

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

**A study of factors affecting the performance of
expatriates working for multinational companies in
China**

**Being a Thesis submitted for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy**

In the University of Hull

By

Jinglin Jiang

June 2019

Abstract

When multinational companies (MNCs) expand globally, they send their employees to work in foreign subsidiaries as expatriates, and these expatriates potentially provide a competitive edge for their success in a global marketplace. Previous researches have studied the challenges, such as language, culture, family characteristics, and adjustment, faced by expatriates. This research expands on these studies by seeking a deeper understanding of adaptation that enhances expatriates' adaptive performance in China using both quantitative research and qualitative research. Specifically, this research examines factors that can influence the adaptive performance of expatriates in China, including cultural intelligence, learning flexibility, ethnocentrism, cultural distance, and international work experience.

Data were collected in subsidiaries of MNCs in China. Quantitative research is the predominant research method adopted and questionnaires were collected from 224 expatriates who are currently working in subsidiaries of MNCs in China but 175 returned questionnaires were actually suitable for data analysis. The results of the regression analysis demonstrate the positive relationship among expatriates' adaptation, cultural intelligence, cultural distance and adaptive performance in China; in addition, the negative relationship among expatriates' ethnocentrism, adaptation and adaptive performance in China; however, there is no relationship between expatriates' learning flexibility and adaptation, cultural intelligence, cultural distance and adaptive performance in China. Furthermore, ten qualitative interviews were included to play a supplementary role in this study to highlight the positive relationship among expatriates international work experience, adaptation, and adaptive performance in China. The results of this study contribute to the understanding of the factors that influence

expatriate adaptive performance in China, and the findings of this study can offer valuable insight for multinational companies in terms of their selection and development of international talents.

Keywords: Cultural Intelligence, International Work Experience, Cultural Distance, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, Adaptation, Adaptive Performance

Acknowledgements

I would like to take this chance to thank a number of people who played an important role in my PhD study. First of all, I want to show my greatest gratitude to my first supervisor- Professor Hugh Scullion and second supervisor- Dr. Thomas Hoyland for their unwavering support, guidance, and inspiring supervision through the whole process. I may face a range of challenges and unexpected difficulties to finish my research without their help. Second, I would like to thank to my parents. Without their support and sacrifice, I could not complete my thesis. Furthermore, I would like to thank to my brother and sister-in-law, for their encouragement.

I am also particularly grateful to the following for their important contributions and help:

The University of Hull Business School

The University of Hull Graduate School

Dr. Ming Li

Professor Steven Armstrong

Contents

Abstract	II
Acknowledgements	IV
List of Tables	IX
List of Figures	X
Abbreviations	XI
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1 Research Background	1
1.2 Research Aim	3
1.3 Motivation for the Research	4
1.4 Significance of the Research	6
1.5 Research purposes and questions	10
1.6 Methodology	12
1.7 Structure of the thesis	13
Chapter 2: Literature Review	15
2.1 Introduction	15
2.2 Expatriation	17
2.2.1 Review Expatriation	17
2.2.2 Expatriates in China	20
2.3 Performance.....	24
2.3.1 The Review of Performance.....	24
2.3.2 Job Performance	25
2.3.3 Adaptive performance	27
2.4 Adaptation	31
2.4.1 The definition of Adaptation	32
2.4.2 The Review of research on Adaptation	33
2.5 Cultural intelligence	38
2.5.1 The definition of Cultural Intelligence	38
2.5.2 The review of research on Cultural Intelligence	39
2.6 International Work experience	44
2.6.1 The definition of international work experience	45
2.6.2 The Review of research on international experience	45
2.7 Ethnocentrism.....	50
2.7.1 The definition of Ethnocentrism.....	51
2.7.2 The review of research on Ethnocentrism	52

2.8 Experiential Learning Theory	56
2.8.1 The Definition of the Experiential Learning Theory.....	57
2.8.2 The Review of research on Experience Learning Theory	59
2.8.3 Learning Flexibility	60
2.9 Cultural distance.....	65
2.9.1 The definition of cultural distance.....	65
2.9.2 The Review of research on cultural distance.....	66
Chapter 3: Methodology	74
3.1 Introduction	74
3.2 Research Philosophy	75
3.3 Research Approaches	77
3.4 Research strategy.....	79
3.5 Time Horizon	81
3.6 Research choice	83
3.6.1 Advantages of qualitative research.....	84
3.6.2 Disadvantages of qualitative research	85
3.6.3 Advantages of quantitative research.....	85
3.6.4 Disadvantages of quantitative research	86
3.7 Population and sampling	88
3.7.1 Target Population	88
3.7.2 Samples and Data Collection	88
3.8 Design a questionnaire and interview questions	94
3.9 Research Instruments	98
3.9.1 Learning Flexibility Index.....	98
3.9.2 Expatriate Adjustment Scale	101
3.9.3 Adaptive Performance Scale	102
3.9.4 Cultural Distance Index	104
3.9.5 Ethnocentrism Scale	105
3.9.6 Cultural Intelligence scale	106
3.9.7 Job Performance Scale	107
3.9.8 Other variables	108
3.10 Learning Flexibility Index Calculation	109
3.11 Pre-testing and piloting the questionnaire	113
3.12 Data Analysis Instruments.....	114
3.12.1 Regression	114
3.12.2 Process by Hayes.....	115

3.13 Reliability and Validity	117
3.13.1 Reliability	117
3.13.2 Validity	119
3.14 Factor analysis for each variables	122
3.15 Ethical consideration	123
3.16 Conclusion.....	125
Chapter 4: Findings	128
4.1 Introduction	128
4.2 Descriptive Statistics for all Variables	129
4.3 Normality.....	132
4.4 Correlations for all variables	134
4.5 Regression Analysis for Hypotheses Testes.....	137
4.5.1 Regression Analysis for Adaptation.....	138
4.5.2 Regression Analysis for Adaptive Performance	144
4.6 Process by Hayes for Hypotheses Testes	150
4.6.1 The relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance (Moderation)	152
4.6.2 The relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance (Mediation Analysis).....	155
4.6.3 The relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance (Mediation Analysis).....	158
4.6.4 The relationship among Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance (Multiple Mediator Model).....	161
4.6.5 The relationship among Ethnocentrism, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance (Multiple Mediator Model)	163
4.7 The relationship among International Work Experience, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaption Performance (Qualitative Research).....	166
4.8 Conclusion.....	171
Chapter 5: Discussion.....	175
5.1 Introduction	175
5.2 Hypotheses Discussion.....	176
5.2.1 The relationship between Adaptation and Adaptive Performance	177
5.2.2 The relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation	178
5.2.3 The relationship between International Work Experience and Cultural Intelligence	180
5.2.4 The relationship between International Work Experience and Adaptation.....	181
5.2.5 The relationship between International Work Experience and Adaptive Performance.....	183

5.2.6 The relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptation.....	184
5.2.7 The relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance	185
5.2.8 The relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptation	186
5.2.9 The relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance.....	188
5.2.10 The relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance.....	189
5.2.11 The relationship between Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance.....	192
5.2.12 The relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance.....	193
5.2.13 The relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance	194
5.2.14 The relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance	195
5.2.15 The relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance	197
5.3 Conclusion.....	198
Chapter 6: Conclusion	200
6.1 Summary of this Study	200
6.2 Contribution.....	206
6.2.1 Contribution to conceptual development (Theory development).....	206
6.2.2 Contribution to Empirical Research	209
6.2.3 Implications for Practice.....	210
6.3 Limitations of this Study	212
6.4 Areas for Future Research Identified by this Study	213
6.5 Reflections	215
Reference:	218
Appendix	268
Appendix A Research ethics committee consent form.....	268
Appendix B Questionnaire for Quantitative research	269
Appendix C Questions for Qualitative research.....	274

List of Tables

Table 3. 1 Questionnaire-basic questions results	92
Table 3. 2 Interviewees for Qualitative research	94
Table 3. 3 One of the respondents answer statistic	112
Table 3. 4 Reliability.....	118
Table 3. 5 KMO values for all research scale	122
Table 4. 1 Descriptive Statistics for all variables (N=175).....	130
Table 4. 2 Normality Test for Variables	132
Table 4. 3 Correlations for all variables.....	135
Table 4. 4 Regression Analysis for Adaptation	138
Table 4. 5 Regression Analysis for Adaptive Performance	144
Table 4. 6 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 10.....	154
Table 4. 7 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 12.....	157
Table 4. 8 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 13.....	160
Table 4. 9 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 14.....	162
Table 4. 10 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 15.....	164
Table 4. 11 A summary of this study' hypotheses and results.....	172

List of Figures

Figure 2. 1 Hypothesis Model.....	17
Figure 2. 2 Experiential Learning Theory.....	59
Figure 3. 1 Research Onion.....	74
Figure 3. 2 Comparison of inductive approach and deductive approach.....	79
Figure 3. 3 Research choice	83
Figure 3. 4 qualitative research and quantitative research comparison	87
Figure 3. 5 A simple Mediation model with a single mediator variable M causally located between X and Y	116
Figure 3. 6 A simple moderation model with a single moderator variable W influencing the size of X's effect on Y.....	117
Figure 4. 1 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 10.....	153
Figure 4. 2 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 12.....	156
Figure 4. 3 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 13.....	159
Figure 4. 4 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 14.....	161
Figure 4. 5 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 15.....	164

Abbreviations

AC	Abstract Conceptualization
AE	Active Experimentation
ASI	Adaptive Style Inventory
CE	Concrete Experience
CQ	Cultural Intelligence
ELT	Experiential Learning Theory
FDI	Foreign Direct Invest
IHRM	Internal Human Resource Management
KLSI	Kolb Learning Style Inventory
LFI	Learning Flexibility Index
IDS	Integrative Development Scale
IHRM	International Human Resource Management
MNC	Multinational Company
MNEs	Multinational Enterprises
OECE	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
RO	Reflective Observation

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Research Background

In the ‘global village’, which has emerged due to dynamic globalization, multinational enterprises (MNEs) have increased their exposure to foreign markets due to globalization, both in terms of the number of countries they operate in and the scope of activities they perform in abroad. This has resulted in increased levels of globally distributed work and cross-national collaboration (Hinds et al., 2011). The effectiveness of this work is contingent on the exchange of locally imprinted embedded knowledge from one context to another (Bhagat et al., 2002).

In the past few years, expatriates have become an important issue in international business and international human resource management research (Welch & Björkman, 2015), because according to Colakogln and Caligiuin (2008), there are currently 850000 subsidiaries of multinational companies operating globally. Expatriates may face challenges in foreign cultures, due to their high cost and important role in foreign subsidiaries; in addition, there is a trend towards alternative International Assignment, due to the high cost of expatriate assignments and performance issues. Since early research on expatriate success, the definitions of an expatriate and what it means to be successful have grown (Collings et al., 2007; Brewster et al., 2014). However, as Ackoff (1971) demonstrated that expatriates are always treated by scientists as an annoying phenomenon, which needed to be finished quickly without thinking. Because of the early researches, understanding of the determinants of expatriate success increased, although some of these determinants have been criticized as being largely expatriate-centric, particularly those focused on corporate expatriates, and the

complexity of expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (Takeuchi, 2010; Welch & Björkman, 2015). All these problems involve the background, motivation, and experience of different types of expatriates, such as corporate or self-initiated expatriates (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2013). Therefore, multinational companies have to address their expatriates' living and working adjustments, the long- and short- term, objectives of expatriation, and the impact they may have (Reiche et al., 2014). China was chosen due to its unique culture. For Chinese employees, through the relationship and networks can give them further information and resources in order to enhance their career improvement in China (Zhang et al., 2010). It is the organizations' reward systems in China that are egalitarian rather than their performance. In addition, interpersonal relationships are a core role in affecting their career promotions and other rewards (Christian, 2014). Thus, a deeper understanding of the expatriates' job performance in China is required. Identifying the factors that influence expatriates' performance is one of the most important challenges for multinational companies.

In the early 1990s, researchers left their investigations on expatriates' problems prematurely (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Naumann, 1992). However, later research has renewed the study of expatriates' performance and the identification of its various dimensions (Arthur et al., 1997). Hence, an increasing number of researchers have studied the factors that influence expatriates' performance, for example, language, culture, family characteristics, such as spouse, work-family conflict, children parental demands (for example, Osherson & Dill, 1983; Bedeian, 1988; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001); general adjustment, for example, food, climate, weather, housing and living conditions (for example, Black & Stephens, 1989; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001); previous overseas experience (Black, 1988; Takeuchi et al., 2005); non-work factors (Black & Stephens, 1989; Takeuchi et al., 2002); pre-departure training (Black &

Mendenhall, 1990); expatriate's personality (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997; Caligiuri, 2000); life adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991); work adjustment (Caligiuri & Hyland, 1998); life satisfaction (Harvey, 1997); work satisfaction (Yousef, 2000); stress tolerance (Björkman, 2005); relational ability (Bjorkman, 2005); communicational ability (Björkman, 2005); previous international experience (Selmer, 2002; Takeuchi & Yun, 2000); cross-cultural training (Black & Gregersen, 1991); cultural distance (Black & Stephens, 1989) and so forth. Multinational companies try to avoid unnecessary costs, while they have paid dearly for failure (Hill, 2001). One of the key challenges to China's economic development in the last four decades following the opening up of the economy in 1978 is the growing shortage of expatriates (Vaiman et al., 2019). Since then a large number of expatriates came to China. However, China is a vast country with a population of 1.3 billion and significant differences exist across all over China, therefore there have been so many difficulties for expatriates adapting to live and work in China. Therefore, in this study the researcher will try to find the relationship among international work experience, cultural distance, ethnocentrism, adaptability, learning flexibility and adaptive performance, even use previous working experience in a multinational company or work with foreigners, cultural distance and adaptation as moderation to analyze how to improve expatriates adaptive performance in China.

1.2 Research Aim

This research based on experiential learning theory is aiming to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship among cultural intelligence, international work experience, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, cultural distance, and adaptation and try to fill the gaps that could help expatriates to improve their adaptive performance in China. The results of this study can contribute to the understanding of the facts that

influence expatriate job performance in China. Furthermore, the findings will offer valuable insight for multinational companies for their selection and development of international talents. In this research, it is assumed that Kolb's (1984) Experiential Learning Theory, especially new Learning Flexibility could particularly help expatriates to improve their job performance in China. In addition, testing new methods to calculate the Learning Flexibility Index to find more factors that could help expatriates to live and work more easily in China. Work experience is more important than national boundaries for employees to develop their global skills and in order to perform critical business activities (Stroh et al., 2005). Work experience has been linked to many human resource functions such as selection (for example, Ash & Levine, 1985), training (for example, Ford et al., 1992), and career development (for example, Campion et al., 1994; McCall et al., 1988). McDaniel et al. (1988) found in a meta-analysis of a number of occupations that there was a correlation between work experience and job performance. This study also tries to find whether previous international work experience is a factor that could affect expatriates' cultural intelligence, adaptation, and adaptive performance in China.

1.3 Motivation for the Research

Chinese economic growth fell behind from the world average 1949 to 1978, and since 1980 China's GDP's average growth was more than nine percent, which made China as the fastest growing economy in the Asian region (Thompson, 1998). Over the latest 20 years, China was the second largest FDI receiver after the United States (Kild et al., 2001). In addition, in 2016 China became the third largest foreign direct investment (FDI) country, attracting US\$139 billion (Wenning, 2017). In the meantime,

organizations tried to use expatriates for multiple reasons to increase efficiency and profits. Furthermore, Edstrom and Galbraith (1977) assert that expatriates are responsible for the control, coordination, and knowledge transfer among the different units of the corporation, a set of strategic functions that cannot be properly implemented by local employees. Based on the previous literature a range of empirical studies were used to assess if expatriates adjust to unique Chinese cultural contexts in Western companies in China (Worm, 1997; Sergeant & Frenkel, 1988; Selmer, 1999). The recruitment of these strategic employees; however, is not an easy task, as many barriers to international mobility arise, such as dual career concerns, hardship, and repatriation considerations (Brewster, 1991; Torbiorn, 1982). Knowledge is the result of the transaction between social knowledge and personal knowledge. The former, as Dewey (1938) noted, is the civilized objective accumulation of previous human cultural experience, whereas the latter is the accumulation of the individual person's subjective life experience. Due to globalization, a greater number of multinational companies have developed, and the need for expatriates has become a trend in China. I worked in BMW in China before, and I saw most of the expatriates could not adjust their lives in China, which could lead to their failures in China. Therefore, in this study, I would like to find more factors that could affect expatriates' adaptive performance in China in order to help them. And tried to find the key to gaining a competitive advantage in selecting expatriates and training them in effective cross-cultural competencies. Therefore, helping expatriates to improve their adaptive performance in China is the key to transfer knowledge in multinational companies.

1.4 Significance of the Research

“Expatriates’ success not only enables multinational firms to carry out their global initiatives but also serves as a tool for leading these organizations in the future” (Kobrin, 1988; Shay & Baack, 2004; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Through a deeper understanding of the expatriates’ adaptation in China the factors that influence expatriates’ job performance can be identified as one of the most important challenges for multinational companies in order to avoid unnecessary failure and the associated costs.

Because of the difficulties of managing expatriates and of repatriation, an increasing number of MNCs companies seek ways to develop global skills and conduct global business, in order to create new types of international work experience. This study will offer valuable insight for multinational companies for their selection and development of international talents.

This research seeks to provide a deeper understanding of factors influencing expatriates’ job performance. Factors include international work experience, expatriate ethnocentrism, cultural distance, cultural intelligence, and adaptive performance will be evaluated. Furthermore, based on experiential learning theory, learning flexibility, and adaptation in expatriates’ learning will be considered.

The expatriate transition requires a person to adapt to both new work and living environments that may be culturally very different from previous experience. Previous studies have studied previous overseas work experience that could influence expatriates' adjustment (Li, 2015). However, this study will try to find whether international work experience is positively related to adaptation, cultural intelligence, and adaptive performance, respectively. In addition, the relationship between adaptation and cultural intelligence, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility will be considered. Furthermore, the relationship between adaptive performance and adaptation, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility and cultural distance to find more aspects that could affect expatriates' job performance in China. Moreover, adaptation may moderate cultural intelligence and expatriate adaptation performance, ethnocentrism, and adaptation performance. Using Process by Hayes could help us to understand the relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation, ethnocentrism, cultural intelligence, and adaptation performance. Yet to date, there is no research has empirically tested these relationships. These findings could help us in understanding how to improve expatriates' job performance in China.

This study also uses Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory and KLSI 4.0 (Kolb Learning Style Inventory) which includes the learning flexibility measurement (LFI)- LFI is a new measure that replaces the ASI (Adaptive Style Inventory), and aims contribute to the deeper understanding of factors that influence expatriate job performance. Furthermore, based on Kolb's (1984) experience learning theory could find the relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation, and job performance. As a result, this study will demonstrate that expatriates with higher levels of learning flexibility have better job performance in China.

In 1990, Black confirmed that ethnocentricity is negatively related to all facets of adaptability. Ethnocentric expatriates experience greater anxiety when entering a new culture (Stephan et al., 1995) and avoid cross-cultural interactions in an effort to reduce their anxiety, thus potentially impeding their performance on the assignment (Neuliep, 2012; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). Caligiuri (2016) analysed whether the ethnocentrism moderated the relationship between the perceived support in the host national environment and performance. Yet to date, no research has tested the relationship between expatriate ethnocentrism and adaptation, the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptation. In addition, Shirley et al. (2016:13) stated that “future research should extend outcomes of categorization (for example expatriate adjustment; expatriate performance)”. Caligiuri (2016) had the same suggestion for future study. This assignment will explore whether ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates’ adaptability in helping multinational companies avoid this problem. This study will focus on whether ethnocentrism will affect expatriates’ adaptation and adaptive performance in China.

Furthermore, this study could test the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptation, which could enhance our understanding of cultural intelligence development, which was suggested by Li (2013) in the future study part. In addition, the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptive performance or any other variables will be examined.

As Audrey (2012) highlighted, studies suggest that adaptive performance can be differentiated from other facets of performance (Hesketh et al., 1996; Hesketh & Neal,

1999). Based on the research; however, it is suggested that adaptive performance may be an important, perhaps even separate, component of job performance (Han, 2008). Furthermore, Pulakos et al. (2000, 2002, and 2006) first outlined changes and then addressed a range of components of adaptive performance in the workplace, such as task and contextual performance. Pulakos et al. (2002) said adaptive performance may be best thought of as a general factor of job performance that may manifest in multiple ways. And successful adaptive performance requires that employees adapt quickly and easily, which is needed to test the relationship between adaptation and adaptive performance. Faruk (2014) tested the relationship among cultural intelligence, adaptive performance, and self-efficacy. Oolders et al. (2008) have demonstrated a positive link between cultural intelligence and adaptive performance. One of the dimensions of adaptive performance is Learning New Tasks, Technologies, and Procedures. This aspect of adaptive performance has become more important because of the fast development of technological advancement and attaching importance to continuous learning in organizations. Nowadays employees are an increasing number of faced with learning new ways to perform their jobs (Hesketh & Neal, 1999). Yet to date, the relationship among learning flexibility, cultural distance, and adaptive performance could not be found and will be addressed in this thesis. This research could fill this gap to make contributions.

These findings will offer valuable insight for multinational companies in their selection and development of international talents in order to minimize expatriate failures. These findings could help multinational companies to have relevant pre-departure training models to find effective ways to help expatriates to perform well in China.

To sum up, finding more variables that could influence expatriates' job performance is significant for both MNCs and expatriates. These results will contribute to future studies that have been elaborated in the final chapter.

1.5 Research purposes and questions

The relationship among cultural intelligence, international work experience, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, cultural distance, and adaptive performance will be tested in this research. Furthermore, this research attempts to gain a deeper understanding of the adaptation that enhances expatriates' adaptive performance from international work experience. The researcher aims to find a wider range of factors to help expatriates to improve their job performance in China. Based on this research's purpose, this study demonstrates three research questions as follows:

Question 1: Which factors affect expatriates' adaptive performance in China?

Question 2: How can expatriates' adaptive performance be improved when they living and working in China?

Question 3: In the future how can HR select the appropriate expatriates?

Furthermore, 15 hypotheses in this study will be tested using quantitative research, the relationship between expatriates Adaptation and Adaptive Performance; the relationship between expatriates Cultural intelligence and Adaptation; the relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Cultural Intelligence; the relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Adaptation; the relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Adaptive Performance; the

relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptation; the relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance; the relationship between expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptation; the relationship between expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance; the relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance; the relationship between expatriates Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance; the relationship among expatriates Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance; the relationship among expatriates Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance; the relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance; the relationship among expatriates Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance.

In addition, qualitative research analysis will be discussed in the following parts to analyse the relationship among international work experience, cultural intelligence, adaptation and adaptive performance to support quantitative research in this study to help in testing hypothesis 3 4 and 5; the rest of the 15 hypotheses will be used in the quantitative research. 18 interview questions will be asked about expatriates' adaptation, challenges, learning issues, and their experience in China. However, qualitative research plays a supportive role in this study, therefore, only international work experience, cultural intelligence, adaptation, and adaptive performance will be focused on to highlight expatriates' job performance in China.

After using quantitative research and qualitative research the study will identify factors that could influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China. And the HR department could find ways to help expatriates to improve job performance in China to avoid any unnecessary costs or failures.

1.6 Methodology

Qualitative research and quantitative research are widely used by researchers in business management (Saunders et al., 2009). To make contributions to this area, both quantitative research and qualitative research were used for data analysis in this study. There are a number of advantages and disadvantages of using qualitative research and quantitative research. For example, when using qualitative research the researchers can enrich data in detail through comprehensive written descriptions or visual evidence. In using quantitative research the researchers can use software to analyse data, which can ascertain the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable using the form of figures and involving counting or quantifying to conclude. In this study, quantitative research played a major role in using regression analysis software to analyse data; on the other hand, qualitative research played a supplementary role in supporting and enriching the results. More detail about the disadvantages and advantages of quantitative research and qualitative research will be discussed in the Methodology chapter.

In summary, in this study both qualitative research and quantitative research will be used that could clarify the relationship among variables from the quantitative research and know more expatriates' real thoughts from the qualitative research. Using these two methods has some challenges, but could enrich the research.

In this study, ten interviewees were interviewed to do qualitative research and 224 questionnaires were collected to conduct quantitative research to analysis data; however, only 175 returned questionnaires can be used for data analysis. Both

questionnaires and interviews were conducted in the English language. Furthermore, multiple regression analysis and the Process by Hayes will be used to analysis quantitative data.

1.7 Structure of the thesis

This research consists of six chapters. Chapter One is the introduction to this study. It consists of a research background, research aims, and motivation for the research, the significance of the research, research purposes and questions, the methodology, and the structure of this study. Chapter Two is the Literature review of this study. It is developed into eight parts: Expatriation, Performance, Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, International Work Experience, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, and Cultural Distance. In the meantime, 15 hypotheses were raised and exploratory questions set. Chapter Three is the Methodology of this study. It consists of research philosophy, research approaches, research strategy, time horizon, research choice, population, and sampling, designing a questionnaire and interview questions, research instruments, measurement, pre-testing, and piloting the questionnaire, data analysis instruments, reliability and validity, factor analysis and ethical consideration. Chapter Four uses multiple regression analysis and the Process by Hayes to analyse data. In addition, using qualitative research to support results. Chapter Five presents discussions for this study and Chapter Sixth presents the conclusion to this thesis, which consists of a summary of the results of the research questions, conclusions, implications, limitations, and directions for future studies.

Finally, after analysing the relationships among adaptation, cultural intelligence, ethnocentrism, cultural distance, international work experience, learning flexibility and adaptive performance, we will figure out how to improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China will have been gathered in order to benefit for both multinational companies and expatriates. In addition, it could fill the gaps to give directions for future studies to help expatriates to improve their adaptive performance in China to minimize multinational companies' unnecessary costs.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction:

This chapter will focus on all the variables that reviewed the main literature which is important for this study.

- First, expatriation will be reviewed and give reasons why the researcher chooses expatriates in China instead of other countries.
- Second, through the definition of performance to job performance, and then consider adaptive performance issues which will affect expatriates' job performance in China.
- Third, based on the review of adaptation to propose Hypothesis 1: Adaptation is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.
- Fourth, based on the review of cultural intelligence to propose Hypothesis 2: Cultural intelligence is positively related to expatriates adaptation in China.
- Fifth, based on the review of international work experience to propose hypothesis 3: International work experience is positively related to expatriates cultural intelligence in China; hypothesis 4: International work experience is positively related to expatriates adaptation in China; hypothesis 5: International work experience is positively related to expatriates adaptive performance.
- Sixth, based on the review of ethnocentrism to propose hypothesis 6 and 7: Ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates adaptation and adaptive performance in China, respectively.
- Seventh, based on Kolb's experience learning theory and learning flexibility to propose hypothesis 8: Learning Flexibility is positively related to expatriates adaptation in China; hypothesis 9: Learning Flexibility is positively related to

expatriates adaptive performance in China; hypothesis 10: Cultural distance moderates positive relationship between expatriates learning flexibility and adaptive performance in China.

- Eighth, based on the review of cultural distance to propose hypothesis 11: Cultural distance is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China. Through the literature review and 11 hypotheses, four more hypotheses were raised: hypothesis 12: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation. Hypothesis13: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation. Hypothesis 14: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation. Hypothesis15: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation.

The following table will give us a clearer vision for all the various relationships in this study.

