,623	-,824	-,727
Std. Error of Skewness	,197	,197	,197	,197	,197	,197	,197
Kurtosis	-,254	-,513	,050	-,661	,206	-,084	-,204
Std. Error of Kurtosis	,392	,392	,392	,392	,392	,392	,392

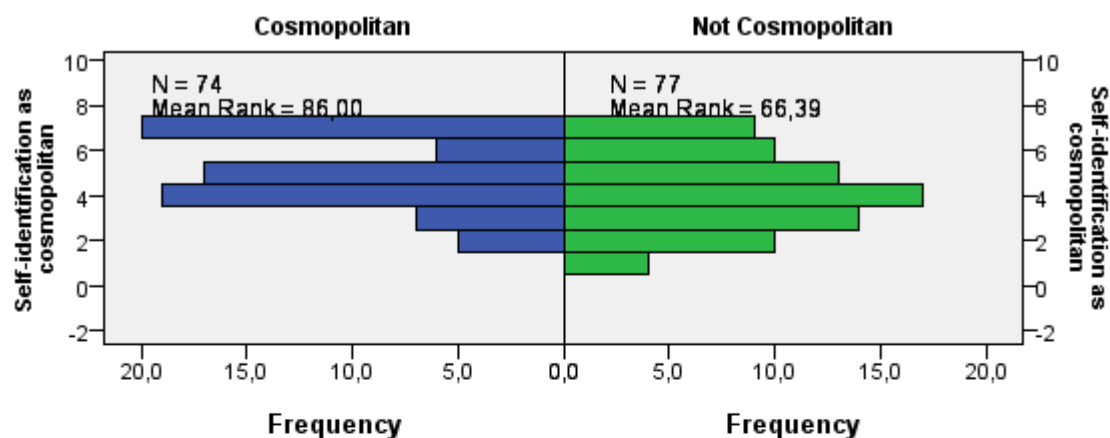
	General adjustment	Interaction adjustment	New component cosmopolitanism	Interest for others	Openness to change	Emotional stability	Extraversion	Openness to diversity
N Valid	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Skewness	-,950	-,925	-,750	-,307	-,380	-,453	-,361	-,265
Std. Error of Skewness	,197	,197	,197	,197	,197	,197	,197	,197
Kurtosis	,792	,193	,580	,129	,689	-,260	-,531	-,464
Std. Error of Kurtosis	,392	,392	,392	,392	,392	,392	,392	,392

All Skewness and Kurtosis values are inferior to 1 in Table O, which indicates no cause of concern regarding normality of distributions.

Appendix 12

Independent Samples Mann Whitney U test: Self-identification to cosmopolitanism

Figure B. Results for Mann Whitney U test: self-identification to cosmopolitanism and cosmopolitanism (own contribution)



Total N	151
Mann-Whitney U	3.589,000
Wilcoxon W	6.364,000
Test Statistic	3.589,000
Standard Error	264,141
Standardized Test Statistic	2,802
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,005

Appendix 13

Multiple Regression Analysis of cosmopolitanism: assumptions

Larson-Hall (2009) states that regression analysis implies a lot of assumptions, and that few researchers show if they are satisfied. We have decided to be transparent and to test these assumptions. Saunders & al. (2009, p.462) mention the following assumptions for regression analyses:

1. *A linear relationship between independent and dependent variables.*

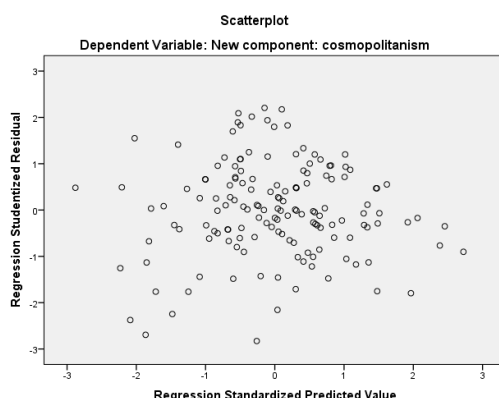
Figure C. Comparison of Loess line and straight regression line (own contribution)



In Table P, we compare the Loess line, defines by Larson-Hall (2009, p.395) as a “*running smoother that follows the trend of the data*”, with a straight regression line. We assume that there is a linear relationship between each pair of variable.

2. *The extent to which the data values for the dependent and independent variables have equal variances.*

The next assumption we want to check is homogeneity of variances. To do so, we used a Plot of studentized residuals crossed with fitted values. According to Larson-Hall (2009), this scatterplot should show a cloud of data scattered randomly. We believe it is the case here.

Figure D. Scatterplot for cosmopolitanism as dependent variable (own contribution)

3. Absence of collinearity

This assumption was confirmed thanks to the Variance inflation indicator (VIF). The Variance Inflation Factor, an indicator of multicollinearity, shows us in Table P that collinearity is not problematic in our model since all VIF values are around 1.

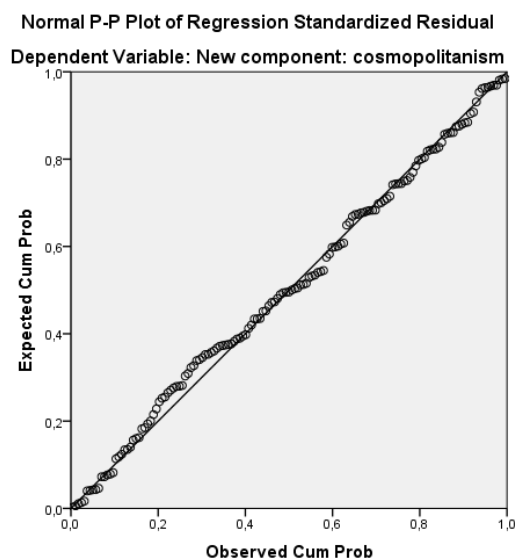
Table P. Collinearity statistics for the different variables included in the regression with cosmopolitanism as a dependent variable (own contribution)

Collinearity Statistics	
Tolerance	VIF
,754	1,326
,906	1,104
,921	1,086
,947	1,056
,760	1,316

4. The data for the independent variables and dependent variable are normally distributed

We tested the normal distribution with a P-P plot of the standardized residuals. Since the points tend to follow a linear distribution, we estimate that they are normally distributed. Also, we have studied earlier skewness and kurtosis values, which showed that normality is not cause of concern.

