

THE EFFECTS OF SUPERVISOR-SUBORDINATE
GOAL CONGRUENCE ON PERFORMANCE
AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS
DURING EXPATRIATION

by

MARSHALL WILSON PATTIE

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ABSTRACT

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This dissertation investigates how the quality of the relationship between sending supervisors and expatriates is related to turnover and performance. Utilizing goal congruence and social exchange theories, it is hypothesized that the quality of the relationship between sending supervisors and expatriates mediates goal congruence and the two outcome variables: performance and turnover intentions. Additionally, it is hypothesized that three international factors related to sending supervisors and their business units as well as repatriate plans should be related to goal congruence. The goal

examined is the degree to which the expatriation fits into expatriates' career paths at the firm. Regression analysis is used to test the three sets of hypotheses with a sample of 44 matched sending supervisor-expatriate dyads. Analysis of survey and archival data shows some support that goal congruence is related to expatriate's performance through social exchange relationships.

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CHAPTER 1

GOAL CONGRUENCE & EXPATRIATION

The purpose of this dissertation is to gain a better understanding of expatriate turnover and performance by investigating the relationship between supervisors and expatriates. Expatriation is the process of sending employees to work on extended foreign assignments. It is important to research because of its expanding use and the short supply of competent global managers (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1992; GMAC, 2005; HR Focus, 2005; Scullion, 1992). Furthermore, it is important to research because of the significant risks associated with deploying employees overseas. Of all the potential investments that can be made in human resources, expatriation is one of the most expensive (Selmer, 2001). The combination of employees' regular salaries, benefits and deployment can cost up to \$1.25 million annually (Swaak, 2002). In addition to these expenses, costs associated with turnover and poor performance may add significantly to the overall cost of expatriation (Adler, 1997; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; GMAC, 2005). Because of the high costs associated with poor expatriate performance and turnover, this dissertation works toward better understanding these two outcomes.

While the degree of turnover is debated (e.g., Forster, 1997), a recent survey of 125 corporations representing all major industries with a combined expatriate

population of 155,000 finds that 21% of expatriates quit during the expatriate assignment, 23% of expatriates quit within a year of returning, and 20% of expatriates quit between the first and second year after their return (GMAC, 2005). The turnover rate for expatriates is approximately twice as much as the rate of employees who do not participate in expatriation (GMAC, 2005). With such a high level of turnover, further investigation is needed to assist organizations in reducing this exorbitant cost. Previous expatriate literature finds four mechanisms to manage turnover.

First, expatriates who have higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment have lower levels of turnover (Bhuiyan & Al Jabri 1996; Lan, 1996; Naumann, 1992; 1993). Second, the degree to which expatriates adjust to the demands and uncertainties during the assignment can reduce turnover (Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun, & Lepak, 2005). When expatriates are able to adjust during the assignment they are less likely to leave the organization (Shaffer, 1996). Third, job characteristics such as job autonomy, having the opportunity for independent thought and action, allow expatriates to be more easily retained (Birdseye & Hill, 1995). Fourth, organizational policies and procedures reduce turnover and turnover intentions. In general, when expatriates are offered more support practices and believe that the practices are important, expatriates feel that their organization cares for their well-being (Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001). Ultimately, these feelings of well-being reduce turnover intentions. Specifically, organizations that provide career planning sessions, send communications about repatriation details and show visible signs of appreciating international experience are the most successful in reducing turnover intentions (Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001; Stroh,

1995). Similar to turnover, there is an important body of research that investigates performance in the expatriation context.

A sizable portion of expatriate research that investigates performance focuses on the effects of psychological differences between expatriates. For example, expatriates with high levels of conscientiousness (Caligiuri, 2000), intellect, task orientation, person orientation, ethnocentrism (Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black & Ferzandi, 2006), and self-monitoring (Caligiuri & Day, 2000) receive better performance evaluations during and after expatriate assignments than expatriates with low levels of these psychological characteristics. Expatriate adjustment also plays a role in performance. Expatriates who adjust to the demands and uncertainties during the assignment typically perform at higher levels (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer & Luk, 2005; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005). One way organizations can help expatriates adjust is by providing predeparture and cross-cultural training prior to the start of the expatriate assignment. These types of training are found to increase expatriate performance (Morris & Robie 2001; Vance & Paik 2002).

While just beginning to be explored, the quality of the relationship between the managers responsible for sending and repatriating expatriates, called sending supervisors, and expatriates may play a critical role in explaining expatriate turnover and performance. In two studies, for example, the quality of the relationship between supervisors and expatriates (Graen, 1976), is positively related to performance (Kraimer et al., 2001; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). This dissertation focuses on how the quality of the relationship between sending supervisors and expatriates is related to these two

important outcomes. A critical feature of quality relationships between sending supervisors and expatriates is reciprocity. One theory that utilizes reciprocity and should provide understanding on the sending supervisor-expatriate relationship is social exchange theory. Social exchange theory proposes that reciprocity occurs when an individual helps another with the expectation that the favor will be returned (Blau, 1964). The favor is typically an obligation without specificity on how or when it will be returned and is based on trust (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Holmes, 1981). When valuable aid or resources are voluntarily given to recipients, recipients believe that the donor genuinely respects them (Cotterell, Eisenberger, & Speicher, 1992; Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987). The recipient then aids the donor and a reciprocal relationship begins that strengthens over time.

Social exchange theory is increasingly adopted to investigate relationships between supervisors and subordinates (in this case, expatriates) and is represented in two different ways: perceived supervisor support (PSS) and leader-member exchange (LMX) (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Graen, 1976; Hutchison, 1997; Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). PSS is the subordinates' "general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski & Rhoades, 2002: 565). In general, when subordinates have high levels of PSS they feel that supervisors are committed to them and in return, they are committed to supervisors (Hutchison, 1997; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Favorable job conditions increase subordinates' PSS because it is viewed as support from supervisors. These high levels

of general commitment for supervisors create feelings of obligation (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Hutchison, 1997; Wayne et al., 1997). LMX is similar to PSS because both emerge from social exchange theory (Eisenberger et al., 2002). While both represent the social exchange relationship between supervisors and subordinates, PSS is different from LMX because PSS focuses on the support that supervisors provide subordinates; whereas, LMX focuses on the quality of the relationship (Graen, 1976).

One factor that may be important to establishing quality social exchange relationships between supervisors and subordinates is goal congruence during expatriation. The basic premise of goal congruence theory is that the structuring of goals influences how parties interact (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005; Deutsch, 1949; 1973; Johnson & Johnson, 1989). When individuals have similar goals they are more likely to cooperate (Tjosvold, 1989). When sending supervisors and expatriates have shared goals they will also share the rewards if the congruent goals are met. While there may be disagreement on how to attain the common goals in goal congruence, the resulting conflict is usually constructive (Deutsch, 1973). Because of this, both parties openly discuss their positions and try to find a common solution which results in goal attainment (Tjosvold, 1989). However, when there are incongruent goals, supervisors and subordinates may only work toward their goals while ignoring the goals of others. For example, when there is goal incongruence, sending supervisors are less apt to support and assist their expatriates (Liu, Tjosvold & Wong, 2004). In more extreme examples, individuals may enter into competition when they have conflicting goals (Deutsch, 1973). While incongruent goals do not always lead to competition, when this

does occur, goal attainment by one may be viewed as depriving goal attainment by the other. In this situation, supervisors and subordinates enter into a win-lose scenario (Tjosvold, 1989). The closer one party gets to goal attainment, the more resistance they may feel from the other party (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005).

There is a growing body of support for the importance of supervisor-subordinate goal congruence (e.g., Vancouver & Schmitt 1991; Vancouver, Millsap & Peters 1994; Witt, 1998; Witt, Hilton & Hochwater, 2001). For example, Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) explore the effects of goal congruence on subordinate attitudes and intentions towards the organization. The authors find that goal congruence is positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while negatively related to turnover intentions. Using a subset of Vancouver and Schmitt's (1991) data, Vancouver et al. (1994) test the same hypothesis using hierarchical linear modeling and find nearly identical results. Similarly, Witt (1998) and Witt, Hilton and Hochwater (2001) in a near replication study, find that goal congruence moderates the negative impact of organizational politics on subordinate outcomes. Furthermore, other studies demonstrate that when perceived goal congruence exists the parties involved are more likely to solve problems, integrate their ideas and discuss their opinions open-mindedly (e.g., Tjosvold, 1997; 1998).

The expatriate literature has identified seven goals where congruence can exist between sending supervisors and expatriates. First is the goal to develop professional and personal global networks (Bossard & Peterson, 2005). Expatriates have opportunities to establish relationships with coworkers and customers that would not

occur in the home country. Second, a goal for the expatriation may be to generate new business prospects for the organization upon repatriation (Bossard & Peterson, 2005). Third, one of the most frequently cited purposes for expatriation is to transfer knowledge between headquarters and subsidiaries (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Hocking, Brown & Harzing, 2004). Expatriates are essential in transferring international knowledge between business units or firms (Kamoche, 1997), which can provide organizations with strategic advantages (Downes & Thomas, 1999). Fourth, a goal of an expatriation assignment may be to fulfill client needs. Expatriates may be sent overseas to provide services to clients or assist subsidiaries by providing a unique skill set. Fifth, an additional goal is that there is an immediate need for someone with a specific skill set in an overseas location (Yan, Zhu & Hall, 2002). This occurs when there is a position gap that sending supervisors need filled in another country. Expatriates are selected because they have specific skill sets. Sixth, one goal for going overseas is to gain an international perspective, more commonly stated as “broadening” horizons (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Oddou & Mendenhall, 1991). The seventh goal is to fit the expatriate assignment into expatriates’ career paths (Feldman & Thomas, 1992). Focusing on the last goal is important because both sending supervisors and expatriates are critical to ensuring its success. Therefore, goal congruence in this dissertation is limited to when sending supervisors and expatriates place the same level of importance on the goal of fitting the international assignment into expatriates’ careers (Deutsch, 1973; Tjosvold, 1989; Vancouver & Schmidt, 1991).

Sending supervisors can be essential in ensuring the international assignment fits into expatriates' careers. For example, sending supervisors can alleviate fears by watching over expatriates' interest during the international assignments and can provide direct assistance (Feldman, 1991; Feldman & Thomas, 1992). Furthermore, sending supervisors can provide expatriates with favors. Favors can include additional communication on important topics such as the repatriation process, additional access to sending supervisors and their networks, assistance with problems, and additional logistic support (Harris et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2004; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Because sending supervisors have the choice of providing these favors they play an important role in the success or failure of expatriate assignments. When there is goal congruence they are more likely to provide these favors. However, when quality relationships do not exist, sending supervisors may lose touch with what their expatriates are accomplishing overseas and show little concern for the interests of their expatriates during deployment (Feldman & Thomas, 1992).