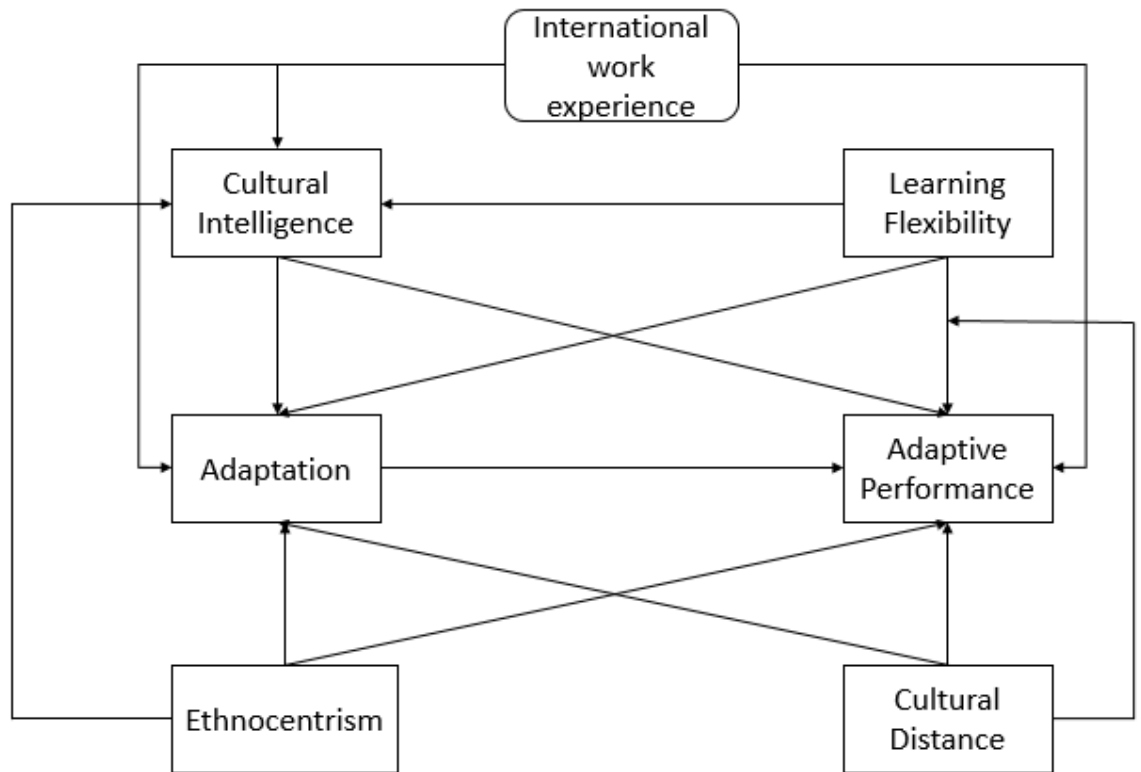


Figure 2. 1 Hypothesis Model

2.2 Expatriation

2.2.1 Review Expatriation

The term expatriation is derived from the Latin *expatria* and has been in use since humans coined the notion and idea of countries and nationalities. Humans have travelled and explored this globe for many centuries, some travelling vast distances in order to discover new lands and many, more specifically, to spread the word of god to strangers (Freeman, 2008; Oberholster & Doss, 2017; Porter, 1997; Walker et al., 1985).

The business of trading soon became a major component and reason for building new pathways to join different countries, with the large European trading companies of the Far East being built more than 400 years ago (Boulnois, 2004; Hipsher, 2008), and the Silk Road through China a massive two millennia back. For centuries expatriation has played an important role in business all over the world, with the number of people being posted for employment and voluntary positions outside of their native country growing each year. As a result of this, expatriation has become an ever increasing focus of research within IHRM (International Human Resource Management) literature. IHRM is regarded as a much more in-depth and complex system than that of HRM, by its very nature of becoming so heavily involved in a person's life and the need to take into account factors such as security/risk, cultural and legal differences (Dowling et al., 2013). This study will focus on expatriates in multinational companies in China. When looking at the definition of expatriate, one can find many definitions to describe it. Aycan and Kanungo (1997: 250) definition is important to this study where expatriates are, "Employees of business and government organizations who are sent by their organization to a related unit in a country which is different from their own, to accomplish a job or organization related goal for a pre-designated temporary period of usually more than six months and less than five years in one term".

Sending expatriates on international assignments involves many challenges, many of which are costly (Nowak & Linder, 2015). The study of expatriates in business began in the 1950s in America, with the academic focus being on the challenges associated with managing 'overseas executives' (Howell & Newman, 1959; Mandell, 1958; Thompson, 1959; Wallace, 1959) and continued into the 1960s, expanding outwardly to incorporate the study of the intercultural experiences had by expatriates (Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960), compensation (Schollhammer, 1969), careers (Gonzalez & Negandhi, 1967),

success factors (Kiernan, 1963), knowledge transfer (Negandhi & Estafen, 1965) and selection (Borrmann, 1968; Ivancevich, 1969; Steinmetz, 1965, 1966; Stern, 1966; Triandis, 1963). However, researchers were not interested solely in the business or corporate experiences had by the expatriates, but also began to study them in settings such as the military (Campbell, 1969), aid organizations (Taylor, 1968) and the Peace Corps (Hapgood & Bennett, 1968; Henry, 1966). By the 1970s, the Journal of International Business Studies had been launched and subsequently widened the circles of interest into the matter of expatriation, particularly amongst scholars in MNEs (Beer & Davis, 1976; Buckley & Casson, 1976). There was a lot of published and available research into the why large organisations were using expatriates (Baker & Ivancevich, 1970; Edström & Galbraith, 1977), how they were being selected (Miller, 1973; Teague, 1970), the communities in which they lived (Cohen, 1977), their quality of life and satisfaction in life (Ivancevich & Baker, 1970) and compensation was given (Foote, 1977; Reynolds, 1972).

Alongside this, expatriates themselves were also being studied, with specific criteria being looked into such as; how they made decisions in regards to their international assignments (Mincer, 1978), the characteristics of success and failure (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Hays, 1971, 1974; Lanier, 1979; Miller, 1972; Miller & Cheng, 1978), their needs when in training (Jones, 1975), differences and similarities relating to gender and job positions (Adler, 1979), the outcomes of assignments (Miller, 1975; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979) and fears and concerns during repatriation (Gama & Pedersen, 1977; Heenan, 1970; Howard, 1974, 1979; Murray, 1973). These specific aspects of study in expatriation flourished and continued well into the 1980s and 1990s, with a strong focus on how global organisations managed their expatriates (Mendenhall

et al., 1987; Peterson et al., 1996; Torbiorn, 1982) followed closely by the expatriates themselves (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Boyacigiller, 1990; Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Tung, 1988). During this period, research into Japanese multinational companies had also started to appear (Peterson & Schwind, 1977; Yoshino, 1976).

Furthermore, more and more researches focused on expatriates characterized as their life and work, how they were helped by their companies within a cross-cultural assignment that affect the cross-national transfer (De Cieri & Hutchings, 2008). In addition, plenty of researches raised significant themes about how expatriates increase their value to a company's growth of strategic, the challenges for expatriates' recruitment from training to development to repatriation (Caligiuri & Bonache, 2016) - in company with cross-cultural effectiveness and adjustment (Bird & Mendenhall, 2016). Due to costs, some companies reduced international assignments (Collings, 2014). Therefore, like Bolino et al. (2016) said, it is really important to use expatriates for global management operations and develop potential managers. Using expatriates will help domestic companies to become multinational companies.

2.2.2 Expatriates in China:

Chen (1990) states that Confucius is both the originator and preserver of Chinese society, implying that Confucius still plays a major role in contemporary China and its culture, people, the people's learning style, and variables. Elashmawi (2001) reports Chinese culture as being conforming, particularly to authority and most at ease when in

hierarchical social and professional structures. Similarly, Marquardt et al. (2004), believe that the Chinese desire order and hierarchy and need structure, rules, regulations, procedures among associates or business people. It needs to be highlighted as to who is who, for these procedures and processes to be followed, and as a result, communication is incredibly formal, with much focus on correct etiquette and proper usage of channels. Often delivering bad news will be done through a third party to avoid conflict and save face, which seems to highlight and reflect Confucian values of, knowledge sincerity, discernment, and caution.

In China, it is not what you know but who you know, and most business is carried out through personalised networks of connections. This way of life is known as *guanxi* and is a crucial aspect of Chinese culture, obligating all to reciprocate all favours given and all efforts made, by friends, relatives, neighbours, and colleagues (Elashmawi, 2001). “Conversations with people with whom you have no *guanxi* ‘connections’ can be very frustrating. You will be met with a stream of negatives ... or some dismissive phrase. Or you will simply be ignored. There does not seem to be much you can do about such responses” (Kane, 2006:157). Therefore, when expatriates are in China, it essential to begin to connect with Chinese people and look to establish relationships by way of mutual benefit (Morrison et al., 1994).

With global expansion on the rise, more and more organisations are seeking investments abroad, in order to reduce costs, achieve higher returns, and have access to a wider range of resources. One of the key challenges to China’s economic development in the last four decades following the opening up of the economy in 1978 is the growing

shortage of talent (Vaiman et al., 2018:64). Since then an increasing demand for expatriates is needed. Ernest and Young (2012) found that China is ranked as the top destination of foreign direct investment. China is now one of the most popular countries for international assignments (Zhang & Harzing, 2016). Much of the published research has focused on China and how the expatriates living in China. China is founded upon an ancient civilisation, rich in both culture and in history, and has a population of just over 1.33 billion people, which accounts for 23% of the world's total population. It is the third biggest country in the world, with overcrowded streets and markets and yet it's popularity for multinational companies to send expatriates to work in management and organisational development (Clegg & Gray, 2002; Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977; Harzing, 2001). The expatriates who live bring entirely different value systems and working customs and when entering China, often find the Chinese way to be incongruent to how they have lived and worked before. As a result, it is fair to assume that people with different value systems will adjust and adapt differently to each other. There are empirical studies that support this assumption (Selmerand &Shiu, 1999). Selmer (2001b) noted that the managers who come from North American are better well-adjusted than their Western European counterparts in China. In addition, Selmer (1997, 1999) also reported that expatriates who come from Western China are less well-adjusted than their North American in China. Many expatriates take a long time to adjust and teach English as a means to survive, whilst a large proportion of expatriates return home, deciding that the entire process is too hard. Brookfield (2014) stated that China has become the highest failure rate for expatriates in the world. Significant differences exist across provinces or regions in their economic development, institutional capacity, and social tradition (Vaiman et al., 2018: 65). According to Harvey and Novicevic (2001) tasks for expatriates are coordinative, computational, or creative, and contribute to multinational firms. If an expatriate can display signs of

flexibility and adjust successfully, it significantly enhances their employability chances (Van der Heijden et al., 2009b). However, the cost of expatriates failing assignments is often very large and not can result in not only financial loss but also loss of self-esteem, self-confidence, and prestige among their peers which is neither good for business nor their mental and physical health. Expatriates who come from different countries, such as Asia or Europe, may have challenges to Chinese culture due to cultural distance issues (Black et al., 1991; Parker & McEvoy, 1993), and they have to adjust quite different personal networks. Even there have a number of studies, which paid attention to the different expatriate group in different adjustment level in China (for example, Selmer, 2001a, 2001b; Selmer & Shiu, 1999), there have been no studies that explore cultural intelligence, international work experience, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, cultural distance, and adaptation and how they can affect expatriates' adaptive performance in China. Therefore, in the following sections, cultural intelligence and adaptation, international work experience and cultural intelligence, international work experience and adaptation, ethnocentrism, and adaptation, learning flexibility and adaptation, as well as adaptation and adaptive performance will be reviewed. In addition, the relationship among international work experience, adaptation, and adaptive performance, as well as the relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation, and adaptive performance will also be reviewed. This study attempts to identify factors that influence expatriates' job performance in China, in order to help them to perform better in China, while at the same time benefiting multinational companies and avoid any failures in China. However, in this study, nationality is another factor will be considered. Therefore, the interviewees are from all over the world instead of particular nationalities.

2.3 Performance

2.3.1 The Review of Performance

Brumback (1988) explained that performance means both behaviours and results. Performance is about what has been done and how it has been done (Armstrong & Taylor, 2017).

Over the past 40 years, performance has expanded from evaluating employee performance to more comprehensive functions such as goal setting, training, feedback and development, and motivation (Mabey & Salaman, 1995). Dowling et al. (1999) state that expatriate performance can be treated as several variables' combinations, the compensation package, and the support from headquarters; the situation in which performance happens and people's cultural adjustment and family members' accompany. Through effective coordination of individual objectives and corporate strategy, as well as clearer communication and appropriate incentives, performance can help companies bring about desired employee behaviour and better firm performance (Tahvanainen, 2000; Jackson & Schuler, 2003). Many researchers have studied expatriates performance and discovered a number of factors that could influence expatriates' performance, such as adjustment (Briscoe, 1995), Affective commitment (Kawai & Strange, 2014), work adjustment (Kawai & Strange, 2014), work attitude (Bader & Berg, 2014) and tolerance of ambiguity (Albrecht et al., 2018). Other research has shown that making the work environment more comfortable, assistance with language classes and communication on a broader scale within the business, could aid

expatriates to perform better in international assignments (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; DeNisi et al., 2006; Johnson et al., 2003). Furthermore, Wang and Fang (2014) found that social and psychological support expatriates have great value for their performance. Chuah (2011) stated that intrinsic motivation which derives from cultural intelligence affects expatriates' performance, in addition, it can improve an individual's persisting's strength to their work in different countries. Nunes et al. (2017) suggested that cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adaptation are significantly linked together with expatriate performance in a positive way. There are so many aspects of expatriates' performance and there are so many variables that could influence expatriates' performance. However, this study focuses primarily on expatriates' job performance in China. While Job performance is about employees' knowledge, abilities, skills, and motivations, such as formal job responsibilities (Campbell, 2000), which could describe details about expatriates' performance on the job. Job performance is an intricate concept that includes multiple dimensional constructs, and which can be seen from many different perspectives, dependent upon how it is evaluated, who is evaluating it, what feature is being evaluated, and so on. When considering business conduct abroad, differences in culture can have a significant impact (Budhwar & Sparrow, 2002). Therefore, in this study, the researcher will focus on expatriates' job performance in China to help them to improve their performance in China and benefit multinational companies at the same time.

2.3.2 Job Performance

Job performance can be stated broadly as the total value that an employee contributes towards the organisational goals and achievements, both directly and indirectly and positively and negatively (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, 1990). The theory of

job performance indicates that job performance is “a multi-dimensional construct consisting of task dimension (often production or deadline driven and sometimes referred to as “in-role” and contextual dimension sometimes considered discretionary and often termed “extra-role”)” (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Campbell et al., (1993) stated that only the behaviours and actions that are related to companies’ aims are treated as employees’ job performance. The researcher chose job performance has been selected as the diagnostic to differentiate work from study and within this the values considered to be acceptance of the job, customisation to the culture, and finally, job completion and meeting external standards of expectations of their position (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997).

Theoretically, many researchers expect that adjustment to a new role would have an impact on an individual’s job performance, as demonstrated by comprehensive reviews of the socialization literature (for example, Fisher, 1986; Wanous et al., 1992). There are so many aspects could influence expatriates' job performance. It has been argued that the performance criteria should be adjusted as appropriate to reflect the expatriate’s organizational position, assignment site characteristics, and even his or her knowledge about the company’s foreign operations (Oddou & Mendenhall, 2000). Furthermore, Kraimer et al. (2001) found that work adjustment has a positive relationship to task performance and workplace strain has a negative relationship to expatriates’ job performance. Hough (1992) argued that task-oriented behaviours should result in better work adjustment and better job performance. Furthermore, Takeuchi (2005) asserted that the non-linear effects of psychological workplace strain explain additional variance in job performance over and above those of the linear, negative effects. Caligiuri (2000) suggested that is emotional stability might reduce the well-known psychological

discomfort often associated with international relocations, inhibit expatriates' thoughts of returning home prematurely, and enable expatriates to effectively perform all aspects of their jobs. In the previous researches have tested the factors. Job performance is a well-researched variable, with much research having been undertaken already.

According to the following sources some of the most prominent factors affecting job performance nowadays are as follows, sex (Caligiuri & Tung, 1999; Sinangil & Ones, 2003), Big Five Personality (e.g., Dalton & Wilson, 2000; Caligiuri, 2000a; Mol et al., 2005; Shaffer et al., 2006), self-monitoring personality (Caligiuri & Day, 2000), goal orientation (Wang & Takeuchi, 2007), task and people orientation (Shaffer et al., 2006), cultural flexibility (Shaffer et al., 2006), non-ethnocentrism (Hechanova et al., 2003; Shaffer et al., 2006), communicational ability, relational ability, stress tolerance (Holopainen & Bjrkman, 2005), previous international experience (Holopainen & Björkman, 2005; Varma et al., 2006), self-efficacy and age (Selmer & Luring, 2009), job position and presence of family (Shi & Franklin, 2014). In addition, some researches have demonstrated expatriates' job satisfaction and job performance (for example, Selmer & Luring, 2013; Selmer et al., 2015). Although each of these factors could influence job performance, the researcher still interested in finding more factors that could influence job performance; especially in this study, the researcher will try to find factors that could influence expatriates job performance in China, in order to enhance expatriates job performance from work experience, cultural distance, adaptive flexibility, adaptation, learning flexibility and ethnocentrism.

2.3.3 Adaptive performance

According to Hesketh and Neal (1999), adaptive performance is a person's ability to adapt to and cope with new demands at work and in a dynamic work environment.

Although it has been debated as to whether adaptive performance is a separate aspect of

performance, there is much data that demonstrates that it can be classed separately to that of the task and contextual performance (Han & Williams, 2008; Johnson, 2001; Pulakos et al., 2000; Rosen et al., 2011). Johnson (2001) and Pulakos et al. (2000) include within their demonstration the ability to meet the needs of a new environment and proficiency in doing this, by changing and altering behaviour, though others have stated that it includes more of a variety of adaptive behaviours. As Audrey (2012) said, studies suggest that adaptive performance can be meaning differentiated from other facets of performance, such as task performance (Hesketh et al., 1996; Hesketh & Neal, 1999). Previous research, however, suggests that adaptive performance may be an important, perhaps even separate, component of job performance (Han, 2008). Further, Pulakos et al. (2000, 2002, and 2006) highlight key features of adaptive performance which they state have come about as a direct result of changes within the workplace. Pulakos et al. (2002) said adaptive performance may be best thought of as a general factor of job performance that may be manifested in multiple ways. Burgeoning global corporate competition and increasing demands on worldwide resources has led to ever increasing pressure for worldwide organizations to be competitive, efficient, flexible and innovative, to not only compete but survive (Cascio, 2003; Ployhart & Bliese, 2006). As a result of this, employees are now expected to be able to effectively manage change and adapt (Kozlowski et al., 2008). Adaptive performance is an aspect of job performance, and it can give this kind of effectiveness (Shoss et al., 2011). In addition, there are some factors that could influence adaptive performance, such as Individual perceptions of transformational leadership (Charbonnier-Voirin et al., 2010), the Big Five traits of personality include having an open mind to new experiences, management and control of emotions, diligence and a high level of social skills and ease (Allworth & Hesketh, 1999; Pulakos et al., 2006), self-efficacy, coping style, sociability, as well as goal orientation (for example, Kozlowski et al., 2001; Pulakos et al., 2006). Therefore,

adaptive performance is a component of overall performance and three of adaptive performance dimensions will be discussed in this study to try to link to other variables.

Pulakos et al. (2000) stated that the specific requirements needed for adaptive performance within a work situation can be subdivided and categorised as follows: crisis and emergency handling, resilience to work stress, creativity in problems solving, and ability to cope with unstable situations, to be astute when training in new processes and procedures and on new technology, flexibility, and cultural adaptability. According to Audrey and Patrice (2012), there are 8 dimensions for adaptive performance: Dimension 1: Handling Emergencies and Crises, Dimension 2: Managing work stress, Dimension 3: Solving Problems Creatively, Dimension 4: Dealing with Uncertain and Unpredictable Work Situations, Dimension 5: Training and Learning effort, Dimension 6: Interpersonal adaptability, Dimension 7: Cultural Adaptability and Dimension 8: Physical Adaptability. However, only Dimension 5: Training and Learning effort, Dimension 6: Interpersonal adaptability and Dimension 8: Physical Adaptability will be discussed in this research. While these three dimensions could link the other factors relationships in this study. The future study could analyse the other dimensions to find more factors that have relationships.

Successful adaptive performance requires that employees adapt quickly and easily, which is the researcher needs to test the relationship between adaptation and adaptive performance. Whether the expatriates could adapt quickly and easily or not is about their adaptive performance in China, which finally could affect their job performance in China. However, one of the dimensions of adaptive performance is Learning New Tasks, Technologies, and Procedures. Subsequently, this adaptive performance feature

is rising in importance alongside and in correlation with ever increasing pace of technological advancement in the world today and how crucial global organisations are now viewing these features. As a worker today, the demand to be able to rapidly learn new features of their jobs is increasing (Hesketh & Neal, 1999). Charbonnier-Voirin et al. (2010) stated that expatriates' ability to learn new skills is a factor that could help companies attain their objectives. Similarly, learning can involve the forecasting of anticipated needs for future job requirements and also the adaptation to those fluctuating job requirements, such as training in new software, processes, and procedures in China. Until now the researchers could not find the relationship among learning flexibility, cultural distance, and adaptive performance in any journals. Therefore, the researcher would like to test the relationship among adaptation, cultural distance, learning flexibility, and adaptive performance in China in the following parts.

However, Faruk (2014) tested the relationship among cultural intelligence, adaptive performance, and self-efficacy. Oolders et al. (2008) have demonstrated a positive link between cultural intelligence and adaptive performance. Shoss (2011) has argued that adaptive performance is positively related to job performance. Other studies have tested other factors, such as the adaptive performance requirements of jobs (Pulakos et al., 2000), training techniques (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Joung et al., 2006). Therefore, there is no need to test the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptive performance or adaptive performance and job performance in this study. In addition in Ethnocentrism part will come up with the relationship between expatriates' ethnocentrism and adaptive performance.

2.4 Adaptation

Adaptability and flexibility are seen as key capabilities for expatriates to hold in order to successfully adapt (Kolb, 1984). In addition, Ali, Van der Zee, and Sanders (2003) state that successful adjustment into a new circumstance is a process that involves inter-cultural adjustment and transformations. Grub et al. (1984) argued that adaptability is the ability to integrate with different cultural people or business operations, developments in the host country, solving different perspectives or different frameworks' problems, and managing operations on continuous basis flexibility and so on. In addition, previous researches have demonstrated that expatriates may fail their overseas assignments when they are not able to adapt to foreign countries (Kraimer et al., 2011; Ramalu et al., 2010; Shaffer et al., 2006; Tung, 1982), causing further costs for the business and possibly even damaging the business relationships with the businesses in that country and possibly losing future business (Mervosh & McClenahan, 1997). All these needs expatriates could not only focus on their jobs or companies, but also understand different cultures, social and political within host countries, because if an expatriate is not successful in adapting to the new life in the host country, this can not only sabotage opportunities for the individuals, but also for their organizations (Chen et al., 2014). Within new and unknown environments, there is a range of elements to consider which can be real causes of stress and anxiety, as they can hard to understand and even received as 'not ethically correct'. Some examples of these are societal norms and expectations, food, methods of eating, language, personal space, and so on (Adler, 1986). Walton (1990) stated that there are three stages to adaptation, especially to Chinese culture, they are excitement, disenchantment, followed by cultural shock, and especially China has a unique culture. Finding more factors that could influence expatriates' adaptation in China is the goal of this study.

2.4.1 The definition of Adaptation

Klein (1979) demonstrated adaptation as a process of attitude or behaviour changes in response to new stimuli. Berry (1997) believes adaptation can be stated as those changes seen within a group or an individual as a result of their environmental demands. And Hannigan (1990) stated that the changes that take place are namely cognition, behaviour, attitude, and psychology. Hall (2002) demonstrated adaptation essentially as the avoidance of obsolescence. In other words, with technological and social changes, expatriates need to adapt to changing situations in order to enjoy long term career effectiveness. While in this study the researcher prefers adaptation's definition as Ashford and Taylor (1990) demonstrated that adaptation is a psychological state or degree of discomfort or stress associated with a particular course of action, for instance learning how to perform a task in spite of a disability, or a context of action, such as a new workplace. Expatriates should have adaptation skills to adjust to other cultures and learn from their partners to enhance firms' capability. Through this method could give directions for multinational companies to send expatriates overseas effectively to transfer knowledge quickly (Sparrow & Hiltrop, 1994; Hendry, 1994; Adler & Bartholomew, 1992). In addition, Amber and Witzel (2004) argued that a process of adaptation in China is required. While in China, different regions have different laws, regulations, behavioural codes, and cultural customs. Expatriates in unfamiliar environments usually feel uneasiness or have anxiety. That is what the researcher will talk about in the following parts.

2.4.2 The Review of research on Adaptation

Previous research on adaptation was dominated by Adaptive Style Inventory (ASI) (Boyatzis & Kolb, 1993), which help the researches pay attention to both learning preference and flexibility skills. Kolb (1984) highlighted the Adaptive style Inventory is a way to improve learning style' situation variability to different aspects to the demands of learning task. The Adaptive Style Inventory is a method to rank an individual's learning preferences from eight personalized learning contexts with four learning modes. It can calculate an individual's adaptive flexibility in learning to a different environment in their lives. And then analyse their learning styles systematically. At first, the Adaptive Style Inventory was used to evaluate individuals' level of integrative complexity as they progressed from the specialized to the integrated stage of the ELT developmental model (Kolb, 1984). This measure was designed to assess when individuals faced different situations demands and how they changed their learning styles to adapt to these. It was based on how individuals react to different situational demands, and how they could conclude a higher level of integrative development due to meta-cognitive processes or higher order decision rules (Kolb & Kolb, 2009) to guide their behaviour. People who have higher levels of adaptive flexibility are likely to be more self-directed and flexible in their life and work. Furthermore, although they may have their complex life, they may feel less stressed and conflicted in their life and work. A number of researchers have studied these relationships, such as Perlmutter (1990), who confirmed the important relationship between Loevinger's ego development instrument and adaptive flexibility. In addition, Thompson (1999) found that self-directed learners had higher levels of adaptive flexibility than learners who were not self-directed. Yamazaki and Kayes (2001) demonstrated that maturing in one's ability to be flexible and malleable to change has been proven as a key factor in successful

integration and adaptation to a new country. Furthermore, according to Boud and Garrice (1999), work and learning are two concepts, which used to belong in separate categories. Work was about producing or doing things to earn a living, while learning was about education; it occurred in life before work. In the next decades, there is likely to be an increasing demand for flexibility in work. Indeed, flexibility of labour and capital are intimately connected, but the trends for many researchers have confirmed the relationship between adaptive flexibility and integrative development. Previous studies have found that adaptive flexibility has a positive relationship to higher levels of ego development on Loevinger's sentence completion instrument (Kolb & Wolfe, 1981; Kolb, 1984). People who have higher levels of adaptive flexibility are likely to be more self-directed and flexible in their life and work.

Existing researches highlight the significance of adaptation amongst expatriates (for example, Firth et al., 2014; Ren et al., 2014; Takeuchi, 2010; Farh et al., 2010). These researches propound and underline the magnitude of the impact of an expatriate's capability to adjust to a new cultural environment and to perform well in their new assignments. Furthermore, adaptation could influence by some factors, such as intended length of stay abroad (Froese, 2012), relative and partner adjustment (Caligiuri et al., 1998), as well as the length of stay (Black & Mendenhall, 1990), accommodation, social network, successful previous international experience (Farcas & Gonçalves, 2017), the support of expatriates' colleagues and family profile (Laouami & Faridi, 2018) and so on.

When an expatriate moves abroad, it is clear that this is an incredible chance to grow and develop new skills to adapt to a new environment (Farh et al., 2010). However, this means connecting themselves in with all aspects of the local culture, particularly the

local communication networks, business, learning the local language, and discerning local social etiquettes and norms (Hocking et al., 2007). An expatriate's success may well depend on how quickly they can pick up and grow from these overseas experiences (Ratiu, 1983; Porter & Tansky, 1999; Spreitzer et al., 1997). Mainemalis et al. (2002) tested the relationship between learning style as measured by the Kolb Learning Style Inventory (KLSI) (Kolb 1999a, 2005) and ASI adaptive flexibility. They tested the proposal that earners with equal preferences for dialectically opposed learning modes would be better able to integrate them into a flexible learning process. They proposed that a balanced learning style (as given by the absolute value for the dialectics of experiencing/conceptualizing and acting/reflecting adjusted for population mean) would be related to adaptive flexibility. However, there was no significant result for the dialectic of acting or reflecting. Mainemalis et al. (2002) concluded that the more equal the balance of individuals between the conceptualizing or experiencing and acting or reflecting dialectics, the more he or she would exhibit adaptive flexibility. In addition, they tested the relationship between adaptive flexibility and a preference for concreteness over abstraction, the KLSI AC-CE score, which refers to the question whether adaptive flexibility is a function of balancing opposing learning modes or a function of contextual sensitivity, which is the tendency to have a more concrete learning style. While using Learning Flexibility Index instrument, Akriovou (2008) found a relationship between adaptive flexibility and integrative development as measured by her Integrative Development Scale (IDS). She created this scale by identifying items that describe the integrative stage of adult development as highlighted in the works of Loevinger (1966, 1976, 1998), Rogers (1961), Perry (1970), Kegan (1982, 1994) and Kolb (1984, 1988, 1991). Another study by Moon (2008) using the early Learning Flexibility Index examined sales performance in financial services,

finding that adaptive flexibility influenced sales success as measured by the monthly volume of sales.

Boyatzis and Kolb's (1993) ASI was used to help people to evaluate their adaptive flexibility. People who have a higher level of adaptive flexibility are more self-directed; they may have richer life structures and have less conflict in their lives (Kolb, 1984). In addition, Moon (2008) found a relationship between ASI flexibility and sales performance. Adaptive flexibility could connect the unique patterns of adaptations to different learning contexts (Sharma & Kolb, 2010). Previous studies (for example, Lenartowicz et al., 2014; Maertz et al., 2009) have demonstrated that in order to be able to merge well with a new cultural environment and to behave culturally appropriately, these experiential learning theories are vital. Many researchers have confirmed the relationship between adaptive flexibility and integrative development, and "self-directed learners had higher levels of adaptive flexibility than learners who were not self-directed." Furthermore, people who have higher levels of adaptive flexibility are likely to be more self-directed and flexible in their life and work. However, a few studies have tested the relationship between adaptive flexibility and expatriates' performance (e.g. Bond & Seneque, 2013; Lane, 2011, etc.). It is likely that expatriates who have higher adaptive flexibility, will have fewer barriers to face, meaning that they would be able to perform well in living and working in China. Conversely, expatriates who have lower learning ability will find many barriers to live and work in China, which may lead to their performing poorly in China.