Figure E. P-P plot of Regression standardized residual, with cosmopolitanism as the dependent variable



Appendix 14

Crosstabs for Motivation drivers

All the following crosstabs have been created thanks to SPSS.

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: Confidence in ability to work and live abroad

Crosstab

Count		Motivation: Confidence in ability to work and live abroad				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	72	1	3	1	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	67	1	2	4	74
Total		139	2	5	5	151

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: Impact on career

Crosstab

Count		Motivation: Impact on career				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	51	17	6	3	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	56	5	7	6	74
Total		107	22	13	9	151

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: Job attractivity

Crosstab

Count		Motivation: Job attractivity				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	67	6	1	3	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	64	3	4	3	74
Total		131	9	5	6	151

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: Confidence in ability to work and live abroad

Crosstab

Count		Motivation: Confidence in ability to work and live abroad				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	72	1	3	1	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	67	1	2	4	74
Total		139	2	5	5	151

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: To see the world**Crosstab**

Count

		Motivation: To see the world				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	65	2	4	6	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	54	7	7	6	74
Total		119	9	11	12	151

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: Desire for adventure**Crosstab**

Count

		Motivation: Desire for adventure				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	63	6	4	4	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	54	10	7	3	74
Total		117	16	11	7	151

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: Desire to live in the host country**Crosstab**

Count

		Motivation: Desire to live in the host country				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	67	0	2	8	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	64	4	3	3	74
Total		131	4	5	11	151

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: Personal financial impact**Crosstab**

Count

		Motivation: Personal financial impact				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	66	1	4	6	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	67	1	5	1	74
Total		133	2	9	7	151

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: Host culture**Crosstab**

Count

		Motivation: Host culture				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	68	3	2	4	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	69	1	4	0	74
Total		137	4	6	4	151

Cosmopolitanism * Motivation: Successful previous experience in the foreign environment**Crosstab**

Count

		Motivation: Successful previous experience in the foreign environment				Total
		0 Not chosen	1 First Motivation	2 Second Motivation	3 Third Motivation	
Cosmopolitanism	0 Non Cosmopolitan	70	1	2	4	77
	1 Cosmopolitan	71	0	2	1	74
Total		141	1	4	5	151

Appendix 15

Independent samples t-test: cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness

Table Q. Independent Sample t-test: cosmopolitanism and expatriate effectiveness (own contribution)

		Independent Samples Test								
		Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Job-specific performance	Equal variances assumed	1,760	,187	-,800	149	,425	-,11574	,14475	-,35532	,12384
	Equal variances not assumed			-,798	145,766	,426	-,11574	,14506	-,35588	,12439
Extra performance	Equal variances assumed	,356	,551	-1,544	149	,125	-,21188	,13724	-,43904	,01528
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,543	148,490	,125	-,21188	,13729	-,43913	,01537
Job adjustment	Equal variances assumed	1,343	,248	-,630	149	,529	-,10407	,16509	-,37731	,16917
	Equal variances not assumed			-,629	143,863	,531	-,10407	,16558	-,37819	,17005
General adjustment	Equal variances assumed	,066	,798	-1,379	149	,170	-,25684	,18630	-,56520	,05151
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,377	148,004	,170	-,25684	,18646	-,56547	,05178
Interaction adjustment	Equal variances assumed	,100	,752	-,974	149	,332	-,24605	,25259	-,66412	,17202
	Equal variances not assumed			-,973	148,002	,332	-,24605	,25280	-,66449	,17239
I am thinking of going back to my home country earlier	Equal variances assumed	4,793	,030	1,353	149	,178	,362	,267	-,081	,805
	Equal variances not assumed			1,359	144,869	,176	,362	,266	-,079	,803

In Table Q, Levene's test for Equality of variances shows us that the assumption of homogeneity of variance can be assumed for all variables apart from "willingness to go back to the home country". Indeed, the p-value is lower than 0.05 (level of significance), what means that H0 (equality of variances) can be rejected. We will then consider the first row for each variable but the second row for the last one.

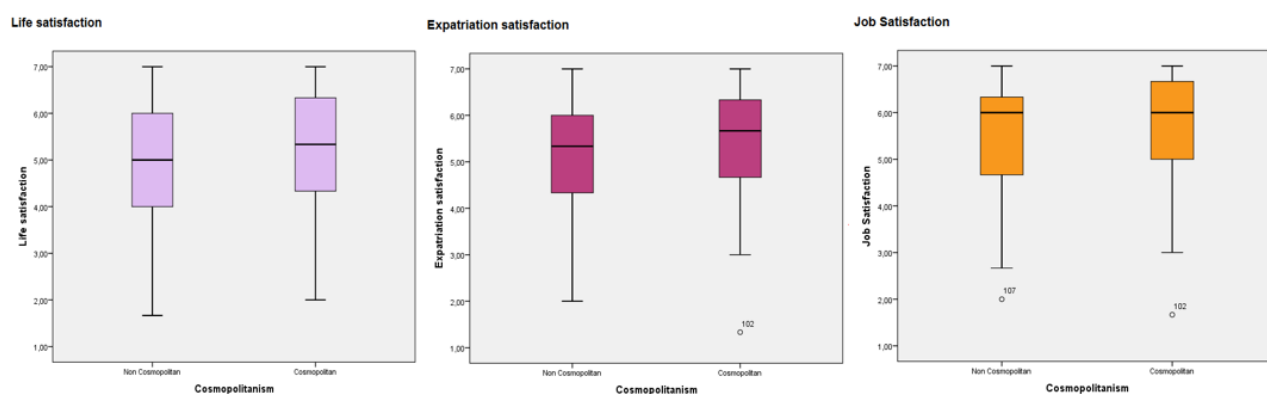
The Independent samples t-test from Table Q has only p-values above 0.05. We are not able to reject H0 (Equality of means between cosmopolitan respondents and others) and cannot make any statistically significant conclusion.

