



IUL School of Social Sciences and Humanities
Department of Social and Organizational Psychology

An Investigation on Portuguese Self-Initiated Expatriates: Comparison with
Assigned Expatriates and Immigrant Workers regarding their Cross-Cultural
Adaptation Process in the United Kingdom

Diana Farcas

Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor in Psychology

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Intervenção Social, ISCTE - Lisbon University Institute, Lisboa, Portugal

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FCT

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*Para os meus pais, Eugenia e Ioan Farcas,
que me abriram as portas do mundo,
e me ensinaram que tudo acontece por alguma razão.
No entanto, é preciso acreditar, trabalhar e nunca duvidar...*

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Abstract

Self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) are an important source of global talent, but SIEs' research is in the pre-paradigm state of development; hence this dissertation aimed to expand knowledge about SIEs. We conducted an integrative literature review and six empirical studies. Through the integrative review we identified what is known about SIEs and what can be further explored. In the empirical studies we: 1) explored the conceptual significance of SIEs (chapter 2); 2) developed and tested a cross-cultural adaptation model for emerging adult (EA) SIEs (chapter 3); and 3) investigated EA SIEs' cultural identity and acculturation strategies (chapter 4). We focused on Portuguese migrant workers in the UK since they represent a high number of contemporary Portuguese migration, with approximately 60% being EAs. Results revealed that Portuguese migrant workers moved to the UK as SIEs, assigned expatriates (AEs) and immigrant workers (IWs). SIEs and IWs were driven by poor labor market situation in Portugal. Pull factors were dominant motivators for SIEs and AEs. In chapter 3, EA SIEs identified 18 determinants of cross-cultural adaptation. These addressed the pre and post relocation phases regarding personal, interpersonal, societal and situational level. They affected different dimensions of cross-adaptation (cultural, emotional, social, practical and work). Results from chapter 4 indicated that EA SIEs' cultural identity and acculturation strategy also influenced their cross-cultural adaptation. This dissertation made important theoretical and practical contributions, by expanding knowledge about SIEs and informing EA SIEs and employing organizations about which determinants affect cross-cultural adaptation positively, leading to a successful relocation experience.

Keywords: self-initiated expatriates, emerging adulthood, cross-cultural adaptation, acculturation, cultural identity, migrant workers, assigned expatriates

PsycINFO Codes: **2900** Social Processes & Social Issues; **2930** Culture & Ethnology
2360 Motivation & Emotion; **3600** Industrial & Organizational Psychology

Resumo

Os expatriados por iniciativa própria (SIEs) são uma fonte importante de talento global, mas a investigação nesta área encontra-se no estado pré-paradigmático de desenvolvimento. Portanto, nesta tese tencionamos aprofundar o conhecimento sobre SIEs. Para atingir este objetivo, realizamos uma revisão integrativa da literatura e seis estudos empíricos. A revisão integrativa permitiu-nos identificar o que se sabe sobre SIEs e o que pode ser explorado. Nos estudos empíricos: 1) exploramos o significado conceptual dos SIEs (capítulo 2); 2) desenvolvemos e testamos um modelo de adaptação transcultural para os adultos emergentes (EA) SIEs (capítulo 3); e 3) investigamos as identidades culturais e as estratégias de aculturação dos EA SIEs (capítulo 4). Os trabalhadores migrantes Portugueses no Reino Unido foram o foco principal da nossa amostra porque representam uma grande percentagem da migração Portuguesa contemporânea com aproximadamente 60% EAs. Os resultados revelaram que os trabalhadores migrantes Portugueses vão para o Reino Unido como SIEs, expatriados organizacionais (AEs) e trabalhadores imigrantes (IWs). Os SIEs e IWs são motivados pela desfavorável situação do mercado de trabalho em Portugal. Os fatores de atração foram motivadores dominantes para os expatriados. No capítulo 3, os EA SIEs identificaram 18 determinantes da adaptação transcultural, relacionados com as fases pré e pós-relocação de sua experiência migratória ao nível pessoal, interpessoal, societal e situacional; que afetaram algumas das dimensões da adaptação transcultural (cultural, emocional, social, prática e de trabalho). Os resultados do capítulo 4 indicaram que a identidade cultural dos EA SIEs e a estratégia de aculturação também influenciam a adaptação transcultural. Esta dissertação fez algumas contribuições teóricas e práticas, expandindo o conhecimento sobre os SIEs e informando os EA SIEs e as organizações empregadoras sobre os determinantes que afetam positivamente a adaptação transcultural, contribuindo para a uma experiência migratória bem-sucedida.

Palavras chave: expatiação por iniciativa própria, adultos emergentes, adaptação transcultural, identidade cultural, trabalhadores migrantes, expatriados organizacionais

PsycINFO Codes: 2900 Social Processes & Social Issues; 2930 Culture & Ethnology

2360 Motivation & Emotion; 3600 Industrial & Organizational Psychology

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Chapter 1

General Introduction

The integrative literature review presented in this chapter is based on the published paper:

Farcas, D. & Gonçalves, M. (2016). Do three years make a difference? An updated review and analysis of self-initiated expatriation. *SpingerPlus*, 5 (1326). doi: 10.1186/s40064-016-2991-x

Introduction

In the increasingly globalized marketplace, there is a scarcity of qualified people (Wooldridge, 2006; Peiperl & Jonsen, 2007). To fill in this gap, multinational business organizations temporally relocate some of their employees to work in a foreign subsidiary of the organization (Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinvas, 2004). This traditional talent management, usually denominated as assigned expatriation, is not sufficient, because modern careers are becoming highly independent of specific organizations, people manage their careers independently and talent retention is ever more difficult (Capelli, 2008; Doherty, Brewster, Suutari, & Dickmann, 2008; Haslberger & Vaiman, 2013). In order to tackle these challenges, new sources of global talent flow are emerging, such as self-initiated expatriation.

Individuals who engage in a self-initiated expatriation are denominated self-initiated expatriates (SIEs). SIEs are usually characterized as highly educated individuals, who independently seek work abroad for a temporary period of time (Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, & Barry, 1997; Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari, 2008; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). They are hired under local, host country contracts (Crowley-Henry, 2007; Lo et al., 2012), but their outlook is non-local; hence SIEs may play important and hard to fill roles, such as integrators and bridge builders (Stroh, Black, Mendenhall, & Gregersen, 2005). Therefore, they may provide some answer to the global talent shortages and are recognized as a sprouting important factor in the global workforce (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010; Haslberger & Vaiman, 2013).

Despite their importance, SIEs research is considered to be in the pre-paradigm state of development with some neglected terrains (e.g. cross-cultural adaptation and cultural identity). Some indicators of the pre-paradigm state of development are the attention given to a standard definition, the exploratory methodological state of play and the recent growth in publications (Haslberger & Vaiman, 2013).

Having this in mind, we elaborated this dissertation with the main aim of deepening and expanding knowledge in the self-initiated expatriation area, and consequently shifting it further from the pre-paradigm state. To reach this aim, we conducted an integrative literature review and six empirical studies. The integrative literature review, enabled us to clearly identify what is known about SIEs so far and what can be further explored. Some of the identified suggestions for future research were addressed in the empirical studies, being this dissertation's specific aims. We will

fully describe each one of them, after presenting the results of the integrative literature review in the following section.

Integrative Literature Review about SIEs

In 1997, Inkson et al. were the first authors who distinguished SIEs from assigned expatriates (AEs), mainly based on the fact that they move abroad on their own volition, by personal funding, oriented towards personal goals and without any organizational support. Having this in mind, other authors (e.g. Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Jokinen et al., 2008) manifested their interest in knowing more about these individuals, and research has gained pace over the last years. Initially individuals studied under the banner of SIEs have included samples of university alumni and volunteers (Inkson et al., 1997), and it gradually involved more skilled/educated individuals moving on their own volition (e.g. graduate engineers: Suutari & Brewster, 2000; managers and professionals: Suutari & Taka, 2000; academics: Richardson, 2006). After two decades of research, we consider that it is necessary to systematize all the developed knowledge and identify future areas of research. Therefore, we aimed to conduct an integrative literature review following Cooper's (1998) five stage framework (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1 Stages of integrative review proposed by Copper (1998)

Stage of review	Description
Formulate the research problem	Clear identification of the problem the review is addressing and its purpose
Collect data	Define inclusion criteria and search the appropriate data bases in order to collect the literature which responds to the research problem
Evaluate data	Determine if the collected literature meets the predefine inclusion criteria, and select the final literature sample
Analyze and interpret data	Examine and interpret the literature sample in such a way that it will respond to the research problem
Evaluate the state of knowledge of the phenomenon and present future directions for research	Determine all the knowledge developed around the research problem and identify what can be further explored

Stage 1: Formulate the Research Problem

The research area of self-initiated expatriation is constantly evolving and in order to facilitate coherence in the development of future research, literature reviews should be conducted. They are very useful in clearly presenting existing research and identifying possible areas of future intervention. Doherty (2013) initiated this literature review, focusing on the research conducted between 1997 and 2011. However, due to

the constant evolution of self-initiated expatriation research and the increase in the number of people living abroad, we consider that it is pertinent to conduct a new literature review which may update the previously conducted one. More specifically, the aims of our integrative literature review are two folded. First, we aim to compare and contrast the systematized research conducted between 1997 and 2011 with the research which has been carried out over the past three years (2012-2014). Second, regarding future areas of research, we aim to determine to what extent Doherty's (2013) suggestions were met during the second research period and identify what else can be researched.

Stage 2: Collect Data

In order to reach the proposed aims, data were gathered by a series of searches undertaken using the following databases: PsycINFO, Web of Science, Emerald, ABI inform (Proquest) and Business Complete. "Self-initiated expatriat" was used as a keyword in the topic field, accompanied by the wildcard '*', in order to assure that all the possible combinations of the keyword (e.g. self-initiated expatriates, self-initiated expatriation) were obtained. Once extracted, overlapping articles among the different databases were excluded, and the remaining articles were screened in order to guarantee that they specifically used the terminology of "self-initiated expatriation" as a distinguished form of mobility, appearing in the title and/or keywords list. At the same time, we checked for the document type, restricting it to peer-reviewed articles, in order to enhance quality control. English was the chosen language for the articles published between 1997 and 2014. We chose to limit the data of publication to these 17 years, in order to gather the articles reviewed by Doherty (2013) from 1997 until 2011 and the new ones published between 2012 and 2014.

Stage 3: Evaluate Data

For the 1997 to 2011 period, the retrieved articles were double checked in order to make sure that they corresponded to the ones found by Doherty (2013). In addition, for the 2012 to 2014 period, the articles were screened according to the predefined inclusion/exclusion criteria. As a result of this, twelve publications were excluded (three dissertations, one guest editorial article, three articles which did not address self-initiated expatriates independently, one conference abstract, two articles written in Portuguese, a corrigendum paper and an article which was published twice, in a special

and normal issue). The final list offers a total of 94 articles, 45 of which were published between 2012 and 2014.

Stage 4: Analyze and Interpret Data

Data were analyzed using Doherty's (2013) method of systematization; hence the selected articles were reviewed under four categories: study focus, methods, findings/stated contributions and identified gaps/ areas for future research (Appendix A presents a summary of this review).

The reviewed articles were compared in terms of the research context, methodological approach and studied variables/constructs. In addition, since Doherty (2013) left some suggestions for future research, we explored the extent to which they were met during the second research period (2012-2014).

Research Context. The research on self-initiated expatriation started in Australia and New Zealand (Inkson et al., 1997), which were either home or host countries. In other words, the sample of this study comprised SIEs who relocated to Australia/New Zealand but it also included SIEs from Australia and New Zealand who relocated to other countries, such as the United Kingdom. Subsequently, research on self-initiated expatriation extended to some other host countries in Europe (e.g. France & Germany: Crowley-Henry, 2007) and a limited number of countries in the Middle East (e.g. Saudi Arabia: Bhuian et al., 2001; Bozionelos, 2009) and Asia (e.g. Japan: Peltokorpi, 2008). During the period of 2012-2014, an increased number of studies have ranged across SIEs who relocated to Asia (e.g. China: Luring & Selmer, 2014; Muir et al., 2014; Selmer & Luring, 2014b; South Korea: Froese, 2012; Macau: Lo et al., 2012; Japan: Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013), Middle East (Saudi Arabia: Alshammari, 2012; Qatar: Scurry & Rodriguez, 2013) and Europe (Denmark: Bjerregaard, 2014; Germany: Cao et al., 2013) In addition, a limited number of studies were conducted in North and South American countries (e.g. USA: Farnadale et al., 2014; Canada: Richardson & McKenna, 2014; Brasil: von Borel de Araujo et al., 2014). In terms of the studied SIEs' move between home and host country, it can be observed that it mostly occurs between developed countries (e.g. New Zealand-Belgium: Ellis, 2012), followed by developing to developed ones (e.g. China-Germany: Cao et al., 2013) and very few take place between developed to developing countries (e.g. USA-Brazil: von Borel de Araujo et al., 2014).

Methodological Approaches. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches are methodological strategies used to study the self-initiated expatriation phenomenon. During the first period of time (1997-2011), studies mainly targeted the individuals who undertook this mobility pattern, while over the past three years (2012-2014) a multi-informant perspective was adopted, involving the perspective of the host country nationals (e.g. Ellis, 2012), SIEs' supervisors (e.g. Showail & McLean Parks, 2013) or spouses (e.g. Bjerregaard, 2014), as a complement to SIEs' view regarding a determinant issue. The number of quantitative and qualitative studies which were conducted is almost equal during both time periods. However, longitudinal studies prevailed only in the first period (e.g. Hudson & Inkson, 2006).

An inequality can be observed in the number of studies where a literature review was conducted. During the period of 2012-2014, 10 literature reviews were conducted, which corresponds to more than twice the number of literature reviews conducted in the previous period. It is important to mention that although the methodology coincided, the purpose and ultimate result of the literature reviews differed.

For example, two of the four literature reviews conducted during the first period, focused on the theoretical exploration of gender issues in SIE (Tharenou, 2010) and HR implications of SIEs' adjustment (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010), while the other two reviewed the existing literature with the aim of identifying alternative forms of international workers (McKenna & Richardson, 2007) and developing a conceptual understanding of SIEs' careers (Tams & Arthur, 2007). These two topics along with the mere systematization of the conducted research were further explored in the ten literature reviews conducted during the past three years (2012-2014).

More precisely, the literature reviews conducted by Cao et al. (2012) and Whitman and Isakovic (2012) focused on developing a conceptual framework with propositions predicting career success for SIEs and the influence of personality and stress management on SIEs' and AEs' international experience success. This comparison between SIEs, AEs and other forms of mobility, along with the conceptual clarification of what it means to be a SIE was explored in six more reviews. Cerdin and Selmer (2014) provided a definition of who is a SIE based on four mutually satisfied criteria: self-initiated international relocation, regular employment, intentions of a temporary stay and skilled/professional qualifications. In addition, Tharenou (2013) identified several conditions where SIEs can be a suitable replacement of AEs (e.g. technical and middle/lower management positions), while Shaffer et al. (2012), Al Ariss

and Crowley-Henry (2013), Doherty et al. (2013) elaborated a profile of SIEs based on different aspects (e.g. country of origin, gender, period of international mobility) which were contrasted with migrants, AEs, short term assignees, flexpatriates, international students and international business travelers. In order to simplify the reading of the criteria distinguishing the different mobility groups, Andresen et al. (2014) proposed a decision tree.

Studied Variables/Constructs. According to Doherty (2013), the produced knowledge about SIEs can be organized at three levels of analysis: micro, meso and macro. At the micro level, the variables involved concern the individual characteristics and experiences of SIEs (e.g. demography, motivational drivers, individual characteristics, adjustment, career anchors), while the meso-level variables involve work-related experiences of SIEs (e.g. performance measures, career development, organizational context). The third level of analysis takes into consideration the home and host context, focusing on variables associated with human capital and the talent flow magnitude.

By taking this information into consideration, first we present some empirical studies which compared SIEs to AEs in terms of variables situated at the three levels of analysis, with the micro and meso levels prevailing. Afterwards, the empirical studies which focused predominantly or solely on SIEs will be described in terms of the studied variables and encountered results at each one of the three levels.

It is important to mention that all the empirical studies conducted between 1997 and 2014, which were specifically targeted at SIEs and AEs are systematized in Table 1.2. Most of these studies (8/11) were conducted during the first period of time (1997-2011) and the variable/constructs explored are similar to the ones studied in the second period of time (2012-2014). Regarding the encountered results, several similarities and differences were encountered between SIEs and AEs on each one of the nine explored variables.

Micro, meso and macro level research comparing SIEs and AEs. The similarities between SIEs and AEs are focused on individual characteristics, career and adjustment. In terms of individual characteristics, Froese and Peltokorpi (2013) found out that the studied expatriates (SIEs and AEs) who were living and working in Tokyo, scored high on the multicultural personality questionnaire, in terms of open-

Table 1.2 Results from studies comparing SIEs and AEs

Variables	Differences between the two types of expatriates		Similarities between the two types of expatriates	Authors
	Self-initiated expatriates (SIEs)	Assigned expatriates (AEs)		
Motivational drivers	Interest in internationalism and poor employment situation	Employer initiative		Suutari and Brewster (2000)
	Location and host country reputation	Career factors		Doherty et al. (2011)
Geographical mobility	More likely to move from peripheral to economically advanced countries	Move more easily to peripheral countries		Peiperl et al. (2014)
	Move where conditions offer greater economic prospects	Move to less developed countries and support the company subsidiary there		
Demographics and individual characteristics	Slightly younger, more females and singles, accompanied with spouses working abroad	Older, more males, married, accompanied with spouses not working abroad		Suutari and Brewster (2000); Peiperl et al. (2014)
	More proficient in host country language	Less proficient in host country language	No significant differences were found in age, gender, marital status or education	Froese and Peltokorpi (2013)
	SIE spend more time in host country	Have more international experience in working abroad	High open-mindedness, cultural empathy and social initiative	
Career	Lower levels of knowing whom	Higher levels of knowing whom	High levels of knowing how and knowing why	Jokinen et al. (2008)
	More stable career orientation/personal investment in career and career progression sustained over time	Career orientation decreases with age		Biemann and Andresen (2010)
	Security anchor	Internationalism anchor	Lifestyle anchor	Cerdin and Le Pargneux (2010)
	Boundaryless career	Protean		Inkson et al. (1997)
Employer, job and task variables	More often employed at lower organizational levels	Occupy high organizational level/managerial positions		Suutari and Brewster (2000); Froese and Peltokorpi (2013)
	Employment organizations are international or foreign private companies	Tend to work in home country companies and their respective subsidiaries		
	Undertake relatively unskilled, casual roles, often below their capabilities	Roles are broader and more challenging, according to their capabilities		Inkson et al. (1997)
	Higher organizational mobility and intention to change organization	Lower organizational mobility and intention to change organization		Biemann and Andresen (2010)
	Less satisfaction with job	Higher levels of job satisfaction		Froese and Peltokorpi (2013)
Compensation	High variations in net salary levels	Less variation in salary		Suutari and Brewster (2000)
	Less common or inexistent additional competitive compensation packages (assignment insurance, overseas premiums, house and education allowances)	Very common additional competitive compensation packages (assignment insurance, overseas premiums, house and education allowances)		
Coping strategies	Less critical and more willing to emulate typical host country behaviors for resolving problems related to adaptation to the country	Negative interpretation of the entire cultural system and dissatisfied		von Borel de Araujo et al. (2014)
Adjustment	Interact with local populations, understand better the language and culture, adjusting more easily	Do not interact as much with host country nationals, and have more difficulties to adjust		Sargent (2002); Peltokorpi and Froese (2009); Froese and Petokorpi (2013)
			Challenges to adjustment related to obtaining a visa, renting a house, contracting for utilities and paying taxes	von Borel de Araujo et al. (2014)
Repatriation	No repatriation agreement is made prior to departure, and are more willingly to accept another working period abroad	Usually move abroad with a definite timeframe and repatriation agreement		Suutari and Brewster (2000)

mindfulness, cultural empathy and social initiative. At the same time, the career capital of the Finnish expatriates (SIEs and AEs) studied by Jokinen et al. (2008) was similar in terms of the knowing how (explicit work-related knowledge required for performance) and knowing why (motivation and identification with the work world) dimensions, while the lifestyle anchor was the most valued one by the French expatriates who participated in the study conducted by Cerdin and Le Pargneux (2010). Additionally, the SIEs and AEs in Brazil (von Borel de Araujo et al. 2014) faced similar challenges to adjustment, concerning legal (obtaining visa, paying taxes) and practical aspects (renting a house, contracting for utilities).

However, SIEs differ from AEs in the way they overcome these challenges and adjust to the host country. More precisely, SIEs are less critical than AEs, and more willing to emulate typical host country behaviors for resolving adjustment problems (von Borel de Araujo et al., 2014). This might be one of the reasons why several studies consider SIEs to adjust more easily, along with the fact that they are more predisposed to interact with local populations and understand better the host country's language and culture (Sargent, 2002; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Froese & Petokorpi, 2013). The motivational driver can be another reason for SIEs' adjustment being easier than AEs', since SIEs move abroad on their own volition, while AEs are chosen by the employer (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). Most often, SIEs choose the host country, and are more likely to move from peripheral to economically advanced countries, where conditions offer greater economic prospects. This does not happen with AEs, who can move to less developed countries, supporting the company subsidiary which is located there (Peiperl et al., 2014; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013). Therefore, AEs are more likely to occupy high organizational level/managerial positions and have broader and more challenging (i.e. high level responsibilities) roles than SIEs, with stimulating salary and compensation packages (Inkson et al., 1997; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). In addition, AEs tend to have more international experience of working abroad than SIEs (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013). In comparison to SIEs, they also tend to be older, predominately male, married and usually accompanied by spouses who do not work abroad (Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Peiperl et al., 2014). It is important to mention that these demographic differences were not found in the study conducted by Froese and Peltokorpi (2013); hence they should be carefully interpreted.

Micro level research. The first variables explored at an individual level reflect the interest of identifying who the SIEs are and what makes them move abroad. The

individual characteristics of SIEs were exclusively explored during the first period of time, suggesting that they can be characterized as self-reliant, autonomous and individualistic (Inkson et al., 1997; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Additionally, six studies conducted during the first period 1997-2011, identified several reasons which make SIEs undertake an international mobility (Table 1.3).

This variable continued to receive great attention in the second time period (2012-2014), with a particular interest in directly identifying the key stimuli factors in moving abroad for specific populations, determining the influence of motivational factors on other variables and testing the previously encountered results.

For example, Froese (2012) identified that the motivational drivers of SIEs in South Korea consist of poor labor markets in home countries versus attractive job conditions in the host countries, and a desire for international experience. Similarly, the Syrian SIEs studied by Beitin (2012) identified motivational factors related with the home (escape from the military service mandate) and host countries (possibility of advancing in education and careers). This similarity in the motivational drivers among two different populations sparked some interest in identifying if there is a relationship between motives, mobility patterns and demographics. Thorn et al. (2013) grouped the identified motives in six different categories: cultural and travel opportunities, career, economics, affiliations, political environment and quality of life. The influence of these motives on the mobility pattern showed that the desire for cultural and travel opportunities is the best predictor for mobility cessation and developmental level in the host country, while career motives predicted mobility duration.

Lauring et al. (2014) proposed another grouping order for the motivational drivers, by taking into consideration the extent to which they relate to work (career and financial reasons) or are more tourism-oriented (seeking and escape reasons). These latter motivations are strongest among SIE academics who are young, non-married and originally from a non-EU country. The SIEs from a non-EU country moving to the EU are motivated by financial and seeking motivations. According to Selmer and Lauring (2012), these motivations would fit under the refugee or mercenary categorization of motivational drivers, based on the behavioral intentions and outcome control matrix. This matrix takes into consideration affective and evaluative behavioral intentions along with the easiness or difficulty of SIEs' outcome control. Therefore, by combining these four dimensions, the equivalent number of categories emerges, indicating that SIEs can be classified as a refugee (motivated by life change and escape reasons), a mercenary

Table 1.3 Comparing micro level research between two research periods (1997-2011 vs. 2012-2014)

	Period	
	1997-2011	2012-2014
Motivational drivers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A desire for exploration and excitement, a positive predisposition to the experience prompted by family and social connections, to escape from a current way of life or job situation (Inkson et al., 1997; Inkson and Myers, 2003) • Economic factors, better opportunities/income, career-vocational opportunities, family, life-style, cultural distance and political environment. Pull Factors: life style and family considerations; Push Factors: career, culture and economics (Jackson et al., 2005) • Chance rather than a result of a specific plan, desire for adventure, life change and benefit to the family (Richardson and Mallon, 2005) • Several sub-motives underlie the motivation to go abroad, related to career, cultural/travel opportunities, economic/personal relationships. These vary with gender, location and life stage (Thorn, 2009) • The motives to expatriate (adventure/travel, career, family, financial incentives and life change/escape) differ in terms of acquired personal characteristics: marital status, nationality, previous expatriate experience and seniority (Selmer and Lauring, 2011b) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The advances in education and careers, escape mandate of military service (Beitin, 2012) • A desire for international experience, attractive job conditions, family ties, and poor labor markets in home countries (Froese, 2012) • Motivational drivers were grouped in four sets of reasons: refugee, mercenary, explorer and architect (Selmer and Lauring, 2012) • Cultural and travel opportunities, career, economics, affiliations, political environment, and quality of life (Thorn, 2013) • Tourism-oriented and work-related motivations were stronger among academic SIEs who are younger, non-married, non-EU and with short experience. Non-EU SIEs arriving in the EU have stronger financial and seeking motivations (Lauring et al., 2014)
Demographics (gender, marital status, age)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women's willingness to go abroad is more affected by family/relationships than men's (Myers and Pringle, 2005; Tharenou, 2008) • Women chose less risky environments, which can offer them international career opportunities and more career benefit than men (Myers and Pringle, 2005) • Women are less motivated to go abroad by financial gain and life change (Selmer and Lauring, 2010) • Positive relationship between marital status and work effectiveness/performance is not moderated by gender (Selmer and Lauring, 2011a) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Female SIEs have better job performance than male SIEs (Lauring and Selmer, 2014) • Married SIEs have better time to proficiency and job performance than unmarried SIEs (Lauring and Selmer, 2014)
Individual characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-reliant, autonomous, exhibiting diffuse individual developmental goals and valuing the cultural experience and opportunity for personal learning, as opposed to purely work experiences (Inkson et al., 1997) • Individualistic, non-conformist, self-reliant, self-directed and proactive, operating with a degree of personal agency and giving personal motives precedence in determining their psychological and physical mobility (Sullivan and Arthur, 2006) 	
Career		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The metaphor "river" is proposed to describe career development (Crowley-Henry, 2012) • Career agency is impacted by both individual (e.g. personal control, proactivity, self-determination) and contextual factors, which provide support for Tams and Arthur's (2010) six dimensions of career agency (Guo et al., 2013) • Careerist attitude and career fit explain international mobility success, while the influence of protean and boundaryless career attitude is not very clear. Careerist orientation is the individual career characteristic which better explains international mobility success (Cerdin and Pargneux, 2014) • Four career patterns are identified: reinventors, reinvigorators, reversers and rejecters (Muir et al., 2014)
Adjustment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language proficiency, personality traits, cultural empathy and type of expatriation experience (SIE vs. AE) have a positive effect on work and non-work adjustment; SIEs adjust better than AEs (Peltokorpi, 2008) • Positive framing and proactive socialization enable more effective coping and adjustment (Fu et al., 2005) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Previous international experience and marital status have no influence on adjustment (Alshammari, 2012) • Previous overseas experience has a positive relationship with SIEs' adjustment, while culture novelty has a negative one. Contrary to what was predicted, foreign language ability was not positively related to adjustment (Isakovic and Whitman, 2013) • Positive cross-cultural adjustment mediates the positive relations between protean career attitude and SIEs' experienced outcomes: career satisfaction, intentions to stay in the host country and life satisfaction (Cao et al., 2013) • Beneficial associations between positive affectivity and adjustment (Selmer and Lauring, 2014a) • Adult third-culture kids have a greater extent of general adjustment, but not interaction or work adjustment, when compared with adult mono-culture kids (Selmer and Lauring, 2014b)
Relationship with home and host country/Repatriation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The propensity of moving was explored through allegiance, a dynamic and fluid bond that influences both the desire to remain in the host country and the desire to return to home country. Family and social connections have a great impact on the intention to stay or return (Richardson and McKenna, 2006; Schoepp and Forstenlenchener, 2010) • Weak host country pull and strong home country pull, along with shocks motivate repatriation (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010) • After repatriation, adjustment to work is a stressful experience, since SIEs do not return to a role within an organization and have to reacquire local experience and rebuild networks (Begley et al., 2008) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationship with home and host country are fluid and subject to change due to adjustment and ease of communication (Beitin, 2012) • Desire for cultural and travel opportunities was the best predictor of cessation of mobility and development level in the host country. Career motives predicted duration of mobility and cultural difference of the destination (Thorn et al., 2013)

(motivated by financial incentives), an explorer (motivated by a desire for adventure and travelling) or an architect (motivated by career considerations).

This categorization was initially proposed by Richardson and McKenna (2002), and its empirical proof and effect on work outcomes (work performance, work effectiveness and job satisfaction) was tested by Selmer and Luring (2012). The categorization of SIEs' reasons to expatriate was partially confirmed, since the participants in this study considered that what influenced their decision to expatriate was mainly the desire for adventure, financial gains and career opportunities. Therefore, they did not identify as much with the refugee reason which refers to the escape from previous life situations. However, this was the best predictor for work outcomes. A strong negative association was found between the refugee reasons to expatriate and the three work outcomes, namely work performance, work effectiveness and job satisfaction. Selmer and Luring (2012) considered this a striking finding, because one may speculate that refugee reasons to relocate result in negative work outcomes. Nonetheless, they argue that the interpretation of these results may not be straightforward, since the studied group of SIEs was not homogeneous and SIEs who relocated from developing countries to developed ones might have escaped from undesirable living conditions in their home countries; hence relocated more by necessity than by choice. Consequently, these SIEs may have experienced discrimination in the organizational context of developed countries, due to ethnic traits such as language, religion or clothing habits, just as other studies pointed out (e.g. Al Ariss, 2010; Al Ariss & Özbilgin, 2010). Regarding the mercenary reasons to expatriate, Selmer and Luring (2012) did not identify any relations with the work outcomes. This may indicate that financial reasons are not as important for SIEs as they might be for AEs (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). On the other hand, just as predicted, the explorer reasons to expatriate are strongly related to job satisfaction, while architect reasons facilitate work performance and work effectiveness.

Besides motives' effect on work outcomes, demographical variables were also explored during both time periods. More specifically, the relationship between gender, marital status and job performance was studied during both time periods and similar results were encountered. Selmer and Luring (2011a) along with Luring and Selmer (2014) identified that married SIEs have better job performance than unmarried SIEs. However, the results found by these authors differ regarding gender. On the one hand, Selmer and Luring (2011a) identified that the positive relationship between marital

status and job performance was not moderated by gender. Also, when gender was entered alone in the moderation model, it did not result in any significant effect on the job performance. On the other hand, Luring and Selmer (2014) determined that female SIEs have better job performance than male SIEs. Also, married SIEs have better job performance and are more satisfied with their job than unmarried SIEs.

The influence of gender was further explored exclusively during the first time period, through an association with the motivational drivers. The results indicate that when comparing men with women in terms of their willingness to go abroad, women are more affected by family/relationships and less motivated by financial gain and life change (Myers & Pringle, 2005; Tharenou, 2008; Selmer & Luring, 2010). In addition, women chose less risky and more secure environments, which offer them international career opportunities (Myers & Pringle, 2005).

During the second period of time, researchers devoted a lot of attention to SIEs' careers, with the aim of characterizing careers and identifying what type of career contributes the most to a successful international experience. In order to characterize the SIEs' careers, four different patterns were identified and a new metaphor was proposed to describe career development. The chosen metaphor was a river, referring to "high or low starts, different tributaries (opportunities and challenges) flowing in and out of the career river at different stages; some rivers growing large, while others fading away and perhaps then following and growing again along a different path" (Crowley-Henry, 2012, p. 134). In addition, the four patterns identified by Muir et al. (2014) were reinventors (reinvent self and career), reinvigorators (adapt the existent possessed skills to the new working environment), reversers (unable to pursue the desired career path, since it has stalled or gone backwards) and rejecters (overwhelmed by the challenges faced in the work context). In order to identify what type of career contributes the most to a successful international experience, Cerdin and Pargneux (2014) used three variables that characterize an individual's internal career: protean career attitude, boundaryless career attitude and careerist orientation. Results indicated that the success of international mobility, in terms of job satisfaction, career satisfaction and intentions to leave, was best explained by a careerist orientation.

However, besides career orientation, there are other variables which can predict SIEs' international mobility success, such as cross-cultural adjustment. During both time periods, researchers attempted to determine the factors which positively and negatively contributed to SIEs' adjustment in the host country. The results are

inconclusive with respect to the influence of previous international experience and language proficiency, since either positive, negative or no effects on SIEs' adjustment were found (Peltokorpi, 2008; Alshammari, 2012; Isakovic & Whitman, 2013). But, it is well known that culture novelty (unfamiliar host country culture or a high degree of difference between the host and home country's cultures) influences SIEs' adjustment negatively, while the personality trait, cultural empathy has a positive influence (Peltokorpi, 2008; Isakovic & Whitman, 2013).

Mal-adjustment or even lack of adjustment have been reported as prompting factors of early repatriation among AEs (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005), while family and social connections have a great impact on SIEs' intentions to stay or return (Richardson & McKenna, 2006; Schoepp & Fortenlenchner, 2010). In addition, by relating the motivational drivers to SIEs' repatriation, Thorn et al. (2013) found out that the desire for culture and travel opportunities was the best predictor of mobility cessation, while career motives predicted duration of mobility and cultural distance between home and host country.

Meso level research. Organizational environments have grown accustomed to receiving AEs from different countries, who are sent by the employers to accomplish a job or organizational goal, during a specific period of time. However, due to the rapid pace of globalization, an increase in the range of global populations could be observed. Therefore, besides the corporate expatriates (AEs) there are other types of mobility patterns involved in the global labor market, such as SIEs. Much of the research conducted during the first period (1997-2011), focused on SIEs' behavior in the corporate environment, exploring aspects related to the recruitment process, talent management and repatriation (Table 1.4).

During the second period, talent management and repatriation continued to receive much of researchers' attention. In terms of the strategic management of SIEs, new insights were proposed regarding their performance management preferences, work adjustment and effectiveness. When compared with the host country nationals, whose preferences incorporate professional and distant relationships, SIEs' performance management preferences in Belgium include goal-setting, performance measurement and appraisal, as well as a performance-based pay component (Ellis, 2012). These results reinforce the ones encountered in the first period, in terms of the income motivator to work (Bhuan et al., 2001). At the same time, the preference for goal-setting is further explained by taking into consideration the negative relationship which

Table 1.4 Comparing meso level research between two research periods (1997-2011 vs. 2012-2014)

	Period	
	1997-2011	2012-2014
Recruitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A more holistic approach should be adopted in the recruitment process, incorporating realistic job previews and living conditions (Richardson et al., 2008) • Proactive socialization and positive framing (Fu et al., 2005) 	
Talent management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Income is a significant motivator to work in the international context (Bhuiyan et al., 2001) • Job satisfaction and job variety are predictors of organizational commitment, while job autonomy is negatively related to it (Bhuiyan et al., 2001) • Peer support is related to job satisfaction, while mentor support relates to job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Bozionelos, 2009) • Antecedents of underemployment: lack of job autonomy, job suitability, job variety and fit to psychological contract. Consequences of underemployment: negative effect on job satisfaction, leading to higher levels of work alienation and lower career satisfaction (Lee, 2005) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Performance management (PM) preferences of SIEs: goal-setting, performance measurement and appraisal, and a performance-based pay component. The Belgians preferences for PM incorporate professional and distant relationship (Ellis, 2012) • On average, SIEs in the public sector present a higher degree of performance and effectiveness than SIEs in the private sector. Contrary to what was predicted, this doesn't happen with job satisfaction. For SIEs in the private sector vs. the public sector, there is a stronger positive association between creativity and performance, creativity and effectiveness, but not between creativity and job satisfaction (Lauring and Selmer, 2013) • The relationship between role ambiguity and job performance was significant. This relationship was mediated by organizational identification and moderated by information seeking and perceived organizational support.”(Showail et al., 2013) • Work adjustment is explained by self-efficacy beliefs among global employees. Job satisfaction is explained by job factors (role discretion and role conflict) and organizational or job context factors (supervisory support and perceived organizational support). Both work role adjustment and job satisfaction are not influenced by whether or not the global employee is company assigned or self-initiated. (Supangco & Mayhofer, 2014)
Repatriation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family and social relationships have a significant impact on the intention to stay in the host country or return to the home country, hence a possible management strategy could involve providing return trips (Richardson & McKenna, 2006) • Underemployment in the host country and not returning to a role within an organization in the home country, increases the level of stress (Begley et al., 2008) • Host country push-pull factors, home country pull factors and shocks can contribute to repatriation (Tharenou & Caulfiel, 2010) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A direct positive effect between perceived organizational support (POS) and intention to stay was found. However, there was a significant negative indirect effect between POS and intention to stay when the career network of home country nationals was large. POS has a positive effect on SIEs' career satisfaction and intention to stay in the host country (Cao et al., 2014)

exists between role ambiguity and job performance. In fact, SIEs prefer to know exactly what behavior is expected from them; otherwise their performance is not at its highest potential. Nonetheless, the relationship between role ambiguity and job performance is mediated by organizational identification, and moderated by information seeking and perceived organizational support (Showaill et al., 2013).

Perceived organizational support along with supervisory support, role discretion and role conflict, were the job context factors which explained SIEs' job satisfaction better than self-efficacy belief or status of expatriation (Supangco & Mayhofer, 2014). Moreover, when comparing SIEs in the public sector with SIEs in the private sector, it was observed that SIEs in the public sector presented a higher degree of performance and effectiveness than SIEs in the private sector (Lauring & Selmer, 2013).

In terms of repatriation intentions, intentions to stay in the host country were explored in an innovative way, by directly linking them with organizational aspects. In other words, while in the first period (1997-2011), family, social relations and host/home country push-pull factors, were explored, Cao et al. (2014) focused on

perceived organizational support. They determined that the intention to stay in the host country was positively related to perceived organizational support. However, the inverse relationship occurred when SIEs had a large career network of home country nationals in the host country. This result is congruent with the findings of Richardson and McKenna (2006), lending support to the claim that social networks play an important role in SIEs' international relocation experiences. In addition, several factors positively predict for pre-migration adaptation, such as previous international work experience, perceived organizational prestige, satisfaction with time, information and assistance to prepare for relocation and quality contact with host country nationals during recruitment (Yijälä et al., 2012).

Macro level research. During the first research period (1997-2011), SIEs emerged and were soon recognized as a potential resource in the rapidly growing global economy. Carr et al. (2005), pointed out the creation of virtual networks where SIEs could share their experience and expertise with home country nationals, as one way of SIEs benefiting organizations and home countries. In addition, SIEs were considered to be a valuable asset for organizations since they are present and contribute to the global economic workforce, possessing skills, knowledge and abilities which position them advantageously in international employment contexts. This is greatly due to the fact that they are intrinsically motivated to move abroad without any organizational support, which distinguishes them from the AEs. Several studies compared SIEs to AEs, and although SIEs are seen as a potential asset for organizations, there is lack of empirical data on the flow, scope and magnitude of self-initiated expatriation. In other words, SIEs are difficult to locate and there is little evidence of how organizations acquire SIEs and which skills contribute the most to the organizational context. Therefore, it was suggested that a contribution to the macro level research on SIEs would be the exploration of the individual-organizational relationship.

Much of the macro level research conducted during the second research period (2012-2014) focused on filling some of the gaps identified in the previous research period. Specifically, Tharenou (2013) focused on the identification of the situations where SIEs could replace AEs (e.g. roles requiring cross-cultural and host location specific competencies), while the home and host country relationships were a priority in several studies. For example Lo et al. (2012), identified that host country organization embeddedness mediates the relationship between home country community embeddedness and SIEs' turnover intentions. In addition, Yijälä et al. (2012)

determined that SIEs' European identification mediated the relationship between previous international work experience and organizational identification. An increase in the cross-border mobility of highly skilled individuals is observed during this period, but precise data on the intra-European mobility are limited because these assignments do not necessarily require a work permit. Therefore, just as pointed out by Doherty (2013), the development of standardized instruments to measure the scope and magnitude of self-initiated expatriation, remains as a suggestion for future research.

Suggestions for Future Research. After analyzing all the articles published during the first research period (1997-2011), Doherty (2013) identified some aspects which could be explored in upcoming studies. During the second research period (2012-2014), almost half of these suggestions were actually taken into consideration, as it can be observed in Table 1.5.

As suggested by Doherty, Cao et al. (2014) explored some facets of employment (e.g. career satisfaction, perceived organizational support) associated with SIEs' intention to stay in the host country. Regarding the utility of SIEs to corporations and meso-level issues, Tharenou (2013) explored the situations where SIEs could replace AEs. As a complementary perspective, managers' perceptions were included in a study that tested the relation between role ambiguity, organization identification and job performance (Showail et al., 2013). The influence of individual career capital on SIEs' international mobility success was explored in a study conducted by Cerdin and Pargneux (2014).

Stage 5: Evaluate the State of Knowledge and Present Future Research Directions

While updating and synthesizing the literature review of the published articles on the self-initiated expatriation topic from 2012 until the end of 2014, we observed a massive interest and exponential growth in this topic. This burgeoning interest in the topic of self-initiated expatriation can be related to the statistical data provided by the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs' Population Division (2011), which accounts for 214 million individuals living and working outside their country of origin in 2010. This represents an increase of 58 million since 1990 and about 3 percent of the total world population. At the same time, SIEs are considered to be valuable individuals for international human resource management, benefiting organizations and economies (Dickman & Baruch, 2011).

Table 1.5 The proposed future research suggestions by Doherty (2013) and the extent they were met during the 2012-2014 period

Doherty's (2013) proposed future research suggestion	Met/unmet during the 2012-2014 research period	Example of conducted study during the 2012-2014 research period
"Explore the shifts that SIEs may make between self-initiated, company supported and migrant status." (p. 450)	×	
"The gendered nature of some facets of the experience is an important issue worthy of further study." (p. 451)	×	
"There is little evidence of how organizations acquire SIEs or the extent to which the skills contributed by SIEs are matched to the organizational context." (p. 456)	×	
"Further research is needed in order to gauge the magnitude of the population to provide evidence of the scale of SIEs as a potential global resource." (p. 458)	×	
"Further research could explore issues such as intra and inter home and host country comparisons affecting the intention to become SIEs, exploration of the factors that affect intended and actual repatriation behavior and the many facets of employment such as job satisfaction, organizational identification and commitment." (p. 458)	√	Cao et al. (2014)
"Further research could usefully be done to validate constructs such as career anchors of SIEs." (p. 458)	×	
"There is a need to address research questions relating to the utility of SIEs to corporations and meso-level issues about the employee-employer relationship." (p. 458)	√	Tharenou (2013)
"Further research could poll managers' perceptions of SIEs to provide data on how SIEs are perceived within the organizational context." (p. 458)	√	Showail et al. (2013)
"There is a need to explore how individual-level variables can relate to the organizational level, further researching, for example, how the adjustment patterns among SIEs can connect to organizational performance." (p. 459)	×	
"A further step in theoretical development is required to demonstrate whether and how the individual level career capital of SIEs can contribute to an organizational-level competitive advantage." (p. 459)	√	Cerdin and Pargneux (2014)

Therefore, academic scholars, businesses and policy-makers have been manifesting their interest in knowing more about these individuals living and working abroad on their own volition.

This affirmation is corroborated by the 45 peer-reviewed published articles over a period of three years (2012-2014), which is almost equal to the number of published works (49) during the preceding fourteen years (1997-2011). By comparing the two research periods (1997-2011 vs. 2012-2014) in terms of the research context, we observed an expansion of the countries where research has been conducted. In other words, the research on SIEs started in Australia and New Zealand, involving some European countries and a limited number of countries from the Middle East and Asia. During the second research period, an effort was made to fill in the gap, by expanding the research on SIEs to the countries in which self-initiated expatriation was limitedly explored. Therefore, much of the research conducted during 2012-2014 ranged across SIEs in Asia, Middle East and Europe, while a limited number of studies were also conducted in North and South American countries. By analyzing the SIEs' move between home and host countries, it could be observed that it mainly occurred between developed countries, followed by developing to developed ones, while very few took place from developed to developing countries. Future research could explore SIEs' move between developed and developing countries, such as, but not limited to, the move from Portugal to Brazil or Angola, since the statistical data indicate that these two host countries are among the top destinations of the contemporary wave of Portuguese migration. In addition, in terms of cultural distance and adjustment these two countries are of potential interest since they were Portuguese colonies, and some cultural similarities might be explored in order to determine if they facilitate the SIEs' adjustment process. More precisely, the results of several studies point out host country language proficiency as a predictor of SIEs' adjustment. By taking into consideration that Portuguese is the official language of Portugal and Brazil, then an assumption could be made and further explored concerning a Portuguese SIE's facilitated adjustment process.

By taking into consideration the fact that cross-cultural adjustment is a process and not just a state, further longitudinal research is needed. This would greatly contribute to a thorough understanding of the past, present and future of SIEs' international relocation experiences. In fact, during the second research period (2012-2014) a lack of longitudinal studies could be observed. The conducted studies focused

on aspects related to the period before leaving the home country or after arriving in the host country, where participants were asked to think about current aspects or reflect back on their experience.

In order to obtain a more complete understanding of SIEs' relocation experiences, the multi-informant perspective was introduced in some studies conducted during the second research period, where the spouses', supervisors' or host country nationals' perspective was involved as a complement to SIEs' view regarding a determinant issue. This complementary perspective is a very important asset of many studies and whenever possible it should be included in future SIE research. In addition, the pre-departure period, which includes expectations, personality and motivations, should be taken into consideration in future studies, since it seems to greatly impact the cross-cultural adjustment process and it has been rarely examined (an exception is Tabor & Milfont, 2011).

Another aspect which could be further examined is the conceptual coherence of the SIE concept and its distinction from the other types of mobility patterns. So far, some of the conducted studies during the second research period reviewed the existing literature focused on SIEs. As a result of this, Cerdin and Selmer (2014) proposed four groups of screening questions related to the international relocation (e.g. Have you initiated your expatriation yourself?), regular employment (e.g. Do you have a regular job in the host country?), intention of a temporary stay in the host country (e.g. Was it your original intention to repatriate after a certain time?) and professional qualifications (e.g. Do you have skilled/professional qualifications?). These questions have to be affirmatively answered in order to consider an individual a SIE. Another way of determining if an individual is an SIE is by following the screening criteria proposed by Andresen et al. (2014). They proposed seven demarcation criteria which were claimed to be sufficient for plain differentiation between assigned expatriates, self-initiated expatriates and migrants. However, future research could empirically test these demarcation criteria, as well as the one proposed by Cerdin and Selmer (2014). The sample of such an empirical study should be carefully chosen, in order to guarantee that the different mobility groups (e.g. SIEs, AEs and skilled/unskilled migrants) can be compared. Therefore, some variables should be controlled, such as the participant's host country and the time spent there. This would contribute to obtaining more precise results, contrary to what happened with some demographic data encountered during the two research periods. In other words, some studies indicate that SIEs are younger than

AEs (e.g. Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Peiperl et al., 2014) while others do not present any significant results regarding age, gender or marital status (e.g. Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013). Most likely these discrepant results are due to the studies being conducted in different contexts, with distinct samples. Therefore, the profile of AEs or SIEs, using variables from the different levels of analysis (micro, meso and macro) should be carefully interpreted, since results across studies may not be cumulative.

Nonetheless, if SIEs would actually prove to be younger than AEs, we should not forget an important age related aspect that could be further explored. We are referring to emerging adults, i.e. individuals aged between 18 and 29 years, who may relocate as SIEs. According to Arnett (2000), during this period individuals prepare for adulthood by undergoing experimentation in love, work and worldview. Many may choose to move abroad in search for these experiences; hence it would be interesting to identify emerging adults' relocation experiences as SIEs, in terms of their functioning in the new environment, while coping with the challenges associated with the developmental period they are undergoing.

By taking into account similarities and differences between the experiences of expatriates and other mobility groups, an additional aspect which could be explored in future research is expatriate identity. We consider that a more holistic approach to expatriate identity is lacking in the literature, and future studies should explore it because “expatriates who are able to negotiate their identities successfully within the host environment are able to manage the uncertainty associated with that environment more clearly” (Adams & van de Vijver, 2015, p. 7).

Besides these suggestions for future research, it should be highlighted that, as mentioned in Table 5, some of the suggestions left by Doherty (2013) were not met so far during the second research period, and they can be taken into consideration in the forthcoming studies. Also, in the table in Appendix A there is one column dedicated to the authors of some of the reviewed studies, who identified gaps and suggestions for future research. We consider that these are also important suggestions for the evolving knowledge in the area of self-initiated expatriation.

Aims and Overview

The **general aim** of this dissertation is to expand our knowledge about self-initiated expatriation, an area situated in the pre-paradigm state of development. An indicator of this state is the lack of a generally accepted definition of SIEs, despite some attempts outlined in the previous section.

Therefore, the **first specific aim** of this dissertation is to explore the conceptual significance of SIEs. Following the guidelines from the previously conducted research, this can be done in two different ways: 1) by comparing and contrasting SIEs with other types of migrant workers (e.g. Andresen et al., 2014); or 2) by focusing solely on SIEs (e.g. Cerdin & Selmer, 2014). We adopt these two approaches in this dissertation. For example, in chapter two, we explore the conceptual significance of SIEs through a comparison with assigned expatriates and immigrant workers.

Moreover, in chapter three we focus only on SIEs, when addressing the **second specific aim** of this dissertation which consists in developing and testing a model of cross-cultural adaptation. While addressing this aim, two suggestions for future research, identified in the previous section, are taken into account, namely the incorporation of the pre-relocation period and the focus on emerging adults SIEs.

In chapter four, we continue to focus on emerging adults SIEs and another suggestion for future research, identified in the previously presented integrative review, is addressed as the **third specific aim** of this dissertation, which refers to the exploration of emerging adult SIEs' cultural identity in dealing with unfamiliar aspects in the host country. More specifically, we are referring to the United Kingdom as the host country, while participants' home country is Portugal. The reasoning behind this choice is detailed in the following chapters, but we would like to briefly mention two reasons which encouraged this choice: 1) the statistical data indicating that Portugal is one of the European Union members with the highest percentage of emigrants as a proportion of its population. This data was achieved through several emigration waves and the contemporary one is reported to move mostly to the UK, with emerging adults accounting for more than 60 percent of the total number of emigrants (Pires et al., 2016); 2) the fact that research on contemporary Portuguese migrant workers is scarce. To the best of our knowledge two projects were recently conducted on Portuguese contemporary migration (Brain Drain and Academic Mobility from Portugal to Europe, 2012-2015; REMIGR- Regresso ao futuro: a nova emigração e a relação com a

sociedade portuguesa, 2013-2015), with the aim of characterizing it in terms of aspects such as demographics, motivations for moving abroad and relation maintained with Portugal. Therefore, these projects did not explore migrant workers' functioning in the new environment, regarding how they cope and adapt to the cultural differences. We consider that these aspects are important to be explored in order to address some of the previously identified suggestions, and because they have been suggested to have significant consequences on migrants' well-being.

In the last chapter of this dissertation (chapter five), we provide a comprehensive summary and discussion of the main findings from the empirical studies presented in the second, third and fourth chapters. Then, a critical examination of their contributions and limitations is provided, along with avenues for future research.

Chapter 2

Comparison between Self-Initiated Expatriates, Assigned Expatriates and Immigrant Workers

The chapter is based on the paper:

Farcas, D. & Gonçalves, M. (2017). Motivations and Cross-Cultural Adaptation of Self-Initiated Expatriates, Assigned Expatriates and Immigrant Workers: The Case of Portuguese Migrant Workers in the United Kingdom. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 48(7), 1028-1051. doi: 10.1177/0022022117717031

Abstract

Only in recent years have immigrant workers (IWs), assigned expatriates (AEs) and self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) been distinguished from each other. Two complementary studies were conducted using a mixed methods approach. The first study presented comparative results based on interviews with 50 Portuguese citizens who moved to the UK, as SIEs, AEs and IWs. The findings indicate that Portuguese SIEs and AEs explored their opportunities before leaving Portugal, while IWs explored them after arriving in the UK. SIEs and IWs were driven by poor labor market situation in Portugal (e.g., unemployment, unchallenging tasks), but pull factors (e.g., professional international experience) were also identified as dominant motivators for both types of expatriates. Participants generally felt that their adaptation was easy in terms of the general (e.g., climate, food) and working (e.g., knowing one's role and job-related activities) environments. Some SIEs and IWs noted that their adaptation to interactions with locals and to accommodation was difficult. These findings were corroborated by the results of the second study, which were based on questionnaire answers given by 628 participants (SIEs, AEs and IWs) and analyzed using MANCOVA. We discuss these results in the light of previous findings and identify future research areas.

Keywords: mobile workers, motivations for moving abroad, cross-cultural adaptation

Introduction

Data from the International Organization for Migration (2018) indicate a significant increase in the number of people living abroad, from 155 million in 2000 to 258 million in 2018. Among several reasons which might have contributed to this, in a recent report elaborated for the European Commission, Russel and Lulle (2016) recognize the clear impact of the 2008 economic crisis on the migration dynamics of Cyprus, Greece, Ireland, Spain and Portugal, which transformed them from countries of immigration to emigration. Of these, Portugal has the highest rate of emigration in Europe: the total 2.3 million emigrant population represents over 20% of the residents in Portugal (Pires et al., 2016, 2018).

Currently, the main Portuguese migration flow is to the United Kingdom (UK), which accounts for almost one-third of all Portuguese emigration (Pires et al., 2018). In total 140,000 individuals born in Portugal have migrated to the UK, and since 2012, this migration flow remained at a record level of approximately 30,000 individuals each year. Most of them are settled in the London area (47%), or the South East (15%) and East (14%) of the country. The Portuguese migrants in the UK seem to be evenly distributed in terms of gender, the majority (around 64%) is aged between 18 and 34 years and approximately 40% have a college education (Pires et al., 2016; Gois et al., 2016). These young and college educated migrants are considered to make a significant contribution to the number of migrant workers in the world, which stands at 150.3 million (International Labor Organization, 2018).

In the international context, three different types of migrant workers have been identified, namely assigned expatriates (AEs), self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) and immigrant workers (IWs). Nonetheless, to the best of our knowledge, the three of them have never been included in the sample of an empirical study. In this chapter we aim to fill in this gap. But, this would only be possible if we can identify that the Portuguese citizens move abroad under each one of these three forms of international mobility. Statistics are scant in characterizing the Portuguese forms of international mobility present in the UK, but a recent study (Gois et al., 2016) indicates a predominance of SIEs. Therefore, the first goal of this chapter is to explore the form of international mobility of Portuguese migrant workers in the UK. In addition, we identify their motivations for moving abroad and how they fit in and function in the British environment. Our second goal is to explore which patterns of cross-cultural adaptation

are more strongly associated with specific motives and ways of moving abroad. We aim to reach these goals by adopting a mixed methods approach; hence two complementary studies are conducted: in the first study, a qualitative research approach is employed while in the second study a quantitative research approach is used. This way, we contribute conceptually as well as methodologically to the international mobility literature by extending research regarding the motivations to move abroad and the cross-cultural adaptation of all three categories of international worker comparatively, allowing us to draw more fine-grained conclusions. We also provide some practical recommendations for aspiring migrant workers in the UK and contribute to the design of a preparation program for moving abroad.

The rest of the chapter is organized in the following way. First, we provide an overview of the existing literature on possible ways of moving abroad, migrant workers' motivations to move abroad, and their cross-cultural adaptation. Then we describe the methodology we use and present our results. We end the chapter with a discussion of the findings, along with their implications, limitations and suggestions for future research.

Literature Review

Forms of International Mobility

Geographically and economically speaking, the World Migration Report (IOM, 2018), which includes all forms of international mobility under its heading of migration, indicates that migration may occur in four different pathways: South-North (from low and middle-income to high-income countries), South-South (between low and middle-income countries), North-North (between high-income countries) and North-South (from high-income to low- and middle-income countries). The migrant stock originating from the South and living in the North is reported to contribute the most to the international migration statistics, but special attention should be given to the intra-South and intra-North migration (e.g. Portuguese migrating to the UK) since they are a growing phenomenon.

Among these mobility pathways occurring in the international context, there are various migrant populations, such as migrant workers, i.e. international migrants who are employed in their host countries, and account for 65% of the global migration (International Labor Organization, 2018). The growing pace of economic globalization

has created a variety of opportunities for individuals to work abroad and there are, consequently, different forms of international mobility.