Cornwell and Manfredi (1994) claim successful learning and performing were significantly related to general mental ability and primary learning style, but not to

Kolb's Learning Style Theory. Cornwell and Manfredi (1994) propose that learning and performance is a hands-on, archetypical doing task involving active experimentation until the appropriate object is obtained. Furthermore, according to Yamazaki (2010) highlighted, "The degree of adaptation increases when people adequately cope with the environmental pressures by acquiring and developing learning skills." Learning is critical for expatriate adaption (Yamazaki, 2010:85). Due to experiential learning theory, learning could lead expatriates to experience and then acquisition and effective adaptation to the new environment (Kolb, 1984). In addition, developing these skills could help expatriates to gain and improve the chances to learn from experiences in their workplace (Takeuchi et al., 2005). Kolb and Kolb (2005) stated that learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world. Kolb (2002) provided empirical evidence of this and stated that 'the more balanced individuals are the dual dialectics of learning, the more they will show adaptive flexibility'. As we discussed above that adaptive flexibility is positively related to expatriates' job performance in China. Therefore, in this present study, the researcher attempts to test the relationships among work experience, adaptive flexibility, and performance. It is suggested that if expatriates have higher adaptive flexibility, they will have better work experience and perform well in China; conversely, if expatriates have lower adaptive flexibility, it may negatively influence their work experience and performance in China. Furthermore, based on Kolb's Learning Theory, the researcher would like to clarify our understanding of the relationship among learning flexibility, cultural intelligence, ethnocentrism, and adaptation in China in the following parts. Hence, there is one hypothesis to be proposed:

H1: Adaptation is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

2.5 Cultural intelligence

“Cultural intelligence is a critical capability for navigating today’s increasingly global and diverse business environment. It’s so important that we made it one of our core behaviors at PwC” (Robert Mortiz, Chair PwC, United States). Cultural intelligence is a new method which is being observed within the workplace and one which has not been well researched (Jyoti & Kour, 2013); consequently, this concept and its usage need to be further developed (e.g., Ang & van Dune, 2008; Earley & Ang, 2003; Ward et al., 2009). It has been widely accepted that cultural intelligence is a vital attribute for expatriates (Ang et al., 2007). Expatriates’ cultural intelligence in China will be evaluated in this study, while it will focus on strategic measures and motivation to engage in adapting and have the ability to perform in China.

2.5.1 The definition of Cultural Intelligence

Cultural intelligence is defined as ‘an individual’s capability to function and manage effectively in cultural diverse setting’ (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008:3). According to Earley and Ang (2003), cultural intelligence has both process and content features. They highlighted the general structure of cultural intelligence as consisting of three facets, namely, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural elements (Li, 2013). Cultural intelligence is the ability to work effectively within new and multi-cultural environments that employ heterogenic workgroups (Earley & Ng, 2006; Story et al., 2014); it is a multi-layered and multi-fated approach to defining a concept which involves nationality, race, and ethnicity (Ng et al., 2009:514) argue that cultural intelligence provides a “set of learning capabilities that enhances the extent to which

individuals translate their international work experience into learning outcomes.”

Cultural intelligence is an important component of expatriates’ development.

2.5.2 The review of research on Cultural Intelligence

Sternberg and Detterman’s (1986) proposed the concept of a multi-faceted perspective of intelligence and this follows on from this. Older (2008) definitions of intelligence, such as rationality and social intelligence need to be stated when considering cross-cultural interactions. Thomas et al. (2008) highlighted CQ as selection and formation when faced with a new environment and the ability to not only select and shape your experiences, but also to link these experiences together, meta-cognitively into a system by which your new environment can be understood. Thomas (2006) stated that cultural intelligence has three dimensions, including mindfulness (later changed into meta-cognition), knowledge, and behaviour. In order to develop cultural intelligence, one must expose oneself to the cultural situation and put into practice one’s skills.

Knowledge (cognition), mindfulness (motivation), and behaviour are the three main attributes of intercultural flexibility and malleability (Du Plessis, 2011; Early & Ang, 2003; Early & Peterson, 2004; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Earley et al., 2006; Earley & Ng, 2006). A fourth motivational dimension was also proposed by Earley and Ang (2003) due to the ambiguous nature of defining such a concept. It can reflect an individual’s capability to try hard to learn and function in different culture’s environments. The reason being that of the incredible amounts of additional energy and drive it takes to cope with the many ambiguous interactions had in the new setting and then adjust to and form a structure of their new environment. The three previously mentioned aspects of cultural intelligence each have their definitions, as follow: meta-

cognitive cultural intelligence is a conscious awareness of your surroundings particularly in conversations with people from other cultures; cognitive cultural intelligence takes into account one's ability to learn the social norms and adhere to them, employing the correct etiquette verbally and non-verbally in cross-cultural situations (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008). Cultural intelligence involves self-reflection and self-analysis of an individual's behaviours and assumptions when in intercultural situations. Cultural intelligence can help each individual to know better in other cultures. Cognitive cultural intelligence allows a person to form order and structure to their cross-cultural interactions and meta-cognitive cultural intelligence is the ability to understand reactions or behaviours which may feel unnatural and are unexpected in inter-cultural exchange. Motivational cultural intelligence involves the process of becoming self-efficacy which involves developing trust in oneself and others in uncharted territory. Behavioural cultural intelligence involves the ability to act appropriately in both verbal and non-verbal cross-cultural interactions more specifically enabling a person to be pro-active in certain situations. These four dimensions are the foundational basis for communication in intercultural exchange and allow each party to express themselves and be heard, resulting in smoother cross-cultural communication.

According to Stern- berg, and Grigorenko (2006) up to now, the focus of cultural intelligence research has primarily been conceptual theorising. Ng and Earley (2006) discussed the difference between concepts of cultural intelligence, culture-free etic concepts, and traditional views of cultural intelligence which are emic and culture-bound and Triandis (2006) discusses the formation of accurate or inaccurate judgements and the capabilities associated with cultural intelligence. Brislin et al. (2006) viewed cultural intelligence as a vital attribute when coping with unexpected intercultural

situations. A framework for cross-cultural training was written by Earley and Peterson (2004), which connects the needs of cross-cultural training with trainees' strengths and weaknesses and this was later furthered by Janssens and Brett (2006) who created a fusion model which was designed to enable creatively realistic decisions, based on cultural intelligence. Other definitions can be found for cultural intelligence, namely Alon and Higgins (2005) who highlighted it as a moderating linkage between domestic and global success and similarly with Cooper et al. (2007) who proposed it to be the stabiliser between cross-cultural behaviours and interactions. A verifiable model has been developed by Ng and Earley (2006) which includes ways to factor in and anticipate possible precursory problems to and outcomes of cultural intelligence. It also includes the usage of this concept at the team and organizational levels. However, theory-based explanations of the importance and effectiveness of cultural intelligence for expatriates when moving abroad remain super slim. Further evidence for the linkages between cultural intelligence and adaptive performance is demonstrated by Oolders et al. (2008). In addition, Kim et al. (2008) argued that people who display high levels of developing cultural intelligence are more likely to be able to adapt more easily to new work and non-work environments. Chen et al. (2011) stated that cultural intelligence as an individual who has the ability to effectively adjust to new cultural situations. In addition, Thomas et al. (2014) found that the recent immigrant newcomers with higher cultural intelligence could better understand and appreciate other cultures and behaviours appropriately and flexibility in cross-cultural settings.

Despite the fact that cultural intelligence is highlighted by many as a concept of intelligence and is classed in the framework of many multiple intelligences, alongside other theoretical concepts of intelligence (Sternberg, 1985), there are arguments made

and research that proves that it is separate from general concepts such as social intelligence, cognitive ability, and emotional intelligence. Most recently, research has proven that cultural intelligence can be a determiner for effective leadership, emotional intelligence, the ability to make decisions, task performance, and general mental ability (Moon, 2010; Ward et al., 2009). A large property of research previously undertaken has focussed on the effects of cultural intelligence and adjustment of expatriates. Elenkov and Manev (2009) found that a team led by leaders who displayed high levels of cultural intelligence had more positive organizational outcomes. Furthermore, Lee and Sukoco (2010) found that expatriates who displayed high levels of cultural intelligence were more effective in their roles and in adjusting to their new lives. In addition, traits and behaviours such as co-operation and information exchange were included by Imai and Gelfand (2010) when defining cultural intelligence and particularly the integrative behaviours needed in negotiation. From this study, it can be seen that there are monumental benefits for expatriates and negotiators if cultural intelligence is present when communicating and negotiating. In addition, there are many factors could influence cultural intelligence as well, such as local language proficiency, previous international work, or non-work experience (Uen et al., 2018).

There are particular traits of people who possess cultural intelligence and these can be recognized by others who are aware of this cultural intelligence. Not all behaviours of cultural intelligence will be the same, however, due to the distinct differences between different cultures. Those who are aware of the cultural norms in one particular society can help to guide and alert others of these norms, in order to achieve particular outcomes, especially China has a unique culture that expatriates feel difficult to adapt to, which was discussed in the first part in this study.

To summarize, when considering success in expatriation, it is clear that it is not only knowledge which is useful for successful cross or multi-cultural engagement, but there is a vital need for adequate levels of intrinsic motivation and willingness needed in order to continually translate information, in order to form strategies, to apply the correct verbal and non-verbal behaviours in everyday life and work to generally be successful at integrating themselves into a new way of life. If an individual has a high level of cultural intelligence, he or she is eager to transfer knowledge continually to implicate strategies and then have their ability to correct verbal and non-verbal behaviours in a new environment. Through cultural intelligence, expatriates can know better new cultures and then perform effectively in new environments, such as living conditions, communicate with local people, and so on. In China, some of the most common problems faced by expatriates are the weather, the language, the food, socialising, and then becoming homesick (Chou et al., 2012). It could be argued that if people were given sufficient information around these issues, then they would be better prepared to face these new unfamiliar situations and would be able to function more effectively when faced with them in a foreign country. Furthermore, this study could test the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptation, which could enhance our understanding of cultural intelligence development, which has suggested by Li (2013) in the future study part. In addition, Presbitero (2016) found that cultural intelligence is related to international students' adaptation. While Nunes et al. (2017) proposed that cultural intelligence is positively related to cross-cultural adaptation. Furthermore, Presbitero (2018) stated that cultural intelligence is positively related to religious expatriates' adaptation. In addition, Uen et al. (2018) proposed that cultural intelligence is positively related to expatriates' general adjustment, interaction adjustment, and work adjustment. Chen et al. (2014) stated that there is a direct positive relationship between cultural intelligence and cultural adjustment. Malek and Budhawar

(2013) concluded that both behavioural and motivational cultural intelligence had a negative relationship with work adjustment. In addition, Moon et al. (2012) concluded that metacognitive cultural intelligence does not affect work adjustment. However, yet to date, there is no any research analysis of the relationship between expatriates adaptation and cultural intelligence in China. Hence, the following hypothesize is proposed:

H2: Cultural intelligence is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.

2.6 International Work experience

When considering international work experience, Carpenter et al. (2001) and Sambharya (1996) recognise that international work experience has become increasingly noteworthy for global organisations whilst Spreizer et al. (1997) highlight its advantageous value when competing in a global market. Nelson, Quick, and Eakin (1988) note that levels of adaptability in international work experience are directly relevant and proportionate to the amount of work experience gained in a work-place, whilst Tesluk and Jacobs (1998) summarise it more generally, as an all-round multifaceted concept. Hofstede (1980), states that humans tend to navigate towards, and cluster together with other humans who are similar to themselves. Selmer (2002), Takeuchi et al. (2005) build on this idea and propose that as a result of this, the ability to understand new cultural values and behaviours should be made easier if a person has had previous international experience. Therefore, all prior international work experience is seen to be useful, however, having international experience within the same culture is believed to be the most beneficial (Takeuchi et al., 2005), especially China has a unique culture for expatriates have challenges.

2.6.1 The definition of international work experience

Prior research indicates that conscientious individuals have a high capacity for self-monitoring; they have an internal locus of control and have a proactive ability to be successful (Kilduff & Day, 1994; Seibert et al., 1999; Ng et al., 2005). In the academic literature, researchers have named these international work alternatives “global careers”. Tung (1998) asserts that young employees could obtain greater benefit from international working experiences, as they are likely to be; given more important duties and responsibilities than they would be called upon to perform at home. On the other hand, an overseas career may prevent their obtaining a higher-level position when they return home. In this light, Shaffer et al. (1998) argue that these international work arrangements are global work experiences, or, in other words, international work experiences. Li et al. (2013) stated that international work experience is a crucial and unique learning context that people from different cultures visit a new culture with short-term or long-term immersion. Previous studies have argued that expatriates may have greater cross-cultural adjustment if they more communicate with local people and local culture (Bochner et al., 1986; Bochner et al., 1971; Brein & David, 1971; Brislin, 1981; Guthrie, 1975).

2.6.2 The Review of research on international experience

Work experience is more important than national boundaries in terms of employees’ developing their global skills and carrying out critical business actives (Stroh et al., 2005). Recent on international work has focused on expatriation (sending employees

overseas) and repatriation (bringing these employees home) (e.g., Bolino 2007; Kraimer et al., 2009; Takeuchi, 2010). Due to the forces of globalization increasingly affecting organizations, an increasing number of employees are called on for international work experiences (Chen et al., 2010; Stahl et al. 2002; Thomas et al., 2005). While, this study focuses on international work experience, which has played an important role in international business and is considered a vital asset (e.g., Carpenter et al., 2001; Sambharya, 1996) and as a source of advantage for multinational companies. Furthermore, overseas working experience is a key requirement for expatriates' promotion to higher-level positions (Carpenter et al., 2001; Daily, Certo, & Dalton, 2000). And the researcher would like to add previous experience on working in a multinational company or with foreigners as moderation to find the relationship between international working experience and job performance.

International working experience has been considered essential for developing global leadership skills (Jokinen, 2005; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). Moreover, expatriates' international work experience has been given considerable attention in much prior research (e.g., Aycan, 1997; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Morley et al., 1997; Waxin, 2004; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Going to a different culture is often difficult for expatriates; it may be confusing or disorienting, and most will experience culture shock for at least two months in the new environment (Arthur, 2002). However, although culture shock is sometimes viewed as a barrier, it is still a unique challenge and a learning experience for expatriates. International working experience is an important factor for expatriates' career success (Chura, 2006; Judge et al, 1995; Ng et al. 2005). The international experience could help employees' careers (e.g., Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005). However, in the prior survey, only 34% of HR professionals believed that

overseas work experience could help an employees' career (GMAC Global Relocation Services, 2004). In other words, there remains some debate as to whether international experience influences expatriates' career, namely their success in multinational companies, positively or negatively.

It was believed that expatriates' previous international experience affect their cultural knowledge development and then different cultural behaviours (Kim & Slocum, 2008; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Bandura (1997) has a theoretical foundation that there is a positive relationship between expatriates' previous international experience and cultural intelligence. Based on Bandura's (1977) social learning theory we can know that transferring knowledge and information leads people to learn. That means people may contact with local people and learn their knowledge, information, and skills when they come to a foreign country from their observation (Aycan, 1977; Black et al., 1991). In other words, through previous international experience can help people to know better the new cultures and give them more knowledge and information about the new country. Previous studies have confirmed that international experience is an important factor that contributes to the development of cultural intelligence (e.g., Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Takeuchi et al., 2006). As Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2011: 318) reported that "As national economies become more interconnected, one way for students to expand their knowledge of other societies and languages, and thus improve their prospects in globalized sectors of the labour market, such as multi-national corporations or research, is to study in tertiary education institutions in countries other than their own." It is important to know that international experience affects cultural intelligence because educational places and companies depend heavily on the assumption that international experiences can acquire from

individual triaging and development programs (Chen et al., 2010); however, how international experience influence the development of cultural intelligence has not been found (Takeuchi et al., 2006; also see Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Previous studies have confirmed that international experience influences cultural intelligence (Crowne, 2008, 2013a; Koo et al., 2012; Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Pless et al., 2011). In addition, Crowne (2008) demonstrated that people who have worked or learn in foreign countries will have a higher level of cultural intelligence than those who only go abroad on holidays. Parker and McEvoy (1993) found that international living experience is positively related to general adjustment. The successful adaptation of expatriates may depend on how well they can learn from experience in overseas assignments (Ratiu, 1983; Porter & Tansky, 1999; Spreitzer et al., 1997). Similarly, Black et al. (1991) and Parker and McEvoy (1993) affirm that international working experience plays an important role in expatriate adjustment. In addition, Takeuchi (2010) concluded that international work experience in similar cultural contexts is more related to expatriates' psychological workplace stress than international work experience in dissimilar cultural contexts. Li et al (2012) found evidence to suggest that overseas work experience is positively related to the level of CQ (cultural intelligence) of international managers. Zhu et al. (2016) stated that prior international experience influences expatriates' longitudinal performance is fairly limited. Stefan (2005) confirmed that previous international experience would relate positively to expatriate job performance; however, previous experience on working in multinational companies or with foreigners could help expatriates adjust to a new workplace faster than those who do not have this experience (Moon et al., 2012). Previous experience of working in a multinational company or with foreigners could enhance expatriates' international working experience and job performance.

Searle and Ward (1990) note that if a person has experienced a friendship with somebody from the same culture as their new host country, it is likely that they will find it easier to adjust to the new culture. Therefore, it can be argued that any previous experience with the host culture should enhance the ability of the expatriate to adjust. Black (1988) affirms the positive correlation between work adjustment and the length of international work, whilst Shaffer and colleagues (1999) cite no correlation found between these two factors.

It is the fact that experience is an important predictor of adaptive performance (e.g. Allworth & Hesketh, 1999; Griffin & Hesketh, 2003; Pulakos et al., 2002). In addition, Griffin and Hesketh (2003) demonstrated that prior experience is positively related to adaptive performance. Takeuchi (2005) asserts that prior international non-work-related or work-related experience, spouse and tenure influence expatriates' adjustment as do some issues of multinational companies, such as knowledge management, career advancement, promotion, turnover, training and so on. Furthermore, a number of researchers found an influence of spouse-expatriate interaction (e.g., Caligiuri et al., 1998); personality (Caligiuri, 2000); individual characteristics (e.g., parent's ethnic background, a network of friends with different cultural background, a network of friends with different cultural backgrounds and nationality of significant others); language, culture, family characteristics, such as a spouse, work-family conflict, children's/parental demands (e.g., Osherson & Dill, 1983; Bedeian et al., 1988; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001) and so forth. All these factors have been found to influence work experience for expatriates. However, non-work experience (work motivation, work knowledge, and skills, work-related attitude) also influences international working experience. For instance, Black (1988) found that the length of

international work experience is positively related to work adjustment. The expatriate transition requires a person to adapt to both new work and living environments that maybe culturally very different from previous experience. Previous studies have studied previous overseas work experience that could influence expatriates' adjustment (Li, 2015); however, in this study will try to find international work experience is positively related to adaptation and cultural intelligence, respectively. In addition, Uen et al. (2018) found that previous international work experience and previous international non-work experience are positively related to cultural intelligence. These findings could test the relationship among expatriates international work experience, adaptation, and adaptive performance in China, where has a unique culture for expatriates to adapt to. This part will fill the gaps. Through this can provide expatriates knowledge to deal with their unpredictable and complex work situation, and then adjust to a new environment successfully (Kanungo & Misra, 1992) to cope with uncertain issues. Hence the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3: International work experience is positively related to Expatriates' Cultural Intelligence in China.

H4: International work experience is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.

H5: International work experience is positively related to Expatriates Adaptive Performance in China.

2.7 Ethnocentrism

Mol et al. (2005) and Shaffer et al. (2006) argue that expatriation is not simply a passive process in which support is either given or withheld, but one in which the expatriate

must play an active role. It is well understood that each expatriate will interact in their unique way to the support offered (see Mol et al., 2005; Shaffer et al., 2006 for reviews); however, McKnight et al. (1998) argued that those who come from ethnocentric cultures will tend to segregate themselves away from the host culture, more than the lesser ethnocentric cultures. Along with McKnight et al. (1998), Hofstede and McCrae (2004) state that ethnocentrism within a host country can often be found to be the result of pre-existing stereotypes around foreigners being untrustworthy and can result in avoidance and uncertainty. Therefore, as Aycan (1997) demonstrated that it is reasonable to say that an expatriate who is entering into a highly ethnocentric host country will find it is harder to socialise and will be disassociated from the host culture. Similarly with highly ethnocentric expatriates, who are more likely to distance themselves more from the host country culture and adjust in the host country (Sinangil & Ones, 2003), even have culture shock (Sims & Schraeder, 2004). In this study, the researcher would like to test the relationship between expatriates' ethnocentrism and adaptation in China to find out whether expatriates' ethnocentrism will decrease their adaptation or not.

2.7.1 The definition of Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism is the opposite of cosmopolitanism, which has generally been highlighted as the tendency to view one's traditions, culture, and patterns of behaviour as no better than other distinct traditions, cultures, and behaviours. Shaffer et al. (2006) explain how ethnocentricity can negatively affect an accurate depiction of the behaviours of host country nationals, whilst Black (1990) paints ethnocentrism as a very black and white view of the world, with those holding this viewpoint believing only

their traditions and behaviours to be “right” and all others as “wrong”. Gouttefarde (1992) takes this further, explaining that ethnocentrism generates insecurity, mistrust, and prejudice in people and is the opposite of being cosmopolitan, which means people’s traditions and culture are not better than the other traditions and culture, ultimately leading people to have stronger urges to return to their home country. This is particularly prevalent when considering China as a host country and the misconceptions associated with Chinese host country nationals (Mendenhall et al., 1985), through this personal behaviours can restrain people’s cultural and adjustment (Church, 1982; Stening, 1979). In general, with an ethnocentric mindset, one is restricting much of the cultural adaptation process, socially and at work, through one’s behaviours (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999). Even if ethnocentric individuals view their behaviour as correct, if it is, in fact, inappropriate in a given host culture, these individuals will still experience negative feedback and consequences associate with their inappropriate behaviour and would be subject to the affective responses of frustration and anxiety which in general enhance culture shock and inhibit adjustment in China.

2.7.2 The review of research on Ethnocentrism

Sumner (1906) demonstrated that ethnocentrism is a perspective in which one’s ways are the central point of everything, and everything else is measured and scaled around it. Ethnocentrism’s definition first came up with by Sumner (1906) and Levinson (1950); since then, it has been stated in a range of different ways; and then in 1993, Brislin agreed with this definition and added that believing in proper standards of behaviour could be seen as a way that people protect themselves against perceived threats from outsiders. Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik et al. (1950) highlighted ethnocentrism as a mindset in which people tend to reject those who are different from oneself and more

easily accept individuals who are similar to oneself. Drever (1952) furthered this definition by adding that it included views that one's race was in some way superior to that of other races, whilst LeVine and Campbell (1972) demonstrated that ethnocentrism infers provincialism ideology and narrow-minded society. Taylor and Jaggi (1974) were the first to introduce the idea of ethnocentric attributional bias, which proposes that people who hold ethnocentric viewpoints attribute positive characteristics to those within their insider group and attribute negative characteristics to those considered to be outside of their group. Due to ethnocentrism's threaten to the society Grant (1992, 1993), Grant and Brown (1995) argue that feeling threatened about one's own social identity can result in and foster ethnocentrism, which can be seen when people differentiate themselves from those outside of their perceived in-group, especially along with stereotypical dimensions. Neuliep and his associates (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997, 2001; Neuliep et al., 2001) argue that ethnocentrism should not be viewed as a personality defect, but along a continuum, as they believe all humans are to some degree ethnocentric. As a matter of fact, Hofstede (1991) links the relationship between ethnocentrism and a society of people to that of egocentrism and the individual. And then he goes on to explain that when first born, humans are naturally nothing but egocentric. It is only later on in life that awareness of others is developed, allowing us to perceive the concept of others, and still, then, our only perceptions of the world are that of our immediate family. Not until much later on in life, we are able to observe outside of our family homes and then become aware of other tribes, clans, and communities. Hofstede argues that by this point, ethnocentrism is already established and engrained within us. However, Neuliep and McCroskey (1997) argued that ethnocentrism can be described instead of pejorative. Ethnocentrism has a special function when an individual's tribe is being attacked to ethnocentrism continuum's end, and then it has to sacrifice their central group for the willingness and patriotism. On the

other hand, an individual with a continuum may treat their way as the right way only and cause discrimination, prejudice, and then ethnic cleansing. At this point we treat them as ethnocentric, people will regard other cultures from their own culture. That means, based on their culture to evaluate other cultures and an individual with a different culture. It can be treated as a negative point and usage for people's inferiority with a different culture.

Neuliep et al. (2005), Neuliep and McCroskey (1997), Pocovnicu and Vasilache (2012) stated ethnocentrism as a sociological concept in which humans relate only with their own culture and people and reject those who they class as outside of this. In the context of expatriation, the researchers have argued similarly to Denver, in that ethnocentrism is the view that one's customs, traditions, and norms are in some way "correct" and other country's customs, norms, and traditions are "wrong" (Black & Gregersen, 1990; Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999; Mol et al., 2005; Shaffer et al., 2006). Neuliep et al. (2005), Neuliep and McCroskey (1997), and Pocovnicu and Vasilache (2012) added that ethnocentrism includes the feeling of superiority of one's own country or ethnic identity group to identify their in-group but refuse their out-group. Procovicu and Vasilache (2012) agreed with this construct, including the feelings of one's own country's standards and customs being superior and universally and intrinsically true, comparative to those of other cultures lesser, untrue customs and stands. It is also treated out-group as negatively (Neuliep et al., 2005; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997).

Expatriates from ethnocentric cultures have been found to experience higher levels of anxiety when moving abroad (Stephan et al., 1995) and therefore, as a measure to

reduce their anxiety, avoid inter-cultural exchanges which negatively affects their ability to carry out their job roles (Neuliep, 2012; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). Those who display higher ethnocentric traits will be less likely to benefit from the support offered from the host nationals, as they believe them to be inferior, less competent and less capable (see discussion in Neuliep et al., 2005; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997; Pocovnicu & Vasilache, 2012). Thus, it follows that ethnocentric nationals would be less likely to benefit from any support offered by host nationals due to their disregard for the host nationals' intelligence, knowledge and skills (Greenberg & Rosenfield, 1979; Hewstone, 1990; Pocovnicu & Vasilache, 2012). Researchers agree that judging the attitudes, values, and host country nationals before thoroughly understanding them tend to perpetuate misunderstanding, reinforce negative stereotypes, and inhibit relationship development (Elmer, 2002; Priest & Priest, 2008; Shaffer et al., 2006; Storti, 1999).

In 1990 Black confirmed that ethnocentricity is negatively related to all facets of adjustment. Ethnocentric expatriates experience greater anxiety when entering a new culture (Stephan et al., 1995) and avoid cross-cultural interactions in an effort to reduce their anxiety, thus potentially impeding their performance on the assignment (Neuliep, 2012; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). Caligiuri (2016) tested the ethnocentrism moderate the relationship between the perceived support in the host national environment and performance. Yet to date, no research has tested the relationship between expatriate ethnocentrism and adaptation, the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptations. In addition, Shirley et al. (2016: 13) said “future research should extend outcomes of categorization (e.g. expatriate adjustment; expatriate performance)”. Caligiuri (2016) gave the same suggestion for future study. In addition, there have not

any publications about expatriates' ethnocentrism in China, especially given that China has a unique culture. Therefore, through this research could know that ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates adaptability to help multinational companies in China to avoid this problem and to fill the gap in academic study.

Hence the following hypotheses are proposed:

H6: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptation in China.

H7: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptive performance in China.

2.8 Experiential Learning Theory

Learning is defined as “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience” (Kolb, 1984:41). According to Kolb (1984) defined, “the learning model portrays two dialectically related modes of grasping experience – concrete experience (CE) and abstract conceptualization – and two dialectically related modes of transforming experience – reflective observation and active experimentation.” Experiential learning is often misunderstood as being a set of tools and techniques to provide learners with experiences from which they can learn. Others have used the term to describe learning that is a mind-less recording of experience. However, experiential learning is above all a philosophy of education based on what Dewey (1938:31) called a “theory of experience.” Dewey (1938) argues that while traditional education had little need for theory since the practice was determined by tradition, the experiential approach to education needs a sound theory of experience to guide its conduct. Based on Learning

Flexibility Index, expatriates' learning flexibility will be discussed in the following parts.