Appendix 16

Boxplots for dimensions of satisfaction according to the degree of cosmopolitanism

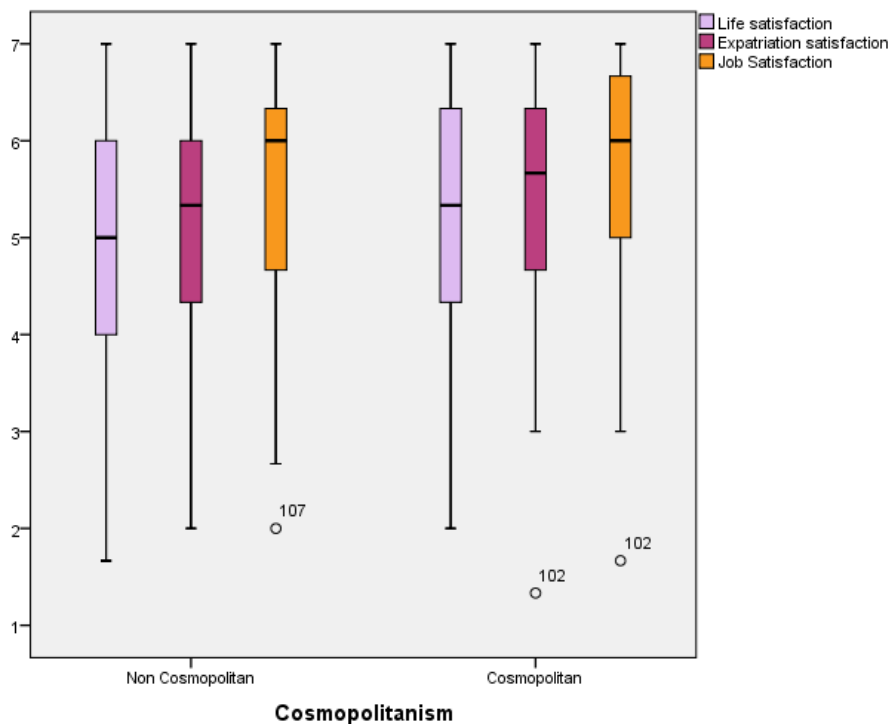
In order to observe the shape and distribution of the different dimensions of satisfaction, we have created boxplots according to cosmopolitanism.

Figure F. Boxplots: cosmopolitanism and dimensions of satisfaction (own contribution)



We notice that although medians are not very different between cosmopolitans and others, the distributions tend to differ. For the three dimensions of satisfaction, the box, or interquartile range of cosmopolitans is higher than the other. The variances of two groups tend to be similar, since the boxes seem to have the same length. Indeed, Larson-Hall (2009, p.87) states that the box shows the amount of variability in the central part of distribution and can be studied for a rough sense of variance. The whiskers extend to the minimum and maximum of the set, excluding outliers. In our study, we see that the minimum is always lower for non-cosmopolitans than others, excluded outliers.

Figure G. Boxplots juxtaposition (own contribution)

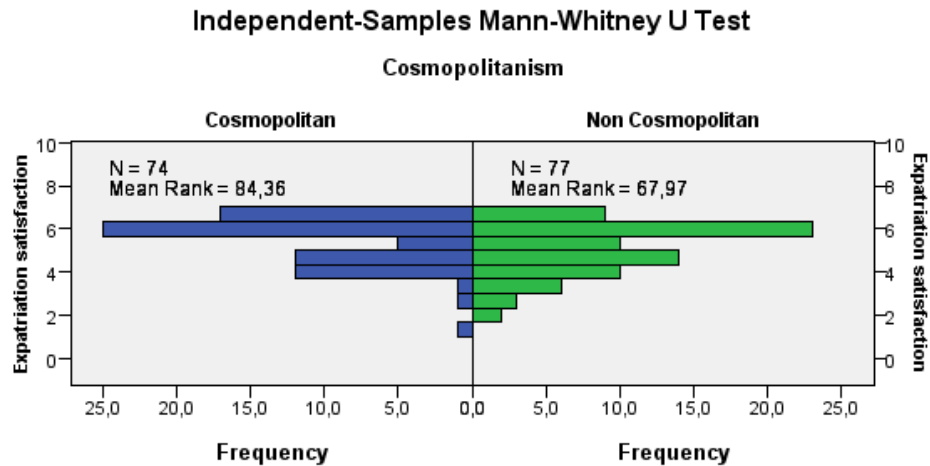


In general, we see that respondents tend to be satisfied with their job better than with expatriation and better than with their life. Regarding job satisfaction, it is interesting to see that although the box is higher for cosmopolitans, the median value is higher for non-cosmopolitans. This means that there is a concentration of responses in the upper part of the box for the not cosmopolitan group.