The relationship between expatriates and sending supervisors may weaken because of the difficulties caused by great distances, such as poor communication due to lack of face-to-face exposure and time zone differences. Expatriates arrive home and are often not utilized until they are retrained and meet home country needs (Feldman, 1991; Gregersen & Black, 1996; Harvey 1989; Kamoche, 1997; Selmer, 1999). In this situation, sending supervisors see expatriates as behind in their career paths (Feldman, 1991). This can delay promotions and can potentially lead to termination (Feldman, 1991; Feldman & Tompson, 1993). The inability of sending supervisors to utilize the

international experience that repatriates have accumulated is particularly problematic since repatriates have lost the opportunity to develop domestic skills, experience, and networks while on assignment. For these reasons, sending supervisors are essential to expatriates' long-term career advancement (Feldman, 1991; Feldman & Thomas, 1992).

Expatriates also see the goal of fitting the expatriate experience into the careers as important (Feldman & Thomas, 1992). Typically, expatriates feel apprehension about the impact of their overseas experience (Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002). Research indicates the conflicting feelings of expatriates on this topic. While expatriates have high expectations that their overseas experience will be beneficial to their careers, they simultaneously feel as if overseas assignments delay or even damage their careers (Benson & Pattie, in press; Black, 1992; Black & Gregerson, 1992; Stroh, Gregersen & Black, 1998; Riusala & Suutari 2000). Some studies show that as many as 20% of repatriates are demoted. Similarly, other studies find that some repatriates feel as if the international assignment has had a negative or neutral effect on their careers (Derr & Oddou, 1991; Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Forster, 1994; Mendenhall, 1991). Furthermore, many repatriates often complain about unchallenging jobs, low levels of authority and little utilization of their newly acquired international skills upon return (Bonache, 2005; Brewster & Suutari, 2005; Gregersen & Black, 1996; Harvey, 1989; Selmer, 1999; Stahl et al., 2002; Stroh, Gregerson & Black, 2000). Since sending supervisors play critical roles in ensuring success in fitting assignments into expatriates' careers and the goal is essential to the future of expatriates, goal congruence on this single goal should be particularly powerful in predicting turnover and performance.

A model is presented in the next chapter linking goal congruence and social exchange theory together. While goal congruence and social exchange theory have not previously been put together, there is significant synergy between them. Goal congruence theory focuses on the effects of similar goals suggesting that similar goals lead to cooperation (Deutsch, 1973). Social exchange theory focuses on what happens in a cooperative relationship (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Utilizing these two theories, the model defines the predicted relationships between the antecedents to goal congruence, goal congruence, quality of sending supervisor-expatriate relationships and the important expatriate outcomes of performance and turnover intentions. Based on the model, three sets of hypotheses are presented.

CHAPTER 2

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Model

The model for this study is presented below in Figure 1. This model identifies antecedents that may be related to goal congruence. The antecedents vary greatly depending on the context in which goal congruence is studied. Because this dissertation is examining expatriation, the antecedents are associated with expatriate assignments. Three different international factors and the quality of the repatriate plan are used as antecedents of goal congruence in the expatriation context.

When there is goal congruence, sending supervisors and expatriates enter into a social exchange relationship because each party has a vested interest in fulfilling the same goals. The vested interests caused by goal congruence should be related to cooperation between sending supervisors and expatriates (Deutsch, 1973). When sending supervisors and expatriates are cooperating, they are more likely to provide favors to each other to help ensure their common goal is met. The social exchange relationship is conceptualized in the model in two different ways between sending supervisors and expatriates: leader-member exchange (LMX) and perceived sending supervisors support (PSS).

LMX and PSS are predicted to be related to the critical expatriate outcomes of performance and turnover intentions. As demonstrated by other recent research, high-quality relationships tend to increase subordinate performance and lower turnover

intentions (e.g., Harris, Kacmar & Witt, 2005; Kraimer et al., 2001; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Now that the model is briefly outlined, each hypothesis is described in greater depth.

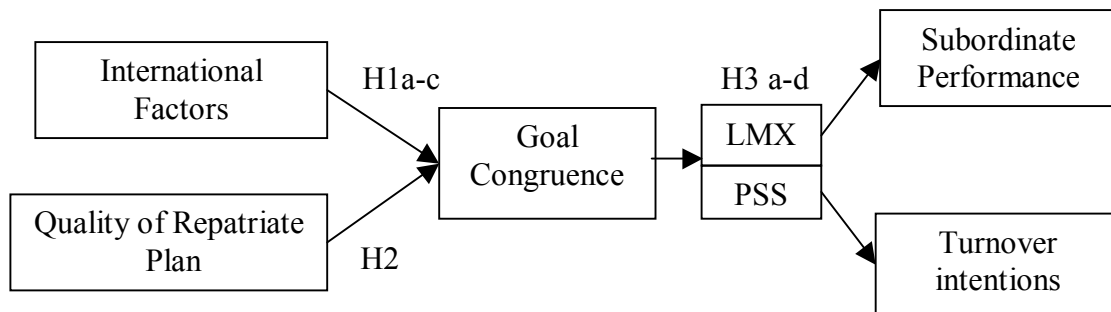


Figure 1. Model

2.1.2 Hypotheses

Since the focus of this dissertation is on expatriation, the antecedents are associated with expatriate assignments. Three different international factors are hypothesized as antecedents to goal congruence: internationalization, supervisor’s international experience and supervisor’s perception of the value of a subordinate having international experience. Internationalization is the degree to which business units or divisions are involved in serving multinational companies. In highly internationalized business units, both sending supervisors and expatriates have a clear need to integrate the assignment into the expatriate’s career.

Sending supervisors with significant internationalization in their business units have different strategic needs than those with less internationalization (Daily et al.,

1996). Those who manage highly internationalized business units are more likely to recognize the benefits of having subordinates participate in an expatriation program because the unit's performance is more dependent on subordinates with international skills. Sending supervisors in these cultures understand how vital expatriates are to their success and are more likely to send employees abroad (Kobrin, 1994). Furthermore, these supervisors are able to assign expatriates international work that employees without international experience are not able to competently complete. In addition to influencing sending supervisors, internationalization of business units also should influence expatriates' career needs. In business units with high internationalization, subordinates need international experience in order to be promoted to higher levels of management (Kobrin, 1994). Subordinates observe how critical global relationships are for their business units and therefore, more readily accept an international assignment as they can see a connection between expatriation and their career progression at their current organization (Kobrin, 1994).

However, without internationalization, sending supervisors and expatriates have little need to fit assignments into careers. Sending supervisors, for example, are less likely to have a clear need of fitting the assignment into expatriate careers because they will not only lose subordinates for the duration of the assignment, but the skills, knowledge and networks obtained overseas may be irrelevant upon repatriation. Similarly, expatriates in business units with little internationalization are more likely to anticipate that participating in expatriation may provide no additional benefits to their careers and may even be detrimental. Therefore, internationalization should influence

goal congruence by crystallizing sending supervisor and expatriate needs. When there is little internationalization, goal congruence is less likely because needs are not clearly defined. This increases the likelihood of a misalignment on integrating international assignments into expatriate careers. On the other hand, when there is significant internationalization, needs for both parties are clearly identified increasing the likelihood of goal congruence.

Hypothesis 1a: Internationalization of the business unit will be positively related to congruence on the goal of fitting the assignment into expatriates' careers.

The sending supervisor's own international experience should also predict congruence on the goal of fitting the expatriate assignment into the employee's career. International experience is the total time spent working outside of the supervisor's native country (Takeuchi, et al., 2005). Research on CEOs and top management teams (TMTs) demonstrates that international experience changes leaders' strategic perspectives to be more internationally focused. For example, TMTs with greater international experience are more likely to pursue international strategies (Sambharya, 1996). Similarly, chief executive officers (CEOs) with greater international experience are more likely to direct their strategies internationally (Daily, Certo, & Dalton, 2000). Other research demonstrates that CEOs with international experience perform better when they lead internationally-focused organizations (Carpenter, Sanders, Gregersen, 2001; Roth, 1995).

Because obtaining international experience changes sending supervisors' perspectives, sending supervisors are likely to use their own experiences to communicate the benefits of expatriation. Doing so is likely to influence subordinates' perspectives of acquiring international experience. The more sending supervisors share their thoughts on the benefits of expatriation, the more subordinates are going to desire gaining international experience for their careers for two reasons. First, by sharing their thoughts on expatriation, sending supervisors may reduce anxiety about the impact of the assignments on expatriate careers. Second, sending supervisors with international experience may be more likely to convey their plans for repatriation. Doing so creates an environment in which sending supervisors and expatriates are clear about the career path from the beginning of the expatriate assignment and increases the likelihood of congruence on the goal of fitting the expatriate assignment into employee's careers. However, when sending supervisors do not have international experience they are less likely to communicate the benefits of expatriation. Without receiving this communication, expatriates may have a variety of expectations for the assignment. Similarly, because sending supervisors do not have international experience, their expectations may also vary significantly. In an environment where supervisors have little international experience, there is a reduced likelihood that there will be goal congruence on fitting the assignment into expatriates' careers.

Hypothesis 1b: Supervisor's international experience will be positively related to congruence on the goal of fitting the assignment into expatriates' careers.

Sending supervisors who value international experience value the skills, knowledge and networks acquired by expatriates (e.g., Stroh, 1995). When this occurs, sending supervisors demonstrate that the international experience is important (Gregersen, 1992; Gregersen & Black, 1996; Stroh, 1995). For example, when organizations value international experience there are stronger intentions of using an expatriate's international experience at the completion of the assignment (Stroh, 1995). Furthermore, subordinates may observe how coworkers with international experience are treated and the level of enthusiasm sending supervisors have when discussing expatriation. When sending supervisors value international experience, subordinates have more organizational commitment and role clarity, with less role conflict and turnover (Gregersen, 1992; Gregersen & Black, 1996; Stroh, 1995).

Supervisors valuing international experience and supervisor's international experience should impact goal congruence in a similar manner. The difference between the two is that valuing international experience is perceived; whereas, supervisors international experience is objective. When sending supervisors value international experience they are more likely to share their perspectives with subordinates about expatriation because sending supervisors value the skills, knowledge and networks acquired by expatriates. By communicating with their expatriates, sending supervisors may reduce anxiety about careers and convey repatriate plans. Both of which should encourage expatriates that the assignment will be integrated into their career. In this situation, expatriates have accurate expectations of how their sending supervisors are going to fit their assignments into their careers. Since sending supervisors are more

likely to believe expatriates' international experience is important and expatriates are more likely to see expatriation as part of their career, sending supervisors and expatriates should have higher levels of congruence on integrating the assignment into expatriate careers. On the other hand, when sending supervisors do not value international experience, they are unlikely to emphasize the importance of the assignment and are unlikely to explain how the assignment is going to fit into expatriate careers. Therefore, expatriates are left to develop their own expectations about how the expatriate assignment will fit into their careers, which should decrease the likelihood of congruence on this goal.

Hypothesis 1c: Supervisor's valuing of international experience will be positively related to congruence on the goal of fitting the assignment into expatriates' careers.

Participating in the process of repatriation planning should also be related to goal congruence. In this dissertation, a repatriate plan is defined as a nonbinding agreement that specifies details about the repatriation. Expatriates who receive guaranteed repatriate job assignments feel much more secure while overseas (Feldman 1991; Gregersen & Black, 1992). Yet, quality repatriate plans are rarely provided (Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2000; Peak, 1997; Peterson et al. 2000; Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Tung, 1998). In general, research shows that only a minority of expatriates receive detailed repatriate plans. For example, one study finds that only 38% of U.S. expatriates have written guarantees of a position when they return

home (Peak, 1997). While expatriation should be part of employee career plans and should be explicitly stated in the repatriate plan, it usually is not (Feldman, 1991; Feldman & Thomas, 1992).