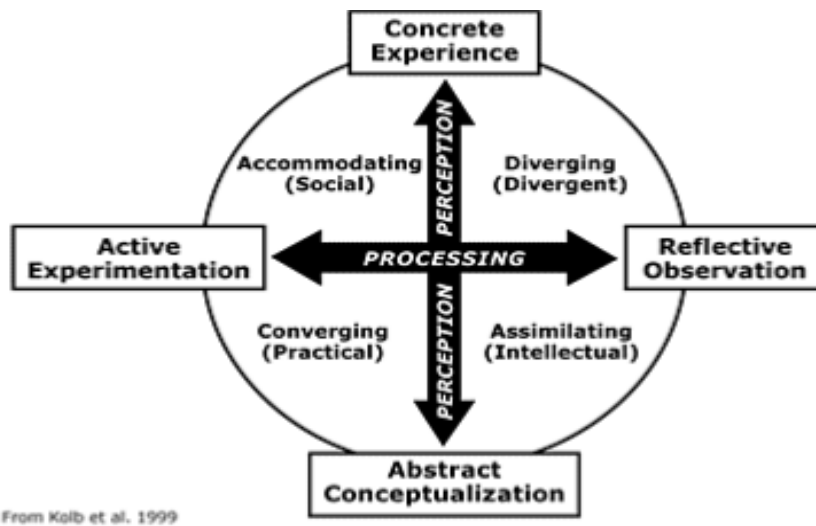
2.8.1 The Definition of the Experiential Learning Theory

Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995) demonstrated that Knowledge is believed to be a product of learning from experience. Boyatzis and Kolb (1995) demonstrated that learning is a measurement that people adapt and acquire new knowledge and skills development through communication with the direct situation. Adaptive Flexibility was calculated by Adaptive Style Inventory (ASI—Boyatzis & Kolb, 1993). Nowadays Kolb (2010) introduced Learning Flexibility instead of adaptive flexibility, which was based on the development of ELT's model to improve people's integrative complexity level (Kolb, 1984).

The Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) draws on the work of those twentieth-century scholars – notably, William James, John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky, Carl Jung, Paulo Freire, Carl Rogers, among others – who placed experience at the centre of the learning process, envisioning an educational system that was learner centred. Experiential Learning Theory is based on the resolution of the dual dialectics of action/reflection and experience/abstraction learning cycle. Experiential learning theory studies people in management positions and their means and ways of acquiring and then transforming new experiences into the beneficial and motivating life experience, which often leads to those managers developing more in their roles and feeling much more satisfied within their lives (Kaye, 2002). Experience Learning Theory includes four

dynamic aspects of learning, which are cyclical by nature: Concrete Experience (CE), Reflective Observation (RO), Abstract Conceptualization (AC), and Active Experimentation (AE). Its approach is holistic, defining learning as a process of human adjustment and encompassing the whole of a person when looking at this process. Therefore, Experience Learning Theory can be used in all aspects of life and not only in educational settings. The holistic approach and essence of Experience Learning Theory, therefore, can be utilised on all levels of human society, from the individual, in large corporations, and to society in general. Research into Experience Learning Theory has been carried out for over forty years, in various countries around the world supporting its usage in varying educational specializations, cultures, and life contexts. Over 3000 research studies are included in The 2009 Experiential Learning Theory Bibliographies (Kolb & Kolb, 2009a & b). This multi-faceted and holistic framework and approach provide a process for adult learning which correlates to what is already known about how humans acquire new knowledge, develop and grow as human beings (Kolb, 1999).

This multi-dimensional learner uniqueness is evidenced by the fact that, since Kolb coined the term in the late 1960s to distinguish styles of learning from experience from cognitive styles (Kolb et al., 1971), there are to date nearly 100 established learning style frameworks and assessments. Based on the foundational “theory of experience” of Dewey (1938) and Lewin (1951), experiential learning is defined by Kolb (1984) as “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience.” It focuses on the important role played by experience in the learning process and a process of adaptation to the whole world, which includes the integrated functioning of the entire organism- thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving. Experiential learning theory, as highlighted by Kolb (1984), could help leaders to learn from experience (Hoover et al., 2010; Kayes, 2002; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004).



From Kolb et al. 1999

Figure 2. 2 Experiential Learning Theory

2.8.2 The Review of research on Experience Learning Theory

This present research uses experiential learning theory (ELT), which offers a fundamentally different view of the learning process from that of the behavioural theories of learning based on an empirical epistemology or the more implicit theories of learning that underlie traditional educational methods which are based mainly on a rational idealist epistemology (Kolb 1984). From this, different perspectives emerged with some very different suggestions for the conduct of education, appropriate relationships between learning, work, and other life activities, and the creation of knowledge itself (Kolb, 1984). Based on the foundational “theory of experience” of Dewey (1938) and Lewin (1951), Kolb (1984: 41) defines learning as “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience, knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience”. The theory focuses on the important role played by experience in the learning process and in the

process of adaptation to the whole world, which includes integrated functioning of the total organism- thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving. Experiential learning theory as stated by Kolb (1984) could help leaders to learn from experience (Hoover et al., 2010; Kayes, 2002; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Through ELT we can have a better understanding of learning and flexibility than before. ELT can give directions for people to develop their design and learning stages. In addition, it can also give directions for those who have interested in learning organizations an assessment and theory measurement in different companies and society's levels. Two fundamental processes, "grasping the experience" and "transforming the experience", are both essential for learning. Furthermore, Kolb and Kolb (2005) argued that analysing the relationship between learning contexts and learning style could lead to enhanced learning performance. This could be costly, as some managers could learn from experiences, while others may not (Hill, 2001). The relationship between learning ability and international experience is not widely known (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Without this knowledge, multinational companies cannot use the international working experience to develop global leadership abilities (Kohonen, 2005). Through ELT we can have a better understanding of learning and flexibility than before. ELT can give directions for people to develop their design and learning stages. In addition, it can also give directions for those who have interested in learning organizations an assessment and theory measurement in different companies and society's levels.

2.8.3 Learning Flexibility

In the past, learning flexibility was known as adaptive flexibility, and research was carried out with the Adaptive Style Inventory (ASI—Boyatzis & Kolb, 1993). The ASI was initially undertaken in order to assess an individuals' varying levels of complexity

as they advanced through the stages from specialized to the integrated stage of the Experience Learning Theory development model (Kolb, 1984). In using this instrument, an individual can measure the varying outcomes and responses an individual will provide when faced with a variety of different situational demands, thus measuring their adaptive flexibility. This idea originated from a theory which sought to prove that if an individual displays systematic variability in their responses to various contextual demands, and then one could reason a higher level of integrative development, as this implies higher levels of meta-cognition and systematic development in an individual's guiding behaviour (Kolb & Kolb, 2009).

The link between integrative development and learning flexibility has been proven by many researchers (Kolb, 1984), with early research citing a positive relationship between adaptive flexibility and ego development on Loevinger's sentence completion instrument (Kolb & Wolfe, 1981). Higher levels of adaptive flexibility in individuals have been proven to correlate to higher levels of self-direction, differentiation in personal relationships, less conflict in seemingly more complex lives and a wider variety of constructs to determine their lives. Further research into adaptive flexibility confirmed these theories, particularly Perlmutter, who in 1990 found important links between Loevinger's ego development instrument and adaptive flexibility when studying 51 medical professionals. Thompson (1999) sampled 50 professionals from various fields and found that learners who were self-directed were found to have more significant levels of adaptive flexibility than those who were not self-directed.

A further study was carried out by Mainemalis, Boyatzis, and Kolb (2002) who compared and contrasted learning style in the context of ASI adaptive flexibility and learning style as measured by the Kolb Learning Style Inventory (KLSI—Kolb, 1999, 2005). Their hypothesis was that learners who were balanced equally in their approach to learning, in terms of conceptualising/ experiencing and acting/reflecting would display higher levels of learning flexibility. This was proven to be true for the dialects of conceptualising/reflecting; however, no significant results were found for the dialect of acting/reflecting. On the other hand, evidence linking preferences for concreteness over abstraction with learning flexibility were found, as a KLSI AC-CE score. This evidence raised questions around learning flexibility being a function of contextual sensitivity or whether it is a function of balancing opposing learning styles. However, there is evidence that learners are able to adapt their learning styles according to the demand of different learning tasks. Several studies suggest that students shift their learning strategies to match the learning demands of a particular discipline (Cornett, 1983; Entwistle, 1981; Kolb, 1984; Ornstein, 1977). Learning effectiveness is increased when an individual can move from one learning mode to the other in the learning cycle, entering the different corresponding regions of the learning space.

China has a unique learning style. The impact of Confucius can still be seen today in Chinese cultural values and variables, with Confucius often being referred to as both the originator and sustained of Chinese civilisation today (Chen, 1990). Elashmawi (2001) sees Chinese people as submissive to a hierarchical authoritarian structure, with Chinese people behaving submissively towards management and authority within both professional and non-professional contexts. According to Marquardt, Berger, and Loan (2004), Chinese people need structure and order in their lives which revolves around

conforming and adhering to many rules, regulations, policies, and procedures. It is incredibly important for Chinese people to be aware of everyone's status in the hierarchy, including their own, in order to be able to display the correct levels of appreciation for seniority, capability, and knowledge. As a result of this communication is often formal and stunted, focussing on the correct usage of etiquette and adhering to the correct channels and rituals. If bad news is to be delivered, this is done through a third party, for example, in order to save face. These values can be seen as reflective of the Confucian values of discernment, diligence, sincerity, and caution. Business exchange in China is conducted through networks of personal relationships, which is widely referred to as *guanxi*. It is vital to be well connected within China and to be properly introduced within business exchanges, as this is how almost all business is done in China. It is essential to reciprocate all efforts made towards oneself and one's business, which includes those carried out by friends, relatives, neighbours, or colleagues. *Guanxi* is an essential aspect of Chinese life and must be taken very seriously (Elashmawi, 2001). "Conversations with people with whom you have no *guanxi* 'connections' can be very frustrating. You will be met with a stream of negatives ... or some dismissive phrase. Or you will simply be ignored. There does not seem to be much you can do about such responses" (Kane, 2006: 157). Thus it is crucial for people moving to China to attempt to make connections with local business people immediately and to begin to start creating their network of people (Morrison et al., 1994). Due to the unique culture, there is more information to learn for expatriates if they would like to have a better performance in China.

Yamazaki and Kayes (2004) state that expatriation requires the development of survival skills and as a result of this, the learning style of an expatriate will inevitably be affected

by their new culture. Spreitzer et al. (1997) argue that in order to successfully adjust to a new culture, one must successfully transition through many problems that require significant learning and for this reason. Kolb (1984) refers to learning as the primary force in adjustment to a new culture. Many researchers refer to learning as a key element in adaptation to a new circumstance and particularly in the context of expatriation. However, there are few studies that have focused on the relationship between adaptation and learning flexibility, especially expatriates adapt to Chinese culture. Due to the unique Chinese culture, expatriates have to learn to adapt and have a better performance in China, this is the target of this study.

This study is based on Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory and using KLSI 4.0 which includes the learning flexibility measurement (LFI)- LFI is a new measure that replaces the ASI, trying to contribute to the deeper understanding of factors that influence expatriate job performance. Furthermore, based on Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory could find the relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation, and adaptive performance. As a result, this study will demonstrate that expatriates with higher levels of learning flexibility have a better performance in China. If expatriates have a higher level of learning flexibility, they can adapt to live and work in China easier, and they can have a better adaptive performance in China; on the contrary, if expatriates have a lower level of learning flexibility, they may have difficulty to adapt to live and work in China, and they may have a lower adaptive performance in China.

Hence the following hypotheses are proposed:

H8: Learning flexibility is positively related to expatriates' Adaptation in China.

H9: Expatriates' higher learning flexibility is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

2.9 Cultural distance

Harrison et al (2004) state that international companies vary in how strongly they expect an expatriate to adjust and adhere to new foreign cultures and environments. The term cultural distance is used to describe the varying degrees of differences between a home country and a host country (Shenkar, 2001); particularly taking into account basic aspects of culture such as; core values, beliefs, customs, and rituals, as well as legal, political, and economic systems (Adler, 2008; Hofstede, 1980). Black et al. (1991), Ronen and Shenkar (1985), propose that cultural adjustment is much harder when there is a greater degree of cultural distance at play. It can also be incredibly detrimental to multinational companies, who are more likely to lack the insight to the local businesses and culturally distant markets (e.g., Luo, 2002; Zaheer, 1995). The results of cultural distance often negatively impact a team of people, affecting their ability to communicate effectively, share ideas, and interact as a team. As *guanxi* plays such a huge part in Chinese life, expatriates relocating to China must also deal with this issue, which furthermore distances them from their host nationals. This study will analyse the relationship among cultural distance, learning flexibility, and adaptive performance.

2.9.1 The definition of cultural distance

Cultural distance is the extent to which the culture of the home country differs from that

of the host country (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1984). Demographic or organisational culture can be seen as the source of varying communication styles and differences in values. Cultural distance is created when people begin to view their communication styles and values as separate and different from those of others. That is, if expatriates are sent to a foreign country where the culture is quite different from their own, they may feel anxious before they go there and need considerable preparation and adjustment. Conversely, if expatriates are sent to a foreign country where the culture is similar to their own, they may have low levels of anxiety before they go there; they do not need to prepare a great deal and expect to have to make a little adjustment there. However, they would experience shock due to their lack of expectation of the adjustment required, whether the culture is similar or not.

2.9.2 The Review of research on cultural distance

A national culture is shaped by the distinct values, traditions, norms, beliefs, and shared ideas held by the people. National culture has now become a vital aspect of international business research, due to Hofstede's (1980) seminal study (Shenkar, 2001). Barkema, Bell, and Pennings (1996) state that there is a distinct negative correlation between successful expatriation rates and the demands of cultural adaptation. Language plays a huge role in cultural adaptation and when considering cost, language becomes a significant positive for indigenous organisations. Ghemawat (2001) and Shenkar (2001) propose that cultural differences, at a macro level, can be identified as differences in social norms, religions, languages, and ethnicities and can be referred to and organised as the cultural distance between a host country and home country. Lack of information about the environment, the law, transport, and coordination charges, as well as differences in regulations and other factors, may lead to costs for multinational

companies that indigenous companies do not need to pay (Hymer, 1976; Zaheer, 1995; Miller & Eden, 2006). Different cultures could cause difficulties for internal human resource management (IHRM) when doing business abroad (Dowling et al., 1999; Gerhart & Fang, 2005). While, multinational companies have to address the problem that employees have with different cultural backgrounds and cooperating in multinational teams (McGaughey et al., 1997; Tanure et al., 2009). Due to cultural distance, expatriates' working and living adjustment also present difficulties; in addition, the cultural difference will affect the applicability of recruitment and selection procedures, performance appraisal policies, compensation management, and training and development activities (Ayca, 2005; Jenkins & Mockaitis, 2010). Ineffective management of cultural differences could lead to expatriates' failure and substantial costs for multinational companies (Dowling et al., 1999; Johnson et al., 2006). Cultural distance refers to the difference between the cultural norms and values of the host country and the culture of the home country. The concept of cultural distance is widely used in multinational enterprise management research. The cultural distance focuses on foreign investment, market strategy, entering a model selection, parent company control, management capacity transfer, adaptation strategy implementation, and so on (Cao & Zhang, 2017).

According to Froese and Peltokorpi (2013), as expatriates adjust more easily in culturally similar countries than culturally dissimilar countries, they may find it stressful to live and work in culturally similar countries; however, expatriates may also feel stressed by living and working in culturally dissimilar countries. Expatriates may have the ability to predict and explain host country behaviour in culturally similar countries; however, it is difficult for expatriates to live, work, adjust to and identify host country

behaviour in culturally dissimilar countries. Indeed, Parker and McEvoy (1993) assert that expatriates find it more difficult to adjust to culturally similar countries than they do to culturally dissimilar countries. Furthermore, Peltokorpi (2008) contends that cultural distance is negatively related to non-work and work-related adjustment. Although non-work and work adjustment has a relationship with performance, few studies have examined the relationship between cultural distance and expatriates' performance (e.g. Babiker et al, 1980; Morosini, 1998; Tihanyi, 2005). Froese (2013) argues that cultural distance has a negative impact on expatriate job satisfaction. Through learning, culture could improve performance (Ghoshal, 1987). Hemmasi and Downes (2012) confirmed that there is a negative correlation between expatriate adjustment and cultural distance in the general work environment. Yamazaki and Kayes (2004) built on Kolb's model to specifically include national and cultural influences on learning styles and the process of learning. Several empirical cross-cultural studies have agreed that the culture within a country shapes how that person learns and this plays a huge role in how people assimilate from one culture to another (Auyeung & Sands, 1996; Hayes & Allinson, 1988; Hoppe, 1990; Katz, 1988; Yuen & Lee, 1994). Hofstede (1997) has supported and argued that an individual's learning modes from their socialization experiences will be shaped by a country's culture. Within the varying studies, the results showed learners prefer a more active method of learning. Yuen and Lee (1994) reported their learners to be more abstract and less concrete. Yamazaki and Kayes (2004) state that it is likely that an expatriate will assimilate to the learning style of their new home country over time, as the process of adjustment is one of learning new skills and survival. Furthermore, as we discuss above that adaptive flexibility is positively related to expatriates' job performance in China, therefore, cultural distance could influence expatriates' adaptive flexibility and performance in China.

One of the most prominent factors and predictors for adaptation and well ability between intercultural travellers is cultural distance (Dunbar, 1994; Furnham & Bochner, 1982; Geeraert & Demoulin, 2013; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward et al., 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 1999). The greater the distance the harder it will be to adapt. Uncertainty is one of the most prevalent factors when considering how an expatriate is able to adjust to a new environment (Black et al., 1991; Kauppinen, 1994). It has been stated that the greater the distance between the expatriates' home country and their new home country, the more problems with adjustment are likely to be faced (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). However, Selmer (1997a, 1997b) stated that in his findings, Western expatriates reported fewer concerns with adjusting to the lifestyle in China than ethnic Chinese expatriates, in spite of the fact that Western expatriates experience significantly more cultural distance. Similarly, this was also found to be true for the expatriates from Western China (Chinese from Western countries sent by MNEs to China) are less adjusted than those from North America in China. One might consider cultural distance as a factor that could affect expatriates' performance in China. As Audrey (2012) highlighted, studies suggest that adaptive performance can be meaning differentiated from other facets of performance (Hesketh et al., 1996; Hesketh & Neal, 1999). Recent research, however, suggests that adaptive performance may be an important, perhaps even separate, component of job performance (Han, 2008). Further, Pulakos et al. (2000, 2002, and 2006) when taking into consideration what adaptive performance was, first brought light to changes. They stated that adaptive performance may be best thought of as a general factor of job performance that may be manifested in multiple ways. And successful adaptive performance requires that employees adapt quickly and easily, which the researcher needs to test the relationship between adaptation and adaptive performance. Faruk (2014) tested the relationship among cultural intelligence, adaptive performance, and self-efficacy. Oolders et al. (2008) have demonstrated a

positive link between cultural intelligence and adaptive performance. One of the dimensions of adaptive performance in Learning New Tasks, Technologies, and Procedures. This aspect of adaptive performance has become significant, largely due to the ever increasing rate of technological advancement and focus on continued professional development. In today's society, employees are expected to continually better themselves (Hesketh & Neal, 1999). Cultural distance is an important factor in the internationalization of companies (Cao & Zhang, 2017). Furthermore, until now the researcher could not find the relationship among learning flexibility, cultural distance, and adaptive performance in any journals. The researcher could fill this gap to make a contribution to this study. Hence the following hypothesis is proposed:

H10: Cultural distance moderates the positive relationship between learning flexibility and expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

H11: Cultural distance is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

Based on the theories about adaptation, cultural intelligence and adaptive performance, we have proposed the positively between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance, will try to find out the relationship among Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance; furthermore, based on the theories about ethnocentrism, adaptation and adaptive performance, we have proposed the negatively relationship between ethnocentrism and adaption, ethnocentrism and adaptive performance, positively relationship between adaptation and adaptive performance, will try to find out the relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance; moreover, based on the theories about learning flexibility, cultural intelligence, adaptation and adaptive performance, we have proposed the positively relationship between learning flexibility and adaptation, learning flexibility

and adaptive performance, cultural intelligence and adaptation, adaptation and adaptive performance, in addition based on the Process by Hayes to try to find out the relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance; and then, based on the theories about ethnocentrism, cultural intelligence, adaptation and adaptive performance and the Process by Hayes will try to find out the relationship among Ethnocentrism, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance. And hypothesis ten will use the Process by Hayes to find out the relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, and Adaptive Performance. Based on these single hypotheses there are four more complicated hypotheses needed to be tested:

H12: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation in China.

H13: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation in China.

H14: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China.

H15: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China.

In these 15 hypotheses, five of them using Process by Hayes will be used to find more relationships to highlight in this study, and ten of 15 hypotheses will use multiple regression analysis to test these hypotheses. All in all, these findings will offer valuable insight for multinational companies for their selection and development of international talents in order to avoid expatriate failures. This study is trying to find whether these variables to affect expatriates' job performance and fill the gaps to help expatriates to have a better job performance in China.

2.10 Conclusion:

The literature review part has reviewed adaptation, cultural intelligence, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, cultural distance, international work experience, adaptive performance, and job performance. Furthermore, based on these definitions and theories has identified 15 hypotheses in this study to fill the research gaps:

H1: Adaptation is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

H2: Cultural intelligence is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.

H3: International work experience is positively related to Cultural Intelligence in China.

H4: International work experience is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.

H5: International work experience is positively related to Expatriates Adaptive Performance in China.

H6: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptation in China.

H7: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptive performance in China.

H8: Learning flexibility is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.

H9: Expatriates' higher learning flexibility is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

H10: Cultural distance moderates the positive relationship between learning flexibility and expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

H11: Cultural distance is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

H12: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation in China.

H13: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation in China.

H14: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China.

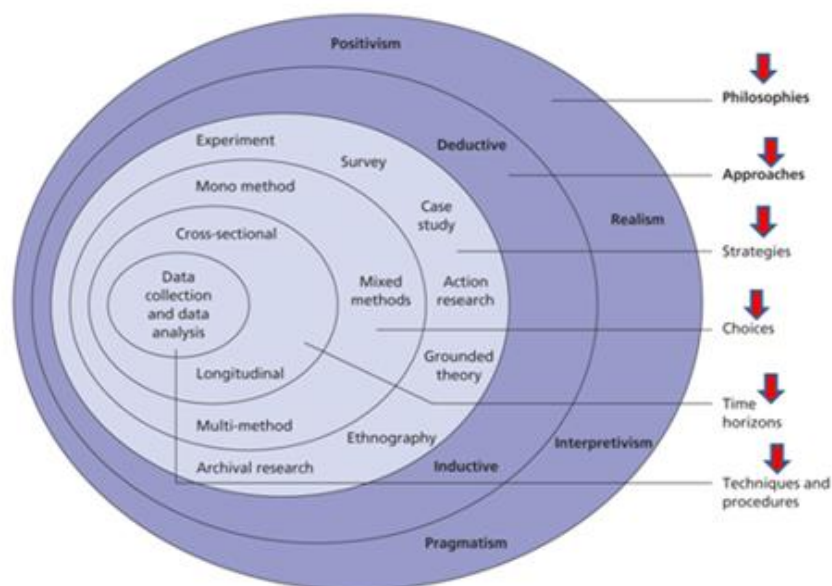
H15: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China.

In the following part which is the Methodology chapter will highlight the research philosophy and use of quantitative research method and qualitative research method to test these 15 hypotheses to support or reject the relationships in this study to make contributions.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The literature review provides 15 hypotheses and guidelines to answer the research questions and to explore the relationships among international work experience, cultural intelligence, adaptation, adaptive performance, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, cultural distance, and job performance. This section outlines the research methods to be used to test 15 hypotheses, answer the research questions, and make contributions to fill the gaps that were mentioned in the literature review. Appropriate research methods are required to test these hypotheses. According to Saunders et al. (2009) research 'onion' (Figure 3.1), the research processes will be conducted from the surface to the centre.



Source: Saunders et al. (2009; p108)

Figure 3. 1 Research Onion

This chapter begins with Research Philosophy, Research Approaches, Research strategy, Time Horizon, Research choice, Population and sampling for quantitative

research and qualitative research, and then how to design a questionnaire and interview questions for quantitative study and qualitative study, Research Instruments for each variables, measurement for each variables in this study, Pre-testing and piloting the questionnaire, Data Analysis Instruments for quantitative research in this study, reliability, and validity, Factor analysis for each variable and ethical consideration.

3.2 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy is a broad term relating to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge, which could support the researcher's strategy and the methods the researchers choose as part of the strategy. Social sciences always use paradigm (Saunders et al., 2009). Moreover, it plays an important role in the following parts of this study. Johnson and Clark (2006) argue that the important issue is not so much whether research should be philosophically informed, but how well the researcher is able to reflect upon his/her philosophical choices and defend them in relation to the alternatives he/she could have adopted. Researchers should not be under the impression that one research philosophy is better than another (Saunders et al., 2009). However, a particular research question can rarely be answered only within one philosophical domain, as suggested in the research 'onion' (Saunders et al., 2009). Ontology and epistemology are two ways of thinking about research philosophy, and it will affect the research process in your study. Saunders et al. (2009) indicate, "Research philosophy is an all-encompassing term that connects to the nature and development of knowledge. In

particular, pragmatism insists that research questions play an important role in determining ontology, epistemology, and axiology.”

Ontology concerns the nature of “reality” (Saunders et al., 2009); this research adopts an objective view to exploring social reality. While Epistemology concerns the constitution of acceptable knowledge in a field of research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Burrell and Morgan (1979) state that epistemology stresses the acceptable knowledge in a field of study from three aspects: positivism, interpretivism and realism. Positivism holds that the social world exists externally and objectively; it is closely related to quantitative research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). In comparison, an interpretive proposes that one’s experience and memories play an important role in making sense of the social world; it is that which is closely associated with qualitative research. Finally, realists argue ‘what the senses show us, as reality as the truth: that objects have an existence independent of the human mind’ (Saunders et al., 2009: 114). Saunders et al. (2009) also suggest that there is a similarity between realism and positivism in that both philosophies hold there to be a single, absolute truth.

In addition, ontology focuses on the nature of reality and is concerned with social phenomena that could be created by people’s viewpoints. On the one hand, objectivism focuses on the worlds that exist in people’s minds, while subjectivism places more emphasis on social phenomena that are created by individuals’ perspectives. In fact, both positivists and realists can address objective views of the world. Finally, researchers cannot influence people’s feelings to ensure that outcomes are objective. Moreover, the difference between positivism and realism is that some realists (critical realists) may interpret collected data by social conditioning (such as cultural experiences and world views), whereas, positivists do not add their understanding to the

research. On the other hand, interpretivism holds subjective views of the world, and they are part of what is being researched (Saunders et al., 2009).

This study aims to understand expatriate's adaptation, which is developed through work experience and find the link among learning flexibility, cultural intelligence, work experience, cultural distance, adaptive flexibility, and performance in China. Through testing hypotheses, it will take an objective approach and provide dynamic explanations for the identification of factors that could influence expatriates' success in China.

A correlation design in this study will measure the relationship between independent variables (Cultural Distance, Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, International Work Experience, Adaptation, and Learning Flexibility) and the dependent variables (Adaptive Performance); furthermore, the positive and negative or strong or weak relationships among these seven variables must be analysed in order to confirm or reject the 15 hypotheses in this study.

3.3 Research Approaches

The relationship between theory and data will be analysed through the research approaches using both the deductive and inductive approach: the deductive approach involves rigorous testing with comprehensive and systematic data to verify a theory (Zikmund, 2003). This means the research outcomes need to be verified thoroughly through the systematic usage of testing in order to evidence a theory. It explains causal relationships between variables, the way to achieve and measure regularities in human social behaviour, quantitatively, and generalise statistically, through using a selection

and range of sample size (Saunders et al., 2009). However, induction is the process of building theory by collecting data and identifying related themes and patterns (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Saunders et al. (2009) state that it is more appropriate to use the deductive approach for a small sample size than a large number of sample size (Saunders et al., 2009). According to Saunders et al. (2009), a deductive approach involves collecting quantitative data, while an inductive approach requires collecting qualitative data. Creswell (2014) said that quantitative strategies involve complex numerical investigations where the research formulates a hypothesis and the researchers engage in collecting data that either supports or rejects these hypotheses. A theory is formed first and then tested and checked deductively.

In this study, deductive approaches will be used to test hypotheses. First, all the relative theories and the 15 hypotheses deducted from it will drive the process of gathering data to verify the relationship among dependent variables (Adaptive Performance) and independent variables (Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, International Work Experience, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, and Cultural Distance). Secondly, using the interview method will be used to enrich the data and confirm hypothesis 3, 4, and 5 in this study. Qualitative methods such as interviews focus on people's viewpoints and the meaning assigned to ideas by people (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). In the inductive approach, researchers are personally involved in building theory based on multiple perspectives and the value systems of the participants and on how these influence their interpretation of reality (Saunders et al., 2009). The following table displays in detail the differences between the deductive and inductive approaches to

research.