Appendix 17

Mann-Whitney U test :Cosmopolitanism and expatriate satisfaction

Figure H. Mann-Whitney U test: cosmopolitanism and expatriate satisfaction (own contribution)



Total N	151
Mann-Whitney U	3.467,500
Wilcoxon W	6.242,500
Test Statistic	3.467,500
Standard Error	267,586
Standardized Test Statistic	2,311
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	,021

Regarding the Independent Samples Mann Whitney U test,

H0: *expatriation satisfaction has the same distribution across categories of cosmopolitanism*

We could observe in Figure H the same result than with the independent samples t-test: expatriation satisfaction is not the same among cosmopolitans and non-cosmopolitans. We can reject H0 and accept the alternative hypothesis that expatriation satisfaction has different distributions across categories of cosmopolitanism. The two other hypothesis could not be

confirmed, since the p-value were insufficient to reject H_0 . We have to consider that p-values may have been higher with a large sample.

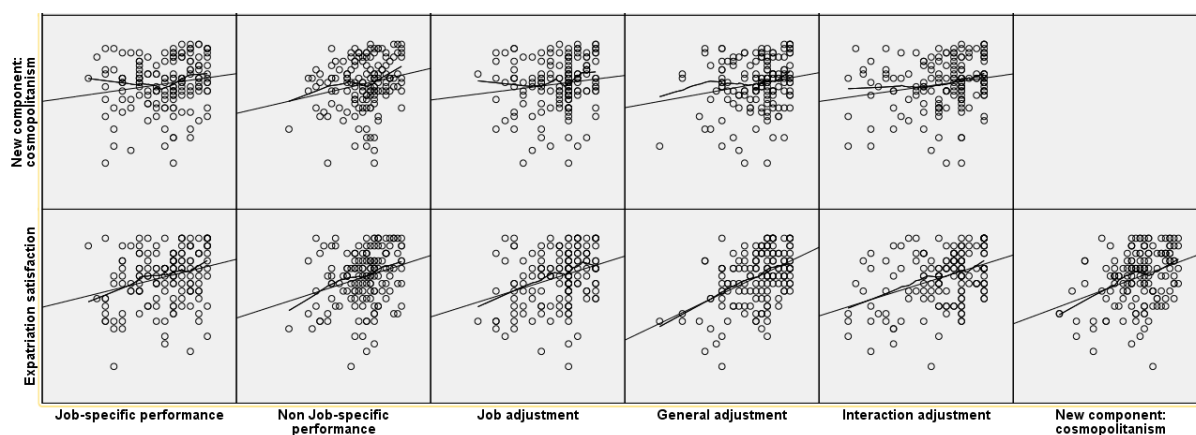
Appendix 18

Assumptions for hypotheses of mediation

Larson-Hall (2009) states that regression analysis implies a lot of assumptions, and that few researchers show if they are satisfied. We have decided to be transparent and to test these assumptions. Saunders & al. (2009, p.462) mention the following assumptions for regression analyses:

1. *A linear relationship between independent and dependent variables.*

Figure I. Comparison of Loess lines and straight regression lines: cosmopolitanism, satisfaction and performance (own contribution)



We compare the Loess line, defines by Larson-Hall (2009, p.395) as a “*running smoother that follows the trend of the data*” with a straight regression line. We assume that there is a linear relationship between each pair of variable.

2. *The extent to which the data values for the dependent and independent variables have equal variances.*

The next assumption we want to check is homogeneity of variances. To do so, we used Plots of studentized residuals crossed with fitted values. According to Larson-Hall (2009), this scatterplot should show a cloud of data scattered randomly. In Tables J, K,L,M and N, we observe that data seem to be slightly concentrated on the right side of the graph. These observations may indicate a violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption.

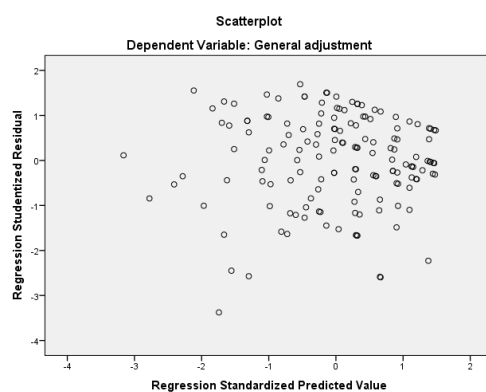
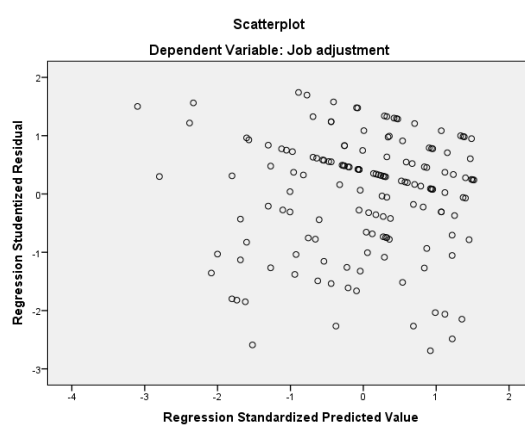
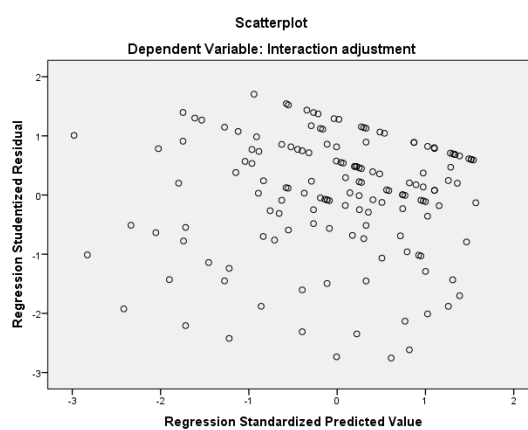
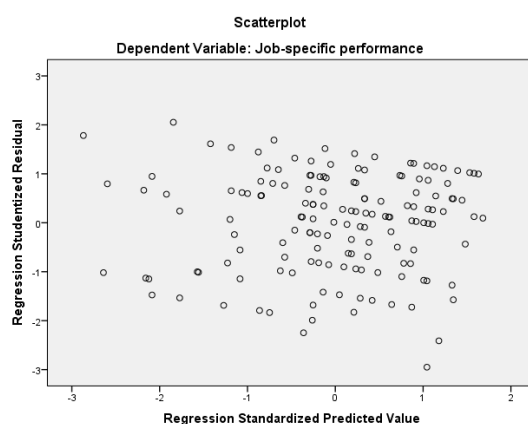
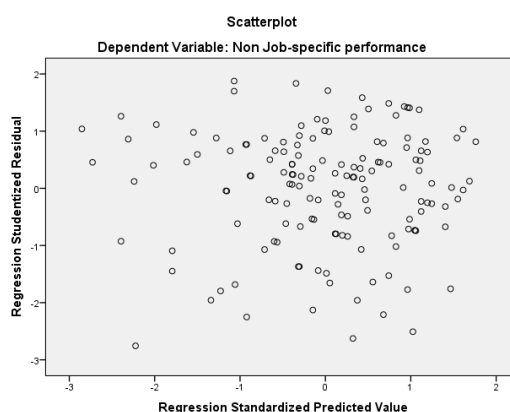
Figure J. Scatterplot: General adjustment (own contribution)**Figure K. Scatterplot: Job adjustment (own contribution)****Figure L. Scatterplot: Interaction adjustment (own contribution)**