Essentially, a quality repatriate plan is an agreement that describes each party's responsibilities and guarantees concerning the repatriation; whereas, low-quality repatriate plans are vague describing each party's responsibilities and provide few, if any, guarantees. Both sending supervisors and expatriates benefit from the actual document itself and from the process required to develop quality repatriate plans. Both sending supervisors and expatriates outline and agree upon the best use of the expatriate's international experience upon return. By working together to develop the plan, potential misunderstandings and conflicting interests are more likely identified before deployment. With the removal of the ambiguity and a mutual agreement on the repatriate plan there will likely be goal congruence on fitting the international assignment into expatriate careers. However, when sending supervisors and expatriates go through the process quickly or address the plan as a bureaucratic process necessary to get approval for the expatriation, low-quality repatriate plans are agreed upon. With low-quality repatriate plans, expatriate assignments may be detrimental to both sending supervisors and expatriates. Because of the expediency and lack of effort in low-quality repatriate plans, the critical process of sending supervisors and expatriates identifying potential misunderstandings and conflicts is lost. Ambiguity caused by the process of developing low-quality repatriate plans increases the likelihood of divergence of interest between sending supervisors and expatriates. Therefore, when there are low-quality

repatriate plans, it is less likely that there is goal congruence on fitting the international assignment into expatriate's careers.

Hypothesis 2: The quality of the repatriation plan will be positively related to congruence on the goal of fitting the assignment into expatriates' careers.

While internationalization, supervisor's international experience, valuing international experience and quality repatriate plans should be related to goal congruence, goal congruence, in turn, should predict the resulting supervisor-expatriate relationship. Deutsch (1949, 1973) proposes that the degree of goal congruence between individuals will determine how they will interact. Specifically, when supervisors and subordinates have similar goals they will communicate their opinions openly, engage in constructive conflict and try to agree upon a high-quality solution that is acceptable to all those involved (Deutsch, 1973; Tjosvold, 1989). When there is incongruence between goals, individuals may ignore or even work against each other's interests (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005). Three theoretical articles predict that when there is congruence on the goals of expatriation, the two parties enter into a social exchange relationship (Aycan, 1997; Paik, Segaud & Malinowski, 2002; Yan et al., 2002). While none of the articles uses the same language, the conceptualizations in the articles are very similar. Even though each of these three articles evaluates congruence between organizations and expatriates, the proposition should hold at the supervisor-expatriate level since the sending supervisor is the organization's representative and it is the

sending supervisor who has influence on both the organization and the employee to ensure the expatriation is in both party's interests.

Aycan (1997) proposes that when the organization considers the international experience advantageous for both parties, it will treat the assignment as an important step in the expatriate's career and the expatriate will reciprocate. More recently, Paik et al. (2002) propose that when there is congruence between the motivations and expectations of both parties, there is a higher rate of success in the repatriation process. That is, once there is congruence, expatriates will be both rewarded (e.g., career development) by the organization and will reward the organization (e.g., performance). Similarly, Yan et al. (2002) proposes that when the goals between the organization and the expatriate are the same, they enter into a relationship of mutual loyalty. Mutual loyalty occurs when both parties are committed to a reciprocal, long-term relationship. Specifically, Yan et al. (2002) suggests that mutual loyalty is most likely to occur when the expatriation assignment is part of the strategic plan for the business and the expatriate's career at the organization.

Although goal congruence has not been tested, research has found other types of congruence between supervisors and subordinates in other contexts are significantly related to social exchange relationships: value congruence (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997), attitude congruence (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994; Steiner, 1988), and cognitive style congruence (Allinson, Armstrong & Hayes, 2002). One study does find that perceived goal congruence by the subordinate predicts LMX (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005). The study utilizes 230 expatriates working on the Chinese mainland. The authors find

that when there is perceived goal congruence, expatriates form higher quality relationships with their supervisors. The authors suggest that goal congruence may be one way to develop quality social exchange relationships during expatriation (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005). Chen and Tjosvold's (2005) study supports the notion that goal congruence may be related to higher quality social exchange relationships in the expatriation context.

In this dissertation it is also expected that goal congruence will be related to social exchange relationships. When there is goal congruence on fitting the international assignment into expatriate careers, sending supervisors are likely to provide favors to expatriates in the forms of discretionary support and frequent communication (Chen, Tjosvold & Liu, 2006; Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Liu et al., 2004; Tjosvold, 1989; 1991). Sending supervisors generally provide support for goals that are in their best interest (Lewicki, McAllister & Bies, 1998). In these situations, sending supervisors may be more willing to provide additional financial and emotional support because they want to make sure that the expatriation is successful (Deutsch, 1949; 1973; 1980; Lawler & Yoon, 1993, 1996; Tjosvold, 1981, 1985). By communicating with their expatriates, sending supervisors make expatriates feel as if they care about the success of the international assignment. Thus, when there is congruence between sending supervisors and expatriates on fitting the assignment into expatriate careers they are likely to enter into quality social exchange relationships. On the other hand, if sending supervisors do not have significant interest in the expatriates, they will do little to build a strong relationship, be less likely to support, and be less

likely to communicate with their subordinates (e.g., Chen, Tjosvold & Liu, 2006; Tjosvold, 1989; 1991). Similarly, if congruence does not exist on this goal, then expatriates are less likely to communicate and build a relationship with sending supervisors (e.g., Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Liu et al., 2004).

While goal congruence is important for the relationship between sending supervisors and expatriates, the interactions between these individuals may determine outcomes such as performance (Deutsch, 1949; 1973). Researchers of social exchange theory test and support this proposition with conceptualizations of social exchange relationships: LMX and PSS. For example, LMX is related to improved performance (Duarte, Goodson & Klich, 1993; Dunegan, Duchon & Uhi-Bien 1992; Dunegan, Uhi-Bien & Duchon, 2002; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Kacmar, Zivnuska, Witt & Gully, 2003; Kraimer et al., 2001; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Therney et al., 1999; Wayne et al., 1997; Wayne et al., 2002). In a study with private sector workers, Kacmar et al. (2003) find that the relationship between LMX and performance is significant: when there is low LMX, the subordinate's performance suffers (e.g., Dunegan et al., 2002; Kacmar et al., 2003; Wayne et al., 2002). This relationship is also present in expatriate literature. Kraimer et al. (2001) suggest that expatriates in quality LMX relationships receive information and assistance from sending supervisors which enables expatriates to perform at higher levels. The authors find support for the LMX-performance relationship in the context of expatriation.

Similar support is found by researchers of social exchange theory who investigate the PSS-performance relationship. When supervisors are supportive there

are favorable outcomes for both subordinates and supervisors (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). When subordinates perceive that supervisors support an activity, subordinates are likely to reciprocate by performing at higher levels (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). For example, in a study of production employees in three manufacturing firms, employees with greater PSS had elevated levels of performance versus those with less PSS (Gagnon & Michael, 2004).

Another outcome that is related to relationships between sending supervisors and expatriates is turnover intention (Deutsch, 1949; 1973). Like performance, this relationship is also significantly supported by social exchange researchers (e.g., Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982; Graen & Uhl-Bien 95; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Ferris, 1985; Vecchio, Griffeth, & Horn, 1986). Until recently, the relationship between LMX and turnover was debated. While many studies find that LMX leads to turnover (e.g., Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Wilhelm, Herd, & Steiner, 1993), many others do not find a relationship (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997; Vecchio & Norris, 1996). These conflicting results are explained by a curvilinear relationship between LMX and turnover (Harris, Kacmar & Witt, 2005; Morrow, Suzuki, Crum, Ruben & Pautsch, 2005). The findings suggest that moderate levels of LMX are negatively related to turnover while low and high levels of LMX are positively related to turnover (Harris et al., 2005; Morrow et al., 2005). At first, high levels of LMX leading to turnover seems counterintuitive. However, it is proposed that in this situation, subordinates are rewarded with externally visible benefits and advantages from their supervisor. These factors, in turn, are likely

to increase perceived or actual ease of movement which leads to subordinates' eventual turnover (Harris et al., 2005; Morrow et al., 2005). Furthermore, supervisors may run out of rewards to provide their top subordinates. When this occurs, subordinates may become frustrated that they have maximized the potential returns at their current organization. This may increase their desire to leave (Harris et al., 2005; Morrow et al., 2005). Whether this relationship holds in the context of expatriation is unknown.

Unlike LMX, very few studies test the PSS-turnover intentions relationship. However, two recent articles support this relationship. Using a sample of 238 employees in a longitudinal study design, Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) find that PSS is indirectly related to turnover through affective commitment. While not testing this relationship directly, Gagnon and Michael (2004) find that PSS leads to two well-established antecedents of turnover intentions: job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Gagnon & Michael, 2004). Since PSS is a relatively new conceptualization of social exchange relationships between supervisors and subordinates (2002), a curvilinear relationship may exist between PSS and turnover.

Once sending supervisors and expatriates enter into a quality social exchange relationship they are likely to continue to openly discuss their opinions and try to find common solutions (Deutsch, 1973; Tjosvold, 1989). Providing additional encouragement in the form of support and frequent communication should produce feelings of obligation to sending supervisors. This, in turn, should increase the likelihood that the expatriate will reciprocate the favor (Eisenberger et al., 2002;

Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). One way for expatriates to reciprocate is to perform well (Becker & Kernan, 2003; Bhanthumnavin, 2003; Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Malatesta, 1995). Furthermore, as a result of the quality social exchange relationship and thus, higher levels of PSS and LMX, the additional communication and support from sending supervisors should provide expatriates with more knowledge and resources to help increase performance. Another way to reciprocate is to stay with the firm and to continue to work with sending supervisors. By not leaving the organization, expatriates are able to continue to help sending supervisors achieve their goals and demonstrate gratitude for providing the opportunity to go overseas.

On the other hand, when sending supervisors and expatriates have poor social exchange relationships, little reciprocity exists. In this situation, expatriates pursue their own interests and feel little need to reciprocate to their sending supervisors (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005). Once in a poor social exchange relationship, sending supervisors are unlikely to communicate to and support their expatriates (Liu, Tjosvold & Wong, 2004). Without the additional support and communication from their sending supervisors, expatriates may not have the knowledge and resources necessary to perform at a high-level. Additionally, with little reciprocity towards sending supervisors, expatriates have weak emotional bonds to keep them attached to organizations. Furthermore, with newly marketable skills, knowledge and networks and no relationship to tie them to the organization, expatriates are more likely to intend to leave the organization (Scullion, 1992). Therefore, it is less likely that expatriates will

perform well and more likely that expatriates will have higher levels of turnover intentions.