For example, a migrant worker can move abroad as an assigned expatriate (AE), defined by Harrison, Shaffer and Bhaskar-Shrinivas (2004, p. 203) as “an employee of a business organization (...) sent overseas on a temporary basis to complete a time-based task or accomplish an organizational goal.” Therefore, an AE: 1) is an employee relocated to work in a foreign subsidiary of the organization; 2) is a non-citizen of the country where the subsidiary is located; 3) engages in regulatory cross-border compliance for purposes of residency and employment; and 4) is fully supported by the business organization (McNulty & Brewster, 2016).

When the support from the organization is inexistent, migrant workers move abroad as a self-initiated expatriates (SIEs). Usually, SIEs’ move abroad is planned as temporary and they seek work in the host country on their own volition. Just as AEs, SIEs are non-citizens of the host country and engage in regulatory cross-border compliance for purposes of residency and employment (Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, & Barry, 1997; Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari, 2008; Suutari & Brewster, 2000).

Usually, AEs and to a lesser extent SIEs move abroad with their professional situation regularized (Bozionelos, 2009; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). In other words, before moving abroad, expatriates are informed about their working place and associated tasks they will perform in the host country. Immigrant workers (IWs) are distinguished from expatriates because they intend to settle in the new country on a permanent basis. They may eventually acquire host country citizenship (Al Ariss, 2010; Przytula, 2015). Usually, they move abroad and then look for a job. Depending on their qualifications, they can either move abroad as skilled immigrant workers or unskilled ones.

Research on these different forms of international mobility has either focused on one group at a time (e.g., SIEs: Froese, 2012; Selmer & Luring, 2010; AEs: Dickmann, Doherty, Mills, & Brewster, 2008; immigrants: Berry, 1997) or aimed to compare and contrast them (e.g., SIEs vs. AEs: Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011; SIEs vs. IWs: Al Ariss, 2010). Nonetheless, a limited number of studies have compared and contrasted the three groups together (e.g., Andersen, Bergdolt, Margenfeld, & Dickmann, 2014; Bierwiazzonek & Waldzus, 2016; Przytula, 2015). In these studies, the authors reviewed the existing literature about each type of migrant workers; however, to the best of our knowledge, there are no empirical studies focused on individuals moving abroad

as SIEs, AEs and IWs. In order to contribute to this gap, we aimed to conduct two complementary studies, where Portuguese migrant workers' forms of international mobility were explored. In the first study, a qualitative research approach was used in order to answer the following research question:

Research Question 1: How do Portuguese migrant workers move to the UK, regarding the form of international mobility?

Having in mind this research question, in the second study, through the employment of a quantitative research approach and based on the results from the first study, we aimed to develop some questions as demarcation criteria between the different types of international migrant workers. Consequently, if the Portuguese migrant workers proved to move abroad as SIEs, AEs and IWs, we aimed to compare them in terms of their demographics, motivations for moving abroad and cross-cultural adaptation.

Motivations for Moving Abroad

Individuals move abroad for a variety of reasons, often in combination. For example, the socio-economic push-pull model (Massey & Espinosa, 1997) has been widely used to illustrate this. More specifically, economic recessions are considered typical push factors, associated with the host country, that move people to find work abroad, while monetary incentives or accelerated career advancement are pull factors that attract people to move abroad to a specific host country. Push factors are usually associated with skilled/unskilled immigrants' motivations for moving abroad, while pull factors are more commonly related to expatriates' (SIEs and AEs) drives. One possible reason for this is the fact that for IWs "the necessity or the need to relocate to another country is a result of an individual decision or it is a compulsion arising from economic, political, religious circumstances prevailing in the country of their origin, e.g. unstable political situation, war, unemployment, natural disasters, persecution, etc." (Przytula, 2015, p. 104). In the case of expatriates (AEs and SIEs), the relocation to another country is not a compulsion, and it rather involves organizational, career and/or self-development motives, often considered to be pull factors.

More specifically, the prevailing motives for AEs have been associated with the opportunities for career progression, professional and personal development (Doherty & Dickmann, 2008; Inkson & Arthur, 2001; Miller & Cheng, 1978; Stahl & Cerdin, 2004; Stahl, Miller, & Tung, 2002; Suutari & Taka, 2004; Tung, 1998). It seems that AEs

place significantly more emphasis on career factors (e.g., job, skills, career impact) than SIEs, who attributed more value to location and host country reputation motives (Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011). This suggests that SIEs' primary drivers are focused on their desire to move to a particular country and the characteristics of that country. These types of personal drivers are supported by other studies (e.g., Myers & Pringle, 2005; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Richardson & McKenna, 2003) which also indicate that SIEs are guided by motives such as desire for adventure, travel and life change. According to Crowley-Henry (2010), SIEs' desire for life change is considered to be an agentic ability to improve one's lifestyle and quality of living, rather than a forced move for economic reasons, which is more associated with immigrants.

In sum, these studies have provided some important information about migrant workers' motivations for moving abroad, by focusing on one specific mobility group at a time. Therefore, different samples, host countries and nationalities were used, sometimes yielding to mixed results. The studies presented in this chapter were designed to shed further light on migrant workers' motivations, specifically those of Portuguese working in the UK. The following research question was explored in the first study. Based on the results obtained from it and the previously described ones available in the literature, we formulated some hypothesis (see methods study 2) and tested them in the second study.

Research Question 2: Why do Portuguese migrant workers move to the UK?

Cross-Cultural Adaptation

The terminology of 'cross-cultural adaptation', 'adjustment' and 'acculturation' have been used interchangeably in the literature, when referring to the process and outcomes resulting from individuals moving abroad to unfamiliar cultural environments (Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004). However, 'adjustment' is more typically applied to expatriates (SIEs and AEs), as they usually have to cope more with minor changes. Large-scale changes and major realignments (acculturation) are more commonly associated with immigrants. Additionally, acculturation is also used in the immigration literature, since it is argued that it refers to an individual's negotiation between the home and host culture. Due to the fact that expatriates are expected to spend a limited time in the host country, they are unlikely to acculturate (Haslberger, Brewster, & Hippler, 2014; Patterson, 2002). Using the terminology rather differently, Ali, Van der Zee and Sanders (2003) suggest that adaptation is the process of dealing

with cross-cultural transitions, while adjustment is its outcome. Since there is no consensus in the literature and due to the fact that in this study we are referring to three types of migrant workers, we choose to adopt the terminology of cross-cultural adaptation, considering it to be more inclusive and applicable to all participants.

Several studies have been aiming at determining who adapts better to the new cultural environments. By comparing SIEs with AEs, Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) demonstrate that SIEs tend to be better adapted than AEs, in terms of general and interaction adaptation. These are two facets of cross-cultural adaptation proposed by Black (1988), whose validity has been confirmed and commonly employed in several expatriate studies (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005). General adaptation refers to expatriates' degree of psychological comfort with regard to several aspects of the host country environment, such as climate, accommodation, food and health care; whereas interaction adaptation evaluates expatriates' efforts to establishing relationships with the locals. Besides this, Black (1988) proposed a third facet of cross-cultural adaptation which refers to work, i.e. how expatriates fit into the workplace, regarding different performance standards, expectations and work values. Concerning this facet, results were inconclusive, since some did not find any differences between SIEs' and AEs' work adaptation (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009), while others have reported SIEs as having lower job satisfaction than AEs (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011). It has been suggested that SIEs and AEs might face similar problems when adapting to the new cultural environment, but they use different strategies to resolve these problems (von Borell de Araujo, Teixeira, Cruz & Malini, 2014). More specifically, SIEs are less critical and more willing than AEs to emulate local behaviors for resolving problems.

Results from studies focused on either AEs or SIEs, indicate that SIEs in South Korea were relatively well adapted, but there were some factors which influenced their cross-cultural adaptation. For example, poor host-country language skills were perceived as an impediment mainly for general and interaction adaptation, since English seems to be sufficient for successful work adaptation in international working environments (Froese, 2012). Additionally, family and spouse adaptation influence general adaptation (Caligiuri, Hayland, Boss, & Joshi, 1998), as well as the length of stay (Black & Mendenhall, 1990) and intended length of stay abroad (Froese, 2012). SIEs and AEs whose family and spouse exhibited high levels of adaptation and were intending to stay abroad for short periods tended to be more satisfied in terms of general adaptation than those who stayed longer or intended to stay for longer periods.

Immigrants are expected to spend longer periods abroad than SIEs and AEs, having a more permanent relocation. Therefore, several studies suggest that they adapt better by integrating both the home and host culture into their behaviors and values (Berry, 2005; Ward, Fox, Wilson, Stuart, & Kus, 2010). In the studies presented in this chapter, we focus on how Portuguese migrant workers perceive their own cross-cultural adaptation.

Research Question 3: How do Portuguese migrant workers in the UK characterize their cross-cultural adaptation?

Study One

Methods

Participants

The participants in this study were 50 Portuguese migrant workers (50% females) whose time spent in the UK ranged from five to 27 months. Their ages ranged from 24 to 50 years old ($M=31.48$, $SD=5.63$) with half of the sample being emerging adults, *i.e.* aged under 30 years. The majority were single (74%) and 92% had college education, mostly at the level of a master's degree in domains such as IT, engineering, investment banking and health (e.g. nursing, pharmacology). In the UK, the majority (86%) had jobs relevant to their qualifications. Although diverse, the most frequent jobs were site manager, civil engineer, financial consultant and nurse. Those working outside their qualification area were senior care assistants and shop assistants. Participants without a higher education degree were working as waiters.

For 56% of the participants this was not the first time that they lived abroad. The majority had only moved to the UK (72%) and they were divided about how much more time they will spend there; 54% of the participants did not have a defined timeframe, while the rest stated that they were not willing to extend their time spent in the UK for more than five years (with the exception of one participant who mentioned retirement as the ultimate timeframe to spend in the UK). A brief summary of participants' main characteristics is given in the first two columns of Table 2.1.

Data Collection

By taking into account our study's objectives, we considered that in a first moment, a qualitative methodology would be the most adequate approach to adopt. We sent a disclosure letter, describing the study and asking the Portuguese citizens living and working in the UK since 2012 to share their migratory experience as interviewees. This letter was distributed among several migration related organizations, social networks, multinational corporations and emerging contacts from snowball sampling. Participants who were willing to participate in the study responded via the provided e-mail and a date was agreed for conducting the interview via Skype. Prior to conducting the interviews participants were asked to fill out two documents: 1) the informed consent, where we described the study and asked for participants' permission to audio

record the interview; and 2) the socio-demographic questionnaire composed of open-ended and closed-ended questions which helped us characterize the sample.

A semi-structured guide was used for the interviews. It was composed of three sections: 1) introduction of the interviewer, clarification of the study's objective and the interview process; 2) questions about the participants' motivations to move to the UK, how they moved and their cross-cultural adaptation; these questions were open-ended to allow participants to describe their migratory experience in their own words; and 3) allowing participants to add any other information. Interviews were conducted in Portuguese by the first author and lasted approximately 70 minutes.

Before conducting the interviews, the interview guide and the socio-demographic questionnaire and the informed consent form had been submitted to a two-phased validation process. In the first phase, three national and three international researchers with experience in investigating migration related issues using qualitative methodologies, examined them, providing feedback on whether the instruments were likely to enable the authors to achieve the study's aims. The main suggestions were related with the inclusion of some probing questions, but overall the feedback was extremely positive, which encouraged us to move to the second phase of the validation process.

In the second phase, we conducted a pilot study with four random potential participants, to test the questions' clarity and identify practical difficulties which could be resolved and anticipated in the study (Kim, 2010). We followed the recruitment procedure previously described, and four participants accepted the invitation to participate in the pilot study. They were interviewed individually and after answering all the questions in the interview guide, they were asked to provide feedback about questions' wording and clarity. Their feedback was positive and we proceeded with data collection, followed by data analysis.

Table 2.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of the total sample and its distribution among the three forms of international mobility

Variables	Study 1				Study 2			
	n (%)	Forms of international mobility			n (%)	Forms of international mobility		
		SIEs	AEs	IWs		SIEs	AEs	IWs
All	50	28	8	14	628	353	48	227
Age								
20-29	25 (50)	18	3	4	335 (53.3)	250	13	72
30-39	21 (42)	9	3	9	195 (31.1)	76	16	103
40 and older	4 (8)	1	2	1	98 (15.6)	27	19	52
Sex								
Men	25 (50)	14	7	4	311 (49.5)	164	47	100
Women	25 (50)	14	1	10	317 (50.5)	189	1	127
Marital status								
Single	37 (74)	22	4	11	394 (62.7)	236	24	134
Married	11 (22)	6	3	2	209 (33.3)	113	19	77
Divorced	2 (4)	0	1	1	22 (3.5)	4	5	13
Widowed	0 (0)	0	0	0	3 (0.5)	0	0	3
Annual income (euros)								
< 10 000	0 (0)	0	0	0	107 (17.0)	27	0	80
10 001- 30 000	18 (36)	8	0	10	230 (36.6)	129	0	101
30 001- 50 000	18 (36)	14	1	3	179 (28.5)	141	4	34
> 50 001	14 (28)	6	7	1	112 (17.8)	56	44	12
Educational background								
Middle school (6 th grade)	0 (0)	0	0	0	5 (0.8)	0	0	5
High school	4 (8)	0	0	4	120 (19.1)	0	0	120
Bachelor's degree	18 (36)	6	3	9	225 (35.8)	134	19	72
Master's degree	20 (40)	16	3	1	192 (30.6)	152	20	20
Postgraduate studies	4 (8)	2	2	0	43 (6.8)	24	9	10
Doctoral degree	4 (8)	4	0	0	43 (6.8)	43	0	0
Previous migratory experience								
Yes	28 (56)	12	4	12	190 (30.3)	122	14	54
No	22 (44)	16	4	2	438 (69.7)	231	34	173
Move abroad alone								
Yes	36 (72)	23	6	7	327 (52.1)	217	23	87
No	14 (28)	5	2	7	301 (47.9)	136	25	140
Time spent in the UK								
1 month - 12 months	8 (16)	6	1	1	59 (9.4)	48	0	11
13 months - 24 months	13 (26)	8	1	4	122 (19.4)	80	3	39
25 months - 36 months	29 (58)	14	6	9	207 (33.0)	117	16	74
> 37 months	0 (0)	0	0	0	240 (38.2)	108	29	103
Time planned to stay in the UK								
Undefined	26 (52)	14	0	12	171 (27.2)	35	0	136
Defined	24 (48)	14	8	2	457 (72.8)	318	48	91
< 1 year	0 (0)	0	0	0	9 (1)	9	0	0
1 year	1 (2)	1	0	0	51 (8.1)	34	14	3
2 years	10 (20)	5	3	2	62 (9.9)	47	6	9
3 years	4 (8)	1	3	0	32 (5.1)	18	10	4
4 years	3 (6)	1	2	0	46 (7.3)	28	18	0
5 years	5 (10)	5	0	0	132 (21.0)	127	0	5
>5 years	0 (0)	0	0	0	93 (14.8)	32	0	61
Until retirement	1 (2)	1	0	0	32 (5.1)	23	0	9

Note: SIEs = Self-Initiated Expatriates; AEs= Assigned Expatriates; IWs= Immigrant Workers

Data Analysis

Interviews were transcribed and submitted to a content analysis based on Schreier's (2014) proposed procedures. The software Atlas.ti 7 (Friese, 2015) was used in order to facilitate the coding process, which yielded the conceptual coding system presented in Tables 2.2 and 2.3.

The analysis process involved the semantic segmentation of the interviews into units of coding, *i.e.* relevant phrases or paragraphs. In total, 207 units of coding were identified. Then, these units of coding were grouped based on their degree of similarity into categories/subcategories and three main categories: ways of moving abroad, motives for moving abroad and cross-cultural adaptation. For each main category, the coding system was generated inductively and mutually exclusive categories/subcategories were formed. This means that one unit of coding belonged to one category/subcategory only.

In order to test for reliability of the conceptual category system, three independent coders were asked to validate the analysis. Each coder was responsible for one main category and had to distribute the units of coding among the categories/subcategories. For a better understanding of each category/subcategory, we provided a definition, which could give coders some clues regarding the units of coding that they should include in each one of them. This process yielded to very good reliability indices, above $k=0.92$, pointing out a high level of internal reliability.

Results

The findings are presented in three sections following the major aspects depicted in the research questions: forms of international mobility, motives for moving abroad, and cross-cultural adaptation.

Forms of International Mobility

By analyzing the data, we were able to identify that participants moved abroad as SIEs, AEs or IWs. SIEs found a job in the UK while in Portugal and searched for it on their own initiative, using different engines and programs. Six participants used LinkedIn, a familiar recruitment tool. Two participants applied to VidaEdu and INOV Contacto, *i.e.*, programs which offer educational and working experiences abroad for Portuguese citizens who completed a higher education degree and are willing to have an international experience (VidaEdu, 2016; INOV Contacto, 2016). Besides this, eighteen

participants used recruitment agencies and two used personal contacts who were already working in the UK. The following participant's discourse summarize this way of moving abroad:

"In my area it's very common to call upon recruitment agencies, because in the UK they need a lot of nurses. So, you can apply to these recruitment agencies, give them your CV and preferred areas where you would like to work and then they contact you when they have a proposal. But they also have a list of places where they are recruiting at the moment and you can apply if there is an interest, taking into account what they are offering." (SIE, Female, 29 years)

AEs were sent to the UK by their employer. Eight participants moved abroad because the company they worked for in Portugal requested one of its employees to move abroad to one of its branch offices located in the UK. One of these participants stated:

"My move abroad to the UK was possible because the company I worked for needed someone to represent Portugal in the UK. The company has different branch offices all over the world, and they usually indicate when it is necessary for one of the employees to be sent abroad." (AE, Male, 40 years)

While these two forms of international mobility involve finding a job and then moving abroad, the third one, referring to IWs, involves moving abroad first and finding a job afterwards. Participants contacted friends and/or family members living in the UK in order to guarantee that they would have temporary accommodation and/or the possibility of a job. Then they moved and started searching for work, as this participant summarized:

"I did not prepare myself for this move abroad. Basically, I just contacted my uncles since they have been living here for a relatively long time, and this gave me some kind of support and reassured me that I will see some familiar faces and I will have a place to stay, at least for some time until I start working. This took its time, with CVs handed in every single day and knocking at the doors of every restaurant, shop etc." (IW, Female, 37 years)

The last three columns in Table 2.1 characterize the Portuguese who moved to the UK as SIEs, AEs and IWs. There are different patterns among the three types of mobility workers. Specifically, SIEs are equally distributed among males and females, while AEs are predominantly male and IWs are predominantly female. Financially, Portuguese IWs are mostly the ones who report to gain the least (10001-30000 euros),

followed by SIEs (30001-50000) and then AEs (>50001). The IWs are the only group with some participants without a higher degree and, for those who have a higher degree, it is generally at the bachelor's level. In the other cases, masters level is the most frequent degree, with some doctoral level degrees present among SIEs. As previously mentioned, the majority of participants' (86%) jobs are within their training area. This applies mostly to SIEs and AEs, who have higher degrees and those who work in the area of their qualifications. For IWs with a higher degree, many (60%) work outside their qualification area, as does this female participant:

“In Portugal I worked as a social worker at an institution. Here, I am working as a senior care assistant, because I could not find work in my training area, as a social worker. Hopefully soon I will be able to find something; because that is the job I enjoy the most.” (IW, Female, 31 years)

Two IWs whose jobs are within their qualification area reveal a downgrading of their jobs when compared to the ones performed in Portugal:

“Here I am a pharmacy assistant trainee, but in Portugal I was a pharmacist, responsible for the management of the whole pharmacy. But here, I am just a trainee because they are organized in a different way and I still need to have my degree recognized here.” (IW, Female, 28 years).

All four IWs without a higher education degree work as waiters. In terms of previous international experience, many participants who moved abroad as SIEs do not have a previous migratory experience, while most participants in IWs group have some experience, and those in the AEs group are equally divided among those who do and do not. AEs tend to have defined timeframe for their stay in the UK, which range from two to four years, while most IWs are unsure about how much time they will spend there. The same can be said about half of the SIEs, while the remainder know exactly how much time they will spend in the UK.

Motives for Moving Abroad

Decisions to move abroad were mainly related to the labor market situation in Portugal and the desire to engage in an international experience. To a lesser extent, participants mentioned: successful previous international experience, reunification, improving their economic situation, the Portuguese mood and improving their English. Most participants mentioned more than one reason for moving abroad. We discuss each reason in turn.

Labor Market Situation in Portugal. For 39 of the 50 participants, their professional situation in Portugal was the main reason for moving abroad. More specifically, participants highlighted two different scenarios. Seven participants emigrated because they were unemployed in Portugal and it was starting to become an unbearable situation, as evidenced in this quotation:

“My husband and I were unemployed. Unfortunately, as soon as I got pregnant and I informed my employer they sent me away. Besides this, things were not going very well in the company my husband was working for and he was also fired. So, having one child and another one on the way, being both of us unemployed was very difficult to handle in Portugal and we decided to look for other opportunities abroad.” (IW, Female, 33 years)

The second scenario refers to 32 participants who mentioned that although employed, they moved abroad due to dissatisfaction with their professional life. One reason was that participants did not find the work challenging enough and did not allow them to make any progress in their career. In the words of one participant:

“For 10 years I worked at an institution and during this time, I completed two bachelor’s degrees, two post graduate studies and I did not make any progress in my career, having to perform the same exact tasks. Although the institution had a lot of money, they would not value my competences or propose an increase in my salary. Their excuses were ridiculous and I actually started to be depressed and not enjoying my job.” (IW, Female, 31 years)

Other reasons related to the negative working conditions are precariousness, unfair remuneration and long working hours which did not enable them to enjoy any free time. The following quotations depict this:

“What motivated me to move abroad was the professional instability in Portugal. We can have contracts during 6 months, one year, but in most cases, these are temporary contracts arranged for maternity leave substitution and we are never in a safe and stable position.” (SIE, Female, 28 years)

“I did not move abroad because I was unemployed. I had a job, but in order to gain a fair salary, I had to work in two different places. This was very hard because I would work 60 to 70 hours every single week and afterwards I would be very tired and not able to enjoy any time with my friends and family. So, being tired and having to work so much in order to have a fair salary was one of the main reasons that motivated me to move abroad.” (SIE, Female, 29 years)

Another reason that portrays participants' dissatisfaction with the working conditions was lack of hope in a better future in Portugal:

"The other reason ... was the constant uncertainty of what was coming next. It seemed like there would not be any chance of things improving and I would not say that I was depressed but I guess I was living in a bubble and no matter how hard I would work, how much effort I would put into the performed tasks, I would not be able to follow the path that would guarantee the future I wished for my wife and I." (AE, Male, 32 years)

International Experience. Thirty-five participants explained their emigration decision as a desire to obtain an international experience. Twenty of them related this desire to their professional life while the remaining fifteen linked it with their personal life.

In terms of the professional life international experience, participants were willing to have new responsibilities enabling career progression and/or to work in areas which are more developed than in Portugal.

"One of the reasons for moving abroad was the desire to have access to working opportunities that involve more responsibilities, especially in my area, that is finance. Also, the best companies in this area are here in London. So, I wanted to have access to more opportunities and better ones than those available in Portugal." (AE, Male, 27 years)

Regarding the personal life international experience, participants mentioned that they were interested in getting to know and being in contact with other cultures, speaking a different language and experiencing living in a different environment.

"I always wanted to have an international experience, knowing how life is outside of Portugal, how can I adapt to other places, cities, people and languages." (SIE, Female, 29 years)

Successful Previous International Experience. There were four participants who cited their successful experience of living abroad as an important motivational factor for initiating their present migratory experience. The following quote summarizes the views of this group of participants:

"As part of the Erasmus program I had the opportunity to live abroad in Spain. Since I really enjoyed this experience, I always wanted to engage in a new one, living and working outside of Portugal." (SIE, Female, 29 years)

Reunification. Three out of 50 participants mentioned that they moved abroad because of their partner, who was living and working in the UK or found a job that would require moving to the UK. Therefore, two participants moved after their partner initiated his international experience, while one participant moved at the same time as his partner. In these cases, the main objective for moving abroad was reunification, to be together.

“She found a job in her area as a nurse, and I came with her and found my job afterwards. So, we came here because of her, because she found a job and we wanted to be together.” (IW, Male, 29 years)

Improve Economic Situation. Three participants highlighted that their motivational driver for moving abroad was related with their desire to make more money and improve their current economic situation:

“My main motivation for moving abroad was basically economic. I wanted to gain more and improve my financial situation.” (IW, Male, 31 years)

Portuguese Mood. There were two participants who mentioned that the Portuguese way of thinking and living encouraged them to move abroad:

“Also, the economic attitude of the country, not in terms of the salary, but the mood, the way people were living always defeatist, having a pessimist view and not encouraging my ideas, made me leave Portugal and start doing new things abroad.” (SIE, Female, 29 years)

Improve English Speaking Skills. Two participants considered that they could learn how to speak better English by living in the UK; hence this was one of the motivational drives for moving abroad:

“I completed my master’s degree in February and I wanted to find a job. ... I knew that in the future I would want to have an international career and one of the obstacles in achieving that would be my difficulties with the English language. So I had to solve this problem and improve my English; hence I decided that the best way is to live in a country where English is the official language, so I chose the UK.” (SIE, Male, 24 years)

A breakdown of all these reasons among the three types of moving abroad is provided in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Motives for moving abroad and their distribution among the three forms of international mobility

Motives for moving abroad	n	Forms of international mobility			Examples of units of coding
		SIEs	AEs	IWs	
Labor market situation in Portugal	39	24	2	13	
Unemployment	7	4	0	3	My husband and I were unemployed. Unfortunately, as soon as I got pregnant and I informed my employer they sent me away. Besides this, things were not going very well in the company my husband was working for and he was also fired. So, having one child and another one on the way, being both of us unemployed was very difficult to handle in Portugal and we decided to look for other opportunities abroad. (IW, F, 33 years)
Unchallenging tasks	8	6	1	1	For several years I had to perform the same exact tasks. Although the institution had a lot of money, they would not value my competences or propose an increase in my salary. Their excuses were ridiculous and I actually started to be depressed and not enjoying my job. (IW, F, 31 years)
Difficult career progression	5	3	1	1	For 10 years I worked at an institution and during this time, I completed two bachelor's degrees, two post graduate studies and I did not make any progress in my career. (SIE, F, 28 years)
Precariousness	5	2	0	3	What motivated me to move abroad was the professional instability in Portugal. We can have contracts during 6 months, one year, but in most cases, these are temporary contracts arranged for maternity leave substitution and we are never in a safe and stable position. (SIE, F, 28 years)
Unfair remuneration	5	5	0	0	I did not move abroad because I was unemployed. I had a job, but to gain a fair salary, I had to work in two different places. (SIE, F, 29 years)
Long working hours	5	3	0	2	I would work 60/70 hours every week and afterwards I would be very tired and not able to enjoy any time with my friends and family. So, being tired and having to work so much in order to have a fair salary was one of the main reasons that motivated me to move abroad." (SIE, F, 29 years)
Lack of hope in a better future	4	1	0	3	The other reason ... was the constant uncertainty of what was coming next. It seemed like there would not be any chance of things improving and I would not say that I was depressed but I guess I was living in a bubble and no matter how hard I would work, how much effort I would put into the performed tasks, I would not be able to follow the path that would guarantee the future I wished for my wife and I. (IW, Male, 32 years)
International experience	35	19	11	5	
Professional	20	12	8	0	One of the reasons for moving abroad was the desire to have access to working opportunities that involve more responsibilities, especially in my area, that is finance. Also, the best companies in this area are here in London. So, I wanted to have access to more opportunities and better ones that those available in Portugal. (AE, M, 27 years)
Personal	15	7	3	5	I always wanted to have an international experience, knowing how life is outside of Portugal, how can I adapt to other places, cities, people and languages. (SIE, F, 29 years)
Successful previous international experience	4	3	1	0	As part of the Erasmus program I had the opportunity to live abroad in Spain. Since I really enjoyed this experience, I always wanted to engage in a new one, living and working outside of Portugal. (SIE, F, 29 years)
Reunification	3	0	0	3	She found a job in her area as a nurse, and I came with her and found my job afterwards. So, we came here because of her, because she found a job and we wanted to be together. (IW, M, 29 years)
Improve economic situation	3	0	0	3	My main motivation for moving abroad was basically economic. I wanted to gain more and improve my financial situation. (IW, M, 31 years)
Portuguese mood	2	0	1	1	Also, the economic attitude of the country, not in terms of the salary, but the mood, the way people were living always defeatist, having a pessimist view and not encouraging my ideas, made me leave Portugal and start doing new things abroad. (IW, F, 29 years)
Improve English speaking skills	2	2	0	0	I completed my master's degree in February and I wanted to find a job. ... I knew that in the future I would want to have an international career and one of the obstacles in achieving that would be my difficulties with the English language. So I had to solve this problem and improve my English; hence I decided that the best way is to live in a country where English is the official language, so I chose the UK. (SIE, M, 24 years)

Note: SIEs = Self-Initiated Expatriates; AEs= Assigned Expatriates; IWs= Immigrant Workers

Regarding the motivational driver focused on the labor market situation in Portugal, unemployment motivated only (but not all) participants who moved abroad as SIEs and IWs. Other participants in the SIEs group moved abroad mostly because they are dissatisfied with their working conditions, since their work was unchallenging and did not enable career progression, the remuneration was unfair and working hours were too long. On the other hand, participants in the IWs groups seem to move abroad mostly because of their precarious working conditions and lack of hope in a better future. The desire to obtain international professional experience is only mentioned by the participants who moved abroad as expatriates (SIEs and AEs). However, the desire to acquire international personal experience is a motivational driver transversal to all three types of moves. Besides this, there are two other motives for moving abroad mentioned only by participants in IWs group: reunification and improving their economic situation.

Cross-Cultural Adaptation

Participants' responses were mixed regarding their cross-cultural adaptation. Overall, most participants reported having had an easy adaptation to the general (e.g., food, climate) and work environment (e.g., knowing one's role and job-related activities) in the UK. However, there were some participants who perceived their cross-cultural adaptation as difficult, mainly during the first couple of months in the UK: they had problems with some general aspects (e.g., climate) and the interaction with host country nationals, due to their unfamiliar social behaviors, the pre-formed groups and the use of different expressions/references. Regardless of how participants perceived their cross-cultural adaptation, as easy and/or difficult (participants' own words), they indicated reasons for that.

Easy Cross-Cultural Adaptation. Twenty-eight participants considered that their adaption was easy and they pointed out at least one reason for this happening. One of the most mentioned reasons for an easy adaptation was their **identification with the British culture**. Participants appreciated and identified with several cultural aspects in the host country and this helped them feel integrated and well adapted.

“My adaptation was easy because I identify a lot with the British culture (...) I feel very comfortable here, and I think that the politics and the society as a whole is targeted at people and in their favor. I like living here; there is a lot of help for younger citizens, benefits for young couples who wish to have children. I identify a lot, much

more than with the Portuguese culture and sometimes I find myself thinking about maybe going back to Portugal and this might sound utopic, but I would love to implement this culture there, to change many things.” (SIE, Male, 29 years)

Another reason for participants’ easy adaptation was the **accommodation**. Being away from home, participants valued having a comfortable place they could eventually call home:

“What really helped my adaptation was the place where I live, my home. Most people my age usually rent a room, where they live with other people, because rents are very expensive. It is nice to live with other people, because you get to know other cultures, but after a certain time, it is uncomfortable and tiring. So, I decided to rent an apartment with a Portuguese who I met here. We get along very well, and although we live far away from the center, and pay a higher rent, it is a place we can call home and feel comfortable after a day working and being far away from Portugal.” (SIE, Female, 32 years)

In addition, five participants highlighted that **agency**, or one’s free will to move abroad also helped their adaptation. This is mainly due to the fact that participants wished for this international experience.

“My adaptation was easy and what actually helped me to adapt better was the fact that I was not forced to leave Portugal. I was not unemployed, I could have stayed in Portugal, but I really wanted to have this international experience. So, since moving to the UK was a choice that I made, an option, it was easier for me to adapt.” (SIE, Female, 37 years)

Four participants referred to their **social network** as an important facilitator of their cross-cultural adaptation. More specifically, participants mentioned that before moving to the UK, some of their Portuguese friends were living there and through them they were able to meet others in the same situation, counting on their help and support. Also, three participants mentioned that their adaptation was easy due to partner’s support, already living in the UK.

“My adaptation was easy because my boyfriend was already living here. So he already took care of finding a place for us to live, he knew where we had to go shopping and he had friends that helped him when we arrived.” (IW, Female 34 years)

At the same time, their **successful previous international experience** was also considered, by three participants, to be a factor which facilitated the adaptation, since they had an idea of how life abroad was and the obstacles they had to overcome.

“Since I had the experience of studying here for one year and then working in France, I had an idea of the most important challenges associated with living abroad and I was able to easily overcome them; hence having a very easy adaptation.” (AE, Male, 40 years)

A few participants highlighted other factors, such as the **physical and cultural closeness between Portugal and the UK**:

“The UK is not that far from Portugal, so I can easily be there in two, maximum three hours. It is like being in Lisbon and visiting my relatives in Porto. They are pretty close on the map and culturally similar; hence this made me adapt better.” (AE, Male, 50 years)

In addition, the **support received from the extended family** that remained in Portugal was also considered to facilitate adaptation. For two participants it made them feel comfortable and at peace with their decision to moving abroad.

“Since my parents seconded my decision of moving to the UK, it helped my adaptation, because they not always saying that I should not have moved abroad, that I should be with them, etc. Having their support, knowing that they miss me, but they agree with my decision, it seems that we are on the same boat, rowing in the same direction: my happiness. And if I am happy they are also happy and I know that I can count on them.” (SIE, Female, 28 years)

Also, the **presence of a Portuguese community in the UK**, ‘Little Portugal’, was acknowledged by one participant as a facilitator to his adaptation: *“My adaptation was easy because I was lucky to live close to an area called little Portugal where there are lots of Portuguese living, who can help us.”* (AE, Male, 40 years)

Besides mentioning that the adaptation was easy in terms of these more general aspects (e.g., finding accommodation), seven participants revealed that their adaptation was also easy in terms of **work**. Being well prepared in terms of the academic background and working in a multicultural environment helped participants’ adaptation to the work environment.

“The adaptation to work was easy because I realized that I was very well prepared in terms of my academic background. Even more prepared than some of my colleagues who finished their studies here.” (SIE, Male, 34 years)

“I did not feel that I was a migrant and I was never treated like one at work, because the company is multicultural with offices all over the world. So, this

multicultural environment where I did not feel different than the other colleagues helped me adapt at work.” (AE, Male, 33 years)

They felt that they were recognized and valued in terms of their performance, being promoted or rewarded appropriately. Also, participants noted that a common practice in the UK was job turnover. In other words, if they were not satisfied with the current job, it is easy for them to find another job which would fulfill them better.

“What helped my adaptation at work was the feeling that I was appreciated and recognized for my work. Three months after I arrived here, they promoted me and this is very common because if they do not value the employees, they are aware that around the corner there might be another company that is interested. So, an unsatisfied employee can easily change his/her job.” (SIE, Female 29 years)

Difficult Cross-Cultural Adaptation. Although the majority of participants mentioned that their adaptation was easy, for six of them the first six months, right after moving to the UK, were not. In addition, another sixteen participants mentioned that it took some time, until they got used to their new life in the UK, and they identified at least one factor that made adaptation difficult.

Six participants mentioned that the **process of searching for a house was a very stressful experience**. This is mainly associated with the UK’s unique housing rental system: there are plenty of houses available and the number of individuals interested in renting is also very high. Several online platforms are designed to accommodate the housing rental process. However, participants reveal that the posted information does not always correspond to reality. At the same time the rental price is very high for the quality it offers and in order to rent a house or an apartment, one is required to deposit a large sum up-front. In addition, landlords often ask for references, complicating the renting process for an individual who has recently arrived in the UK. Bearing this in mind, participants revealed that they either rent a room or move away from the city center.

Another factor which made adaptation difficult was mentioned by six participants and it refers to the **climate**. Participants considered that the UK’s climate is different from the one in Portugal, which lead to some participants experiencing climate shock. One participant explained that he left Portugal when it was sunny and warm and experienced completely the opposite when he arrived in the UK. Another participant indicated that he was not prepared for the UK winter and had to buy winter clothes. The rainy days were challenging for two participants and the limited amount of daylight

during winter days was commonly pointed out. One participant even revealed that the doctor's diagnose for her migraine was lack of sun (vitamin D).

Due to the fact that Portuguese people appreciate their own **food**, participants found it difficult to adapt to the food habits and dishes encountered in the UK. Four participants mentioned the fact that in the supermarkets there is a significant section dedicated to pre-made/fast food, while the fruits, vegetables and fish section is limited and expensive. As a consequence, one participant believed that she had some health problems. The strategy used by most participants was to buy ingredients from the Portuguese stores and import food from Portugal, as a complement to the available food in the UK.

Four participants complained that the interaction with the locals had negatively affected their adaptation:

“In terms of the interaction with the British, my adaptation was very difficult, because groups are already formed and you are an outsider, with different references and using different expressions than them.” (SIE, Male, 28 years)

This citation points out two reasons, i.e. pre-existing groups and the use of different expressions/references, which did not facilitate the interaction with the locals. Participants mentioned that the place where they interacted the most with the locals was at work. Nonetheless, they considered this interaction to be difficult due to the age difference:

“I think that having older colleagues at work does not help. It is at work where you spend most of your time, and it is the first place where you meet people who are supposed to introduce you to new aspects in the host country. And if you do not have anyone who is willing to do that, because they have their families and friends, and do not identify with you, then you are not going to adapt (...) but they can help you adapt at work, if they are willing to help. Since they are older, they might know more of certain things.” (SIE, Female, 25 years)

At the same, another reason for this difficult interaction was the British unfamiliar social behavior. For instance, the British were described as being very polite, saying “hi” and asking “how are you”, but most of the times not expecting a response. Therefore, participants considered that they are not genuine, and either at work or outside of work they preferred to socialize more with other Portuguese or Southern European countries' citizens (e.g., Greece, Italy, and Spain) who are in the same situation as them in the UK and whom they can count on for any help they may need.

However, they were aware that this interaction could limit their adaptation in some way, because through the interaction with the locals they could learn more about the culture:

“I consider that having only Portuguese friends, maybe because of the language, makes the adaptation more difficult. More difficult because you are not learning about the host country’s culture, as you could learn by interacting with the British.” (SIE, Male, 27 years)

Four participants indicated that their adaptation was also difficult during their first months in the UK, because they were not fluent in English or those who were fluent had some difficulties in understanding the British accent and being understood.

Table 2.3 provides an overview of participants’ cross-cultural adaptation distributed among the three ways of moving abroad. It shows that participants who considered that their adaptation was easy are distributed among the three types of moves abroad. More specifically, SIEs considered that their adaptation was easy mostly because they: 1) identify with some aspects of the British culture; 2) wished to move to the UK (agency); 3) are supported by friends who are in the same situation as them; and 4) are satisfied with their job, since it was easy to adapt and they are valued for their performance. Participants in the AEs group also mentioned this work-related aspect as a facilitator of their cross-cultural adaptation, along with accommodation. At the same time, accommodation was important for IWs. Also important was their partner’s support.

Participants who described their cross-cultural adaptation as a difficult one, were mostly those who moved abroad as SIEs and IWs. On one hand, SIEs referred to the process of finding decent accommodation as the main reason for difficult cross-cultural adaptation, along with the challenging interaction with the locals. On the other hand, IWs denoted that their cross-cultural adaptation was difficult mainly due to the lack of language fluency.

Linking Cross-Cultural Adaptation, Motives and Ways of Moving Abroad

Several potential linkages emerged between the motivation factors, cross-cultural adaptation and ways of moving abroad. Overall, adaptation varied according to the length of stay and the intended length of stay. More specifically, those (SIEs and IWs) who did not have a defined timeframe for time in the UK were the ones who

Table 2.3. Participants' cross-cultural adaptation and correspondent distribution among the three forms of international mobility

Cross-cultural adaptation	n	Forms of international mobility			Examples of units of coding
		SIEs	AEs	IWs	
Easy					
Identification with British culture	10	8	1	1	My adaptation was easy because I identify a lot with the British culture (...) I feel very comfortable here, and I think that the politics and the society as a whole is targeted at people and in their favor. I like living here (...) I identify a lot, more than with the Portuguese culture and sometimes I think about maybe going back to Portugal and (...) I would love to implement this culture there (...) (SIE, M, 29 years)
Accommodation	7	1	3	3	What really helped my adaptation was the place where I live, my home. Most people my age usually rent a room, where they live with other people, because rents are very expensive. It is nice to live with other people, because you get to know other cultures, but after a certain time, it is uncomfortable and tiring. So, I decided to rent an apartment with a Portuguese who I met here (...) it is a place we can call home and feel comfortable (...) being far away from Portugal. (SIE, F, 32 years)
Work	7	3	3	1	I did not feel that I was a migrant and I was never treated like one at work, because the company is multicultural with offices all over the world. So this multicultural environment where I did not feel different than the other colleagues helped me adapt at work. (AE, M, 33 years)
Agency	5	3	1	1	My adaptation was easy and what actually helped me to adapt better was the fact that I was not forced to leave Portugal. I was not unemployed. I could have stayed in Portugal, but I really wanted to have this international experience. So, since moving to the UK was a choice that I made, an option, it was easier for me to adapt. (SIE, F, 37 years)
Social network	4	3	0	1	My adaptation was easy because as soon as I got here, my friends welcomed me and helped me with everything I needed and introduced me to their friends and so I had the chance to meet other people. (SIE, F, 27 years)
Successful previous international experience	3	2	1	0	Since I had the experience of studying here for one year and then working in France, I had an idea of the most important challenges associated with living abroad and I was able to easily overcome them; hence having a very easy adaptation. (AE, M, 40 years)
Partner's support	3	0	0	3	My adaptation was easy because my boyfriend was already living here. So he already took care of finding a place for us to live, he knew where we had to go shopping and he had friends that helped him when we arrived. (IW, F, 34 years)
Physical and cultural distance between Portugal and UK	2	1	1	0	The UK is not that far from Portugal, so I can easily be there in two, maximum three hours. It is like being in Lisbon and visiting my relatives in Porto. They are pretty close on the map and culturally similar; hence this made me adapt better. (AE, M, 50 years)
Family support	2	1	0	1	Since my parents seconded my decision of moving to the UK, it helped my adaptation, because they are not always saying that I should not have moved abroad, that I should be with them, etc. (...) I have their support and I know I can count on them. (SIE, F, 28 years)
Presence of Portuguese community in the UK	1	0	1	0	My adaptation was easy because I was lucky to live close to an area called little Portugal where there are lots of Portuguese living, who can help us. (AE, M, 40 years)
Difficult					
Accommodation	6	6	0	0	My adaptation was difficult because I could not find a decent place to live. Here, it is extremely hard to find a comfortable place to call home, and my quality of life in that aspect decreased, making my adaptation difficult. (SIE, F, 29 years)
Climate	6	2	2	2	When I arrived here, it was extremely cold and I did not have clothes for that weather. I left Portugal on a sunny day and got here to that horrible weather. This weather hampered my adaptation, because I remember complaining a lot in the beginning. (AE, M, 42 years)
Food	4	2	0	2	My adaptation was very hard in terms of the available pre-made and not fresh food. (SIE, F, 27 years)
Interaction with locals	4	3	1	0	In terms of the interaction with the British, my adaptation was very difficult, because groups are already formed and you are an outsider, with different references and using different expressions than them. (SIE, M, 28 years)
Language fluency	4	1	0	3	It was very hard to adapt since I could not speak English, and body language was not always enough. (IW, F, 31 years)

Note: There were eight participants who mentioned more than one reason for having had an easy adaptation; six participants characterized their adaptation as easy and difficult. SIEs= Self-Initiated Expatriates; AEs= Assigned Expatriates; IWs= Immigrant Workers

identified the most factors that made their adaptation difficult, along with the ones who have been in the UK for a short period of time. Note that only four SIEs and two IWs found their first six months difficult.

SIEs who moved abroad to obtain international experience, wanted to interact with the locals, but they were not very successful. Nonetheless, many of these participants identified with the British culture and were willing to act like the locals. This applies mostly to those participants who do not have a defined timeframe in the UK.

AEs who moved abroad with the desire to acquire a professional international experience had an easy adaptation to work. Additionally, SIEs who emphasized their dissatisfaction with the labor market situation in Portugal, due to unchallenging tasks, unfair remuneration and difficult career progression, tended to characterize their adaptation as an easy one in terms of work. They explained that their professional life in the UK is everything they wanted but did not have in Portugal: they found they were valued for their performance (e.g., promotion or other type of reward) and if they were not satisfied with the current job, it was easy to get another one.

IWs who were motivated by reunification, characterized their adaptation as easy, due to their partner's support.

Study Two

Methods

Participants

This study began with a total of 749 participants, but data from 121 participants were excluded because some did not meet the inclusion criteria ($n=15$) or they did not complete the whole questionnaire ($n=106$). The final sample included 628 Portuguese migrant workers in the UK since 2012. A brief summary of their main socio-demographic characteristics is provided in the sixth column of Table 2.1.

Participants were almost evenly split in terms of sex (49.5% men and 50.5% women), and the time spent in the UK ranged from one month to 66 months ($M=34.60$, $SD=15.67$). The time spent in the UK was significantly higher for men ($M=36.99$, $SD=14.34$.) than for women ($M=32.25$, $SD=16.55$), $t(626)=3.83$, $p < .001$.

Participants' ages ranged from 20 to 59 years old ($M=32.33$, $SD=7.31$), with male participants ($M=33.05$, $SD=7.23$) being significantly older than female participants ($M=31.63$, $SD=7.34$), $t(625.98)=2.44$, $p = .015$. In addition, more than half of sample was composed by emerging adults, *i.e.* aged less than 30 years. The majority of participants were single (62.7%) and had college education (80%) mostly at the level of bachelor's (35.8%) and master's degree (30.6%) in domains similar to the ones mentioned in Study 1. A great majority of participants (63.85%) was working in domains relevant to their qualifications, having very diverse jobs (e.g. financial consultant, nurse, civil engineer).

For almost 70 percent of participants, this was their first migratory experience and 52.1% moved to the UK unaccompanied. The most frequent cities where these participants revealed to reside are London (51.9%), Cambridge (4.5%) and Oxford (2.7%). Most participants (72.8%) had a defined time frame that they were planning to stay in the UK, which ranges from less than one year (1%) to participants' age of retirement (5.1%). Nonetheless, staying in the UK for five more years seems to be the most frequent option chosen by 21% of the participants.

Instrument

The questionnaire used in this study was developed with the aim of complementing the results encountered in Study 1. Therefore, some questions were developed by the authors of this chapter while others were based on the pre-existing ones in the literature.

Three main sections composed the questionnaire. The first section comprised questions which were useful to characterize the sample, verify if the participants met the

inclusion criteria and determine the forms of international mobility chosen by the Portuguese migrant workers while moving to the UK. The demographic characterization questions included the following: age, sex, marital status, annual gross income, educational background, previous migratory experience, time spent in the UK and name of the city where they reside. The following four main questions were used for checking the inclusion criteria: 1) In what country were you born? 2) What is your nationality? 3) In what year did you move to the UK? and 4) What is your professional activity in UK? All participants who were over 18, born in Portugal, holding a Portuguese nationality, having moved to the UK since 2012 and currently working there, were considered to meet the inclusion criteria. Nine close ended questions were used to determine the forms of international mobility chosen by the Portuguese migrant workers while moving to the UK. One question explored participants' intended time to spend in the UK (e.g. When you left Portugal, did you define how much time you intended to stay in the UK?). Two questions focused on participants' repatriation intentions (e.g. What are your plans for the future?). Four questions explored work related aspects (e.g. After arriving in the UK, for how long did you search for a job?) and two other questions looked at the participants' (non)existent support while moving to the UK (e.g. Please mention if you had any of the following types of support and from whom: information about UK, financing of the trip, finding accommodation and finding a job). These questions were based on a compilation of the screening criteria used in other studies (e.g. Cerdin & Selmer, 2014) and the results from Study 1. Table 2.4 illustrates the answers expected for each form of international mobility.

The second section of the questionnaire included questions aimed to identify Portuguese migrant workers' motivations in moving to the UK. In order to assess this, we researched the literature to determine the existent scales used to measure participants motivations for moving abroad (see Appendix B). Then, we compared the existent scales with the results of Study 1. We considered that the items of the existent scales were not totally applicable to our sample; hence we decided to develop ten items reflecting the motivational categories identified in Study 1. Participants were asked to use a five-point Likert scale (1- Totally disagree to 5- Totally Agree) and indicate the extent to which they agree with each one of the reasons (e.g. I was unemployed) stated for leaving Portugal and moving to the UK.

The third section of the questionnaire contained questions focused on determining participants' level of cross-cultural adaptation. In order to do this, we followed the procedure commonly used in the literature, which assesses participants' sociocultural and psychological

adaptation. Therefore, two scales were used: the Sociocultural Adaptation Scale (SCAS) and the Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale (BPAS).

The SCAS assesses the degree of difficulty participants encounter in daily social situation as a result of cultural differences (Ward & Kennedy, 1999; Wilson, Ward, & Fisher, 2013). Twenty items inquire about the difficulty participants experience in situations such as “making friends” and “adapting to local accommodation”. Participants used a five-point Likert scale (1- No difficulty to 5- Extreme difficulty) to indicate the amount of difficulty experienced in each one of the 20 situations. Using this scale, higher scores represent a lower level of cross-cultural adaptation, but following the advice from previous studies that used this scale, we inverted the scale when constructing the composite variable, so higher values would represent a higher level of cross-cultural adaptation. These previous studies that used the scale reported internal consistency reliability coefficients above .80 (Ward & Kennedy, 1999; Wilson et al., 2013; Neto, 2014). A Portuguese version of this scale was used by Neto (2014) and we adopted it.

Table 2.4 Demarcation criteria between the three forms of international mobility

		SIEs	AEs	IWs
Intended length of time abroad	When you left Portugal, did you define how much time you intended to stay in the UK?	+ temporary + yes	+ temporary +yes	+ permanent +no
	What are your plans for the future			
	a) Stay in the UK	+ b)	+ b)	+ a)
	b) Stay in the UK during some time and then return to Portugal			
	c) Move to another country	+definite/indefinite	+ definite	+ indefinite
Repatriation intentions	For how long do you plan to stay in the UK?			
	a) 1 year			
	b) 2 years			
	c) 3 years	+ a) to e)	+ a) to e)	+ e)
	d) 4 years			
	e) 5 years			
	f) More than 5 years			
	After arriving in the UK, for how long did you search for a job?			
	a) I came to the UK with a job proposal			
	b) Less than 1 month	+ a)	+ a)	+ b) to e)
	c) 1 to 6 months			
	d) 7 to 12 months			
	e) More than a year			
Work	How did you obtain your first and current job?			
	a) Responding to several job announcements			
	b) Through a recruitment agency in Portugal			
	c) Through a recruitment agency in the UK	+ a), b), c)	+ e)	+ a) and d)
	d) Through friends/family members living in the UK			
	e) Being transferred by the organization I worked in Portugal			
	Do you consider that your job is within your academic qualifications?	+ yes	+ yes	+ no
	Please mention your:			
	Last job in Portugal	Similar	Similar	Different
	First job in the UK	(progression)	(progression)	
	Current job in the UK			
Support	Before you left Portugal, please mention if you had any of the following types of contact in the UK?			
	a) Family			
	b) Organizational			
	c) Portuguese co-workers	+ e), f)	+ b), c)/d)	+ a), e)
	d) British co-workers			
	e) Friends			
	f) Recruitment agency			
	Please mention if you received the following types of support and from whom:			
	Information about UK			
	Financing of the trip	No support	Employer	No support
	Finding accommodation		Employer	
	Finding a job		Employer	

In addition, since this study focuses on migrant workers, we included four items about work adaptation present in the Revised Sociocultural Adaptation Scale (SCAS-R; Wilson et al., 2013). Using the previously mentioned scale, participants indicated the difficulty experienced while “managing work responsibilities”, “working effectively with other work colleagues”, “expressing ideas to other work colleagues in a culturally appropriate manner” and “gaining feedback from other work colleagues to help improve one’s own performance.” Since these items were not available in Portuguese and adapted to the Portuguese population, we submitted them to a cross-cultural adaptation process proposed by Guillemin, Bombardier and Beaton (1993). First, a forward (English to Portuguese) translation was proposed individually by two bilingual researchers familiar with the research concepts. Then, a third bilingual researcher reviewed the few minor discrepancies between the two proposed translations and analyzed the back translation (Portuguese to English) of each item, proposed by a fourth bilingual researcher.

The BPAS assesses the psychological adaptation to a new (host) country, after engaging in a form of international mobility (Demes & Geeraert, 2014). It was developed based on the Culture Shock Questionnaire (Mumford, 1998) and the 10th revision of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems (ICD10; World Health Organization, 1992). In total BPAS contains eight items focused on positive and negative feelings related to the home and host country. In this study, home country was replaced with Portugal and host country was replaced with UK. Specifically, participants were asked to think about living in UK, and they had to focus on the last two weeks, identifying how often they felt a range of positive (e.g. excited about being in the UK) and negative feelings (e.g. sad to be away from Portugal) using a seven-point Likert scale (1-Never to 7-Always). The items assessing negative feelings were reversed; hence higher scores represent a higher level of psychological adaptation. In this study, we used the Portuguese version of BPAS, proposed by Demes and Geeraert (2014) as having internal consistency reliability coefficient of .80.

Procedure

Data Collection. After deciding the questionnaire’s content, we used Qualtrics, a software platform, for the elaboration of an online questionnaire. Then, we generated a reusable link that can be pasted into emails or onto a website and is unable to track

identifying information of respondents (Snow, 2011). We distributed this link with a disclosure message among the migration related organizations, social networks and multinational corporations used in Study 1. In addition, we emailed the participants of Study 1 and asked them to fill in the survey and distribute it among other potential participants. Therefore, a convenience sampling, recruited through snowball sampling was used in this cross-sectional study. According to Lonner and Berry (1986), a sample of convenience is useful to be used in cross-cultural research, when the researcher does not have access to an accurate list of the entire population, i.e. Portuguese migrant workers in the UK.

Participants, who were willing to participate in this study, clicked on the questionnaire's link and read the introductory message, which presented them with the aim of the study, inclusion criteria for participation, reassurance of data anonymization and voluntary participation. Researchers' emails were provided for any additional doubts and/or clarifications. By proceeding to the next page, participants manifested their interest in filling in the questionnaire based on the presented conditions. Completion of the questionnaire required approximately 20 minutes and it was accessible from December 2016 to April 2017.

Before collecting the data, during one week in November 2016, we conducted a pilot study with twelve random potential participants to: 1) test the adequacy and feasibility of the questionnaire; 2) assess the effectiveness of the recruitment and sampling approach; and 3) identify any logistical problems (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). We followed the procedure previously described and twelve participants filled in the questionnaire. After completing it, participants were asked to provide feedback about the questionnaire's structure and content. Overall their feedback was positive, suggesting some minor changes regarding some typos and duplications of items. Having this in mind, we considered that the questionnaire was feasible and adequate to reach the study's aim. In addition, since we did not encounter any issues, we classified the recruitment and sampling approach as effective. There weren't any logistical problems; hence we proceeded with the data collection, followed by data analysis.

Data Analysis. After collecting the data, we downloaded the data table from Qualtrics in a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) sav data file with raw data, variable and value labels. Then, using IBM SPSS v25 (IBM Corporation, 2017), descriptive statistics analyses were run on different variables in order to 1) determine if

the participants met the inclusion criteria; 2) characterize the sample; 3) describe participants' motivations and cross-cultural adaptation.

In addition, in order to determine the validity of SCAS, BPAS and the developed motivations for moving abroad scale (MMAS), we followed the procedures proposed by Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010). First, we screened our data in terms of sample size, missing data, detection of multivariate outliers, multicollinearity, singularity and normality.

Afterwards, we randomly split the sample in approximately two halves. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on the first half of the sample ($n=305$) and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the second half ($n=318$).

Regarding the EFA, given the non-normality of response distribution, we chose principal components analysis for categorical data (CatPCA) and principal axis factoring analysis (PAF) as the communality estimate and extraction method, since it does not entail distributional assumptions (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum & Strahar, 1999). After extraction, items with communalities less than .50 were progressively removed from the analysis. The number of factors to retain for rotation with oblimin (due to significant encountered correlations) was determined by Guttman-Kaiser's eigenvalue over 1 rule Cattell's scree plot analysis (Tabachnick & Fedel, 2014). Items with high cross-loadings (i.e., .40 or greater on more than one factor) were progressively removed. The internal consistency of each retained factor was examined through Cronbach's alpha with a determined acceptable cut-off of .30 (Cronbach, 1951; Stevens, 1992). Using the same acceptable cut-off value, the reliability of two-item factors was measured using the Sperman-Brown coefficient (Eisinga, Grotenhuis, & Pelzer, 2013).