Figure M. Scatterplot: Job specific performance (own contribution)**Figure N. Scatterplot: Extra-role job performance (own contribution)**

The violation of the assumption doesn't seem extreme. We decided to keep all our data and to undertake our mediation analysis anyway.

3. *Absence of collinearity*

This assumption was confirmed thanks to the Variance inflation indicators (VIF) in Table R. The Variance Inflation Factor, an indicator of multicollinearity, shows us that collinearity is not problematic in our model since all VIF values are around 1.

Table R. Collinearity statistics with expatriate effectiveness as dependent variable (own contribution)

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)		
	New component: cosmopolitanism	1,000	1,000
2	(Constant)		
	New component: cosmopolitanism	,879	1,137
	Expatriation satisfaction	,879	1,137

4. *The data for the independent variables and dependent variable are normally distributed*

We tested the normal distribution with a P-P plot of the standardized residuals and show the P-P Plots in Figures N,O, P, Q and R.. According to Larson-Hall (2009), its points should follow a linear distribution if they are normally distributed. We detect some curvature of points in some P-Plots, what could bring evidence of some non-normality. However, it does not appear too extreme. We have studied skewness and kurtosis values earlier, which showed that normality is not cause of concern. Therefore, we have decided not to transform our data.

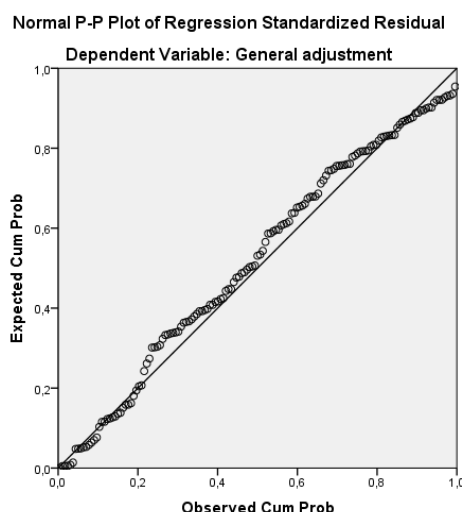
Figure N. P-P Plot of regression Standardized Residual, with General adjustment as dependent variable (own contribution)

Figure O. P-P Plot of regression Standardized Residual, with Job adjustment as dependent variable (own contribution)

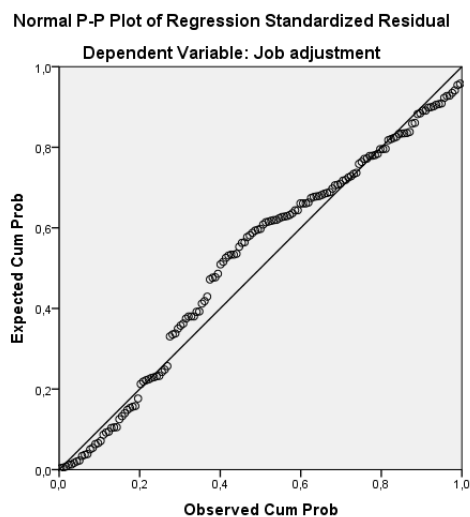


Figure P. P-P Plot of regression Standardized Residual, with Interaction adjustment as dependent variable (own contribution)

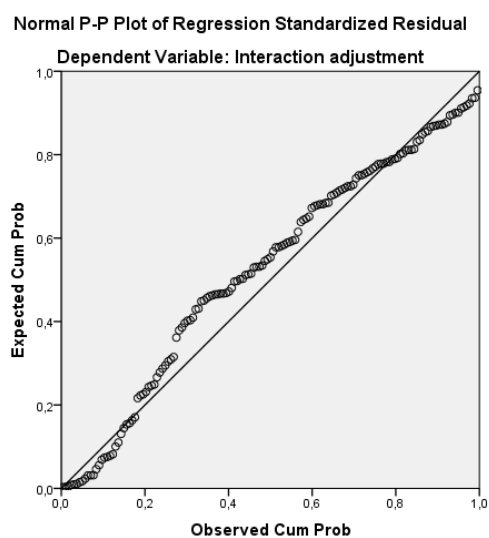


Figure Q. P-P Plot of regression Standardized Residual, with Job-specific performance as dependent variable (own contribution)