In summary, goal congruence influences performance and turnover intentions through LMX and PSS. Specifically, when there is congruence on the goal of fitting the overseas experience into the expatriate's career path, sending supervisors and expatriates are more likely to enter into a better relationship which results in higher levels of LMX and PSS. Once in a quality relationship, expatriates are going to feel indebted to their sending supervisors and reciprocate by performing and staying with the organization. Yet, higher performance ratings provide additional visibility and create perceived or actual ease of movement (Harris et al., 2005). Because of this, at moderate levels of LMX and PSS expatriates should have higher performance and lower turnover intentions; however, at high levels of LMX and PSS expatriates performance should continue to increase while turnover intentions should simultaneously increase. Therefore, this dissertation hypothesizes that LMX and PSS should mediate the effects of goal congruence on performance and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 3a: Leader-member exchange mediates the relationship between congruence on the goal of fitting the assignment into expatriates' careers and performance.

Hypothesis 3b: Perceived supervisor support mediates the relationship between congruence on the goal of fitting the assignment into expatriates' careers and performance.

Hypothesis 3c: Leader-member exchange mediates the relationship between congruence on the goal of fitting the assignment into expatriates' careers and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 3d: Perceived supervisor support mediates the relationship between congruence on the goal of fitting the assignment into expatriates' careers and turnover intentions.

In the next chapter, the methodology used to test the hypotheses is presented. Included in the methods chapter are discussions of the sample and data collection, measures and the analysis.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS & RESULTS

3.1 Sample and Data Collection

The three sets of hypotheses are tested using survey and archival data from a large international professional services firm. The organization employs approximately 130,000 employees in 148 countries around the world. In 2002, the U.S. division, which is comprised of about 23,000 employees in eighty-five cities, increased its efforts in monitoring and managing the expatriate process by revamping its expatriate department. The organization recognized the growing need for professionals with international experience and had identified difficulties in retaining repatriates. Part of the changes the organization was making included requiring greater clarity in the purposes of deploying expatriates and providing each expatriate with human resource specialists to manage logistics.

The organization provided employee records for those who participated in the expatriation process from January, 2002 through the end of December, 2005. The archival data further provided information on length of overseas assignment, demographics, performance, and other variables. Employee survey data was matched to the archival data by an employee identification number. Completed surveys were returned by 132 (58%) sending supervisors and 206 (51%) subordinates.

Because sending supervisors and expatriate surveys were matched there were additional considerations when calculating the effective response (match) rate. Having sending supervisors complete a survey for more than one expatriate violates the assumption of independence which is the basis for statistical analysis (Antonio & Park, 2001). Violating this assumption is considered by some to be the most serious when compared to violating other assumptions (Glass, Peckham, & Sanders, 1972) and is likely to cause type I errors (Kennedy, 1998). In some cases, sending supervisors may have dozens of expatriates. It would be both difficult and impractical for sending supervisors to complete a survey on each one of their expatriates. Therefore, sending supervisors were only asked to complete a survey for one expatriate of their choosing. By having sending supervisors only complete one survey, the maximum number of matched pairs is reduced to 228. Only if expatriates complete a survey on sending supervisors and sending supervisors complete a survey on expatriates is a match counted. Of the potential 228 matches, responses were received from 44 matches which represents about a 20% effective match response rate.

Of the 44 expatriates, there were 4 senior consultants, 18 managers, 10 senior managers, 7 directors, and 5 partners. The average expatriate age was about 34 years old. The sample included 31 male and 9 non-Caucasian expatriates. All of the sending supervisors were at partner level. The average sending supervisor age was about 47 years old. Similar to expatriates, there were 29 male and 11 non-Caucasian sending supervisors. In the next section, the measures used are presented.

3.2 Measures

3.2.1 Control variables

The relationship between goal congruence and social exchange during the expatriate process is complex. To help reduce this complexity, individual characteristics need to be controlled. In the following sections, explanations of these four controls are spelled out in greater depth: tenure, expatriate/repatriate, professional certification and expatriate experience.

Tenure. In general, there is significant empirical research that suggests tenure affects rates of turnover (e.g., Mobley et al., 1978) and performance (Sturman, 2003; Wright & Bonett, 2002). Tenure has also been shown to play a role in expatriate adjustment and performance (e.g., Takeuchi, Marinovab, Lepak & Liu, 2005). Expatriate tenure is attained from archival data provided by the organization. It is coded as the number of years the employee has worked at the organization and is calculated by subtracting the employee's start date from the data collection date. Tenure ranged from 3 to 25 years, with an average of about 9 years.

Expatriate/Repatriate. While much of the expatriation literature divides up research on expatriates and repatriates, within this dissertation, the sending supervisor-expatriate relationship is measured throughout the expatriation process. Therefore, this dissertation controls for whether the expatriate ($n = 28$) is overseas or has recently returned ($n = 16$) home. To determine where the employee was in the expatriation process, employees were asked to indicate if they had returned home. Their responses were confirmed by the archival data provided by the organization. Once confirmed, a

dummy variable was created to reflect where the employee was in the expatriation process. Repatriates were defined as U.S. employees who have returned to the U.S. since 2002 (1) versus U.S. employees who are currently on an extended work assignment overseas (0).

Professional certification. Within this firm's industry, employees with professional certifications are highly regarded. Because of this, certifications may be related to expatriate performance and the relationship with their sending supervisors. Professional certification was measured using a dummy variable by asking survey respondents to indicate if they have a professional certification by checking yes (1) or no (0). Of the 44 expatriates, 5 did not have professional certifications.

Expatriate experience. Expatriate experience was measured by asking the total time spent working overseas with the single question: "What is the total time you have worked outside the U.S. while employed at the firm?" Expatriate experience incorporates assignment tenure and previous international experience both of which have been found to ultimately effect performance and therefore were included as a control (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Expatriate experience ranged from .08 to 10.25 years with a mean of 2.56 years.

3.2.2 Antecedents

Internationalization. Seven items were developed for this dissertation to capture internationalization, including: "Most of the clients I work with operate in multiple locations around the world," "Global competition is becoming an important issue in my practice," "There is very little global competition between professional services firms in

my specialty” (reverse), “My clients demand that the firm has the ability to do cross-border work,” “We often compete against bids from other global firms for new business,” “The clients I work with demand seamless service from the firm throughout the world,” “The majority of my clients are firms that work primarily in one country” (reverse). The Chronbach’s alpha in this study for internationalization was .87.

Sending supervisor’s international experience. International experience was measured as recommended by Takeuchi et al. (2005): the total time spent working outside of the supervisor’s native country. Sending supervisors were asked the single question “Over your entire career, what is the total time you have worked outside your native country?” International experience ranged from 0 to 26 years with a mean of 2.6 years.

Sending supervisor’s valuing of international experience. Gregersen (1992) and later, Gregersen and Black (1996) suggest that when the valuing of international experience occurs, the local work unit and the immediate supervisor value international experience. Stroh (1995) offers more direction by suggesting that valuing of international experience occurs when an organization intends on using international experience at the completion of the assignment. Based on both of these definitions this dissertation operationalizes sending supervisor’s valuing of international experience by focusing on what it is sending supervisors can utilize: expatriate knowledge, skills and networks. Four items were adapted from Gregersen and Black (1996) and Stroh (1995) to capture this variable including: “I value the skills obtained on overseas assignments by expatriates,” “I value the knowledge acquired by expatriates,” “I value the networks

developed by expatriates,” and “In general, I value international experience”. The primary difference between these items and the items previously utilized by other researchers is that sending supervisors were completing the survey items, not expatriates. Therefore, the wording of the items were written from sending supervisor's perspective. The Chronbach’s alpha in this study for sending supervisor’s valuing of international experience was .92. The factor structure for internationalization and valuing of international experience demonstrates two distinct constructs (Table 1).

Table 1. Factor analysis of International Factors

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Item</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
VIE	I value the skills obtained on overseas assignments by expatriates		0.68
VIE	I value the knowledge acquired by expatriates		0.83
VIE	I value the networks developed by expatriates		0.82
VIE	In general, I value international experience		0.73
Int.	Most of the clients I work with operate in multiple locations around the world	0.85	
Int.	Global competition is becoming an important issue in my practice	0.56	
Int.	There is very little global competition between professional services firms in my specialty	0.72	
Int.	My clients demand that the organization has the ability to do cross-border work	0.70	
Int.	We often compete against bids from other global firms for new business	0.58	0.36
Int.	The clients I work with demand seamless service from the organization throughout the world	0.85	
Int.	The majority of my clients are firms that work primarily in one country	0.55	
	PCA - Varimax <.30 Suppressed		

Quality of the repatriate plan. Repatriate plans were developed prior to the deployment of the expatriate. These documents were delivered electronically to the researchers. One way to measure the quality the repatriate plan is to look at the amount of effort placed into developing it. When significant effort is put into designing the repatriate plan, sending supervisors and expatriates should be more likely to obtain goal congruence. Logically, the more effort placed into the repatriate plan, the greater length

of the repatriate plan. To measure the length of the repatriate plan a word count was conducted in Microsoft Word. While using a word count is only a proxy for the quality of the repatriate plan, it is one of the few empirically objective methods for measuring the quality of the repatriate plan. Repatriate plans range from 0 to 263 words with an average of about 48 words.

3.2.3 Dependent variables

Goal Congruence. One of the most important goals identified was ensuring that the expatriation fits into employees' careers. This opinion was consistent with previous expatriate literature (e.g., Feldman, 1991; Feldman & Thomas, 1992). Four items were adapted from Feldman and Thomas (1992) long-term career plans scale including: "This overseas assignment fits logically in my career path at the firm" (reverse), "I'm not sure that accepting my overseas assignment is good for my career at the firm" "My overseas assignment should benefit me in my career at the firm", and "I know how this overseas assignment fits into my overall career at the firm". The sending supervisors were asked four questions adapted to match their perspective. The Cronbach's alpha for expatriates was .90 while the Cronbach's alpha for sending supervisors was .73.

Following the same methodology used in other goal congruence research by Vancouver and Schmitt (1991), Vancouver et al., (1994), Witt (1998), Witt et al., (2001), the D statistic outlined by Cronbach and Gleser (1953) was used to operationalize the level of congruence. The D statistic is defined as:

$$D = \sqrt{\sum (X_{qj} - X_{bj})^2}$$

where “a” represents expatriates perspective, “b” represents sending supervisors perspective and “j” the goal being compared (Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). The *D* statistic has been appropriately criticized because it considers only the magnitude but not the direction of the difference (Edwards, 1993, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993; Witt, 1998). Because the preceding hypotheses suggest that incongruence is just as important when sending supervisors see the goal as more important than expatriates as when sending supervisors see the goal as less important than expatriates, the *D* statistic can be appropriately used (Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991; Vancouver et al., 1994; Witt, 1998; Witt et al., 2001). Furthermore, Witt (1998) suggests that the *D* statistic is appropriate when examining a theory-based hypothesis as opposed to a general response surface model (Witt et al., 2001).

Leader-member exchange. Many LMX scales have been developed and used in the last few decades of exploring supervisor-subordinate relationships. However, Graen and Uhl-bein’s (1995) seven-item scale is the most heavily used and validated. Four LMX items were selected from this scale and were given to expatriates to complete: “How well does your home supervisor understand your job problems and needs?,” “How would you characterize your working relationship with your supervisor?,” “Do you usually know how satisfied your home supervisor is with your work?,” and “What are the chances that your home supervisor would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?” The Chronbach’s alpha in this study for LMX was .93.