Deduction emphasises	Induction emphasises
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• scientific principles• moving from theory to data• the need to explain causal relationships between variables• the collection of quantitative data• the application of controls to ensure validity of data• the operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition• a highly structured approach• researcher independence of what is being researched• the necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events• a close understanding of the research context• the collection of qualitative data• a more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses• a realisation that the researcher is part of the research process• less concern with the need to generalise

Source: Saunders et al. (2009)

Figure 3. 2 Comparison of inductive approach and deductive approach

3.4 Research strategy

There are seven research strategies can be used to collect data: experiment, survey, case study, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, and archival research (Saunders et al., 2009). Each strategy can be used for exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research (Yin, 2003). As Saunders et al. (2009) explained; scientific experiment, survey, and secondary data analysis can be used to collect quantitative data; however, action research, case study, ethnographic research, and ground theory research can be used to collect qualitative data. Both quantitative and qualitative research will be used in this study.

Experiment has strong social science and natural science research features (Saunders et al., 2009). The aim of an experiment is to find whether a dependent variable could be changed by an independent variable (Hakim, 2000). This study uses more complex experiments, which consider independent variables (Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, International Work Experience, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, and Cultural Distance)' relative importance.

Saunders et al. (2009) state that a survey is a common method used in business and management research. A survey allows the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way. Furthermore, using a survey strategy can give the researcher more control over the research process and, when sampling is used, it is possible to generate findings that are representative of the whole population at a lower cost and with less time required than it would collect data for the whole population (Saunders et al., 2009). Survey is a method for collecting quantitative data which is used to analyse inferential or descriptive statistics quantitatively (Saunders et al., 2009). One of the data collection techniques of this survey strategy is a questionnaire, which is used in this study to collect data to confirm or reject the 15 hypotheses.

In terms of the case study, Robson (2002) demonstrated this as 'a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon, within its real life context, using multiple sources of evidence'. Using a case study helps to highlight the understanding of the research (Morris & Wood, 1991). In this study, interviews were used with the aim of enhancing the understanding of this study.

Mono method and multiple methods are two kinds of research method choices. The multiple method choice is a method that involves more than one technique and various procedures to collect data and answer questions in research. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) stated that in business management the use of multiple methods research is increasing, to combine both quantitative research and qualitative research into one research study. It is also argued that using the multiple methods choice provides a better chance of gaining trustworthy answers to research questions that are still able to have meaning inferred from them. Mono method choice is a method that uses only one technique and procedure for data collection and analysis.

However, both quantitative research and qualitative methods will be used in this study to collect data. A questionnaire will be used for the data collection technique, to collect quantitative data.

Both structured interviews and unstructured interviews will be included in this study. The same 18 questions will be answered by 10 interviewees in the structured interview and the semi-structured interviews will be conducted in order to allow a deeper understanding of the expatriates' deep thoughts and support the quantitative research in this study.

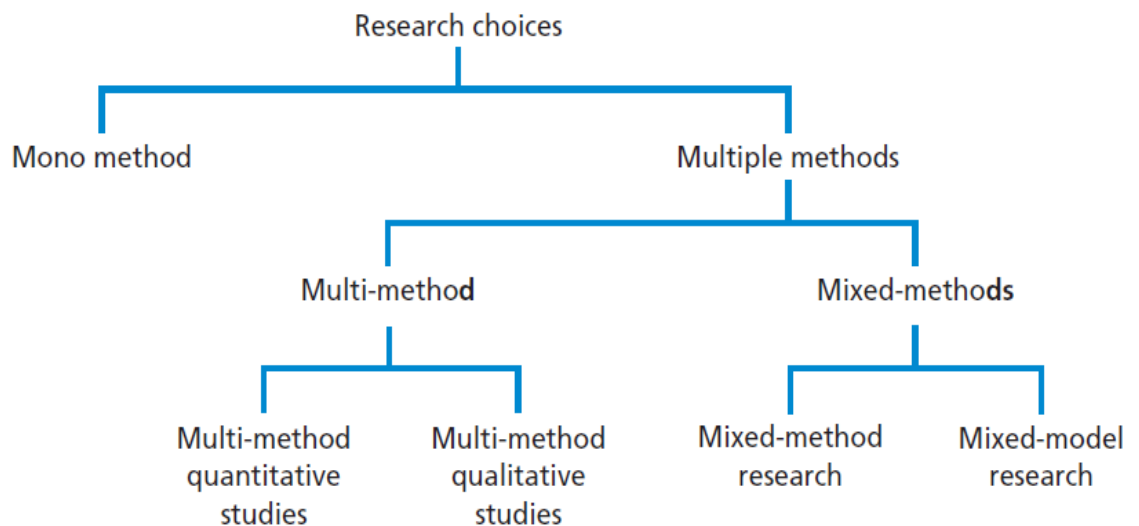
3.5 Time Horizon

In terms of the time period, there are two different horizons: cross-sectional and longitudinal for different types of study. Cross-sectional studies examine particular phenomenon at a particular time. However, longitudinal studies change and develop

over time. Adams and Schvaneveldt (1991) point out “that in observing people or events over time the researcher is able to exercise a measure of control over variables being studied, provided that they are not affected by research external to the world of business.” This means variable changes that are tracked over time by researchers can be more disciplined and controlled (Adams & Schvaneveldt, 1991). To compare these two different horizons, a small sample size and high cost are the limitations of the longitudinal study. It is difficult to collect a large sample size using a longitudinal study (Weiss & Heide, 1993). If a longitudinal study were used for a study with 224 sample sizes to be collected, the cost would be too great. However, for a cross-sectional study the lack of rich temporal insight for some researchers to provide variables’ causes problems (Bollen, 1989; Bowen & Wiersema, 1999; Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000), because “the data on them are collected more or less simultaneously, and the research does not (invariably because he or she cannot) manipulate any of the variables” (Bryman & Bell, 2007: 126). Edwards and Bagozzi (2000) state that it is important to control time and sequence and to consider causality between constructs, as in all research, time and sequence are important. The most effective and highly preferred method for this study would be a longitudinal study, as this would allow a more in-depth study and analysis of the factors that influence expatriates’ success in China over time. However, due to limited time, this is not possible. It is appropriate to use the cross-sectional approach when studies need to apply to different measurement scales based on theories and when there is a need to test externally oriented constructs; however, it is appropriate to use the longitudinal approach when studies need to observe the situation’s temporal nature, which cannot be done by a cross-sectional approach (Rindfleisch et al., 2008). The average length of international work experience for expatriates was 29 months in this study, which does not classify as temporal in nature.

Due to these reasons, a cross-sectional study will be carried out in order to analyse expatriates' job performance in China over a particular time in this study.

3.6 Research choice



Source: Saunders et al. (2009)

Figure 3. 3 Research choice

Saunders et al. (2009) highlight quantitative data as data that can be full of all research strategies. While qualitative data is non-numeric data that cannot be quantified.

Quantitative and qualitative data are used widely in business and management research and require both data collection techniques and data analysis procedures. Quantitative research predominantly involves any data collection techniques (such as questionnaires) or data analysis procedures (such as graphs or statistics) that generate or use numerical data. In contrast, qualitative research involves any data collection techniques (such as an interview) or data analysis procedures (such as categorizing data) that generate or use non-numerical data. Quantitative data, therefore, can refer to data other than words, pictures, video clips, etc. (Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) highlight that in triangulation different data collection methods are used- to highlight the meaning of the

data. Bryman (1992) pointed out that triangulation integrates quantitative research and qualitative research. However, for qualitative research and quantitative research, there are both advantages and disadvantages. Qualitative research generates words instead of numbers, which is softer and provides deeper insight; while quantitative research provides ‘hard’, ‘factual’ data (Barnham, 2014). This study will combine these two research methods to analyse data. The following section will outline the advantages and disadvantages of quantitative research and qualitative research to highlight the importance of using the two types as methods of data collection in this study.

3.6.1 Advantages of qualitative research

In the early stages of research, it is helpful to use qualitative research, as a strict plan has not yet been formed. In addition, qualitative research allows researchers to gain more detailed and rich data in terms of visual evidence or comprehensive written description. Qualitative research plays an advantageous part, particularly in the social sciences, due to its context and social meaning. Furthermore, as Finch (1984) stated; qualitative research using face-to-face data generating data can involve the trust and confidence between interviewees and interviewers. In addition, qualitative research generates words and aims to understand interviewees’ experiences, attitudes, and deeper insight. Barnham (2014) pointed out that qualitative research is about a phenomenon’s ‘what’, ‘how’ or ‘why’ instead of quantitative researches’ ‘how many’ or ‘how much’. Using qualitative research could enhance insight into the views of expatriates. The researcher is able to dig more into the expatriates’ thoughts, whilst using quantitative research limits this possibility. As a consequence, researchers can gain more data using a qualitative methodology, as opposed to quantitative.

3.6.2 Disadvantages of qualitative research

Barnham (2014) points out that within qualitative research, the researcher's personality is more important than in quantitative research. The quality of qualitative research is influenced by the skills and personal idiosyncrasies or biases of the researcher. In addition, Mason (1996) agreed that qualitative research requires the researcher's involvement during the whole process, and gives a subjective view of the research, its findings, and its participants. The results of which may be higher costs, a longer time is taken for data collection, or in finding more appropriate interviewees, which could cause delays of months or years. As Mason (1996) stated, qualitative researchers could not be satisfied with standardized or codified answers to ethical and political dilemmas.

In the following section, the advantages and disadvantages of qualitative study will be considered and although there are further disadvantages and advantages to consider when looking at qualitative research as a whole, only the following aspects will be discussed in this study. Firstly, bias may exist from the researcher. Secondly, the researcher may not be able to collect much data due to expatriates being too busy. Thirdly, the researcher has not interviewed expatriates before and may need the training to get these skills. Therefore, in this study qualitative research will be used to support quantitative research to enrich the data.

3.6.3 Advantages of quantitative research:

Barnham (2014) pointed out that before data collection begins, each part of the study needs to be designed. Using quantitative research is simply based on numbers, which is much easier to verify and put into a chart, a graph, or any other place, which also can be

much easier to read. The researcher can measure and analyse data using quantitative research, and analyse the relationship between a dependent variable and an independent variable in detail. Barnham (2014) suggested that it is more efficient to confirm or reject hypotheses using a questionnaire. The findings can be more objective using quantitative research to test hypotheses, as it uses statistics to measure data.

3.6.4 Disadvantages of quantitative research:

Barnham (2014) pointed out that qualitative research studies the nature and meaning of things for different people, whereas, quantitative research does not have this function. In addition, using quantitative research can only give limited numerical descriptions, and it can miss contextual detail; however, using qualitative research can give people's view more detailed narrative, generally. Using quantitative research may cost more money because it has to collect a large sample of the population, which may collect a much narrower and sometimes superficial dataset, and then analyse the results statistically.

There are some advantages and disadvantages for the use of quantitative research in others studies, this section will discuss the disadvantages and advantages of quantitative research: Firstly it is much easier to collect data using quantitative research method and the expatriates are able to fill in the questionnaire whenever or wherever they want. Secondly, the questionnaire has been pre-designed and can be used and distributed through the researcher's personal network. The qualitative method streamlines the research, removing the existence of bias as much as possible. Thirdly, the data can be easily analysed to find the relationship between the variables. Finally, the quality of the answers cannot be controlled, therefore the participants may not understand the

questions and give random answers. Furthermore, a much narrower or superficial dataset could be collected.

Quantitative		Qualitative
Positivist	Research philosophy	Interpretivist
Deductive	Research approach	Inductive
Scientific experiment Survey Secondary-data analysis	Research strategies	Action research Case study Ethnographic research Ground theory research

Source: Saunders et al. (2009)

Figure 3. 4 qualitative research and quantitative research comparison

Smith (1981) agreed that there are strengths and weaknesses in quantitative research and qualitative research. After analysing the disadvantages and advantages of the qualitative research method and the quantitative research method, both quantitative research and qualitative research are used in this study, which includes qualitative data techniques and quantitative data collection techniques in one study (Saunders et al., 2000).

McCusker et al. (2015) pointed out that using both quantitative research and qualitative research in one study can analyse complex research questions and give pragmatic advantages. In the meantime, using qualitative research can play a supplementary role to give a deeper understanding of the results. In this study, the researcher interviewed 10 samples using qualitative research and collected 175 questionnaires using the quantitative research method to do this research.

3.7 Population and sampling

3.7.1 Target Population

The aim of this study is to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship among cultural intelligence, international work experience, and ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, cultural distance, and adaptation and to try to fill the gaps that could help expatriates to improve their adaptive performance. For this purpose, the target population of this research is expatriates working in China.

3.7.2 Samples and Data Collection

Saunders et al. (2009) suggest that it is practical to select a sample rather than use the entire population for all the research questions. As Berenson (2012) states, selecting a sample is less time-consuming than selecting every person in the population; selecting a sample is less costly than selecting every item in the population; and analysing a sample is less cumbersome and more practical than analysing the entire population. However, how to select samples is another problem. As Upton (1996) points out, the sample must not be biased and must be taken from the correct population.

Broadly, there are two types of sampling techniques that can be separated into two parts: probability sampling and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling refers to selecting individuals from the sampling frame listing all the cases of the population.

Everyone has an equal chance of being selected (Bernard & Ryan, 2000). On the other hand, in non-probability sampling, the probability of anyone being selected is unknown

as there is little knowledge of a large population and units (Saunders et al., 2009).

However, non-probability will be used in this study. Quota, purposive, snowball, self-selection, and convenience are five non-probability sampling techniques. In this study, the researcher used interviews and questionnaires to collect data. While a questionnaire can save time, only selected data can be analysed (Saunders et al., 2009). In addition in this study, snowball sampling will be used; this belongs to the category of non-probability sampling.

The survey in this study includes semi-structured interviews and self-administered questionnaires. Data was collected in multinational companies in China. Data collection was concentrated over a period of 8 weeks, from March to May in 2017. The questionnaire tests the hypotheses, and gathers data from expatriates representing different cultures, working in different places in China, and working in different jobs. “Questionnaire is a general term to include all techniques of data collection in which each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order (de Vaus, 2002).” The research did not focus only on managers, but also on expatriates doing different jobs in order to discover international work experiences. Snowball sampling was used in this study. Snowball sampling is commonly used when it is difficult to identify members of the desired population (Saunders et al., 2009). Delbridge and Kirkpatrick (1994) note that not everybody is suited to snowball sampling. Much of it relies on the building of relationships with others.

In this study the data collection strategy had five phases: Phase one; former colleagues were contacted by phone and email to ask them to fill out the questionnaire, they then were asked to distribute the questionnaire to their friends who are working in China as

expatriates, avoiding any big groups of expatriates who already worked together, in order to avoid distribution amongst cliques of people. Relatives who are working in multinational companies were also contacted and asked to email the questionnaire to expatriates who are working in China. A full explanation was given alongside the questionnaire which included and explained the research purpose, the sample target, how to distribute the questionnaire, and promised confidentiality for their answers. An electronic version of the questionnaire was provided and the choice to distribute via email was used in order to reduce time and cost, to improve accuracy, and reduce interviewees' apprehension.

Furthermore, friends and relatives were asked to identify further potential respondents, who in turn were asked to identify others, in order to gain enough samples and up to the point until either no new potential respondents were found, or the sample was as large as was manageable. The questionnaires were returned via email and each one checked with only 175 found to be fully complete and usable. From the completed questionnaires, 24% of expatriates working in China were from the USA, 46% from Europe, and 30% from other countries. Demographically, 35% were female and 65% were male; the average age was 34.1; the results for educational levels were as follows: 70 held Bachelor's degrees, 60 held Masters Degrees, 19 held PhD's and 27 of them were others; the average company tenure was 29 months; the average overseas job was 4.6.

Table 3. 1 Questionnaire-basic questions results

Percent

Nationality	
USA	24%
Europe	46%
Others	30%
Gender	
Male	65%
Female	35%
Age	
<20	2.3%
20-30	31.4%
30-40	40.2%
40-50	16.6%
50-60	7.7%
>60	1.8%
Education Level	
Bachelor	42.6%
Master	37%
PhD	12.3%
Others	10.1%
Length of time spent overseas	

<1 year	36.3%
1-3 year	28.8%
3-5 year	15%
>5 year	20%
How many countries did expatriates work?	
1-5	87.2%
5-10	4%
>10	8.8%
Worked with foreigners	
Yes	97.5%
No	2.5%

For interviews, 10 interviewees were randomly selected based on the following criteria: firstly, their position. All were managers within their companies. Secondly, English was spoken fluently. Thirdly, they were all working in multinational companies. After this process, snowball sampling was used to identify additional participants. Only 10 managers from different countries and working in different companies in China were used (for example BMW, Siemens), as qualitative research only played a supplementary role in this study. An analysis of the data can be found in the following table.

Table 3. 2 Interviewees for Qualitative research

Participant	Industry	Job Title	Country of origin	Location
1	Siemens	Technical Operations Manager	UK	Shanghai
2	Siemens	Project Manager	UK	Shanghai
3	BMW	R&D Manager	Germany	Shenyang
4	BMW	Project Manager	Germany	Shenyang
5	BMW	Assistant Manager	Germany	Shenyang
6	BMW	Manager	UK	Shenyang
7	Game	Senior Manager	Greece	Changchun
8	VW	Manager	Hungary	Changchun
9	Foreign Trade	Trading Manager	UK	Shanghai
10	Foreign Trade	Trading Manager	USA	Shanghai

Data was collected in three ways: (1) a participant profile questionnaire; (2) one in-depth interview with each participant, using a modification of Seidman's in-depth interview procedure; and (3) follow-up member checks by telephone and email with study participants. Seidman (2013) asserted that conducting three interviews allows participants to develop greater trust with the researcher and to reflect on their lived

experience. Given the busy calendars and travel schedules of global leaders, the interview protocol for this study was redesigned into a one-interview protocol in this study. For the qualitative research section, the research used semi-structured individual interviews using SKYPE for the interviews. The participants were contacted via phone and email to organise appointments to carry out the interview. All participants refused to be recorded, therefore, only notes were taken during the interview. There were 18 open questions asked and the interviews were conducted across a 3 month period in order to fit in with the schedules of the Managers. The participants lived in four different cities; Beijing, Shanghai, Shenyang, and Changchun. Non standardised interview was used in this study. In addition, all the questions were open questions which allowed interviewees to describe their personal and working life in China. In addition, they were given the option of giving more developmental answers, if willing.

3.8 Design a questionnaire and interview questions

Matthew and Ross (2010) stated questionnaires as answers given by interviewees to a set of questions. The questionnaire was designed to collect structured data in the form of multiple choice. One advantage of using a questionnaire to collect data is that it can save time and money. The questionnaire aims to collect data from a large sample; its use is closely correlated with explanatory research and it is often used to measure the relations between variables (Brannick & Coghlan, 2005). Researchers can collect data within a matter of weeks and therefore it is highly efficient. In addition, before the respondents return the questionnaires, the researchers already have their analysis sheet to analyse answers, which are related to the closed questions. A number of pertinent questions concerning expatriates' life and work in China were used in this study.

Furthermore, using the interview research method allows a deeper insight into the expatriates' thoughts.

A valid questionnaire enables accurate data to be collected, and a reliable questionnaire means that data is collected consistently. Foddy (1994) discusses validity and reliability in terms of the questions and answers making sense. Therefore, much time was spent on the design of the questions, ensuring the correct stages were followed and that the questions were valid and reliable. In addition, after designing the questionnaire, it was tested for reliability. In order to avoid any bias, no open-ended questions were included in the questionnaire. Rather, list questions, category questions, rating questions, and matrix questions were used to complete the questionnaire. Gillham (2008) agreed that when using questionnaires to collect data, respondents can feel free, as it allows an anonymous response style, and avoids the bias of the researchers.

There were 8 parts, including 84 questions in this questionnaire: basic questions, adjustment, learning flexibility, cultural intelligence, ethnocentrism, cultural distance, adaptive performance and job performance to analyse expatriates job performance in China. The first part related to the background of the participants, such as basic information regarding name, age, gender, nationalities, qualifications, and international work experience. The second part related to the expatriates' adjustment in China. The third part related to Kolb's (2010) Learning Flexibility Index, which is the most important part of this study. The fourth part related to expatriates' cultural intelligence (CQ). The fifth part related to Ethnocentrism. The sixth part related to cultural distance, which only acted as a moderating factor in this study. The seventh part related to

Pulakos et al. (2000, 2002 and 2006) adaptive performance. However, only three dimensions of adaptive performance (Training and Learning Effort, Interpersonal Adaptability, and Physical Adaptability) were used in this study. The last part related to job performance, using the normal standard method to evaluate expatriates' job performance in China.

In addition, the questionnaire could include more complicated questions and easier ones for non-native English-speaking expatriates to understand. The questionnaire was sent via email which gives a significant advantage when the samples that the researcher wishes to interview are geographically dispersed. Moreover, with all forms of the electronic questionnaire, the software automatically recorded the answers as they were typed in, thereby removing problems associated with audio recording and transcription, such as; cost, accuracy, and participants' apprehension. Furthermore, participants could fill in the questionnaire when they had time, which was intended to enhance accuracy and reduce any stress and haste. The E-mail was used to collect data in order to reduce time, cost, and interviewees' apprehension and increase the probability of accuracy.

In order to provide further insight into the perspectives of expatriates, qualitative research is used in this study, mainly using the interview method to collect data. Kahn and Cannell (1957) highlighted interview is a purposeful instrument for discussion among people. The semi-Structured interview was used in this study; however, the researcher read each question and did not record the response on a standardised schedule. In order to avoid bias for open questions, the researcher started with a filling

questionnaire and then ask the following 18 open questions, which is suggested by Hardwick Research (2016).

For the interview, the researcher interviewed 10 managers (from for example Siemens, BMW) for almost 1-1.5 hours for each interview. 18 open questions in this study were used, which were designed to be easily understood:

1. What are your major issues/ challenges in adapting to working and living in China?
2. What were the major challenges/ issues for you and your family in adapting to China?
3. Did you get support from your family before you went to China?
4. How did you prepare for your assignment in China?
5. Were your family included in pre-departure training?
6. What were the major cultural differences?
7. Learning issues?
8. Challenges of the team working in China?
9. How did Chinese people see you?
10. How would you identify a major challenge in the first six months?
11. What was the most important thing you learned in the first six months?
12. How would you describe your relationship with your co-workers?
13. How many did you supervise? What was the challenge for supervisor local members?

14. Did you feel you changed as a result of working abroad? If so, how?
15. Would you go abroad to work again? Why?
16. What advice would you have for HR departments about handling expatriates?
17. What does expatriate success or failure mean to you?
18. How do you evaluate your job performance in China?

Through this part could enrich expatriates' job performance in China.

3.9 Research Instruments

In this study, adaptive performance is the dependent variable and cultural distance, cultural intelligence, international work experience, learning flexibility, ethnocentrism, and adaptation are independent variables. Age, gender, and so on are control variables. This section will list all the scales which were used in this study.

3.9.1 Learning Flexibility Index

Sharma and Kolb's (2010) Learning Flexibility Index was used in the study to analyze the relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Adaptation, Cultural Distance, Cultural Intelligence, and Adaptive Performance in China. Learning Flexibility was named adaptive flexibility and conducted with the Adaptive Style Inventory (ASI-Boyatzis & Kolb, 1993). Adaptive Style Inventory is an instrument to analyse human beings in different situations to change their learning style to adapt to it. In 2005, Bell suggested that there needed to be a new adaptive flexibility instrument created based on other construct validity evidence. In 2008, Akrivou pointed out that her Integrative

Development Scale (IDS) is an instrument that could find the relationship between integrative development and learning flexibility.

Kolb (2010) introduced Learning Flexibility Index which there are 8 items that present 8 different learning contexts chosen to describe learning situations that stress different modes around the learning cycle. The situations “starting something new” and “influencing someone” emphasized AE & CE. “Getting to know someone” and “learning in a group” emphasized CE & RO. “planning something” and “analyzing something” emphasized RO & AC and “evaluating an opportunity” and “choosing between alternatives” emphasized AC & AE. There contain similarities between Learning Flexibility and ASI. The respondents have to rank 1 to 4 in each item based on their life experience. For example, for the item “When I start something new”, the endings are “I rely on my feelings to guide me” (CE); “I imagine different possibilities” (RO); “I analyze the situation” (AC); and “I try to be practical and realistic” (AE). This research will use Hay’s KLSI, which followed by Learning Flexibility Index items. Sharma and Kolb (2010) also stated that there is a negative relationship among learning flexibility index, age, and educational level. On the other hand, Learning Flexibility Index is a self-development tool for people to understand their learning flexibility (Sharma & Kolb, 2010). It could become a more effective tool for learners in their development. Furthermore, based on Kendall’s Coefficient of Concordance or W (Legendre, 2005), a non-parametric statistic method Kolb introduced a new measurement to calculate learning flexibility. There is a formula for people to calculate in the following part. In this formula, through each person’s 8 different learning contexts, four learning modes’ ranking to calculate was shown below;

$$W = \frac{12S - 3p^2n(n + 1)^2}{p^2(n^3 - n)}$$

99

Where, $S = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i^2$

P equals number of learning contexts (=8)

N equals number of learning modes (=4)

R equals row sum of ranks

Following this, the Learning Flexibility Index (LFI) can be calculated as $LFI = 1 - W$ to get each individual figure's. The Learning Flexibility Index is a useful tool to investigate the important role that learning flexibility plays in education, management, and personal development (Sharma & Kolb, 2010). This study is based on Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory and using KLSI 4.0 which includes the learning flexibility measurement. (LFI)- LFI is a new measure that replaces the ASI, trying to contribute to the deeper understanding of facts that influence expatriate adaptive performance in China. Furthermore, based on Kolb's (1984) experience, the learning theory could find the relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation, and adaptive performance. As a result, this study will demonstrate that expatriates with higher levels of learning flexibility have a better performance in China.

The following eight items assess how you learn in different situations at work. For each of these situations, try to think of actual examples you encounter at work before you rank the four choices. For example, if the general situation described in the item is "When I try to complete a task on time" your actual example may be "completing a policy draft", "preparing my reports on time" and so on. With your examples in mind, rank the four sentence endings, giving a 4 to the item that best describes how you deal with the situation and a 1 to the item that least describes your response. 4 equals most like you, 3 equals second most like you, 2 equals third most like you and finally, 1 equals least like you.

	A	B	C	D
1. When I start something new...	I rely on my feelings to guide me	I try to be practical and realistic	I analyse the situation	I imagine different possibilities
2. When I decide between two alternatives...	I collect information about them	I rely on what feels right to me	I establish criteria to evaluate them	I try them out
3. When I plan something...	I am open to making changes	I am organised and logical	I consider all possibilities	I am goal and action oriented
4. When I learn in a group setting...	I get to know everyone	I look for experts	I jump in and contribute	I sit back and listen
5. When I try to influence someone...	I take initiative to talk with them	I try to understand their point of view	I explain my ideas logically	I share my feelings with them
6. When I evaluate an opportunity...	I act without delay	I trust my sense of what is best	I consider different opinions about it	I weigh the costs against the benefits
7. When I analyse something...	I think about how the basic principles relate to each other	Intuition is often my best guide	I search for its practical applications	I look at it from different perspectives
8. When I want to know someone better...	I pay attention to their feelings	I analyse why they act the way they do	I do things with them	I listen to them

Individuals are asked to rank each sentence that is more like what they would actually do in this situation. Using Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance or W (Legendre, 2005), the researcher has to calculate the figures to get the results.

3.9.2 Expatriate Adjustment Scale

Black and his colleagues (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989) adjustment scale were used in this study to analyze expatriates' adaptation in China. Black (1988), Black and Stephens (1989) were first introduced psychological adaptation. Based on their scale, in 2005, Harrison and Shaffer recommended a new adjustment scale, which was used in

this research. In this study, 14 items of expatriates' cultural adjustment were examined, such as their living conditions, housing, and food in China. The interviewees have to be asked to indicate their degree of adjustment on a 7-point scale (1 equaling very unadjusted to 7 equaling very adjusted).

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

3.9.3 Adaptive Performance Scale

The dependent variable is expatriates' adaptive performance. This study mainly analyses expatriates job performance through data collected from questionnaires filled out by themselves. Pulakos et al (2000, 2002 and 2006) introduced 8 dimensions as discussed on page 29. The researcher would like to use three of them to do her research, which related to this study. They are Training and learning effort, Interpersonal Adaptability, and Physical Adaptability, which includes 13 items using a 7 Likert scale from “1

equals well below expected” to “7 equaling well above expected standard” to evaluate the expatriates’ performance in China.