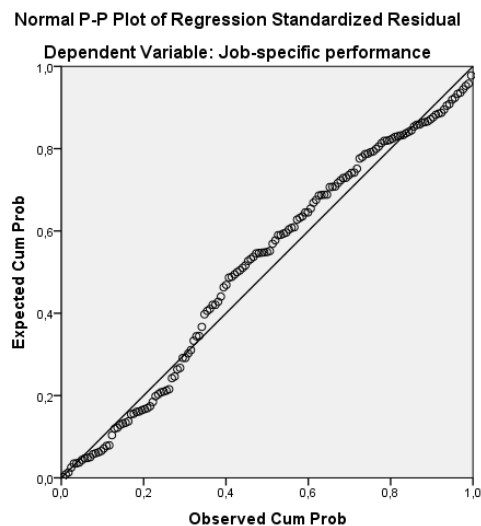
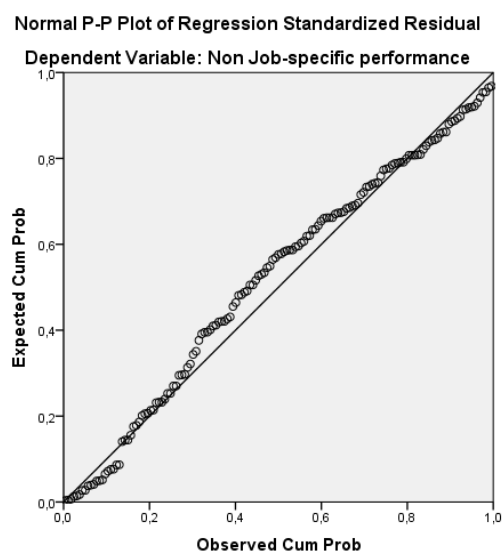


Figure R. P-P Plot of regression Standardized Residual, with Extra-Role Job performance as dependent variable (own contribution)



Appendix 19

Hypotheses of mediation

H8: Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and general adjustment

Firstly, we studied the relationship between cosmopolitanism (as the independent variable) and expatriation satisfaction (as the dependent variable).

Table S. Model Summary with expatriation satisfaction as the dependent variable (own contribution)

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,347 ^a	,121	,115	1,13462	,121	20,456	1	149	,000

a. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

Table T. Analysis of Variance (own contribution)

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	26,334	1	26,334	20,456	,000 ^b
	Residual	191,816	149	1,287		
	Total	218,150	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Expatriation satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

Table U. Coefficients Table for cosmopolitanism (IV) and Expatriation satisfaction (DV) (own contribution)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	2,022	,728		,006
	New component: cosmopolitanism	,560	,124	,347	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Expatriation satisfaction

We observe in Table S that that cosmopolitanism explains 11.5% of variance of expatriation satisfaction. The Analysis of variance (ANOVA) in Table T has a p-value inferior to the level

of significance, which means that we can reject H0 and assume that the model has predictive power.

Finally, the coefficient table (Table U) shows us that the path $a = 0.560$ ($p\text{-value}=0.000$). The $p\text{-value}$ are inferior to 0.05 and therefore allow us to assume that β is statistically significant and that it has an effect different of 0. Cosmopolitanism significantly contributes to predict expatriation satisfaction.

The second step consists in applying a simple regression on the relationship between cosmopolitanism and general adjustment, and a multiple regression with cosmopolitanism and expatriation satisfaction as independent variables and general adjustment as dependent variable.

Table V. Model Summary (own contribution)

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.184 ^a	.034	.028	1,13193	.034	5,250	1	149	.023
2	.456 ^b	.208	.197	1,02832	.174	32,537	1	148	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

Table V shows us that cosmopolitanism alone explains 3.4% of the variance of general adjustment, while cosmopolitanism and expatriation together explain 19.7% of the variance of general adjustment.

Table W. Analysis of variance (own contribution)

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6,727	1	6,727	5,250	.023 ^b
	Residual	190,909	149	1,281		
	Total	197,636	150			
2	Regression	41,133	2	20,567	19,449	.000 ^c
	Residual	156,503	148	1,057		
	Total	197,636	150			

a. Dependent Variable: General adjustment

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

c. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

The ANOVA table (Table W) allows us to assume that the two models have predictive power. Indeed, the p-values are inferior to the level of significance.

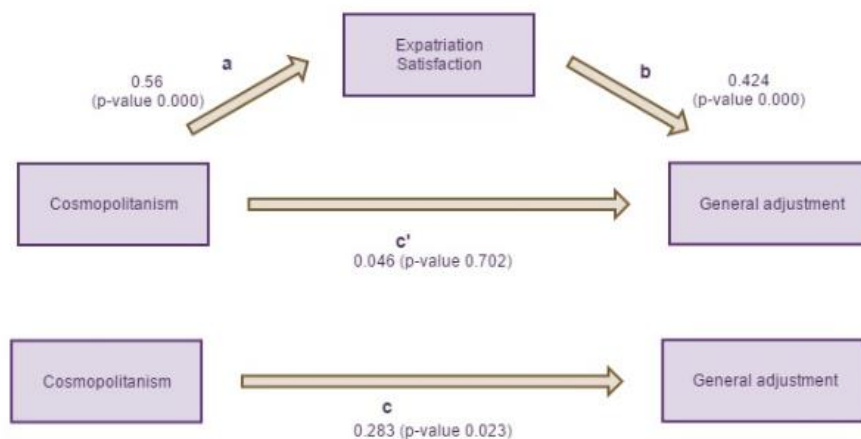
Table X. Coefficients Table (own contribution)

		Coefficients ^a				
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,893	,727		5,358	,000
	New component: cosmopolitanism	,283	,124	,184	2,291	,023
2	(Constant)	3,037	,677		4,486	,000
	New component: cosmopolitanism	,046	,120	,030	,383	,702
	Expatriation satisfaction	,424	,074	,445	5,704	,000

a. Dependent Variable: General adjustment

Table X gives us information for the other relationships in the mediation and allows us to complete the model showed in Figure S.