Perceived supervisor support. The PSS scale developed by Eisenberger et al. (2002) was used in this study. Items included: “My home supervisor strongly considers

my goals and values,” “My home supervisor really cares about my well-being,” and “My home supervisor cares about my opinions”. The Chronbach’s alpha in this study for PSS was .89.

Turnover intentions. Three items were used in measuring turnover intentions: “I plan to look outside my firm for a new job within the next year,” “I often think about quitting my present job,” and “It is likely that I will quit my job in the next 12 months”. These items have been used in previous turnover research (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Pattie, Benson & Baruch, 2006). The Chronbach’s alpha in this dissertation for turnover intentions was .91.

The factor structure for LMX, PSS and turnover intentions are presented in Table 2. While turnover intention is a separate construct, LMX and PSS are not distinct. Because LMX and PSS are mathematically the same and have a combined Chronbach’s alpha of .91, they will be merged into one construct measuring social exchange.

Table 2. Factor Analysis of LMX, PSS and Turnover Intentions

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Item</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
LMX	How well does your home partner understand your job problems and needs	.87	
LMX	How would you characterize your working relationship with your home partner	.91	
LMX	Do you usually know how satisfied your home partner is with your work	.87	
LMX	What are the chances that your home partner would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work	.84	
PSS	My home supervisor strongly considers my goals and values	.73	
PSS	My home supervisor really cares about my well-being	.91	
PSS	My home supervisor cares about my opinions	.84	
TI	I plan to look outside my firm for a new job within the next year		.88
TI	I often think about quitting my present job		.85
TI	It is likely that I will quit my job in the next 12 months		.89

Expatriate performance. Performance ratings while the employees were overseas were provided by the organization. Sending supervisors along with other organizational members evaluate performance on each of the expatriates at the end of the year and at the completion of a project. Expatriate performance ranged from 1 (needs improvement) to 3.33 (exceeds expectations). The average performance rating was 1.67.

3.3 Analysis

Six hypotheses are tested using multiple combinations of data and variables which are summarized in Table 3

Table 3. Analysis

Hypoth	Method	Predictor	Predictor Data Source	Criterion	Criterion Data Source	Proposed Relationship
1a	OLS	Internationalization	Supervisor Self-report	Goal Congruence	Super & Expat Self-report	Positive
1b	OLS	Int. experience	Supervisor Self-report	Goal Congruence	Super & Expat Self-report	Positive
1c	OLS	Valuing int. experience	Supervisor Self-report	Goal Congruence	Super & Expat Self-report	Positive
2	OLS	Quality of repatriate plan	Supervisor & Expatriate archival	Goal Congruence	Super & Expat Self-report	Positive
3a,b	OLS	Goal Congruence	Supervisor & Expatriate Self-report	Expatriate performance	Archival	Social Exchange as a mediator
3c,d	OLS	Goal Congruence	Supervisor & Expatriate Self-report	Turnover intentions	Expat Self-report	Social Exchange as a mediator

All hypotheses were tested using hierarchical OLS regression (see Table 3) controlling for the following: expatriate tenure, where the employee was in the expatriation process (expatriate/repatriate), professional certification and expatriate

experience. Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c and 2 were tested with the same methodology. In each test, a two-step model was estimated. In step 1, the dependent variable was regressed on the control variables. In step 2, the independent variable was added to the model. For example, Hypothesis 1a was tested by regressing internationalization of the practice on the control variables in step 1 and adding goal congruence to the model in step 2.

Hypotheses 3a through 3d were tested using Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation methodology. Hypothesis 3a and 3b were tested by regressing goal congruence on social exchange in step 1. Expatriate performance was then regressed on goal congruence in step 2. In step 3, social exchange and goal congruence were used together to predict expatriate performance. Hypothesis 3c and 3d were tested in the same manner. Goal congruence was regressed on social exchange in step 1, turnover intentions on goal congruence in step 2, and social exchange and goal congruence were added to predict turnover intentions together in step 3.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Preliminary Analysis

Correlations, means and standard deviations for all measures are presented in Table 4. The correlations provide some initial support for the hypotheses. Correlation analysis shows that when there are high levels of goal congruence there are higher levels of LMX ($r = .38$) and PSS ($r = .42$). That is, when sending supervisors and expatriates are congruent on the goal of fitting the international assignment into expatriate's careers, they are more likely to have a high quality social exchange relationship. Interestingly, the quality repatriate plan is correlated in the opposite direction than predicted ($r = -.44$). This result suggests that the greater the word count in the repatriate plan, the less likely there is goal congruence between sending supervisors and expatriates. None of the international orientation items, international experience ($r = -.22$), internationalization ($r = -.18$), or value international experience ($r = -.01$), are significantly correlated with goal congruence.

Table 4. Correlation Table

	Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Congruence	0.81	0.81	0.90													
2	Int. Experience	2.43	5.51	-0.22	-												
3	Internationalization	4.52	0.58	-0.18	0.19	0.87											
4	Value Int. Exp.	4.45	0.45	-0.01	0.33	0.32	0.92										
5	Repatriate Plan	48.5	49.8	-0.44	-0.02	0.22	-0.02	-									
6	LMX	3.71	1.18	0.38	-0.22	0.10	0.21	-0.18	0.89								
7	PSS	4.09	0.95	0.42	-0.24	-0.01	0.25	-0.28	0.90	0.91							
8	Turnover Intentions	2.48	1.10	-0.41	0.10	-0.04	0.09	0.21	-0.25	-0.28	-						
9	Expatriate Performance	1.67	0.70	0.28	-0.16	-0.22	-0.21	0.23	-0.26	-0.18	0.18	-					
10	Expatriate/Repatriate	15.2	7.82	-0.05	-0.14	0.22	0.18	0.04	0.14	0.11	0.21	0.16	-				
11	Tenure	0.36	0.49	0.07	-0.09	0.17	-0.16	0.05	0.00	0.02	-0.13	-0.10	0.36	-			
12	Professional Cert.	0.89	0.32	-0.05	0.10	0.14	-0.16	0.20	-0.08	-0.12	0.07	-0.28	-0.03	-0.13	-		
13	Expatriate Experience	2.56	2.05	0.23	-0.15	0.05	-0.09	0.05	-0.18	-0.10	-0.22	0.11	0.11	0.48	-0.30	-	
14	Social Exchange	3.86	1.06	0.41	-0.23	0.05	0.22	-0.28	0.99	0.96	-0.25	0.35	0.15	0.01	-0.08	-0.15	0.91

Note: Chronbach's alpha is on the diagonal if the variable is a scale

p < .05

p < .10

4.2 Hypothesis Testing

4.2.1 Hypothesis 1a

Hypothesis 1a proposes that internationalization of the business unit would be positively related to goal congruence was not supported (Table 5). Although, internationalization does predict 4% of the variance, following the control variables entered in step 1, internationalization was entered in step 2 and did not significantly predict goal congruence. In addition to the lack of significance, the results were the opposite direction than predicted. While internationalization has been found to change sending supervisor's strategic perspectives and expatriates desire to acquire international experience for promotion purposes (Daily et al., 1996; Kobrin, 1994), the degree to which a business unit has significant international clientele and cross-border engagements did not significantly impact goal congruence on fitting the international assignment into expatriates' careers.

Table 5. Hypothesis 1a

Variable	DV: Congruence				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2 change	R^2
Step 1					
Expatriate/Repatriate	.02	.28	.02		
Tenure (Years)	-.00	.04	-.02		
Certification	.15	.40	.07		
Expatriate Length	.12	.08	.32		.090
Step 2					
Internationalization	-.29	.22	-.22	.04	.133

⁺ $p < .10$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

4.2.2 Hypothesis 1b

Regression results testing Hypothesis 1b are presented in Table 6. Hypothesis 1b predicts sending supervisor's international experience will be positively related to goal congruence. The results do not support this hypothesis. Although, internationalization does predict 4% of the variance, following the control variables entered in step 1, supervisor's international experience was entered in step 2 and did not significantly predict goal congruence. Furthermore, the results were in the opposite direction than hypothesized. Based on the work of Takeuchi et al., (2005), sending supervisor's international experience was conceptualized as the total time spent overseas. Because of the null result, two post hoc analyses were completed using slightly different international experience variables: (1) the total time spent overseas and (2) the total time spent overseas while on expatriation with the firm. Neither of these analyses significantly predicted goal congruence.

Table 6. Hypothesis 1b

Variable	DV: Congruence				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ² change	<i>R</i> ²
Step 1					
Expatriate/Repatriate	-.12	.28	-.07		
Tenure (Years)	-.01	.04	-.03		
Certification	.08	.42	.03		
Expatriate Length	.11	.08	.27		.061
Step 2					
International Experience	-.03	.02	-.20	.04	.099

⁺ *p* < .10

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

*** *p* < .001

4.2.3 Hypothesis 1c

Similar to hypotheses 1a and 1b, hypothesis 1c, which proposes that the supervisor's valuing of international experience will be positively related to goal congruence, was also not statistically significant. After the controls were added to the model in step 1, supervisor's valuing of international experience was added in step 2. The addition of supervisor's valuing of international experience explained no additional variance. While previous research has found that sending supervisors who value international experience is related to expatriates organizational commitment, role clarity, role conflict and turnover (Gregersen, 1992; Gregersen and Black, 1996; Stroh, 1995), the results from this dissertation suggest that the sending supervisors' valuing of skills, knowledge and networks acquired by their expatriates does not impact goal congruence. The results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Hypothesis 1c

Variable	DV: Congruence				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ² change	<i>R</i> ²
Step 1					
Expatriate/Repatriate	-.12	.28	-.07		
Tenure (Years)	-.01	.04	-.03		
Certification	.08	.42	.03		
Expatriate Length	.11	.08	.27		.061
Step 2					
Value International Exp.	.04	.31	.02	.00	.061

⁺ *p* < .10

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

*** *p* < .001

4.2.4 Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicts that the quality of the repatriation plan will be positively related to goal congruence. Following the control variables entered in step 1, the quality of the repatriate plan was entered in step 2. Interestingly, while the quality of the repatriate plan significantly predicted goal congruence ($\beta = -.48, p < .01$) and with the controls explained about 22% of the variance, the beta was in the opposite direction than predicted (Table 8). Therefore, the results suggest that the more words written in the repatriate plan, the less likely there is to be goal congruence. Because of the counterintuitive result, one post hoc analysis was completed using a different conceptualization of the quality of the repatriate plan. The additional variable was coded to reflect whether the repatriate plan stated the level, responsibilities, office, and returned date of expatriates. This new variable also failed to reach significance in predicting goal congruence.

Table 8. Hypothesis 2

Variable	DV: Congruence				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>R</i> ² change	<i>R</i> ²
Step 1					
Expatriate/Repatriate	-.16	.30	-.09		
Tenure (Years)	-.02	.04	-.07		
Certification	.05	.43	.02		
Expatriate Length	.11 ⁺	.08	.26 ⁺		.061
Step 2					
Quality of Repatriate Plan	-.01**	.00	-.48**	.22**	.276*

⁺ $p < .10$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

4.2.5 Hypothesis 3a,b

Regression results testing Hypothesis 3a and 3b are presented in Tables 9-11 and Figure 2. The results in Table 9 support that there is a direct relationship between congruence and social exchange was significant. When sending supervisors and expatriates have goal congruence on fitting the international assignment into expatriate's careers, expatriates have higher levels of social exchange than when there is a lack of goal congruence. Following the control variables entered in step 1, goal congruence was entered in step 2 and significantly predicted social exchange (R^2 change = .24, $p < .001$). The linear combination of the controls and goal congruence explained about 35% of the variance in social exchange. The large percent of variance suggest that goal congruence is a particularly strong predictor of social exchange.