Next, in order to test the underlying factor structure retained with the EFA, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using the AMOS 25 program (Arbuckle, 2017) with the second subsample ($n=318$). The factor structure retained with the EFA was treated as the hypothesized model. The factor loadings of the error terms and latent factors were fixed at one. Factor and error variances were freely estimated and correlations among factors were allowed. Different fit indexes were selected in order to account for different aspects of model fit. The absolute fit indexes, which assess how well an *a priori* model fits the sample data (Hu & Bentler, 1999), were the Chi-Square to number of degrees of freedom ratio root (χ^2/df), the mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The incremental fit indexes measure the model's fit

improvement when compared to a baseline model (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and were the comparative fit index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI). The criteria for a good fit are established in the literature by a $\chi^2/df \leq 5$ (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin & Summers, 1977) or ≤ 2 (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2014), a RMSEA $\leq .08$ (Browne & Cudeck, 1993), a TLI and CFI $\geq .90$ (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The relations between the type of international mobility and dimension scores for cross-cultural adaptation, psychological adaptation and motivations for moving abroad were examined through Multivariate Analyses of Covariance (MANCOVA) with time in the UK and age as covariates.

Results

Validation of Scales

The initial assessment performed to verify the adequacy of the data for exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, indicated that the full range of the scales (SCAS, BPAS and MMAS) was covered by responses in every item. Also, an adequate sample of at least 300 participants (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014) was guaranteed since our data set had an adequate total sample size of 628 cases, hence approximately 300 for each subsample after the random split. The minimum subject-to-item ratio of at least 5:1 (Osborne & Costello, 2004) was also ensured. Next the results of the descriptive analysis and sensitivity of the items of each scale is presented, followed by the construct related validity.

Sociocultural Adaptation Scale (SCAS). While conducting the descriptive analysis and sensitivity of the items, multivariate outliers were detected using the critical value of Mahalanobis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Five cases were considered multivariate outliers, leaving 623 non-outlying cases. Multicollinearity and singularity was assessed through collinearity diagnostics, using two measures as reference: high tolerance values, i.e. closer to 1, and low (i.e. closer to 0) squared multiple correlations (SMC= 1- tolerance; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The tolerance and SMC values were acceptable for this group of data, suggesting that multicollinearity was not present. Table 2.5 presents the results of normality, which was assessed by skewness and kurtosis. Most of the items did not present a normal distribution of responses showing high levels of skewness ($skewness/SD_{skewness} > |1.96|$) and kurtosis ($kurtosis/SD_{kurtosis} > |1.96|$).

The means of the 24 items ranged from 3.02 to 4.81, while the standard deviations varied between .53 and 1.37. On a five-point scale (1-High difficulty to 5-No difficulty), these scores, higher than the neutral midpoint of 3.00, represent a relatively high level of cross-cultural adaptation; which consequently indicates that participants did not experience a high degree of difficulty regarding daily situations as a result of cultural differences. Nonetheless, the major difficulties evidenced by the Portuguese migrant workers in the UK are “leaving away from the family”, “dealing with the climate” and “making friends.”

Table 2.5 Descriptive statistics of the SCAS items

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Kurtosis/SE Kurtosis	Skewness/SE Skewness
19. Living away from your family.	3.02	1.37	-2.99	.38
18. Dealing with the climate.	3.46	1.27	-2.51	2.10
1. Making friends.	3.68	1.22	-3.18	2.19
9. Understanding British jokes and humor.	3.77	1.06	-3.91	3.08
10. Obtaining accommodation.	3.77	1.30	-.10	3.44
6. Dealing with the bureaucracy.	3.84	1.01	-.74	3.00
17. Talking about yourself to others.	3.92	1.17	-3.01	3.73
2. Finding food that you enjoy.	4.02	1.21	-.48	1.33
20. Adapting to the pace of life.	4.19	.96	1.94	1.73
7. Making yourself understood.	4.21	.86	3.77	1.33
11. Going to social gatherings.	4.24	1.07	3.27	1.85
24. Expressing ideas to other work colleagues in a culturally appropriate manner.	4.27	.86	2.38	1.41
16. Finding your way around.	4.28	.97	2.67	1.01
21. Managing work responsibilities.	4.39	.85	2.49	1.57
3. Following British rules and regulations.	4.41	.77	2.62	1.23
13. Understanding ethnic or cultural differences.	4.42	.75	2.10	1.82
14. Worshipping as in Portugal.	4.47	1.02	1.45	2.83
4. Dealing with people in authority.	4.50	.78	2.33	1.80
22. Working effectively with other work colleagues.	4.51	.74	1.97	1.58
23. Gaining feedback from other work colleagues to help improve your performance.	4.55	.76	1.80	1.92
12. Communicating with people of a different ethnic group.	4.60	.73	2.32	2.32
5. Using the transport system.	4.62	.72	3.84	2.83
15. Interacting with members of the opposite sex.	4.64	.77	1.73	2.27
8. Going shopping.	4.81	.53	2.46	3.21

Construct related validity. The validity of the SCAS was assessed through an exploratory factory analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis, whose results are presented next:

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The final structure comprised 15 items and five factors were retained by scree plot analysis and Gutteman-Kaiser's eigenvalue of 1 rule: *Social adaptation* (n = 5 items), *Work adaptation* (n = 3 items), *Cultural adaptation* (n = 3 items), *Language adaptation* (n = 2 items), and *Practical adaptation* (n = 2 items). This structure showed high adequacy, as indicated by the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value (KMO= .852) and the Bratlett's Chi-square value [Bartlett's χ^2 (105) = 1786.88, $p = .000$] and explained 69.38% of the total variance accounted for. Item loadings ranged from |.569| to |.871| and all five factors showed very good internal reliability (Table 2.6).

Table 2.6 EFA factor loadings and internal reliability

Item	Factor Loadings					
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	
15. Interacting with members of the opposite sex.	.815	.019	.030	.067	.185	
16. Finding your way around.	.698	.230	.324	.120	.156	
11. Going to social gatherings.	.686	.359	.102	.013	.105	
1. Making friends.	.616	.395	.103	.068	-.198	
12. Communicating with people of a different ethnic group.	.569	.213	.137	.280	.319	
22. Working effectively with other work colleagues.	.200	.859	.144	.185	.099	
23. Gaining feedback from other work colleagues to help improve your performance.	.256	.786	.175	.123	.183	
21. Managing work responsibilities.	.252	.734	.159	.068	.258	
19. Living away from your family.	.001	.138	.810	-.047	.182	
18. Dealing with the climate.	.214	.103	.790	.118	-.025	
2. Finding food that you enjoy.	.201	.187	.583	.279	.149	
9. Understanding British jokes and humor.	.142	.088	.083	.871	.059	
7. Making yourself understood.	.062	.164	.117	.823	.190	
5. Using the transport system.	.189	.119	.083	.152	.804	
8. Going shopping.	.094	.237	.162	.106	.796	
	Cronbach α	.79	.85	.66		
	Spearman-Brown			.74	.76	
	Mean	4.29	4.48	3.50	3.99	4.72
	Standard Deviation	.72	.69	.99	.86	.57
	Kurtosis/SE Kurtosis	.88	1.30	-.53	.25	1.78
	Skewness/SE Skewness	-1.15	-1.38	-.40	-.82	-2.84

We interpreted and named the five factors based on the conceptual overlap between the items composing each one. Factor 1 was named *Social adaptation*. It comprises items focused on social life and interpersonal relations related difficulties

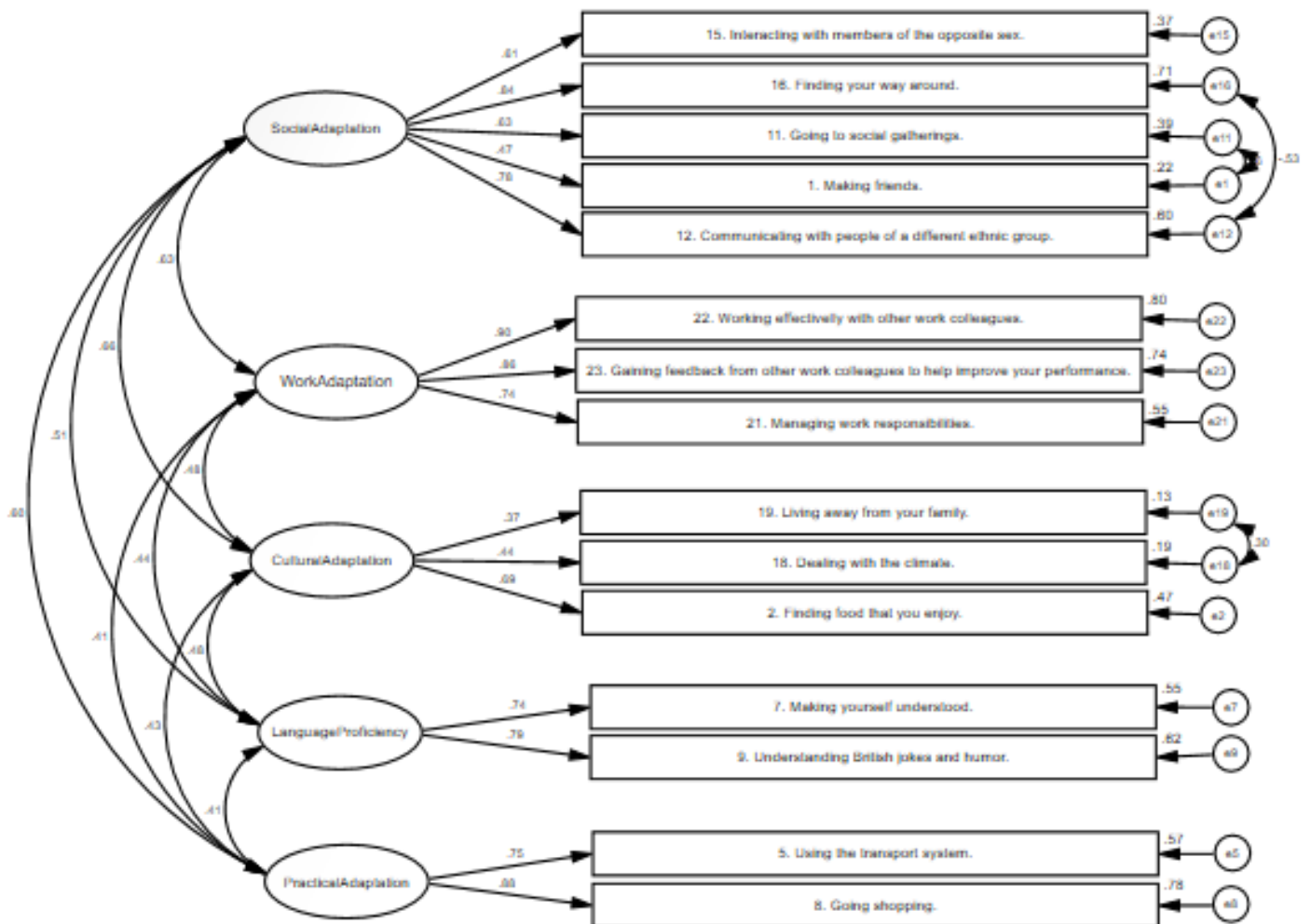
(e.g. “Making friends”, “Going to social gatherings”). Factor 2 was called *Work adaptation* since it encompassed items related to the work-related difficulties that participants encountered in the UK (e.g. “Working effectively with other work colleagues”). Factor 3 was named *Cultural adaptation*, because the items associated were focused on the differences between the two countries (e.g. “Dealing with the climate.”). Factor 4 was entitled *Language adaptation* because it includes items related to understanding and speaking English (e.g. “Understanding British jokes and humor”; “Making yourself understood”). Factor 5 was named *Practical adaptation* and is constituted by items which reflect more hands-on skills necessary to effectively navigate in the host country (e.g. “Using the transport system). Hence, each latent construct corresponds to one distinct type of cross-cultural adaptation.

The means and distribution of the five types of cross-cultural adaptation are presented in Table 2.6. The average level of difficulty experienced in terms of each type of cross-cultural adaptation was above the midpoint of the scale (i.e. 3.00, “moderate difficulty”). The distributions of the five types of cross-cultural adaptation are not all normal. For example, Practical adaptation is particularly skewed, presenting a high level of positive skewness ($\text{Skewness/SE Skewness} > 1.96$). The kurtosis is not high ($\text{Kurtosis/SE Kurtosis} > |1.96|$) on these factors.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The model tested was the one obtained from the EFA (Figure 2.1). The latent variables’ variance was constrained to 1 and correlated, errors were kept fixed, observed variables were free and $df > 0$. The model was identified, and included five latent variables: social adaptation, work adaptation, cultural adaptation, language adaptation and practical adaptation. The same number of items as in the EFA was associated to each latent variable (standardized coefficients provided in Figure 2.1).

In order to examine the fit of the first model, two maximum likelihood-based fit indexes were chosen. The CFI (.90) and TLI (.88) were close to the established cut-off of .09 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marôco, 2010), which did not show a very good fit. Also, the RMSEA (.09) showed a not so good fit to the data. Therefore, we concluded that there was a not a very good fit between the model and the observed data ($\chi^2(81)=270.74, p=.000$). To improve the model fit, we followed the modification indices and allowed some errors to correlate as Figure 2.1 indicates. As a result, the maximum likelihood-based fit indexes improved leading to a better fit of the model ($\chi^2(78)=203.182, p=.000$; CFI=.93; TLI=.91; RMSEA=.07).

Figure 2.1 Standardized factor structure for SCAS in the present sample



Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale (BPAS). The descriptive analysis and sensitivity of the items revealed five cases of multivariate outliers which were removed from the analysis. As Table 2.7 indicates, several items did not present a normal distribution of responses showing high levels of skewness ($Skewness/SE\ Skewness > |1.96|$) and kurtosis ($Kurtosis/SE\ Kurtosis > |1.96|$). The means of the 8 items ranged from 3.61 to 5.68, and the standard deviations varied between 1.25 and 1.85. These scores represent moderate levels of psychological adaptation. Sometimes, Portuguese migrant workers in the UK felt homesick when they thought of Portugal and were sad to be away from Portugal. Nonetheless, they were rarely frustrated by difficulties adapting to Portugal or nervous about how to behave in certain situations.

Table 2.7 Descriptive items of the BPAS items

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Kurtosis/SE Kurtosis	Skewness/SE Skewness
7. Frustrated by difficulties adapting to UK.	5.68	1.35	3.48	-10.49
4. Nervous about how to behave in certain situations.	5.43	1.38	-2.15	-6.15
8. Happy with your day-to-day life in the UK.	5.23	1.25	-1.28	-3.22
2. Out of place, like you do not fit into British culture.	4.82	1.57	-4.83	-1.74
1. Excited about being in the UK.	4.77	1.49	-2.68	-2.64
5. Lonely without your Portuguese friends and family around you.	4.46	1.66	-3.58	1.57
3. Sad to be away from Portugal.	3.94	1.62	-2.56	1.87
6. Homesick when you think of Portugal.	3.61	1.85	-4.49	.99

Note: Items 2-7 were reversed

Construct related validity. The two types of analysis used to assess the construct validity of BPAS are presented as follows:

Exploratory factor analysis. The adequacy of the factor model was tested and assured, by the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin medium value (KMO=.81) and Bartlett's Chi-square significant value [Bartlett's χ^2 (28) = 1293, $p = .000$]. The final structure comprised eight items and one factors was retained by scree plot analysis and Gutteman-Kaiser's eigenvalue of 1 rule. This structure explained 53.61% of the total variance accounted for. Item loadings ranged from .52 to .75 and the retained factor showed very good internal reliability (Table 2.8).

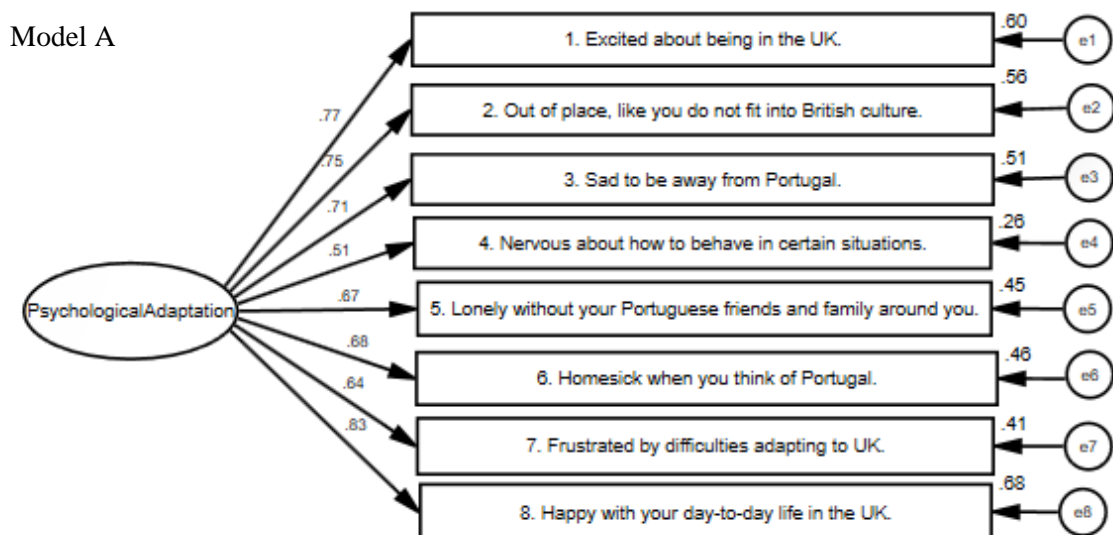
Table 2.8 EFA factor loadings and internal reliability for BPAS

Item	Factor Loadings
	Factor 1
3. Sad to be away from Portugal.	.752
6. Homesick when you think of Portugal.	.743
8. Happy with your day-to-day life in the UK.	.737
7. Frustrated by difficulties adapting to UK.	.711
2. Out of place, like you do not fit into British culture.	.694
1. Excited about being in the UK.	.659
5. Lonely without your Portuguese friends and family around you.	.656
4. Nervous about how to behave in certain situations.	.515
	Cronbach α .88
	Mean 4.74
	Standard Deviation 1.13
	Kurtosis/SE Kurtosis -2.51
	Skewness/SE Skewness -.22

We interpreted and named the extracted factor as *Psychological adaptation* based on the conceptual overlap between the items composing it. The means and distribution of the psychological adaptation are presented in Table 2.8. The average level of frequency experienced in terms of psychological adaptation was above the midpoint of the scale (i.e. 4.00, “sometimes”). Psychological adaptation follows a normal distribution (Skewness/ SE Skewness < |1.96| and Kurtosis/ SE Kurtosis < |1.96|).

Confirmatory factor analysis. Given that the BPAS scale has been already submitted to a CFA in the original study (Demes & Geeraert, 2013), the model tested was the one proposed by the authors of the scale (Model A; Figure 2.2). The latent variables’ variance was constrained to 1 and correlated, errors were kept fixed, observed variables were free and $df > 0$. The model was identified with an unacceptable fit (CFI=.79; TLI=.70; RMSEA= .21; $\chi^2(20)=303.36, p=.000$). Therefore, we consulted the modification indices and by allowing several errors to correlate, the fit of the model improved (Model B; Figure 2.2; CFI=.99; TLI=.98; RMSEA=.06; $\chi^2(11)=23.65, p=.014$).

Figure 2.2 Standardized factor structure for the BPAS in the present sample





Motivations for Moving Abroad Scale (MMAS). The descriptive analysis and sensitivity of the items (Table 2.9) indicates that almost all items presented a non-normal distribution of responses, showing high levels of skewness ($\text{Skewness/SE Skewness} > |1.96|$). The means of the 10 items ranged from 1.88 to 4.12, and the standard deviations varied between 1.18 and 1.62. On a five-point frequency scale (1- Completely disagree to 5- Completely agree), these scores represent varied levels of agreeableness, indicating that participants' motivations for moving abroad are diversified. The most chosen motives by Portuguese migrant workers for moving to the UK were “not seeing a bright future in Portugal that would give them better professional and personal conditions” and “wanting to do what was right to progress in their career.”

Table 2.9 Descriptive statistics of the MMAS items

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Kurtosis/SE Kurtosis	Skewness/SE Skewness
7. I did not see a bright future in Portugal that would give me better professional and personal conditions.	4.12	1.18	3.36	-13.25
5. I wanted to do what was right to progress in my career.	4.03	1.18	3.02	-12.47
6. I wanted to gain more money.	3.94	1.18	3.37	-12.31
10. I wanted to have a professional experience outside of Portugal.	3.74	1.29	-.84	-9.57
3. I wanted to know other cultures.	3.70	1.18	.68	-9.68
2. I was employed but dissatisfied with the working conditions.	2.47	1.47	-6.43	4.74
9. I was employed but the performed tasks were not challenging enough for me.	2.46	1.41	-6.58	3.98
8. I was employed but with precarious working contracts.	2.35	1.48	-5.84	6.17
1. I was unemployed.	2.31	1.62	-6.31	7.08
4. I wanted to reunify/accompany my family.	1.88	1.33	.52	12.73

Construct related validity. The two types of analysis used to assess the construct validity of MMAS were a non-linear Principal Components Analysis for Categorical Data (CatPCA) and a Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Principal Components Analysis for Categorical Data. Given the non-normal distribution of the items, a CatPCA was conducted where all items were imputed as ordinal variables. A two-factor structure emerged and three items were removed due to high cross-loadings. The final structure comprised seven items distributed among two factors (*Labor market situation in Portugal*, $n= 4$ and *International experience*, $n= 3$) which accounted for 61.3% of the explained variance. Item loadings ranged from and it should be noted that both factors showed good internal reliability (Table 2.10).

We interpreted and named the two factors based on the conceptual overlap between the items composing each one. Factor 1 was named *Labor market situation in Portugal* because it includes items related to their professional situation in Portugal (e.g. “I was employed but with precarious working contracts.”). Factor 2 was called *International experience*, since it comprises items focused on participants’ desire to engage in a professional/personal international experience (e.g. “I wanted to have a professional experience outside of Portugal”; “I wanted to know other cultures”).

The means and distribution of the two types of motivations for moving abroad are presented in Table 2.10. The first factor presented a mean ($M=2.25$, $SD=1.00$) below the mid-point of the scale (i.e. 3.00, “neutral”), indicating a moderate level of agreeableness with that type of motivations for moving abroad. This factor (*Labor market situation in Portugal*) follows a non-normal distribution (Skewness/SE skewness $> |1.96|$; Kurtosis/SE Kurtosis $> |1.96|$), but according to the value of skewness (0.28), the data distribution can be considered to be approximately symmetrical. In addition, the kurtosis level (-1.03) evidenced a platykurtic distribution (Tabachnick, 2013). The second factor (*International experience*) presented a mean ($M=3.79$, $SD=.96$) above the mid-point of the scale, suggesting a relatively high level of agreeableness with this type of motivations for moving abroad. This factor presented a non-normal (Skewness/SE Skewness $> |1.96|$), moderately skewed (-0.88) and platykurtic (0.27) distribution of data.

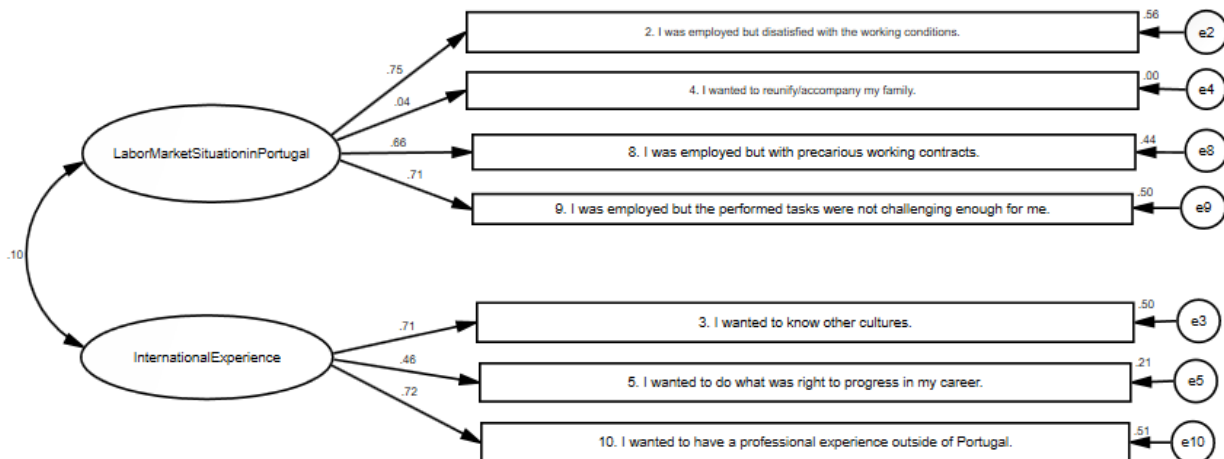
Table 2.10 CatPCA factor loadings and internal reliability for MMAS

Item	Factor Loadings	
	Factor 1	Factor 2
9. I was employed but the performed tasks were not challenging enough for me.	.888	.224
8. I was employed but with precarious working contracts.	.857	.002
2. I was employed but dissatisfied with the working conditions.	.810	.272
4. I wanted to reunify/accompany my family.	.421	.041
10. I wanted to have a professional experience outside of Portugal.	-.161	.824
3. I wanted to know other cultures.	-.253	.820
5. I wanted to do what was right to progress in my career.	-.169	.580
	Cronbach α	.67
	Mean	2.25
	Standard Deviation	1.00
	Kurtosis/SE Kurtosis	-3.69
	Skewness/SE Skewness	1.99
		.65
		3.79
		.96
		.96
		-6.31

Confirmatory factor analysis. The model tested was the one obtained from the CatPCA (Figure 2.3). The latent variables' variance was constrained to 1 and correlated, errors were kept fixed, observed variables were free and $df > 0$. The model was identified and included two latent variables: labor market situation in Portugal and international experience. The same number of items as in the CatPCA was associated to each latent variable (standardized coefficients provided in Figure 2.3).

In order to examine the fit of the first model, two maximum likelihood-based fit indexes were chosen. The CFI (.91) and TLI (.96) were higher than the established cut-off of .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marôco, 2010), which showed a very good fit. Also, the RMSEA (.09) showed a reasonable fit to the data. Therefore, we concluded that there was a good fit between the model and the observed data ($\chi^2(13)=51.52 p=.000$).

Figure 2.3 Standardized factor structure for the MMAS in the present sample



Differences between SIEs, AEs and IWs

Table 2.11 depicts the descriptive results and correlations of two control variables as well as the dimensions of sociocultural adaptation, psychological adaptation and motivations for moving abroad. Overall, participants were relatively well adapted, since the mean scores of all dimensions of sociocultural adaptation were above the mid-point of the five-point scale (1- High difficulty to 5- No difficulty). Nonetheless, the major difficulty evidenced by the participants was in terms of the cultural adaptation ($M=3.50$, $SD=.99$). On average, SIEs seem to be the ones who have the greatest difficulty to culturally adapt ($M=3.41$, $SD=.93$), followed by IWs ($M=3.52$, $SD=1.08$) and AEs ($M=4.13$, $SD=.78$). Regarding psychological adaptation, participants revealed a moderate level of psychological adaptation ($M=4.74$, $SD=1.13$). AEs ($M=4.97$, $SD=1.02$) displayed the highest average levels of psychological adaptation, followed by IWs ($M=4.77$, $SD=1.24$) and SIEs ($M=4.69$, $SD=1.06$). In terms of the motivations for moving abroad, participants generally agreed that, on average, the desire for an international experience influenced their decision to move to UK ($M=3.82$, $SD=.94$) more than the labor market situation in Portugal ($M=2.29$, $SD=.98$). On average, AEs were the ones who agreed the most ($M=4.23$, $SD=.83$) that the desire for an international experience was a factor in their decision to relocate, while IWs were the ones who agreed the most ($M=2.50$, $SD=1.01$) that the labor market situation in Portugal had influenced their decision to move to the UK.

To test these between-group differences in SIEs, AEs and IWs' motivations for moving abroad (labor market situation in Portugal, international experience), socio-cultural adaptation (work adaptation, language adaptation, practical adaptation, social adaptation, cultural adaptation) and psychological adaptation, we conducted a 3x8 MANCOVA, while controlling for age and the time spent in the UK.

The results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the type of migrant worker on the combined dependent variables after controlling for the time spent in the UK and age, $F(16, 1232) = 8.26$, $p = .000$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .816$, partial $\eta^2 = .097$. More specifically, as portrayed in Table 2.12, there was a significant effect of the type of migrant worker on the work adaptation, $F(2, 623) = 4.28$, $p = .014$. Results of pairwise comparisons showed that significant differences in work adaptation emerged between AEs and both SIEs and IWs, with the AEs being the most adapted to work and SIEs being the least adapted ones. The SIEs and IWs did not significantly differ in terms of work adaptation.

The effect of the type of migrant worker was also significant for cultural adaptation, $F(2, 623) = 7.79, p = .000$. Results of pairwise comparisons displayed significant differences between AEs and both SIEs and IWs, with AEs presenting the highest level of cultural adaptation. Contrarily, SIEs exhibited the lowest level of cultural adaptation, but it was not statistically different from the IWs' one.

With regard to language adaptation, results revealed a significant effect for the type of migrant worker, $F(2, 623) = 3.69, p = .025$. Pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences between SIEs' and IWs' language adaptation. SIEs were found to express higher levels of language adaptation than IWs. In addition, language adaptation did not significantly differ between AEs and SIEs.

Among the five dimensions of sociocultural adaptation, the practical adaptation was the last one to reveal a significant effect for the type of migrant worker $F(2,623) = 10.66, p = .000$. Results of pairwise comparisons indicated that significant differences emerged between IWs and both SIEs and AEs. IWs revealed the lowest level of practical adaptation, while the AEs revealed the highest one. Similar to the previously presented results, practical adaptation did not significantly differ between AEs and SIEs.

Furthermore, results showed nonsignificant differences in terms of the type of migrant worker for the last dimension of socio-cultural adaptation, i.e. social adaptation, $F(2,623) = 1.84, p = .160$ and psychological adaptation, $F(2,623) = .65, p = .522$.

The two types of motivations for moving abroad showed a significant effect ($F(2,623) = 9.31, p = .000$; $F(2,623) = 25.05, p = .000$) across the three types of migrant workers. Regarding the first type of motivations for moving abroad (i.e. labor market situation in Portugal), post hoc tests revealed that significant differences emerged between IWs and both SIEs and AEs; IWs were significantly more likely to move to the UK due to labor market situation in Portugal. On the other hand, when compared with both SIEs and AEs, IWs were significantly the least likely to move to the UK based on their desire for an international experience. Moreover, the differences between SIEs and AEs were nonsignificant for both types of motivations for moving abroad.

Table 2.11 Means, standard deviations and correlations among the variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Social adaptation	4.29	.72	1.00									
2. Work adaptation	4.48	.69	.56**	1.00								
3. Cultural adaptation	3.50	.99	.41**	.40**	1.00							
4. Language adaptation	3.99	.86	.37**	.35**	.32**	1.00						
5. Practical adaptation	4.72	.57	.41**	.39**	.29**	.33**	1.00					
6. Psychological adaptation	4.74	1.13	.47**	.42**	.61**	.34**	.21**	1.00				
7. Labor market situation in Portugal	2.29	.98	-.01	.04	-.11**	-.14**	-.09*	-.10*	1.00			
8. International experience	3.82	.94	.10*	.05	.17**	.10*	.07	.19**	.05	1.00		
9. Time in UK (months)	34.60	15.67	.11**	.10**	.11**	.05	.14**	.03	-.03	.04	1.00	
10. Age	32.33	7.31	.04	.10**	.11**	-.02	.07	.08*	.04	-.18**	.27**	1.00

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 2.12 MANCOVA for cross-cultural adaptation and motivation for moving abroad by the type of migrant worker

	SIEs (n= 353)		AEs (n= 48)		IWs (n= 225)		Multi-variate effect	Uni-variate F-ratio	Partial Eta Squared
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
							8.26***		.097
Sociocultural adaptation									
Social adaptation	4.27	.70	4.51	.61	4.26	.76		1.84	.006
Work adaptation	4.43 ^a	.67	4.82 ^b	.41	4.50 ^a	.74		4.28*	.014
Cultural adaptation	3.41 ^a	.93	4.13 ^b	.78	3.52 ^a	1.08		7.79***	.024
Language adaptation	4.06 ^b	.82	3.93	.70	3.89 ^a	.93		3.69*	.012
Practical adaptation	4.76 ^a	.53	4.90 ^a	.40	4.61 ^b	.62		10.66***	.033
Psychological adaptation	4.69	1.06	4.97	1.02	4.77	1.24		.65	.002
Motivations for moving abroad									
Labor market situation in Portugal	2.19 ^a	.96	2.01 ^a	.84	2.50 ^b	1.01		9.31***	.029
International experience	4.00 ^a	.85	4.23 ^a	.83	3.47 ^b	.98		25.05***	.074

Note: * $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$; Subscripts of means indicate pairwise comparisons. Means with different subscripts are significantly different. Bonferroni adjustments were used for pairwise comparisons.

Discussion

A mixed methods approach was used to how Portuguese migrant workers moved abroad to the UK, what motivated them to move to the UK, and what were their perceptions of the cross-cultural adaptation. Therefore, two complementary studies were conducted: in the first study, a qualitative research approach was employed while in the second study a quantitative research approach was used. This way, we contributed conceptually as well as methodologically to the international mobility literature, by extending research regarding the motivations to move abroad and the cross-cultural adaptation, allowing us to draw more fine-grained conclusions.

In both studies, three main forms of international mobility (SIEs, AEs and IWs) were identified based on participants' exploration of their career opportunities. Participants, who moved abroad as SIEs and AEs, explored their opportunities before leaving Portugal, while IWs explore them after arriving in the UK. The two studies are among the first to empirically explore the motivations and cross-cultural adaptation of migrant workers from three different forms of international mobility.

By exploring the different forms of international mobility, we have contributed to Felker's (2011) call for research investigating if and how migrant workers explore career opportunities prior to leaving their home countries. More precisely, we were able to identify that some do, while others do not and this is influenced by the form of international mobility they engage into. For example, those who move abroad as SIEs and AEs explore career opportunities before leaving Portugal, while those who move abroad as IWs, explore them after arriving in the UK. Additionally, after moving abroad and begin exploring the career opportunities, IWs who have a higher degree seemed to be more willing to accept jobs outside their qualification areas, contrary to SIEs, who explored their career opportunities solely in their area of expertise, and before moving abroad. Therefore, we can affirm that the exploration of career opportunities varies by the form of international mobility.

The three forms of international mobility here occurred between two countries of the European Union (EU). As such, the migrant workers involved in this type of relocation are most frequently conceptualized as "endowed with human capital and therefore free to cross organizational and national borders" (Ramboarison-Lalao, Al Ariss, & Barth, 2012, p. 118). Consequently, they might face fewer barriers constraining their career choices (e.g., underemployment, non-recognition of

credentials, discrimination in accessing jobs and advancing in careers) and cross-cultural adaptation than migrant workers from non-EU countries (Al Ariss, 2010).

In line with previous findings (e.g., Cerdin & Le Pargneux, 2010; Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari, 2008; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Peiperl, Levy, & Sorell, 2014; Suutari & Brewster, 2000), we were able to determine that among the three forms of international mobility, participants' demographic characteristics are different. For example, we observed that AEs are predominantly male and have a higher annual income than SIEs. Contrary to previous studies (e.g., Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013; Peiperl et al., 2014), Portuguese expatriates (AEs and SIEs) are proficient in the host country language. A possible explanation for this discrepancy might be host country language itself – English is the world's most widely spoken second language, while in other studies, Japanese or Chinese were the host country's official languages. Nonetheless, some IWs in the two studies found the British accent hard to understand, causing them some adaptation difficulties; hence to some extent, and in line with previous findings (e.g., Dustmann & Fabbri, 2003), language proficiency seems to be challenging for IWs. This idea is reinforced by the findings of our second study, since significant differences were found between IWs' language adaptation and SIEs. IWs were the ones who were the least adapted group of migrant workers. This limited language proficiency in IWs can be associated with: 1) their academic background in comparison with the other two migrant groups; and/or 2) their desire to gain personal international experience; hence learning the language and achieving personal satisfaction.

IWs are usually considered to be less qualified (Al Ariss, 2010) than those who engage in the other two forms of international mobility, and have similar educational backgrounds (Andresen, Biemann, & Pattie, 2012). We consider that our findings are in line with this, since master's degree was the most frequent higher education degree for SIEs and AEs, while IWs' educational background was mostly at the level of the bachelor's degree. Nonetheless, it is important to mention that in both studies, many IWs did not have any higher degree, which indicates that IWs divide themselves into skilled and unskilled ones, congruent with previous findings (e.g., Egger, Nelson, & von Ehrlich, 2012). Also, in line with previous findings (e.g., Agullo & Egawa, 2009; Carr, Inkson, & Thorn, 2005), participants in this sample differ in terms of the time planned to stay in the UK. More specifically, Portuguese AEs have a defined timeframe as opposed to some SIEs and most IWs, who are mostly unsure about how much time they will spend in the UK. This uncertainty could be conditioned by contextual variables.

For example, a recent study (Moreh, McGhee, & Vlachantoni, 2016) explored the strategies of 1168 EU citizens (886 Polish, 139 Portuguese and 133 Romanian) living in the UK in the context of the EU referendum. Two strategies could be adopted: leaving or staying in the UK. While staying in the UK, they could take no action or adopt a civic integration strategy (e.g., obtain permanent resident status and/or British citizenship). Portuguese citizens were the least inclined to undergo civic integration unless their EU rights were undermined by Brexit. Therefore, after the results of the EU referendum, participants in this study who were unsure about how much time they will spend in the UK might either leave the UK or continue living there, adopting a civic integration strategy.

Besides these demographic differences among AEs, SIEs and IWs, we identified some differences and similarities in terms of their motivational drivers. As in previous research (e.g., Froese, 2012; Richardson & Mallon, 2005), we found that the desire to seek personal international experience is a dominant motivation factor for SIEs. In addition, our findings indicate that IWs also mentioned this motivational factor. This is an interesting result, which has not been reported in previous studies and we attribute this to sample characteristics of the study, composed by mostly young and highly qualified individuals moving to another EU country. In addition, being individuals who are currently working in the UK, they moved abroad in search of professional international experience. In the literature, this motivational driver has been mostly associated with AEs (e.g., Doherty, Dickmann, & Mills, 2011), but in this study it applied to SIEs also: mostly to SIEs who had been employed in Portugal but were dissatisfied with their working conditions and career progression. Therefore, as in Richardson and Mallon's study (2005), they were looking for a life change and considered that a professional international experience would enable that, in a country considered as the European center of their profession (Dickmann, 2012). Consistent with other research findings (Al Ariss, 2010; Baruch, Budhwar, & Khatri, 2007), IWs' motivations for moving abroad were associated with the poor labor conditions in Portugal (e.g., precariousness, unemployment), which 'forced' them to move abroad. This included unemployed people in Portugal who became SIEs. Therefore, we would argue that pre-migratory experience plays an important role in migrant workers' motivations for moving abroad.

In sum, findings from both studies indicated that IWs and unemployed SIEs in Portugal were pushed to the UK by poor labor market situation in Portugal (e.g.,

unemployment, unchallenging tasks), but pull factors such as personal and professional international experience were also dominant motivational factors. Professional international experience was mostly associated with SIEs' and AEs' drivers for moving abroad. IWs might not have mentioned this motive in the first study, since they explore their career after arriving in the UK and *a priori* they do not know what they are going to work in the UK. In the first study, personal international experience was transversal to all three groups of migrant workers, despite being unevenly mentioned. The results of the second study revealed these differences to be significant. More specifically, when compared with SIEs and AEs, international experience (personal and professional) was the least significant motive for IWs' decision of moving abroad.

In the first study, some participants from the three groups characterized their adaptation as easy. Similar to Inkson and Myer's (2003) findings, SIEs referred to their positive predisposition to move abroad and its achievability. Additionally, they referred to some work-related aspects, such as being valued for their performance and being able to progress in their careers. We should not forget that half of the sample was composed by emerging adults, considered to constantly explore jobs that fulfill them (Arnett, 2000). In addition, 37 out of 50 participants of this study's sample were single. This reinforces Tharenou's affirmation (2003) that young migrant workers' receptivity to international career arises from having no partner, low family influence, and expecting positive outcomes from working abroad. Furthermore, one of SIEs drivers for moving abroad was their dissatisfaction with their working conditions in Portugal, since the performed tasks were not challenging enough and career progression was not enabled. In sum, this suggests that having the feeling of being in charge over the move abroad, defining realistic expectations and being able to achieve them in the host country, facilitates cross-cultural adaptation. The reasoning behind this is participants' self-efficacy in the new cultural environment, i.e. realizing that they were successful in their move abroad. This might empower them and consequently help them to overcome obstacles and adapt. The results of the second study substantiated the findings of our first study and the aforementioned explanations, since significant differences in work adaptation emerged between AEs and both SIEs and IWs, with the AEs being the most adapted ones.

AEs and some IWs pointed out accommodation as a facilitator of their adaptation. However, this was the factor most likely to hamper SIEs' adaptation. AEs have support from their organization to find and pay for accommodation; IWs count on

their family and friends living in the UK; but most SIEs in this sample are exposed to the renting system in the UK. This complicates SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, as it did with SIEs in Froese's (2012) study. The results of the second study corroborate these findings, since significant differences were found between IWs and both SIEs and AEs regarding their practical adaptation, with AEs being the most adapted ones.

SIEs found interaction with locals made their adaptation more difficult. As opposed to the AEs, SIEs are expected to find this easier (Petokorpi & Froese, 2009), but for this sample interaction with the locals was complicated, mainly due to the locals' unfamiliar social behaviors. This interacted with the fact that participants' social networks were mostly composed of fellow nationals or other foreigners, similar to SIEs in Korea (Froese, 2012). In fact, the findings of the second revealed significant differences between AEs and both SIEs and IWs, with SIEs exhibiting the lowest level of cultural adaptation. Despite this, many SIEs in study one revealed their identification with the British culture, and this could have facilitated their adaptation. Most likely this happened, because one of their motivations reflected the desire to gain a personal international experience; hence they were willing to know better the British culture, using the strategy reflected in the proverb "do in Rome what the Romans do." Therefore, many participants considered that it would be useful to mold their behaviors and attitudes, acting just like the locals. Taking into account that their social networks are composed by their fellow nationals, but they also adopted some of the British behaviors, we may infer that the Portuguese SIEs adopted the integration strategy while acculturating (Berry, 2005). This strategy is considered to have the best outcomes for immigrants' adaptation (Berry & Sam, 1997) and whether or not this proves to be true for SIEs is a matter to be addressed in future studies.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This mixed methods research has three main limitations. First, in both studies, participants were not equally distributed among the three types of relocation. Nonetheless, this distribution seems to portray the current situation, which indicates that nowadays most Portuguese move abroad mostly as SIEs. In fact, many participants indicated that they would not have left Portugal, without having the professional situation organized. In addition, Portuguese companies seem not to rely heavily on AEs. Instead, they internationalize by buying companies in other countries, and recruiting locals or using open internal recruitment processes, which allow their employees to

apply as if they were locals of the country where the subsidiary is located. Subsidiaries are usually located in emerging economy markets or less developed countries (Bento et al., 2015), but this is not the case for the UK; hence this might explain the small number of AEs in the sample of this study.

Second, the two studies presented in this chapter focused only on Portuguese migrants in the UK. The findings may be nationally biased and it requires further studies of Portuguese workers in other countries or other countries' workers in Portugal to establish generalizability. This should include comparisons between EU and non-EU workers and countries. In this respect, the UK leaving the EU could provide a research opportunity. The main reasoning behind this suggestion is related with the assumption that EU migrant workers in EU host countries could face fewer adaptation problems than non-EU migrant workers (Al Ariss, 2010). After the results of the Brexit Referendum, this suggestion could be easily addressed and eventually complemented with a pre-Brexit and post-Brexit comparison of the results. This would allow a more in-depth analysis of the phenomenon.

In future studies, it may be useful to increase the number of respondents and conduct large-scale surveys. This way, the third limitation of the first study, regarding the evaluation of responses provided by 50 individuals, could be overcome, and these quantitative studies may corroborate and complement the first study's findings, just like it happened with the second study.

Future studies might also explore the reaction of the extended family (e.g., parents) regarding migrant workers' decision to move abroad and how it influences their adaptation process. Future studies could also take a more comprehensive view of adaptation (Haslberger et al., 2014) examining cognitive, affective and behavioral components. Talking about adaptation, let us note that participants' discourses in the first study seem to understand adaptation in terms of social, cultural and work-related aspects. In the second study, cultural and work-related aspects revealed some significant differences between the three groups. Nonetheless, future comparative studies should explicitly ask participants about their conceptions regarding cross-cultural adaptation. This way possible differences and similarities might be identified between SIEs, AEs and IWs' adaptation conceptions, confirming/disconfirming the need for continuing the tradition of focusing on sociocultural adaptation outcomes when addressing expatriates and psychological ones for immigrants. Our assumption is that all dimensions of adaptation (sociocultural, work and psychological) are important for SIEs, AEs and IWs

and should be integrated to obtain a broader understanding of adaptation. The results of the second study are a stepping stone into achieving this understanding, since they illustrated the relevance of the existing dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation in providing a better comprehension of SIEs', AEs' and IWs' adaptation. Additionally, we support Adams and van de Vijver's (2012) call for more studies on expatriates' identity, which was relevant here, to contribute to closing the gap of research on expatriate acculturation (Linberry, 2012) and expatriate identity (Kohonen, 2008).

Contributions and Implications

In this mixed methods research, we addressed Wang's (2002) call by identifying data on migrant workers' social networks. We found that Portuguese SIEs' social networks are composed of their fellow nationals and other SIEs from Southern European countries. This is not a consequence of their unwillingness to interact with the British, but rather a failed attempt, caused by inability to cope with unfamiliar British social behavior. Having this in mind, it would be useful if some type of cultural preparation could be provided prior to moving abroad, so that SIEs could create realistic expectations regarding their interaction with the locals. This could be extended to AEs and IWs, although we referred to SIEs first because they were the ones who most mentioned that their adaption was affected by their difficult interaction with locals.

Besides determining how Portuguese migrant workers characterize their cross-cultural adaptation, their discourses enabled the identification of some antecedents of cross-cultural adaptation. They might be very useful when designing a preparation program for moving abroad.

To the best our knowledge, the two complementary studies we conducted, were the first ones to include in their samples SIEs, AEs and IWs. The second study strengthened the results of the first one, since most of them concurred. In addition, based on the results of the first study and previous studies, we developed some screening criteria that can be used in future comparative studies, distinguishing between the three forms of international mobility. Both studies confirmed some of the previous findings regarding demographic differences between SIEs and AEs or between SIEs and IWs. Nonetheless, they also disconfirmed others and consequently opened up some possibilities for future research in this area which is constantly evolving.

Chapter 3

The Development and Testing of a Cross-Cultural Adaptation Model for Emerging Adult Self-Initiated Expatriates

This chapter is based on the paper:

Farcas, D. & Gonçalves, M. (2018). A Grounded Theory Approach to Understand the Portuguese Emerging Adult Self-initiated Expatriates' Cross-cultural Adaptation in the United Kingdom. *Journal of Global Mobility*, 7(1), 27-48. doi: 10.1108/JGM-07-2018-0034

Abstract

Two studies were conducted with the aim of inductively developing and empirically testing a model of cross-cultural adaptation for emerging adult (EA) self-initiated expatriates (SIEs). In the first study, data were collected through semi-structured interviews with 18 Portuguese EA SIEs. The analysis of these interviews through a grounded theory, allowed describing what constitutes participants' cross-cultural adaptation and what are its determinants. Five dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation emerged (cultural, emotional, social, practical and work), along with 18 determinants related with four different levels: personal, interpersonal, societal and situational. These determinants are related with the pre and post relocation phases of participants' expatriation experience and some of them act as buffers, capturing a more integrative picture of the cross-cultural adaption process. In order to enhance the validity of the inductively identified relationships between cross-cultural adaptation and its determinants, we empirically tested them in a second study. Data were collected through an online questionnaire with 250 Portuguese EA SIEs. The SEM analyses revealed a good model fit ($\chi^2(110) = 123.78, p=.174$; CFI=.99; RMSEA= .02; SRMR=.04), confirming many of the study one's results. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first model which was inductively developed and empirically tested, enabling a broad understanding of EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, in terms of what constitutes and influences it; hence the contributions and suggestions for future research are further discussed.

Keywords: emerging adults, self-initiated expatriates, cross-cultural adaptation, Grounded Theory, Qualitative Studies

Introduction

More than three percent of the world's population is living abroad. This translates to over 258 million people, out of which approximately one quarter is aged between 18 and 29 years (International Organization for Migration, 2018). This age range corresponds to emerging adulthood, i.e. a developmental period, characterized as a process of preparation for adulthood, which involves a consolidation of the sense of self while undergoing experimentation and exploration in love, work and worldview (Arnett, 2000). Similarly, the move from one country to another has been described as a process which requires the need for re-organization of the self, while trying to adapt to the changes associated with the transition to a new culture (Akhtar, 1999; Walsh, Shulman, Feldman, & Maurer, 2005). Therefore, an emerging adult who has chosen to move abroad is simultaneously attempting to adapt to the challenges associated with the developmental period he/she is undergoing, together with the ones imposed by the move to a host country.

The emergent adults' move to a host country has been suggested to have significant consequences for their well-being (Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001). Therefore, previous research explored the factors which facilitate or hamper emerging adults' adaptation to a new cultural environment (Zhang & Goodson, 2011; Shafei & Razak, 2016). Nonetheless, it focused mainly on university samples, hence providing a broad understanding of international students' cross-cultural adaptation. For example, it is well known that international students' cross-cultural adaptation has been measured following Ward and colleagues' (2001) bi-dimensional conceptualization: psychological (ability in handling life stress and feeling comfortable with the life in the new culture) and sociocultural (ability in handling daily issues and establishing social relations). In addition, the most frequently reported predictors of cross-cultural adaptation included language proficiency, gender, personality and length of residence in the host country chosen for studying purposes (Mesidor & Sly, 2016).

Besides studying abroad, there are other motives which may trigger emerging adults' move to another country. For example, emerging adults might move abroad for working purposes. This is an understudied motive in the emerging adults' cross-cultural adaptation literature. Bearing this in mind, along with the fact that different motives resemble different characteristics of the move abroad and create different contexts of cross-cultural adaptation (Ward et al., 2001), in this chapter we will explore the cross-cultural adaptation of emerging adults who move abroad for working purposes.

Emerging Adult Self-Initiated Expatriates

Moving abroad for working purposes is a common characteristic of individuals who engage in international work assignments (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). They are denominated expatriates and based on the initiator of their work assignment, they can be further divided into assigned expatriates (AEs) and self-initiated expatriates (SIEs). AEs are employees of a business organization who are relocated by the employer to temporary work in a foreign subsidiary (Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004). Therefore, their international work assignment is initiated by their employer, contrary to SIEs who on their own volition seek and find work abroad during a temporary period of time (Inkson & Myers, 2003).

Studies comparing SIEs and AEs show that SIEs have a larger presence abroad (respectively 30% versus 70%) and are younger than AEs (Suutari & Brewster 2000; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). Earlier studies included in their samples SIEs aged under 30 years old (Selmer & Luring, 2010; Ellis, 2012; Yijälä, Jasinskaja-Lahti, Likki, & Stein, 2012), which suggest that some SIEs might actually be emerging adults. Nonetheless, to the best of our knowledge, there is no earlier study examining this group independently. Given that emerging adulthood is an important developmental period in preparation for adulthood, we recognize the relevance of distinguishing this segment from the other SIEs. This can provide more accurate and less misleading results. Along similar lines, a recent literature review on SIEs (Farcas & Gonçalves, 2016), considers that if comparative studies report SIEs as being younger than AEs, then emerging adult SIEs are a group that can be further explored. In other words, their cross-cultural adaptation should be the focus of future research since this is an underexplored topic in the SIEs literature, which has mostly addressed the motivational and career related issues.

Cross-Cultural Adaptation

Cross-cultural adaptation, adjustment and acculturation are three terms that have been used interchangeably in the literature (Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004). They refer to the process and outcomes of moving to an unfamiliar cultural environment.

Adjustment is more typically applied to expatriates, while acculturation is more commonly associated with immigrants. The reasoning behind this is that expatriates have to cope with minor changes while immigrants deal with major realignments/negotiations between the home and host culture (Haslberger, Brewster, & Hippler, 2014). Ali, Van der Zee and Sanders (2003) suggest that adaptation is the process of dealing with cross-cultural transitions, while adjustment is its outcome. There is no consensus in the literature, but cross-cultural

adaptation seems to be a more inclusive term considered to be crucial for a successful relocation experience. Therefore, knowing exactly what constitutes and influences it is extremely relevant.

According to the ABC model of culture contact, cross-cultural adaptation can be categorized in three dimensions (Ward et al., 2001). First, the affective dimension (A) has a stress and coping focus, looking at how individuals feel during cross-cultural encounters and what are the coping strategies that they employ. Second, the behavioral dimension (B) is centered on the culture learning approach and highlights the importance of individuals' ability to acquire relevant social and cultural skills in order to thrive in the new cultural environment. Last, the cognitive dimension (C) is based on the social identification theory, concerning how individuals perceive and categorize themselves and others within the intercultural context (Ward et al., 2001).

In the SIEs' literature, an interaction between the person and the environment was proposed when addressing the cross-cultural adaptation (Nolan & Morley, 2013). Consequently, Black and Stephens' (1989) definition of cross-cultural adjustment is adopted. It refers to the degree of comfort regarding aspects of the new cultural environment and proposes three distinct facets of cross-cultural adjustment: general, interaction and work. General adjustment involves the way individuals get used to several aspects (e.g. food, shopping) of the life in the host country. Interaction adjustment addresses individuals' efforts to establish relations with host country nationals. Work adjustment refers to the way individuals fit into workplace.

These three facets do not address the dimensions of the ABC model (Ward et al., 2001) equally. More specifically, the three facets focus on the extent to which individuals acquire social and cultural skills (e.g. getting used to the local food, establishment of relationships with host country nationals, fitting into the new workspace) that will help them navigate efficiently in the new cultural environment. These facets focus on how individuals feel during cross-cultural encounters (affective dimension) and their ability to acquire relevant social and cultural skills (behavioral dimension). The cognitive dimension of the ABC model (Ward et al., 2001) seems to be omitted (i.e. how individuals perceive and categorize themselves); hence some researchers (e.g. Ali, Van der Zee, & Sanders, 2003; Haslberger, 2005) questioned the widespread acceptance and use of this definition in the expatriation literature. They consider that, when defining cross-cultural adaptation, additional factors should be considered (Haslberger, 2005). Therefore, the facets of cross-cultural adjustment proposed by Black and Stephens (1989) are deemed to lack discriminant validity, due to its scant

theoretical grounding (Hippler, 2008; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). Additionally, one might question if this depicts SIEs' full perception of what constitutes cross-cultural adaptation. In other words, Black and Stephens (1989) proposed the previously presented definition of adaptation having in mind AEs' cross-cultural adjustment. Due to the fact that SIEs have been proven to differ from AEs (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Cerdin & Le Pargneux, 2010; Farcas & Gonçalves, 2017; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; von Borell de Araujo et al., 2014), we consider that it is important to inductively determine their perceptions of cross-cultural adaptation. Therefore, the first research question addressed by this chapter is: *How do emerging adults SIEs perceive cross-cultural adaptation?*

Determinants of Cross-Cultural Adaptation

Previous research (e.g. Hippler et al., 2004) investigated the effect of many factors influencing cross-cultural adjustment, however, less is known about SIEs adaptation. This is mainly due to the dominance of Black, Mendenhall and Oddou's (1991) model in the theoretical treatment of expatriate experiences, which has limited the attention given to theoretically related antecedents (Haslberger et al., 2014). This model is built on the premise that individuals adjust to the host culture before moving and after arriving, a process that is influenced by several factors, such as individual (e.g. previous experience) and non-work factors (e.g. family), as well as organizational (e.g. organizational culture novelty) and work factors (e.g. role clarity). While these factors are likely to influence SIEs' adaptation, organizational and work factors are expected to be less dominant since their relocation does not occur through job transfer as for AEs. A model of SIEs cross-cultural adaptation is still lacking and only some studies explored the antecedents of SIEs' adaptation (McDonnell & Scullion, 2013).