Figure S. Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and General adjustment. (own contribution)



The four conditions for complete mediation are respected. Cosmopolitanism has a statistically significant effect on expatriation satisfaction, expatriation satisfaction has a statistically significant impact on general adjustment, cosmopolitanism has a statistically significant effect on general adjustment and the effect of cosmopolitanism becomes 0 when it

is controlled by the mediator variable, which is expatriation satisfaction here. We can assume that there is a **complete mediation** because the path c' becomes insignificant when expatriation satisfaction is controlled. Our hypothesis is confirmed.

H9: Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and interaction adjustment

Table Y. Model Summary (own contribution)

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,197 ^a	,039	,032	1,52618	,039	5,987	1	149	,016
2	,408 ^b	,167	,156	1,42559	,128	22,769	1	148	,000

a. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

Table Y shows that cosmopolitanism explains 3.2% of the variation of interaction adjustment, while cosmopolitanism and expatriate satisfaction together explain 15.6% of the total variation interaction adjustment.

Table Z. Analysis of variance (own contribution)

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	13,946	1	13,946	5,987	,016 ^b
	Residual	347,056	149	2,329		
	Total	361,002	150			
2	Regression	60,220	2	30,110	14,816	,000 ^c
	Residual	300,782	148	2,032		
	Total	361,002	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Interaction adjustment

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

c. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

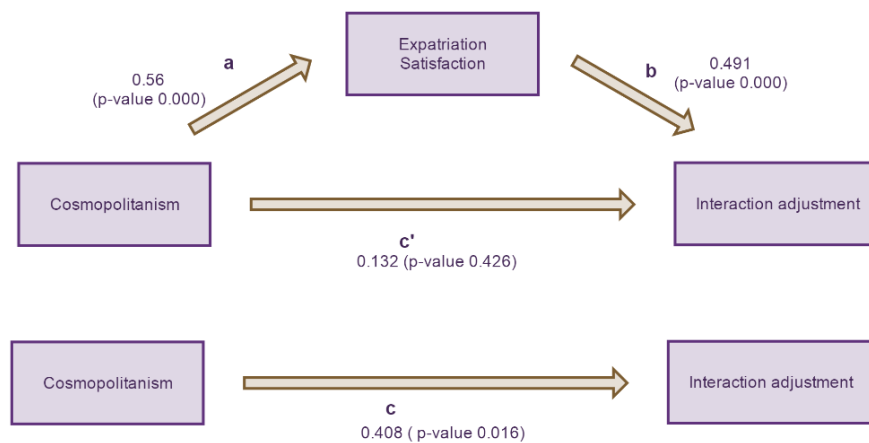
The ANOVA table (Table Z) allows us to reject H0 and assume that the two models have predictive power.

Table AA. Coefficients table (own contribution)

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,812	,980		2,870	,005
	New component cosmopolitanism	,408	,167	,197	2,447	,016
2	(Constant)	1,819	,938		1,938	,054
	New component cosmopolitanism	,132	,166	,064	,798	,426
	Expatriation satisfaction	,491	,103	,382	4,772	,000

a. Dependent Variable: Interaction adjustment

The Coefficients table (Table AA) allows us to complete the model in Figure T.

Figure T. Expatriation satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and interaction adjustment (own contribution)

Since the relationships between cosmopolitanism, expatriation satisfaction and interaction adjustment are significant and the effect of cosmopolitanism on interaction adjustment decreases to 0 with the inclusion of expatriation satisfaction, we can assume that there is **complete mediation**.

H10: Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and work adjustment

Table AB. Model Summary (own contribution)

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,137 ^a	,019	,012	1,00586	,019	2,858	1	149	,093
2	,317 ^b	,100	,088	,96634	,082	13,438	1	148	,000

a. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

Regarding the model testing the regression between cosmopolitanism and job adjustment, we were not able to reject H0 and therefore could not consider that cosmopolitanism predicts Job adjustment. One condition to mediation is that the relationship between the independent variable and the mediating variable must be significant, which is not the case in Table AB. Therefore, we could not test our hypothesis.

H11: Expatriate satisfaction plays a mediates the relationship between cosmopolitanism and job performance

We have divided performance in two dimensions: job-specific performance and extra job performance. We will undertake the mediation analysis for both. We started with job specific performance.

Table AC. Model Summary (own contribution)

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,170 ^a	,029	,022	,87812	,029	4,431	1	149	,037
2	,285 ^b	,081	,069	,85710	,052	8,397	1	148	,004

a. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

We observe in Table AC that cosmopolitanism explains 2.2% of the variance of job-specific performance, while cosmopolitanism and expatriation satisfaction account for 6.9% of the variance of job-specific performance.

Table AD. Analysis of variance (own contribution)

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,417	1	3,417	4,431	,037 ^b
	Residual	114,892	149	,771		
	Total	118,309	150			
2	Regression	9,585	2	4,793	6,524	,002 ^c
	Residual	108,724	148	,735		
	Total	118,309	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Job-specific performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

c. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

Since the p-values are smaller than 0.05 in Table AD, we can reject H0 and assume that the two models have predictive power.