Table 9. Direct relationship between congruence and social exchange

Variable	DV: Social Exchange				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2 change	R^2
Step 1					
Expatriate/Repatriate	-.43	.32	-.20		
Tenure (Years)	-.02	.04	-.10		
Certification	.68	.52	.19		
Expatriate Length	.23*	.09	.45*		.104
Step 2					
Congruence	.65***	.18	.51***	.24***	.345**

⁺ $p < .10$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

The results in Table 10 support that there is a direct relationship between social exchange and performance (R^2 change = .09, $p < .05$). Two control variables significantly predicted performance. As expected, the greater the expatriates tenure the higher their performance. Interestingly, repatriates performance overseas was significantly less than expatriate performance overseas. This may be an artifact of the small sample size or may be interpreted as the result of high-performing repatriates leaving the organization at faster rates than low-performing repatriates.

Table 10. Direct relationship between social exchange and performance

Variable	DV: Expatriate Performance				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2 change	R^2
Step 1					
Expatriate/Repatriate	-.62*	.24	-.44*		
Tenure (Years)	.11*	.04	.54*		
Certification	.52 ⁺	.36	.27 ⁺		
Expatriate Length	-.11	.07	-.26		.217
Step 2					
Social Exchange	.20*	.10	.31*	.09*	.306*

⁺ $p < .10$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

The results in Table 11 support Hypothesis 3a and 3b. The relationship between goal congruence and expatriate performance becomes non-significant in the mediation model. Therefore, social exchange fully mediates the goal congruence and expatriate performance relationship.

Table 11. Hypothesis 3a, 3b

Predictor	Dependant Variable	R ²	Regression Weight
<i>Analysis 1</i>			
Congruence	Social Exchange	.345**	.51***
<i>Analysis 2</i>			
Congruence	Expatriate Performance	.336**	.33*
<i>Analysis 3</i>			
Congruence	Expatriate Performance	.346*	.23
Social Exchange			.20

⁺ p < .10
 * p < .05
 ** p < .01

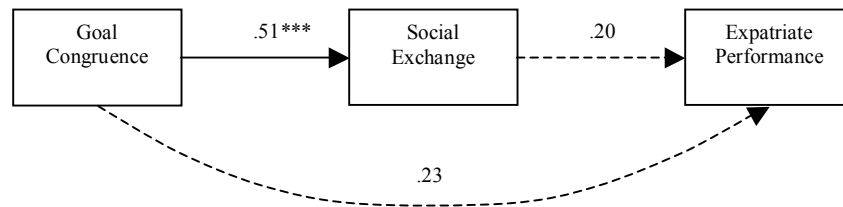


Figure 2. Mediation of performance

4.2.6 Hypothesis 3c,d

Regression results testing Hypothesis 3c and 3d are presented in Tables 12-13 and Figure 3. While, social exchange did significantly predict expatriate turnover intentions (R^2 change = .12, $p < .05$), the overall model was approaching significance ($p < .06$). The linear combination of the controls and social exchange explained about 25% of the variance in turnover intentions. Additionally, because recent research has

found that there is a curvilinear relationship between social exchange and turnover intentions, social exchange squared term was entered in a third step. The social exchange squared term approaching significance (R^2 change = .08, $p < .054$), the overall regression was significant. The linear combination of the controls and social exchange explained about 32% of the variance in turnover intentions. It appears that the small sample size hindered the results. While the statistical results were only approaching significance, Figure 3 demonstrates that there is a quadratic relationship between turnover intentions and social exchange. Therefore, these results provide further support for the recent research which predicts that moderate levels of social exchange are negatively related to turnover while low and high levels of social exchange are positively related to turnover (e.g., Harris et al., 2005; Morrow et al., 2005).

Table 12. Direct relationship between social exchange and turnover intentions

Variable	DV: Turnover Intentions				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2 change	R^2
Step 1					
Expatriate/Repatriate	.59 ⁺	.32	.29 ⁺		
Tenure (Years)	- .02	.04	- .09		
Certification	- .61	.52	- .18		
Expatriate Length	- .13	.09	- .26		.126
Step 2					
Social Exchange	-1.97*	.82	-2.04*	.12*	.246 ⁺
Step 3					
Social Exchange ²	.24 ⁺	.12	1.71 ⁺	.08 ⁺	.323*

⁺ $p < .10$

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

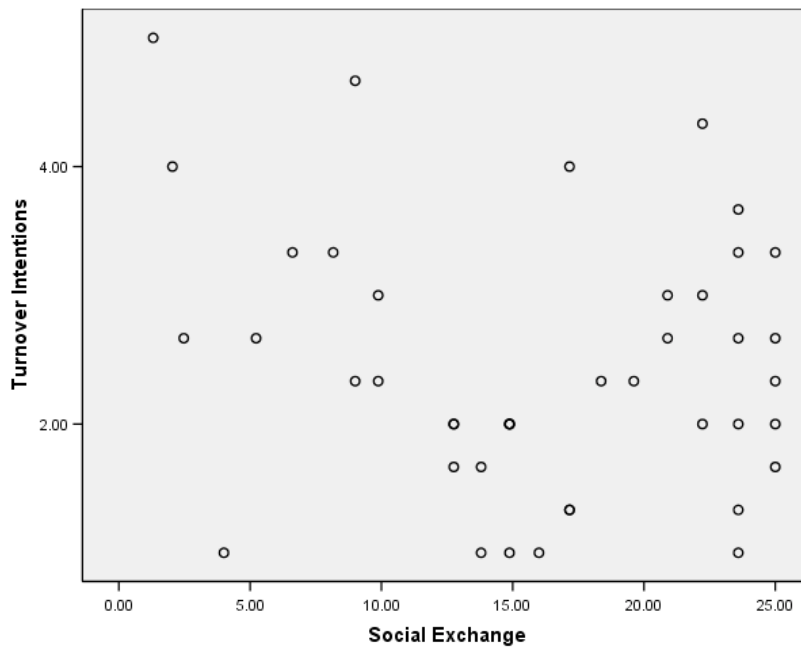


Figure 3. LMX's curvilinear relationship with turnover intentions

When social exchange and goal congruence were put in the model together, goal congruence was still approaching significance, suggesting that there may be a direct relationship between goal congruence and turnover intentions (Table 13, Figure 3). While Hypothesis 3c and 3d were not supported, it appears that when sending supervisors and expatriates are congruent on the goal of fitting international assignments into expatriates' careers, expatriates may have lower turnover intentions. Like the other regressions in this dissertation, sample size appears to be weakening the results in hypothesis 3c and 3d. A summary of the results as presented in Table 14.

Table 13. Hypothesis 3c, 3d

Predictor	Dependant Variable	R ²	Regression Weight
<i>Analysis 1</i>			
Congruence	Social Exchange	.345**	.51***
<i>Analysis 2</i>			
Congruence	Turnover Intentions	.236 ⁺	.36*
<i>Analysis 3</i>			
Congruence	Turnover Intentions	.360**	-.33 ⁺
Social Exchange			-.24

⁺ p < .10

* p < .05

** p < .01

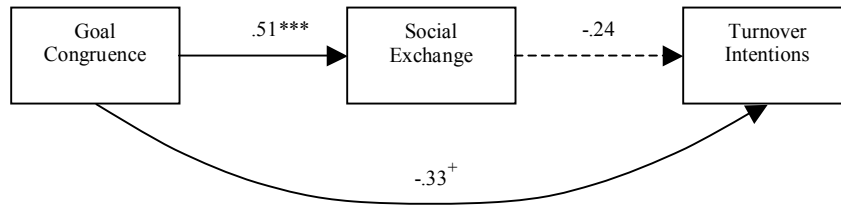


Figure 4. Mediation of turnover intentions

Table 14. Summary of results

	Predictor	Criterion	Proposed Relationship	Findings
H1a	Internationalization	Goal Congruence	Positive	Not supported
H1b	International experience	Goal Congruence	Positive	Not supported
H1c	Valuing int. experience	Goal Congruence	Positive	Not supported
H2	Quality of the repatriate plan	Goal Congruence	Positive	Not supported
H3a,b	Goal Congruence	Expatriate performance	Social exchange as a mediator	Supported
H3c,d	Goal Congruence	Turnover intentions	Social exchange as a mediator	Not supported

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The previous chapter provides new insight into the impact of goal congruence between sending supervisors and expatriates on performance and turnover intentions. This chapter is divided into eight sections. The first and second sections investigate the impact of the three international factors and the quality of the repatriate plan as antecedents to goal congruence. The next two sections address and integrate the findings regarding the relationship between goal congruence, social exchange relationships, performance and turnover. The following section explores conceptualizations of social exchange. Finally, in the last four sections, recommendations for future research, limitations, managerial implications and conclusions are presented.

5.1 Impact of international factors on goal congruence

Neither internationalization of business units nor supervisors' international experience were significantly related to goal congruence. International experience has been found to pervasively change senior-level manager's perspectives and performance. For example, those with international experience ascend to higher levels in organizations (Judge, Cable, Boudreau & Bretz, 1995), pursue more international

strategies (Carpenter, Sanders & Gregersen, 2001; Daily et al., 2000; Sambharya, 1996), perform better in internationally-focused organizations (Roth, 1995) and view business decisions with a 'global mindset' (Korbin, 1994; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002). While neither of these two factors were significant, both explained 4% of the variance and had betas that were in the opposite direction than predicted. This suggests that lower levels of internationalization and supervisors' international experience may be related to higher levels of goal congruence. One reason why this occurs is that when these two factors are low there is strong congruence that the international assignment does not fit into expatriate careers.

Similarly, whether supervisors value international experience also does not predict goal congruence. Previous research found that when expatriates perceived that organizations valued their international experience, expatriates had more organizational commitment, more role clarity, less role conflict, less turnover (Gregersen, 1992; Gregersen and Black, 1996; Stroh, 1995) and that organizations had stronger intentions of using an expatriate's international experience at the completion of the assignment (Stroh, 1995). However, it appears there is no relationship between supervisors valuing international experience and goal congruence. Future research should investigate why relationships between internationalization and supervisors' international experience were the opposite of what was predicted. It seems counterintuitive that these variables are negatively related to goal congruence. This result may have occurred because valuing international experience may have little to do with expatriate careers. Another explanation may be that sending supervisors in business units with high levels of

internationalization and international experience treat the international assignment more transactional and only desire to fill an empty overseas position (Yan et al., 2002).