The results are inconclusive with respect to the influence of previous international experience and language proficiency, since positive, negative or null effects were found (Peltokorpi, 2008; Alshammari, 2012; Isakovic & Whitman, 2013). Nonetheless, some agreement has been achieved regarding the negative influence of culture novelty (unfamiliar host country) and the positive influence of the personality trait, cultural empathy (Peltokorpi, 2008; Isakovic & Whitman, 2013). Some other isolated findings emerging from studies comparing SIEs and AEs, indicate that SIEs adapt better because they move abroad on their own volition (Suutari & Brewster, 2000), are more predisposed to interact with host country nationals (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013) and emulate host country behaviors for resolving challenges (von Borell de Araujo et al., 2014). All these antecedents have been mostly

deductively driven and we consider that it is important to use an inductive approach to further our understanding of SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation. Therefore, a second research question is addressed by this chapter: *What factors, perceived by emerging adult SIEs, facilitate or inhibit their cross-cultural adaptation?*

The Present Research

The main goal of this research is to conduct two studies which will enable the development (study one) and empirical testing (study two) of a cross-cultural adaptation model for emerging adult SIEs. The main presumption is the fact that, to the best of our knowledge, no earlier study addressed the cross-cultural adaptation of emerging adult SIEs. Instead, previous studies focused emerging adults' and SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation separately. On one hand, studies focusing on emerging adults' cross-cultural adaptation used solely university samples, which limited the generalizability of the results to the emerging adults who move abroad for other reasons, such as work (e.g. SIEs). On the other hand, studies focusing on SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation have predominantly used the cross-cultural adjustment framework of Black and collaborators (1991), which targets AEs and therefore disregards the specificities of SIEs.

We decided to inductively explore and test what constitutes emerging adult SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation and identify its determinants, by focusing on the Portuguese emerging adult SIEs in the UK. According to the data from the Portuguese Emigration Observatory (Pires et al., 2018), Portugal is the European Union member state with the highest percentage of emigrants as a proportion of its population, since more than 20% of the Portuguese population is living abroad. Every year from 2012 to 2014, more than 30000 Portuguese migrated to the UK (Portuguese Emigration Observatory, 2018). Most of them (around 64%) are aged between 18 and 34 years, approximately 40% have college education, and are considered to make a significant contribution to the number of mobile employees in the world, which stands at 150.3 million (International Organization for Migration, 2018).

Study One: Inductive Development of a Cross-Cultural Adaptation Model

Methods

Participants

The sample consisted of 18 Portuguese emerging adult SIEs between ages of 24 and 29 ($M=27.5$, $SD=2.14$), who, while in Portugal, searched and found their current job in the UK, coinciding with their area of expertise, i.e. IT, engineering, investment banking and health (e.g. nursing, pharmacology). The majority were females (66.6%), single (94.4%), holding a bachelor (38.8%), master (55.6%) or PhD degree (5.6%). For half of the sample, the move to the UK was the first relocation experience. It was triggered by four main reasons: 1) dissatisfaction with the working conditions in Portugal (50%); 2) the desire to acquire an international professional experience (i.e. have new responsibilities, which could enable career progression and/or work in areas which are more developed than in Portugal; 38.9%); 3) the desire to acquire an international personal experience (i.e. getting to know and being in contact with other cultures, speaking a different language and experiencing living in a different environment; 33.3%); and 4) unemployment (11%). UK was chosen as a host country because of the geographic and historic proximity to Portugal, local language, and better career opportunities. Most moved alone (77.8%) or accompanied by friends (22.2%) with whom they are sharing accommodation (38.9%). In Portugal, the majority reported living with their parents (61.1%). Participants' time spent in the host country ranged from five months to two years, and most of them (61.1%) were not willing to extend this period for more than five years.

Data Collection Procedures

For data collection, we used theoretical sampling defined as “the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes and analyses his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them in order to develop his theory as it emerges” (Glaser, 1978, p.30). Therefore, recruitment of participants and analysis of data was done simultaneously, until saturation of data was achieved, i.e. realizing that the gathered fresh data did not present any additional theoretical insights and it merely confirmed the previously established conclusions, representing at least 80% of the participants' discourses ($n=15$; see Gomez et al., 2001).

Participants were recruited using various methods, such as migration related organizations, snowball sampling technique and social networks. We provided a disclosure

letter, where the study was described and the inclusion criteria was presented with all Portuguese living and working in the UK, who were willing to share their migratory experience as interviewees. The inclusion criteria included: being Portuguese, aged between 18 and 29 years, who relocated from Portugal to UK since 2012, based on a job offer. This formalized job offer should be the consequence of an active search initiated by the participant in Portugal, prior to relocating to the UK with defined repatriation intentions. Those who met the inclusion criteria and were willing to participate contacted the first author of this article, using the provided e-mail on the disclosure letter. Then, a date was agreed for conducting the interview and participants were asked to sign a written consent form, which described the interview's aim and requested their permission to audiotape it. Participants were also asked to fill out a socio-demographic questionnaire composed by variables which enabled the participants' characterization previously presented.

In depth interviews were conducted in Portuguese with participants via Skype with video. Following Charmaz's (2006) instructions, a semi-structured three-sectioned interview guide was formulated. In the first section, participants were thanked for their availability; the interviewer (first author of this article) introduced herself and explained how the interview was going to unfold itself. The second section was composed by open-ended questions focused on participants' cross-cultural adaptation to the host country, based on existing theory and previous findings. The third section was dedicated to closing up the interview, by checking if the participant would like to add/clarify any provided information. All interviews lasted approximately 70 minutes.

It is important to highlight that, prior to the conduction of these interviews, the interview guide, informed consent form and socio-demographic questionnaire were pilot-tested to assess clarity and relevance of questions. The pilot-test was conducted with four participants with similar characteristics of those that we interviewed for our study, i.e. emerging adults who were living and working abroad. Following the previously described procedure, each participant was asked all the questions prepared in the interview guide and filled out the informed consent form and socio-demographic questionnaire. In addition, they were asked to provide feedback about the questions' wording and clarity. The feedback was positive; hence we proceeded with data collection.

Data Analysis

The interviews were verbatim transcribed and analyzed using a grounded theory approach, since it has a clear focus on interaction, meaning and social processes; hence

providing a deeper understanding of the studied phenomena (Charmaz, 2006; Straus and Corbin, 1998). In addition, it is principally suitable when investigating understudied populations, due to the possible inadequacy of existing measures (Morrow & Smith, 2000). Since this is the case of emerging adult SIEs, we proceeded with the grounded theory analysis, following a three-step interactive process using computer assisted qualitative data analysis software, Atlas.ti7 (Friese, 2015). These three steps were interchangeably performed with data collection, in such a flexible and interactive way that allowed us to collect new data and constantly compare it with the previously analyzed one. Nonetheless, for clarity purposes, we are presenting these steps in a sequential way.

We started with the open coding process, focused on selecting text units (relevant phrases/paragraphs) from the transcribed material. Each text unit was associated with key concepts (codes) that best described the underlying idea. In total 388 codes were identified.

Afterwards, we proceeded with axial coding. In this second step of the grounded theory analysis process, we began by comparing the codes in terms of their degree of similarity and renamed them into more abstract and embracing codes (categories). Then, we explored relationships between the encountered categories. This restructuring process of the codes into categories and identification of relationships between them was assisted by memo elaboration. In the memo, we defined each category, described the decision-making process of its creation, mentioned the codes which compose it and identified how it may relate to relevant existent theories and other categories. Whenever it was possible, we also presented a graphical representation (diagram) of the proposed relationship. Figure 3.1 along with Table 3.1, portray the full graphical representation of the proposed relations.

Lastly, we conducted the selective coding process, where the core category, cross-cultural adaptation, was identified as being composed by five dimensions (e.g. cultural adaptation, emotional adaptation, social adaptation, practical adaptation and work adaptation). In addition, all the other categories related to it (e.g. determinants of cross-cultural adaptation) were identified, in order to provide a comprehensive and integrative conceptualization of the studied phenomena.

Quality criteria. In order to enhance quality control and trustworthiness of the results, we addressed three aspects: credibility, dependability and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Creswell et al., 2007).

Credibility refers to the extent to which the findings can be established as plausible truths. In other words, it is important to guarantee that the encountered results are not a product of researcher's imagination, but they are rather grounded in and truly representing

participants' answers. We sought to achieve this by considering the following two approaches: triangulation of sources and member checking. Triangulation of sources (i.e. examining the consistency of different data sources from within the same method, such as including people with different viewpoints) was attained due to the sample being composed by participants with heterogeneous cross-cultural adaptation experiences. Member checking (i.e. testing the results with members of those groups from whom the data were originally obtained) occurred when participants were presented with our interpretations of the collected data and asked to provide feedback. The feedback was positive, indicating that their cross-cultural adaptation experience was portrayed in the presented results.

Dependability denotes the extent to which the encountered results are consistent; hence assuring some consensus among other researchers' interpretations of the same data. In order to contribute to this, we kept track of all decisions that were made through data analysis, using memos. In addition, we conducted an external audit, which consists in having a researcher who was not involved in the study to examine the study's methodology and results. Therefore, the first author analyzed the data; while the second author and a senior scholar with expertise in qualitative methods and migration research, reviewed, discussed and validated the results. They provided relevant input regarding the relevance of this study and suggested the possibility of further grouping the categories and refining some of the established relations between the categories.

Transferability is the evaluative criteria focused on the possibility of extending the findings from one study to another similar one. This can be accomplished through techniques such as thick descriptions of the methodology, adequate sampling and data saturation. In order to accomplish the transferability of our results, in the previous sections, we provided a detailed description of data collection and analysis; we explained why purposeful and theoretical sampling was used; and how we achieved data saturation. Nonetheless, the authors of this paper can be contacted for any additional information.

Results

The analysis of the interviews provided a framework of participants' understanding of cross-cultural adaptation (dimensions), and the factors that may positively/negatively influence it (determinants), as presented in Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1.

Table 3.1. Determinants' influence on the dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation

Determinants of cross-cultural adaptation		Dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation				
Pre-relocation	Post-relocation	Cultural	Emotional	Social	Practical	Work
Personal						
	Personal agency	+	+	+	+	+
	Realistic expectations	+	+	+	+	+
	Previous international experience				+	+
	Personality	+		+		
	Proficiency in English language	+	+	+	+	+
Interpersonal						
	Family support	+	+	+	+	+
	Contact with prospective host/home country nationals			+	+	
	Engaging in recreational activities			+		
	Interaction with host country nationals			+	+	
	Interaction with home country nationals			+	+	
	Working with older colleagues			-		+
Societal						
	Host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners	-	-	-	-	-
	Low ethnic composition of neighborhood	-	-	-	-	-
Situational						
	Job proposal					+
	Defined repatriation intentions					+
	Unbalanced time spent in home and host country	+		-		
	Favorable housing conditions		+			

Hypotheses 1 a-i: Emerging adult SIEs' cultural adaptation is a positive function of a) personal agency, b) realistic expectations, c) personality, d) proficiency in English language, e) family support f) unbalanced time spent in home and host country and a negative function of g) host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners, h) low ethnic composition of neighborhood, i) defined repatriation intentions.

Hypotheses 2 a-f: Emerging adult SIEs' emotional adaption is a positive function of a) personal agency, b) realistic expectations, c) proficiency in English language, d) family support and e) favorable housing conditions and a negative function of f) host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners, and g) low ethnic composition of neighborhood.

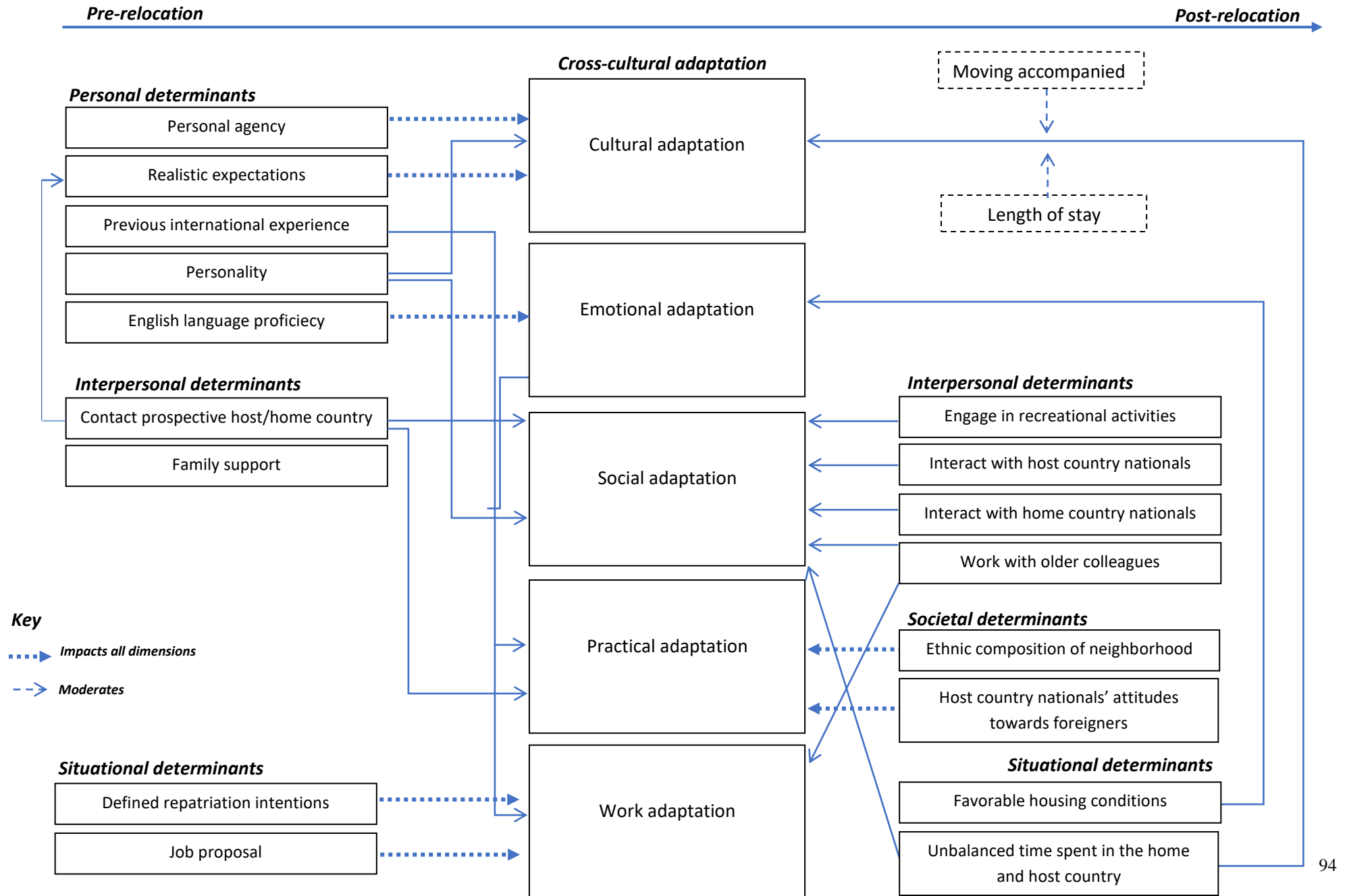
Hypotheses 3 a-n: Emerging adults SIEs' social adaptation is a positive function of a) personal agency, b) realistic expectations, c) personality, d) proficiency in English language, e) family support, f) contact with prospective host/home country nationals, g) engagement in recreational activities, h) interaction with host country nationals, i) interaction with home country nationals and a negative function of j) working with older colleagues, k) host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners, l) low ethnic composition of neighborhood, m) defined repatriation intentions and n) unbalanced time spent in home and host country.

Hypotheses 4 a-j: Emerging adult SIEs' practical adaptation is a positive function of a) personal agency, b) realistic expectations, c) previous international experience, d) proficiency in English language, e) family support, f) contact with prospective host/home country nationals, g) interaction with host country nationals and h) interaction with home country nationals and a negative function of i) host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners, and j) low ethnic composition of neighborhood.

Hypotheses 5 a-j: Emerging adult SIEs' work adaptation is a positive function of a) personal agency, b) realistic expectations, c) previous international experience, d) proficiency in English language, e) family support, f) working with older colleagues, g) having a job proposal and h) defined repatriation intentions and a negative function of i) host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners, and j) low ethnic composition of neighborhood.

Hypotheses 6 a-b: The negative effect of the unbalanced time spent in the home and host country on cultural adaptation is moderated by: a) the number of months lived in the UK, and b) how the EA SIEs moved to the UK (accompanied vs. unaccompanied).; such the effect is stronger for the ones who moved unaccompanied and are living in the UK for a shorter period.

Figure 3.1. Developed model of cross-cultural adaptation for EA SIEs



Dimensions of Cross-Cultural Adaptation

The participants broadly defined cross-cultural adaptation through the expression of “feeling at home” and described it as a multi-dimensional concept. More precisely, according to participants’ discourses, cross-cultural adaptation was decomposed in the following five dimensions: 1) cultural adaptation; 2) emotional adaptation; 3) social adaptation; 4) practical adaptation; and 5) work adaptation.

Cultural Adaptation. This dimension was mentioned by all participants and it addressed the ease of adaptation to existent cultural differences (e.g. social norms, habits, routines) between the host and home culture. In order to effectively deal with these differences, participants mentioned two strategies. The first strategy involves changing your own cultural background by adopting the host country’s one; hence acting like a host country national. The second strategy requires equilibrium between the two cultural backgrounds. The following participants’ citations illustrate these two strategies, and in the next section we will present some factors which might influence their adoption.

“Being adapted means accepting how things are here, accepting the differences and consider them yours. It’s changing your own habits and adopting their habits and culture in such a way that you become one of them.” (Male, 27 years)

“I think that being adapted means finding a mid-term between adopting the new social norms of the new place, but at the same time, being you. Thinking about how much do you have to give up of who you are, in order to adopt the new cultural habits? So, I think that adaptation is adopting new social norms, because if you are in a new place, there are things that you have to change in order to adjust, but at the same time, you have to think how much you are willing to give up. This is achieved when you feel comfortable and you start acting without noticing that you are making an effort for changing any kind of behavior.” (Female, 25 years)

Emotional Adaptation. This was the second dominant dimension in participants’ discourses and included statements about their feelings in the host country, in terms of the achieved degree of well-being, happiness, satisfaction and comfort; consequently, involving the lack of negative aspects such excessive crying, sadness and depression. One of the participants summarized this dimension in these words:

“Being adapted means feeling well in the country, psychologically feeling well, (...) and felling happy for being there.” (Female, 29 years)

Social Adaptation. This dimension encompassed aspects related to participants' social life, in terms of their interaction with other people and consequently the establishment of social networks. Being around other people plays an important role in participants' relocation experience, because they consider that it might help them to overcome obstacles and explore the host country's culture. Several participants referred that quality is more important than quantity; hence they prefer having few but very close friends.

"The adaptation process involves having a social life. This is crucial for adaptation. During weekends and after work, we have to make an effort and be with other people, although we might be tired or wanting to be alone." (Male, 29 years)

Practical Adaptation. This dimension emphasized participants' ability to getting used to the way of functioning in the host-country, such as knowing how to get around, using public transportation, health and shopping systems. For example, one participant denoted:

"Being adapted means knowing how everything works, such as the means of transportation and public services. Knowing the food that you can find, where can you have dinner earlier." (Female, 29 years)

Work Adaptation. This dimension was the least mentioned in participants' discourses. It addressed aspects related to participants' employment situation in terms of job satisfaction and working environment.

"Being adapted means working in the host country, having a job that you like, a nice working environment that makes you comfortable and happy." (Male, 29 years)

Determinants of Cross-Cultural Adaptation

As Table 3.1 shows, participants identified several determinants influencing specific dimensions of cross-cultural adaption and others which apply to all five of them. Whenever participants clearly mentioned the dimension affected by the determinant, we listed it; otherwise we noted the determinants' impact on the overall cross-cultural adaptation. The identified determinants of cross-cultural adaptation focus on the pre-relocation (before moving to the UK) and post-relocation phase (while being in the UK, after moving there), and they can be organized at the following four levels: 1) personal; 2) interpersonal; 3) societal; and 4) situational.

Personal Determinants. These determinants refer to an individual's characteristics, related but not limited to psychological, experiential and/or behavioral aspects. From analyzed interviews, we identified five personal determinants of cross-

cultural adaptation: agency, realistic expectations, previous international experience, personality and language proficiency.

Agency denoted the voluntary nature of an individual's international relocation. Having this in mind, participants considered that it elicited positive adaptive outcomes, by reflecting the individual control over the relocation decision and responsibility for any of its consequences.

“My adaptation would have been very difficult or even impossible if I would have come here obliged or forced to leave Portugal, because of an unbearable situation. I am happy that this did not happen to me. I came here, because I wanted, it was my choice and this helped me to have an easy adaptation.” (Male, 27 years)

Setting **realistic expectations** was referred to be another personal determinant of cross-cultural adaptation, since participants recognized that imagining a perfect life in the UK which in the end will not be that perfect, may let people down and make them unsatisfied. Therefore, some participants suggested that setting realistic expectations about life in the host country helped their cross-cultural adaptation, because in case of an obstacle it will not be much unexpected, they were more prepared to overcome it.

A similar reasoning was given for the positive impact on cross-cultural adaptation of a **previous international experience**. More specifically, participants considered that having a previous international experience like the current one, in terms of working and living alone, facilitates an individual's cross-cultural adaptation due to the available and previously acquired resources (e.g. knowledge of the system) useful to overcome eventual obstacles.

“Since I had the experience of living without my parents, I already knew how it was living on my own, taking care of a house, being responsible in a place where I did not know anyone. And this previous experience helps adaptation a lot.” (Male, 27 years)

“My adaptation was good in terms of working at the hospital, because I already had a previous working experience in Ireland and I knew how the health system works.” (Male, 27 years)

Personality was also considered a determinant of cross-cultural adaptation. More precisely, participants highlighted that the adaptation to different aspects of the host country depends a lot on the type of person who is relocating. Being extroverted, open minded and resilient are some characteristics which may positively influence one's adaptation. Extroversion was considered an asset for the construction of a social network (social adaptation), while being open minded and resilient were pointed out as

helpers in accepting cultural differences and efficiently overcoming obstacles (cultural adaptation).

“In order to adapt, one has to be able to change and accept differences and the fact that some British would make fun of your accent. But this should not be taken very seriously, because they are in their country and we have to be open minded, capable of overcoming this difficulty, thus we have to change.” (Female, 25 years)

Regardless of the accent mentioned in the last citation, participants considered that **English language proficiency**, i.e. the ability to fluently speak, understand and write in English, is *“without any doubt helpful to adaptation, since English fluency leads to a better adaptation”* (Male, 27 years). More precisely, English fluency leads to better cross-cultural adaptation, because it may help to interact with host country nationals and consequently understand the host country culture.

Interpersonal Determinants. These determinants refer to the interaction between individuals and subsequent consequences which may emerge from it. Participants considered that these types of determinants can be found prior and after relocating, and they are mainly related with the individual’s social life, the established social relations and received support. For example, prior to relocating an individual might **contact prospective host/home country nationals** (e.g. friends or relatives living in the UK) in order to clarify some doubts and become more aware of the British culture and way of living; hence contributing to having more realistic expectations. Additionally, contacting prospective host/home country nationals may help individuals to construct their social network, influencing adaptation in a positive way:

“I think that knowing someone here, who can give you tips such as finding a flat or the best phone network, can help adaptation a lot, because you have someone you can count on and you do not have to do everything on your own, (...) and you get to know other people (...) this helped my adaptation a lot and my expectations about life here were more accurate.” (Male, 24 years)

Similarly, participants considered that the **support received from the family** members may also facilitate cross-cultural adaptation. As it can be observed in the following quote, participants appreciated that their families approved their relocation decision. This way they felt that their decision was right and knew that they could count with their support:

“My family did not force me to come here and they actually supported my decision. This actually reassured me that I was doing the right thing. It validated my

decision. And since they agreed with me, I knew that they would support me no matter what! So I left Portugal with the feeling that it was the best thing I could do and it helped me to adapt. I can imagine that without my parents' support, things would have been difficult, because in case of any challenge they would be the first ones to remind me that I should not have left Portugal." (Female, 27 years)

After relocating, the identified interpersonal determinants were focused on the participants' social life and established relations. More precisely, participants deliberated that it is important to balance work and personal life in such a way that it would be possible to **engage in recreational activities** (e.g. go to concerts, theater and gym). For example, one participant mentioned:

"For me, it is very important to do something besides working. There is a huge offer of activities than can be done here, and even though many times I am tired, I make an effort and go to the theater, to the gym, etc. This way I keep myself busy and avoid thinking too much about my life in Portugal and the things I miss there. I feel happy and I get to know other people and I become more and more adapted." (Female, 28 years)

Besides engaging in recreational activities, participants highlighted the importance of constructing a social network, hence interacting with other people. Specifically, **interacting with host country nationals** positively influenced cross-cultural adaptation, while the opposite occurred from the exclusive **interaction with home country nationals** and **working interaction with older colleagues**. The following quotes further explain these relations:

"I think that what really helps is interacting with the locals. I consider it was the best thing I did, because they helped me deal with bureaucratic staff, and other things related to how the system functions." (Female, 25 years)

"I consider that having only Portuguese friends, maybe because of the language, makes the adaptation more difficult. More difficult because you are not learning about the host country's culture." (Male, 27 years)

"I think that having older colleagues at work, does not help. It is at work where you spend most of your time, and it is the first place where you meet people who are supposed to introduce you to new aspects in the host country. And if you do not have anyone who is willing to do that, because they have their families and friends, and do not identify with you, then you are not going to adapt (...) but they can help you adapt at work, if they are willing to help. Since they are older, they might know more of certain things." (Female, 25 years)

Societal Determinants. These determinants refer to the host country characteristics which might influence an individual's cross-cultural adaptation. For example, participants mentioned the **host country nationals' attitudes towards foreigners**. If their attitudes are negative, i.e. treating unfairly, negatively and not accepting or welcoming someone because of their different cultural background, then one's cross-cultural adaptation might be complicated. This can get even worse, when there is a low density of foreigners present in the area where they are residing (**ethnic composition of neighborhood**), since host country nationals might more easily manifest their less favorable attitudes towards foreigners.

“When you live outside of London, in a small town similar to the one I resided, the British look at the immigrants as if they were bandits. I am not saying that they are racists, but due to the fact that those areas are inhabited mostly by the British, a Portuguese is a stranger, more than in London (...) and trust me, this can make your adaptation less positive, just like it happened to me.” (Male, 24 years)

Situational Determinants. These determinants refer to time and contextual factors which influence cross-cultural adaptation. Participants considered that these types of determinants are present prior and after relocating. Pre-relocation situational determinants fall upon having a **job proposal** and **defined repatriation intentions**. Participants considered that having a job proposal before departure facilitates adaptation by offering better living conditions.

“My advice is to come to the UK with a job guaranteed, because it is an expensive country and not having a job guaranteed will make adaptation very difficult, if not impossible.” (Female, 27 years)

On the other hand, participants considered that having defined repatriation intentions and **spending more time in Portugal than in the UK**, influences adaptation in a negative way because it may not enable engaging in recreational activities and getting to know the British culture. The following two citations clarify this affirmation:

“Things here are basically work-home and home-work. Obviously, it is also necessary to breathe a little, but maybe I am too obsessed with work and I want to gain a lot from these 3 years of working abroad. So, during the week days there isn't time for extra activities and the weekends are spent in Portugal, since I regularly fly there, once every 3 weeks or once every 15 days.” (Male, 28 years)

“I am thinking about some people that I met, who work here and then live in Portugal. For example, some work during week days and weekends, in order to gain

more money and days for vacations. Then, they go to Portugal, during one month and a half. So, they do not have any time to integrate in the British society and they do not really have a social life.” (Male, 29 years)

Participants considered that **favorable housing conditions** can have a huge positive impact on the cross-cultural adaptation. They frequently used the expression “feeling at home” in order to describe their full level of cross-cultural adaptation and comfort, just as this participant explained:

“I realized that the house is very important. And this was strange, because I am a person that leaves the house early in the morning and does not stop all day, getting back to the house just to sleep. But even though I do not spend a lot of time in the house, it is very important to have one that is comfortable. And this is due to the fact that you are in a new city, with new people, and you look around and nothing looks familiar, that you can recognize as comfortable. So, if you do not have a place where you can go at the end of the day and feel comfortable, I think that it is something that can influence the adaptation in a negative way. And if you have it, in a positive way.” (Female, 25 years)

Moderators of Cross-Cultural Adaptation

After identifying the determinants, we looked at the proposed relations and explored some characteristics which could better explain the positive/negative influence of a determinant on the individual’s cross-cultural adaptation. For example, we looked at the negative relation between the cultural adaptation and the unbalanced time spent between home and host country. We identified that participants who relocated unaccompanied were the ones who spent more time in Portugal than in the UK because their spouses were living in Portugal. Therefore, they were mainly working in the UK and living in Portugal, where they frequently travelled:

“Since my wife, who is pregnant is in Portugal, I frequently travel there and here I am basically just working.” (Male, 28 years)

Also, most of these participants, whose spouse was in Portugal, lived in the UK as if they were in Portugal (e.g. watching Portuguese news, having meals at the same time as in Portugal). They did not adopt any of the identified strategies to deal with cultural differences; hence, they recognized that in terms of cultural adaptation they were not very well adapted:

“Am I adapted? Well, according to my definition I am not 100% and I need to adopt more of their culture (...) to be more like them and behave in similar ways.”

(Female, 29 years)

When questioned about their repatriation plans, they did not intend to extend their stay in the UK beyond the initial timeframe defined prior to relocating.

Participants who moved accompanied, spent more time in the UK than in Portugal and were divided regarding their stay in the UK: some were willing to extend their stay while others were not. The reasoning behind prolonging the stay is related with the fact that they perceived a high job turnover in the UK and would like to continue their international work experience. Based on their repatriation intentions (defined vs. undefined), participants seem to deal differently with the cultural differences. Those who were willing to extend their stay in the UK (i.e. stay in the UK for a longer time than they had initially planned), seemed to adopt more of the host country habits, relinquishing their own, while those who were not willing to extend their stay in the UK, adopted some of the host country habits and kept some of the home country ones.

Having this in mind, we may infer that moving accompanied and altering the defined repatriation intentions might buffer the relationship between dimension of cross-cultural adaptation (i.e. cultural adaptation) and unbalanced time spent in the home and host country.

Study Two: Empirical Test of the Cross-Cultural Adaptation Model

Methods

Participants

The sample of this study was composed by 250 emerging adult self-initiated expatriates (age range 20-29, $M_{\text{age}}= 27.17$, $SD=1.95$). Most of them were females (63.2%) and single (73.2%). All participants were highly educated: 66.8% listed having received a post-graduate degree (e.g. Master's or PhD) and 33.2% reported holding a bachelor's degree. Like the sample described in study one, while in Portugal, these participants searched and found their current job in the UK, coinciding with their area of expertise (i.e. IT, engineering, investment banking and health).

Most of the participants (66.8%) did not leave abroad before moving to the UK, and they relocated alone (61.2%). This relocation experience was mostly triggered by the desire to gain an international experience ($M=4.00$, $SD=.79$) than by the unfavorable labor market/situation in Portugal ($M=2.16$, $SD=.93$), $t(249)=36.71$, $p = .000$.

Participants reported having lived in the UK for an average of just over two years ($M=28.49$ months, $SD= 13.74$) and many planned to extend this period to a maximum of five years (42.8%). The remaining were planning to return to Portugal earlier (37.6%) or move to another country (8%). Almost 12% of the participants revealed that the outcomes of Brexit will play a crucial role in defining how much time they will spend in the UK before returning to Portugal.

Instrument

The questionnaire used in this study was developed with the aim of empirically testing the model developed in Study 1. Its structure was similar to the one described in the previous chapter. Consequently, some questions were developed by the authors of this chapter while others were based on the pre-existing ones in the literature. These measures are described in detail below, organized in terms of the dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation and its four different levels of determinants identified in study one: personal, interpersonal, situational and societal.

Dimensions of Cross-Cultural Adaptation.

Cross-Cultural Adaptation. The SCAS and BPAS described in Chapter 2 were also used in this questionnaire (please consult Chapter 2, Study 2 for a full description

and analysis). SCAS was used to measure the cultural, practical, work and social adaptation, while BPAS was used to measure the emotional adaptation.

Personal Determinants of Cross-Cultural Adaptation.

Personal Agency. Developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995), the general self-efficacy scale (GSE) assesses a general belief that one can perform a novel or difficult task, or cope with adversity in various domains of human functioning. Since participants in study one, defined this determinant of cross-cultural adaptation as “the individual control over the relocation decision and responsibility for any of its consequences” we measured it using the Portuguese adaptation of GSE (Araújo & Moura, 2011). Participants rated 10 statements (e.g. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.) on a four-point Likert scale (1- Not at all true to 4 - Exactly true). As originally proposed, the scale was unidimensional ($\alpha=.91$). By averaging up the responses to all 10 items, a composite score is obtained ranging from 1.0 to 4.0. The higher the score on the GSE the greater the personal agency. In this study, the range of the personal agency score varied between 2.0 and 4.0, with 28.8% of participants obtaining a score of 3.0. This indicates a relatively good sense of personal agency.

Realistic Expectations. To measure participants' level of accuracy regarding their expectations about life in the UK, we used an index of expectations (Caligiuri et al., 2001). Two sets of 24 parallel questions were used, based on the SCAS described in chapter 2. The first set of questions (“before assignment”) asked participants to reflect back and assess difficulties that they imagined encountering in the host country (e.g. Before you left for your international assignment, to what extent did you expect socializing with host nationals would be difficult?). The second set of questions (“on assignment”) asked participants to rate the difficulties they encountered after arriving in the host country (e.g. Now that you are on your international assignment, is socializing with host nationals difficult?). Both sets of items were rated on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (To a very great extent). Each parallel “before assignment” item was subtracted from the “on assignment” corresponding item. The result of this was 24 items ranging from -4 to +4. These items were added to create an expectation index, which could range from -96 (much worse than expected) to +96 (much better than expected). Zero indicates a realistic expectation, suggesting that the assignment was just as the participant expected. In this study, the realistic expectations index ranged from -42 to +13 ($M=-7.57$, $SD=10.52$). Twelve participants had accurate realistic expectations since their score was 0 on this index, while -2 was the most

frequent value ($n=36$), indicating that the reality encountered in the UK was a little bit worse than expected.

Previous International Experience. We developed an item to assess participants' previous international experience. Using a dichotomous scale (1-Yes, 0-No), participants answered the following question: Did you live abroad before moving to the UK? Participants who answered affirmatively were considered to have previous international experience of living abroad. In this study, this was the case of a third of the sample (i.e. 83 participants).

Personality. Participants' personality was measured through the open-mindedness scale of the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire Short Form (MPQ-SF; Van der Zee et al., 2013; Portuguese version: Sousa et al., 2013). This scale assesses people's capacity to have an open unprejudiced attitude regarding unknown situations; their interest for the ways in which others deal with daily problems; and the extent to which they enjoy exploring other cultures through contact with people from different backgrounds. Therefore, it was considered to reflect the results of study 1, since participants referred that "being extroverted, open minded and accepting cultural differences are some characteristics which may positively influence one's adaptation." Participants used a five-point Likert scale (1-Totally not applicable to 5-Completely applicable) to indicate the extent to which each one of the eight items (e.g. Likes to imagine solutions to problems) applied to themselves. In this study, the internal reliability of the scale was .85 and on average participants ($M=3.78$, $SD=.53$) revealed being highly open-minded.

English Language Proficiency. To assess participants' proficiency in English, we employed the Portuguese version of Kwak's (1991) four-items scale, developed by Neto and Neto (2011). This scale inquired participants' ability to speak (e.g. How well do you speak English?), read, write and understand the English language. The answers to these questions were given on a five-point Likert scale (1-Not at all to 5- Very well). The Cronbach's alpha standardized in the current study was .87 and on average ($M=4.81$, $SD=.34$), participants revealed a good proficiency in English language.

Interpersonal Determinants of Cross-Cultural Adaptation.

Contact Prospective Home/Host Country. Participants' contact with home and host country nationals was assessed using Peixoto's et al. (2016) measure. Using a dichotomous answer scale (1- Yes, 0-No), participants answered the following question: Before moving to the UK, did you contact anyone in the host/home country to clarify

possible doubts/curiosities about UK? In this study, 56% of participants answered this question affirmatively, indicating a high contact with prospective home/host country.

Family Support. We developed an item measuring the support provided by the family regarding participants' decision to relocate; hence participants were asked following question: How much did your family support your move to the UK? They had answer it using a five-point Likert scale (1- Not at all to 5- Totally). In this study, most of the participants (80.4%) had a lot of family support in their move to the UK.

Engage in Recreational Activities. The Portuguese version (Freire & Fonte, 2007) of Ragheb and Beard's (1982) leisure attitude six-items scale was used to measure participants' behavioral component of attitudes towards engagement in recreational activities (e.g. I give my leisure high priority among other activities). Answering options ranged from 1 (strongly disagree), which reveals a very unfavorable/negative attitude, to 5 (strongly agree), which reveals a very favorable or positive attitude. Scale scores are based on the mean of all items, ranging from 1 to 5 (3 is the midpoint), with higher values (above the midpoint) indicating positive attitudes and lower values (below the midpoint) indicating negative attitudes towards leisure. In this study, participants' attitudes towards engagement in recreational activities ($\alpha=.69$) were positive ($M=3.48$, $SD=.66$).

Interaction with Home and Host Country Nationals. The ethnic and national peer contact scales (Berry et al., 2006; Portuguese version: Neto & Neto, 2011) were used to evaluate participants' frequency of interaction with home and host country nationals. Both scales had a total of 4 items. An example item is: How often do you spend free time with your Portuguese friends? Participants responded on a five-point Likert scale (1-Never to 5-Very often). In this study, the internal consistency was .90 (interaction with host country nationals) and .80 (interaction with home country nationals). Participants' interaction with home county nationals ($M=3.62$, $SD=.95$) was significantly higher than their interaction with host country nationals ($M=3.13$, $SD=1.06$), $t(249)=-5.94$, $p = .000$.

Work with Older Colleagues. We employed one question with a dichotomous answer (1-Yes, 0-No) to assess if participants worked with colleagues that were older than them. This question read as it follows: Are your colleagues older than you? In this study, most participants (68.8%) answered this question affirmatively.

Societal Determinants of Cross-Cultural Adaptation.

Ethnic Composition of Neighborhood. By using Neto's (2014) neighborhood composition scale, participants were asked to pick the statement that is most true about the neighborhood where they live. The statements were: 1- Almost all people are British or from a different nationality than mine; 2-A majority of people is British or from a different nationality than mine; 3-There is about an equal mix of Portuguese, British and people from other nationalities; 4-A majority of people are Portuguese; 5-Almost all people are Portuguese. In this study, participants answers were distributed almost equally only on the first two statements.

Host Country Nationals' Attitudes Towards Foreigners. The attitude of host country nationals towards foreigners was assessed through Neto's (2006) perceived discrimination five-item scale (i.e. evaluation of direct experience of negative or unfair treatment of others). Participants answered each one of these items (e.g. I have been teased or insulted because of my Portuguese background) using a five-point Likert scale to indicate the frequency of experience (1-Never to 5-Very often). The Cronbach's alpha standardized in the current study was .89 and on average participants' perceived discrimination was low ($M=1.67$, $SD=.74$).

Situational Determinants of Cross-Cultural Adaptation.

Favorable Housing Conditions. The extent to which participants experienced finding a comfortable place to live, was assessed using one item from SCAS (Ward & Kennedy, 1999; Wilson, Ward, & Fisher, 2013). Participants used a five-point Likert scale (1- No difficulty to 5- Extreme difficulty) to answer the following question: How difficult is it to obtain comfortable accommodation in the UK? In this study, participants' answers to this question were spread among the five points of the scale, with 40% of them revealing no difficulty in obtaining favorable housing conditions in the UK. For analysis purposes, this scale was reversed.

Unbalanced Time Spent in the Home and Host Country. To determine the time spent by the participants in the home and host, participants answered the following question, developed by Peixoto et al. (2016): On average, how frequently do you go to Portugal? Participants answered this question using one of the following 5 options: 1- Once a month, 2-Every 3 months, 3- Every 6 months, 4- Once a year, 5- Other. In this study, 52.4% of participants revealed going to Portugal every 3 months.

Defined Repatriation Intentions. One item was used to assess participants' repatriation intentions. More specifically, participants were inquired about their plans

for the future and were given the following options to choose as their answer: 1- Continue living and working in the UK; 2-Continue living and working in the UK during some time and then return to Portugal; 3-Live in another country; 4-Other. Additionally, participants were asked to indicate for how long they intend to stay more in the UK. In this study, participants' answers were mostly centered around the second option and they were planning to stay in the UK for a maximum period of five years.

Job Proposal. In order to determine if participants relocated with a job proposal, they were asked the following question: After you arrived in the UK, for how long did you search for a job? The possible answers were: 1- I did not search for a job because I came with a job offer; 2- less than 1 month; 3- 1 to 6 months; 4- 7 to 12 months; 5-more than a year. In this study, all 250 participants answered the first option.

Moderators of Cross-Cultural Adaptation.

Length of Stay. Participants were asked to identify for how many months they have been living in the UK, and, as mentioned earlier, their repatriation intentions. They reported having lived in the UK for an average of just over two years ($M=28.49$ months, $SD= 13.74$) and many planned to extend this period to a maximum of five years (42.8%). The remaining were planning to return to Portugal earlier (37.6%) or move to another country (8%). Almost 12% of the participants revealed that the outcomes of Brexit will play a crucial role in defining how much time they will spend in the UK before returning to Portugal.

Moving Accompanied. One question was used to assess how participants moved to the UK. To answer this question, participants picked one of the following four options: 1) alone, 2) with my spouse/partner, 3) with other family members and 4) with colleagues/friends. Most participants (61.2%) relocated alone.

Procedure

Data Collection. The procedure described in chapter 2 was employed in this study too; hence, we encourage you to consult it for a detailed description of data collection.

Data Analysis. First, using IBM SPSS v25 (IBM Corporation, 2017), descriptive statistics analyses were conducted to determine if participants met the inclusion criteria and characterize the sample.

Next, preliminary analyses were conducted with the measures described previously. Confirmatory factor analysis was employed on the used scales (personal

agency, personality, English language proficiency, engage in recreational activities, interaction with host and home country nationals, host country nationals' attitudes towards foreigners), with the aim of testing the underlying factor structure proposed by the authors who developed them. Therefore, the factor structure proposed by the authors was treated as the hypothesized model. Following the procedure described in Chapter 2, the factor loadings of the error terms and latent factors were fixed at one. Factor and error variances were freely estimated and correlations among factors were allowed. Different fit indexes were selected to account for different aspects of model fit. The absolute fit indexes, which assess how well an a priori model fits the sample data (Hu & Bentler, 1999), were the Chi-Square to number of degrees of freedom ratio root (χ^2/df), the mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The incremental fit indexes measure the model's fit improvement when compared to a baseline model (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and were the comparative fit index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI). The criteria for a good fit are established in the literature by a $\chi^2/df \leq 5$ (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin & Summers, 1977) or ≤ 2 (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2014), a RMSEA $\leq .08$ (Browne & Cudeck, 1993), a TLI and CFI $\geq .90$ (Hu & Bentler, 1999). After verifying the factor structure of each scale, composite variables were constructed, and their internal reliability was calculated through Cronbach's alpha or Spearman-Brown coefficient if the scale had only two items (Eisinga, Pelzer, & Grotenhuis, 2013). The threshold of .70 (Hair et al., 2010) was used as an indicator of a good reliability in the construct. To test for convergent validity (CV), we estimated the average variance extracted (AVE) with a recommended value of .50 (Hair et al., 2010).

For the measures which had a single item with a nominal or ordinal scale, descriptive frequencies were assessed. For some measures (e.g. family support, ethnic composition of neighborhood), recoding occurred due to the extremely discrepant distribution of cases. In other cases (e.g. job proposal, defined repatriation intentions), we removed from further analysis because of lack of cases (i.e. all cases were concentrated in one option of the ordinal scale).

Using AMOS 25 program (Arbuckle, 2017) we set out to test the conceptual model of Figure 3.1. The five dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation were set as endogenous variables (DV), while the identified determinants were considered exogenous variables (IV). Covariances were established between them based on the zero-order correlations reported in Table 3.3. We chose moderated structural equation modeling (MSEM) over regression analysis, since the later enables the investigation of

only one dependent variable at a time, and in our model, we had five. In addition, regression analysis can lead to 1) the loss of statistical power as the reliability decreases (Aiker & West, 1991); 2) biased coefficient estimates (Ping, 1995). Following Ping's (1995) approach to MSEM, three steps were employed. First, we standardized all indicators for the independent variable X and moderator Z. Then, we created the interaction term XZ through the multiplication of the standardized independent and moderator variables. Lastly, we fixed the measurement properties for the interaction term XZ. This procedure was implemented for each one of the proposed moderator variables and the previously mentioned criteria for a good model fit was considered to evaluate the fit of our model.

Data were screened for multivariate outliers and normal distribution. Mahalanobis squared distance indicated that there were no multivariate outliers present, while the skewness and kurtosis absolute value of each variable was within the acceptable values ($|Sk| < 3$ and $|Ku| < 10$). Multivariate assumptions were checked through linearity and multicollinearity. To test linearity, curve estimation regression was performed for all direct effects in our model, with p-values less than .05 indicating that relationships between variables were sufficiently linear. Multicollinearity was checked by testing the variable inflation factor (VIF) for all the exogeneous variables; VIFs < 5 (Marôco, 2010) suggested that the exogeneous variables were all distinct.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

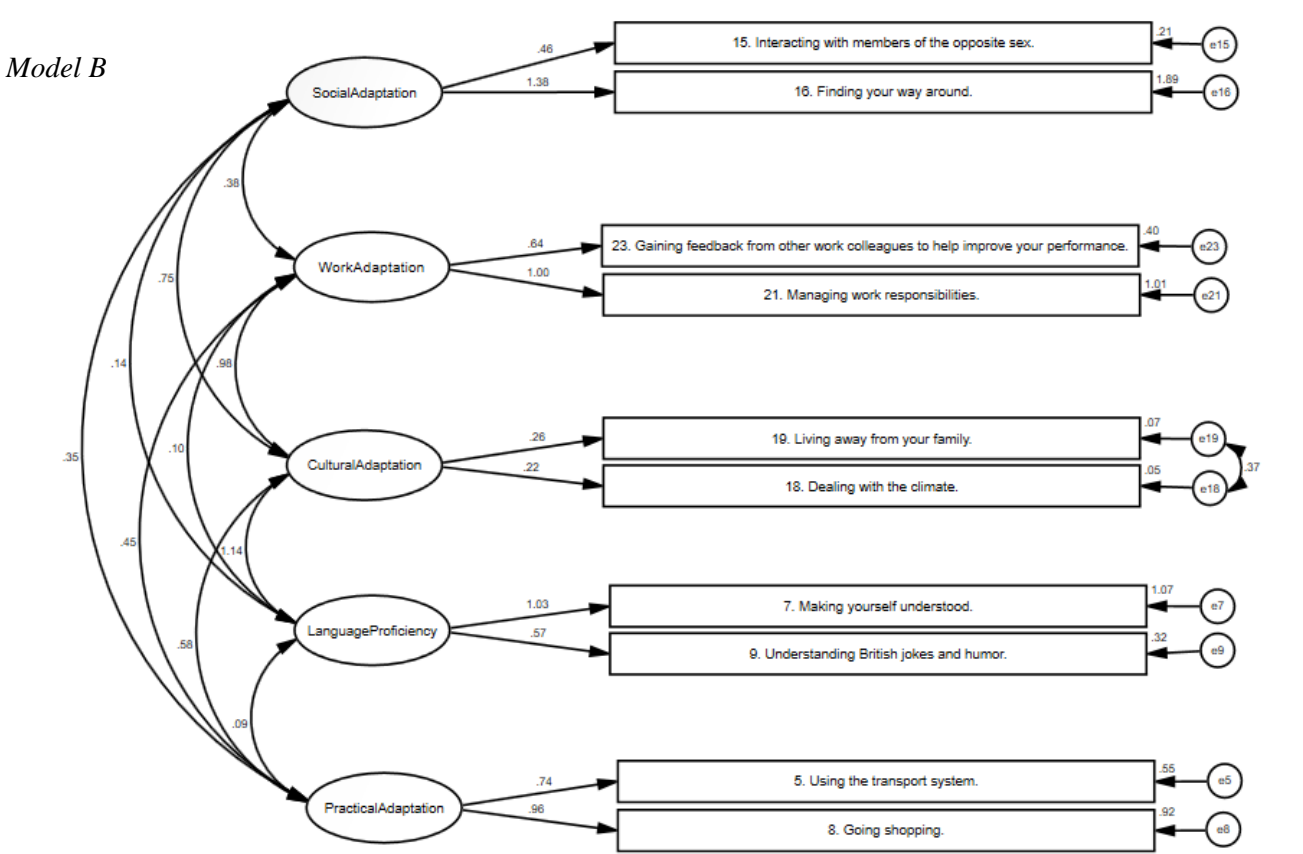
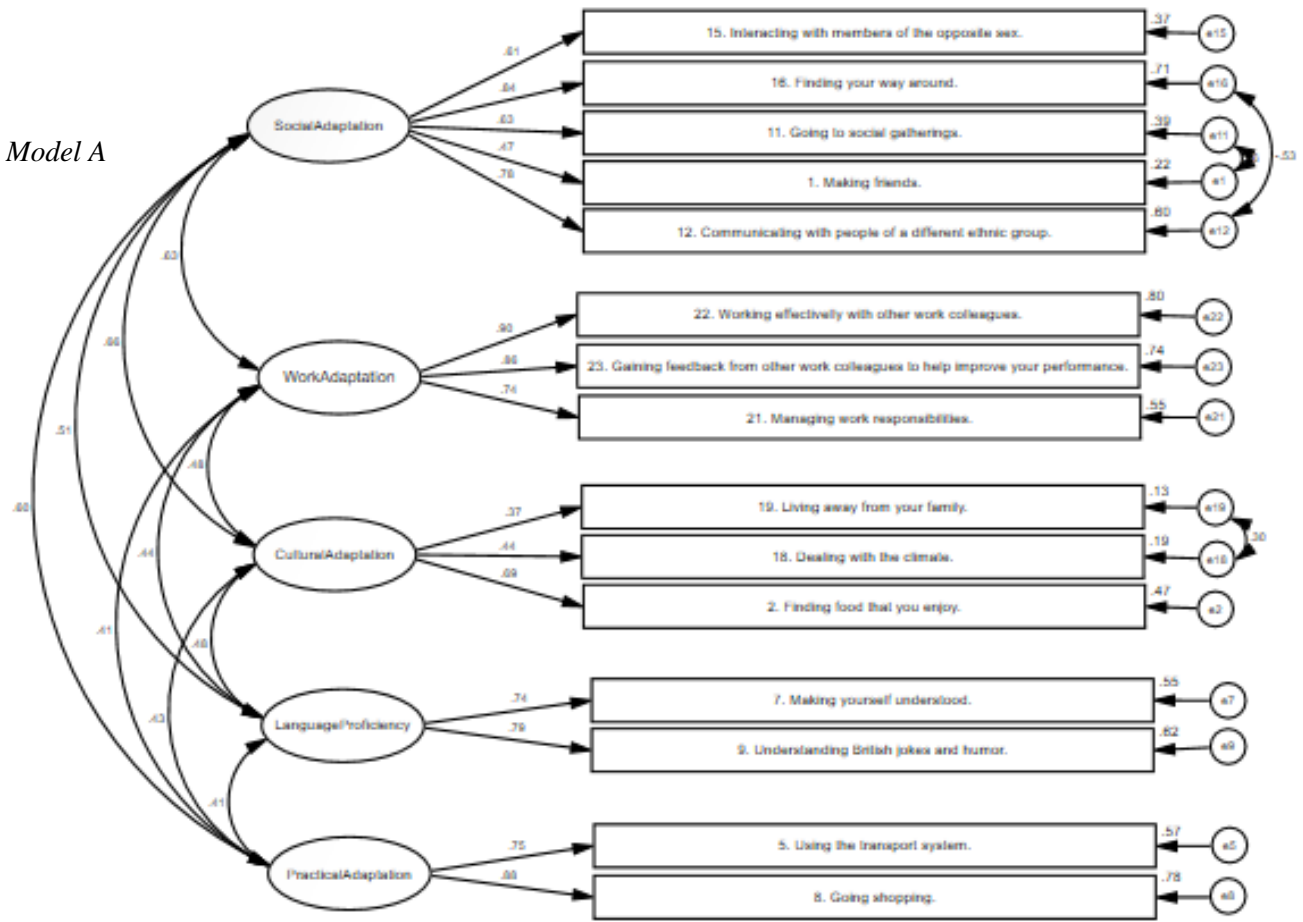
The reliability coefficients, means, standard deviations and frequencies of the model variables are found in Table 3.2. For organization purposes, their interpretation is summarized in the instrument section, below each measure. The last three columns of Table 3.2 present the fit statistics of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA). They revealed an adequate fit, validating the factor structure proposed by the authors. An exception was SCAS (cultural, social, partial and work adaptation) and below we explain the procedure used to get to the adequate fit presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Reliabilities and descriptive statistics of the model variables

Variables from the model	Mean (SD)	A	Frequency Value (n)	Confirmatory factor analysis			
				χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI
DETERMINANTS OF CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTATION							
<i>Personal</i>							
Personal agency	3.23 (.43)	.91		3.07	.09	.95	.94
Realistic expectations	-7.57 (10.51)		-2 (36) 1 (17) -7 (16)				
Previous international experience			Yes (83) No (167)				
Personality	3.78 (.53)	.85		2.06	.06	.96	.95
Proficiency in English language	4.81 (.34)	.87		.55	.00	1.00	1.00
<i>Interpersonal</i>							
Contact with prospective host/home country nationals			Yes (141) No (109)				
Family support			A little (49) A lot (201)				
Engaging in recreational activities	3.48 (.66)	.69		2.74	.08	.98	.91
Interaction with host country nationals	3.13 (1.06)	.90					
Interaction with home country nationals	3.62 (.95)	.80		1.89	.08	.99	.97
Working with older colleagues			Yes (172) No (78)				
<i>Societal</i>							
Host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners	1.67 (.74)	.89		2.90	.08	.99	.97
Low ethnic composition of neighborhood			Almost all people are British/from different nationality than mine (127) A majority of people is British/from a different nationality than mine (118)				
<i>Situational</i>							
Job proposal			I came with a job offer (250) less than 1 month (0) 1 to 6 months (0) 7 to 12 months (0) more than a year (0)				
Defined repatriation intentions			Continue living & working in UK (0) Continue living & working in UK for a period and then return to PT (232) Live in another country (18) Other (0)				
Unbalanced time spent in home and host country			Once a month (13) Every 3 months (131) Every 6 months (69) Once a year (37)				
Favorable housing conditions			No difficulty (100) Some difficulty (50) Moderate difficulty (49) Great difficulty (31) Extreme difficulty (20)				
DIMENSIONS OF CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTATION							
Emotional adaptation	4.76 (1.02)	.86		3.01	.09	.98	.94
Cultural adaptation	3.16 (1.03)	.58 ^a		1.99	.09	.95	.91
Social adaptation	4.49 (.73)	.77 ^a					
Practical adaptation	4.75 (.58)	.83 ^a					
Work adaptation	4.42 (.70)	.87 ^a					

^a Spearman-Brown coefficient is reported

Figure 3.2 Standardized factor structure for SCAS in the present sample of EA SIEs



Confirmatory Factor Analysis of SCAS. Based on the results from the Study 2 presented in Chapter 2, the hypothesized CFA model (made the following assumptions: 1) participant responses would be explained by five inter-correlated factors (work adaptation, language adaptation, practical adaptation, cultural adaptation and social adaptation); 2) each item would have a loading > 0 on the factor that it was designed to measure; 3) there are two correlations between the error terms associated with the item measurements (e1-e11; e16-e12 and e18-e19). As the goodness-of-fit indices of the hypothesized model were indicative of poor model fit (CFI=.76; TLI=.67; RMSEA= .15; $\chi^2(78)=489.51, p=.000$), a specification search was required to identify a new model, which would be more representative of the data.

First, based on modification indices and theoretical plausibility, we identified one pair of error terms that could be correlated (i.e. 15 and 11). Since the hypothesized model continued to have a poor model fit (CFI=.77; TLI=.68; RMSEA= .14; $\chi^2(77)=474.29, p=.000$), we proceeded with the sequential elimination of the items with a loading less than .50 (Hair et al., 2006). In total five items were eliminated, yielding to a good model fit of the hypothesized model (CFI=.97; TLI=.95; RMSEA= .06; $\chi^2(25)=50.60, p=.002$). Table 3.2 presents the goodness-of-fit indices after the elimination of each one of the five items, while Figure 3.2 (Model B) depicts the re-specified model of SCAS used in this study. This distribution of items was also present in the EFA conducted on half of the sample.

Model Test Using Structural Equation Modelling

The fitted structural model demonstrated a poor fit ($\chi^2(140)=445.21, p=.000$ CFI=.81; RMSEA= .09; SRMR=.06). In order to achieve a better fit, we explored the modification indices which suggested correlations between the exogenous variables and some additional correlations described in the section entitled additional determinants of cross-cultural adaptation. Allowing for these correlations, the model revealed a good fit ($\chi^2(110)= 123.78, p=.174$; CFI=.99; RMSEA= .02; SRMR=.04).