Based on Costello and Osborne (2005) and Fabrigar et al. (1999) are the use of factor analysis, Churchill’s (1979) paradigm, and Hinkin’s (1998) methodology to construct Adaptive Performance scale. Based on Pulakos et al. (2000, 2002, and 2006)’ adaptive performance dimensions’ definition to test 11 telecommunications dynamic industry company’s employees by a one-on-one interview, in which they were asked to identify generic work behaviours in complex work situations to provide the confirmatory factor analyses and exploratory factor analyses’ results. And then they use Nvivo8 software to analyse interview transcripts. After supports Miles and Huberman’s (1991) initial coding and Pulakos and colleagues’ (2000, 2002) dimensions to generate 45 items in Adaptive Performance scale. In this thesis, only three dimensions (Training and Learning Effort, Interpersonal Adaptability, and Physical Adaptability), which includes 13 items were used. In this scale 7-point Likert scale with 1 for “Strongly Disagree” to 7 for “Strongly Agree for respondents to choose from. However, in this study, only dimension 5, 6, and 8 will be used, which related to other factors’ relationship in this study to test the 15 hypotheses.

1. I am on the lookout for the latest innovations in my jobs to improve the way I work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I undergo training on a regular basis in or outside of work to keep my competence up to date	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I wait for the innovations having to do with my work in order to become widespread in the company before I put major effort into relevant training or learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I prepare for change by participating in every project or assignment that enables me to do so	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I look for every opportunity that enables me to improve my performance (training, group project, exchanges with colleagues, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I adapt my work practices to the requirements and suggestions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. I do not consider any negative comments about my work important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I adjust my work practices if someone points out a better solution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Developing good relationships with all my counterparts is an important factor of my effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I try to understand the viewpoints of my counterparts to improve my interaction with them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I strive to adapt, however difficult, to the working conditions I am in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I can only work efficiently in a comfortable environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I sometimes research my physical limits to accomplish an urgent task.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.9.4 Cultural Distance Index

Based on Hofstede's (1980) dimensions on Netherlands case to bring up scores' differences by Kogut and Singh index in 1988, which assume cultural distance between countries. And then Barkema and Vermeulen (1997), Brouthers and Brouthers (2001), Vermeulen and Barkema (2001) use the Euclidean distance index to measure cultural distance, which is not like Kogut and Singh (1988) index, coming up with an index with four dimensions. In 1994 Schwartz described national culture's seven dimensions. In addition, Bell (1996) and Drogendijk and Slangen (2006) tested on 246 foreign expansions. Compared different scales on cultural distance, cultural distance index (Kogut & Singh 1988: 422) will be used in this study based on Hofstede's (1980) cultural values of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity, and individualism/ collectivism to calculate each individual in this study. In this questionnaire, individuals are asked to rate from 1 to 7.

How did your management team perceive the cultural differences between your country and China

1=very small; 2=small; 3=little small; 4=average; 5=little large; 6=large; 7=very large

Differences in norms and values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Habits and customs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Behaviors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Business practices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Organizational practices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ways of communication	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Relationships with people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.9.5 Ethnocentrism Scale

Based on Neuliep and McCroskey (1997)' ethnocentrism scale version, which items have to be responded by the expatriates. Each item was measured on a five-point scale where 1 equals strongly disagree and 5 equals strongly agree. Lower ethnocentrism with a high score will be re-coded items. Individuals are asked to rate from 1 to 7.

1=strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= little disagree 4=undecided 5=little agree 6=agree 7= strongly agree

I dislike interacting with people from a different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Generally, I am comfortable interacting with a group of people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am tense and nervous while interacting with people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to get involved in group discussions with others who are from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Engaging in a group discussion with people from different cultures makes me tense and nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am calm and relaxed with interacting with a group of people who are from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
While participating in a conversation with a person from a different culture, I feel very nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have no fear of speaking up in a conversation with a person from a different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ordinarily, I am very tense and nervous in conversations with a person from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ordinarily, I am very calm and relaxed in conversations with a person from a different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
While conversing with a person from a different culture I feel very relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I'm afraid to speak up in conversations with a person from a different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I face the prospect of interacting with people from different cultures with confidence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

My thoughts become confused and jumbled when interacting with people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Communicating with people from different cultures makes me feel uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.9.6 Cultural Intelligence scale

Thomas (2014) measurement will be used in this study. By measuring the individual variation in cultural intelligence, it captures the complexity of the theoretical construct, which has major potential for international management research. Originally this forms an idea with a short powerful instrument. By having the capability to capture this complexity of the construct of cultural intelligence with the short instrument will increase its effectiveness. The instrument captures how cultural intelligence is captured and theorizes as an indirect reflective model which has a single latent factor. This consists of facts that mediate cultural knowledge, these are; cultural skills and cultural meta-cognition. The validity of this measurement was tested by Thomas (2014), which has the potential to be a great predictor of many aspects of intercultural effectiveness.

Therefore 10 different statements about a person's experience when they are interacting with people from other countries and cultures will be asked; these questions are as follows;

Below are 10 statements about one's experience when interacting with people from other cultures. Please indicate to what extent each of the following statements describes you.

1=not at all 2=slightly 3=somewhat 4=neutral 5=fairly 6= very 7 extremely well

I know the ways in which cultures around the world are different	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can give examples of cultural differences from my personal experience, reading and so on	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I enjoy talking with people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have the ability to accurately understand the feelings of people from other cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I sometimes try to understand people from another culture by imagining how something looks from their perspective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can change my behavior to suit different cultural situations and people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I accept delays without becoming upset when in different cultural situations and with culturally different people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am aware of the cultural knowledge I use when interaction with someone from another culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think a lot about the influence that culture has on my behavior and that of others who are culturally different	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am aware that I need to plan my course of action when in different cultural situations and with culturally different people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.9.7 Job Performance Scale

The dependent variable is expatriates' performance. This study mainly analyses expatriates' job performance through data collected from questionnaires filled in by themselves. 5 items will be measured and provide the rating of expatriates on job performance in this study. Each item will be scored on a 7-point Likert scale from “1 equals very poor” to “7 equals excellent”. Each item concerns expatriates' job performance. Job performance is frequently measured with the five-item scale created by Pearce and Porter (1986). Ones and Viswesvaran (1997) agreed that job performance is a measurement to differentiate the assignment's investigating, cultural adjustment, and assignment's completion. The items ask expatriates to recall their last performance evaluation and to report how they were rated. In particular, respondents are asked to assess their overall performance, their ability to get along with others, their ability to get the task done on time, the quality of their performance, and the achievement of work goals. The response format was specifically developed for expatriates in different organizations to capture the actual perceived performance, regardless of differences in

performance appraisal systems, which was critical for this study due to the number of different firms and occupations. This measure has been shown to be highly correlated with supervisors' ratings of performance (Pearce & Porter, 1986).

Each individual was asked based on their current assignment's job performance to rate these five dimensions (1) overall performance, (2) ability to get along with others, (3) completing tasks on time, (4) quality (as opposed to quantity) of performance, and (5) achievement of work goals (Black, 1992) to measure their job performance.

How do you evaluate your work performance for the assignment?

1=very poor; 2=poor; 3=below average; 4=average, 5=somewhat above average; 6=above average; 7= excellent

Overall performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ability to get along with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Completing tasks on time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Quality of performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Achievement of work goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.9.8 Other variables

In order to evaluate the amount of international work experience that expatriates had before taking on this current assignment, some relevant questions will be asked, notably, the length of their international work experience. International work experience: How many countries and how long have you worked? International work experience could help expatriates to improve their job performance and adaptation? (0 equals yes, 1 equals no). In addition, how many countries and months did they work overseas will also be asked. International work experience will be used in qualitative research in this study to support quantitative research.

Control variables are described as below:

- Age: Categories (1 equals less than 20, 2 equals 20-29, 3 equals 30-39, 4 equals 40-49, 5 equals more than 49) these will be measured.
- Gender: Dummy coded (1 is male, 2 is female) will be used.

3.10 Learning Flexibility Index Calculation

Kolb's (2010) Learning Flexibility Index was used in this study Kolb (2010) introduced The Learning Flexibility Index which is comprised of 8 items that describe 8 different learning contexts chosen to represent learning situations that emphasise different modes around the learning cycle. The situations “starting something new” and “influencing someone” emphasized AE & CE. “Getting to know someone” and “learning in a group” emphasized CE & RO. “planning something” and “analyzing something” emphasized RO & AC and “evaluating an opportunity” and “choosing between alternatives” emphasized AC & AE. This research will use Hay’s KLSI, which followed by Learning Flexibility Index items. After thinking about interviewees’ life and then rank four learning mode to the learning situation. For example, for the item “When I start something new”, the endings are “I rely on my feelings to guide me” (CE); “I imagine different possibilities” (RO); “I analyze the situation” (AC); and “I try to be practical and realistic” (AE). The items of Learning Flexibility Index were followed Hay online KLSI survey and used in this study.

This study is based on Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning theory and using KLSI 4.0 which includes the learning flexibility measurement (LFI)- LFI is a new measure that replaces the ASI, trying to contribute to the deeper understanding of facts that influence

expatriate job performance. Furthermore, based on Kolb's (1984) experience learning theory could find the relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation and adaptive performance. Using a new method to calculate learning flexibility, that is Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance or W (Legendre, 2005), it is a non-parametric statistic to analyze judges' agreement's degree. In the calculation of Learning Flexibility Index, W is for each item by 8 different items namely four learning modes' ranking. The low score of W means people have higher learning flexibility. Sigler and Tallent-Runnels (2006) noted that the coefficient between 0 and 1. After that using 1-W to get Learning Flexibility Index results.

There are 8 items and each of these has four questions in the Learning Flexibility Index for interviewees to rank from 1 to 4. In the Learning Flexibility Index includes eight learning situations' learning contexts; they are AE (Active Experimentation) is about acting, CE (Concrete Experience) is about the experience, AC (Abstract Conceptualization) is about thinking and RO (Reflective Observation) is about reflecting. Based on the meaning of RO, AC, AE, and CE, there are 32 items in the table need to be ranked.

	<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>D</u>
1. When I start something new...	CE I rely on my feelings to guide me	AE I try to be practical and realistic	AC I analyse the situation	RO I imagine different possibilities
2. When I decide between two alternatives...	AC I collect information about them	CE I rely on what feels right to me	RO I establish criteria to evaluate them	AE I try them out
3. When I plan something...	CE I am open to making changes	AC I am organised and logical	RO I consider all possibilities	AE I am goal and action oriented
4. When I learn in a group setting...	CE I get to know everyone	AC I look for experts	AE I jump in and contribute	RO I sit back and listen
5. When I try to influence someone...	AE I take initiative to talk with them	RO I try to understand their point of view	AC I explain my ideas logically	CE I share my feelings with them

6. When I evaluate an opportunity...	AE	I act without delay	CE	I trust my sense of what is best	RO	I consider different opinions about it	AC	I weigh the costs against the benefits
7. When I analyse something...	AC	I think about how the basic principles relate to each other	CE	Intuition is often my best guide	AE	I search for its practical applications	RO	I look at it from different perspectives
8. When I want to know someone better...	CE	I pay attention to their feelings	AC	I analyse why they act the way they do	AE	I do things with them	RO	I listen to them

Based on Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance or W (Legendre, 2005)'s non-parametric statistic to measure learning flexibility calculation, to measure ranking objects. In Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance or W (Legendre, 2005) formula:

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i - \bar{R}^2 \quad (4.1)$$

Or

$$S^* = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i^2 = SSR \quad (4.2)$$

S is a sum-of-squares statistic over the row sums of ranks R_i . \bar{R} Is the mean of the R_i values. Following that, Kendall's W statistic can be obtained from either of the following formulas:

$$W = \frac{12S}{p^2(n^3-n)-pT} \quad (4.3)$$

or

$$W = \frac{12S-3p^2n(n+1)^2}{p^2(n^3-n)-pT} \quad (4.4)$$

Where n is the number of objects, p is the number of judges. T is a correction factor for tied. Formula 4.2 and 4.4 were used to calculate the Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance (S) and Kendall's statistic (W) (Legendre, 2005).

Take one of the respondent's answer as an example (see table 3.3) to calculate S and W:

Table 3.3 One of the respondent's answer statistic

	A	B	C	D
1	3	4	2	1
2	4	3	1	2
3	1	3	4	2
4	4	3	2	1
5	1	4	2	3
6	1	2	4	3
7	2	4	3	1
8	1	3	4	2

In this table 3.3, the first column number from 1-8 stands for the eight questions. The A, B, C, and D in the first row stand for the respondent's answer ranks. In this case, the number of objects (n) is 4 and the number of judges (p) is 8. According to equation 4.2:

$$S = \sum R_A^2 + \sum R_B^2 + \sum R_C^2 + \sum R_D^2 \quad (4.5)$$

So,

$$S=17^2+26^2+22^2+15^2=1674,$$

Plug the result into the equation 4.4, the Kendall's statistic $W=0.23125$, $LFI=1-$

$W=0.76875$. However, Kolb (2010) used the formula is:

$$W = \frac{12S-3p^2n(n+1)^2}{p^2(n^3-n)} \quad (4.6)$$

$$\text{Where, } S = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i^2 \quad (4.7)$$

p=number of learning contexts (=8)

n=number of learning modes (=4)

R=row sum of ranks for the 8 contexts

In Learning Flexibility Index, W stands for every respondent by assessing the degree of agreement in their ranking of the four learning modes across the 8 different learning contexts. Lower W score means respondents higher learning flexibility.

Take table 3.3 as an example:

According to formula 4.7, $S = 17^2 + 26 + 22^2 + 15^2 = 1674$

P=8, n=4 plug into formula 4.6: $W = \frac{12 * 1674 - 3 * 8^2 * 4 * (4+1)^2}{8^2 * (4^3 - 4)} = 0.23125$, $LFI = 1 - W = 0.76875$.

Using the same method could get the other 175 Learning Flexibility Index scores.

3.11 Pre-testing and piloting the questionnaire

Converse and Presser (1986) said that timing, the instruments' meaning, and section and question connections should be considered in a pre-test. In addition, Bryman and Bell (2007) stated that there are two reasons to do a pre-test and pilot study before conducting the intended survey, one is guarantying the operation of the survey question, and the other is an effective research instrument as a whole role.

The pre-test was done by some PhD students from the University of Hull, Sheffield Hallam University, and two British people who did not have higher-level education to complete the questionnaires. They were asked to raise questions and any comments about this questionnaire, especially all the misunderstanding or awkwardness or

ambiguities on it. Furthermore, the researcher has to calculate the time taken to complete the questionnaire, and then the researcher asked respondents in a short interview to obtain further feedback. A new version was done and presented to Dr. Ming Li, who is a relative expert to get more professional comments. After all these comments, there are some changes in the questionnaire.

3.12 Data Analysis Instruments:

3.12.1 Regression

Field (2009) stated regression analysis as a method from one variable or a range of variables to predict an outcome variable. Regression analysis is widely used in business management to analyse the variables' relationship. There are two kinds of regression, one is a simple regression, which has one predictor variable; the other is multiple regression, which has several predictor variables. In this study, both simple regression and multiple regression analysis were adopted to analyse the relationships among variables to test the 15 hypotheses.

In 1908 Pearson was the first to use multiple regression analysis, which was the most popular statistical method to analyse data in the applied and scholarly research area. Multiple regression analysis is a method to analyse the relationship between several independent or predictor variables and a dependent or criterion variable. Using Regression Analysis is possible to assess the relationships among variables from charts. Although there are disadvantages of Regression Analysis, one of the advantages is it is easy to use. Furthermore, using figures can provide a simple relationship between a dependent variable and independent variables. In this study, simple regression and

multiple regression will be used to analyse data to test hypothesis 1, 2, 6,7,8,9 and 11 to ascertain the relationship among expatriates' Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance in China to make a contribution to this area.

3.12.2 Process by Hayes

PROCESS is a new method to analyse moderation, mediation, and conditional process analysis, which was written by Andrew F. Hayes in 2013. Process by Hayes is used in business, and the social arena to find serial and parallel models and moderators and mediators models. "One of the nice features of PROCESS is that it can estimate the coefficients in a simple mediation model such as this, as well as more complex models involving multiple mediators while providing an estimate of the indirect effect, various inferential tests. Furthermore, it can be used for moderation analysis and modelling that combines moderation and mediation" (Hayes, 2013: 100). I believe to use PROCESS is more reasonable when testing mediation or moderation and mediation, since it provides some algorithms that are not implemented in standard statistical packages. There are only 50 models for the researchers to choose, so if your hypothesis could not find a suitable model to use, you could not use Process by Hayes. In this study, Process by Hayes will be used for variables' moderation and mediation analysis to test hypothesis 10, 12, 13, 14, and 15 to find out the relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance in China. The researcher chooses to use Process by Hayes because it is a path analysis modelling tool for SAS and SPSS. Moreover, there are 50 different models for us to choose the appropriate model for your model to analyse moderation and mediation, and this is easy to use and attractive for intermediate statistics users. In this study, models 1,

4, and 6 will be used to analyse moderation and mediation relationships among variables to test five hypotheses (10, 12, 13, 14, and 15). It is normally not easy to recognize mediation and moderation; however, Mediation and Moderation were introduced by Hayes in a really simple and understandable way, as shown in the following part:

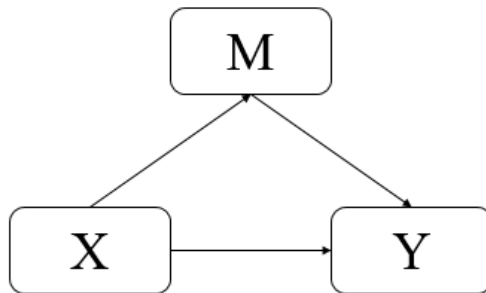


Figure 3. 5 A simple Mediation model with a single mediator variable M causally located between X and Y

From this figure, we were able to easily understand the meaning of Mediation, which tests how X exerts its effect on Y and frequently postulates a model in which one or more intervening variables M is located causally between X and Y. Using Process by Hayes' models we were able to easily conduct Mediation analysis to test hypothesis 12, 13, 14, and 15 to ascertain the relationship among expatriates' cultural intelligence, adaptation, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, and adaptive performance in China.

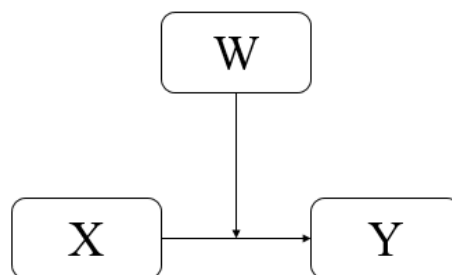


Figure 3. 6 A simple moderation model with a single moderator variable W influencing the size of X's effect on Y.

From this figure, we could easily understand the meaning of Moderation, which tests linear interaction between X and W in a model of Y. While in this study only hypothesis 10 will use moderation analysis to understand the relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, and Adaptive Performance in China. Using Hayes' models is an easy and understandable way for the researchers to understand mediation analysis and moderation analysis to analyse the relationships among variables.

For the qualitative research part, the researcher has written up her notes for each interview. Due to only 10 samples, only summarized data will be used in this study to test hypothesis 3, 4 and 5 to ascertain the relationship among expatriates International Work Experience, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance in China. Because qualitative research only plays a supplementary role in this study.

3.13 Reliability and Validity

3.13.1 Reliability

Burns and Burns (2008) stated reliability as an item with consistency and stability of results to ensure the results can be replicated. Saunders et al. (2009) stated that reliability analysis is widely used as a measurement item in every construct to assess consistency and stability. This study will use Cronbach's alpha analyses to test reliability and the question's confidence.

Table 3.4 Reliability

	Cronbach's Alpha
Adjustment	.85
Cultural Intelligence	.802
Ethnocentrism	.919
Cultural Distance	.593
Adaptive Performance	.779
Job Performance	.866

Before analysing the data reliability needs to be checked, whether the scale is reliable, which is significant in a survey/questionnaire; the Cronbach's alpha (α) is the most common measure of scale reliability (Cortina, 1993).

From this table we could ascertain that Cronbach's alpha for Adjustment is 0.85, Cultural Intelligence is .802, Cultural Distance is .593, Adaptive Performance is .779, and Job Performance is 0.866, which indicates a high level of internal consistency for our scale with this specific sample. That means the scale is reliable and highly acceptable as an attitude scale.

As Nichols (1999) argues, "A common problem of this type is that the scale consists of some items that are worded in opposite directions to alleviate response biases, and the researcher has forgotten to appropriately recode the reverse scored items, resulting in negative covariance where the actual covariance of interest are positive." Due to Ethnocentrism's Cronbach's Alpha is unacceptable. Items were recoded such that a high score indicated lower ethnocentrism and it was found that questions 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 11,

13, and 15 needed to be re-coded. After re-coding Ethnocentrism's Cronbach's Alpha is .919, which is entirely acceptable.

There are four modes in the Learning Flexibility Index: CE (concrete experience), RO (Observation and Reflections), AE (Active Experimentation), and AC (Abstract Conceptualization). Cronbach's alpha for CE is .247, RO is .018, AC is .131 and AE is .197. Kolb (2010) confirmed that there have not been any studies to assess KLSI 4.0's test-retest reliability.

Potentially this result caused the low-reliability results for Learning Flexibility's four modes. Furthermore, α 's value depends on the scale items' number, which requires caution with such general guidelines (Cortina, 1993). This means that if you have more items, the reliability value will be higher. Maybe only 8 items for Learning Flexibility caused a lower reliability value for four modes. Another factor that may affect the reliability value is rating scales. Burns and Burns (2008) argued that there is a possibility of influence in respondents' bias, which leads to low-reliability values in the research.

3.13.2 Validity

Saunders et al. (2009) demonstrated validity as related to whether the results are really about what they turn out to be or not. Validity is a measure of the degree of validity or the validity of a research instrument. That is, the measurement instrument for validity is tested by the degree of accuracy of the instrument's intended use. Collis and Hussey (2009) stated that the research's intention is to provide data collection, and validity is the key to ensuring this. This means that it is really important to know that validity

affects research results directly. Collis and Hussey (2009) stated that validity is a key confirmation to check the data collection matches the research's intention. In quantitative research instrument that is often used is in the form of a questionnaire. To determine the valid of the questionnaire is really necessary to test the validity. Test the validity of the questionnaire was using Pearson Correlations by correlating each item questionnaire scores with the total score. If the significance value < 0.05 , then the instrument is declared invalid. If the significance value > 0.05 , then the instrument is declared invalid.

In the questionnaire there are 14 questions to test Adaptation value: Question 1 =.656 > 0.3 , Question 2=.497 >0.3 , Question 3=.731 >0.3 , Question 4=.545 >0.3 , Question 5=.625 >0.3 , Question 6=.385 >0.3 , Question 7=.393 >0.3 , Question 8=.584 >0.3 , Question 9=.685 >0.3 , Question 10=.511 >0.3 , Question 11>.647 >0.3 , Question 12=.457 >0.3 , Question 13=.716 >0.3 and Question 14=.684 >0.3 . Based on the significant value obtained by the Sig. (2-tailed) of $0 < 0.05$, and based on > 0.3 , therefore, the results are valid.

In the questionnaire there are 10 questions to test Cultural Intelligence value: Question 1 =.549 > 0.3 , Question 2=.486 >0.3 , Question 3=.732 >0.3 , Question 4=.533 >0.3 , Question 5=.614 >0.3 , Question 6=.648 >0.3 , Question 7=.375 >0.3 , Question 8=.675 >0.3 , Question 9=.491 >0.3 and Question 10=.585 >0.3 . Based on the significant value obtained by the Sig. (2-tailed) of $0 < 0.05$, and based on > 0.3 , therefore, the results are valid.

In the questionnaire there are 8 questions to test Cultural Distance value: Question 1 =.567 > 0.3 , Question 2=.518 >0.3 , Question 3=.652 >0.3 , Question 4=.56 >0.3 , Question

5=.461>0.3, Question 6=.38>0.3, Question 7=.596>0.3, Question 8=.478>0.3. Based on the significant value obtained by the Sig. (2-tailed) of $0 < 0.05$, and based on > 0.3 , therefore, the results are valid.

In the questionnaire, there are 13 questions to test Adaptive Performance value:

Question 1 =.6 >0.3, Question 2=.554>0.3, Question 3=.369>0.3, Question 4=.663>0.3, Question 5=.646>0.3, Question 6=.667>0.3, Question 7=.314>0.3, Question 8=.63>0.3, Question 9=.48>0.3, Question 10=.657>0.3, Question 11>.56>0.3, Question 12=.471>0.3, Question 13=.528>0.3. Based on the significant value obtained by the Sig. (2-tailed) of $0 < 0.05$, and based on > 0.3 , therefore, the results are valid.

In the questionnaire, there are 5 questions to test Job Performance value: Question 1 =.779 >0.3, Question 2=.773>0.3, Question 3=.82>0.3, Question 4=.881>0.3, Question 5=.779>0.3. Based on the significant value obtained by the Sig. (2-tailed) of $0 < 0.05$, and based on > 0.3 , therefore, the results are valid.

However, Kolb's (2010) KLSI 4.0 was previous KLSI 3.0 followed LSI scales. And LSI versions were used for many years, between 3.1 and 4.0 scales the average correlation is 0.92. In 2010 Kolb & Sharma examined LFI's validity, including sample size from the Midwestern United States, using Akrivou's (2008) sample and 7536 online sample size. Furthermore, Ethnocentrism was followed by Neuliep and McCroskey's (1997) Ethnocentrism scale, which was shown and tested over several years. Therefore, there is no need to conduct a validity analysis for the Learning Flexibility Index and Ethnocentrism scale in this study, which was demonstrated by other researchers over the years.

3.14 Factor analysis for each variables

Factor analysis is a method to find observed variables' underlying factors to reduce data. For a large sample size, factor analysis is required. In this study, more than 200 samples were collected, therefore, factor analysis needed to be performed before running SPSS software. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) (Kaiser, 1970) was used to test factor analysis in this study. KMO measure varies from 0 to 1. If the value is close to 1, that means the value is satisfactory. According to Hutcheson and Sofroniou N. (1999)'s statement was that if $KMO > 0.5$, the value is acceptable; if $KMO > 0.8$, the value is excellent. In this study, all the KMO variables were analysed and listed in table 3.5. From the table, we can ascertain that all the KMO values are higher than 0.6, which means they are acceptable for factor analysis and then the researcher can use SPSS software to analyse data to demonstrate 15 hypotheses in this study.

Table 3. 5 KMO values for all research scale

Scale	KMO value
Adjustment	.872
Ethnocentrism	.924
Cultural Distance	.665
Adaptive Performance	.805
Job Performance	.853
Cultural Intelligence	.799

However, the Learning Flexibility Index is different. There are four modes in the Learning Flexibility Index, they are CE (Concrete Experience), RO (Reflective Observation), AC (Abstract Conceptualization) and AE (Active Experimentation). The

Learning Flexibility Index has 8 questions and each question has 4 situations, respondents are asked to rank each question which is four learning modes responses. After analysing each mode factor analysis, KMO value for CE is .55, RO is .505, AC is .582, and AE is .524. Each mode KMO value >0.5 is acceptable.

The KMO values of all constructs in this study are greater than 0.50, which indicates that they are acceptable for factor analysis. And we should be confident that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis.

3.15 Ethical consideration

Cooper and Schindler (2008) stated that ethics is one of the standards that can guide research. Objective perspectives are the appropriate research ethic in this research. A questionnaire was used to collect data, which addressed ethical issues because using the questionnaire cannot probe responses and avoid exploring more questions (Dale et al., 1988). However, based on other objective paradigms, the researcher has developed this study to avoid possible bias and further impartiality, even though the researcher is aware that the ethical problems cannot be totally avoided. There are different potential problems taking place in each stage in this study. In 2007, Bryman and Bell stated four principles for ethical considerations, such as no harm to interviewees, protecting their privacy, no deception in the research, and protecting data. All these considerations are similar to the University of Hull's ethical form regulations. The researcher considers all the possibility ethical issues, such as the Ethnocentrism of the survey participants potentially causing sensitivities and problems likely to arise in this research. The researcher has provided two ways to reduce potential sensitives and issues, she will

collect data in private to allow them to feel comfortable, and participants should be assured that all information will be treated with strict confidentiality. Data will only be used for the stated research purpose and only the researcher has access to the data. In addition, Neupiep and McCroskey (1997) noted that participants give ethnocentrism scale' five item version's response to assess the construct. Each item was measured on a five-point scale where 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree. This makes the questionnaire simpler and more comfortable to conduct. Before the interviewee responds to the questionnaire, they are required to sign a consent form to protect the interviewees' information and the researcher's data. The researcher has written in the questionnaire front page as:

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a PhD student from the University of Hull in the UK conducting research regarding the relationship between expatriates' international work experience, cultural distance, adaptation, and job performance in multinational companies in China. I would be grateful if you would help me with this research by completing the paper survey. The survey will take approximately 30 minutes to complete, please be assured your answers to the paper survey will be kept strictly confidential, only I have access to the data. Please sign consent form Appendix D to participate in the survey.

I am acutely aware of how valuable your time is but your participation in this research would be highly appreciated.

Thank you in anticipation.

Yours faithfully,

Jinglin Jiang, PhD Candidate (J.Jiang@2013.hull.ac.uk)

Ensuring participants' privacy is highly protected. In the data collection stage, all the interviewees have their right to submit the questionnaire, because the participants have the right to determine to take part in this study (Saunders et al., 2009). In addition, Cronbach (1950), Feldman and Lynch (1988), and Podsakoff et al. (2003) address how ambiguous items may influence participants to answer. Therefore, all the questionnaire items do not include ambiguous items.