While these international factors did not predict goal congruence in this dissertation, they may be helpful in explaining other outcomes during the expatriate process. Because the sending supervisor is vital in the predeparture selection, training and repatriation, these international factors may be more important during those times. For example, sending supervisors with more international orientation may be more likely to provide higher quality predeparture training. Sending supervisors with significant international experience can explain the difficulties of expatriation from their own experiences. While this may not be related to goal congruence, it should help expatriates set reasonable expectations which should increase the likelihood of success for the international assignment (Caligiuri & Phillips, 2003). Furthermore, sending supervisors may recognize the frustration that is generally associated with the completion of the repatriation process (Bossard & Peterson, 2005). To help alleviate this frustration, sending supervisors with greater levels of these factors may design the repatriation process to better utilize expatriates' skills (Bolino & Feldman, 2000).

5.2 Impact of repatriate plan on goal congruence

While it is predicted that the quality of the repatriate plan will be positively related to goal congruence, the quality of the repatriate plan was negatively related to goal congruence. Because of the way the quality of the repatriate plan was operationalized by word count, the greater the length, the less likely there is goal

congruence. There are several reasons why the quality of the repatriate plan may have been related to goal congruence in a different direction than predicted. First, the measure of the repatriate plan, word count, could be a poor proxy for quality. Second, the repatriate plan may unwittingly increase expectations to an unrealistic level. The added verbiage may include commitments that sending supervisors cannot keep. Sending supervisors may only agree to sign the repatriate plan to ensure that subordinates agree to go overseas (e.g., Yan et al., 2002). This may introduce significant differences for the goal of fitting the international assignment into expatriates' careers and thus, decrease the likelihood of goal congruence. Third, another reason for the counterintuitive findings could be because of expatriate's nervousness prior to the assignment. In this situation, expatriates are aware of the potential drawbacks associated with participating in international assignments. Expatriates may key in on signals that sending supervisors do not appreciate the sacrifices they are going to make. In an attempt to thwart any negative impact on their career, expatriates create lengthy repatriate plans. By doing so, they feel a certain level of security about fitting the international assignment into their career which may or may not be congruent with their sending supervisors' perspectives.

While the hypothesis is not supported as expected, the results provide a good first step in attempting to identify the underpinnings of what makes a quality repatriate plan. Previous research suggests that repatriate plans are rarely given (Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2000; Peak, 1997; Peterson et al. 2000; Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Tung, 1998). Yet, little research today investigates what are the

properties of a quality repatriate plan and how a repatriate plan impacts the expatriation process. Future research should investigate the impact of repatriate plans in more detail. One important research question that needs to be addressed is whether repatriate plans are concrete psychological contracts or are relatively insignificant administrative processes which sending supervisors and expatriates must complete. Repatriate plans provide the opportunity to directly test psychological contracts. Research has shown that employees form psychological contracts from verbal promises and other cues (Guzzo et al., 1994; Robinson, 1996). Repatriate plans may be one of the few examples of an expressively written psychological contract for a specific job assignment with long-term full-time employees.

5.3 Goal congruence and social exchange relationships

As expected, goal congruence is related to higher quality social exchange relationships between sending supervisors and expatriates. This is a major theoretical contribution of this dissertation. Goal congruence theory suggests that the structuring of goals determines how individuals interact (Deutsch, 1949; 1973). While goal congruence theory suggests a resulting social exchange relationship, it has not utilized social exchange theory. Furthermore, while social exchange theory is a rich and well supported theory, goal congruence has not been used as an antecedent. Therefore, by linking these two theories together, our understanding of supervisor-subordinate relationships is expanded. Future research should continue to investigate this relationship outside of the expatriate context to establish generalizability.

While support was found for the impact of goal congruence on social exchange relationships, only one goal was tested: to fit the international assignment into expatriates' careers. Fitting the expatriates' experiences into careers is arguably the most important goal of expatriation (Feldman & Thomas, 1992). However, future research should investigate the effect of goal congruence utilizing other important goals. Two other goals that are cited as important reasons for deploying expatriates are knowledge transfer and international networking. Some researchers contend that knowledge transfer is the intent of all expatriate assignments and that only the knowledge varies from one assignment to another (Hocking et al., 2004). For example, in Bossard and Peterson's (2005) qualitative study, the most frequently cited purpose for expatriation is to transfer knowledge between headquarters and subsidiaries. Similarly, establishing expatriate networks are found to increase the success of joint ventures (Jiang, 2006), provide critical information (Millington, Eberhardt & Wilkinson, 2006) and help facilitate expatriate adjustment (Fish, 2005; Guilherme, Stanton & Ostefeld, 2006; Wang & Nayir, 2006).

In addition to investigating the impact of congruence on the goals of transferring knowledge and international networks, future research should also investigate whether goal congruence and social exchange are cyclical. Because of the limited cross-sectional research design and the short-term (2-3 years) nature, it is difficult to determine whether there is a dynamic relationship. While both previous literature (e.g., Chen & Tjosvold, 2005) and the findings in this dissertation suggest that goal congruence leads to social exchange, it is possible that quality social exchange

relationships established before the international assignment influenced goal congruence. Interestingly, expatriates may be selected for international assignments as a reciprocal favor from their supervisors.

5.4 Social exchange relationships, performance and turnover intentions

Replicating previous research, sending supervisors' and expatriates' social exchange relationship is related to performance and turnover. While the social exchange to performance relationship is well-established in many areas of management research (e.g., Dunegan, Duchon & Uhi-Bien 1992; Dunegan, Uhi-Bien & Duchon, 2002; Kacmar et al., 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne et al., 2002), it is only beginning to be explored in the context of expatriation (Kraimer et al., 2001; Kraimer & Wayne, 2003). Like LMX, PSS has also been found to be related to performance but it is less established (Gagnon & Michael, 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). In this dissertation, LMX and PSS were used together as a single social exchange scale which significantly predicted expatriate performance.

Similar to performance, many studies have investigated the effect of social exchange on turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Harris et al., 2005; Major et al., 1995; Vecchio & Norris, 1996). Previous research suggests that either LMX has a direct negative relationship (e.g., Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Graen & Uhl-Bien 95) or a curvilinear relationship with turnover intentions (Harris et al., 2005; Morrow et al., 2005). Unlike LMX, very few studies test the PSS to turnover intentions relationship. Previous research finds that PSS is related to turnover through other variables such as

affective commitment and is related to predictors of turnover such as job satisfaction (Gagnon & Michael, 2004; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). In a single scale, this dissertation investigates social exchange relationships on turnover intentions and finds that only the curvilinear relationship significantly predicts turnover intentions. The curvilinear relationship between social exchange and turnover intentions supports the most recent trend in LMX research (Harris et al., 2005; Morrow et al., 2005). The findings suggest that moderate levels of social exchange are negatively related to turnover intentions while low and high levels of social exchange are positively related to turnover intentions (Harris et al., 2005; Morrow et al., 2005).

Together these results suggest that social exchange relationships are useful for predicting performance and turnover intentions of expatriates. The results contribute to our understanding of how social exchange relationships work in the expatriate context. Only a handful of articles have investigated the impact of social exchange on performance (Kraimer et al., 2001; Kraimer & Wayne, 2003) while, none have investigated the relationship between social exchange and turnover intentions within expatriation.

Future research should continue to investigate the mediating effects of social exchange relationships. While it is hypothesized that social exchange relationships between sending supervisors and expatriates mediate the relationship between goal congruence and the two outcomes: performance and turnover intentions, the results are mixed. Social exchange significantly mediated the relationship between goal congruence and performance but not goal congruence and turnover intentions. Again, it

appears that the small sample size hamstrung the analysis. For example, even though goal congruence and social exchange predict performance individually, neither of them significantly predicts performance together. Additionally, future research should also further investigate the direct relationship between goal congruence and turnover intentions.

5.5 Conceptualizations of social exchange relationships

While both LMX and PSS are derived from social exchange theory, until this dissertation, they had yet to be tested together. Because both conceptualizations stem from social exchange theory, the basic principle behind each one is reciprocity. However, they differ in the type of reciprocal relationship. PSS considers the degree to which supervisors value subordinates' contributions and well-being (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Hutchison, 1997; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988); whereas, LMX considers the quality of the relationships between subordinates and supervisors (Graen, 1976). However, there seems to be some overlap between these conceptualizations. For example, in a quality relationship between subordinates and supervisors, supervisors should also value subordinates' contributions and well-being. Mathematically the two conceptualizations are the same which is why they were used as a single scale in this dissertation. In a factor analysis, all of the LMX and PSS items load onto one factor. In addition, the Chronbach's alpha for LMX and PSS together is .91 with no items that would increase the alpha if removed from the scale.

Future research should continue to investigate the similarities and differences between LMX and PSS. One weakness in interpreting LMX and PSS in this dissertation is that only four items are used for LMX and three items for PSS. There are numerous validated LMX scales created over the past two decades (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). For example, a multidimensional LMX scale was created recently which suggests that there are four facets to LMX: affect (liking one another), loyalty (loyalty to each other), contribution (task related behaviors) and professional respect (reputation of excellence) (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Perhaps willingness to provide both emotional and material support (PSS) to one another could be added to these four dimensions to create a more robust conceptualization of social exchange relationships. While social exchange theory was initially broken down into smaller, more concise theories, putting the PSS and LMX conceptualizations back together may cause our understanding of social exchange to become more robust.

5.6 Additional recommendations for future research

In this dissertation, goal congruence is only measured between sending supervisors and expatriates. However, expatriates not only have sending supervisors, but may also have receiving supervisors (Gregersen & Black, 1991). Receiving supervisors may play different but important roles in international assignments. Specifically, receiving supervisors should influence the success of international assignments by helping expatriates adjust during deployment. Expatriate adjustment is extensively researched and is central to most models of expatriate success (Black et al.,

1991; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005). In a recent meta-analysis, individual (e.g., self-efficacy), job (e.g., role clarity), nonwork (e.g., cultural novelty) and organizational factors (e.g., logistical support) were all found to predict expatriate adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005).

Adjustment occurs when demands and uncertainties in the international environment are successfully coped with by the expatriates (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). There is a high degree of ambiguity and uncertainty that expatriates face with learning a new job in a new geographic location (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Mezas & Scandura, 2006). To successfully adjust, there are many areas of knowledge and skills that expatriates must learn (Bossard & Peterson, 2005; Downes & Thomas, 1999). However, goal congruence influencing adjustment through social exchange relationships has not been tested. When there is goal congruence, receiving supervisors should be more likely to enter into a quality social exchange relationship with their expatriates. When this occurs, receiving supervisors provide favors to expatriates in the forms of discretionary support and frequent communication (Chen et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2004; Tjosvold, 1989; 1991). With the additional communication and support from receiving supervisors, expatriates should be able to adjust more easily than those in poor quality social exchange relationships.

5.7 Limitations

While this dissertation provides some interesting insights about the relationship between sending supervisors and expatriates, there are limitations that should be

considered when interpreting the results. The biggest problem is the small sample size. Three problems can occur from conducting multivariate analysis with small samples. First, there may be too little statistical power to identify significant results (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). This problem is evident in some of the regressions. Specifically, it appears that internationalization, supervisors' international experience and the mediation analysis are all affected by weak statistical power. However, the fact that statistically significant relationships are found demonstrates the particular strength of some relationships in this dissertation. Second, "overfitting" of the data can weaken generalizability (Hair et al., 1998). However, this does not appear to be a problem because relationships found in other research are replicated in this dissertation, suggesting that the results are generalizable. Specifically, social exchange has a positive relationship with performance and a curvilinear relationship with turnover intentions. Third, another problem stemming from a small sample size is the inability to control for other factors that may influence the predicted outcomes such as the gender, age and ethnicity of sending supervisors and expatriates because of the reduction in degrees of freedom. Although it is difficult to obtain sending supervisor/expatriate dyads, future research should attempt to use larger samples, more controls and more sophisticated statistical techniques such as structural equation modeling.