Zero-order correlations and descriptive statistics are portrayed in Table 3.3, while a summary of all the results from SEM is synthesized in Table 3.4. Next, we are going to describe these results in detail, based on the proposed hypothesis. Therefore, the results will be presented in terms of the determinants hypothesized for each dimension of cross-cultural adaptation.

Table 3.3. Descriptive statistics and correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
1. Personal agency	1.00																						
2. Expectations	.10	1.00																					
3. Previous international experience	.07	.27**	1.00																				
4. Open mindedness	.29**	-.24**	-.15*	1.00																			
5. English language proficiency	.27**	.06	.11	.11	1.00																		
6. Contact prospective host/home country	-.16*	-.12	-.05	.20**	.03	1.00																	
7. Family support	.09	-.16*	.03	.02	-.09	-.11	1.00																
8. Engage in recreational activities	.04	-.14*	-.01	.34**	-.02	.11	-.13*	1.00															
9. Interaction with host country nationals	.16*	-.25**	-.03	.14*	.13*	-.14*	.27**	.22**	1.00														
10. Interaction with home country nationals	-.06	-.25**	-.03	.10	-.09	-.05	.15*	.23**	.17**	1.00													
11. Work with older colleagues	-.29**	.10	-.26**	-.05	-.13*	-.03	.08	-.22**	-.15*	.11	1.00												
12. Neighborhood composition	.10	-.02	.22**	.03	-.04	-.16*	-.01	.03	-.02	.30**	.11	1.00											
13. Perceived discrimination	-.37**	.03	-.25**	-.13*	-.20**	-.04	-.28**	-.04	-.53**	-.09	.25**	-.11	1.00										
14. Housing conditions	-.22**	-.12	-.19**	.06	-.11	.07	.00	-.05	.03	-.07	.13*	-.36**	.23**	1.00									
15. Time spent in home and host country	-.10	.03	-.08	.11	.21**	.12	.11	.11	.24**	.27**	-.03	-.23**	-.20**	.23**	1.00								
16. Time lived in the UK	-.01	-.01	.10	-.08	.20**	-.30**	.13*	.19**	.16**	.24**	.00	-.01	.15*	.08	-.04	1.00							
17. Move accompanied or not	.00	-.05	-.09	.12	.01	.25**	-.02	-.13*	-.01	-.07	.00	-.12*	-.14*	.13*	.25**	-.26**	1.00						
18. Emotional adaptation	.18**	-.07	.03	.15*	.12	-.03	.20**	.05	.43**	.09	-.02	-.05	-.53**	.09	.28**	.08	.10	1.00					
19. Social adaptation	.16**	-.12*	.02	.09	.12	-.02	.15*	-.06	.40**	.23**	-.05	-.03	-.16**	.15*	-.04	.09	-.04	.27**	1.00				
20. Cultural adaptation	.02	-.12	.12	.08	.13*	.10	.01	.11	.25**	-.02	-.03	-.10	-.26**	.10	.30**	-.06	.03	.60**	.14*	1.00			
21. Work adaptation	.12	-.04	.08	.17**	.14*	-.04	.09	-.12*	.19**	.17**	.14*	.09	-.35**	.07	.00	-.09	-.02	.49**	.27**	.26**	1.00		
22. Practical adaptation	.10	-.09	.03	.09	.19**	-.12	.24**	-.08	.29**	.22**	-.11	.03	-.06	.29**	.03	.33**	-.13*	.19**	.36**	.16*	.22*	1.00	
<i>Mean</i>	3.22	-7.57	.33	3.78	4.81	.56	1.80	3.51	3.13	3.62	.69	1.48	1.67	3.72	2.52	2.66	.39	4.76	4.49	3.16	4.42	4.75	
<i>SD</i>	.043	10.52	.47	.53	.34	.50	.40	.66	1.06	.95	.46	.50	.74	1.32	.81	.99	.49	1.07	.73	1.03	.70	.58	

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 3.4 Results of SEM analyses predicting EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation

Determinants of cross-cultural adaptation		Dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation				
Pre-relocation	Post-relocation	Cultural	Emotional	Social	Practical	Work
Personal						
Personal agency		-.11	.01	.12*	.08	.02
Realistic expectations		-.12*	-.04	.08	.10	-.10
Previous international experience					-.05	.10
Personality		.07		-.02		
Proficiency in English language		.05	-.07	.07	.16**	.08
Interpersonal						
Family support		-.09	-.01	.06	.18***	-.07
Contact with prospective host/home country nationals				.17**	.06	
	Engaging in recreational activities			-.16**		
	Interaction with host country nationals			.45***	.22***	
	Interaction with home country nationals			.16**	.23***	
	Working with older colleagues			-.10		.15*
Societal						
	Host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners	-.24***	-.45***	.25***	.16*	-.09
	Low ethnic composition of neighborhood	-.14*	-.01	-.08	.17**	.08
Situational						
	Unbalanced time spent in home and host country	.24***		-.15**		
	Favorable housing conditions		.11*			

Note: standardized regression coefficients are presented; * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Determinants of Cultural Adaptation. As hypothesized, the unbalanced time spent in the home and host country was positively associated with cultural adaptation (H1f; $\beta = .24, p < .001$), while perceived discrimination (H1g; $\beta = -.24, p < .001$) and low ethnic neighborhood composition (H1h; $\beta = -.14, p < .05$) was negatively associated with cultural adaptation.

By looking at the standardized coefficient of the relationship between cultural adaptation with realistic expectations ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$), one could affirm that Hypothesis 1b was rejected since it predicted cultural adaptation to be a positive effect of realistic expectations. However, we should keep in mind the scale used to assess this determinant of cross-cultural adaptation. More specifically, as mentioned previously in the methods section, the realistic expectations index was constructed from a set of 24 items. Participants rated the expected and present difficulty of achieving the described situations in each item, using a five-point scale, ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (To a very great extent). Therefore, the encountered negative relationship between the realistic expectations and cultural adaptation is pertinent. An increase in the participants' score on the realistic expectations scale reveals a greater difficulty experienced, and consequently a more unrealistic expectation. Consequently, this should affect cultural adaptation in a negative way. Having said this, we can affirm that Hypothesis 1b was confirmed.

As predicted by Hypothesis 1d, English language proficiency had a positive significant correlation with cultural adaptation ($r = .13, p < .05$), but this was not a significant predictor in the SEM analysis ($\beta = .05, p = .406$); hence we can affirm that our data did not provide sufficient empirical support to confirm Hypothesis 1d. In addition, Hypotheses 1a, 1c and 1e were not confirmed, due to non-significant relationships between cultural adaptation with personal agency, personality and family support.

Determinants of Emotional Adaptation. As predicted by Hypotheses 2e and 2f, emotional adaptation was positively related with favorable housing conditions ($\beta = .11, p < .01$) and negatively associated with the unfavorable attitudes of host country nationals towards foreigners ($\beta = -.45, p < .001$). We did not find further empirical evidence in the SEM analysis for the remaining hypotheses, although the bivariate correlations indicated that emotional adaptation was positively associated with personal agency ($r = .18, p < .01$) and family support, ($r = .10, p < .01$) similar to what Hypotheses 2c and 2d predicted.

Determinants of Social Adaptation. Participants' personal agency (H3a; $\beta = .12$, $p < .05$), contact with prospective home/host country (H3f; $\beta = .17$, $p < .01$), interaction with host (H3h; $\beta = .45$, $p < .001$) and home country nationals (H3i; $\beta = .16$, $p < .01$), as well as the unbalanced time spent in home and host country (H3n; $\beta = -.15$, $p < .01$) were significant predictors of social adaptation. In addition, the SEM analyses revealed that participants' engagement in recreational activities ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .01$) and host country nationals' unfavorable attitudes towards foreigners ($\beta = .25$, $p < .001$) had the potential of influencing social adaptation, but in a direction opposite that of Hypotheses 3g and 3k.

The remaining hypotheses were not confirmed through the SEM analyses. Nonetheless, social adaptation's predicted positive function of family support (H3e), was reflected in the encountered positive correlation between these two variables ($r = .15$, $p < .05$).

Determinants of Practical Adaptation. Results revealed that, as predicted, practical adaptation is a positive function of English language proficiency (H4d; $\beta = .16$, $p < .01$), family support (H4e; $\beta = .18$, $p < .01$), and the interaction with host (H4g; $\beta = .22$, $p < .001$) and home country nationals (H4h; $\beta = .23$, $p < .001$). In addition, host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$) and the low ethnic composition of neighborhood ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$) were significant predictors of practical adaptation, but in a direction opposite that of Hypotheses 4i and 4j.

Determinants of Work Adaptation. Working with older colleagues was the only significant predictor of the proposed ones, indicating that it might facilitate EA SIEs' work adaptation (H5f; $\beta = .16$, $p < .05$). Nonetheless, bivariate correlations presented in Table 3.3 and further SEM analyses revealed other potential predictors of work adaptation, which are further described in the section entitled "Additional Determinants of Cross-Cultural Adaptation."

Moderators. The number of months lived in the UK and how participants moved to the UK (alone vs. accompanied) were hypothesized to moderate EA SIEs' cultural adaptation relationship with the unbalanced time spent in the home and host country. As Table 3.5 illustrates, only Moderation 1 displayed significant results.

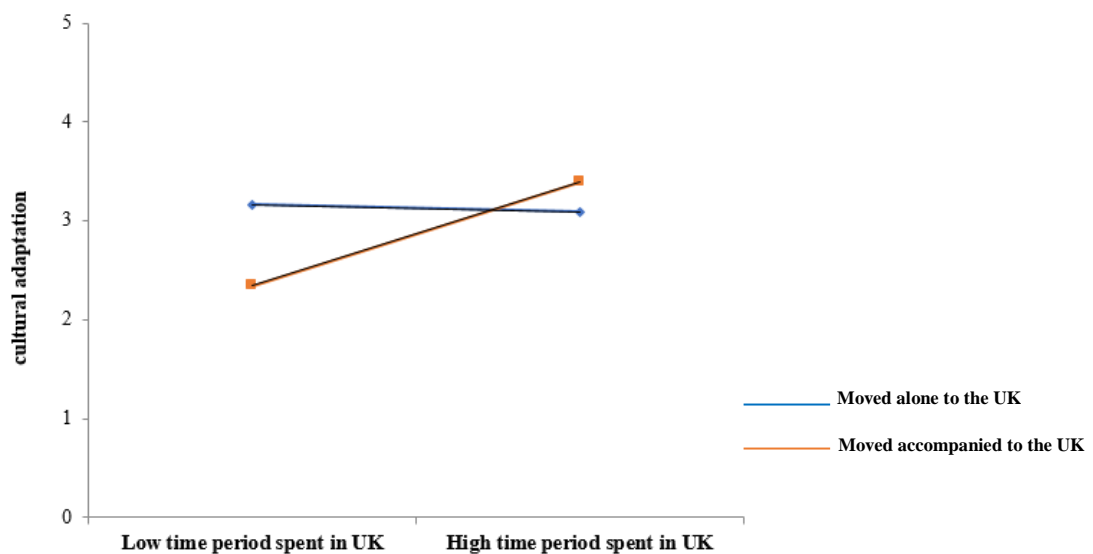
Table 3.5 Moderation results

Variable	Moderation 1	β	Moderation 2	β
Independent (IV)	Time period spent in UK	.24***	Time period spent in UK	.24***
Moderator (MV)	Type of move (alone vs. accompanied)	-.13*	Number of months lived in UK	-.05
Interaction	IV*MV	.28***	IV*MV	-.09

Note: standardized regression coefficients are presented; * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

The unbalanced time spent in the home and host country was measured through participants' frequency of travel to Portugal. Participants who traveled a lot to Portugal (e.g. once a month) spent a low time period in the UK, while participants who traveled less to Portugal (e.g. once a year) spent a high time period in the UK. The results revealed a positive relationship between this variable and cultural adaptation, meaning that higher time periods spent in the UK lead to an increase in the cultural adaptation. On the other hand, moving accompanied had a negative direct effect on cultural adaptation. The interaction effect between these variables is portrayed in Figure 3.3 and it reveals that moving accompanied strengthens the positive relationship between time period spent in the UK and cultural adaptation. In other words, it seems that EA SIEs' cultural adaptation may increase if they moved accompanied and spend longer periods of time in the UK (i.e. travel less to Portugal, i.e. once a year).

Figure 3.3 Graphical representation of the interaction effect



Additional Determinants of Cross-Cultural Adaptation. As mentioned previously, when looking for a better fit of the model, we considered the proposed modification indices. They required the creation of several regression lines between exogenous and endogenous variables. In doing so, several additional determinants of cross-cultural adaptation were found. They focused on the following dimension of cross-cultural adaptation: work, practical and cultural.

Regarding work adaptation, five determinants were significantly related to it in an either positive or negative way. More specifically, the following three determinants impacted work adaptation positively: interaction with home country nationals ($\beta = .14$,

$p < .05$), personality ($\beta = .12, p < .05$) and favorable housing conditions ($\beta = .21, p < .001$). On the other hand, participants' engagement in recreational activities ($\beta = -.13, p < .05$) and accompanied move to UK ($\beta = -.11, p < .05$) were negative predictors of work adaptation.

Similarly, these two determinants also impacted practical adaptation in a negative way (engagement in recreational activities: $\beta = -.24, p < .001$; move accompanied: $\beta = -.12, p < .05$). In addition, working with older colleagues was also an important negative predictor of practical adaptation ($\beta = -.25, p < .001$), while favorable housing conditions ($\beta = .35, p < .001$) and a longer period lived in the UK ($\beta = .17, p < .01$) were positive predictors of it.

Lastly, the only additional determinant of cultural adaptation was previous international experience. Results indicated that it can influence EA SIEs' cultural adaptation in a positive way ($\beta = .16, p < .05$).

Discussion

This chapter provides data on the cross-cultural adaptation of emerging adult SIEs. It is based on two studies focused on: 1) qualitative interviews and grounded theory analysis methods by which the perceptions and experiences of emerging adult SIEs have been investigated; 2) quantitative data and analysis which tested the previously identified perceptions of cross-cultural adaptation and its determinants.

Dimensions of Cross-Cultural Adaptation

More specifically, the participants in the first study considered that an adapted individual is one who feels well in the host country (emotional adaptation), interacts with other people in order to establish social relations (social adaptation), is able to efficiently find his/her way around in the host country (practical adaptation), deals with home and host country cultural differences in order to identify his/her cultural belonging (cultural adaptation) and is satisfied with his/her job (work adaptation). This multidimensional conceptualization of cross-cultural adaptation was confirmed in the second study. It seems to reflect the ABC model of culture contact (Ward et al., 2001) and parts of the previous conceptualizations of cross-cultural adaptation.

Regarding the ABC model (Ward et al., 2001), we were able to determine that its components are represented in the four dimensions encountered in this study. More precisely, the affective component (A) is depicted by the emotional adaptation dimension; the behavioral component (B) is portrayed by the social, practical and work adaptation dimensions; and the cognitive component (C) is represented by the cultural dimension. This may suggest that in order to have a broad understanding of emerging adult SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, it is important to consider all three overarching theoretical frameworks which stand behind the ABC model: stress and coping, culture learning and social identification.

Concerning previous conceptualizations of cross-cultural adaptation, we identified some similarities and differences. In terms of similarities, the emotional adaptation dimension coincides with one aspect of intercultural adaptation identified by Searle and Ward (1990), namely the psychological adaptation. In addition, the social and practical adaptation dimensions are related to the other aspect of cross-cultural adaptation proposed by these authors, entitled sociocultural adaptation. These two dimensions also reflect the interaction and general adjustment aspects proposed by Black and Stephens (1989) when defining expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. In their definition, work adjustment was also contemplated and the participants in this

study also referred to this dimension of cross-cultural adaptation. Therefore, we can affirm that the encountered dimensions in this study are a mix of how cross-cultural adaptation is portrayed in the international students' and AEs' literature.

Nonetheless, when defining cross-cultural adaptation, participants in this study also referred to a dimension that it was not contemplated on its own in the previously presented definitions of international assignees' cross-cultural adaptation in the international business research stream (Gonzalez-Loureiro, Kiessling, & Dabic, 2015). We are referring to the cultural dimension, which addresses how participants deal with cultural differences in order to adapt. Participants identified two possible strategies which can be linked to the acculturation strategies proposed by Berry (2005): integration and assimilation. The integration strategy refers to those participants who considered necessary to acquire host country nationals' routines/habits to adapt, while preserved some of the home country ones; whilst the assimilation strategy refers to those participants who relinquished the home country habits/routines and substituted them by new ones belonging to the host country nationals.

Another unique aspect of our data is the way participants broadly defined cross-cultural adaptation. They used the expression of "feeling at home" and all the different dimensions that were previously described decompose this broad definition of cross-cultural adaptation. In addition, participants mentioned several determinants which contribute to the participant "feeling at home", or otherwise said being cross-culturally adapted.

Determinants of Cross-Cultural Adaptation

Similar to Black and collaborators' (1991) model developed for AEs, the participants of this study considered that the adaptation to the new culture can occur before moving to the host country and after arriving. This enhances the importance of time in expatriate cross-cultural adaptation as proposed by Hippler, Brewster and Haslberger (2015). However, the determinants of cross-cultural adaptation identified in this study, outgrow the factors proposed by Black and collaborators (1991). More specifically, participants in this study identified factors which can be organized at four different levels: personal, interpersonal, societal and situational.

Some personal determinants (e.g. personal agency, proficiency in English language) were congruent with the encountered ones in earlier studies focused on SIEs (e.g. Peltokorpi, 2008; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). Nonetheless, participants in this study highlighted some new personal determinants, such as living alone. Most likely

this occurred because of the characteristics of this study's sample, being composed by emerging adults and more than half of them (61.1%) having lived with their parents before relocating to the UK. Therefore, living by themselves is a change in their life, characteristic of the developmental period they are undergoing, in preparation for adulthood.

Concerning interpersonal determinants, we noted that they were mentioned in both phases of the relocation experience. In the pre-relocation phase, participants referred that family (e.g. parents) played an important role in the decision to expatriate, especially knowing that they approved it. This result reinforces the importance of family's role in the decision to expatriate independently (Richardson, 2004) and encourages us to reflect more on the relationship that these emerging adults have with their parents. In terms of the post-relocation determinants, participants highlighted that, their older host country colleagues facilitated their work adaptation, but hampered the other dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation, especially the social one.

In terms of the societal determinants, congruent with one's expectations, they are present only in the post-relocation phase since they are related with the host country itself, regarding locals' attitudes towards foreigners and ethnic composition of the neighborhood. Despite their apparent influence on the cross-cultural adaptation, they have not been explored in the expatriation literature.

Situational determinants were focused on the pre and post relocation phases. The proposed influence of two of them (defined repatriation intentions and unbalanced time spent in the host and home country) on the cultural dimension of cross-cultural adaptation is impressive. According to participants' discourses, the way they deal with the encountered cultural differences between host and home cultures, reflect Berry's (2005) acculturation strategies of integration and assimilation.

On one hand, participants who spend more time in Portugal than in the UK do not seem to adopt any of those two strategies, hence they do not consider themselves to be cross-culturally adapted. They might be adopting another acculturation strategy proposed by Berry (2005): separation, which refers to the rejection of the host country's cultural background and preservation of the home country's one. This is more common among those participants who move unaccompanied and the spouse remains in Portugal; hence separated family play a crucial role in cross-cultural adaptation. Moving accompanied by spouse might buffer the negative effect of the unbalanced time spent in the home and host country over the cultural adaptation. On the other hand, participants

who have a flexible defined timeframe for their departure period from the UK, adopt the assimilation strategy, while integration strategy is more present in the discourse of those who have an inflexible defined timeframe for leaving UK. These are some preliminary results from study one which will be further explored in the next chapter using a mixed methods approach. Nonetheless, it is important to mention that, based on the results obtained in the second study of this chapter, as predicted the unbalanced time spent in the home and host country negatively impacts EA SIEs' cultural adaptation. In addition, their social adaptation is impacted in the same way and moving accompanied seems to be an efficient buffer. Nonetheless, if EA SIEs move accompanied to the UK, their work adaptation might be hampered. Therefore, when making a decision of moving accompanied to the host country or not, EA SIEs should carefully consider all the pros and cons of it, since it is an important determinant that affects multiple dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation.

The way how participants deal with the cultural differences is an important indicator of their cross-cultural adaptation. Integration has been considered the best approach in multicultural societies (Berry, 2005). Keeping in mind that approximately 9% of UK's population is composed by people from other cultures and ethnicities, we can classify UK as a multicultural society (Coates, 2018). Therefore, participants who adopted the integration strategy to deal with the encountered differences might be able to adapt effectively. Nonetheless, there are other variables that might impact their adaptation. For example, according to Zhang and Oczkowski (2016), high motivational cultural intelligence directs successful cross-cultural adaptation. Motivational cultural intelligence refers to the "individual's willingness to face and engage the new culture and their inward desire to persevere when faced with difficult situations (Earley & Peterson, 2004, cit in. Zhang & Oczkowski, 2016, p. 160). In the first study presented in this chapter, the emerging adult SIEs mentioned personal agency as a strong determinant of cross-cultural adaptation. The second study confirmed this positive relationship between personal agency and cross-cultural adaptation, especially in terms of social adaptation. Therefore, these results might endorse the credibility of Zhang and Oczkowski's (2016) results, underscoring the importance of taking ownership over the relocation experience.

Since the expression "feeling at home" was used several times to describe the full level of cross-cultural adaptation, finding a comfortable home, i.e. accommodation, was the most mentioned situational determinant in study one. Participants might have

referred to it due to the difficulty in finding an accommodation in the UK. For 61.1% of participants, this was the first time they were living on their own. In Portugal they were living with their parents, while in the UK they lived in a room and shared the rest of the apartment with people from different cultures who they have never met before; hence finding a comfortable place to live that resembles the way of living in Portugal, might facilitate the adaptation process. This idea was reinforced by the results obtained in the second study presented in this chapter. As predicted, favorable housing conditions positively influenced participants' emotional adaptation. Nonetheless, this situational determinant proved to be a key predictor in facilitating participants' practical and work adaptation.

Some of the interpersonal determinants in the pre and post relocation phase, such as family (e.g. parents) support and working with older colleagues are of uttermost relevance for emerging adult SIEs. The presence of family support is a pre-relocation determinant of emotional adaptation because it could contribute to emerging adult SIEs' degree of satisfaction. By knowing that the family supports their relocation, emerging adult SIEs could feel more comfortable with their relocation decision. This is important for emerging adult SIEs because the overarching goal of this developmental period is to transition out of the family of origin into a stable adult identity (Goldsmith, 2018). With identity exploration comes a higher degree of instability in trying to identify who they are and what they are meant to be. Therefore, an instability in work might occur, with emerging adults tending to experience different jobs. In addition, this instability may take a literal form with emerging adults having some adult responsibilities, while still being deeply connected (i.e. financially, emotionally, etc.) to parents. Parents cannot remove the instability of emerging adulthood, but they can increase anxiety by implying that emerging adults are doing something wrong, while experimenting different relationships, jobs or moving abroad. In order to make a positive contribution to this developmental phase, parents could support emerging adults' experimentation process, by providing empathy and guidance (Goldsmith, 2018). Bearing all this in mind, we can see the importance of family support in emerging adult SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation. More specifically, as the results of study two indicate, family support is significant predictor of practical adaptation.

Since emerging adult SIEs are aged between 19 and 29 years, working with older colleagues might be impactful because they may have more experience in the area and positively contribute to emerging adult SIEs' work adaptation. Nonetheless, their

interaction outside of work might be limited due to their diversified interests fostered by age gaps. Consequently, emerging adult SIEs might experience some difficulties in their social adaptation. The results of study two reveal that working with older colleagues facilitate EA SIEs' adaptation to work, but it does not impact social adaptation negatively. Instead, EA SIEs' practical adaptation might be hampered through the work with older colleagues. This result can still be explained in terms of age gap. Practical adaptation refers to participants' ability to getting used to the way of functioning in the host-country, such as knowing how to get around, using public transportation, health and shopping systems. Working with older colleagues might influence this dimension of cross-cultural adaptation negatively, since EA SIEs' interests might differ from their older colleagues; hence whenever EA SIEs ask for a suggestion, older colleagues might not be able to fully satisfy it. Instead, it seems that through the interaction with home country nationals and proficiency in English language EA, SIEs might improve their practical adaptation.

The societal determinants of cross-cultural adaptation, identified in study one, were considered crucial predictors of all dimension of cross-cultural adaptation. Results from the second study, confirmed most of these predictions; hence raising awareness about the impact of the host country nationals' negative attitudes on EA SIEs' cultural, practical, emotional and social adaptation. In addition, the low ethnic composition of neighborhood seems to be an important predictor of EA SIEs' cultural and practical adaptation. Therefore, based on these results, EA SIEs should carefully pick the neighborhood where they live, dispersing over the ones with a low ethnic composition.

Limitations of this Research and Future Suggestions

Despite the significant results encountered in both studies presented in this chapter, their limitations should be noted. For example, regarding study one's methodology, conducting the interviews via Skype with video might have allowed a higher potential for interruption. Even though we tried to compensate this by silencing our cellphone and putting a do not disturb sign on the front door, this was not respected in one interview and the internet connection failed in other two interviews, right in the middle of participants' response. This required to reestablish the Skype call and ask participants to repeat their answer, which might have led to less detailed answers, since participants might have tried to summarize the previously given one.

In terms of the findings, the data were retrospective, which means that later life experiences of the emerging adults might have affected the way in which they viewed

their cross-cultural adaptation during the interviews. This limitation can be extended to data collection procedures employed in study two. For example, in order to assess participants' realistic expectations, they were asked to assess difficulties that they imagined encountering in the host country. These were compared with difficulties they encountered after arriving in the host country. We consider that this could have been a difficult task for the participants to give accurate answers; mixing up current difficulties with expected ones. A possible solution to this limitation is to carry out a longitudinal study. Before relocating participants would be asked about the difficulties, they expect to encounter in the host country; and at two different periods after relocating participants' experienced difficulties would be explored. At the same time, we should not forget that cross-cultural adaptation is a process and not a specific point in individuals' life; hence more longitudinal studies are needed to determine how it unfolds. In addition, studies exploring different perspectives are necessary. For example, in the two studies presented in this chapter, we collected data solely from EA SIEs. When asked about the host country nationals' attitudes towards foreigners, participants perceived discrimination was assessed. It would be interesting to complement this with data collected from host country nationals, hence providing a more holistic understanding of how this societal determinant's influence on cross-cultural adaptation.

The generalizability of the results from one qualitative study based on small and non-probability sample might also be questioned. However, we consider that qualitative studies do not seek the statistical generalizations of the found results. Instead, they focus on the analytical generalizations. In the first study, this was accomplished, since the results partially reflected existing theories, while extending existing knowledge. Furthermore, Glaser's (1978) point of view should be followed. He argues that a grounded theory is not a fixed-end point and it is always open to modifications as new data is gathered. Therefore, we consider that our findings should be interpreted as a perspective on EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, or a set of working hypotheses. They are open to discussion as new data will be gathered. In fact, research is needed to further explore the proposed relationships, and we suggest that a mixed method study could be carried out, where the qualitative results are empirically tested using a quantitative approach. In doing so, some potential issues should be considered. For example, some determinants could influence additional sub dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation, besides the ones mentioned by the participants in study one. Therefore, we consider that supplementary relationships between determinants and dimensions of cross-cultural

adjustments could be further explored. This issue was superficially addressed in study two while exploring additional determinants of cross-cultural adaptation. Some significant results were found; hence this could serve as a steppingstone into further exploration.

In addition, other contexts might be explored, in order to determine if the encountered results in this study apply to other EA SIEs. At the same time, it would be interesting to explore if Portuguese emerging adult SIEs in different host countries, perceive cross-cultural adaptation and its determinants the same way as the ones in this study. By following these suggestions, it will be a step forward into changing the current situation of having “a wealth of indicators but a dearth of replications” (Haslberger, et al., 2014, p. 129).

Another suggestion for future research involves focusing on the most mentioned dimension of cross-cultural adaptation, i.e. cultural adaptation. Although previous studies (Patterson, 2002; Haslberger et al., 2014) considered that expatriates are unlikely to acculturate, due to their temporary sojourn, this study pointed out that acculturation might play an important role in their cross-cultural adaptation. Therefore, we suggest that this may be further explored. This suggestion will hopefully address Gonzalez-Loureiro et al.’s (2015) concern about how adjustment-acculturation have been researched as mutually exclusionary realms and scholars have devoted little effort to join the analyses. Nonetheless, since international assignments are becoming a more common practice in the increasingly globalized world (Haslberger et al., 2014), individuals seem to deal with three major concerns: 1) work; 2) the place where they live; and 3) the place where their family lives. Consequently, two or more cultures may be interacting, and the individual has to decide the best way to deal with them. In the case of emerging adult SIEs’ first relocation, the extended family (i.e. the relationships with parents, relatives and close friends who remained at the origin country) may play a crucial role in how they deal with the home and host country’s cultural differences (i.e. acculturate, integrate, separate or marginalize). This could influence their cross-cultural adaptation; hence we support Gonzalez-Loureiro et al.’s (2015) call for more integrative studies of adaptation and acculturation, instead of attributing research to one or another.

Contributions of the Research

The research presented in this chapter points to several contributions in the fields of cross-cultural adaptation, emerging adulthood and self-initiated expatriation. By

considering this study's sample, we contributed to Farcas and Gonçalves' (2016) call for more studies focused on emerging adult SIEs. In doing so, we simultaneously addressed the gap in the emerging adulthood literature regarding the focus on non-university samples of emerging adults. Therefore, we adopted an integrative approach of emerging adults and SIEs, instead of researching them as mutually exclusionary realms. This is extremely relevant contribution to the literature focused on emerging adult SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, since previous studies focusing on emerging adults' cross-cultural adaptation used solely university samples, which limited the generalizability of the results to the emerging adults who move abroad for other reasons, such as work (e.g. SIEs). In addition, studies focusing on SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation have predominantly used the cross-cultural adjustment framework of Black and collaborators (1991), which targets AEs and therefore disregards the specificities of SIEs. These limitations were addressed in this study, by inductively developing and empirically testing a cross-cultural adaptation model for emerging adult SIEs.

The methodology chosen in this research can also be considered a contribution. In contrast to the deductive approach used so far by researchers to study the cross-cultural adaptation of SIEs, we chose to learn more about it through an inductive process. Therefore, by conducting interviews with emerging adult SIEs and analyzing them through a grounded theory approach, we were able to develop a model of cross-cultural adaptation. To the best of our knowledge this is the first model which was inductively developed, enabling a broad understanding of emerging adult SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, in terms of what constitutes and influences it. Additionally, this model enabled an organization of the determinants of cross-cultural adaptation, by taking into account different facets and phases of the relocation. Several determinants were identified in the pre-relocation phase, indicating that individuals might start their cross-cultural adaptation process while in the home country. In addition, this idea was strengthened by the results obtained from the empirical testing of the model through structural equation modeling.

Since one of the identified dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation is emotional adaptation, we consider that we have strengthened Tan et al.'s (2005) call for attention to the role of emotion in international adaptation and training of expatriates. Nonetheless, Gullekson and Dumaisnil (2016) realized that research has not followed suit in this area. With the aim of building such a path, they presented a review of research on emotional display and status on cross-cultural context and we consider that our paper took it a step

further by collecting some empirical data regarding how emotional adaptation is understood and its determinants.

Besides the aforementioned contributions of this research to the literature of emerging adult SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, we would like to highlight some practical implications of our findings for emerging adult SIEs, their families and global employers. More specifically, by knowing the determinants of cross-cultural adaptation, emerging adult SIEs could start preparing for their international experience before relocating (e.g. practice their English language proficiency) and after arriving in the host country (e.g. engage in recreational activities). This is mainly because the findings of this study point out pre and post relocation determinants of cross-cultural adaptation, situated at the personal, interpersonal, societal level. One of the pre relocation interpersonal determinants of cross-cultural adaptation is family support. Therefore, emerging adult SIEs' families could become more aware of their impact on the cross-cultural adaptation of family members who are relocating. Consequently, they could positively influence the cross-cultural adaptation, by supporting the emerging adult SIEs' relocation. According to this research's findings, global employers could also make a positive contribution by facilitating emerging adult SIEs' housing conditions and working environment (i.e. work with colleagues who are in the same age range as them).

Chapter 4

Cultural Identity and Acculturation Orientations of Emerging Adult Self-Initiated Expatriates

This chapter is based on the submitted paper:

Farcas, D. & Gonçalves, M. (2019). 'When in the United Kingdom, do as the British do?' Cultural Identity and Acculturation orientations of Portuguese Emerging Adult Self-Initiated Expatriates in the United Kingdom, *Emerging Adulthood Journal*

Abstract

In this chapter, we examine how Portuguese EA SIEs live within and between the Portuguese and British cultures. To achieve this goal, we conducted two complementary studies. In the first study, eighteen interviews were conducted with Portuguese emerging adult SIEs ($M_{\text{age}}=27.1$ years, $SD=1.84$), whose time spent in the United Kingdom ranges from five months to two years. After transcribing the interviews, they were analyzed using content analysis. Results indicate that participants identified more differences than similarities between the two cultures. To deal with the encountered differences, participants chose to acculturate by using the integration ($n=16$) and assimilation strategy ($n=2$). In terms of cultural identity, half the participants perceived that they identified with both cultures (bicultural identity), while most of the rest identified mainly with the Portuguese culture (ethnic identity), and a few identified mainly with the British culture (national identity). These results were similar to the complementary ones obtained through SEM and MANCOVA conducted in the second study. Data was collected from 250 EA SIEs ($M_{\text{age}}=27.17$ years, $SD=1.95$). Some possible explanations for these results are discussed and suggestions for future research are pointed out as well as practical implications.

Keywords: emerging adults, self-initiated expatriation, identity, acculturation

Introduction

Increasing numbers of people, estimated at approximately 258 million people, live outside their 'home' country, operating between two cultures/societies (International Organization for Migration, 2018). For them, crossing borders and cultures can be a challenging process often resulting in profound personal transformation. These individuals are continuously confronting and negotiating the demands of at least two different cultures, i.e. the home country culture and the host country one. Therefore, they are often engaged in reflections about their sense of who they are, and re-organization of the self in the new cultural environment, which is different from the home country one. By making choices about the culture with which they identify, individuals form their cultural identity (Jensen, Arnett, & McKenzie, 2011). A coherent cultural identity can successfully guide individuals' behaviors in their everyday life, buffer the harmful effects of negative life events and positively contribute to their well-being (Schwartz, 2005; Schwartz, Zamboanga, Rodrigues, & Wang, 2007; Smith & Silva, 2011).

We argue that there is a growing need to understand how crossing borders and cultures affect individuals' cultural identity. So far, research has gained some understanding of migrants' cultural identity, but there remains a paucity of research on the subject (Adams & van de Vijver, 2015). The estimated number of migrants (258 million) covers all people living outside their home countries, including students, retirees, children and others not in work. In this chapter, we aim to address the gap in understanding of cultural identity amongst expatriates, i.e. "legally working individuals who reside temporarily in a country of which they are not a citizen in order to accomplish a career-related goal, being relocated abroad either by an organization, by self-initiation or directly employed within the host-country" (McNulty & Brewster, 2017, p. 46). Particularly, we aim to explore emerging adult self-initiated expatriates' cultural identity. Emerging adults are individuals found in the developmental period from the late teens to late twenties, during which they reach adulthood by consolidating the sense of self and undergoing experimentation in love, work and worldview (Arnett, 2000). Self-initiated expatriates are skilled professionals who, on their own volition and personal funding, choose to work abroad for a temporary period, usually in search of career development, cultural and personal experiences (Farcas & Gonçalves, 2017; Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari, 2008; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). We focus on this type of expatriates because they are an important source of global talent flow in the increasingly globalized marketplace (Haslberger & Vaiman, 2013; Tharenou, 2010). The limited extant

research on expatriates' cultural identity does not usually address SIEs, while the existent research on emerging adults' cultural identity relies mostly on university samples.

Next, we provide an overview of the relevant literature from expatriates' and emerging adults' cultural identity. Then, we describe the methodology we used and present the results. We end the chapter with a discussion of the findings, along with their implications, limitations and suggestions for future research.

Literature Review

Cultural Identity. The subjective sense of belonging to a group or culture refers to cultural identity, i.e. "the ethnically or culturally based practices, values, and identifications that one maintains" (Schwartz et al., 2013, p. 155). Following the widely accepted conception of cultural identity proposed by Phinney, Berry, Sam, and Vedder (2006), we highlight four possible cultural identities depending on identification with the host and/ or home country's culture: ethnic identity, national identity, bicultural identity and diffuse identity.

Ethnic Identity. This monocultural identification occurs when individuals identify with and maintain the ideals, values and/ or practices of their home country. In the Cultural Identity Model (CIM), developed based on sojourners' experiences, Sussman (2002) defines this type of cultural identity as an affirmative one, since individuals affirm their home country identity, i.e. strengthen their identification with home country values, norms and beliefs. Even after spending some time abroad, they see themselves as having a strong bond with their compatriots and feel a member of the home country group. For these individuals, cultural transitions do not provide a cultural identity shift. Instead, they serve as an occasion for certain home-culture values, norms and/ or beliefs to become more salient and visible (Mao & Shen, 2015). Studies such as that by Sam, Vedder, Ward and Horenczyk (2006) argue that a strong ethnic identity is usually associated with adaptive and health-promoting outcomes, although the evidence is unclear, as Smith and Silva (2011) point out in their meta-analytic review. The CIM predicts that these individuals would have low adaptation in the host country and would be more inclined to repatriate; hence returning home would be seen positively, experiencing low repatriation distress (Sussman, 2002).

National Identity. This is another monocultural identification that occurs when individuals identify with and adopt the ideals, values and/ or practices of the host country. In the CIM, this type of cultural identity is denominated subtractive, since individuals withdraw their home country identity, and identify mostly (or totally) only with the host country values, norms and beliefs. They feel themselves members of the host country group and do not see

themselves as having a strong bond with their compatriots. Consequently, although they might experience high repatriation distress as a result of feelings of alienation they experience high adaptation in the host country (Sussman, 2002). National identity has received scarce attention in the cultural identity literature (though see Schildkraut, 2010, 2011). It has been studied mostly from the locals' perspective (majority group), noting that those who are highly identified with their nation tend to be less tolerant of migrants (Leong, 2008).

Bicultural Identity. When both cultures are adopted, a bicultural identification takes place, leading to the formation of a bicultural identity. In the CIM, this type of cultural identity is denominated additive identity, since the individual adds to the home country values, norms and beliefs, the host country ones. In this sense, a bicultural individual would speak both the language of the host and home country, have friends from both cultural backgrounds, and watch television programs from both cultural contexts. In addition, Schwartz and Unger (2010) suggested that besides adopting the practices of both countries, a bicultural individual would adopt the values present in both of them (*e.g.* a Chinese American would mix traditional Chinese values, such as respect for parents with individualistic American values, such as working long hours to achieve personal success) and have a mixture of both in terms of identification (*e.g.* being a Chinese American, rather than just Chinese or just American). Therefore, individuals engaged in this type of identity perceive neither culture as dominant and perceive both cultures as significant. They might experience high adaptation, and repatriation as a negative outcome (Sussman, 2002).

Diffuse Identity. When an individual does not identify with any culture, he/ she endorses a more diffuse cultural identity. In the CIM, this type of cultural identity is denominated global identity and it refers to individual's distancing from any particular culture. Instead the individual is ingrained in several cultures. Thus, "a global identity can be pictured as a mosaic cultural knowledge, values and attitudes that make up one's cultural identity, and put together in idiosyncratic ways" (Mao & Shen, 2015, p. 11). Adaptation to the host country is instrumental, while repatriation is predicted to be a moderate or positive experience (Sussman, 2002).

Factors Influencing Cultural Identity. In the previous section we described four types of cultural identities than can be endorsed by individuals in cultural transitions. Next, we present some of the factors that might influence the endorsement of a specific type of cultural identity.

For example, regarding diffuse identity, Rudmin (2003) questioned the possibility of creating a cultural identity without taking elements from either the home or host country culture. This might reflect cultural identity confusion, where individuals experience difficulty reconciling the home and host country cultures' expectations, values, and beliefs, consequently ending up rejecting both (Berry & Kim, 1988). This might happen when individuals feel rejected in the host country due to their appearance, religion or socioeconomic status, or when they consider that the host country culture is too different from the home country one; hence experiencing a large degree of cultural distance (Jensen et al., 2011).

In contrast, when individuals experience a small degree of cultural distance, a bicultural identity might result with individuals adopting the ideals, values and practices of the host country culture while retaining the home country ones. Either identification may be most salient in specific situations, suggesting that bicultural individuals do not internalize and use their two cultures globally and uniformly (Benet-Martínez, Leu, Lee, & Morris, 2002; Nguyen & Benet-Martínez, 2007). The perceived degree of cultural distance, i.e. perceived discrepancies between home and host culture environments, might play an important role in cultural identification. So, a smaller degree of perceived cultural distance leads to a more positive attitude towards the host country, which is considered to be the strongest predictor of host country identification (Nesdale & Mak, 2000).

Schwartz and Zamboanga (2008) argue that biculturalism is most likely to be adopted in bicultural environments. Therefore, in large multicultural cities, such as London, being able to navigate within multiple cultures might be considered an advantage, contrary to what might happen in monocultural areas such as Northern England. There, despite biculturalism's positive and significant links with psychological and sociocultural adjustment (Nguyen & Benet-Martínez, 2013), it might be most adaptive to behave and think in ways that are consistent with the host country culture, endorsing a national identity. In environments where host country nations are not open to accepting migrants, Umaña-Taylor (2011) suggested that ethnic identity is important for individuals, because it helps them to find their place within the host country and it keeps them psychologically attached to their heritage cultures and communities.

Besides cultural distance, composition of the neighborhood/ host country environment and locals' attitudes towards migrants and expatriates, we consider that acculturation has important implications for identity. It facilitates individuals to think thoroughly about who they are, what values and goals they endorse, and how they changed as a result of contact

with host country members (Berry et al., 2006; Ward & Kus, 2012). In the next section we focus on this aspect in more detail.

Acculturation. Acculturation and cultural identity have been used interchangeably, due to weak construct clarity (Phinney et al., 2006). We adopt Phinney et al.'s (2006) assumption that acculturation is a broader construct than cultural identity. While cultural identity involves developing a sense of belonging and attachment to a cultural group, acculturation involves a cultural change after contact with other cultures. Because of this intercultural contact, individuals adopt strategies which enable them to live successfully in the intercultural environment. Berry (2005) proposed four different strategies, which emerge by crossing two dimensions: 1) the degree to which individuals wish to maintain their home country culture and identity; and 2) the degree to which individuals seek involvement within the host country culture. Separation occurs when individuals attempt to maintain the home country culture and avoid involvement with the host country. In contrast, assimilation occurs when individuals relinquish the home country culture and aim to get involved in the host culture. Integration takes place when both home country cultural maintenance and involvement in the host country culture are combined, while rejection of both leads to marginalization. Of these four strategies, integration is considered the one that leads to more positive outcomes, while marginalization is associated with the more negative ones.

In an editorial essay, Schwartz (2005) argues that identity literature has paid little attention to individuals' acculturation. He points out that empirical research on the role of identity in acculturation process is needed for three reasons. First, migration and acculturation have been associated with a number of health risk behaviors and psychological problems, especially for individuals who adopt the host country's values and abandon their heritage culture ones (Israelowitz & Slonim-Nevo, 2002; Oh, Koeske, & Sales, 2002). Second, when families migrate together, children usually acculturate at a faster rate than their parents, and these intergenerational acculturation differences may cause friction within the family, predisposing the younger migrants to health risk behaviors and psychological problems. Third, acculturative stress (*e.g.* perceived discrimination) may be associated with depression and physical health problems (Finch, Hummer, Kolody, & Vega, 2001). Having this in mind, Schwartz (2005) suggests that a positive and coherent sense of identity may protect individuals against the harmful effects of acculturative stress and the negative effects of intergenerational acculturation discrepancies.

Attitudes may play a central role in the process of acculturation and adaptation, because cultural identity alone does not tell us about the attitudes people hold towards the host and home country culture (Liebkind, 2006). “Thus, people with ethnic and national identities tend to have different acculturation attitudes to respond to the different cultures and better adapt.” (Dong, 2015, p. 305). Empirical studies (Schwartz et al., 2007; Ward, 2006) that explored the relationship between cultural identity and acculturation attitudes indicated that ethnic identity is positively correlated with separation and negatively related with assimilation. On the other hand, national identity seems to be positively related to assimilation and integration and negatively correlated with separation. However, these studies failed to cover all types of identity and acculturation attitudes, leaving space for further studies (Dong et al., 2015).

In a recent review of identity status-based theory and research with adolescents and emerging adults, Schwartz, Zamboanga, Luyckx, Meca and Ritchie (2013) note that despite the theoretical treatises on the role of identity in acculturation, empirical work in this area has been scarce, reinforcing Schwartz’s (2005) call for more empirical research (see also Sam & Berry, 2010; Syed & Mitchell, 2013, arguing for more research on emerging adults and on non-US samples).

In response to such calls we explore the acculturation experience and cultural identity of Portuguese emerging adult SIEs in the UK. More specifically, we are interested in identifying the differences and similarities they encounter between the two cultures, how they deal with them and which culture they identify with the most. We focus on Portuguese migration to the UK, because Portugal is one of the member states of the European Union with the highest percentage of emigrants as a proportion of its population. Every year from 2012 to 2014, more than 30000 Portuguese migrated to the UK, of which 64% are emerging adults with higher education (Pires et al., 2018). To reach our goal, we adopt a mixed method approach and conduct two complementary studies.

Table 4.1. Sample characterization

Variables	Study 1	Study 2
	n(%)	n(%)
All	18	250
Sex		
Men	7 (38.9)	92 (36.8)
Women	11 (61.1)	25 (63.2)
Marital status		
Single	17 (94.4)	183 (73.2)
Married	1 (5.6)	64 (25.6)
Divorced	0	3 (1.2)
Annual income (euros)		
< 10 000	1 (5.6)	26 (10.4)
10 001- 30 000	9 (50)	111 (44.4)
30 001- 50 000	8 (44.4)	90 (36)
> 50 001	0 (0)	23 (9.2)
Educational background		
Bachelor's degree	6 (33.3)	83 (33.2)
Master's degree	10 (55.6)	133 (53.2)
Postgraduate studies	0 (0)	9 (3.6)
Doctoral degree	2 (11.1)	25 (10)
Previous migratory experience		
Yes	7 (38.9)	83 (33.2)
No	11 (61.1)	167 (66.8)
Move abroad alone		
Yes	14 (77.8)	153 (61.2)
No	4 (22.2)	97 (38.8)
Time spent in the UK		
1 month - 12 months	1 (5.6)	38 (15.2)
13 months - 24 months	8 (44.4)	65 (26)
25 months - 36 months	9 (50)	90 (36)
> 37 months	0	57 (22.8)
Time planned to stay in the UK		
Undefined	7 (38.9)	14 (5.6)
Defined	11 (61.1)	236 (94.4)
< 1 year	0 (0)	14 (0)
1 year	1 (5.6)	26 (10.4)
2 years	3 (16.7)	33 (13.2)
3 years	1 (5.6)	11 (4.4)
4 years	1 (5.6)	24 (9.6)
5 years	5 (27.8)	128 (51.2)
Reasons for migrating to the UK*		
Dissatisfaction with the labor market situation in Portugal i.e. unemployment, unchallenging tasks, precariousness, unfair remuneration, long working hours	11(61.1)	2.08 (.93) ^a
Desire to have an international professional experience i.e. have new responsibilities, which could enable career progression and/or work in areas which are more developed than in Portugal	7(38.9)	
Desire to have an international personal experience i.e. getting to know other cultures, speaking a different language and experiencing living in a different environment	6(33.3)	3.97 (.74) ^a
Successful previous international experience i.e. having had a positive previous international experience for work or studying purposes (e.g. Erasmus student)	2(11.1)	---
Improve English speaking skills i.e. acquire a better English language proficiency	1(5.6)	---

*some participants mentioned more than one reason

^aThe MMAS scale described in chapter 2 was used to identify participants' motivations for moving abroad. Mean scores and SD in parentheses are reported.

Study One

Methods

Participants

Because this is a largely unexplored area, we adopted in-depth qualitative research. Interviews were conducted with 18 Portuguese emerging adult SIEs ($M= 27.1$ years, $SD=1.84$) whose time spent in the UK ranges from five months to two years. For more than half of them (61.1%), this is their first work experience outside Portugal and the majority migrated alone (77.8%), after finishing their studies. Since they sought jobs through their volition they fall into the self-initiated expatriate category (Farcas & Gonçalves, 2017; McNulty & Brewster, 2017; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). A summary of their main socio-demographic characteristics and the reasons for migrating to the UK is given in Table 4.1.

Instruments

The primary instrument was a semi-structured interview guide composed by three sections. The first section enabled the interviewer to introduce herself, thank the interviewees for their participation and present the interview's aims. The second section comprised open-ended questions addressing issues related but not limited to the differences and similarities between the Portuguese and the British culture (*e.g.* What are the similarities/ differences between the Portuguese and British culture?), interviewees' strategies to deal with them (*e.g.* How do you deal with these two cultures?) and their cultural identity perceptions (*e.g.* To what extent do you identify with the British culture?). Lastly, the third section was focused on the interview's closure, by determining if the participants were willing to clarify something, to provide additional information and to suggest potential participants in this study.

Two other documents were elaborated to assist data collection: 1) informed consent used to explain the study's aim and ask for participants' permission to audiotape the interview; 2) socio-demographic questionnaire composed by variables presented in Table 4.1. The first author elaborated the instruments and the second author provided feedback. In addition, they were submitted to a two-phased validation process. In the first phase, the first author contacted by e-mail, three Portuguese nationals and three international researchers with extensive experience in exploring migration related issues using qualitative methodology. She presented herself, the study's aim and asked for their interest in discussing the instruments. The researchers accepted this invitation and consequently, each one of them

was individually presented with the aim of the study, a list of potential questions of the interview guide and the main variables of the socio-demographic questionnaire. They were asked to provide feedback on the questions' clarity and ability to collect in-depth answers, which will enable reaching the study's aims. The main suggestions were related with the inclusion of some probing questions, but overall the feedback was extremely positive, which encouraged us to move to the second phase of the validation process.

In the second phase, a pilot study was conducted to test the questions' clarity and identify practical difficulties, which could be resolved and anticipated in the study (Kim, 2010). We followed the procedure described in detail in the following section, and four participants were recruited. They were interviewed individually and after answering all the questions in the interview guide, participants were asked to provide feedback about the questions' wording and clarity. The feedback was positive; hence we proceeded with data collection, followed by data analysis.

Procedure

Data Collection. Participants were identified through migration related organizations, social networks (e.g. Facebook pages of Portuguese migrants' groups in UK, mailing lists) and contacts that emerged from the snowball sampling technique. Participants, who met the inclusion criteria (Portuguese emerging adult SIEs, living and working in the UK since 2012) and were willing to share their migratory experience, contacted the first author for interviewing. Before conducting the interview, participants signed a written informed consent form, which described the interview's aim and requested their permission to audio tape it. In addition, participants filled out a socio-demographic questionnaire. There was no incentive for participation. In-depth interviews were conducted individually via Skype by the first author and lasted for approximately 70 minutes. At the end of each interview, some field notes were taken by the first author regarding some characteristics (e.g. length, interruptions). These field notes were considered when analyzing the data, to increase the trustworthiness and authenticity of data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Data Analysis. Interviews were transcribed verbatim and analyzed using content analysis conducted through Atlas.ti; hence broadly following steps of the procedure proposed by Schreier (2014), consisting in: 1) selecting material; 2) structuring and generating; 3) defining.

Step 1. We read each transcript and divided them into units of coding, *i.e.* relevant phrases or paragraphs from the participants' discourse. In total 117 units of coding were

identified. Then, these units of coding were grouped based on their degree of similarity in the second step of the procedure, which involved structuring and generating.

Step 2. Structuring refers to creating the main categories and generating involves creating the subcategories for each main category. The creation of categories and subcategories was completed using deductive and inductive approaches. A deductive approach involves working in a concept-driven way, where the categories/ subcategories are based on previous knowledge; while the inductive approach consists of working in a data-driven way, where the categories/ subcategories are based on the collected data. Therefore, while structuring, we adopted a deductive approach where, based on our interview guide, we identified the following main categories: 1) cultural differences; 2) cultural similarities; 3) strategies to deal with cultural differences; and 4) cultural identification. In the generating process, we adopted an inductive approach for the first two main categories, while for the remaining two a deductive approach was followed. More specifically, regarding the strategies identified by the participants to deal with cultural differences, we classified them according to the four acculturation strategies proposed by Berry (2005): assimilation, integration, separation and marginalization; while the cultural identification was classified according to the four types of cultural identifications proposed by Phinney et al. (2006): ethnic, national, bicultural and diffuse.

Step 3. The main categories were defined by giving a brief description of their scope, while the defining process of the subcategories involved attributing a name, an explanation of what it refers to, and an example. This resulted in a coding manual, portrayed in Table 4.2 in terms of the given name and explanation, while the example is given in the results section.

All these steps were performed by the first author, while the second author validated them and provided feedback on the final coding manual. Then, for reliability purposes, four coders (2 male and 2 female) were trained to validate the analysis independently. The training of coders (Syed & Nelson, 2015) involved: 1) providing the coding manual to each coder and thoroughly discussing it; 2) distributing units of coding randomly chosen and asking the coders to practice the coding scheme; 3) randomly assigning one main category to each coder and asking them to distribute the units of analysis among the subcategories. By comparing coders' scheme with the one initially developed by the authors, high reliability indices were obtained (between $k=0.92$ and $k=1$). The few discrepancies in coding were discussed with the coders and resolved through consensus.

Table 4.2. Summary description of four main categories

Main category & Subcategory	Description	<i>n</i>
Cultural differences	Perceived discrepancies among the Portuguese and the British culture	
Characteristics of people	Features of people in terms of their beliefs and standards which guide their behavior	
Social norms	Standards and expectations of an acceptable behavior	
Restrained interaction	Lack of emotional expression in the interaction with other people	8
Communication style	Being politically correct, not straight to the point and using “please” frequently	3
Punctuality	Being on time for a scheduled event	2
Values	A set of conceptions which guide one’s behavior	
Rule of law	Organization and need to follow the procedure in accordance with the law	6
Respect	Not judging the difference or people’s opinions and rights	5
Individual liberty	The opportunity to make choices and be responsible for its consequences	2
Food and eating	The type of food that is eaten, how and when it is eaten	
Type of food	The food that is characteristic of the culture and available to be bought	9
Eating practices	How food is consumed at home and at work; where and with whom	9
Eating schedules	When is the food consumed and available to be purchased	4
Leisure activities	What is done to have fun and relax	
Social activities	What people do to after work while gathering with other people	3
Cultural activities	What people do to explore the country they are living in	3
Family life	The concept of family and the importance that is given	6
Cultural similarities	Perceived resemblances among the Portuguese and the British culture	
Type of country	The kind of country regarding its location on the continents and level of development	4
Enjoy the sun	The degree to which the sun is appreciated in the cultural setting	4
Passion for football	The extent to which football is a type of sport appreciated in the cultural setting	1
Strategies to deal with cultural differences	Tactics used to pact with the encountered cultural differences	
Integration	Adopt tactics which resemble the British and Portuguese behaviors	16
Assimilation	Adopt tactics which resemble mostly the British behaviors	2
Separation	Adopt tactics which resemble mostly the Portuguese behaviors	0
Marginalization	Adopt tactics which resemble neither the Portuguese, nor the British behaviors	0
Cultural identifications	Having a sense of attachment and feeling part of a cultural group	
Bicultural	Having a sense of attachment towards the British and the Portuguese culture	9
Ethnic	Having a sense of attachment towards the Portuguese culture	7
National	Having a sense of attachment towards the British culture	2
Diffuse	Not having a sense of attachment to neither the Portuguese nor the British culture	0

Results

The analysis of the interviews provided an understanding of how the Portuguese emerging adult migrants in the UK live within the Portuguese and British culture. More specifically, as Table 4.2 illustrates, four main categories emerged from the analysis: 1) cultural differences; 2) cultural similarities; 3) strategies to deal with cultural differences; and 4) cultural identifications.

Cultural Differences

When comparing the Portuguese and British cultures, participants mentioned differences regarding: 1) characteristics of people; 2) food and eating; 3) leisure activities; and 4) family life.

Characteristics of People. Participants noticed some differences related with the characteristics of people, which distinguish the Portuguese and the British in terms of their social norms and values.

The most mentioned difference regarding **social norms**, was the *restrained interaction* of the British. Eight participants considered that in the British culture emotions are expected to be expressed in a limited way and British people avoid too much contact when greeting other people, contrary to what occurs in the Portuguese culture.