For the interview part, the researcher has emailed and phoned the ten interviewees to make an appointment to conduct qualitative research. Before the interview, the researcher explained and showed a consent form to the interviewees and asked them to sign whether they would like to conduct the interview to ensure they are willing to take part in the interview. The researcher guarantees their rights to the whole process. After finishing questionnaires and interviewees, the researcher has protected them and it is not possible to trace them. The researcher has protected their anonymity by removing their names when entering data.

3.16 Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher has given many reasons in detail in order to conduct this research study. This part can enable us to gain a better understanding of how and why the researcher had conducted this study research and then linked to the research questions to make contributions:

First, the chapter critically examines the various philosophies and approaches to research. The chapter critiqued quantitative research and qualitative research highlighting. Then the researcher has given the reasons why she used both the quantitative method and qualitative method for the research strategy - the advantages and disadvantages of both research methods in relation to the study objectives, furthermore, a cross-sectional for Time Horizon in this study.

In addition, the researcher gave a clear explanation of the design of the questions for the questionnaire and interview, in which instrument scales have been used. There are 8 parts to the 84 questions in this questionnaire: basic questions, adjustment, learning

flexibility, cultural intelligence, ethnocentrism, cultural distance, adaptive performance and job performance to analyse expatriates job performance in China, which related to the Learning Flexibility Index (including the measure used to calculate learning flexibility), the Expatriate Adjustment Scale, Adaptive Performance Scale, Cultural Distance Index, and Ethnocentrism Scale. The 18 interview questions are related to expatriates' performance in China in order to help us to gather valid and reliable data. In order to ensure the survey questions, operate well and the research instrument as a whole function effectively, pre-testing and piloting the questionnaire was used as well before sending questionnaires in this study.

Third, how to select samples, data collection, and which instruments for data analysis will be discussed. The target population of this research is expatriates who are working in China now; however, expatriates with short business trips to China are not included in this study. And then Snowball sampling was used in this study using the researcher's network to collect data for quantitative research. While for qualitative research 10 managers who live and work in different places (Beijing, Shanghai, Shenyang, and Changchun) and different companies in China (for example, BMW and Siemens) were selected. For the data analysis part, Regression Analysis and Process by Hayes were used in this study to analyse data for quantitative research. Although there are so many disadvantages of Regression Analysis and Process by Hayes, it is not the main task in this study to deal with.

Fourth, reliability, validity, and factor analysis (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure) were laid the foundation for the next chapter.

The following part will report the tests of 15 hypotheses in this study. First of all, it will give an overview of the results and the following parts will describe each hypothesis in detail: first, the relationship between Adaptation and Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, and Cultural Distance respectively. Second, it will analyse the relationship between Adaptive Performance and Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, and Cultural Distance respectively. Third, it will aim to ascertain Adaptation as a moderator between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance, between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance, between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance. Fourth, it will analyse the relationship among Learning Flexibility, Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, and Adaptive Performance. Fifth, it will aim to find out the relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, and Adaptive Performance. Sixth, it will aim to ascertain the relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, and Adaptive Performance. Furthermore, qualitative research analysis will be discussed in the following part to analyse the relationship among international work experience, cultural intelligence, adaptation, and adaptive performance.

Chapter 4: Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of tests of 15 research hypotheses using both quantitative research and qualitative research to analyse the relationships among expatriates' Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, International Work Experience, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance in China in this study. First, descriptive statistics and correlations for each variable are presented, and then the 15 hypotheses listed below are presented and tested:

1. The relationship between expatriates' Adaptation and Adaptive Performance;
2. The relationship between expatriates' Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation;
3. The relationship between expatriates' International Work Experience and Cultural Intelligence;
4. The relationship between expatriates' International Work Experience and Adaptation;
5. The relationship between expatriates' International Work Experience and Adaptive Performance;
6. The relationship between expatriates' Ethnocentrism and Adaptation;
7. The relationship between expatriates' Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance;
8. The relationship between expatriates' Learning Flexibility and Adaptation;
9. The relationship between expatriates' Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance;
10. The relationship among expatriates' Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance;
11. The relationship between expatriates' Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance;
12. The relationships among expatriates' Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance;

13. The relationship among expatriates' Ethnocentrism, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance;

14. The relationships among expatriates' Learning Flexibility, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance;

15. The relationships among expatriates' Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance.

For the quantitative research study, regression analysis is applied to hypotheses 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 11 to find the relationships among expatriates' Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance in China. Moreover, Process by Hayes is then applied to hypotheses 10, 12, 13, 14, and 15 to find the relationships among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, Ethnocentrism, and Adaptive Performance in China. For the qualitative research study, hypotheses 3, 4, and 5 are used to reflect the relationships among expatriates International Work Experience, Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, and Adaptive Performance in China. In the following chapter, the researcher will discuss the results of this study.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics for all Variables

Lang and Secic (2006) stated descriptive statistics as useful for describing the basic features of data, for example, the summary statistics for the scale variables and measures of the data. Descriptive statistics is also a measure of central tendency and dispersion or variability. In this study, large amounts of data are analysed. Using statistics can ensure the data and provide it in the following table. Each variable's mean

and standard deviation are outlined in the following table, which also provides descriptive statistics for all the variables in this study.

Table 4. 1 Descriptive Statistics for all variables (N=175)

Variable	Mean (Std. Deviation)
Learning Flexibility	.83 (.15)
Active Conceptualization	21.2 (3.37)
Concrete Experience	18.21 (3.47)
Reflective Observation	21.15 (3.05)
Active Experiment	19.44 (3.412)
Adaptive Performance	4.73 (.78)
Adaptation	4.75 (.84)
Cultural Intelligence	4.73 (.83)
Ethnocentrism	3.90 (.37)
Cultural Distance	4.56 (.79)
Job Performance	5.27 (1.04)
Age	32.4 (.972)
Education Level	1.85 (.923)
Gender	1.35 (.479)

From the Descriptive Statistics table, it is clear that there is a missing data in this research; only 175 are non-missing values in this study. Whilst the researcher has already collected 224 questionnaires, however, only 175 of these can be used in this study. This is because the researcher found out that 28 of participants did not fill out the Learning Flexibility Index part; when asked about this, the interviewees reflected that this part was difficult for them to rank; 21 of participants filled in this part, but they did rate instead of rank. Therefore, 49 are considered incomplete questionnaires, and thus only 175 can be used in this study.

Furthermore, we can find out all the variables' mean in this table. The mean is the most well-known average value (Whitley & Ball, 2001). In turn, we can also find the standard deviation of each variable in this table. A low standard deviation suggests that most of the numbers are very close to the average, whilst a high standard deviation suggests that the numbers are spread out. From the table the average of AC is 21.2 and the standard deviation of AC is 3.37, the average of CE is 18.21 and the standard deviation of CE is 3.47, the average RO is 21.15 and the standard deviation of RO is 3.05, the average AE is 19.44 and the standard deviation of AE is 3.412, the average of adaptation is 4.75 and the standard deviation of adaptation is 0.84, the average of Learning Flexibility index is 0.83 and the standard deviation of Learning Flexibility Index is 0.15, the average of cultural intelligence is 4.73 and the standard deviation of cultural intelligence is 0.83, the average of ethnocentrism is 3.9 and the standard deviation of ethnocentrism is 0.37, the average of cultural distance is 4.56 and the standard deviation of cultural distance is 0.79, the average of adaptive performance is 4.73 and the standard deviation of adaptive performance is 0.78, and the average of job performance is 5.27 and the standard deviation of job performance is 1.04. Furthermore, from the table, we can also find that the average age of interviewees is 32.4 and the standard deviation of age is .972, the average education level is between bachelor's degree and master's degree and standard deviation of education is .923. Finally, 140 of the interviewees are men and 35 of the interviewees are women and the standard deviation of gender is .479. All the standard deviations are high in this table. This illustrates that the numbers are spread out over a wide range of values.

4.3 Normality

In the multivariate analysis uses normality to identify outliers. “Normality refers to the shape of the data distribution for an individual metric variable and its correspondence to the normal distribution, the benchmark for statistical methods (Hair et al., 2010).” This study tests univariate normality and multivariate normality. F statistic and T statistics are used to test normality, which is the test of normal distribution. Then, if the normal distribution’s variation is large, it is necessary to do statistical invalidity tests. Statistical tests are usually used to check the normal probability plot. Skewness values and Kurtosis values are used as variables’ descriptive statistics in a simple test. Skewness’s z-value is calculated based on the following formula by using SPSS: $Z_{skewness} = (S-0)/SE_{skewness}$. And Kurtosis’s z-value is calculated based on the following formula by using SPSS: $Z_{kurtosis} = (K-0)/SE_{kurtosis}$. The significance level for normality is the z-value, and it is significant if the z-value is higher than 3.29, and $p < 0.001$; it is significant if the z-value is higher than 2.58 and $p < 0.01$; it is significant if the z-value is higher than 1.96 and $p < 0.05$; and this is a non-normal sample distribution. However, if the test is not significant, the distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution. In this study the normality table is as below:

Table 4. 2 Normality Test for Variables

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
Adaptive Performance	-.124	.184	-.089	.365
Adaptation	-.109	.184	-.587	.365
Cultural Intelligence	.002	.184	-.938	.365
Ethnocentrism	.618	.184	1.417	.365
Cultural Distance	.573	.184	1.24	.365
Job Performance	-.589	.184	-.074	.365

Learning Flexibility	-1.875	.184	3.946	.365
----------------------	--------	------	-------	------

From table 4.2 using $z\text{-value} = \text{Statistic} / \text{std}$ to get the Skewness $z\text{-value}$ for Adaptation is -0.59, $p=0.006$ and the Kurtosis $z\text{-value}$ for Adaptation is -1.6, $p=0.006$; the Skewness $z\text{-value}$ for Cultural Intelligence is 0.01, $p=0$ and the Kurtosis $z\text{-value}$ for Cultural Intelligence is -2.57, $p=0.002$; the Skewness $z\text{-value}$ for Ethnocentrism is 3.36, $p=0$ and the Kurtosis $z\text{-value}$ for Ethnocentrism is 3.88, $p=0$; the Skewness $z\text{-value}$ for Cultural Distance is 3.11, $p=0$ and the Kurtosis $z\text{-value}$ for Cultural Distance is 3.39, $p=0$; the Skewness $z\text{-value}$ for Learning Flexibility is 10.19, $p=0$ and the Kurtosis $z\text{-value}$ for Learning Flexibility is 10.81, $p=0$; the Skewness $z\text{-value}$ for Adaptive Performance is -0.67, $p=0.015$ and the Kurtosis $z\text{-value}$ for Adaptive Performance is -0.24, $p=0.016$; the Skewness $z\text{-value}$ for Job Performance is -3.2, $p=0$ and the Kurtosis $z\text{-value}$ for Job Performance is 0.2, $p=0$. However, this is what was unexpected from the research because of the central limit theory which means that with the increase of the sample size, the assumption of normality matters less because the sampling distribution is normal regardless of what the sample data looks like. Therefore, in large samples, both skewness and kurtosis can be significant due to even small and unimportant influences, and even if both of them are not vastly different from normal (Field, 2009). In this research, the sample size is not larger than 200, so even if both skewness and kurtosis are significant; the sampling distribution is expected to be normal.

In conclusion, from these tables, we can find out that they are all normal distribution in this study. Each of the variables has a normal distribution, from the Q-Q plot figure, it can be seen that for all the variables, there is no extreme value that might make a metric contribution to the result. To consider the overall findings of the data, all values in each variable are taken into account.

4.4 Correlations for all variables

Field (2000) stated correlation as a method to test variables' linear relationships, and whilst Saunders (2009) stated that using a correlation coefficient can check numerical and ranked variables' linear relationships. Moreover, "The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) is often referred to as Pearson's product moment correlation (Hinton & Brownlow, 2004: 297)." The value of the coefficient is between -1 and +1. +1 reflects a perfect positive correlation, on the contrary, -1 reflects a negative correlation. The value between -1 and +1 suggests weaker positive and negative correlations, a value of 0 shows they are perfectly independent. In this study, the correlation coefficient can show the strength of the variables' relationships. In the following table, we can get an idea of all the variables in this study that show a significant correlation. And then we can understand the relationship among these variables to lay a foundation for the data analysis part.

Table 4. 3 Correlations for all variables

	LF	AC	CE	RO	AE	AP	A	CQ	E	CD	JP	G	EL	Age
LF	1	-.053	.176*	-.057	-.075	.000	.006	.004	-.125	.072	.012	-.040	.000	-.001
AC	-.053	1	-.451**	-.149*	-.398**	.069	.112	.032	-.051	.150*	.091	-.016	.024	.035
CE	.176*	-.451**	1	-	-.255**	.005	-.017	.063	.024	-.009	-.032	.027	.020	.020
				.354**										
RO	-.057	-.149*	-.354**	1	-.386**	-.180*	-.186*	-.066	-.058	-.133	-.112	.032	.005	-.086
AE	-.075	-.398**	-.255**	-	1	.091	.075	-.035	.084	-.018	.046	-.041	-.047	.020
				.386**										
AP	.000	.069	.005	-.180*	.091	1	.775**	.625**	-.273**	.439**	.763**	.042	.040	.247**
A	.006	.112	-.017	-.186*	.075	.775**	1	.597**	-.257**	.403**	.715**	-.075	-.049	.263**
CQ	.004	.032	.063	-.066	-.035	.625**	.597**	1	-.251**	.643**	.647**	-.020	-.080	.163*
E	-.125	-.051	.024	-.058	.084	.273**	.257**	.251**	1	.340**	.116	-.107	-.067	.041
CD	.072	.150*	-.009	-.133	-.018	.439**	.403**	.643**	.340**	1	.376**	-.028	-.027	.249**
JP	.012	.091	-.032	-.112	.046	.763**	.715**	.647**	-.116	.376**	1	-.044	.021	.219**
G	-.040	-.016	.027	.032	-.041	.042	-.075	-.020	-.107	-.028	-.044	1	.034	-.157*
EL	.000	.024	.020	.005	-.047	.040	-.049	-.080	-.067	-.027	.021	.034	1	.220**
Age	-.001	.035	.020	-.086	.020	.247**	.263**	.163*	.041	.249**	.219**	-.157*	.220**	1

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

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

In this table, LF refers to Learning Flexibility, AP refers to Adaptive Performance, A refers to Adaptation, CQ refers to Cultural Intelligence, E refers to Ethnocentrism, CD refers to Cultural Distance, JP refers to Job Performance, G refers to Gender and EL refers to Education Level.

From the correlations table, we can find out all the relationships between any two variables in this study, although only some of these will be used in this study. The Pearson's r for the correlations between Adaptation and Adaptive Performance is .775, which is a strong and positive relationship; the Pearson's r for the correlation between Adaptation and Cultural Intelligence is .597, which is a strong and positive relationship; the Pearson's r for the correlations between Adaptation and Ethnocentrism is -0.257, which is a weak and negative relationship; the Pearson's r for the correlations between Adaptation and Learning Flexibility is .006, which is a weak and positive relationship; the Pearson's r for the correlations between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance is -.273, which is a weak and negative relationship; the Pearson's r for the correlation between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance is 0, which means there is no relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance; the Pearson's r for the correlations between Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance is .439, which is a weak and positive relationship. Excluding the relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptation, Adaptive Performance, the rest of the relationships are as expected in this study.

Furthermore, based on this table we can also find out the significant value (which is less than 0.05) between variables,; for Adaptation and Adaptive Performance it is 0, which means there is a significant relationship between Adaptation and Adaptive Performance; for Adaptation and Cultural Intelligence it is 0, which means there is a significant relationship between Adaptation and Cultural Intelligence; for Adaptation and Ethnocentrism it is .001, which means there is a significant relationship between Adaptation and Ethnocentrism; for Adaptation and Learning Flexibility it is .938, which means there is no relationship between Adaptation and Learning Flexibility; for

Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance it is 0, which means there is significant relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance; for Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance it is .997, which means there is no relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance; for Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance it is 0, which means there is a significant relationship between Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance.

4.5 Regression Analysis for Hypotheses Testes

Field (2009) stated regression analysis as a method to predict an outcome variable from one or several predictor variables. This means that through regression analysis we can find out the significant relationships among variables. In addition regression analysis is also one of the most widely used statistical procedures for both scholarly and applied marketing research as the researchers can use it to simply and easily get results. Therefore in this part hypotheses 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 11 will be analysed using regression analysis to provide the results for this study. Hypothesis 1 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 1: Adaptation is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

Hypothesis 2 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 2: Cultural intelligence is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation.

Hypothesis 6 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 6: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptation.

Hypothesis 7 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 7: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptive performance.

Hypothesis 8 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 8: Learning flexibility is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation.

Hypothesis 9 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 9: Expatriates' higher learning flexibility is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

Hypothesis 11 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 11: Cultural distance is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance.

4.5.1 Regression Analysis for Adaptation

Based on the literature review and the results of the data analysis, this part will find out the relationship between adaptation and cultural intelligence, ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, and Cultural Distance. It will test hypotheses 2, 6, and 8 in this study.

Table 4. 4 Regression Analysis for Adaptation

Adaptation						
Variables	mean	Std.	b	β	t	P
Cultural Intelligence	4.69	.83	.62	.6	1.74	0
Ethnocentrism	3.9	.35	.28	.12	7.32	0
Cultural Distance	4.53	.81	-.09	-.08	1.64	0
Gender	1.37	.49	.001	.001	-.93	.22

Education Level	1.89	.93	-.03	-.03	.01	.37
Age	3.01	.98	.15	.17	-.44	0
Learning Flexibility	.82	.16	.32	.06	2.45	.4
AC	21.28	3.4				.08
.CE	18.31	3.52	-.033	-.14	-1.77	.37
RO	21.01	3.01	-.04	-.14	-1.76	.04
AE	19.4	3.45	-.01	-.04	-.54	.29
<hr/>						
F	11.26					
R ²	.44					
Adjusted R ²	.4					
<hr/>						

Table 4.4 summarizes the mean scores and standard deviations of Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Cultural Distance, Gender, Education Level, Age, Learning Flexibility, Active Conceptualization, Concrete Experience, Reflective Observation, and Active Experimentation.

Based on the Correlations Table (P136), the Pearson Correlation between Adaptation and other variables: Adaptation and Cultural Intelligence r is .597 and $p=0<0.001$, which means there is a significant relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation, and this also shows that Cultural Intelligence is positively related to Adaptation, if expatriates have higher Cultural Intelligence, this will lead to expatriates earlier to adaptation in China; Adaptation and Ethnocentrism r is -.26 and $p=0<0.001$, which means there is a significant relationship between expatriates Adaptation and Ethnocentrism in China, furthermore we can also find out that Ethnocentrism is

negatively related to Adaptation, if expatriates Ethnocentrism increases, expatriates Adaptation decreases; Adaptation and Cultural Distance $r=.4$ and $p=0 <0.001$, which means there is a significant relationship between expatriates Adaptation and Cultural Distance, furthermore we can also find that Cultural Distance is positively related to Adaptation, if expatriates' Cultural Distance increases, this will lead to expatriates Adaptation increasing in China; Adaptation and Gender $r=-.075$ and $p=.22 >0.001$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptation and Gender; Adaptation and Education Level $r=-.049$ and $p=.37 >0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptation and Education Level; Adaptation and Age $r=.263$ and $p=0 <0.001$, which means there is a strong relationship between expatriates Adaptation and Age, in addition we also can find out that expatriates' Age is positively related to expatriates' Adaptation in China, if expatriates age increase will lead to expatriates Adaptation increasing in China; Adaptation and Learning Flexibility $r=0.006$ and $p=.4$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptation and Learning Flexibility; Adaptation and AC $r=.11$ and $p=.08 >0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptation and AC; Adaptation and CE $r=-.017$ and $p=.37 >0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptation and CE; Adaptation and RO $r=-.186$ and $p=.04 <0.05$, which means RO is negatively related to Adaptation, and so if expatriates' RO increases, this will lead to expatriates' Adaptation decreasing in China; Adaptation and AE $r=.075$ and $p=.29 >0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptation and AE.

In addition, we can find in table 4.4, adjusted R^2 (a measure of how much of the variability in the outcome is accounted for by adaptation) is 0.4 and significant (p -value) = 0 <0.05, which means these variables are positively related to expatriates' Adaptation in China. Furthermore, we can find out that the F-ratio (the ratio of the

improvement in the prediction that results from fitting the model, relative to the inaccuracy that still exists in the model) is 11.26.

After analysing these data, the researcher further examines the relationship between Adaptation and Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, and Cultural Distance. Hypothesis 2 is outlined below:

- Hypothesis 2: Cultural Intelligence is positively related to expatriates Adaptation in China.

Hypothesis 6 is outlined below:

- Hypothesis 6: Ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates Adaptation in China.

Hypothesis 8 is outlined below:

- Hypothesis 8: Learning Flexibility is positively related to expatriates Adaptation in China.

Chou et al. (2012) listed a range of challenges for expatriates, such as Chinese guanxi, food, weather, cultural shock, and homesickness problems. It is necessary for expatriates to have sufficient knowledge of the Chinese culture. This study could also test the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptation, which could enhance our understanding of cultural intelligence development, as has suggested by Li (2013) in the future study part. In the previous part already confirmed that cultural intelligence is positively related to expatriates' adaptation in China. However, in the meantime, from the data analysis, cultural intelligence was found to have a relationship with other variables as well. Hypothesis 2 examined whether cultural intelligence could affect expatriates adaptation in China. Based on the results we can find out that cultural intelligence is positively related to expatriates' adaptation in China. This suggests that expatriates can understand different cultures and adjust themselves to perform in a

diverse cultural setting that relates to local living conditions and interactions in China. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is confirmed and it can fill the gap.

In addition, Shirley et al. (2016: 13) said “future research should extend outcomes of categorization (e.g. expatriate adjustment; expatriate performance)”. Caligiuri (2016) proposed the same suggestion for future study. Hypothesis 6 is related to examining whether Ethnocentrism could affect expatriates’ adaptation in China. Based on the results we can find out that Ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates adaptation in China, which supports Hypothesis 6 in this study. In 1990, Black confirmed that ethnocentricity is negatively related to all facets of adjustment. In addition, this study confirms that Expatriates who have higher ethnocentrism will struggle to adapt more than those who have lower ethnocentrism to China. Therefore, based on the results, hypothesis 6 that Ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates’ Adaptation in China is confirmed and supports Calugiuri’s proposal of 2016.

Furthermore, Yamazaki and Kayes (2004) stated that expatriates will be influenced by different cultures and are required to get certain skills to transfer to a new place for survival. Expatriates’ ability to learn a new culture is regarded as their success or failure to adapt to the new place. It is important for expatriates to learn from basic experience and transitions (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Kolb (1984) have the same opinion that it is quite important for expatriates to learn effectively to adapt to cross-cultural settings, due to basic push to adapt to a new culture. However, there are a few studies that have focused on the relationship between adaptation and learning flexibility, especially expatriates who adapt to Chinese culture. This study is based on Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning theory and using KLSI 4.0 which includes the learning flexibility measurement (LFI)- LFI is a new measure that replaces the ASI, trying to contribute to

the deeper understanding of facts that influence expatriate job performance. Furthermore, based on Kolb's (1984) experience learning theory they could find the relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation, and adaptive performance. This study will try to demonstrate that expatriates with higher levels of learning flexibility have a better performance in China. Hypothesis 8 related to examining whether Learning Flexibility could affect expatriates adaptation in China. Expatriates' ability to learn a new culture is regarded as their success or failure to adapt to the new place. However, according to the results, we could not find any relationship between Learning Flexibility and expatriates adaptation in China. This, therefore, did not demonstrate that expatriates with higher levels of learning flexibility could adapt easier than those who have lower levels of learning flexibility in China. Therefore, hypothesis 8 is refuted.

In addition based on the data analysis, we could also confirm Cultural Distance is positively related to expatriates Adaptation in China; furthermore, RO has positively related to expatriates Adaptation in China.

In summary, cultural intelligence is positively related to expatriates adaptation in China, which supports hypothesis 2 in this study. Ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates adaptation in China, which supports hypothesis 6 in this study. However, from the table, we could not find any relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptation, which refuted hypothesis 8 in this study. In addition, we also found a positive relationship between Adaptation and Cultural Distance, RO respectively.

4.5.2 Regression Analysis for Adaptive Performance

Based on the literature review and the results of the data analysis, this part will find out the relationship between adaptive performance and adaptation, ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, and Cultural Distance. This will then provide the results for hypothesis 1, 7, 9, and 11 in this study.

Table 4. 5 Regression Analysis for Adaptive Performance

Adaptive Performance						
Variables	mean	Std.	b	β	t	p
Cultural Intelligence	4.69	.83	.23	.24	3.34	0
Ethnocentrism	3.9	.35	.05	.02	.41	0
Cultural Distance	4.53	.81	.02	.02	.29	0
Gender	1.37	.49	.1	.06	1.34	.45
Education Level	1.89	.93	.09	.13	2.17	.16
Age	3.01	.98	.03	.04	.79	0
Learning Flexibility	.82	.16	-.09	-.02	-.38	.46
AC	21.28	3.4				.21
CE	18.31	3.52	.002	.01	.14	.46
RO	21.01	3.01	-.01	-.05	-.74	.011
AE	19.4	3.45	.01	.05	.91	.14
Adaptation	4.74	.84	.59	.63	10.21	0
F	30.34					
R ²	.7					
Adjusted R ²	.68					

In table 4.5 summarises the mean scores and standard deviations of Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Cultural Distance, Gender, Education Level, Age, Learning Flexibility, Active Conceptualization, Concrete Experience, Reflective Observation, and Active Experimentation.

Based on the Correlations Table (P136), the Pearson Correlation between Adaptive Performance and other variables: Adaptation and Adaptive Performance r is .775 and $p=0<0.001$, which means there is strong relationship between expatriates Adaptation and Adaptive Performance in China, in addition we can find out that Adaptation is positively related to Adaptive Performance, that means if expatriates have higher Adaptation this will lead to expatriates Adaptive Performance being higher in China; Adaptive Performance and Ethnocentrism r is $-.273$ and $p=0<0.001$, which means there is strong relationship between expatriates Adaptive performance and ethnocentrism in China, in addition we can find out that Ethnocentrism is negatively related to Adaptive Performance, that means if expatriates Ethnocentrism increase, expatriates Adaptive Performance will decrease; Adaptive Performance and Cultural Distance $r=.439$ and $p=0 <0.001$, which means there is strong relationship between expatriates adaptive performance and cultural distance in China, in addition we can find out that expatriates Cultural Distance is positively related to Adaptive Performance in China, that means if expatriates Cultural Distance increase this will lead to an increase in expatriates Adaptive Performance in China; Adaptive Performance and Cultural Intelligence $r=.625$ and $p=0 <0.01$, which means there is strong relationship between expatriates adaptive performance and cultural intelligence in China, in addition we can find out that there is positive relationship between expatriates Adaptive Performance and Cultural Intelligence in China, that means if expatriates have a higher Cultural Intelligence this will lead to expatriates Adaptive Performance being higher in China; Adaptive Performance and Gender $r=-.042$ and $p=.45>0.001$, which means there is no relationship

between Adaptive Performance and Gender; Adaptation and Education Level $r=-.04$ and $p=.16>0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptive Performance and Education Level; Adaptive Performance and Age $r=.25$ and $p=0<0.001$, which means there is strong relationship between expatriates Adaptive Performance and Age in China, in addition we can find out that expatriates Age is positively related to Adaptive Performance in China, that means if expatriates age increases this will lead to an increase in expatriates Adaptive Performance in China; Adaptive Performance and Learning Flexibility $r=0$ and $p=.46>0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptive Performance and Learning Flexibility; Adaptive Performance and AC $r=.069$ and $p=.21>0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptive Performance and AC; Adaptive Performance and CE $r=-.005$ and $p=.46>0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptive Performance and CE; Adaptive Performance and RO $r=-.18$ and $p=.011<0.05$, which means RO is negatively related to Adaptive Performance, if expatriates RO increase will lead to expatriates Adaptive Performance decrease in China; Adaptive Performance and AE $r=.09$ and $p=.14>0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptive Performance and AE.

In addition, we could find that adjusted R^2 (a measure of how much of the variability in the outcome is accounted for by Adaptive Performance) is 0.7, significant (p-value) = 0 <0.05 , which means these variables are positively related to expatriates Adaptive Performance in China. Furthermore, we could find F-ratio (the ratio of the improvement in the prediction that results from fitting the model, relative to the inaccuracy that still exists in the model) is 30.34.

After the analysis of this data, the researcher further examines the relationship between Adaptive Performance and Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, and Cultural Distance. Hypothesis 1 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 1: Adaptation is positively related to expatriates Adaptive Performance in China.

Hypothesis 7 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 7: Ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates Adaptive Performance in China.

Hypothesis 9 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 9: Learning Flexibility is positively related to expatriates Adaptive Performance in China.