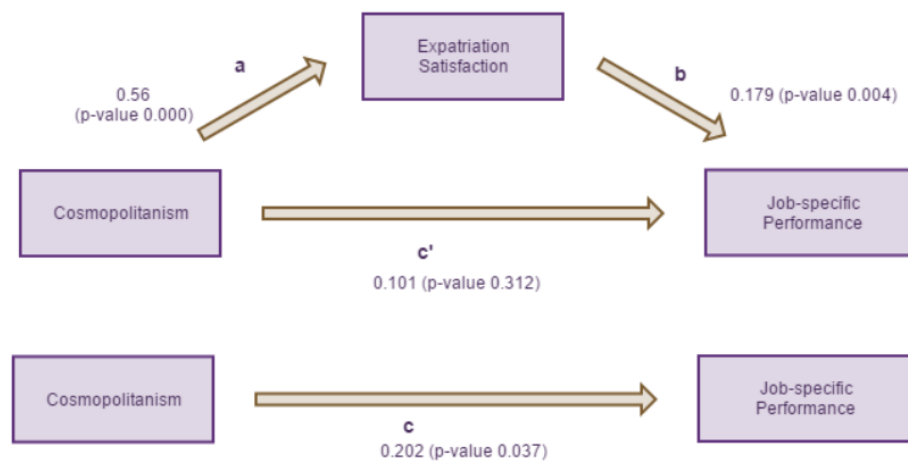
Table AE. Coefficients Table (own contribution)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	4,568	,564		,000
	New component: cosmopolitanism	,202	,096	,170	,037
2	(Constant)	4,206	,564		,000
	New component: cosmopolitanism	,101	,100	,085	,312
	Expatriation satisfaction	,179	,062	,244	,004

a. Dependent Variable: Job-specific performance

Since all relationships are significant except the effect of cosmopolitanism on job-specific performance once that expatriation satisfaction has been controlled, we assume that there is a **complete mediation**. The Model is showed in Figure U.

Figure U. Expatriation satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between cosmopolitanism and job-specific performance (own contribution)



The last mediation model concerned cosmopolitanism and extra-role job performance. This last variable concerns the performance at work that goes beyond what is specified formally.

Table AF. Model Summary (own contribution)

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,210 ^a	,044	,038	,83084	,044	6,875	1	149	,010
2	,298 ^b	,089	,077	,81382	,045	7,299	1	148	,008

a. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

We note in Table AF that cosmopolitanism explains 3.8% of the variance of extra-role job performance while cosmopolitanism and expatriation satisfaction explain 7.7% of the variance of extra-role job performance.

Table AG. Analysis of variance (own contribution)

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4,746	1	4,746	6,875	,010 ^b
	Residual	102,854	149	,690		
	Total	107,599	150			
2	Regression	9,580	2	4,790	7,232	,001 ^c
	Residual	98,020	148	,662		
	Total	107,599	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Non Job-specific performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism

c. Predictors: (Constant), New component: cosmopolitanism, Expatriation satisfaction

The ANOVA table (Table AG) shows us that the two models have predictive power, thanks to their p-values inferior to 0.05 (level of significance).

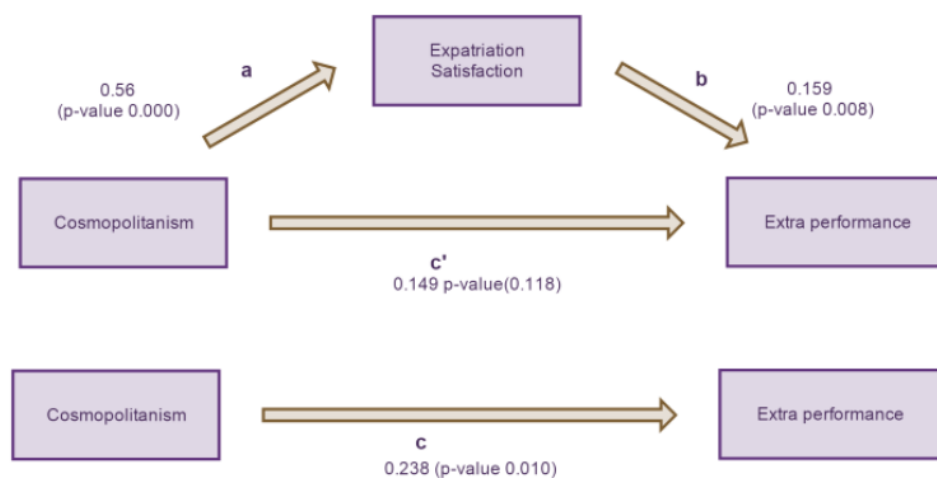
Table AH. Coefficients Table (own contribution)

Coefficients ^a					
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	4,229	,533		,000
	New component: cosmopolitanism	,238	,091	,210	,010
2	(Constant)	3,908	,536		,000
	New component: cosmopolitanism	,149	,095	,131	,118
	Expatriation satisfaction	,159	,059	,226	,008

a. Dependent Variable: Non Job-specific performance

Table AH allows us to state that expatriation satisfaction **completely mediates** the relationship between cosmopolitanism and extra-role job performance. The model is shown in Figure V.

Figure V. Expatriation Satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between cosmopolitanism and extra-roee job performance (own contribution)



Appendix 20

Confirmatory factor analysis

Table AI. Confirmatory factor analysis (own contribution)

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	14,003	19,723	19,723	14,003	19,723	19,723

We observe in Table AI that one single component only explains 19.72% of the total variance, which means that common method bias should not be a cause of concern in our study.