“They are reserved, not very enthusiastic and do not express their feelings. We enjoy human interactions and when we talk we also use our hands, for gestures, touching the other person, hugging or kissing when greeting someone.” (Male, 27 years)

Communication style, regarding the frequent use of words such as ‘please’ or ‘thank you’ and being nice and politically correct, was another social norm which three participants considered to be more characteristic of the British culture than the Portuguese one. One participant stated:

“They are very polite, and nice to everyone, they show interest, even when they are not that interested. There is a lot of small talk while in the elevator, at the beginning of a meeting and in the first paragraph of an e-mail. I feel that they have lots of social norms and use please and thank you too much.” (Male, 29 years)

Punctuality. The acceptability and frequency of arriving a few minutes late to an event was different between the cultures.

“They are very strict about schedules, and it is completely unacceptable to arrive late. In Portugal, I guess that the norm is to arrive late, because if you arrive on time, you know you will have to wait for everyone else at least five minutes.” (Female, 25 years)

In terms of the values present in the British culture, six participants mentioned that in the UK, organization is prevalent and there is a procedure that is usually followed in accordance with the **rule of law**:

“In Portugal, one word is enough, but here if you want to transfer something, it must be done by the book, following the guidelines and filling in the correspondent file and signing it. There is this bureaucracy and interest in following the laws that is not as present in Portugal.” (Male, 28 years)

In addition, two participants noted the existence of **individual liberty**, which enables people to make their own choice and be responsible for their consequences. This does not happen in the working environment in Portugal, as this participant mentioned:

“I think that in Portugal the supervisors control everything that people do, if they work the whole hours imposed by the schedule, etc. Here, it is completely different; you can leave work earlier if needed, because what is important is that you have your work done at the end of the month, when evaluations occur. Also, in Portugal it is very appreciated if you work long hours after your actual schedule, while here, if you stay longer or take your laptop home to work, you might be considered inefficient and not being able to use your working hours properly.” (Male, 28 years)

Besides these values, which are more related with the working environment, five participants noted that the British are very **respectful** of opinions and diversity, which is not necessarily a characteristic of the Portuguese culture:

“They accept difference much better than in Portugal. I am confident that in Portugal if there is a person riding the metro, with blue hair and lots of piercings, everyone would turn their heads and look at him/ her. Here, no one cares; the British respect a lot you and who you are as an individual.” (Female, 25 years)

Food and Eating. Participants considered that the Portuguese and British cultures are very different in terms of the: a) type of food; b) eating practices; and c) eating schedules.

Regarding the **type of food** that is characteristic and available in both cultures, nine participants realized that, while Portugal is known for its rich gastronomy with many traditional dishes, in the UK, it is hard to identify a traditional dish, besides fish and chips, which is not appreciated. In addition, participants noted that in the supermarkets there is a lot

of pre-made take away food, and a limited amount of fruits, vegetables and fish. Therefore, the type of food that is available and eaten in the UK differs a lot from the one in Portugal:

“Food is very different here. If you ask a local about their traditional food, they might say fish and chips. But this is very bad compared to all the traditional dishes that we have in Portugal. The fish here is probably made from frozen fish, because in the supermarkets you have a small section for fish which is not fresh, and then you have lots of space for pre-made food. In Portugal, it is completely the opposite.” (Male, 27 years)

Nine participants also noted that there are differences regarding *eating practices*, i.e. how food is consumed. While the Portuguese prefer to sit down and have a meal with other people, the British usually grab a pre-made food available in the supermarkets and eat it while walking or waiting for the metro. An important aspect noted by some participants is that in the British houses it is not very frequent to see a big dining table; hence they usually eat using trays. At work, the way the British and Portuguese spend their lunch hour also seems to be different, indicating that in Portugal food brings people together as a social act and this does not happen in the UK.

“The building where I work is very big, and on my floor, there are around 200 people working. I would say that 95% of them go to the supermarket and buy their lunch: a sandwich and chips. Then they come back to the office and eat seating in front of the computer. In Portugal, we have the culture of going to a restaurant for lunch or bringing food from home and eating it together with your colleagues.” (Male, 27 years)

Regarding *eating schedules*, four participants noted that the time of the meals is different in the two cultures, since in the British culture the meals occur at an earlier time than in Portugal:

“If I have lunch at half past one or at two o’clock, they would most likely call it dinner than lunch. That’s considered to be a proper time to have dinner because things here happen at an earlier time than in Portugal.” (Female, 25 years)

Since in the UK “things happen at an earlier time than in Portugal”, the food must be purchased at an earlier time in the UK than in Portugal. Therefore, the closing hours of the commercial areas differ among the two cultures, just as this participant highlighted:

“I remember that when I arrived here, I wanted to have dinner. It was nine o’clock and I could not have dinner because everything was closed at nine o’clock on a Saturday! Only the pubs were opened, and everyone was drunk. In Portugal, at nine o’clock I would go to the mall, have dinner and then go shopping or go to the cinema. Here on Sunday,

everything closes at four o'clock and this is something unthinkable in Portugal, even surreal!" (Male, 28 years)

Leisure Activities. Since the commercial areas close earlier than in Portugal, with an exception being the pubs, participants noted that in the British culture what people do to have fun and relax is different than in the Portuguese culture. More specifically, three participants noted that in the British culture, *social activities* involve going to the pub right after work, while in Portugal this is not very frequent.

"The culture is different and their conception of having fun after work is different. They go to a pub and start drinking earlier than in Portugal, maybe because things close earlier than in Portugal." (Female, 29 years)

In addition, three participants noticed that in the British culture there is a predisposition to engaging in a range of *cultural activities*, which are not so present in the Portuguese culture:

"In the UK people visit museums a lot, because they are free, while in Portugal even if you pay one or two euros, I see that as an obstacle. Also, there is a culture of travelling during the weekends, visiting new places and from my experience in Portugal it is not the same thing. Here, if it is sunny, parks are full of people and you can see lots of people, families with children eating and just chilling in the sun. In Portugal, I guess people prefer going to the malls or other places." (Male, 27 years)

Family Life. Taking advantage of the fact that families were mentioned in the last quote, we note that family life was also considered to be different between the two cultures. More precisely, the concept of family was considered different since in the UK, six participants argued that the British have many children and at an early stage of their life, usually in their early twenties. As a consequence of this, women are most frequently stay at home mothers and take care of their children, and only after a couple of years they might focus on their careers. In Portugal, professional life is usually set as a priority; hence women have children usually in their thirties, forming small families. Nonetheless, participants consider that family plays a more crucial role in the Portuguese culture than in the British one:

"They give less importance to the family than we do. Nonetheless, their jobs consider family life. Therefore, during the week they can get out of work at five and go home to spend time with the family. However, during Christmas, they might go on holidays and not be around their families. In Portugal, Christmas is usually spent with the family, but during the week, people might work until seven, eight or nine o'clock and when they get home, there is

not much time to spend with the family. (...) Nonetheless, maybe I am more aware of these differences because I do not go to Portugal very frequently and I always compare the way things are here with how they are in Portugal. When I share my thoughts with some of my Portuguese friends, they say: you are right, but I never thought of that.” (Male, 29 years)

Besides illustrating the cultural difference between Portugal and the UK regarding family life, this last quote indicates that amount of time spent in Portugal and the UK might influence the way cultural differences are perceived by the EA SIEs. Therefore, we put forward the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: EA SIEs who travel to Portugal less frequently (i.e. once a year), perceive Portugal and UK more culturally different, than EA SIEs who travel to Portugal more frequently.

Cultural Similarities

Despite all these differences, participants considered that there are some similarities between the Portuguese and the British culture. They are focused on three main aspects. First, four participants realized that the possible emerging similarities are due to the **type of country**, since both Portugal and the UK are developed countries.

“I would say that the similarities are related to the fact that both countries are developed and occidental with concerns about war, problems in the Middle East, things like this that appear in the news in Portugal and here. Therefore, the similarities are more in terms of international concerns, because at the national level, there are not any similarities.” (Male, 29 years)

Second, four participants realized that *enjoying the sun* is present in both cultures, while the third similarity focused on the fact that *football* plays an important role in both cultures.

However, we highlight the fact that although participants mentioned fewer similarities than differences, most participants ($n=12$) considered that the two cultures are not very different. It was easier for them to mention more differences than similarities, because they were more apparent to them:

“It is very hard for me to think about similarities; because we usually start by saying that in Portugal things are like this and that. So, differences are easier to enumerate, and everything that is not mentioned is a potential similarity between the two cultures.” (Male, 27 years)

Strategies to Deal with Cultural Differences

The way Portuguese emerging adult SIEs in the UK deal with these cultural differences is centered around two main acculturation strategies: integration ($n=16$) and assimilation ($n=2$).

In terms of an integration strategy, participants sought to deal with the encountered cultural differences by being involved in both the Portuguese and the British culture. Therefore, they keep some of the Portuguese behaviors and adopted some of the British ones. More specifically, a tendency could be observed in interaction – in the adoption of some British social norms (e.g. restrained interaction, communication style); and maintenance of Portuguese behaviors in personal issues (such as food and eating schedules). A concrete example of this can be found in the discourse of this female participant:

“We know that things close earlier than in Portugal, so we have to find some time and go to the places earlier than we are used to. That we can change in us, but there are other things that we cannot change, because so far, we cannot function like them. So, we end up having dinner and waking up at the same time as in Portugal. But we are aware of the way they function and when it is necessary, we act just like them. For example, we can be polite and try to express our emotions in a more reserved way, not touching the other person, kissing or hugging when greeting him/ her.” (Female, 28 years)

Family life was another aspect of the Portuguese culture that participants wanted to maintain. In fact, one participant’s wife was pregnant and living in Portugal. Their desire was to raise the child in Portugal because they do not identify with the British conception of family and the importance that it is given to it.

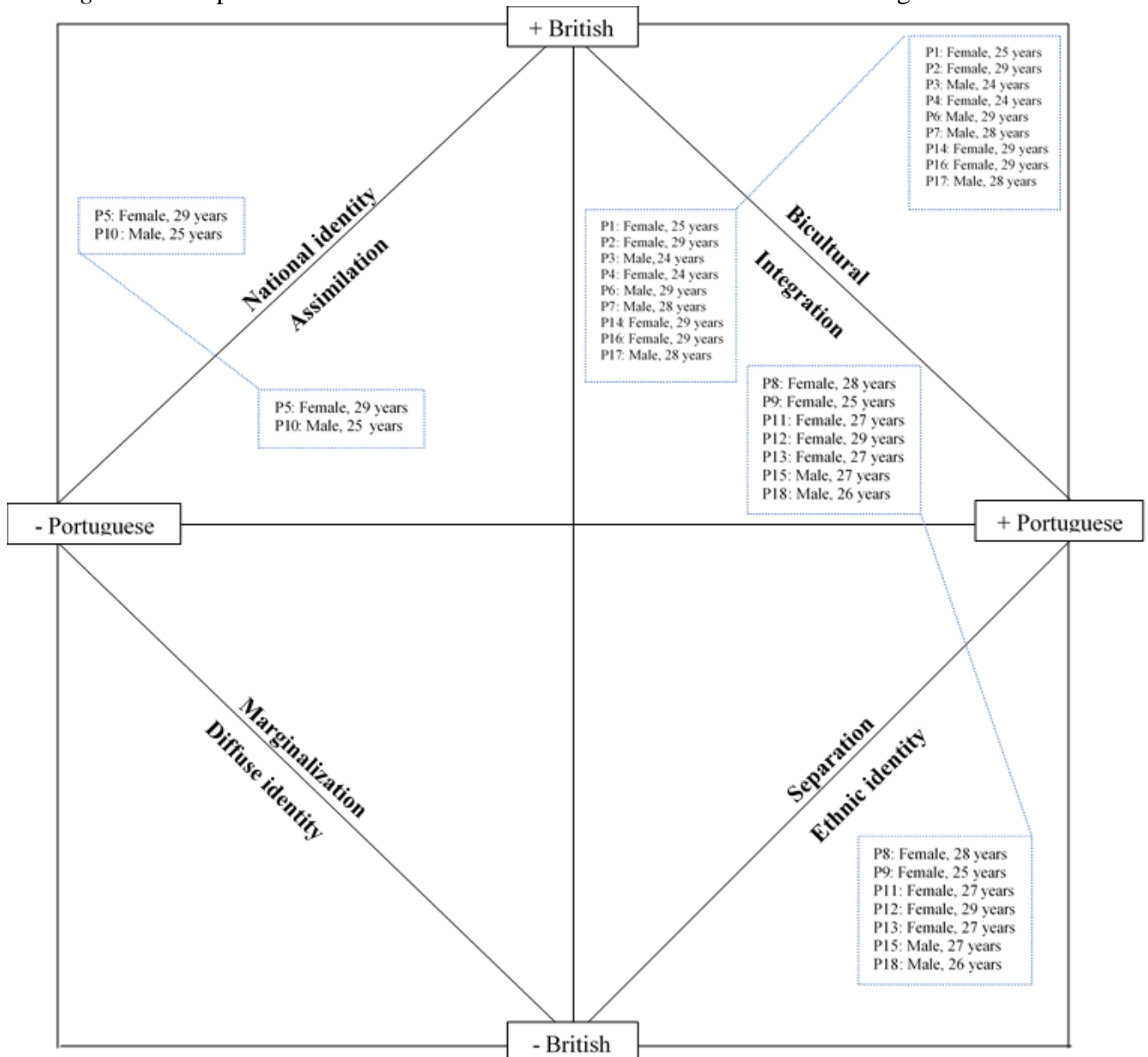
In the discourse of other participants their acculturation strategy was assimilation; hence they had a strong orientation towards the British culture:

“To tell you the truth, I am losing this cultural battle, because I realize that I am becoming one of them. In other words, my schedules are the same as theirs, at five o’clock I leave the office, my lunch is a sandwich in front of the computer, and during weekends I have a barbeque or a picnic in the park, enjoying the sun, if it is nice weather. I am aware that some of my friends do not do this, and they are not so deep-seated in the British culture, because they live in communities which are full of Portuguese and they are very connected to the Portuguese culture.” (Male, 29 years)

Cultural Identity

As Figure 4.1 shows, half of the participants identified with both the Portuguese and British culture (bicultural identity; $n=9$). The other participants identified mostly with the Portuguese culture (ethnic identity; $n=7$) or, for a couple of them, with the British culture (national identity; $n=2$). These cultural identifications seem to be related with the acculturation strategy used to deal with the encountered cultural differences.

Figure 4.1. Representation of cultural identifications and acculturation strategies



More specifically, those participants, who showed a clear orientation towards the British culture by adopting the assimilation strategy while dealing with cultural differences, revealed that they identify a lot with it; hence endorsed a national identity ($n=2$):

“I identify a lot with the British culture. In the beginning I did not identify so much, but now I identify a lot and I feel very comfortable here, and I think that the politics and the society is targeted at people and in their favor. I like living here; there is a lot of help for younger citizens, benefits for the young couples who wish to have children. I identify a lot, much more than with the Portuguese culture and sometimes I find myself thinking about maybe going back to Portugal and this might sound utopic, but I would love to implement this culture there, to change many things.” (Male, 29 years)

Those participants who showed having an orientation towards both the Portuguese and British cultures adopted the integration strategy while acculturating. Nonetheless, in terms of their cultural identification, a range of different answers emerged, leading to two different types of cultural identities: bicultural ($n=9$) and ethnic ($n=7$).

The bicultural identity was endorsed by those participants who identified with both the Portuguese and the British culture. They identified with some characteristics of the Portuguese culture that did not want to relinquish but at the same time, they identified with and wanted to adopt some that were more related with the British culture. This female participant affirmed:

“I used to like the British culture, even before I came here. I also enjoy their pronunciation, and all this helps me to identify with them. However, I do not identify a lot with their habit of after work, going to the pub and drink. I cannot do this because it does not make sense. After having dinner, sure, we can go for a drink, but right after work, it’s not something that I like to do and identify with. But I like the way they are polite and the respect they have for everyone. So, I have some affinity with the British culture, just as I do with the Portuguese one.” (Female, 29 years)

Those participants, who did not identify with the British culture, had an ethnic identity, since they mentioned that they identified a lot with the Portuguese culture, just like these participants mentioned:

“I do not consider myself British and I hope that five years from now, I would still say the same. I like to say that I am Portuguese, I identify with being Portuguese and I do not want to lose this. Although I can get used to greet people in a different way or have some different habits, I do not want to lose my essence of being Portuguese.” (Male, 27 years)

“I do not identify at all with the British culture. Even their concept of party is completely different than mine. For them, Friday night after work means going to the pub and drink, drink a lot, until you get drunk. For me, it means having dinner with my friends, and then, we can have a drink or two, but drink with moderation. And the idea of having

children here frightens me, because I do not identify with their concept of family and how children are raised here. Nonetheless, this is my general perception of the British culture from what I observe, since I do not have much contact with them, besides some of my British colleagues. The rest of my social network is composed mainly by Portuguese and some Italians and Spanish, because I identify with them.” (Female, 29 years)

Based on the results obtained in the last two sections, we predict that:

Hypothesis 2: EA SIEs living and working in the UK choose to acculturate more through integration than assimilation.

Hypothesis 3: EA SIEs living and working in the UK endorse mostly a bicultural identity than an ethnic and national one.

Hypothesis 4a: EA SIEs who endorse a national identity acculturate through assimilation.

Hypothesis 4b: EA SIEs who endorse a bicultural identity acculturate through integration.

Hypothesis 4c: EA SIEs who endorse an ethnic identity acculturate through integration.

Factors Influencing Cultural Identity

This last citation has a double role: 1) it portrays an ethnic identity and 2) it points out that the **interaction with host and home country nationals** influences the formation of a specific type of identity. Since this female participant has more contact with the Portuguese than the British society, there is a tendency to not identify so much with the British culture since she does not know it deeply.

In addition, **time** was also pointed out as playing an important role in one's cultural identity. On one hand, one participant mentioned that when he arrived in the UK, he did not identify with the British culture; he identified with the Portuguese culture. But now he identifies a lot with the British culture, so much that to some extent he would like to transform some of the Portuguese culture into a British one. On the other hand, another participant referred that since she travels frequently to Portugal and does not spend a lot of time in the UK, she does not identify with the British culture that much:

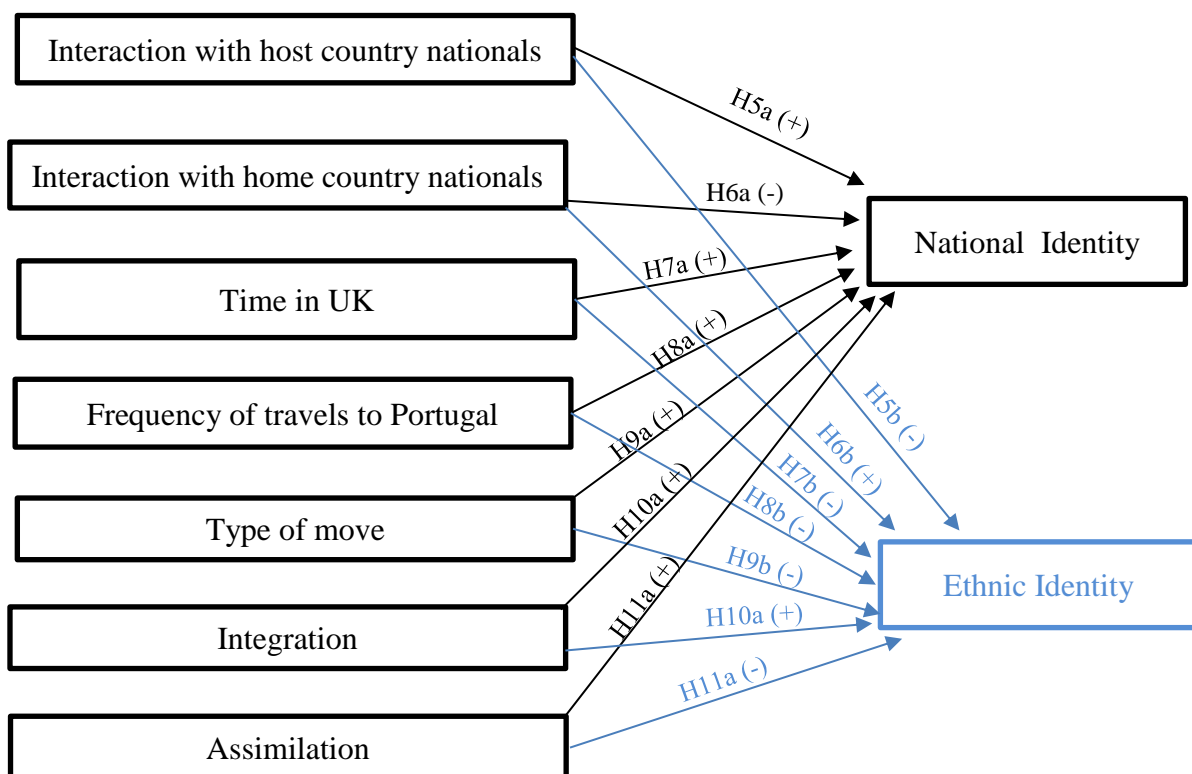
“The time I spend here is limited. Every three months or even more frequently I go to Portugal. So, I don't identify with the British culture. I left as a Portuguese and I always return as one. That is the culture I identify with 100%.” (Female, 27 years)

Besides this, a male participant mentioned another possible factor that influenced his cultural identity: moving unaccompanied. He said: *“I came here alone. My wife is in Portugal, so I identify with the Portuguese culture. I am Portuguese! But I can see that my*

friends who have their spouse here tend to act less Portuguese. They act like the locals than a Portuguese, maybe because they are together. My mind is in Portugal, while theirs is here, in the UK.” (Male, 29 years)

In sum, according to participants’ discourses, there are several factors that influence EA SIEs’ cultural identity. In these discourses two main types of identity were addressed: national identity and ethnic identity; hence Figure 4.2 portrays a model of the possible factors influencing these two types of identity. Keeping in mind hypotheses 4a and 4c, the subjacent idea behind them was also added to this model.

Figure 4.2. Hypothesized factors influencing EA SIEs’ national identity and ethnic identity



Hypotheses 5 a-b: Interaction with host country nationals is a) positively related with national identity and b) negatively related with ethnic identity.

Hypotheses 6 a-b: Interaction with home country nationals is a) negatively related with national identity and b) positively related with ethnic identity.

Hypotheses 7 a-b: The time lived in the UK is a) positively related with national identity and b) negatively related with ethnic identity.

Hypotheses 8 a-b: The frequency of travels to Portugal is a) positively related with national identity and b) negatively related with ethnic identity.

Hypotheses 9 a-b: The type of move (alone vs. accompanied) is a) positively related with national identity and b) negatively related with ethnic identity.

Hypotheses 10 a-b: Acculturating through integration is positively related to a) national and b) ethnic identity.

Hypotheses 11 a-b: Acculturation through assimilation is a) positively related to national identity and b) negatively related to ethnic identity.

Acculturation Strategy, Cultural Identity and Cross-Cultural Adaptation

In the previous chapter, results from the first study indicated that cross-cultural adaptation is associated with the way EA SIEs deal with the encountered cultural differences between host and home cultures. Two acculturation strategies were reflected in the participants' discourses: integration and assimilation. Those who adopted these acculturation strategies considered themselves cross-culturally adapted. However, participants who spent more time in Portugal than in the UK did not seem to adopt any of those two strategies, hence they did not consider themselves to be cross-culturally adapted. They might be adopting another acculturation strategy proposed by Berry (2005): separation, which refers to the rejection of the host country's cultural background and preservation of the home country's one. Based on these results, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 12: Integration and assimilation are positively related to EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation.

Hypothesis 13: Acculturation strategy mediates the relationship between the frequency of travels to Portugal and cross-cultural adaptation.

In addition, in the discourses of participants who endorsed a bicultural or national identity, we were able to find some reference to their adaptation. They considered themselves to be adapted, while participants who endorsed an ethnic identity did not classify themselves as being adapted. Based on these preliminary results, we anticipated the following:

Hypothesis 14: EA SIEs' levels of cross-cultural adaptation are higher for those who endorse a national or bicultural identity than for those with an ethnic or diffuse identity.

Study Two

Methods

Participants

The sample of this study was composed by 250 emerging adult self-initiated expatriates. A detailed characterization of this sample is provided in the previous chapter (Chapter 3, study 2); hence for further information please consult it as well as the last column in Table 4.1 (page 140), which portrays a synthesis of it.

Instrument

Following the trend established in the previous two chapters, the questionnaire used in this study was developed with the aim of complementing the results encountered in Study One. It comprised questions that served two main purposes: 1) characterizing the sample and verifying if the participants met the inclusion criteria; and 2) checking the results described in Study One.

The demographic characterization questions included the following: age, sex, marital status, annual gross income, educational background, previous migratory experience, time spent in the UK and motivations for moving abroad. In order to verify if the participants met the inclusion criteria, the following questions were included: 1) In what country were you born?; 2) What is your nationality?; 3) In what year did you move to the UK? 4) What is your professional activity? All participants who were between 18 and 29 years old, born in Portugal, holding a Portuguese nationality, having moved to the UK since 2012 and currently working there, were considered to meet the inclusion criteria. In addition, we determined if participants were self-initiated expatriates through the screening questions portrayed in Table 2.4 of Chapter 2.

The questions used to check the results described in Study One were based on existent measures in the literature, described below. Measures not available in Portuguese (e.g. perceived cultural distance) were translated using a translation-back-translation method (Guillemin et al., 1993) described in Chapter 2.

Cross-Cultural Adaptation. To assess participants' cross-cultural adaptation, the scale (SCAS) described in the previous chapters was also used in this one. For a detailed explanation of this scale, please check pages 60-64 in Chapter 2.

Perceived Cultural Distance. The Cultural Distance Index (Babiker et al., 1980; Wang, 2009) was used to assess participants' perception about how their own original

backgrounds (i.e. Portuguese) differ from their experiences in the new culture (i.e. British) in 16 areas (e.g. climate, communication style, food). Three additional ones were added to reflect the results from the qualitative study (1. The way of interacting and expression of emotions; 2. Respect for something different; 3. Public schedules, i.e. restaurants, shopping malls, etc.) Each one of these was evaluated using a five-point Likert scale (1-No difference to 5-Extreme difference). The hypothesized model proposed by the authors regarding the 16 items, did not show a good fit (CFI=.37; TLI=.31; RMSEA= .18; $\chi^2(110)=4.97, p=.000$). Therefore, we 1) considered the modification indices which proposed covariances between three pairs of errors; and 2) eliminated eight items due to loading $<.50$. The fit of the hypothesized model improved, but it was still not a very good one (CFI=.90; TLI=.83; RMSEA= .12; $\chi^2(12)=2.90, p=.001$). Therefore, we added the three new items and conducted a CFA with 19 items. After the elimination of seven items due to loading $<.50$, and the establishment of covariances between four pairs of errors, the hypothesized model showed a better fit (CFI=.90; TLI=.87; RMSEA= .07; $\chi^2(51)=1.78, p=.001$) The internal reliability of this scale was high (.81), showing a good construct validity.

Acculturation Strategies. Berry's taxonomy of acculturation strategies was used to assess how participants prefer to acculturate. Four possible strategies were measured using the Acculturation Attitude Scale (Berry et al., 1989; Portuguese version: Neto & Neto, 2011). Example items are: 1) integration: I prefer social activities which involve both Portuguese and British; 2) assimilation: I prefer social activities which involve British only; 3) separation: I prefer social activities which involve Portuguese only; 4) marginalization: I do not want to attend either Portuguese or British social activities. Participants used a five-point Likert scale (1-Strongly disagree to 5-Strongly agree) to indicate the extent to which they agree with each one of the four statements used to evaluate each acculturation strategy. The results of the CFA indicated an acceptable fit for each acculturation strategy: 1) integration: CFI=1.00; TLI=1.00; RMSEA= .00; $\chi^2(1)=1.99, p=.158$; 2) assimilation: CFI=1.00; TLI=1.00; RMSEA= .00; $\chi^2(1)=.748, p=.387$; 3) separation: CFI=.96; TLI=.89; RMSEA= .05; $\chi^2(2)=1.44, p=.237$; 4) marginalization: CFI=1.00; TLI=1.00; RMSEA= .00; $\chi^2(2)=.507, p=.602$. Cronbach's alpha of integration, assimilation, separation and marginalization for this study was 0.62, 0.71, 0.46 and 0.49, respectively. One could argue that these values are indicators of a poor construct validity in this study's sample. However, they reflect the ones encountered in the original study: .48, .58, .64, .55 (Berry, Phinney, Sam, & Vedder, 2006).

Cultural Identity. The two-dimensional model of cultural identity was used in this study; hence national identity and ethnic identity were measured (Phinney, 1992).

Ethnic identity. The Multi-group Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM; Phinney, 1992; Portuguese version: Neto & Neto, 2011) was used to measure ethnic identity, using four items (e.g. I feel that I am part of the Portuguese culture). Each item was rated on a five-point Likert scale (1-Strongly disagree to 5- Strongly agree). The results of the CFA indicated an acceptable fit (CFI=1.00; TLI=1.00; RMSEA= .00; $\chi^2(1)=.299, p=.585$) and the internal consistency reliability of .93 showed good construct validity.

National identity. MEIM was also used to measure national identity, using four similar items to the ones used to assess ethnic identity. The only difference was the descriptor used: Portuguese (ethnic identity) vs. British (national identity). An example of a sample item is: I feel that I am part of the British culture. The participants rated their answer on a five-point Likert scale (1-Strongly disagree to 5- Strongly agree). The results of the CFA also indicated an acceptable fit among the EA SIEs (CFI=1.00; TLI=1.00; RMSEA= .00; $\chi^2(2)=.514, p=.598$), while the Cronbach's alpha standardized in the current study was .88.

Bicultural and Diffuse Identity. To assess bicultural and diffuse identity, we dichotomized participants' scores obtained on the ethnic and national identity scales. Participants were classified as having a high national identity, if they scored above the median of the composite variable measuring that cultural identity, and lower than the median on the composite variable measuring ethnic identity. The opposite was applied to ethnic identity. Participants' identity was classified as bicultural if they scored above the median of the composite variables measuring national identity and ethnic identity. On the other hand, when participants' scores on these two composite variables were lower than the median, we classified it as a diffuse identity.

The factors proposed to influence cultural identity were assessed using the measures described in the previous chapter (ethnic composition of neighborhood, interaction with host country nationals, interaction with home country nationals, defined repatriation intentions, length of stay and unbalanced time). Since in the previous chapter, the idea that moving accompanied or not might affect EA SIEs' acculturation strategy and cross-cultural adaptation, we decided to include this variable as well.

Procedure

Data Collection. The procedure described in Chapter 2 was employed in this study too; hence, we encourage you to consult it for a detailed description of data collection.

Data Analysis. The procedures used to analyze data were very similar to the ones described in the previous chapters, which involved carrying out confirmatory factor analyses with the measures that were previously described, to establish the factor structure proposed by the authors who developed them. For each measure, the factor loadings of the error terms and latent factors were fixed at one. Factor and error variances were freely estimated and correlations among factors were allowed. Different fit indexes were selected to account for different aspects of model fit. The absolute fit indexes, which assess how well an a priori model fits the sample data (Hu & Bentler, 1999), were the Chi-Square (χ^2), the mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The incremental fit indexes measure the model's fit improvement when compared to a baseline model (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and were the comparative fit index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI). The criteria for a good fit are established in the literature by a $\chi^2/df \leq 5$ (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin & Summers, 1977) a $RMSEA \leq .08$ (Browne & Cudeck, 1993), a TLI and CFI $\geq .90$ (Hu & Bentler, 1999). After verifying the factor structure of each scale, composite variables were constructed, and their internal reliability was calculated through Cronbach's alpha., using .70 as an indicator of a good reliability in the construct. To test for convergent validity (CV), we estimated the average variance extracted (AVE) with a recommended value of .50 (Hair et al., 2010).

For the measures that had a single item with a nominal or ordinal scale, descriptive frequencies were run. Some variables were recoded into dummy ones for further analyses. To test the proposed hypotheses, several analyses were conducted which comprised: 1) comparison of means through t-test for independent samples (H1, H13), paired sample t-test (H2) and MANOVA (H4a-c); 2) structural equation modeling (SEM) through path analysis (H5-13). Data was screened for multivariate outliers and normal distribution. Mahalanobis squared distance indicated that there were no multivariate outliers present, while the skewness and kurtosis absolute value of each variable was within the acceptable values ($|Sk| < 3$ and $|Ku| < 10$). Multivariate assumptions were checked through linearity and multicollinearity. To test linearity, curve estimation regression was performed for all direct effects in our model, with p-values less than .05 indicating that relationships between variables were sufficiently linear. Multicollinearity was checked by testing the variable inflation factor (VIF) for all the exogeneous variables; VIFs < 5 (Marôco, 2010) suggested that the exogeneous variables were all distinct.

In the context of mediation analysis (H13), there are many advantages of using SEM. It can test more complicated models, involving multiple independent variables, mediators and outcomes. This does not happen in standard regression, which requires the use of ad hoc

methods to interpret indirect and total effect. These methods derive the asymptotic variance by combining the results of two or more equations. If there are different numbers of observations missing in the equations, the analysis is hampered. In addition, SEM analysis provides model fit information about the consistency of the hypothesized mediational model to the data and evidence for the plausibility of the causality assumptions made when constructing the mediation model. Furthermore, standard regression analysis implies a statistical relationship based on a conditional expected value, while SEM implies a functional relationship expressed via a conceptual model, path diagram, and mathematical equations. Thus, the causal relationships in a hypothesized mediation process, the simultaneous nature of the indirect and direct effects, and the dual role the mediator plays as both a cause for the outcome and an effect of the intervention are more appropriately expressed using structural equations than using regression analysis (Gunzler, Chen, Wu, & Zhang, 2013, p. 391).

The hypothesized model underlining Hypothesis 13 involved one dichotomous independent variable (frequency of travel to Portugal: (0) once a year and (1) more than once a year), four continuous mediator variables (types of acculturation strategy: integration, assimilation, separation and marginalization) and five continuous outcome variables (cross-cultural adaptation: emotional adaptation, social adaptation, cultural adaptation, practical adaptation and work adaptation). Taking in account the SEM advantages mentioned earlier, mediation analyses were conducted in AMOS 25 program (Arbuckle, 2017), using maximum likelihood method of parameter estimation to estimate the models' parameters and goodness of fit. Maximum likelihood estimation assumes multivariate normality of endogenous (i.e. dependent) variables and allows dichotomous exogenous (i.e. independent) variables (Kline, 1998). In accordance with AMOS procedures (Arbuckle, 2017; Hu & Bentler, 1999), the overall good fit of the models used to test the proposed hypotheses (H5-12) was assessed through the following indices: chi-square statistic (χ^2 , small non-significant value), comparative fit index (CFI $>.90$), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA $\leq.08$) and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR $\leq.08$). The mediation effects were estimated using a bootstrapping (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), a nonparametric approach using resampling with replacement computed 200 times. The indirect effect was computed for each of the 200 resamples to generate sampling distributions, 95% confidence intervals (CI) that were bias-correct and significance values (Kenny, Korchmaros, & Bolger, 2003). If the CI of these mediation effect distributions excluded zero, the indirect effect was determined to be significantly different from zero at the significance level (p) less than .05 (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

Table 4.3. Means, standard deviations and correlations among the variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Cultural differences	1.00																
2. Ethnic identity	-.08	1.00															
3. National identity	.16*	-.30**	1.00														
4. Integration	.06	.12	.25**	1.00													
5. Assimilation	.01	-.56**	.28**	-.06	1.00												
6. Separation	.30**	.23**	-.25**	-.31**	.07	1.00											
7. Marginalization	.18**	-.18**	.07	-.34**	.37**	.42**	1.00										
8. Interaction with host country nationals	-.16*	.12	.03	.16*	-.13*	-.15*	-.31**	1.00									
9. Interaction with home country nationals	-.09	-.41**	.50**	.06	.12	-.36**	.01	.17**	1.00								
10. Type of move (alone vs. accompanied)	.20**	-.20**	.05	.01	.03	-.11	.03	-.07	-.01	1.00							
11. Frequency of travels to Portugal	.14*	-.45**	.36**	-.17	.34**	-.14*	.20**	.19**	-.28**	.25**	1.00						
12. Time in UK (months)	-.03	-.12	.04	.07	-.10	-.03	.01	.27**	.20**	-.21**	.03	1.00					
13. Emotional adaptation	-.05	-.51**	.62**	-.03	.45**	-.17**	.13*	.09	.43**	.10	.28**	.09	1.00				
14. Cultural adaptation	-.03	-.38**	.46**	-.12	.37**	-.01	.22**	-.02	.25**	.03	.30**	-.09	.60**	1.00			
15. Social adaptation	.05	-.12	.28**	.02	-.19**	-.19**	.07	.23**	.40**	-.04	-.04	.11	.27**	.14*	1.00		
16. Practical adaptation	-.03	-.10	.10	.06	-.07	-.10	.07	.22**	.29**	-.13*	.03	.36**	.19**	.16*	.36**	1.00	
17. Work adaptation	.07	-.22**	.24**	-.08	.14*	-.02	.04	.19**	.23**	-.01	.11	-.02	.46**	.28**	.38**	.36**	1.00
<i>Mean</i>	3.37	4.17	1.93	4.34	1.67	1.76	1.25	3.62	3.13	.39	2.48	28.49	4.76	3.16	4.49	4.75	4.42
<i>SD</i>	.56	1.02	.88	.65	.65	.52	.35	.95	1.06	.49	.81	13.74	1.07	1.03	.73	.58	.70

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Results

Table 4.3 presents descriptive statistics for all variables. Results will be presented in sections similar to study one. First, we will describe the results in terms of the perceived cultural difference, followed by the cultural identity endorsed by EA SIEs and the chosen acculturation strategy. Then, we will address the factors, which influence cultural identity, and lastly, we will explore the acculturation strategy's impact on cross-cultural adaptation.

Cultural Differences

As Table 4.4 portrays, participants considered language to be the biggest cultural difference between Portugal and the UK ($M= 4.04$, $SD=1.03$), followed by the public schedules ($M= 3.82$, $SD= .93$), food, i.e. the cooking and eating style ($M= 3.79$, $SD=1.04$), and the way of interacting and expression of emotions ($M= 3.60$, $SD=.95$). On the other hand, on average, the type of leisure activities ($M= 2.61$, $SD=1.02$), family values ($M= 2.75$, $SD=1.02$), the general education level for most Portuguese and British people ($M= 2.97$, $SD=.95$), and their communication style ($M= 3.17$, $SD=.99$) were the smallest cultural differences identified by the EA SIEs in this study.

Overall, EA SIEs' cultural distance index varied between 1.83 and 4.25, with an average of 3.37 ($SD=.56$). This indicates that, on average, participants did not perceive a high degree of cultural difference between Portugal and the UK, since the mean value was lower than the midpoint of the scale (3.50). As Hypothesis 1 predicted, this was especially true for EA SIEs who travel to Portugal more frequently (i.e. > once a year, $M= 3.32$, $SD=.57$), than those who travel less frequently (i.e. once a year, $M= 3.66$, $SD=.44$), $t(248)= 3.42$, $p=.001$.

Table 4.4. Descriptive statistics of the items composing the cultural distance index (CDI)

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Language (the official language spoken in Portugal and in the UK).	4.04	1.03	-.99	.14
Public schedules (restaurants. shopping centers. etc.).	3.82	.93	-.92	.46
Food (the cooking and eating style).	3.79	1.04	-.46	-.68
The way of interacting and expression of emotions.	3.60	.95	-.40	-.07
Physical environment (such as the neighborhood. the density of population).	3.54	.90	-.66	-.01
The way of working (organization. rules to follow. schedule).	3.50	.93	-.51	-.47
Pace of life (punctuality).	3.32	1.08	-.33	-.79
Respect for something different.	3.32	1.12	-.18	-.65
Communication style (such as directness and indirectness).	3.17	.99	.00	-.78
General education level for most people.	2.97	.95	.48	-.49
Family values.	2.75	1.02	.09	-.53
The type of leisure activities.	2.61	1.02	.18	-.69

Acculturation Strategies and Cultural Identity

On average, as Hypothesis 2 predicted, participants chose to acculturate more by integration ($M= 4.34, SD=.65$) than by assimilation ($M= 1.67, SD=.65$), $t(249)=44.62$, $p=.000$. In addition, separation ($M= 1.76, SD=.52$) and marginalization ($M= 1.25, SD=.35$) were the least chosen acculturation strategies. Regarding cultural identity, most participants endorsed a bicultural identity (32.8%), followed by national identity (29.2%), ethnic identity (24%) and diffuse identity (14%). This confirms Hypothesis 3.

In the first half, Table 4.5 points out some mean differences between participants' cultural identity and acculturation orientations, while in the second half differences between cultural identity and cross-cultural adaptation are addressed. To test for these differences, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted, while controlling for time in the UK. Its appropriateness was checked through a series of moderate Pearson correlations (i.e. $<.90$, Meyers, Gampt, & Guarino, 2006) that were obtained between all dependent variables, revealing absence of multicollinearity (see Table 4.3). In addition, the covariances matrices between the groups were assumed to be equal for the purposes of the MANCOVA, as the group sizes were over 30 (Allen & Bennett, 2008). A statistically significant MANCOVA effect was obtained, $F(27, 717) = 8.94, p < .001$. Pillai's Trace = .76, partial $\eta^2 = .25$. This indicates that there was a statistically significant difference between the type of cultural identity on the combined dependent variables.

More specifically, as portrayed in Table 4.5, there was a significant effect of the type cultural identity on the integration acculturation strategy, $F(3, 245) = 13.54, p = .000$. Results of pairwise comparisons revealed that all mean comparisons were statistically significant ($p < .05$). On average, EA SIEs' who endorsed a bicultural identity were more integrated ($M= 4.68, SD= .41$) than those with a national ($M= 4.26, SD= .63$), ethnic ($M= 4.08, SD= .85$) or diffuse identity ($M= 4.18, SD= .41$). These results support Hypothesis 4b that predicted that EA SIEs who endorse a bicultural identity acculturate through integration.

The effect of the type of identity was also significant for the assimilation strategy, $F(3, 245) = 11.25, p = .000$. Pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni adjustments indicated that the mean score for the diffuse identity ($M= 2.00, SD= .83$) was significantly different than the ethnic ($M= 1.50, SD= .41$) and bicultural identity ($M= 1.50, SD= .61$). This means that EA SIEs with a diffuse identity were more assimilated than those with a bicultural or ethnic identity. In addition, the pairwise comparisons revealed that the mean for national identity ($M= 1.85, SD= .67$) was significantly different than the ethnic ($M= 1.50, SD= .41$) and

bicultural one ($M= 1.50, SD= .61$); hence EA SIEs' with a national identity were more assimilated than bicultural or ethnic ones, similar to what hypothesis 4a predicted.

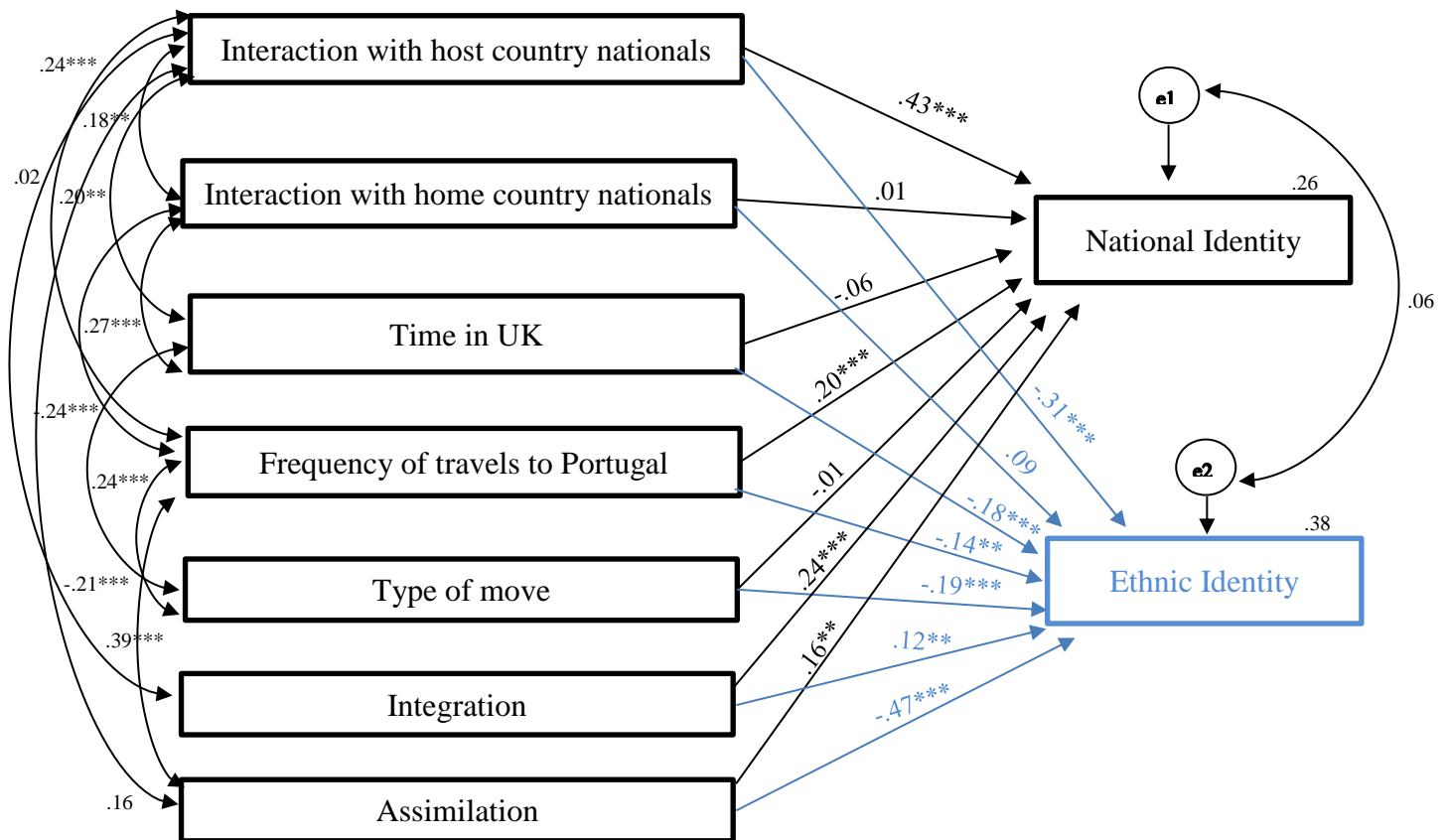
Regarding separation strategy, results revealed a significant effect for the type of cultural identity, $F(3, 245) = 18.66, p = .000$. More specifically, results of pairwise comparisons pointed out that the mean score for national identity ($M= 1.46, SD= .42$) was significantly different than the ethnic ($M= 2.06, SD= .60$), bicultural ($M= 1.75, SD= .43$) and diffuse identity's one ($M= 1.90, SD= .44$). Therefore, EA SIEs with a national identity were the least acculturated by separation when compared with the ones with an ethnic, bicultural or diffuse identity. In addition, post-host comparison revealed another significant mean difference, i.e. between EA SIEs with an ethnic identity ($M= 2.06, SD= .43$) and those with a bicultural one ($M= 1.75, SD= .43$). This revealed that EA SIEs with an ethnic identity chose the separation acculturation strategy more than those with a bicultural identity, contrarily to what Hypothesis 4c predicted, i.e. that EA SIEs who endorse an ethnic identity acculturate through integration.

Factors Influencing Cultural Identity

The conceptual model of Figure 4.2 was tested in AMOS 25. Exogenous and endogenous variables were let to covary between each other according to the bivariate correlations presented in Table 4.3. The hypothesized model showed a good fit ($\chi^2(11)= 16.53, p=.123$; CFI=.99; RMSEA= .05; SRMR=.04).

Figure 4.5 presents the standardized regression coefficients. As it indicates, several hypotheses were confirmed, suggesting that national identity is positively related with EA SIEs' interaction with host country nationals (H5a; $\beta= .43, p < .001$), the two types of acculturation strategy (integration – H10a; $\beta= .24, p < .001$ and assimilation – H11a; $\beta= .16, p < .01$) and EA SIEs' travel to Portugal once a year (H8a; $\beta= .20, p < .001$). In addition, ethnic identity was positively related with EA SIEs' acculturation through integration (H10b; $\beta= .12, p < .01$) and negatively related with acculturation through assimilation (H11b; $\beta= -.47, p < .001$), their travel to Portugal once a year (H8b; $\beta= -.14, p < .01$), time lived in the UK so far (H6b; $\beta= -.18, p < .001$) interaction with host country nationals (H5b; $\beta= -.31, p < .001$) and moving accompanied (H9b; $\beta= -.19, p < .001$).

Figure 4.3. Factors influencing EA SIEs' national identity and ethnic identity



Acculturation Strategy, Cultural Identity and Cross-Cultural Adaptation

The hypothesized model underlining Hypothesis 13 involved one exogenous variable (frequency of travel to Portugal) and four mediator variables (integration acculturation strategy, assimilation acculturation strategy, separation acculturation strategy and marginalization acculturation strategy). Since the participants did not mention specifically the dimension of cross-cultural adaptation, all five of them were introduced in the model as endogenous variables (emotional adaptation, social adaptation, cultural adaptation, practical adaptation and work adaptation). Paths were created between the exogenous variable with each mediator and endogenous variable. By creating paths between each mediator and endogenous variable, we were able to test for Hypothesis 12 too. Mediator and endogenous variables were let to covary between each other according to the bivariate correlations presented in Table 4.3.

The hypothesized model showed a good fit ($\chi^2(2) = 4.28, p = .118; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .02$). As Hypothesis 12 predicted, assimilation was positively related to EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, regarding two of its dimension: emotional adaptation

($\beta = .41, p < .001$) and cultural adaptation ($\beta = .29, p < .001$). Assimilation was also related to two other dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation: social adaptation ($\beta = -.26, p < .001$) and practical adaptation ($\beta = -.14, p < .05$), but in a negative way, contrary to what Hypothesis 12 predicted. Regarding the last dimension of cross-cultural adaptation, i.e. work adaptation, the results are barely below the level of significance ($\beta = .13, p = .07$), with bivariate correlations ($r = .14, p < .05$) supporting the hypothesized positive relationship between assimilation and work adaptation. Integration was not significantly related to any dimension of cross-cultural adaptation. Therefore, these results provide a partial confirmation of Hypothesis 12.

Regarding Hypothesis 13, as predicted, acculturation strategy mediated the relationship between the frequency of travels to Portugal and cross-cultural adaptation. Nonetheless, this was statistically significant for some dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation and types of acculturation strategy.

The direct effects between frequency of travels to Portugal, assimilation and cultural adaptation were all significant. These results indicate that traveling once a year to Portugal predicted greater adoption of assimilation as an acculturation strategy ($\beta = .34, p < .001$), which in turn lead to higher level of cultural adaptation ($\beta = .29, p < .001$). The indirect effect of the assimilation acculturation strategy on the pathway between frequency of travels to Portugal and cultural adaptation was significant ($\beta = .12, p < .01, 95\% \text{ CI } [.06, .19]$). This reveals that the relationship between frequency of travels to Portugal and cultural adaptation was mediated by assimilation.

In addition, the results indicated two indirect-only mediations were obtained. This occurred when the indirect effect was significant but not the direct effect (Zhao, Linch, & Chen, 2010). For example, traveling once a year to Portugal predicted greater adoption of assimilation as an acculturation strategy ($\beta = .34, p < .001$), which in turn lead to higher level of emotional adaptation ($\beta = .41, p < .001$). The indirect effect of the assimilation acculturation strategy on the pathway between frequency of travels to Portugal and emotional adaptation was significant ($\beta = .18, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.11, .26]$), but the direct effect was not ($\beta = .10, p = .12$). Therefore, this can be classified as an indirect-only mediation. Another example of indirect-only mediation indicated that traveling once a year to Portugal lessened the adoption of separation as an acculturation strategy ($\beta = -.14, p < .05$), which in turn lead to lower levels of emotional adaptation ($\beta = -.22, p < .001$).

There were no other dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation or acculturation strategies that showed significant mediation effects. Therefore, we can affirm that Hypothesis 13 was partially confirmed.

To test prediction made in Hypothesis 14, we conducted a MANCOVA, which we have previously described in section entitled “Acculturation strategies and cultural identity.” Nonetheless, in that section we reported the results of cultural identity’s influence on acculturation strategy portrayed in the first half of Table 4.5. The second half of Table 4.5 addresses Hypothesis 14 and it offers some empirical support. In other words, there was a significant effect of the type cultural identity on three dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation: emotional adaptation, $F(3, 245) = 17.16, p = .000$; cultural adaptation $F(3, 245) = 5.50, p = .001$; and social adaptation, $F(3, 245) = 12.38, p = .000$. Regarding emotional adaptation, results of pairwise comparisons revealed that all mean comparisons were statistically significant ($p < .05$). On average, EA SIEs who endorsed a national identity displayed higher levels of emotional adaptation ($M = 5.36, SD = 1.00$) than those with a national ($M = 4.78, SD = 1.10$), ethnic ($M = 4.14, SD = .87$) or diffuse identity ($M = 4.53, SD = .81$). In addition, the pairwise comparisons revealed that the mean for bicultural identity ($M = 4.78, SD = 1.10$) was significantly different than the ethnic one ($M = 4.14, SD = .87$); hence EA SIEs’ with a bicultural identity were emotionally more adapted than those with an ethnic identification.

In terms of cultural adaptation, the pairwise comparisons indicated that there were some statistically significant differences in the mean scores of EA SIEs who endorsed a national ($M = 3.53, SD = 1.05$), ethnic ($M = 3.00, SD = .95$), or bicultural identity ($M = 2.99, SD = .99$). The results point out that EA SIEs with a national identity were more culturally adapted than EA SIEs with an ethnic or bicultural identity.

Lastly, the pairwise comparisons disclosed all mean comparisons as statistically significant ($p < .05$). On average, EA SIEs who endorsed a national identity displayed higher levels of social adaptation ($M = 4.77, SD = .41$) than those with an ethnic ($M = 4.12, SD = .88$), bicultural ($M = 4.62, SD = .60$) or diffuse identity ($M = 4.21, SD = .91$). In addition, the pairwise comparisons revealed that the mean for bicultural identity ($M = 4.62, SD = .60$) was significantly different than the ethnic one ($M = 4.12, SD = .88$); hence EA SIEs’ with a bicultural identity were socially more adapted than those with an ethnic identification.

All these results are overall congruent with the prediction made in Hypothesis 14, revealing that on average EA SIEs with a national or bicultural identification tend to be more emotionally, culturally and socially adapted than EA SIEs with an ethnic or diffuse identity. It is important to note that no statistical significant results were found for the work or practical adaptation.

Table 4.5 MANCOVA for acculturation strategy and cross-cultural adaptation by the type of cultural identity

	National identity (n= 73)		Ethnic identity (n= 60)		Bicultural identity (n= 82)		Diffuse identity (n= 35)		Multi-variate effect	Uni-variate F-ratio	Partial Eta Squared
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
									8.94***		.25
Acculturation strategy											
Integration	4.26 _b	.63	4.08 _b	.85	4.68 _a	.41	4.18 _b	.41		13.54***	.14
Assimilation	1.85 _a	.67	1.50 _b	.41	1.50 _b	.61	2.00 _a	.83		11.25***	.12
Separation	1.46 _a	.42	2.06 _{b,c}	.60	1.75 _{b,d}	.43	1.90 _b	.44		18.66***	.19
Marginalization	1.32 _b	.32	1.28 _b	.49	1.16 _a	.27	1.29	.28		3.07*	.04
Cross-cultural adaptation											
Emotional adaptation	5.36 _b	1.00	4.14 _{a,c}	.87	4.78 _{a,d}	1.10	4.53 _a	.81		17.16***	.17
Practical adaptation	4.69	.88	4.72	.44	4.81	.34	4.79	.44		1.72	.02
Cultural adaptation	3.53 _b	1.05	3.00 _a	.95	2.99 _a	.99	3.06	1.06		5.50**	.06
Social adaptation	4.77 _a	.41	4.12 _{b,c}	.88	4.62 _d	.60	4.21 _b	.91		12.38***	.13
Work adaptation	4.45	.59	4.30	.67	4.52	.77	4.34	.80		1.41	.02

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; Subscripts of means indicate pairwise comparisons. Means with different subscripts are significantly different.

Discussion

In this chapter, we sought to provide a perspective on the acculturation and cultural identity of Portuguese emerging adult SIEs living and working in the UK, by adopting a multi-process approach (inductive data-driven bottom-up and deductive theory-driven top-down) that reflects their migratory experience. In doing so, we contribute to the literature in this area outside of the United States of America. In addition, by using a non-university emerging adult student sample we respond to one of the major criticisms of research on emerging adulthood, which states that it mostly relied on college students. Also, by focusing on SIEs, we address a major gap in the expatriate literature, namely the limited attention given to their cultural identity and acculturation experiences. Moreover, by interviewing Portuguese emerging adult SIEs in the UK (study one) and asking them to fill in a questionnaire (study two), this study offered a novel lens into the acculturation processes of this diaspora migration.