Another limitation in this dissertation is that it is conducted in a single multinational organization with professional employees. While this provides control of occupational, organizational and industry effects and allows for collecting of archival data such as performance, it also decreases the generalizability of the findings. Both the

organization and its employees may not be a representative sample for testing the hypothesized relationships. First, organizations may vary in their effectiveness, experience and support practices in expatriate programs (Brewster & Pickard, 1994; Caligiuri et al., 1999; Stroh, 1995). While originating from and currently headquartered in the U.S., approximately 80% of the participating organization's workforce is foreign born and is located in countries throughout the world. Because of this, the participating organization has a significant international focus and a long history of deploying expatriates. It also has a built-in infrastructure, including a department with the sole function to manage employees in the expatriate process. Second, the participating organization's workforce potentially limits generalizability to other types of employees. While expatriates in general are usually managers and above (Black et al., 1999a,b; Brewster & Suutari, 2005; Gregersen et al., 1998), the expatriates surveyed in this dissertation are all highly-paid professional employees with at least an undergraduate college education and thus, may not be representative. Although the organization and its employees may weaken the generalizability, it does not negate or change the interpretation of the findings. However, future research should investigate the impact of sending supervisor and expatriate goal congruence in a sample with multiple firms and more diverse employees.

In addition to limitations due to generalizability of the sample, the results are limited from the typical problems associated with a one-time cross-sectional research design. Employing a longitudinal study to provide further understanding of how perceptions and intentions change over time will provide better understanding of

success and failure in international assignments and will provide stronger support for the direction of causation in the model. Again, future research should investigate whether goal congruence and social exchange are cyclical.

This research may be limited by the variables that are utilized. Other important variables should be included in future research. For example, it is likely that individual characteristics such as the big five personality traits among many others may act as moderators to turnover intentions and performance (e.g., Caligiuri, 2000). In addition, this study does not measure turnover directly, but instead relies on turnover intentions. While actual turnover is preferable, turnover intentions is commonly used as a surrogate variable and is firmly established as the strongest predicting antecedent of actual turnover (e.g., Hom & Griffeth 1991; Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia & Griffeth, 1992; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Hom & Kinicki, 2001; Lee & Mowaday, 1987; Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Future research should measure actual turnover.

5.8 Managerial implications

Having employees participate in an expatriate program is often a dilemma. While some organizations are continually sending more expatriates overseas (GMAC, 2005), the cost associated with deploying expatriates coupled with the cost of failure can make the use of expatriation prohibitive (Selmer, 2001). This dissertation demonstrates two critical lessons for practitioners who manage expatriate programs. First, although separated by long distances, sending supervisors have an important role in the success or failure of international assignments. When goal congruence exists

between sending supervisors and expatriates, some of the costs of failure can be mitigated. Ultimately, goal congruence can increase expatriates' performance and decrease expatriates' turnover intentions. Because of this, organizations should consider policies and procedures to provide additional insurance that expatriates and sending supervisors continue to maintain and build their relationships during deployment.

Second, this dissertation demonstrates the importance of having clearly stated goals for the expatriation. In the repatriate plans coded for Hypothesis 2, it is evident that little more than a sentence or two, if anything, was spent addressing how the international assignment would fit into expatriate careers. As part of the pre-deployment process, requiring sending supervisors and expatriates' to create a comprehensive strategy on fitting the international assignment into the expatriates' career could greatly benefit organizations and improve the success of the expatriation process. Ideally, doing so can be part of the repatriate plan so that there is a nonbinding but written agreement that both parties can reference.

5.9 Conclusion

In the past few decades, the deployment of expatriates has become an increasingly important research topic due to the growth in the use of expatriates, the high cost associated with international assignments, and the noticeable rate of failures (Black, 1988; GMAC; 2005; Selmer, 2001; Tyler, 2006). The findings of this dissertation may assist in the understanding of the expatriate process and provide some

theoretical clarity regarding the importance of goal congruence on fitting the international assignment into expatriate careers on performance and turnover intentions. Furthermore, it helps elucidate the importance of the sending supervisor/expatriate relationship. Results from this dissertation demonstrate that congruence between the two parties over the integration of the overseas experience into a career path is significantly related to social exchange relationships. Therefore, sending supervisors are vital to the success of the expatriation process and can play an important role in staying in touch with the expatriates during their overseas assignments. These results also suggest that when there is goal congruence regarding the integrating of the international experience into a career path, expatriates ultimately have higher performance and lower turnover intentions. Additionally, social exchange relationships mediated goal congruence and performance but not goal congruence and turnover intentions. These findings replicate recent results suggesting that there is a curvilinear relationship between social exchange and turnover intentions (Harris et al., 2005; Morrow et al., 2005) and that social exchange has a positive relationship with performance (Kraimer et al., 2001; Kraimer & Wayne, 2003). In addition, goal congruence is found to have a direct positive relationship with turnover intentions.

The theoretical contribution of this dissertation is accomplished by combining two established theories: goal congruence and social exchange. Goal congruence theory suggests that the degree of goal congruence between sending supervisors and subordinates determines their resulting interaction (Chen & Tjosvold, 2005; Deutsch, 1949; 1973; Johnson & Johnson, 1989), while social exchange theory provides a rich

and comprehensive set of knowledge about the relationship between sending supervisors and expatriates (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Wayne et al., 2002). When linked together, these two theories provide greater insight on the supervisor-subordinate relationship.

APPENDIX A

INTERNAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL SCALES

Items for Goal Congruence (note: both sending supervisors and subordinates completed these questions):

Q1 I'm not sure that accepting my overseas assignment is good for my career at the firm

Q2 My overseas assignment should benefit me in my career at the firm

Q3 I know how this overseas assignment fits into my overall career at the firm

Q4 This overseas assignment fits logically in my career path at the firm

Subordinate alpha: .90

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	11.9070	9.086	.652	.427	.918
Q2	11.4419	10.157	.822	.720	.837
Q3	11.7209	9.682	.810	.711	.837
Q4	11.5349	10.445	.813	.694	.843

Supervisor alpha: .73

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	13.3864	2.289	.514	.320	.736
Q2	12.9318	3.879	.476	.354	.712
Q3	13.2727	2.808	.611	.386	.614
Q4	13.0455	3.393	.666	.480	.626

Items for Internationalization: alpha = .82

- Q1** Most of the clients I work with operate in multiple locations around the world
- Q2** Global competition is becoming an important issue in my practice
- Q3** There is very little global competition between professional services firms in my specialty
- Q4** My clients demand that the organization has the ability to do cross-border work
- Q5** We often compete against bids from other global firms for new business
- Q6** The clients I work with demand seamless service from the organization throughout the world
- Q7** The majority of my clients are firms that work primarily in one country

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	27.0488	11.648	.719	.621	.769
Q2	27.2439	13.239	.410	.225	.821
Q3	27.1463	12.628	.493	.276	.808
Q4	26.9512	13.598	.612	.524	.797
Q5	27.3171	10.822	.600	.550	.795
Q6	27.0244	14.024	.527	.313	.807
Q7	27.2195	11.076	.704	.643	.769

Item for Supervisor's international experience:

- 1 Over your entire career, what is the total time you have worked outside your native country?

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Int. Experience	44	.08	9.17	2.5701	1.95607

Items for Supervisor's valuing international experience: alpha = .80

- Q1** I value the skills obtained on overseas assignments by expatriates
- Q2** I value the knowledge acquired by expatriates
- Q3** I value the networks developed by expatriates
- Q4** In general, I value international experience

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	13.34	2.044	.558	.375	.771
Q2	13.43	1.646	.752	.571	.668
Q3	13.55	1.928	.585	.383	.759
Q4	13.14	2.121	.552	.317	.774

Descriptives for word count of repatriate plan:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Quality of Repatriate Plan – Word Count	41	0	263	48.49	49.819

Items for Leader-Member Exchange: alpha = .93

- Q1** How well does your home partner understand your job problems and needs
- Q2** How would you characterize your working relationship with your home partner
- Q3** Do you usually know how satisfied your home partner is with your work
- Q4** What are the chances that your home partner would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	11.31	11.780	.861	.802	.894
Q2	10.83	13.313	.903	.829	.883
Q3	11.67	11.593	.857	.737	.897
Q4	10.76	15.113	.739	.589	.934

Items for PSS: alpha = .89

- Q1** My home supervisor strongly considers my goals and values
- Q2** My home supervisor really cares about my well-being

Q3 My home supervisor cares about my opinions

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	8.36	3.539	.719	.544	.913
Q2	8.16	3.439	.871	.802	.757
Q3	8.02	4.441	.800	.742	.847

Expatriate Performance = Average performance provided by archival data

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expat Performance	40	1.00	3.33	1.69	.70

Items for ITQ: alpha = .91

Q1 I plan to look outside my firm for a new job within the next year

Q2 I often think about quitting my present job

Q3 It is likely that I will quit my job in the next 12 months

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1	5.00	4.698	.852	.835	.848
Q2	4.57	5.228	.730	.551	.950
Q3	5.30	5.190	.900	.858	.817

APPENDIX B

INTERNAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT ARLINGTON

OFFICE OF RESEARCH INTEGRITY AND COMPLIANCE

January 31, 2006

Dr. George Benson
Department of Management
Box 19467

TITLE: *The Meaning of International Experience*
IRB No.: 06.124e

The UTA Institutional Review Board (UTA IRB) Chair (or designee) has reviewed the above-referenced study and found that it qualified as exempt from coverage under the federal guidelines for the protection of human subjects as referenced at Title 45--Part 46.101(b)(4). You are therefore authorized to begin the research.

Please be advised that as the principal investigator, you are required to report local adverse (unanticipated) events to this office within 24 hours. In addition, pursuant to Title 45 CFR 46.103(b)(4)(iii), investigators are required to, " promptly report to the IRB any proposed changes in the research activity, and to ensure that such changes in approved research, during the period for which IRB approval has already been given, are **not initiated without IRB review and approval** except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject."

All investigators and key personnel identified in the protocol must have documented *Human Subjects Involved in Research (Tier II) Training* on file with this office. The UTA Office of Research Integrity and Compliance appreciates your continuing commitment to the protection of human research subjects. Should you have questions or require further assistance, please contact this office by calling (817) 272-2335 or (817) 272-3723.

Yours sincerely,

Pat W. Myrick, CCRP, CIP
Director, ORIC

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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Marshall Pattie received his Ph.D. in business administration at the University of Texas at Arlington in May 2007. Previously, he received a Master's of Business Administration in May 2002 in organizational behavior and a Bachelor's of Science in psychology and political science with a minor in astronomy in May 2000. His research interests focus on strategically utilizing human capital.