The results of the first study indicate that Portuguese emerging adult SIEs identified more differences than similarities between the Portuguese and British culture. The differences were related to food and eating, family life, leisure activities and some characteristics of the people in terms of values and social norms. The similarities were more abstract, related to the fact that Portugal and the UK are developed countries, football being a sport enjoyed in both cultures as well as the sun. It is important to mention that participants referred that it was easier for them to mention more differences than similarities, because they are more obvious whereas similarities are subtler and to some extent hidden. Nonetheless, they considered that the Portuguese and British cultures are not very different, contrary to what the literature usually portrays. To some extent, these results resemble the ones encountered in study two. Overall, according to the average value of the cultural distance index, participants did not perceive a high degree of cultural difference between Portugal and the UK. More specifically, EA SIEs who traveled to Portugal more than once a year perceived less cultural differences between Portugal and the UK than EA SIEs who traveled to Portugal more than once a year. In addition, EA SIEs in study two, considered food (i.e. the cooking and eating style) and the way of interacting and expression of emotions to be the biggest cultural differences between the Portuguese and British cultures. On the other hand, participants did not consider that these two cultures differed a lot in terms of leisure activities and communication styles.

Despite these similarities between the results obtained in both studies, there is one discrepancy that should be noted. More specifically, in study one. EA SIEs mentioned family

life (i.e. the concept of family and the importance that is given to it) frequently ($n=6$). Contrarily, on average EA SIEs in study two evaluated family life as one least prominent difference between the Portuguese and British cultures. One possible explanation for this discrepancy may be the way family life was understood. Maybe the item used to assess this difference did not capture the full essence of the discussion held in study one; hence it led to different interpretations and consequently discrepant results.

Literature shows that migration usually takes place between collectivistic home countries and individualistic host countries. In these cases, biculturalism has been reported to be difficult and distressing, due to the large degree of cultural distance (Rudmin, 2003). Although Portugal is a collectivistic country and United Kingdom a predominantly individualistic one, most of the participants, in both studies presented in this chapter, reported having a bicultural identity and adopting the integration acculturation strategy. A possible explanation for this result might be the perceived cultural distance. The British and Portuguese cultures have been classified as different on individualism and collectivism as different (Hofstede, 1991), but EA SIEs in both studies perceived the two cultures as not that different. This reinforces the importance of perceived cultural distance in understanding differences, as Suanet and van de Vijer (2009) advanced. In addition, if we consider participants' defined repatriation intentions, the endorsement of a bicultural identity seems plausible. In other words, participants chose to maintain strong home and host-country ties, which could help them navigate the British culture easily while they are in the UK and after repatriation they would be more prepared to deal with the Portuguese culture, due to the uncut ties. In fact, results from the second study reveal that EA SIEs with a bicultural identification were cross-culturally better adapted than EA SIEs with a national, ethnic or diffuse identity.

Despite these important results, study one indicated that there were some participants, who, even though they adopted the integration strategy when dealing with the cultural differences, they identified more with the Portuguese culture, hence endorsing an ethnic identity. In other words, these participants seem to deal with the cultural difference by adopting some of the British cultural behaviors and values, but they do not internalize them. Instead they identify with the Portuguese culture, having a sense of belonging and positive feelings about being a group member of this culture. Congruently, results from the second study revealed a positive relationship between ethnic identity and integration acculturation strategy. We considered this to be an interesting result, which adds some information to the existing literature, which has been indicating that ethnic identity is negatively associated with

assimilation and positively correlated with separation (Dong et al., 2015). We were able to confirm the negative relation between ethnic identity and assimilation and identify some possible explanations for this occurrence. Some participants said they adopted British behaviors and values when it is beneficial for them or when they do not have any other option. This indicates that they do not necessarily internalize or identify with them. We know that these participants' social networks are mainly composed by Portuguese citizens and some of them are in the UK for a relatively short time, hence these variables might also influence their cultural identity. Nonetheless, results from study two were congruent with the ones proposed by Dong et al. (2015), since ethnic identity was positively correlated with separation. In addition, results from MANCOVA revealed that EA SIEs with an ethnic identity chose the separation acculturation strategy more than those with a bicultural identity.

In the first study, participants who identified with the Portuguese and the British culture seem to select some of the British culture's characteristics and adopt them as theirs usually, characteristics in the public domain (e.g. social norms) rather than in the private one (e.g. family life) and characteristics that are more positively evaluated, when compared with the Portuguese ones. This suggests that just as Benet-Martínez and colleagues (2002) suggested, bicultural individuals do not internalize and use the two cultures globally and uniformly. Some participants said that when they are around their Portuguese friends, they are Portuguese, but when they are at work, around their British colleagues, they are more British. This points out that ethnic/ national peer contact may influence one's cultural identity (Berry et al., 2006) and results from the second study were congruent with this idea. Volpe and Murphy (2011) called for integrating identity and social networks perspectives. We addressed this by exploring the impact of EA SIEs' interaction with home/host country nationals on their cultural identity. Results indicated that the interaction with host country nationals was a significant predictor of national identity and ethnic identity, but it affected them differently. This means that the more EA SIEs interacted with host country nationals, the more likely they were to endorse a national identity and less likely to identify with an ethnic identity.

Congruent with expectations, the extent to which EA SIEs traveled to Portugal more than once a year versus once a year, was revealed to be a positive predictor of ethnic identity and a negative one for national identity. One of the reasons why participants travelled frequently to Portugal was the fact that they moved alone and were willing to visit their family members frequently. Consequently, the type of move is a noteworthy predictor of EAS SIEs cultural identity. Results indicate that it significantly affected ethnic identity in a

negative way. This means that, EA SIEs who moved accompanied were less likely to endorse an ethnic identity, contrary to EA SIEs who moved alone.

As predicted a significant negative relationship was found between the time spent in the UK and EA SIEs' ethnic identity. This means that the longer the EA SIEs live in the UK, the less they endorse an ethnic identity. Contrary to expectations, the time spent in the UK did not have a significant effect on EA SIEs' national identity. These findings might be seen to diminish the quality of our data, but further reflection suggests otherwise. Since most participants revealed endorsing a bicultural identity, maybe the increase in the time spent in the UK leads to the adoption of bicultural identity rather than the national identity. This can be further explained by the frequent travels to Portugal which was a significant predictor of their national identity, as we have previously explained.

Besides influencing EA SIEs' ethnic and cultural identity, the frequency of travels to Portugal revealed to be a powerful factor influencing EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation. More specifically, as Farcas and Gonçalves (2018) indicate that the frequency of travels to Portugal influences EA SIEs' cultural adaptation. The results of the second study presented in this chapter confirm this relationship and it provides additional information, indicating that it is mediated by the assimilation acculturation strategy. In other words, EA SIEs who travelled to Portugal once a year were more likely to adopt assimilation as their acculturation strategy and consequently displayed higher levels of cultural adaptation.

In sum, the two studies presented in this chapter showed consistency with theorizing originated in acculturation and cultural identity frameworks. In addition, it reinforced Liebkind's (2006) argument that acculturation attitudes and cultural identity are inextricably linked and need to be examined together. In addition, by conducting two complementary studies, we were able to control participants' answers. In other words, in the qualitative study, each participant was asked to identify differences and similarities between the Portuguese and British cultures. Each participant mentioned those that impacted him/ her the most. Therefore, some differences were not mentioned by all participants and we were not able to identify how they deal with every single difference. Therefore, by having a questionnaire in study two, participants answered the same questions and more generalizable results could be obtained.

Limitations

Despite the interesting results obtained through the conduction of the two complementary studies, some limitations should be noted. In the first study, we used a

qualitative inductive bottom-up approach, which is generally agreed to have a high ecological validity. Nonetheless, its external validity might be questioned due to the sampling frame. We used a purposeful sampling, which consents to the possible questioning of results' generalizability. Nonetheless, we should not forget that qualitative studies are not conducted with the aim of generalizing the emergent results. Instead their goal is to provide a deeper understanding of a phenomenon. Thus, accepting the possibility of suffering some alterations with the collection of additional data. Bearing this in mind, we consider that the results of this study are a stepping-stone in understanding how Portuguese emerging adult SIEs live between two cultures.

In the second study, we used questionnaires to collect data and test some of the hypothesis proposed in the first study. Some of the scales used might not have been able to assess the subjacent concept adequately (e.g. cultural differences), yielding to some discrepant results between the two studies. In addition, when exploring the possible factors which could influence EA SIEs' cultural identity, we did not include the potential ones mentioned in the introduction. Nonetheless, since this was a pioneer study exploring EA SIEs' cultural identity, we opted to focus on the rich data that emerged from the analysis of the interviews; hence the inclusion of other potential factors mentioned in the literature remains a suggestion for future research.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future studies might explore how they live within other cultures, to determine if they yield to similar results. Since the studies in this chapter were conducted before the results of the Brexit Referendum, it will be interesting for future studies to conduct other similar studies after Britain leaves the EU and compare the emergent results with the present studies' findings. The reasoning behind this lies in the possible links between policies and ethnic identity. National policies supporting multiculturalism are expected to allow migrants the endorsement of a bicultural identity and consequently affect their well-being in a positive way (Grosfoguel, 1997; Phinney et al., 2001). Furthermore, future studies could be conducted in countries with different national policies to determine their effect on EA SIEs' cultural identity.

In addition, since local circumstances are also impactful factors for identity formation and cross-cultural adaptation, we suggest that the antecedents and consequences of our studies' results could be researched. In other words, in this study we explored how the Portuguese emerging adult SIEs deal with the encountered differences between the

Portuguese and British culture. Data analysis enabled us to identify different acculturation strategies that they adopt, and cultural identities being endorsed. At the same time, by taking a closer look at the participants' discourses, we were able to identify some factors (e.g. interaction with home and host country nationals, time spent in the host country, frequency of travels to Portugal, etc.) which seem to influence the results. We suggest that future studies might further explore the factors which facilitate and hamper adopting a specific acculturation strategy and cultural identity, besides the ones we have explored in this study. These factors could be chosen based on existent literature.

At the same time, future studies could also investigate the impact of a specific acculturation strategy/cultural identity on the EA SIEs' adaptation. For example, the results of the second study suggest that assimilation acculturation strategy mediates the relationship between frequency of travels to Portugal and EA SIEs' cultural adaptation. Therefore, future studies could explore further acculturation strategy's potential mediation impact. A possible relationship it could act upon is between cultural identity and EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation. In doing so, different patterns between these factors could be identified and used in the development of policies and programs aimed at directing the EA SIEs' adaptation toward more positive outcomes.

Contributions and Implications

The two studies presented in this chapter made some important theoretical contributions and practical implications for EA SIEs' relocation experience. More specifically, by exploring EA SIEs' cultural identity, we contributed to the literature in the ways mentioned at the beginning of this discussion section. Additionally, we addressed one of Tharenou's (2010) recommendations for future research and enriched the research on SIEs. Simultaneously, this enabled us to identify the practical implications of endorsing a certain cultural identity. More specifically, we were able to determine that some types of cultural identity lead to more positive outcomes than others. Therefore, EA SIEs could consider endorsing a bicultural or national identity while working in living in the UK, since these lead to higher levels of cross-cultural adaptation. Nonetheless, EA SIEs should not forget the factors that influence the endorsement of certain types of cultural identity. In this sense, EA SIEs could for example be strategic when building their social network and interact with host country nationals, since this is a positive predictor of national identity. Employing organizations could support EA SIEs' interaction with host country nationals through organizational practices that involve peer coaching or mentoring.

Chapter 5

General Discussion and Conclusions

Self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) are considered to provide some answer to the global talent shortages and are recognized as a sprouting important factor in the global workforce. Despite their importance, SIEs research is classified in the pre-paradigm state of development, due to the vast attention given to a standard definition, the exploratory methodological state of play and the recent growth in publications (Haslberger & Vaiman, 2013). Keeping this in mind, the main aim of this dissertation was to deepen and expand knowledge about SIEs, consequently shifting it further from the pre-paradigm state. To reach this aim, we conducted an integrative literature review and six empirical studies. The integrative literature review enabled us to clearly identify what is known about SIEs and what can be further explored. Some of the identified suggestions for future research were addressed in the empirical studies, being this dissertation's specific aims:

- 1) to explore the conceptual significance of SIEs (chapter 2);
- 2) to develop and test a model of cross-cultural adaptation for EA SIEs (chapter 3);
- 3) to investigate emerging adult SIEs' cultural identity and acculturation strategies in dealing with unfamiliar aspects in the UK (chapter 4);

The reasoning behind our decision to focus on the SIEs, specifically Portuguese ones, who chose UK as their host country, is detailed in each chapter. However, broadly speaking, two main reasons drove us to collect data from Portuguese SIEs living and working in the UK. The first reason is the statistical data indicating that Portugal is one of the European Union members with the highest percentage of emigrants as a proportion of its population. This data was achieved through several emigration waves and the contemporary one is reported to move mostly to the UK, with emerging adults accounting for more than 60 percent of the total number of emigrants (Pires et al., 2019). The second reason which encouraged us to focus our research on Portuguese SIEs living and working in the UK, refers to the scarcity of research conducted on contemporary Portuguese migrant workers.

In this dissertation, each chapter was presented with its own detailed discussion, which included a thorough description of the results, presented in the light of previous research, and a consideration of the limitations, implications and suggestions for future research. Therefore, in this chapter, instead of giving an exhaustive rehash of the results, we are going to briefly summarize them according to each specific aim and address some limitations and suggestions for future research. More importantly, we will discuss some emergent theoretical and practical implications, which may suggest how researchers and practitioners can utilize the new information presented in this dissertation to assist SIEs' successful and effective cross-cultural experience.

Main Findings

Guidelines from the previously conducted research indicate that the conceptual significance of SIEs (aim 1) can be accomplished in two different ways: 1) by comparing SIEs with other types of migrant workers (e.g. Andresen et al., 2014); or 2) by focusing solely on SIEs (e.g. Cerdin & Selmer, 2014). We adopted these two approaches in this dissertation. For example, in chapter two, we explored the conceptual significance of SIEs through a comparison with assigned expatriates and immigrant workers, while in chapters three and four, we focused solely on SIEs and investigated some unexplored aspects of their cross-cultural experience (e.g. predictors of cross-cultural adaptation, cultural identity formation and effective acculturation strategies to deal with unfamiliar aspects in the UK).

Aim 1: Explore the Conceptual Significance of SIEs

In chapter two, while attempting to explore the conceptual significance of SIEs through the comparison of SIEs with other types of migrant workers, we had to identify the other types of migrant workers we would compare SIEs with, and the basis of the comparison. Therefore, the following research questions were put forward:

1. How do Portuguese migrant workers move to the UK, regarding the form of international mobility?
2. Why do Portuguese migrant workers move to the UK?
3. How do Portuguese migrant workers in the UK characterize their cross-cultural adaptation?

A mixed methods approach was used to answer these questions; hence, a qualitative research approach was employed in the first study, while in the second study a quantitative research approach was used. Based on these two complementary studies, next we will present the answers to each one of the proposed questions.

How do Portuguese migrant workers move to the UK, regarding the form of international mobility?

The results from both studies indicate that Portuguese migrant workers move to the UK as SIEs, AEs and IWs. By comparing these three forms of international mobility, in terms of the intended length of time abroad, repatriation intentions, work related aspects and (in)existent type of support, some demarcation criteria were obtained.

Broadly speaking, Portuguese AEs have a defined timeframe as opposed to some SIEs and most IWs, who are mostly unsure about how much time they will spend in the UK. SIEs' uncertainty about their intended length of time abroad was mainly related with the results of

the Brexit referendum. Although SIEs left Portugal with a defined timeframe to spend in the UK, they assumed that this contextual variable might change their plans and affect their defined repatriation intentions. Besides SIEs, AEs were also found to have defined repatriation intentions, contrary to IWs. This seemed to be related with the third demarcation criterion focused on work related aspects. SIEs and AEs explored their career opportunities before leaving Portugal, while those who moved abroad as IWs, explored them after arriving in the UK. Additionally, after moving abroad and begin exploring the career opportunities, IWs with undergraduate degrees were more willing to accept jobs outside their qualification areas, contrary to SIEs, who explored their career opportunities solely in their area of expertise, and before moving abroad. AEs were sent to the UK by their employer to work in their area of expertise in an existent subsidy of the company they were working for in Portugal. Therefore, AEs' move to the UK was highly supported by the employer, regarding financing of the trip, finding accommodation and general information about UK. SIEs and IWs did not have this type of support. Some of them relied on a limited support provided by recruitment agencies, their friends and family members. More specifically, some SIEs contacted recruitment agencies to help them find a job in the UK and asked their friends some questions about the living conditions. IWs relied more on their friends and family members to find a job and accommodation.

Based on this demarcation criteria, we found that most Portuguese migrant workers moved to the UK as SIEs, followed by IWs and AEs. Some differences were found based on their demographic characteristics. For example, most SIEs were the youngest ones with an age range between 20 and 29 years, while many IWs were in their thirties and AEs were 40+ years old. AEs were predominantly males and had a higher income than SIEs. IWs were the ones with the lowest income and this could be related with their qualification. In terms of the educational background, we could observe that master's degree was the most frequent higher education degree for SIEs and AEs, while IWs' educational background was mostly at the level of the bachelor's degree. Nonetheless, it is important to mention that, many IWs did not have any higher degree, which indicated that IWs divided themselves into skilled and unskilled ones.

Why do Portuguese migrant workers move to the UK?

Findings from both studies indicated that IWs and unemployed SIEs in Portugal were pushed to the UK by poor labor market situation in Portugal (e.g., unemployment, unchallenging tasks), but pull factors such as personal and professional international

experience were also dominant motivational factors. Professional international experience was mostly associated with SIEs' and AEs' drivers for moving abroad. IWs might not have mentioned this motive in the first study, since they explore their career after arriving in the UK and *a priori* they do not know what they are going to work in the UK. In the first study, personal international experience was transversal to all three groups of migrant workers, despite being unevenly mentioned. The results of the second study revealed these differences to be significant. More specifically, when compared with SIEs and AEs, international experience (personal and professional) was the least significant motive for IWs' decision of moving abroad.

How do Portuguese migrant workers in the UK characterize their cross-cultural adaptation?

In the first study, some participants from the three groups of migrant workers characterized their adaptation as easy. SIEs pointed out the factors which contributed to this easy adaptation: having the feeling of being in charge over the move abroad, defining realistic expectations and being able to achieve them in the host country. This might empower them and consequently help them to overcome obstacles and adapt. The results of the second study substantiated the findings of our first study, since significant differences in work adaptation emerged between AEs and both SIEs and IWs, with the AEs being the most adapted ones.

AEs and some IWs considered accommodation as a facilitator of their adaptation. However, this was the factor most likely to hamper SIEs' adaptation. As mentioned previously, AEs had support from their organization to find and pay for accommodation, while IWs counted on their family and friends living in the UK. But most SIEs in our sample were exposed to the challenging renting system in the UK. This complicated SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, and the results of the second study corroborated these findings, since significant differences were found between IWs and both SIEs and AEs regarding their practical adaptation, with AEs being the most adapted ones.

In addition, findings from the second study revealed significant differences between AEs and both SIEs and IWs, with SIEs exhibiting the lowest level of cultural adaptation. Nonetheless, some SIEs in the first study mentioned that they identified with the British culture, and this could have facilitated their adaptation. Most likely this happened, because one of their motivations reflected the desire to gain a personal international experience; hence they were willing to know better the British culture.

Some IWs in the two studies found the British accent hard to understand, causing them some adaptation difficulties; hence language proficiency seems to be challenging for IWs. This idea is reinforced by the findings of our second study, since significant differences were found between IWs' language adaptation and SIEs. IWs were the ones who were the least adapted group of migrant workers.

Aim 2: Develop and Test a Model of Cross-Cultural Adaptation for EA SIEs

The comparative studies presented in Chapter 2, reported SIEs as being younger than AEs and IWs. Therefore, following the suggestion from the integrative literature review, EA SIEs were our focus in exploring the conceptual significance of SIEs. We decided to investigate their cross-cultural adaptation since this is an underexplored topic in the SIEs literature, which has mostly addressed the motivational and career related issues. In addition, the limited studies focused on SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation have predominantly used the cross-cultural adjustment framework of Black and collaborators (1991), which targets AEs and disregards the specificities of SIEs. Therefore, we aimed to develop and test a model of cross-cultural adaptation for EA SIEs. To accomplish this aim, two studies were conducted with the following research questions in mind:

1. How do EA SIEs perceive cross-cultural adaptation?
2. What factors, perceived by EA SIEs, facilitate or inhibit their cross-cultural adaptation?

In the first study we adopted a qualitative approach and conducted interviews with EA SIEs that were analyzed through a grounded theory. A cross-cultural adaptation model was proposed and then tested in the second study, which collected data through an online questionnaire and analyzed it using SEM. The results are briefly described below according to each research question proposed.

How do EA SIEs perceive cross-cultural adaptation?

EA SIEs from the first study, broadly defined cross-cultural adaptation through the expression "feeling at home". Then, they decomposed this broad definition of cross-cultural adaptation in five different dimensions. Cultural adaptation was the dimension mentioned by all participants and it addressed the ease of adaptation to existent cultural differences (e.g. social norms, habits, routines) between the host and home culture. In addition, to effectively deal with these differences, EA SIEs mentioned two strategies: 1) changing your own cultural background by adopting the host country's one; hence acting like a host country national; and

2) finding an equilibrium between the two cultural backgrounds. The second dominant dimension was entitled emotional adaptation and it referred to EA SIEs' feelings in the host country, in terms of the achieved degree of well-being, happiness, satisfaction and comfort; consequently, involving the lack of negative aspects such excessive crying, sadness and depression. Social adaptation was the third dimension of cross-cultural adaptation, which encompassed aspects related to participants' social life, in terms of their interaction with other people and consequently the establishment of social networks. The fourth dimension was entitled practical adaptation and it emphasized participants' ability to getting used to the way of functioning in the host-country, such as knowing how to get around, using public transportation, health and shopping systems. The last dimension was work adaptation and it addressed aspects related to participants' employment situation in terms of job satisfaction and working environment.

These five dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation were tested in the second study using a cross-cultural adaptation scale. Results indicated that EA SIEs displayed high levels of work, emotional, social and practical adaptation. Their levels of cultural adaptation were the lowest ones; hence we may infer that EA SIEs experienced some difficulty to culturally adapt.

What factors, perceived by EA SIEs, facilitate or inhibit their cross-cultural adaptation?

EA SIEs identified several determinants influencing specific dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation and others, which applied to all five of them. The identified determinants of cross-cultural adaptation focused on the pre-relocation (before moving to the UK) and post-relocation phase (while being in the UK, after moving there), and they were organized at the following four levels: 1) personal; 2) interpersonal; 3) societal; and 4) situational.

Personal determinants referred to an individual's characteristics, related to psychological, experiential and/or behavioral aspects, such as agency, realistic expectations, previous international experience, personality and language proficiency. Agency denoted the voluntary nature of an individual's international relocation; hence EA SIEs considered that it elicited positive adaptive outcomes, by reflecting the individual control over the relocation decision and responsibility for any of its consequences. Setting realistic expectations was referred to be another personal determinant of cross-cultural adaptation, since EA SIEs recognized that imagining a perfect life in the UK which in the end will not be that perfect, may let people down. Therefore, some participants suggested that setting realistic expectations about life in the UK helped their cross-cultural adaptation, because in case of an

obstacle, they were more prepared to overcome it. A similar reasoning was given for the positive impact on cross-cultural adaptation of a previous international experience. More specifically, EA SIEs considered that having a previous international experience like the current one, in terms of working and living alone, facilitates an individual's cross-cultural adaptation due to the available and previously acquired resources (e.g. knowledge of the system) useful to overcome eventual obstacles. EA SIEs highlighted that the adaptation to different aspects of the host country depends a lot on the type of person who is relocating (i.e. personality). Being extroverted, open minded and resilient are some characteristics which may positively influence one's social and cultural adaptation. The last personal determinant mentioned by the EA SIEs was English language proficiency (i.e. the ability to fluently speak, understand and write in English) and it was predicted to positively impact cross-cultural adaptation because it may facilitate the interaction with host country nationals and provide them a better understanding of the British culture.

The interpersonal determinants referred to the interaction between individuals and subsequent consequences which may emerge from it. EA SIEs considered that these types of determinants can be found prior and after relocating, and they are mainly related with the individual's social life, the established social relations and received support. For example, prior to relocating an EA SIE might contact prospective host/home country nationals (e.g. friends or relatives living in the UK) to clarify some doubts and become more aware of the British culture and way of living; hence contributing to having more realistic expectations. Additionally, contacting prospective host/home country nationals may help EA SIEs to construct their social network, influencing adaptation in a positive way. Similarly, EA SIEs considered that the support received from the family members may also facilitate cross-cultural adaptation. EA SIEs appreciated that their families approved their relocation decision, because this way they felt that their decision was right and knew that they could count with their support. After relocating, the identified interpersonal determinants were focused on EA SIEs' social life and established relations. More precisely, EA SIEs deliberated that it is important to balance work and personal life in such a way that it would be possible to engage in recreational activities (e.g. go to concerts, theater and gym). Besides engaging in recreational activities, EA SIEs highlighted the importance of constructing a social network; hence interacting with other people. Specifically, interacting with host country nationals was considered to positively influence cross-cultural adaptation, while the opposite occurred from the exclusive interaction with home country nationals and working interaction with older colleagues.

The societal determinants referred to the host country characteristics which might influence EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation. For example, EA SIEs mentioned the host country nationals' attitudes towards foreigners. If their attitudes are negative, i.e. treating unfairly, negatively and not accepting or welcoming someone because of their different cultural background, then one's cross-cultural adaptation might be complicated. This can get even worse, when there is a low density of foreigners present in the area where they are residing (ethnic composition of neighborhood), since host country nationals might more easily manifest their less favorable attitudes towards foreigners.

The situational determinants included time and contextual factors which could influence cross-cultural adaptation. EA SIEs considered that these types of determinants were present prior and after relocating. Pre-relocation situational determinants fell upon having a job proposal and defined repatriation intentions. EA SIEs considered that having a job proposal before departure facilitates adaptation by offering better living conditions. On the other hand, EA SIEs considered that having defined repatriation intentions and spending more time in Portugal than in the UK, influenced adaptation in a negative way because it may not enable engaging in recreational activities and getting to know the British culture.

Moving accompanied and time spent in the UK were considered to buffer the relationship between one dimension of cross-cultural adaptation (i.e. cultural adaptation) and unbalanced time spent in the home and host country. All these proposed relationships were tested in study two and received some empirical support as the following table illustrates.

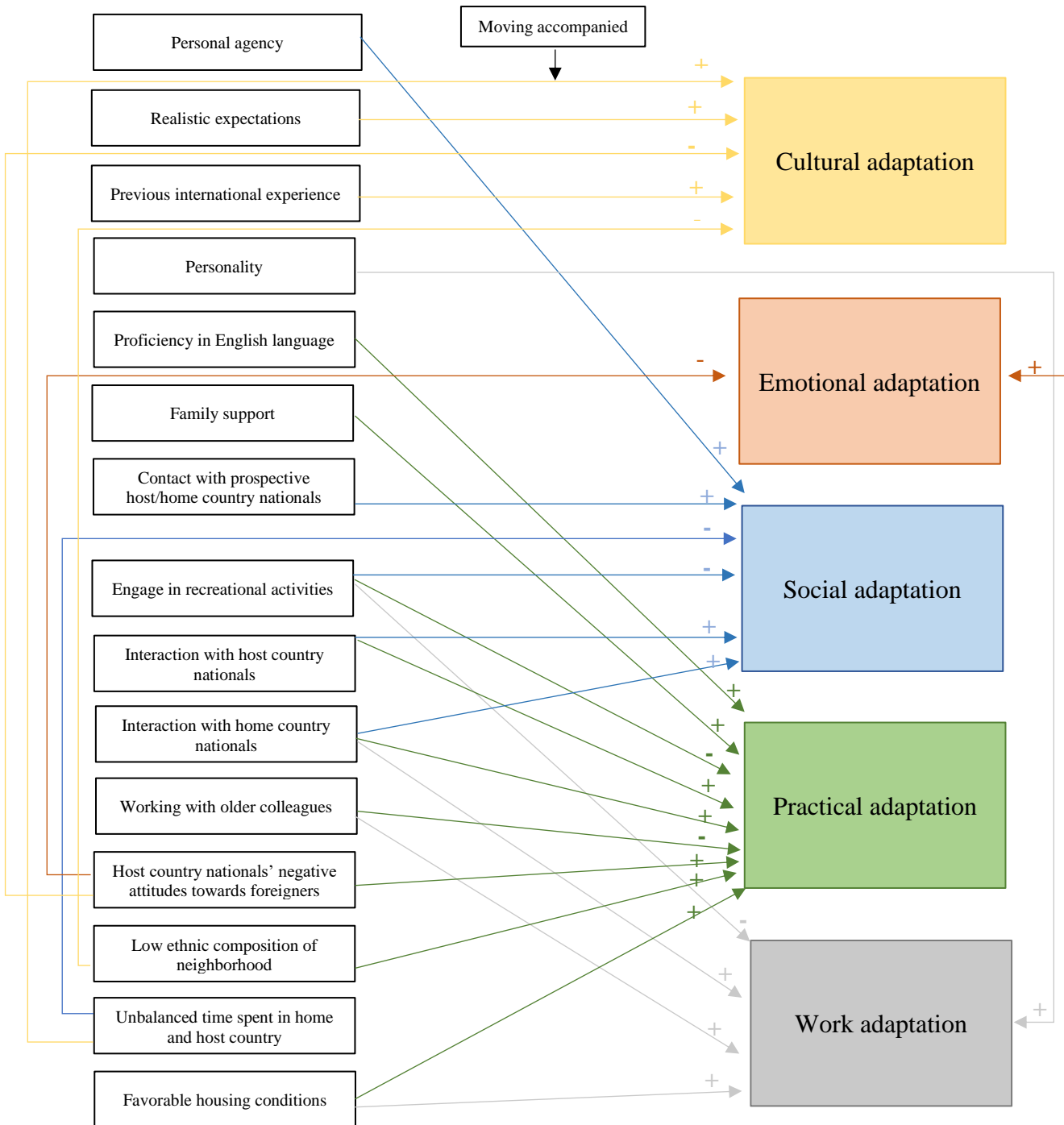
Table 5.1. Summary of determinants of cross-cultural adaptation

Determinants of cross-cultural adaptation		Dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation				
		Cultural	Emotional	Social	Practical	Work
<i>Pre-relocation</i>	Personal					
	Personal agency			+		
	Realistic expectations	+				
	Previous international experience	+				
	Proficiency in English language				+	+
<i>Post-relocation</i>	Interpersonal					
	Family support				+	
	Contact with prospective host/home country nationals			+		
	Engaging in recreational activities			-	-	-
	Interaction with host country nationals			+	+	
<i>Societal</i>	Host country nationals' negative attitudes towards foreigners	-	-	+	+	
	Low ethnic composition of neighborhood	-			+	
	Situational					
	Unbalanced time spent in home and host country	+		-		
	Favorable housing conditions		+		+	+

Note: Green represents the determinants with a statistically significant effect, while red illustrates the opposite. Everything in orange represents additional significant determinants that were discovered while testing the model.

The following figure provides a visual representation of the final model of cross-cultural adaptation for EA SIEs.

Figure 5.1. Cross-cultural adaptation model for EA SIEs



Note: to simplify the visual representation of the cross-cultural adaptation model for EA SIEs, the figure does not include the covariations between the endogenous variables, the error terms of the exogenous variables and the associate covariances.

Aim 3: Investigate EA SIEs' Cultural Identity and Acculturation Strategies

In chapter three, while answering the research question “How do EA SIEs perceive cross-cultural adaptation?” we identified several dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation. One of them was cultural adaptation and it was not contemplated on its own in the existent definitions of international assignees' cross-cultural adaptation in the international business research stream (Gonzalez-Loureiro, Kiessling, & Dabic, 2015). Therefore, in chapter four, we decided to explore it further, along with EA SIEs' cultural identity, another neglected terrain in EA SIEs' research. Keeping this in mind, the following research questions were proposed:

1. How are the Portuguese and British cultures perceived by Portuguese EA SIEs?
2. How do Portuguese EA SIEs acculturate in the UK and what cultural identity do they endorse?
3. What factors influence EA SIEs' cultural identity?
4. How do cultural identity and acculturation strategy affect EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation?

Two complementary studies were conducted to answer these questions. In the first study we interviewed EA SIEs and analyzed data using content analysis. Based on the encountered results, some hypotheses were developed, and they were tested in study two.

How are the Portuguese and British cultures perceived by Portuguese EA SIEs?

Portuguese EA SIEs from study one, identified more differences than similarities between the Portuguese and British cultures. The differences were related to food and eating, family life, leisure activities and some characteristics of the people in terms of values and social norms. The similarities were more abstract, related to the fact that Portugal and the UK are developed countries, football being a sport enjoyed in both cultures as well as the sun. It is important to mention that participants referred that it was easier for them to mention more differences than similarities, because they are more obvious whereas similarities are subtler and to some extent hidden. Nonetheless, they considered that the Portuguese and British cultures are not very different, contrary to what the literature usually portrays.

To some extent, these results resemble the ones encountered in study two. Overall, according to the average value of the cultural distance index, participants did not perceive a high degree of cultural difference between Portugal and the UK. More specifically, EA SIEs who traveled to Portugal more than once a year perceived less cultural differences between Portugal and the UK than EA SIEs who traveled to Portugal more than once a year. In

addition, EA SIEs in study two, considered food (i.e. the cooking and eating style) and the way of interacting and expression of emotions to be the biggest cultural differences between the Portuguese and British cultures. On the other hand, participants did not consider that these two cultures differed a lot in terms of leisure activities and communication styles.

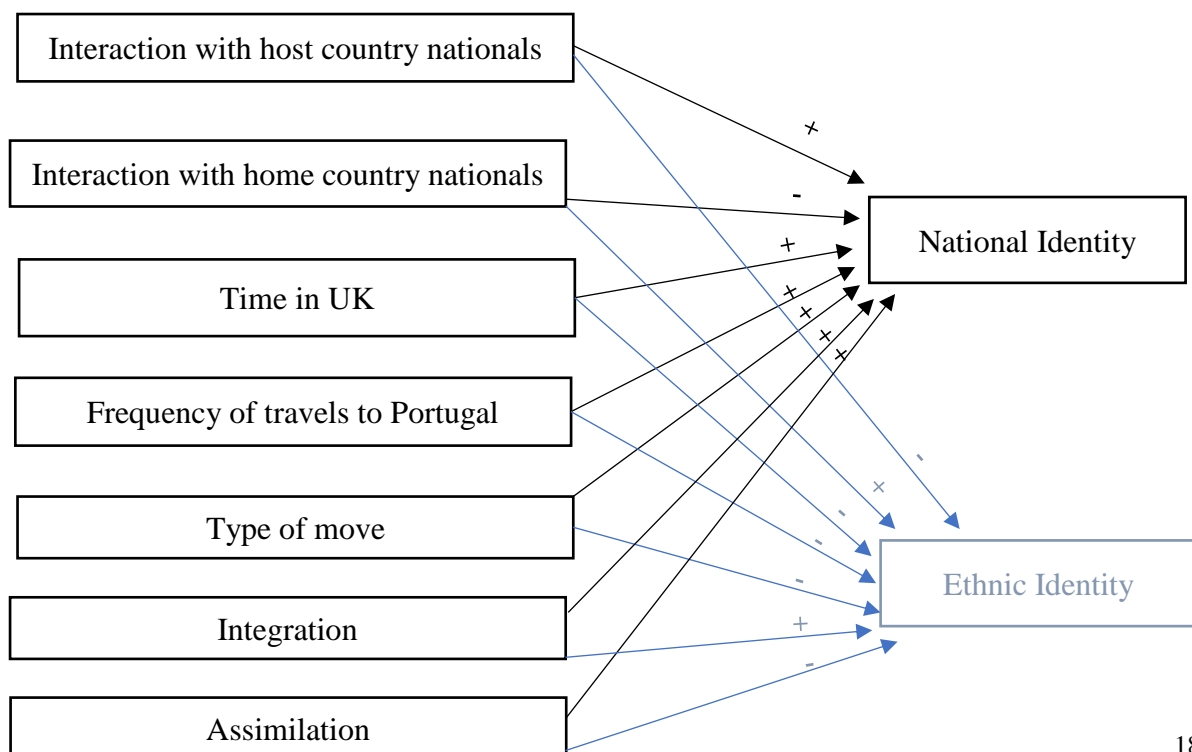
How do Portuguese EA SIEs acculturate in the UK and what cultural identity do they endorse?

EA SIEs chose to acculturate more by integration than assimilation, while separation and marginalization were the least chosen acculturation strategies. Regarding cultural identity, most participants endorsed a bicultural identity, followed by national identity, ethnic identity and diffuse identity. When exploring the relationship between cultural identity and acculturation strategy, we identified that EA SIEs who endorsed a bicultural identity were more integrated than those with a national, ethnic or diffuse identity. In addition, EA SIEs with a national identity were more assimilated than those with a bicultural or ethnic identity. Regarding separation strategy, EA SIEs with an ethnic identity chose the separation acculturation strategy more than those with a bicultural identity

What factors influence EA SIEs’ cultural identity?

In study one, EA SIEs focused solely on national and ethnic identity when identifying the factors which may influence them. The figure below portrays all the identified factors and their predicted impact on the national and ethnic identity.

Figure 5.2. Predictors of EA SIEs’ national and ethnic identity



All these predicted relationships were tested in the second study. Results indicated that national identity was positively related with EA SIEs' interaction with host country nationals and the two types of acculturation strategy (integration and assimilation). In addition, EA SIEs' travel to Portugal once a year is also a positive predictor of national identity.

Regarding ethnic identity, results revealed that it was positively related with EA SIEs' acculturation through integration and negatively related with acculturation through assimilation. Other negative predictors of EA SIEs' ethnic identity included their travel to Portugal once a year, the time lived in the UK so far, the interaction with host country nationals and moving accompanied.

How do cultural identity and acculturation strategy affect EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation?

Results revealed a significant effect of the type cultural identity on three dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation: emotional adaptation, cultural adaptation and social adaptation. EA SIEs who endorsed a national identity displayed higher levels of emotional adaptation than those with a national, ethnic or diffuse identity. Also, EA SIEs with a bicultural identity were emotionally more adapted than those with an ethnic identification. In terms of cultural adaptation, EA SIEs with a national identity were more culturally adapted than EA SIEs with an ethnic or bicultural identity. Lastly, EA SIEs who endorsed a national identity displayed higher levels of social adaptation than those with an ethnic, bicultural or diffuse identity. Additionally, EA SIEs' with a bicultural identity were socially more adapted than those with an ethnic identification.

When exploring the relationship between acculturation strategy and cross-cultural adaptation, integration not significantly related to any dimension of cross-cultural adaptation. On the other hand, assimilation was negatively related cross-cultural adaptation, regarding two of its dimensions: social adaptation and practical adaptation. This acculturation strategy was also related to two other dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation: emotional and cultural adaptation, but in a positive way.

This positive relationship between assimilation and cultural adaptation was further explored. While examining the relationship between frequency of travels to Portugal and cultural adaptation, we found that it was mediated by assimilation. This means that if EA SIEs travel to Portugal once a year, they are more likely to acculturate through assimilation and consequently be more culturally adapted. In addition, two indirect only mediations revealed that: 1) traveling once a year to Portugal lessened the adoption of separation as an

acculturation strategy, which in turn lead to lower levels of emotional adaptation; and 2) traveling once a year to Portugal predicted greater adoption of assimilation as an acculturation strategy, which in turn lead to higher level of emotional adaptation.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The limitations of the present dissertation and avenues for future research can be foreseen in terms of the sample composition and data collection procedures. More specifically, the studies presented in this dissertation focused only on Portuguese migrant workers in the UK. Therefore, the findings may be nationally biased, and it requires further studies of Portuguese workers in other countries or other countries' workers in Portugal to establish generalizability. This should include comparisons between EU and non-EU workers and countries. In this respect, the UK leaving the EU could provide a research opportunity. The main reasoning behind this suggestion is related with the assumption that EU migrant workers in EU host countries could face fewer adaptation problems than non-EU migrant workers (Al Ariss, 2010). After the results of the Brexit Referendum, this suggestion could be easily addressed and eventually complemented with a pre-Brexit and post-Brexit comparison of the results. This comparison can be applied to all the specific aims of this dissertation, since it would allow a more in-depth analysis of the phenomenon and it will be a step forward into changing the current situation of having “a wealth of indicators but a dearth of replications” (Haslberger, et al., 2014, p. 129).

Another limitation of the research presented in this dissertation focuses on the retrospective data we collected. This means that later life experiences of the emerging adults might have affected the way in which they viewed their cross-cultural adaptation during the interviews conducted in the first study presented in chapter two. This limitation can be extended to data collection procedures employed in study two of the same chapter. For example, to assess EA SIEs' realistic expectations, they were asked to assess difficulties that they imagined encountering in the host country. These were compared with difficulties they encountered after arriving in the host country. We consider that this could have been a difficult task for the participants to give accurate answers; mixing up current difficulties with expected ones. A possible solution to this limitation is to carry out a longitudinal study. Before relocating EA SIEs could be asked about the difficulties, they expect to encounter in the host country; and at two different periods after relocating EA SIEs' experienced difficulties would be explored. At the same time, we should not forget that cross-cultural

adaptation is a process and not a specific point in individuals' life; hence more longitudinal studies are needed to determine how it unfolds.

In addition, studies exploring different perspectives are necessary. In the six empirical studies presented in this dissertation, data were collected solely from the Portuguese migrant workers' perspective. For example, in the second study presented in chapter three, when asked about the host country nationals' attitudes towards foreigners, EA SIEs' perceived discrimination was assessed. It would be interesting to complement this with data collected from host country nationals, hence providing a more holistic understanding of this societal determinant's influence on EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation. Furthermore, future studies might also explore the reaction of the extended family (e.g., parents) regarding migrant workers' decision to move abroad and how it influences their adaptation process. At the same time, future studies on migrant workers should combine theoretical perspectives from different disciplines. Throughout the several studies of this dissertation, we were able to show how the perspectives of two disciplines, i.e. psychology and business, can complement each other into providing a more holistic understanding of migrant workers' international experience; hence this should be the path followed by future research. Moreover, an important step into understating migrant workers' international experience should be the testing of the demarcation criteria proposed in chapter two to understand the differences between SIEs, AEs and IWs.

Theoretical Implications

The theoretical contributions of this dissertation can be organized in terms of how we conducted the six empirical studies and the results obtained. To reach each one of the three specific aims, we used a mixed method approach and conducted two complementary studies: one using a qualitative approach and the other one implementing a quantitative approach. In doing so, we followed Karasz and Singelis' (2009) advice for cross-cultural psychology's need as a discipline to embrace mixed methods research. They revealed that qualitative inquiry can be useful at the early stage of conceptual development and it can be used in conjunction with quantitative approaches to enhance the equivalence of measures and obtain a thorough understanding of the studied phenomena. Since research on SIEs is classified in the pre-paradigm state of development, we consider that the use of the qualitative approach provided revealing insights into the mysteries of SIEs' cross-cultural experiences, and these were enhanced by the implementation of the quantitative approach. So, these two approaches

provided us with a more comprehensive understanding of SIEs' cross-cultural experiences, shifting it further from the pre-paradigm state of development.

In addition, what also contributed to the expansion of knowledge about SIEs was the exploration of the conceptual significance by comparing SIEs with other types of migrant workers and by focusing solely on them. In chapter two, by comparing SIEs with AEs and IWs, we were able to develop some demarcation criteria between these three types of migrant workers. This contributed to a more detailed definition of SIEs. Keeping in mind this definition, it was easier to screen for SIEs in the following chapters when we conducted research solely on them, and we hope that future researchers will experience the same when implementing the demarcation criteria, we developed.

By conducting research solely on SIEs, we addressed several unexplored topics in this area, such as the development of a cross-cultural adaptation model for EA SIEs, the exploration of their cultural identity and acculturation orientation. To the best of our knowledge, the study presented in chapter three was one to adopt an integrative approach of emerging adults' and SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, instead of researching them as mutually exclusionary realms. Through this integrative and inductive approach, we have shown that the conceptualization of adjustment is not strictly the one which has been widely used in the SIEs' literature (i.e. the degree of psychological comfort at the destination; Black et al., 1991). Instead, emerging adult SIEs broadly defined cross-cultural adaptation through the expression of "feeling at home" and described it as a multi-dimensional concept encompassing cultural, emotional, social, practical and work adaptation. Participants also identified some pre and post relocation personal, interpersonal, societal and situational determinants influencing cross-cultural adaptation. These results provide a more holistic understanding of emerging adult SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation and addressed some limitations of previous studies.

In chapter four, by applying elements of acculturation within expatriation research, we opened new perspectives on the study of SIEs. More specifically, previous studies (Patterson, 2002; Haslberger et al., 2014) considered that expatriates are unlikely to acculturate, due to their temporary sojourn, however data emergent from qualitative studies pointed out that acculturation might play an important role in their cross-cultural adaptation. Therefore, we further explored this, while addressing Gonzalez-Loureiro et al.'s (2015) concern about how adjustment-acculturation have been researched as mutually exclusionary realms and scholars have devoted little effort to join the analyses. Our results indicate that acculturation is an important predictor of EA SIEs' cultural adaptation; hence we support Gonzalez-Loureiro et

al.'s (2015) call for more integrative studies of adaptation and acculturation, instead of attributing research to one or another.

In addition, we advocate for the integration of the literature from business and psychological fields. This dissertation demonstrated that research conducted in each one of these fields can complement each other, by confirming the results of previous research, addressing some researchers' concerns and identifying avenues for future research.

Practical Implications

The studies presented in this dissertation offer practical implications for EA SIEs, their family members and employing organizations. For example, by knowing the positive and negative determinants of cross-cultural adaptation presented in chapter three, EA SIEs can take them into account to enhance their international experience. They can do this prior to relocating by ensuring a well-developed host country language proficiency and setting up realistic expectations. By contacting prospective host and home country nationals, EA SIEs can become more familiar with their future life in the host country, and this can also contribute to the creation of realistic expectations.

After arriving in the host country, EA SIEs should make a strategic approach when building their social networks. Interacting with home and host country nationals can positively impact their cross-cultural adaptation, but not all dimensions of it. More specifically interacting with home and host country nationals influences EA SIEs' social, practical and work adaptation in a positive way. In addition, interacting with host country nationals is a positive predictor of national identity, while endorsing a national identity leads to higher levels of cross-cultural adaptation. Therefore, EA SIEs could consider endorsing a national identity while living and working abroad. Nonetheless, EA SIEs with defined repatriation intentions, like the ones in this study, could endorse a bicultural identity since it influences cross-cultural in a positive way, similar to national identity, but it may also facilitate repatriation adaptation, because the ties with the home country are not lost while establishing the ones with the host country.

One might think that a possible way of not losing ties with home culture can be achieved by travelling frequently to home country. Nonetheless, this could be detrimental to cross-cultural adaptation. More specifically, we identified that less frequent travels (i.e. once a year) to host country impacts cultural adaptation in a positive way, and assimilation acculturation strategy mediates this relationship. So, EA SIEs should think twice before

travelling frequently to host country, because this might impact their cross-cultural adaptation.

Family members can contribute to EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation by supporting their relocation experience. This practical implication for family members is very important, because EA SIEs who know that their family (i.e. parents) approves their move abroad are more likely to exhibit high levels of practical adaptation.

There are also several practical implications for employing organizations in facilitating EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation. For example, they can assist EA SIEs in finding a comfortable accommodation, since favorable housing conditions lead to higher levels of work adaptation. Among the three types of mobility workers, SIEs were the ones who revealed the lowest levels of practical adaptation and this is related with the difficulties expressed in finding an accommodation. If employing organization could help SIEs with this difficulty, they would "feel more at home" and exhibit higher levels of work adaptation. Nonetheless, when assisting EA SIEs with the accommodation, employing organization should consider the ethnic composition of neighborhood. This is an important determinant of EA SIEs' cultural and practical adaptation. If there is a high ethnic composition of neighborhood, EA SIEs' might feel less motivated to interact with host country nationals. This interaction is very important for EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, as we have previously mentioned. Therefore, employing organizations could help EA SIEs build close relationships with host country nationals in two different ways.

Training programs targeted at effective cross-cultural communication could be used to foster EA SIEs' interaction with host country nationals. By understanding the host country's culture better, EA SIEs would be more willing to interact with host-country nationals because they would have an explanation for some of the identified cultural differences. Nonetheless, we should not forget that human interaction involves at least two people. So, the host country nationals' attitudes towards foreigners are important. If they are unfavorable, EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation would be hindered; hence the training programs targeted at effective cross-cultural communication might be beneficial for host country nationals too.

Besides offering these training programs, employing organizations could support EA SIEs' interaction with host country nationals through organizational practices that involve peer coaching or mentoring. A through evaluation should be implemented with the aim of finding the adequate matching between mentor and mentee. However, the mentor could be older than the mentee, since working with older colleagues seems to facilitate EA SIEs' work adaptation. Their work adaption is also facilitated through the interaction with home country

nationals. Therefore, employing organizations should encourage active interaction between EA SIEs and their families, friends, and local compatriot community. Since EA SIEs usually have defined repatriation intentions, this could maintain and strengthen their home culture embeddedness so that their repatriation experiences are less stressful.

At the same time, keeping in mind the encountered similarities and differences between the three types of mobility workers (AEs, SIEs and IWs), employing organizations should treat each type of migrant worker according to their specificities, and consequently making a positive contribution to their tailored international relocation experience.

General Conclusions

In this dissertation, we deepened and expanded knowledge about SIEs, consequently shifting it further from the pre-paradigm state. By comparing SIEs with AEs and IWs, we developed some demarcation criteria which contributes to a better definition of SIEs. There were also some methodological advancements that were made through the adoption of a mixed method approach in the six empirical studies we conducted. The results from these studies enabled the confirmation of some findings from previous studies in another context, but more importantly shed light onto areas which have not been studied, such as EA SIEs' cross-cultural adaptation, acculturation and cultural identity. More specifically, we developed and tested a model of cross-cultural adaptation for EA SIEs, and identified the roles played by acculturation and cultural identity in their relocation experience. The new findings have strong practical implications for EA SIEs, their family members and employing organizations and are therefore highly relevant in the today's global talent flow. We hope that these findings can stimulate increased inquiry on EA SIEs, by testing our findings and determining additional practical ways of enhancing a positive international relocation experience.

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Appendices

Appendix A – A synthesis of the published studies (2012-2014) focusing on the SIE experience

#	Author(s)	Study Focus	Methodology	Findings/Main contributions	Gaps identified/future suggestions
1.	Alshammari (2012)	Evaluate the role of two predictors (marital status & previous international experience) on cross-cultural adjustment	237 self-initiated expatriates from public universities in Saudi Arabia filled in an online questionnaire	No significant relation was found between marital status/previous international experience) and the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment (general, interaction and work adjustment)	
2.	Altman & Baruch (2012)	Explore the factor chance as a motivational driver to undertake expatriation	31 expatriates and repatriates (employees of a major financial institution) were interviewed using a semi-structured interview guide, constructed along the principal stages of expatriation cycle	A two dimensional (work attractor/motivational driver vs. psychological contract) model is proposed to characterize the main expatriation paths. Corporate self-initiated expatriates identified for the first time.	
3.	Beitin (2012)	Explore Syrian SIEs' experiences and relations with home and host countries	13 Syrian SIE were recruited at the Syrian Expatriate Conference and interviewed about the motives for leaving Syria, their understanding of identity, the relationship with host country, the factors which helped the transition to new culture and the relations with home country.	The motives for leaving Syria were related to advance in education and careers. Many men referred the mandate of military service as a factor in leaving. The adjustment issues faced were language barriers and the difficulty of remaining connected to Syria. Relationships with both countries were fluid.	Extend this study to the different groups of Syrians and identify the respective differences and similarities.
4.	Berg & Plessis (2012)	Develop and explore a theoretical framework of pre-migration and post-migration career development and success	21 SIE women in Netherlands, accessed via LinkedIn and snowball sampling, participated in two interactive focus groups	Individual drivers influencing pre-migration and post-migration career development: identity, social support and life phase. Factors magnified by SIE women: Identity embeddedness, host country culture, openness to foreigners and existing prejudices and stereotypes against women.	Empirical test of the proposed framework.

5. Cao et al (2012)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Provide conceptual clarity by distinguishing SIE from OE and skilled migrants 2. Propose a theoretical framework for SIE's career success, based on career capital theory. 	Review of literature in different areas: SIE, expatriation, career studies, migration.	<p>SIE are distinguished from OE, based on some main results of previous studies (#1, 3, 13, 40): SIE relocate on their own initiative without any financial support from their employers. They don't have definite plan for repatriation; hence their career development is indeterminate.</p> <p>Ambiguity exists between migrant and SIE, differences depending on intrinsic and intangible criteria.</p> <p>SIE's career success positively influenced by: protean career attitude, career networks, and cultural intelligence. Cultural adjustment mediates these relations, while cultural adjustment acts as a moderator.</p>	Expand research besides the influence of macro-contextual factors on SIE's career success. Meso-factors (e.g. family, social relationships) could have been taken into consideration.
6. Crowley-Henry (2012)	Explore the existing career metaphors and propose a new one, discuss its implications on future career research and practice	37 SIE from the South and Technology Park in South of France were interviewed	The metaphor "river" is considered to more aptly capture the career development of SIE, by taking into consideration the micro, meso and macro context.	Conduct a broader study incorporating the metaphors of this study, along with the nine defined by Inkson (2004, 2007).

7. Ellis (2012)	Explore and compare the performance management (PM) preferences of SIE New Zealanders in Belgium and host country nationals.	10 SIE New Zealanders were recruited through a notice on a website (New Zealanders in Belgium) and 10 Belgians were interviewed	Through the content analysis, the following preferences for structured PM of SIE were found: goal-setting, performance measurement and appraisal, and a performance-based pay component. The Belgians preferences for PM incorporate professional and distant relationship. Similarities and differences were found between the two groups, with the differences prevailing.	Test the results quantitatively on a larger scale and explore the SIEs' PM preferences before becoming SIE and after a time in the host country.
8. Froese (2012)	Explore the motivations and cross-cultural adjustment of SIE in South Korea	30 SIE academics in South Korea were interviewed	Motivational drivers for expatriation: desire for international experience, attractive job conditions, family ties, and poor labor markets in home countries. A theoretical framework is proposed between motivational factors and cross-cultural adjustment.	
9. Lo et al. (2012)	Investigate the relationship between job embeddedness (3 factors: HomeCCE, HostCOE, HostCCE) with shocks (unsolicited job offers) and turnover intention of SIE in Macau <small>HomeCCE: embeddedness towards the organization in which they are employed in the host country HostCOE: embeddedness towards the organization in which they are employed in the host country HostCCE: embeddedness towards the host country community</small>	127 local staff and 210 SIE from Macau hotel industry filled out a questionnaire	Factors which may affect the retention of SIE. HostCOE mediates the relationship between HomeCCE and turnover intention and willingness to accept unsolicited job offers; The following variables moderate this relationship: expatriate-dominated private sector and HostCCE.	Longitudinal perspective from job turnover to actual quitting, taking into consideration more workplace shocks.
10. Selmer & Lauring (2012)	Test the motivational drivers found by Richardson & McKenna (2006); Osland (1995) and their impact on work outcomes (work performance, work effectiveness and job satisfaction)	428 SIE academics from 60 countries employed in 35 universities in 5 northern European countries, completed an online questionnaire.	Development of a scale for the evaluation of 4 sets of reasons to expatriate: refugee, mercenary, explorer and architect.	Incorporate supervisors' reports while evaluating work outcome variables (e.g. such as work performance and work effectiveness). Longitudinal approach may be used to capture possible changes in the perception of initial behavioral intentions over time. Target SIEs in business firms to test the validity of the findings of this investigation.

11. Shaffer et al (2012)	Review, summarize and synthesize the empirical research related to the career's choices, challenges and consequences of different types of global work. Develop a taxonomy of global work experiences and propose an agenda for future research	Literature review of 114 papers	Distinguishes between SIE and OE, based on different criteria Taxonomy of global work experiences (E, SIE, short-term assignees, international business travelers, global domestics, global virtual team members, flexpatriates) based on non-work disruption, cognitive flexibility and physical mobility Leaves some research questions for future research	The empirical test of the proposed framework, will add important knowledge to the existing literature.
12. Whitman & Isakovic (2012)	Compare the personality traits and stress management/ coping strategies between SIEs & OEs	Based on the existing literature, two conceptual models were developed.	European identification, self-esteem and relocation stress act as mediators, while the factors which positively predict for pre-migration adaptation are: previous international work experience, perceived organizational prestige, satisfaction with the time, information and assistance to prepare for the relocation and quality contact with host country nationals during recruitment.	Conduct more complex analyses of the pre-migration stage of the relocation process (e.g. longitudinal studies focusing on pre and post-relocation)
13. Yijälä et al (2012)	Develop and empirically test a model of factors predicting pre-migration adaptation of SIE	95 SIE recruited by the European Chemical Chemicals Agency in Finland who filled out a questionnaire in the country of departure, while preparing their relocation.	European identification, self-esteem and relocation stress act as mediators, while the factors which positively predict for pre-migration adaptation are: previous international work experience, perceived organizational prestige, satisfaction with the time, information and assistance to prepare for the relocation and quality contact with host country nationals during recruitment.	Conduct more complex analyses of the pre-migration stage of the relocation process (e.g. longitudinal studies focusing on pre and post-relocation)
14. Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry (2013)	Critically review how SIE are different from migrants in the management literature Answer two questions: (1) How are SIEs portrayed compared to migrants? (2) What do we know about SIEs compared to migrants?	Review of 110 peer reviewed articles retrieved from ISI Web of Knowledge database and ABI/Inform. Keywords: "self-initiated expatriation", "self-directed travel", "self-initiated foreign experience" and "migration"	Presents how SIE and migrants are portrayed in the management literature based on: country of origin, gender, education, job position, organizations, period of international mobility, destination countries and description of context. Sets out a research framework based on four dimensions: diversity-informed, context specific, reflexive and triangulated methods.	Conduct more complex analyses of the pre-migration stage of the relocation process (e.g. longitudinal studies focusing on pre and post-relocation)

15. Arp et al (2013)	Explore foreign executives in local organizations (FELOs) and distinguish them from other types of expatriation (OE and SIE)	46 FELOs from 13 different countries and their host-country peers from organizations founded and headquartered in Malaysia were interviewed	FELOs are different from OEs and can be understood as a rare and specific form of SIEs The content analysis of the interviews identified issues surrounding allegiance, trust, and control, assumptions about income levels, and exposure to heightened local scrutiny as components of the distinct nature of the FELOs' experience.	Explore FELOs in other contexts, since this one was Western to Eastern. Case studies and longitudinal approaches can be used in future studies.
16. Cao et al (2013)	Empirically test a model of mediation, of cross-cultural adjustment between the positive protean career attitude and SIEs' experience (career satisfaction, intentions to stay and life satisfaction)	132 SIE in Germany recruited via international platforms (Internations), discussion forums (Toytown Germany) and snowball principle; Path analysis with bootstrap method was used to test the model.	Positive cross-cultural adjustment mediates the positive relations between protean career attitude and SIE's experience outcomes (career satisfaction, intentions to stay in the host country and life satisfaction)	Longitudinal research and replication of study in other destination countries with bigger sample size.
17. Dabic et al (2013)	Provide a comprehensive literature review on the expatriates and their impact on global business performance	A literature review was conducted and 436 papers were retrieved and analyzed.	After 4 decades of research, the existing literature needs further exploration and higher order content	Explore new context and organizations; make an effort into systematic approaches.
18. Doherty (2013)	Review and synthesize literature review on the topic of SIE	A thematic analysis was performed on the 49 reviewed published works between 1996 and 2011 on SIE	Constructs of SIE can be analyzed at three different levels of analysis: micro, meso and macro. Clarification of the SIE concept	Consider the subjective career experiences; relate between individual, micro and meso level variables (e.g. explore how micro level variables can relate to organizational ones, demonstrate whether and how individual career capital can contribute to organizational-level competitive advantage)

19.	Doherty, Richardson & Thorn (2013)	Clarify the self-initiated expatriation/expatriate construct	Suddaby's (2010) elements of construct clarity (definitional clarity, scope conditions, relationships between constructs and coherence) were applied in the clarification process of SIE.	A distinction is made between the different types of global work experiences (short-term/flexpatriate, expatriate, organizational SIE, SIE, OE, international students and migration) based on the criteria: initiation, goals, funding, focus, career impetus, intended duration, employment and occupational category)	
20.	Froese & Peltokorpi (2013)	Explore how OE and SIE differ in terms of individual factors, job-related factors and expatriate outcomes. Determine which individual or related factors can explain the difference in expatriate outcomes between OE and SIE.	124 SIE and 57 OE from 25 different countries and living in the Tokyo area were recruited through numerous intermediaries (e.g. chambers of commerce, alumni associations). They filled out a questionnaire	<p><i>Individual factors:</i> significant differences in Japanese language proficiency and overseas experience with SIE presenting higher levels; no significant differences in age, gender, marital status or education;</p> <p><i>Job related factors:</i> SIE worked more under Japanese supervisors (acts as a mediator on their job satisfaction) and domestic companies, whereas OE worked for foreign companies and reported higher levels of <i>job satisfaction</i> than SIE.</p> <p><i>Cross-cultural adjustment:</i> SIE were more adjusted to interacting with host country nationals, because of their longer stay in the host country and higher host-country language proficiency (mediators).</p>	Test the relations in non- Asian contexts. Explore further the role of family since this study only took into consideration marital status. Host country nationals' perspective could also be explored along with the SIEs' work performance
21.	Guo et al (2013)	Examine the career experiences of repatriated SIE	20 repatriated Chinese SIE were interviewed about their motivations to repatriate and the international experience.	Career agency is impacted by both individual (e.g. personal control, proactivity, self-determination) and contextual factors, which provide support for Tams and Arthur's (2010) six dimensions of career agency.	
22.	Isakovic & Whitman (2013)	Explore the adjustment of SIE, using Black et al (1991) model as the theoretical foundation. Test the influence of previous overseas work experience, foreign language ability and culture novelty on adjustment.	An online survey was filled in by 297 SIE academic expatriates working in ten higher education institutions in United Arab Emirates.	Previous overseas experience has a positive relationship with SIEs' adjustment, while culture novelty has a negative one. Contrary to what it was predicted, foreign language ability was not positively related to adjustment.	Examine the other factors included in Black et al (1991) in order to determine if they apply to SIEs and how they differ from OEs
23.	Lauring & Selmer (2013)	Compare public and private sector SIEs, regarding the work outcomes (degree of performance, effectiveness and	329 SIEs residing in Denmark (119 private sector and 210 public sector) filled in an online questionnaire. They were recruited through an	On average, SIEs in public sector present a higher degree of performance and effectiveness than SIEs in private sector. Contrary to what it was predicted, this doesn't	Use more homogenous samples of SIEs. Rely on information from supervisor and colleagues. Distinguish between

	job satisfaction) and the effect of creativity on work performance.	association for international residents in Denmark.	happen with job satisfaction. For SIEs in the private sector vs. public sector, there is a stronger positive association between creativity and performance, creativity and effectiveness, but not between creativity and job satisfaction.	incremental and radical creativity since literature indicated that incremental creativity is more present in public sector while radical creativity is more often found in private sector.
24. Scurry & Rodriguez (2013)	Examine how SIE position themselves in terms of identity.	20 SIE working in a Qatari public shareholding company were interviewed about their motives behind becoming an SIE, work and life experiences in Qatar and the organization, career paths, and relationships with others.	The narratives of self were framed within structural constraints and patterns of adaptation. As part of these themes two narratives were identified: narrative of mobility (ambiguity in relation to temporal and spatial parameters of adaptation) and opportunity (motives behind becoming a SIE centered on opportunity).	More empirical work to map the experiences of SIE. Explore experience of female SIE in a male dominated working environment.
25. Showail et al (2013)	Empirically test the relation between role ambiguity, organization identification (mediator) and job performance, being moderated by information seeking about organization and POS.	A multi-informant perspective was used in the completion of the questionnaire. 138 supervisors and 154 SIE were recruited from six Saudi Arabian companies employing foreign employees.	A significant relationship between role ambiguity and job performance, a relationship mediated by organizational identification, which was moderated by both Information seeking and perceived organizational support.	Explore the workers' motivations for engaging in the identified behaviors.
26. Tharenou (2013)	Examine the scholars' proposal that SIE are an alternative to OE for filling key positions at lower cost.	21 empirical studies were analyzed, comparing SIEs, OEs and MNC locals in terms of interaction with the local community; employing organization and work interactions; managerial roles and skills; attachment to employer; and attachment to living and working abroad.	Situations where SIEs can replace OEs: roles requiring cross-cultural and host location-specific competencies and generic competencies. Along with MNC locals, they can replace OEs in managing local, host-country culture within a subsidiary and dealing with local environment. At a lower cost SIEs can replace OEs for filling specialist professional and lower, middle management roles. They cannot replace OEs for roles requiring firm-specific competencies.	Determine to what extent the competences developed are similar among SIEs, OEs and local employees who work a comparable, lengthy time in MNCs. Explore if the amount of international experience can moderate the relation between competences and the suitability of SIEs replacing OEs.

27. Thorn et al (2013)	Explore the relation between motives and mobility patterns	2608 New Zealanders SIE were recruited through university alumni organizations, professional associations and snowball technique. They were asked to fill out an online questionnaire.	The identified motives were cultural and travel opportunities, career, economics, affiliations, political environment, and quality of life. The mobility patterns were evaluated in terms of frequency, duration and cessation of mobility and the nature of the destination in terms of development level and cultural distance.	Determine if return propensity (an imminent return to the home country) or other current mobility intentions can be predicted by motives for previous mobility. Explore the development of mobility motivations overtime (longitudinal study).
28. Andresen et al. (2014)	Clarify the distinctions and develop a framework of different types of self-initiated and assigned expatriates.	Literature review of 136 articles from sociology, psychology and economics area. Content analysis and the Rubicon model are used to analyze data.	<p>CHAID analysis was used to test for the motivation predictors of mobility patterns. Desire for cultural and travel opportunities was the best predictor of cessation of mobility and development level in the host country. Career motives predicted duration of mobility and cultural difference of the destination.</p> <p>AE, SIE and migrants are distinguished on individual and organizational level based on differentiate criteria; a decision tree is proposed in order to distinguish between assigned expatriates(AE), inter- self-initiated expatriates, intra-self-initiated expatriates and drawn expatriates.</p> <p>(1) Move from one geographical point to another via crossing national borders (yes/no) (2) Change of dominant place of residence which is the center of a person's life (yes/no) (3) Execution of work in the form of dependent or independent employment (yes/no) (4) Legality of employment (legal vs illegal) (5) Initiator of key binding activity in job search (organization vs individual) (6) Work contract partner (current vs new)</p>	Empirical proof of the proposed decision tree and add more demarcation criterion (e.g. based on motive)
29. Bjerregaard (2014)	Examine the interaction between institutional contexts and agency in self-initiated global careers.	38 SIE and 11 spouses were interviewed. Observational note were taken and documents were analyzed.	The public institutions ease/drive and support, the global career mobility and agency of SIEs.	Inquire further into how institutions of host countries at different levels are engaged in international professionals' encounters with them, from the programs and policies of central ministries to the frontlines of service delivering and people processing organizations.
30. Cao et al (2014)	Explore SIEs in organizational context, specifically through a moderation and mediation model: the effect of the perceived organizational support (POS) on SIEs' intention to stay in the host country, moderated by career networks of host & home country nationals and mediated by career satisfaction	112 SIE employees in Germany were recruited through numerous intermediaries (e.g. Internations, Xing, ToytownGermany) and filled out an online questionnaire	A direct positive effect between POS and intention to stay was found. However, there was a significant negative indirect effect between POS and intention to stay when the career network of home country nationals was large. POS has a positive effect on SIEs' career satisfaction and intention to stay in the host country.	Explore the impact of family support and supportive immigration/re-emigration policies. Determine what contributes to SIEs' POS and explore other outcome variables (e.g. turnover intention)

31. Cerdin & Pargneux (2014)	Explore how individual career characteristics (protean career attitude, boundaryless career attitude, careerist attitude and career fit) influence the success of international mobility (job satisfaction, career satisfaction, intention to leave).	303 French SIE and OE working in 57 countries were recruited through companies, professional associations and snowball sampling. They were asked to fill in an online questionnaire.	Careerist attitude and career fit explain international mobility success, while the influence of protean and boundaryless career attitude is not very clear. Careerist orientation is the individual career characteristic which better explains the international mobility success.	Collect data on expatriate performance and refine the success criteria of international mobility, by possible focusing on the accomplishment of organizational tasks and/or the achievement of key organizational objective.
32. Cerdin & Selmer (2014)	Contribute to the conceptual clarity of SIE (provide definition and criteria which distinguishes SIE from other type of mobility patterns)	Analysis of several articles, in order to determine how are SIE defined	SIEs are defined as 'expatriates who self-initiate their international relocation, with the intentions of regular employment and temporary stay, and with skills/professional qualifications'. Operationalization of SIE is proposed based on dichotomous questions based on four criteria: self-initiated international relocation, regular employment (intentions), intentions of a temporary stay, skilled/professional qualifications.	Use the proposed criteria to screen the sample of future studies. Explore the HRM practices of the hiring organizations of SIE.
33. Farnadale et al (2014)	Explore GMT strategies of how individual and organizational goals can be balanced for expatriation assignments.	Two case studies realized in multinational corporations, with interviews and observations conducted with 10 GM/HR specialists and 6 expatriates	Results show that self-initiated and organizational assigned expatriate assignments are balanced by financially driven act.	7 research propositions are left for future research
34. Luring & Selmer (2014)	Examine whether inherent demographic characteristics (age/gender) and acquired demographic characteristics (marital status/seniority) differentiated work outcomes (job adjustment, time to proficiency, performance and job satisfaction). Associations between these variables and global mobility orientation were also explored.	640 SIEs academics residing in Greater China were recruited through LinkedIn profiles and university web pages were asked to fill in an online questionnaire. Full/Chair Professors and Associate Professors made up the senior group.	Female SIEs have better job performance than male SIEs. Married SIEs have better time to proficiency and job performance than unmarried SIEs. Senior SIEs have better job performance and satisfaction than junior SIEs. Profile of successful SIEs in Greater China: female, married and occupying a senior position. For male and younger individuals, there was a stronger relationship between global mobility orientation and work outcomes.	
35. Luring et al (2014)	Explore the influence of demographic characteristics (age, marital status, nationality, past relocation experience) on	428 academics SIE from 60 different countries working at 34 different universities located in 5 northern European countries.	Tourism-oriented and work-related motivations were stronger among academic SIE who are younger, non-married, non-EU and with short experience. Non-EU SIEs arriving in	Expand this study to other types of SIE and their respective partners. Conduct qualitative research to better explain the how temporary work

	tourism-oriented motivation (seeking reasons, escape reasons) and work-related motivation (career reasons, financial reasons) Determine what factors influence a professional woman to self-initiate her expatriation, how do their careers look like and how their construct their career experiences.		EU have stronger financial and seeking motivations.	relocations may connect to tourism motivation.
36. Muit et al (2014)		25 SIE western women working and living in Beijing were interviewed	The motivations, career types and patterns of SIE women are complex and varied. 4 career patterns are identified: reinventors, reinvigorators, reversers and rejecters.	Gather data from SIE women in different host countries. Longitudinal studies and analyze data using discourse analysis. Gender explored if it acts as an inhibitor or facilitator.
37. Nolan & Morley (2014)	Examine the relationship between PE (Person-Environment fit: person-job needs-supplies fit, person-job demands abilities, person-supervisor fit) and cross-cultural adjustment.	369 SIE doctors working in the public sector hospitals of Ireland were recruited, after the directors' approval.	The dimension of PE had different effects on cross-cultural adjustment. Person-job needs-supplies fit had no relationship	
38. Peiper et al. (2014)	Analyze the trends and mobility patterns of OEs and SIEs	55,915 highly skilled individuals who crossed borders between 1990 and 2006.		
39. Richardson and McKenna (2014)	Investigates the role of networks during expatriation (their impact in the expatriation engagement, how are their formed and maintained, what are their benefits)	51 organizational SIE working in a professional services firm (Mintech) in Canada. Methodological pluralism (documentary analysis-company expatriation protocol, interviews with 2 HR managers and expatriated workers)	The role of networks are important for organizational SIE, because they play an instrumental role in fulfilling their desire to expatriate and while being in the host country, they intend to develop, expand and consolidate their ties and networks, since they contribute to the integration and performance of the global business.	Explore more structured relations between organizational culture, HRM processes, organizational SIE and the development of ties and networks.
40. Rodriguez & Scurry (2014)	Explore the career capital development of SIE in Qatar.	20 SIE working in a Qatari public shareholding company, were interviewed about their social and work experiences.	The dynamics at micro, macro and meso level influence the development of SIEs' career capital, being associated with the following three domains: SIE as cosmopolitan globetrotters, SIE as experts, SIE as outsiders.	
41. Selmer & Lauring (2014a)	Explore the effect of personality traits' dispositional affectivity on adjustment of SIEs	329 SIEs in Denmark were asked to filled in an online questionnaire	Beneficial associations between positive affectivity and adjustment.	

42. Selmer & Luring (2014b)	Explore the adjustment of self-initiated expatriate academics, comparing adult third-culture kids with adult mono-culture kids.	267 SIEs academics in Hong Kong filled in an online questionnaire	Adult third-culture kids have a greater extent of general adjustment, but not interaction or work adjustment.
43. Supango & Mayhofer (2014)	Determine what factors affect work-role transition outcomes and what how does the type of expatriation influence work role transition outcomes.	106 Filipinos working in local and multinational organizations in Singapore filled in an online questionnaire	Work adjustment is explained by self-efficacy beliefs of the global employees. Job satisfaction is explained by job factors (role discretion and role conflict) and organizational or job context factors (supervisory support and perceived organizational support). Both work role adjustment and job satisfaction are not influenced by whether or not the global employee is company assigned or self-initiated.
44. Vance & McNulty (2014)	Determine similarities and differences across gender	45 American expatriates in five Western and Central European countries were interviewed	The results support Vance's (2005) career development model.
45. von Borel de Araujo et al (2014)	Understand the challenges and strategies used by SIE and OE in adjusting to the Brazilian culture.	Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 OEs and 24 SIEs.	Challenges: foreignism, formalism, personalism and jeitinho. The strategies used to overcome these challenges differ between SIEs and OEs, being the SIEs who are less critical and willing to follow typical Brazilian behavior to for resolving problems related to adjustment. Explore the encountered challenges in other host countries characterizes by informal influence processes (e.g. Chinese guanxi, Russian svyazi, Arabian wasta).

Appendix B – A summary of previous scales used to measure motivations for moving abroad

Authors	Variable	Items
Selmer & Lauring (2012)	Reasons to expatriate (self-developed after Osland, 1995; Richardson & McKenna, 2002; Richardson & Mallon, 2005)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Refuge reasons (alpha =0.71) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I want to escape from my current situation. • I am bored with my home country. • I want something new. 2. Mercenary reasons (alpha= 0.61; iic =44) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I hope to save a large amount of money. • I need a well-paying job for my family. • I am in debt (deleted) 3. Explorer reasons (alpha=0.88) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I want to see more of the world. • I desire an adventure/challenge. • I want new experiences. 4. Architect reasons (alpha= 0.82) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I desire to enhance my career prospects. • I want to do the right thing for promotion. • I thought it might do my career some good. <p style="text-align: right;">1=Strongly disagree to 7=Strongly agree</p>
Selmer & Lauring (2011) Selmer & Lauring (2010)	Reasons to expatriate (self-developed after Richardson & Mallon, 2005)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Travel/Adventure (alpha =0.88) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I want to see more of the world. • I desire an adventure/challenge. • I want new experiences. 2. Career (alpha=0.82) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I desire to enhance my career prospects. • I want to do the right thing for promotion. • I thought it might do my career some good. 3. Family (alpha= 0.62; iic=0.46) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The entire family was involved in the decision to expatriate. • We wanted to do what was best for the entire family. 4. Financial Incentives (alpha =0.61; iic= 0.44) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I hope to save a large amount of money. • I need a well-paying job for my family. 5. Life Change/Escape (alpha= 0.71) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I want to escape from my current situation. • I am bored with my home country. • I want something new. <p style="text-align: right;">1=Strongly disagree to 7=Strongly agree</p>
Lauring, Selmer, & Jacobsen (2014)	Tourism and work motivation to expatriate	<p>Tourism motivation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Seeking reasons (alpha= 0.88) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I desire an adventure/challenge. • I want new experiences. • I want to see more of the world. 2. Escape reasons (alpha= 0.71) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I want to escape from my current situation. • I am bored with my home country. • I want something new. <p>Work motivation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Career reasons (alpha=0.82) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I thought it might do my career some good. • I desire to enhance my career prospects. • I want to do the "right" thing for promotion. 2. Financial reasons (alpha=0.61; iic=0.44) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I hope to save a large amount of money. • I need a well-paying job for my family. <p style="text-align: right;">1=Strongly disagree to 7=Strongly agree</p>

<p>Dickman, Doherty, Mills, & Brewster (2008)</p>	<p>Decision factors to accept an international assignment (AEs)</p>	<p>How much influence do the following factors have on your decision to accept an international assignment?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Having relevant job-related skills 2. Potential for job skills development 3. Potential for leadership skills development 4. Career progression 5. Perception of career risk 6. Maintaining work networks with the home country 7. Work/life balance 8. Intercultural adaptability to the host culture 9. Professional challenge of working abroad 10. Willingness of spouse to move 11. Children's education needs 12. Interruption in spouse career 13. Loss of partner's income 14. Maintaining personal networks 15. Personal health status 16. Desire to live abroad 17. Successful previous assignment(s) 18. Personal financial impact 19. Position offered on assignment 20. Length of an assignment 21. Potential role(s) available on completion of assignment 22. Language compatibility 23. Security 24. Distance away from home location 25. Host country culture 26. Host country standard of living 27. Pre-departure preparation 28. Repatriation package <p>1= no influence 2=little influence 3=mild influence 4=moderate influence 5=considerable influence 6=great influence 7=very great influence</p> <p>The item pool for polling individual and organizational representatives' perceptions of the factors influencing the decision were constructed by subject matter experts based on the academic literature, the qualitative interview data and experienced practitioners in the field. An item pool was generated and selection of items was based on triangulation between the experts. This method ensured that a comprehensive range of the factors that might impact decision-making were included. Twenty-eight items were selected which provided comprehensive coverage of the range of factors highlighted by the literature, for example job and career issues, family issues, personal motivations, expatriation package, and repatriation. Scale anchors were generated by reference to a survey item bank (British Telecom 1981) that provided a number of tested scale formats. Following piloting of options, a seven-point scale was chosen, which included: no influence, little influence, mild influence, moderate influence, considerable influence, great influence, and very great influence.</p>
<p>Doherty, Dickman, & Mils (2011)</p>	<p>Motives of company-backed and self-initiated expatriates</p>	<p>How much influence did the following factors have on your decision to work abroad?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Host culture 2. Desire to live in the host country 3. Standard of living in the host country 4. Desire to live in host city/location 5. Your ability to adapt to the host country 6. Balance between work and social life 7. Possibility of gaining permanent residency in host country 8. Having the relevant job skills 9. The job you were offered 10. Potential for skills development 11. Impact on career 12. Maintaining work networks with the home country 13. Expected length of stay 14. Personal financial impact 15. Desire for adventure 16. To see the world 17. Confidence in your ability to work/live abroad 18. Professional challenge of working abroad 19. The opportunity to improve your language skills 20. Superior career opportunities in the host country 21. Reputation of host country in your area of work 22. Reputation of host country being open to foreigners 23. Prestige of working in the host country 24. Better opportunities for your family 25. Ability to support your family better abroad 26. Close ties to your country of origin with host country

		<p>27. Pre-departure preparation 28. Opportunities to network in the host country 29. Maintaining personal networks 30. To be with/near loved person(s) 31. Successful previous experience in a foreign environment 32. Willingness of family/partner to move 33. Poor employment situation at home 34. To distance yourself from a problem</p> <p>1= no influence 2=little influence 3=mild influence 4=moderate influence 5=considerable influence 6=great influence 7=very great influence</p> <p>Principle Components Analysis <i>Location</i>: comprises items related to perceptions of the host country location and the individual's perceived ability to adapt (items 1 to 7, alpha= 0.84) <i>Career</i>: loads on job and career issues (items 8 to 14, alpha=0.77) <i>Foreign experience</i>: concerns the desire for adventure, challenge and the opportunities that travel and work abroad offer (items 15 to 19, alpha=0.75) <i>Host</i>: relates to the reputation of the host country (items 20 to 23, alpha=0.71) <i>Family benefits</i>: focuses on the benefits to the family of working abroad (items 24 and 25, alpha=0.77) <i>Home-Host relations</i>: loaded on the home-host ties and the opportunities for networking and includes preparation before departure (items 26 to 28, alpha=0.66) <i>Personal relationships</i>: comprises items relating to familial, social and partner ties (items 29 to 32, alpha=0.54) <i>Push factors</i>: comprises issues which act as incentives to leave the home country (items 33 and 34, alpha=0.28)</p>
Projecto BRADAMO		<p>Qual a importância que cada um dos seguintes fatores tiveram na sua decisão de deixar Portugal:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Razões económicas (melhores salários; desemprego) • Razões profissionais (carreira, realização) • Razões afetivas (familiares, amorosas) • Formação académica (Prosseguimento de estudos) • Outra razão <p>1=Nada importante 2= Pouco importante 3= Importante 4=Muito importante</p>
Projecto REMIGR		<p>Por que motivos saiu de Portugal? (caso tenha saído mais do que uma vez, considere a última saída) (assinale até três opções)</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Motivos familiares (reunir ou acompanhar a família) <input type="checkbox"/> Estava desempregado/a <input type="checkbox"/> Estava empregado/a, mas o meu salário era muito baixo <input type="checkbox"/> Não tinha oportunidades de carreira profissional <input type="checkbox"/> Oportunidade de desenvolvimento de negócio <input type="checkbox"/> Queria estudar ou melhorar a minha formação profissional <input type="checkbox"/> Não via futuro no país <input type="checkbox"/> Realizar novas experiências <input type="checkbox"/> Outro. Qual?</p>

Appendix C – Semi-structured interview guide (Study 1: Chapter 2-4)

I. Introdução, apresentação dos objectivos do estudo e regras de participação

Muito obrigada por ter aceitado participar neste estudo que se realiza no âmbito do meu projeto de doutoramento em Psicologia, a decorrer no ISCTE. O meu nome é _____ e durante esta entrevista vou fazer-lhe algumas perguntas sobre a sua saída de Portugal e a experiência no país de acolhimento, o Reino Unido. Não existem respostas certas ou erradas e estamos interessados em saber a sua opinião. Todas as suas respostas serão mantidas anónimas e confidenciais. Tem a liberdade de optar por não responder a perguntas em que não se sinta à vontade. A entrevista tem uma duração aproximada de 1h, mas se não se sentir confortável, podemos terminar quando desejar. Conforme autorizou, a entrevista vai ser gravada apenas para podermos rever as suas respostas, mas estas nunca serão associadas ao seu nome. No fim do estudo vamos destruir esta gravação. Tem alguma pergunta?

I. Questão introdutória/quebra-gelo

Antes de começarmos, conte-me um pouco quem era o(a) _____, antes de deixar Portugal? Como se via? Como é que os outros o(a) viam?

II. Questões centrais

1. Quais foram as principais razões que o incentivaram a sair de Portugal? (Capítulo 2-4)
2. Como se sentiu ao tomar esta decisão? (Capítulo 2-4)
3. Como descreve os três meses antes de sair de Portugal? (Chapter 2)
 - Conhecia alguém no Reino Unido?
 - Pesquisou informações sobre a vida no Reino Unido? Onde? Alguém o ajudou?
4. Focando-nos na sua vida após chegar ao Reino Unido, gostaria de lhe pedir para me descrever um bom dia da sua vida no Reino Unido. (Chapter 2-4)
5. Agora gostava que pensasse e descrevesse um dia menos bom. (Chapter 2-4)
6. Quais as estratégias utilizadas para ultrapassar esse dia/obstáculos? (Chapter 2)
7. Quais são as principais diferenças entre Portugal e o Reino Unido? E semelhanças? Chapter 4)
8. Até que ponto se identifica com o país de acolhimento/os locais? (Chapter 4)
9. O que significa para si estar adaptado? (Chapter 2-3)
10. Como descreve a sua adaptação ao país de acolhimento? (Chapter 2-3)

III. Questões finais

11. Imagine que um amigo seu decide sair de Portugal. Quais os principais conselhos que lhe daria?
12. Como se imagina daqui a 5 anos? A viver a onde e a fazer o que?

IV. Conclusão

Faço votos para que consiga alcançar todos esses planos, que o(a) fazem feliz. Estas foram as perguntas que tinha preparado e por isso gostaria de agradecer mais uma vez a sua disponibilidade. As suas respostas serão uma grande contribuição para o desenvolvimento da minha tese. Se conhecer mais alguém que queira partilhar a sua experiência migratória numa entrevista como esta, por favor informe-me. Antes de dar como terminada esta entrevista, gostaria de saber se quer acrescentar algo que tenha ficado por dizer?

Obrigada mais uma vez e resto de um excelente dia!

Appendix D – Demographic questionnaire (Study 1: Chapters 2-4)



Exmo(a) Sr(a),

Muito obrigada por ter aceite o convite de participar neste estudo, cujo objectivo é conhecer melhor os Portugueses que se encontram a viver fora de Portugal.

A sua colaboração enquanto entrevistado(a) contribuirá para um aprofundamento de vários assuntos relacionados com este tema. Ao longo da entrevista vão-lhe ser colocadas algumas questões e todas as respostas serão mantidas anónimas e confidenciais. De modo a ir de encontro a alguns requisitos de análise de dados, gostaríamos de saber se nos permite gravar esta entrevista. Por favor escolha uma das seguintes opções:

- Aceito participar neste estudo e concordo que a entrevista seja gravada.
- Aceito participar neste estudo, mas não concordo que a entrevista seja gravada, porque

Data

Assinatura

Para poder caracterizar a amostra do estudo, gostaríamos que nos fornecesse alguns dados sócio-demográficos.

1. Sexo: Feminino Masculino

2. Idade: _____

3. Estado civil:

- solteiro
- casado
- união de facto
- divorciado
- outro. Por favor, especifique _____

4. Escolha a opção que inclui o seu rendimento anual (em euros):

- Inferior a 10 000
- 10 001 – 30 000
- 30 001 – 50 000
- Superior a 50 001

5. Qual é o nível mais alto de escolaridade que alcançou?

- Ensino básico (1º ao 4º ano)
- Ensino básico (5º ao 8º ano)
- Ensino secundário (9º ao 12º ano)
- Licenciatura
- Mestrado
- Doutoramento
- Outro (por favor especifique) _____

6.1. Profissão actual: _____

6.2. Profissão em Portugal: _____

7. Quando saiu de Portugal? (dia.mês.ano) _____

8. Qual foi o país de acolhimento escolhido? _____

9. Consegue falar fluentemente a língua do país de acolhimento?

Sim

Não

10. Foi sozinho(a) para o país de acolhimento?

Sim

Não

10.1. Se respondeu não, por favor mencione quem o acompanhou nesta saída de Portugal:

11. Quem vive consigo no país de acolhimento? _____

11.1. Quem vivia consigo em Portugal? _____

12. Durante quanto tempo tenciona ficar no país de acolhimento? _____

13. Esta é a sua primeira saída de Portugal?

Sim

Não

13.1. Se respondeu não, por favor indique quais foram as suas experiências internacionais prévias?

Appendix E – Questionnaire (Study 2: Chapters 2-4)

Note: This questionnaire was delivered online and several skip display features were used based on participants' migratory characteristics and answers given to some questions. Therefore, not all participants answered every single question presented on the following pages. The questions used in each chapter are identified in blue. The ones without anything mentioned were used in all chapters for the purpose of sample characterization or verification of inclusion/exclusion criteria.



Seja bem-vindo(a) à página de um estudo organizado pelo Centro de Investigação e Intervenção Social (CIS-IUL) do Instituto Universitário de Lisboa (ISCTE-IUL). Este estudo tem como objectivo compreender características da experiência migratória dos Portugueses no Reino Unido.

Nesse sentido, contamos com a participação de cidadãos de nacionalidade Portuguesa com 18 e mais anos, que tenham saído de Portugal depois de 2012, e que actualmente vivam e tenham uma actividade profissional no Reino Unido.

A participação neste estudo consiste no preenchimento de um questionário online, com uma duração aproximada de 25 minutos. Várias questões sobre a experiência migratória serão colocadas (exemplo: Por que motivos saiu de Portugal?). Não existem respostas certas ou erradas para estas questões, sendo que pretendemos recolher uma resposta sincera que descreva a experiência migratória de cada participante. As respostas de todos os participantes serão mantidas anónimas e confidenciais, destinando-se apenas para fins de investigação.

Seria um gosto contar com a sua participação. Apesar de voluntária, a sua participação é fundamental para o desenvolvimento deste estudo. Para preencher o questionário, agradecemos que carregue nas setas abaixo do lado direito da página.

Se tiver alguma dúvida sobre este estudo, não hesite em contactar as investigadoras responsáveis por este estudo:

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Muito obrigada pela sua atenção!

Q1 Em que ano foi viver para Reino Unido?

Q2 Quando saiu de Portugal, definiu quanto tempo tencionava ficar no Reino Unido? (SIE vs. AE vs. IW; Chapter 2-4)

- Sim
- Não

Q3 A ideia de sair de Portugal surgiu através da sua vontade? (SIE vs. AE vs. IW; Chapter 2-4)

- Sim
- Não

Q4 Por que motivos saiu de Portugal? Caso tenha saído mais do que uma vez, considere a última saída para o Reino Unido e para cada motivo apresentado, indique o seu nível de concordância, utilizando uma das 5 opções de resposta. (Motivations for moving abroad; Chapter 2-4)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Estava desempregado(a).					
2. Estava empregado(a) mas não estava satisfeito(a) com as condições de trabalho, porque trabalhava muitas horas.					
3. Queria conhecer outros países e culturas.					
4. Queria reunir/acompanhar a minha família.					
5. Queria fazer o que estava certo para progredir na minha carreira.					
6. Queria ganhar mais dinheiro.					
7. Não via futuro no país, que me proporcionasse melhores condições pessoais e profissionais.					
8. Estava empregado(a) mas não estava satisfeito(a) com as condições de trabalho, porque tinha contratos de trabalho precários.					
9. Estava empregado(a) mas não estava satisfeito(a) com as condições de trabalho, porque as tarefas que desempenhava não eram desafiadoras.					
10. Queria ter uma experiência profissional fora de Portugal.					
11. Outro motivo (por favor mencione)					

1=Discordo totalmente 2=Discordo 3=Não discordo, nem concordo 4= Concordo 5= Concordo totalmente

Q5 Após saber que iria para o Reino Unido, por favor indique qual a dificuldade que IMAGINAVA sentir em relação a cada uma das seguintes situações. (Realistic expectations; Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Fazer amigos.					
2. Habituarse à comida local.					
3. Seguir regras e normas Inglesas.					
4. Lidar com pessoas com autoridade.					
5. Usar o sistema de transportes públicos.					
6. Tratar de assuntos burocráticos.					
7. Fazer-se compreender					
8. Ir às compras.					
9. Compreender as piadas e o humor Inglês.					
10. Obter acomodação.					
11. Ir a festas e outros eventos sociais.					
12. Comunicar com pessoas de diferentes grupos étnicos.					
13. Compreender as diferenças étnicas ou culturais					
14. Participar em cerimónias religiosas, do mesmo modo que em Portugal.					
15. Relacionar-se com membros do sexo oposto.					
16. Encontrar o seu caminho na comunidade local.					
17. Falar sobre si e os seus sentimentos.					
18. Lidar com o clima.					
19. Viver longe da sua família.					
20. Habituarse ao ritmo de vida.					
21. Gerir as suas responsabilidades profissionais.					
22. Trabalhar eficazmente com outros colegas.					
23. Receber feedback dos outros colegas para melhorar o seu desempenho.					
24. Expressar as suas ideias com os colegas, duma maneira culturalmente apropriada.					

1=nenhuma dificuldade 2=Ligeira dificuldade 3=Moderada dificuldade 4= Grande dificuldade 5= Extrema dificuldade

Q6 Com quem foi para o Reino Unido? (Moving accompanied; Chapter 3)

- Sozinho(a)
- Com o cônjuge, companheiro(a) ou namorado(a)
- Com outros familiares
- Com colegas ou amigos

Q7 Antes de sair de Portugal, tinha algum contacto no Reino Unido? (Contact with prospective home/host country nationals; Chapter 3)

- Sim
- Não

Q8 Por favor indique que tipos de contactos tinha no Reino Unido, antes de sair de Portugal e aos quais recorreu. (Contact with prospective home/host country nationals; Chapter 3)

	Quais dos seguintes tipos de contactos tinha no Reino Unido, antes de sair de Portugal?		Recorreu à algum destes contactos antes de sair de Portugal?	
	Sim	Não	Sim	Não
Familiares				
Empresariais				
Colegas de profissão Portugueses				
Colegas de profissão Ingleses				
Amigos				
Agência de emprego				
Outro tipo de contacto (qual ____)				

Q9 Por favor indique qual foi a razão principal por recorrer a este tipo de contacto. Organize a sua resposta de modo a mencionar primeiro o tipo de contacto seguido da razão pela qual recorreu ao mesmo.

Q10 Por favor indique se recebeu os seguintes tipos de apoio e qual foi a fonte principal de cada um. Escolha apenas uma fonte para cada um dos quatro tipos de apoio. (Contact with prospective home/host country nationals; Chapter 3 and SIE vs. AE vs. IW; Chapter 2-4)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Informação sobre o país							
2. Financiamento da viagem							
3. Encontrar/obter alojamento							
4. Encontrar/obter trabalho							

1=Familiares em Portugal 2=Familiares no Reino Unido 3=Amigos em Portugal 4=Amigos no Reino Unido 5=Empregador 6=Outros 7=Não obteve apoio

Q11 Até que ponto é que a sua família apoiou a sua ida para o Reino Unido? (Family Support; Chapter 3)

- Nada
- Pouco
- Moderadamente
- Muito
- Totalmente

Q12 É a primeira pessoa da sua família a viver fora de Portugal?

- Sim
- Não

Q13 Viveu noutro país estrangeiro antes de se instalar no Reino Unido? (Previous international experience; Chapter 3)

- Sim
- Não

Q14 Por favor indique em quantos países estrangeiros já viveu antes de se instalar no Reino Unido?

- 1
- 2
- 3
- mais de 3 (por favor especifique quantos)

Q14_1 Qual foi o país estrangeiro onde viveu?

Q14_2 Durante quanto tempo viveu neste país estrangeiro?

Q14_3 Qual foi o primeiro país estrangeiro onde viveu?

Q14_4 Durante quanto tempo viveu no primeiro país estrangeiro?

Q14_5 Qual foi o segundo país estrangeiro onde viveu?

Q14_6 Durante quanto tempo viveu no segundo país estrangeiro?

Q14_7 Qual foi o terceiro país estrangeiro onde viveu?

Q14_8 Durante quanto tempo viveu no terceiro país estrangeiro?

Q14_9 Por favor indique os países estrangeiros onde viveu e o tempo que passou em cada um deles (exemplo: Itália 5 anos; Roménia 6 meses; Irlanda 4 anos; EUA 5 anos)

Q15 Pense sobre a sua vida no Reino Unido. Nas últimas 2 semanas, com que frequência se sentiu: (Psychological adaptation; Chapter 2-4)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. entusiasmado(a) por estar no Reino Unido.							
2. fora do lugar, como se não se encaixasse na cultura Inglesa.							
3. triste por não estar em Portugal.							
4. ansioso(a) sobre como se comportar em certas situações.							
5. sozinho(a) sem a sua família e amigos Portugueses por perto.							
6. com saudades de casa quando pensa em Portugal.							
7. frustrado(a) devido às dificuldades de se adaptar ao Reino Unido.							
8. feliz com a sua vida diária no Reino Unido.							

1= Nunca 2=Muito raramente 3=Raramente 4= Às vezes 5=frequentemente 6=Normalmente 7=Sempre

Q16 Desde que chegou ao Reino Unido, por favor indique qual a dificuldade sentida em relação a cada uma das seguintes situações. (Realistic expectations – Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Fazer amigos.					
2. Habituar-se à comida local.					
3. Seguir regras e normas Inglesas.					
4. Lidar com pessoas com autoridade.					
5. Usar o sistema de transportes públicos.					
6. Tratar de assuntos burocráticos.					
7. Fazer-se compreender.					
8. Ir às compras.					
9. Compreender as piadas e o humor Inglês.					
10. Obter acomodação.					
11. Ir a festas e outros eventos sociais.					
12. Comunicar com pessoas de diferentes grupos étnicos.					
13. Compreender as diferenças étnicas ou culturais.					
14. Participar em cerimónias religiosas, do mesmo modo que em Portugal.					
15. Relacionar-se com membros do sexo oposto.					
16. Encontrar o seu caminho na comunidade local.					

17. Falar sobre si e os seus sentimentos.
18. Lidar com o clima.
19. Viver longe da sua família.
20. Habituar-se ao ritmo de vida.
21. Gerir as suas responsabilidades profissionais.
22. Trabalhar eficazmente com outros colegas.
23. Receber feedback dos outros colegas para melhorar o seu desempenho.
24. Expressar as suas ideias com os colegas, duma maneira culturalmente apropriada.

1=Nenhuma dificuldade 2=Ligeira dificuldade 3=Moderada dificuldade 4= Grande dificuldade 5= Extrema dificuldade

Q17 Utilizando uma das 5 opções de resposta, por favor indique até que ponto é que a cultura Inglesa é diferente da cultura Portuguesa, em cada uma das seguintes áreas: (Cultural differences/similarities; Chapter 4)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Clima (tal como a temperatura e chuva).					
2. Ambiente físico (tal como a vizinhança, a densidade da população).					
3. Meios de transporte.					
4. Comida (o tipo de comida consumida)					
5. Roupa (a forma de vestir).					
6. Tipo de actividades de lazer praticadas.					
7. Ritmo de vida (pontualidade).					
8. Conforto material (padrão da vida económica).					
9. Idioma (a língua oficial falada em Portugal e no Reino Unido).					
10. A forma de comunicar (tal como directa e indirectamente).					
11. O nível de educação da maioria das pessoas.					
12. Religião (a religião predominante em Portugal e no Reino Unido).					
13. Estrutura familiar (o tamanho da família, número de gerações a viverem juntas).					
14. Idade comum para casar.					
15. Valores familiares.					
16. A forma de trabalhar (organização, regras a seguir, horários).					
17. A forma de interagir e exprimir emoções perante outras pessoas.					
18. Respeito que se tem por algo diferente.					
19. Horários públicos (das refeições, dos estabelecimentos).					

1=Nada diferente 2=Um pouco diferente 3=Moderadamente diferente 4= Muito diferente 5= Extremamente diferente

Q18 Quando pessoas de diferentes nacionalidades estão juntas, podemos por vezes sentir que somos tratados de modo injusto. As seguintes questões relacionam-se com este tipo de experiências, que possam ter ocorrido no Reino Unido. Para cada uma delas, indique por favor o seu nível de concordância utilizando um dos pontos da escala. (Perceived discrimination; Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Penso que outras pessoas comportam-se de uma forma injusta ou negativa em relação aos Portugueses.					
2. Não me sinto aceite pelos Ingleses.					
3. Sinto que os Ingleses têm algo contra mim.					
4. Fui gozado(a) ou insultado(a) por ser Português.					
5. Fui ameaçado(a) ou atacado(a) por ser Português.					

1=Discordo totalmente 2=Discordo 3=Neutro 4= Concordo 5= Concordo totalmente

Q19 As pessoas podem pensar acerca delas próprias de várias formas. Por exemplo, podem sentir que são membros de vários grupos nacionais, como Português e que são parte de uma sociedade mais vasta, a Inglesa. As seguintes questões debruçam-se sobre a forma como pensa sobre si neste sentido. (Cultural identity; Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Penso em mim como Português/Portuguesa.					
2. Penso em mim com Inglês/Inglesa.					
3. Sinto que faço parte da cultura Portuguesa.					
4. Sinto-me orgulhos(a) em ser Português.					
5. Sou feliz em ser Português/Portuguesa.					
6. Sinto que faço parte da cultura Inglesa.					
7. Sinto-me orgulhos(a) em ser Inglês/Inglesa.					
8. Sou feliz em ser Inglês/Inglesa.					

1=Nada 2=Um pouco 3=Alguma coisa 4= Bastante 5= Muito

Q20 Indique o seu grau de concordância para cada uma das seguintes afirmações, utilizando uma das cinco opções de resposta que melhor descreve a sua situação. (Acculturation orientation; Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Sinto que os Portugueses deveriam manter as suas tradições culturais e não se adaptarem às Inglesas.					
2. Não é importante para mim falar bem nem a língua Inglesa, nem a Portuguesa.					
3. Não quero participar em actividades sociais Inglesas nem Portuguesas.					
4. Prefiro actividades sociais que apenas envolvam Portugueses.					
5. É importante para mim falar bem tanto a língua Inglesa, como a língua Portuguesa.					
6. Prefiro actividades sociais que envolvam apenas Ingleses.					
7. Sinto que não é importante para os Portugueses manterem as suas tradições culturais, nem adaptarem-se às Inglesas.					
8. É mais importante para mim falar bem a língua Portuguesa do que a Inglesa.					
9. Sinto que os Portugueses deveriam manter as suas próprias tradições culturais, mas também adoptarem as dos Ingleses.					
10. Sinto que os Portugueses deveriam adoptar as tradições Inglesas e não manter as suas próprias tradições culturais.					
11. Prefiro ter apenas amigos Ingleses.					
12. É mais importante para mim falar bem a língua Inglesa do que a Portuguesa.					
13. Não quero ter amigos Portugueses nem Ingleses.					
14. Prefiro ter apenas amigos Portugueses.					
15. Prefiro actividades sociais que envolvam tanto os Ingleses como os Portugueses.					
16. Prefiro ter amigos Ingleses e Portugueses.					

1=Discordo totalmente 2=Discordo 3=Não discordo, nem concordo 4= Concordo 5= Concordo totalmente

Q21 Para cada uma das seguintes afirmações, por favor indique até que ponto é que se aplica à si, utilizando uma das 5 respostas possíveis. (Multicultural personality; Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Tomo iniciativas.					
2. Estabeleço contactos com facilidade.					
3. Tenho dificuldade em estabelecer contactos.					
4. Interesse-me por outras culturas.					
5. Tento compreender o comportamento dos outros.					
6. Deixo a iniciativa a outros para estabelecer contactos.					
7. Sou lento(a) a iniciar qualquer coisa.					
8. Sou curioso(a).					

9. Convivo facilmente com grupos de pessoas.
10. Gosto de falar em público.
11. Tenho dificuldade em estabelecer relações.
12. Deixo as coisas como elas estão.
13. Sou atento às expressões faciais.
14. Experimento diferentes perspectivas.
15. Envolve-me noutras culturas.
16. Sou capaz de expressar o sentimento dos outros.
17. Tenho noção do que é apropriado numa cultura específica.
18. Sou um bom ouvinte.
19. Reparo quando alguém está com problemas.
20. Procuro contacto com pessoas de ambientes diferentes.
21. Tenho múltiplos interesses.
22. Gosto de pensar em soluções para os problemas.
23. Presto atenção às emoções dos outros.
24. Gosto de conhecer os outros profundamente.

1=Nada aplicável 2=Pouco aplicável 3=Aplicável 4= Muito aplicável 5= Totalmente aplicável

Q22 Para cada uma das seguintes afirmações, por favor indique até que ponto é que se aplica à si, utilizando uma das 4 respostas possíveis. (Personal agency; Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4
1. Eu consigo resolver sempre os problemas difíceis se eu tentar bastante.				
2. Se alguém se opuser, eu posso encontrar as formas de alcançar o que eu quero.				
3. É fácil para mim, agarrar-me às minhas intenções e atingir os meus objectivos. .				
4. Eu estou confiante que poderia lidar, eficientemente, com acontecimentos inesperados.				
5. Graças ao meu desembaraço, eu sei como lidar com situações imprevistas.				
6. Eu posso resolver a maioria de problemas se eu investir o esforço necessário.				
7. Eu posso manter-me calmo ao enfrentar dificuldades porque eu posso confiar nas minhas capacidades para enfrentar as situações.				
8. Quando eu sou confrontado com um problema, geralmente eu consigo encontrar diversas soluções.				
9. Se eu estiver com problemas, geralmente consigo pensar em algo para fazer.				
10. Quando tenho um problema pela frente, geralmente ocorrem-me várias formas para resolvê-lo.				

1= Não é verdade 2=Difícilmente é verdade 3=Moderadamente verdade 4=Exactamente verdade

Q23 Por favor indique qual a sua profissão nestes três momentos: (SIE vs. AE vs. IW; Chapters 2-4)

Última profissão em Portugal _____

Primeira profissão no Reino Unido _____

Profissão actual no Reino Unido _____

Q24 Durante quanto tempo, após chegar ao Reino Unido, esteve à procura de trabalho? (SIE vs. AE vs. IW; Chapters 2-4)

- Nenhum tempo, porque já vinha com uma proposta de trabalho
- Menos de 1 mês
- 1 a 6 meses
- 7 a 12 meses
- Mais de 1 ano

Q25 Por favor indique como é que obteve o seu primeiro emprego no Reino Unido, bem como o seu actual emprego. Escolha apenas uma opção para descrever a forma como obteve o seu primeiro emprego e uma outra opção para descrever como obteve o seu actual emprego.

	Primeiro emprego	Emprego actual
Através de resposta à vários anúncios.		
Através do contacto com uma agência de recrutamento em Portugal.		
Através do contacto com uma agência de recrutamento no Reino Unido.		
Através de amigos ou familiares Portugueses a viver no Reino Unido.		
Por destacamento da empresa onde trabalhava em Portugal.		
Outra situação (por favor mencione qual)		

Q26 Das seguintes opções, seleccione aquela que melhor descreve as actividades da organização para a qual trabalha actualmente.

▼ Actividades administrativas e dos serviços de apoio (1) ... Outras actividades de serviços (19)

Q27 Quantas pessoas trabalham na organização e no departamento onde exerce as suas funções actuais?

	1-10	11-50	51-250	mais de 251
Organização				
Departamento				

Q28 Considera que a sua profissão no Reino Unido está inserida na sua área de formação? (SIE vs. AE vs. IW; Chapters 2-4)

- Sim
- Não

Q29 Por favor indique de que modo ocupa o seu tempo livre, depois do trabalho. (Recreational activities; Chapter 3)

Q30 Para cada uma das seguintes afirmações, por favor indique o seu nível de concordância, utilizando uma das 5 respostas possíveis. (Recreational activities; Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Dedico bastante tempo e esforço para me tornar mais competente nas minhas actividades de lazer .					
2. Participaria numa aula ou seminário para ser mais capaz de fazer melhor as actividades de lazer.					
3. Apoio a ideia de aumentar o meu tempo livre para me poder envolver em mais actividades de lazer.					
4. Envolve-me em actividades de lazer mesmo quando ando ocupado.					
5. . Gostaria de ter mais tempo de preparação para actividades de lazer.					
6. Dentre as actividades que tenho dou grande prioridade às de lazer.					

1=Discordo totalmente 2=Discordo 3=Não discordo, nem concordo 4= Concordo 5= Concordo totalmente

Q31 Quantos amigos tem no Reino Unido? Por favor, indique um número aproximado: (Social network; Chapter 3)

Q32 Para as próximas questões, pense na sua vida no Reino Unido e escolha uma das cinco opções de resposta. (Social network & Interaction with home/host country nationals; Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4	5
Quantos amigos Portugueses tem?					
Quantos amigos Ingleses tem?					
Quantos amigos de outras nacionalidades tem?					
Quantos colegas de trabalho Portugueses tem?					
Quantos colegas de trabalho Ingleses tem?					
Quantos colegas de trabalho de outras nacionalidades tem?					

1=Nenhum 2=Apenas um 3=Poucos 4=Alguns 5=Muitos

Q33 Com que frequência se encontra com os seus: (Social network & Interaction with home/host country nationals; Chapter 3)

	1	2	3	4	5
amigos Portugueses?					
amigos Ingleses					
amigos de outras nacionalidades?					

1= Nunca 2=Raramente 3=Às vezes 4=Regularmente 5=Diariamente

Q34 Os seus colegas de trabalho Ingleses têm uma idade superior a sua? (Working with older colleagues; Chapter 3)

- Sim
- Não

Q35 Em que país nasceu?

- Portugal
- Outro (por favor especifique) _____

Q36 Qual a sua nacionalidade?

- Portuguesa
- Outra (por favor especifique) _____

Q37 Qual é o seu sexo?

- Masculino
- Feminino

Q38 Qual é a sua idade?

Q39 Qual é o nível de escolaridade mais elevado que concluiu?

- 1º Ciclo do Ensino Básico (4º ano)
- 2º Ciclo do Ensino Básico (6º ano)
- 3º Ciclo do Ensino Básico (9º ano)
- Ensino Secundário (12º ano)
- Ensino Superior (Licenciatura)
- Ensino Superior (Pós-graduação)
- Ensino Superior (Mestrado)
- Ensino Superior (Doutoramento)
- Outro (por favor especifique) _____

Q40 Qual é a área de formação?

Q41 Qual é o seu estado civil?

- Solteiro(a)
- Casado(a) ou em união de facto
- Divorciado(a) ou separado(a)
- Viuvo(a)

Q42 O(A) seu(sua) cônjuge, companheiro(a) ou namorado(a) vive consigo no Reino Unido?

- Sim
- Não

Q43 Tenciona que ele(ela) venha viver consigo?

- Sim
- Não

Q44 Qual a nacionalidade do(a) seu(sua) cônjuge, companheiro(a) ou namorado(a)?

- Portuguesa
- Outra (por favor especifique) _____

Q45 Tem filhos?

- Sim
- Não

Q45_1 Quantos filhos tem?

- 1
- 2
- 3
- mais de 3 filhos (por favor especifique) _____

Q45_2 Qual é a idade do seu(sua) filho(a)?

Q47 O(s)/ A(s) filho(s)/filha(s) que mencionou previamente vive(m) consigo no Reino Unido?

- Sim
- Não

Q48 Tenciona que venha(m) viver consigo?

- Sim
- Não

Q49 Qual é o seu rendimento anual bruto (em euros)?

- Inferior a 10 000
- Entre 10 001 e 30 000
- Entre 30 001 e 50 000
- Mais de 50 001

Q50 Em que localidade vive actualmente no Reino Unido?

Q51 Há quanto tempo está a viver no Reino Unido? Após indicar o número por favor mencione do que se trata: anos ou meses.

Q52 Qual é a afirmação mais verdadeira acerca da vizinhança onde vive no Reino Unido? ([Neighborhood composition; Chapter 3-4](#))

- Quase todas as pessoas têm nacionalidade Inglesa ou outra nacionalidade diferente da minha
- A maioria das pessoas tem nacionalidade Inglesa ou outra nacionalidade diferente da minha.
- Existe um número igual de pessoas com nacionalidade Portuguesa, Inglesa ou outra nacionalidade.
- A maioria das pessoas tem nacionalidade Portuguesa.
- Quase todas as pessoas têm nacionalidade Portuguesa.

Q53 Com quem vive no Reino Unido?

- Sozinho(a)
- Com cônjuge, namorado(a), companheiro(a)
- Com amigos/colegas
- Outras pessoas (por favor mencione) _____

Q54 Com quem vivia em Portugal?

- Sozinho(a)
- Com cônjuge, namorado(a), companheiro(a)
- Com amigos/colegas
- Com pais
- Outras pessoas (por favor mencione) _____

Q55 Em que medida:

	Nada	Pouco	Algo	Bem	Muito bem
compreende Inglês?					
lê Inglês?					
escreve Inglês?					
fala Inglês?					

Q56 Em média, com que frequência vai a Portugal? (Unbalanced time spent in PT and UK; Chapter 2-4)

- Pelo menos uma vez por mês
- Pelo menos uma vez a cada três meses
- Pelo menos uma vez a cada seis meses
- Pelo menos uma vez por ano
- Outra frequência (por favor especifique) _____

Q57 Quais são os seus planos para o futuro?

- Ficar a viver e a trabalhar no Reino Unido
- Ficar no Reino Unido durante um certo tempo e depois regressar a Portugal
- Viver noutra país
- Outro plano (por favor mencione) _____

Q58 Quanto tempo tenciona ficar mais no Reino Unido?

- 1 ano
- 2 anos
- 3 anos
- 4 anos
- 5 anos
- mais de 5 anos (por favor mencione quanto tempo) _____
- Outra resposta, não contemplada pelas anteriores (por favor mencione) _____

Muito obrigada pela sua colaboração neste estudo.

Apreciamos o tempo dedicado ao preenchimento deste questionário!

Ajude-nos a divulgar este questionário. Caso conheça Portugueses a viver e trabalhar no Reino Unido, por favor encaminhe-lhes este link: http://isctecis.co1.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_6sVxRrSh7y7yUUL

Qualquer assunto relacionado com este questionário pode ser enviado para um dos seguintes e-mails: diana.farcas@iscte.pt ou marta.goncalves@iscte.pt

Se desejar, pode deixar-nos o seu comentário. Ao mesmo tempo, disponibilize-nos o seu e-mail se estiver interessado(a) em conhecer os resultados deste estudo.