Hypothesis 11 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 11: Cultural Distance is positively related to expatriates Adaptive Performance in China.

Successful adaptive performance requires that employees adapt quickly and easily, therefore this study needs to test the relationship between adaptation and adaptive performance. Whether the expatriates could adapt quickly and easily or not is about their adaptive performance in China, which finally could affect their job performance in China. Based on the results of this study, we confirm that expatriates Adaptation is positively related to expatriates Adaptive Performance in China. This supports hypothesis 1 in this study which will fill the gap.

Furthermore, Black (1990) stated that ethnocentricity is negatively related to all facets of adjustment. Ethnocentric expatriates experience greater anxiety when entering a new

culture (Stephan et al., 1995) and avoid cross-cultural interactions in an effort to reduce their anxiety, thus potentially affects their performance on the assignment (Neuliep, 2012; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). Caligiuri (2016) tested the ethnocentrism moderate the relationship between the perceived support in the host national environment and performance. In addition, Shirley et al. (2016: 13) said: “future research should extend outcomes of categorization (for example expatriate adjustment; expatriate performance)”. In the adaptation part, we have already confirmed that Ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates adaptation in China. Furthermore, in this part, we could also find out that Ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriates Adaptive Performance in China, which confirmed the hypothesis 7 in this study. On the other hand, one of the dimensions of adaptive performance in Learning New Tasks, Technologies, and Procedures. This aspect of adaptive performance has become more important due to how technological advancement has grown and how much emphasis has been placed on continuous learning within organisations. Employees today are continuously faced with learning new ways on how to perform in their job roles (Hesketh & Neal, 1999). Learning also means the increasing and on-going process of productive planning for and participating in development employees need for probable future job requirements; it could adapt to changing job requirements by learning new tasks, technologies, procedures, and roles in China. Based on the results we could not find any relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance, which rejects hypothesis 9 in this study.

Peltokorpi (2008) contends that cultural distance is negatively related to non-work and work-related adjustment. Although non-work and work adjustment has a relationship with performance, few studies have examined the relationship between cultural distance

and expatriates' performance (for example Babiker et al., 1980; Morosini, 1998; Tihanyi, 2005). Cultural distance has proven to be an important forecaster of employers adapting and ill-being within travellers choosing to work in another country, the greater the difference predicts more difficulties mixing in different cultures (Dunbar, 1994; Furnham & Bochner, 1982; Geeraert & Demoulin, 2013; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward et al., 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 1999). The larger the difference between two different cultures means there will be a greater challenge for employees to adapt to their new surroundings. As an expat a lot of these difficulties in adjusting are down to uncertainty (Black et al., 1991; Kauppinen, 1994). Expatriates who are on an international assignment are generally unsure about their new physical environment, culturally appropriate behaviour and host nationals, expats will face more difficulties in adjusting to the host culture (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Yet Selmer (1997a, 1997b) found that Western expatriates have fewer problems with being able to adjust in China than ethnic Chinese expatriates, regardless of the western expatriates experiencing a larger cultural distance. Successful adaptive performance requires that employees adapt quickly and easily, which the researcher needs to test the relationship between adaptation and adaptive performance. Faruk (2014) tested the relationship among cultural intelligence, adaptive performance, and self-efficacy. Oolders et al. (2008) have demonstrated a positive link between cultural intelligence and adaptive performance. Cultural distance is an important factor in the internationalization of companies (Cao & Zhang, 2017). Based on the results this can fill the gap between Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance to confirm that expatriates Cultural Distance is positively related to Adaptive Performance in China, which is confirmed hypothesis 11.

These results have found that there is a positive relationship between Cultural

Intelligence and Adaptive Performance, between Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance, and a negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance, which will lead to the following analysis in this study. In addition, in this study, we also know that Cultural Distance and Gender are another two factors that could affect expatriates Ethnocentrism in China. In a future study, researchers could consider these two factors that could affect expatriates Ethnocentrism to minimize problems in China.

4.6 Process by Hayes for Hypotheses Testes

PROCESS is a new method to analyse moderation, mediation, and conditional process analysis, which was written by Andrew F. Hayes in 2013. Process by Hayes is used in business, and the social arena to find serial and parallel models and moderators and mediators models. “One of the nice features of PROCESS is that it can estimate the coefficients in a simple mediation model such as this, as well as more complex models involving multiple mediators while providing an estimate of the indirect effect, various inferential tests. Furthermore, it can be used for moderation analysis and modelling that combines moderation and mediation” (Hayes, 2013: 100). Using Process by Hayes can explain moderated mediation and mediated moderation through different models, which can give us a clear way to understand the relationship among variables. Therefore, in this study, Process by Hayes will be used for variables’ moderation and mediation analysis. In this part, using Process by Hayes, hypothesis 10, 12, 13, 14, and 15 will be analysed to provide the results for this study. As hypothesis 10 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 10: Cultural distance moderates the positive relationship between learning flexibility and expatriates' adaptive performance.

As hypothesis 12 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 12: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation.

As hypothesis 13 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 13: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation.

As hypothesis 14 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 14: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation.

As hypothesis 15 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 15: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation.

While, Mediation and Moderation were introduced by Hayes using a really simple and understandable way, which are introduced in Chapter 3. Using Process by Hayes' models we could easily do Mediation analysis to test hypothesis 12, 13, 14, and 15 to find out the relationship among expatriates' cultural intelligence, adaptation, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, and adaptive performance in China. Furthermore, in this research moderation analysis will be used in hypothesis 10 to find out the

relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, and Adaptive Performance in China. Although there are limitations of Process by Hayes, using Hayes' models is an easy and understandable way for the researchers to understand mediation analysis and moderation analysis to find out the relationships among variables.

4.6.1 The relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance (Moderation)

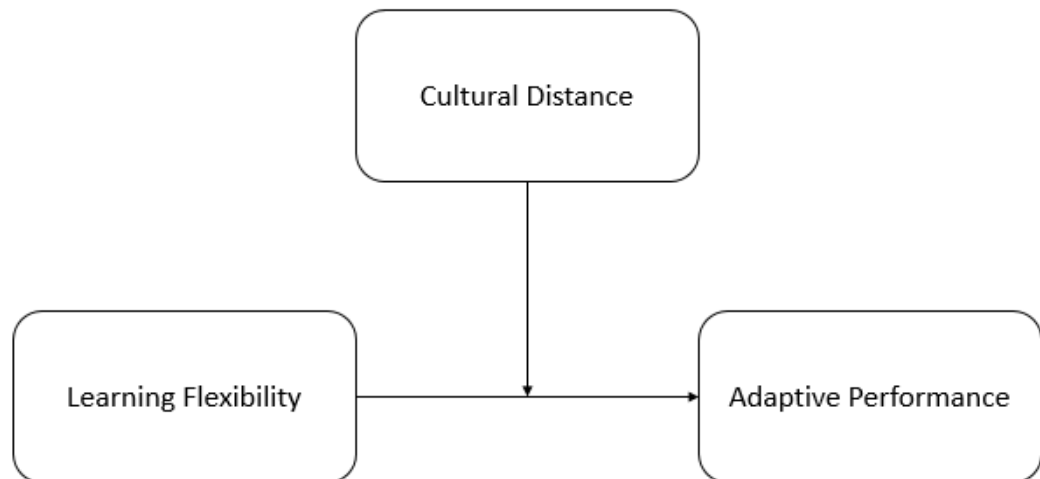
Moving to a new culture affects the way people learn because the new environment or culture requires a certain level of survival skills (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). When expatriates come to a new environment, they may have difficulty adjusting there, because there is a lot to do with uncertainty (Black et al., 1991; Kauppinen, 1994). This is due to employees being unsure of their new physical environment, how to adapt to culturally appropriate behaviours and host nationals. It has been said that the more of a cultural divide there is between their home countries and the host country the more difficulties the expat will experience (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Yet Selmer (1997a, 1997b) stated that the more difficulties the expatriate will experience with adjusting to the host culture found that western expatriates reported fewer difficulties in adjusting to China than ethnic Chinese expats. Even though, western expatriates experience a larger cultural distance.

In this part which was associated with the relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance was to test and provide the results for Hypothesis 10. Moderation plays an important role in many social science theories (Hayes, 2013).

In this study moderation analysis is an appropriate analytical strategy to confirm Learning Flexibility effect on Adaptive Performance by Cultural Distance. An association between two variables expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance in China is moderated by Cultural Distance. That means Cultural Distance moderate the causal effect of Learning Flexibility on Adaptive Performance. In this part, a simple moderation model with a single moderator variable Cultural Distance influencing the effect of Learning Flexibility on Adaptive Performance. Hypothesis 10 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 10: Cultural distance moderates the positive relationship between learning flexibility and expatriates' adaptive performance.

Figure 4. 1 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 10



Model 1 was used to analysis the relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, and Adaptive Performance in China. Cultural Distance is Mi (Mediator), Learning Flexibility is X (Independent Variable) and Adaptive Performance

is Y (Dependent Variable). This moderation analysis is conducted that Learning Flexibility's effect on Adaptive Performance is moderated by Cultural Distance. If Cultural Distance is related to the magnitude of the effect of Learning Flexibility on Adaptive Performance, we can confirm hypothesis 10 that expatriates Cultural Distance and Learning Flexibility interact in their influence on Adaptive Performance in China. After running the Process by Hayes' Model 1, we got the following results:

Table 4. 6 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 10

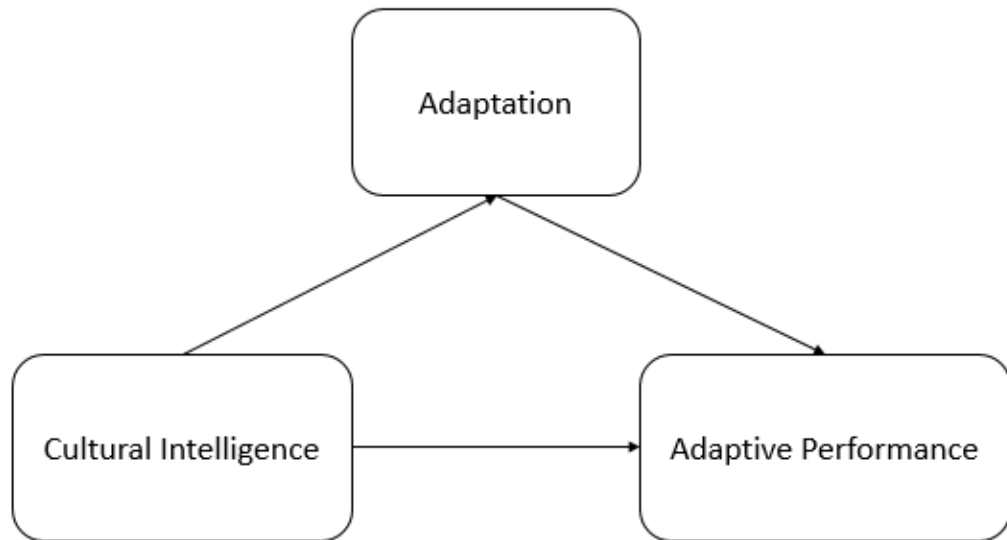
Consequent			
Adaptive Performance			
Antecedent	Coeff.	SE	p
Cultural Distance	.2	.4	.7
Learning Flexibility	-1.7	1.9	.4
Constant	4.1	1.6	0

From this moderation table, we could find out that there is no relationship between Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance ($p > 0.01$); furthermore, there is no relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance ($p > 0.01$). After analysing data, we cannot find the effect of Learning Flexibility on Adaptive Performance by Cultural Distance. There is no relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, and Adaptive Performance. Therefore, hypothesis 10 Cultural distance moderates the positive relationship between learning flexibility and expatriates' adaptive performance is refuted.

4.6.2 The relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance (Mediation Analysis)

Based on these results, we have already found out the positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance. This part was associated with the relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance to test and provide the results using Process by Hayes. There are 50 models in Process by Hayes for integrating Mediation and Moderation analysis. In this part Model 4 will be used to analysis the relationship among expatriates Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, and Adaptive Performance in China. Through this model is to establish how Cultural Intelligence applies its effect on Adaptive Performance and it frequently suggests a model in which one intervening variables Adaptation is located casually between cultural intelligence and adaptive performance in China. Mediation analysis will be used in this part. Some of the most cited journal articles in methodology both historically (for example, Baron & Kenny, 1986) and also recent journal articles (for example, MacKinnon et al., 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008a) discuss mediation analysis and various statistical approaches which quantify and test hypotheses about both direct and indirect Cultural Intelligence's effects and Adaptive Performance.

Figure 4. 2 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 12



Model 4 was used to analysis the relationship among expatriates Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance. Adaptation is Mi (Mediator), Cultural Intelligence is X (Independent Variable) and Adaptive Performance is Y (Dependent Variable). This is a simple mediation model with a single mediator variable (Adaptation) causally located between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance. There are two pathways of influence through Cultural Intelligence that carry its effect on Adaptive Performance depicted in figure 4.4, one direct from Cultural Intelligence to Adaptive Performance and the other indirectly through Adaptation. In addition, we can know that this model contains two consequent variables- Adaptation and Adaptive Performance and two antecedent variables Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation, with Cultural Intelligence influencing Adaptive Performance and Adaptation, and Adaptation causally influencing Adaptive Performance.

After running Process by Hayes' Model 4, we got the following results:

Table 4. 7 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 12

Antecedent	Consequent					
	Adaptation			Adaptive Performance		
	Coeff.	SE	p	Coeff.	SE	p
Adaptation				.58	.05	0
Cultural Intelligence	.61	.06	0	.24	.05	0
constant	1.88	.3	0	.82	.23	.0005

From this mediation table, we could find out that Cultural Intelligence is a significant predictor of Adaptation ($p=0$); Adaptation is a significant predictor of Adaptive Performance ($p=0$); Cultural Intelligence is a significant predictor of Adaptive Performance ($p=0$). It first passes from Cultural Intelligence to Adaptation and then from Adaptation to Adaptive Performance. The indirect effect represents how Adaptive Performance is influenced by Cultural Intelligence through a causal sequence in which Cultural Intelligence influences Adaptation, which in turn influences Adaptive Performance. That means expatriates Adaptation mediates the relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance in China. That is, variation in Cultural Intelligence causes variation in one mediator-Adaptation, which in turn causes variation in Adaptive Performance. Based on these analyses, hypothesis 12 is described as below:

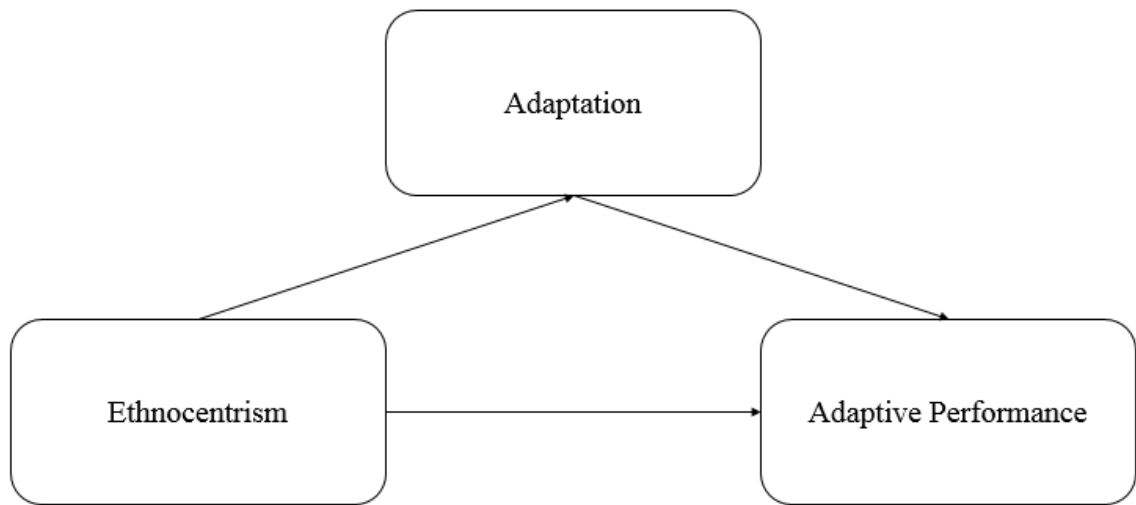
- Hypothesis 12: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation.

It is confirmed in this study to fill the gap.

4.6.3 The relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance (Mediation Analysis)

Based on these results, we could find out there is a negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptation, Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance, however, a positive relationship between Adaptation and Adaptive Performance, therefore, in this part we will try to find out the relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance. In this part that was associated with the relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance was to test and provide the results using Process by Hayes. There are 50 models in the Process by Hayes for integrating Mediation and Moderation analysis. In this part, Model 4 will be used to analyse the relationship among expatriates Adaptation, Ethnocentrism, and Adaptive Performance in China. This model was used to establish how Ethnocentrism applies its effect on Adaptive Performance and regularly postulates a model where one intervening variable Adaptation is located casually between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance. Mediation analysis will be used in this part. Frequently cited journal articles in methodology form the past (for example, Baron & Kenny, 1986) and more recently (for example, MacKinnon et al., 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008a) discuss mediation analysis and other statistical approaches to quantifying and testing the hypotheses about both direct and indirect effects of Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance in China.

Figure 4. 3 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 13



Model 4 was used to analysis the relationship among expatriates Ethnocentrism, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance. Adaptation is Mi (Mediator), Ethnocentrism is X (Independent Variable) and Adaptive Performance is Y (Dependent Variable). This is a simple mediation model with a single mediator variable (Adaptation) casually located between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance. There are two pathways of influence through Ethnocentrism which carry its effect on Adaptive Performance depicted in figure 4.5, one direct from Ethnocentrism to Adaptive Performance and the other indirect through Adaptation. In addition, we can know that this model contains two consequent variables- Adaptation and Adaptive Performance and two antecedent variables Ethnocentrism and Adaptation, with Ethnocentrism influencing Adaptive Performance and Adaptation, and Adaptation casually influencing Adaptive Performance. After running Process by Hayes' Model 4, we got the following results:

Table 4. 8 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 13

Antecedent	Consequent					
	Adaptation			Adaptive Performance		
	Coeff.	SE	p	Coeff.	SE	p
Adaptation				.71	0.05	0
Ethnocentrism	.58	.17	0.0006	.58	.15	0.0003
Constant	2.48	.65	0.002	2.47	.61	0.0001

From this mediation table, we could find out that Ethnocentrism is a significant predictor of Adaptation ($p=0.0006$); Adaptation is a significant predictor of Adaptive Performance ($p=0$); Ethnocentrism is a significant predictor of Adaptive Performance ($p=0.0003$). That means Adaptation mediates the relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance. It first passes from Ethnocentrism to Adaptation and then from Adaptation to Adaptive Performance. The indirect effect represents how Adaptive Performance is influenced by Ethnocentrism through a causal sequence in which Ethnocentrism influences Adaptation, which in turn influences Adaptive Performance. That means expatriates Adaptation mediates the relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance in China. That is, variation in Ethnocentrism causes variation in one mediator-Adaptation, which in turn causes variation in Adaptive Performance. Based on these analyses, hypothesis 13 is described below:

- Hypothesis 13: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation.

It is confirmed in this study to fill the gap.

4.6.4 The relationship among Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance (Multiple Mediator Model)

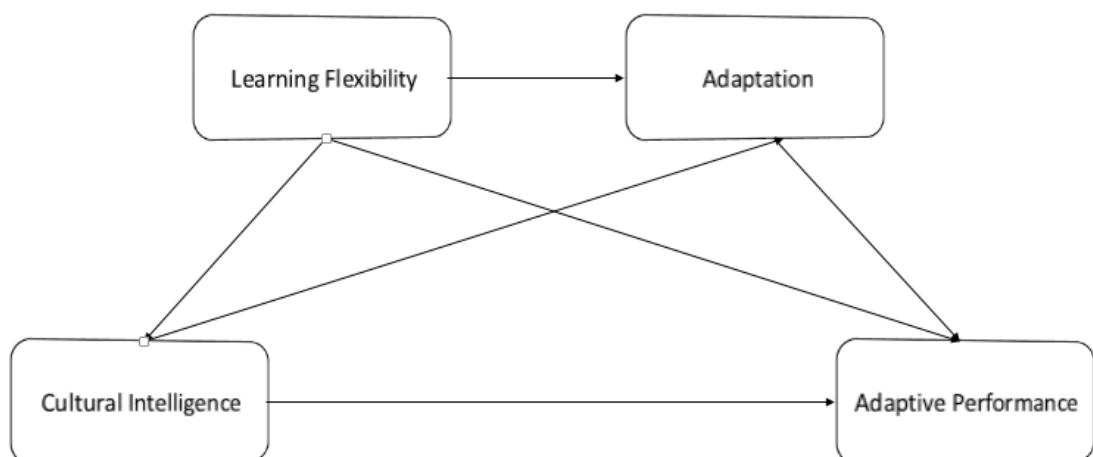
Based on the last Process the results, in this part were associated with the relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Learning Flexibility, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance to test and provide the results for hypothesis 14. As hypothesis 14 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 14: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation.

There are two mediators- M_1 (Learning Flexibility) and M_2 (Adaptation) in this part.

When an investigator figures out a number of multiple mediator model the aim is to investigate both direct and indirect effects of Cultural Intelligence on Adaptive Performance while also modelling a process where cultural intelligence causes learning flexibility, this then causes adaptation which concludes with adaptive performance being the final result.

Figure 4. 4 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 14



Model 6 was used to analysis the relationship among expatriates Cultural Intelligence, Learning Flexibility, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance, because there are two mediators in this model which model 6 presented: X is Cultural Intelligence, Y is Adaptive Performance, M₁ is Learning Flexibility, and M₂ is Adaptation. CQ is modelled as affecting Adaptive Performance through four pathways. One pathway is indirect and runs from CQ to Adaptive Performance through Learning Flexibility only; a second indirect pathway runs through Adaptation only; a third indirect influence passes through both Learning Flexibility and Adaptation sequentially, with Learning Flexibility affecting Adaptation. The remaining effect of Cultural Intelligence is direct from Cultural Intelligence to Adaptive Performance without passing through either Learning Flexibility or Adaptation.

Table 4. 9 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 14

	Consequent								
	Learning Flexibility			Adaptation			Adaptive Performance		
Antecedent	Coeff.	SE	P	Coeff.	SE	P	Coeff.	SE	P
Cultural Intelligence	.0007	.0138	.9601	.6061	.622	.0000	.2392	.0542	.0000
Learning Flexibility				.0203	.3415	.9526	-	.2392	.9240
Adaptation							.0229		
Constant	.8280	.0663	<0.01	.8664	.4107	<0.01	.5847	.0534	.0000

From this table, we could figure out the results of Process by Hayes. First, for Learning Flexibility's outcome, there is no significant relationship between Learning Flexibility

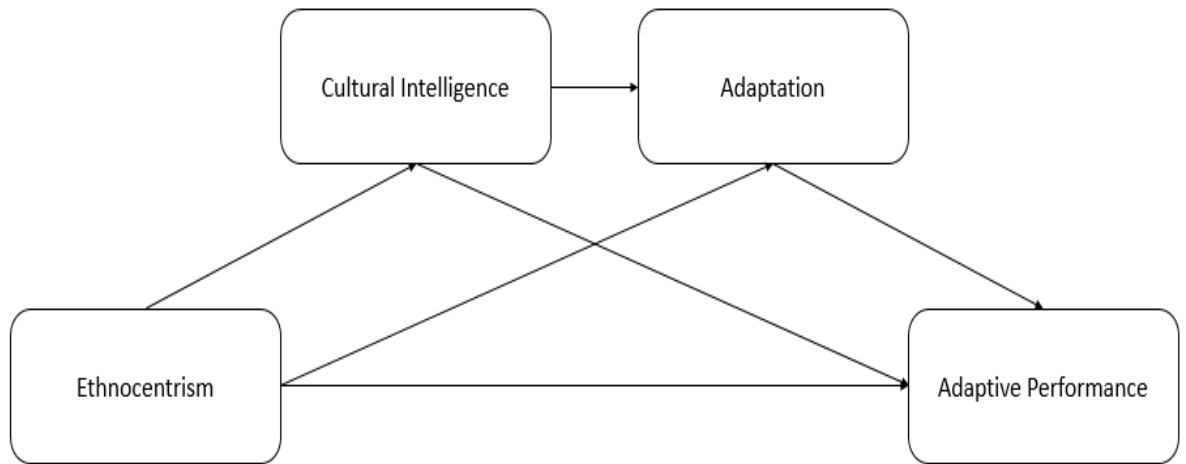
and Cultural Intelligence, $p=0.9601$. Second, for Adaptation's outcome, there is no significant relationship between Adaptation and Learning Flexibility, $p=0.9526$; however, there is a significant relationship between Adaptation and Cultural intelligence, $p<0.01$. Third, For Adaptive Performance's outcome, there is no significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Learning Flexibility, $p=0.924$; however, there is a significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Adaptation $p<0.01$; in addition, there is a significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Cultural Intelligence, $p<0.01$. Therefore, hypothesis 14: the positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation is refuted in this study.

4.6.5 The relationship among Ethnocentrism, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance (Multiple Mediator Model)

Based on the results, we have found out there is a positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance, Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance, and a negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptation, Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance, therefore, in this part will try to find out the relationship among Ethnocentrism, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance to provide hypothesis 15 in this study. As hypothesis 15 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 15: The negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation.

Figure 4. 5 Process by Hayes' Model for Hypothesis 15



Model 6 was used to analysis the relationship among expatriates Ethnocentrism, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance, because there are two mediators in this model which model 6 presented: X is Ethnocentrism, Y is Adaptive Performance, M_1 is Cultural Intelligence, and M_2 is Adaptation. Ethnocentrism is modelled as affecting Adaptive Performance through four pathways. One pathway is indirect and runs from Ethnocentrism to Adaptive Performance through Cultural Intelligence only; a second indirect pathway runs through Adaptation only; a third indirect influence passes through both Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation sequentially, with Cultural Intelligence affecting Adaptation. The remaining effect of Ethnocentrism is direct from Ethnocentrism to Adaptive Performance without passing through either Cultural Intelligence or Adaptation. After analysing the data, the following table is summarized for providing the results for hypothesis 15 in this study.

Table 4. 10 Results of Process by Hayes for Hypothesis 15

Consequent

Antecedent	CQ			Adaptation			Adaptive Performance		
	Coeff	SE	P	Coeff	SE	P	Coeff	SE	P
Ethnocentris	.56	.1	.0008	.26	.1	.07	.11	.1	.26
m		6			4				
CQ				.58	.0	0	.23	.0	.00003
					6			5	5
Adaptation							.58	.0	0
								5	
Constant	2.55	.6	<0.0	1.01	.5	>0.0	.45	.4	.26
		4	1		6	1			

From this table, we could figure out the results of Process by Hayes. First, for Cultural Intelligence, there is a significant relationship between Ethnocentrism and Cultural Intelligence, $p=0$. Second, for Adaptation's outcome, there is a significant relationship between Adaptation and Cultural Intelligence, $p=0$; however, there is no significant relationship between Adaptation and Ethnocentrism, $p>0.01$. Third, For Adaptive Performance's outcome, there is a significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Cultural Intelligence, $p=0$; and there is a significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Adaptation, $p=0$; however, there is no significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Ethnocentrism $p>0.01$. As a result, hypothesis 15: the negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation which is rejected in this study.

4.7 The relationship among International Work Experience, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaption Performance (Qualitative Research)

This part presents results from interviews by using the Qualitative Research Method to find out the relationship among expatriates International Work Experience, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance in China to provide the results of hypothesis 3, 4 and 5. The interpretative analysis will be used in this study. As hypothesis 3 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 3: International work experience is positively related to Cultural Intelligence in China.

As hypothesis 4 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 4: International work experience is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.

As hypothesis 5 is described as below:

- Hypothesis 5: International work experience is positively related to Expatriates Adaptive Performance in China.

In this part, it will address one research question: how to improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China? 18 interview questions and 84 questions from a questionnaire will support analysis data in this study. Because the quantitative research method is the primary research method while qualitative research only supports the analysis data in this study. The qualitative research part will only focus on providing more evidence about the relationship among international work experience, cultural intelligence, adaptation, and adaptive performance.

It is believed that previous international experience from expatriates influences their cultural knowledge's development and property behaviors which are required by the culture they work in (Kim & Slocum, 2008; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Bandura (1977) stated that expatriates who have previous international experiences as this helps them understand different cultural circumstances, which gives them accurate knowledge and information on the foreign country they are working. Previous international experience has been said to be an important factor that contributes to the development of cultural intelligence (for example, Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Takeuchi et al., 2006). Previous research has shown that international experience on some level can effect cultural intelligence (Crowne, 2008, 2013a; Koo Moon et al., 2012; Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Pless et al., 2011). Li et al (2012) found evidence to suggest that overseas work experience is positively related to the level of CQ (cultural intelligence) of international managers. Furthermore, Parker and McEvoy (1993) found that international living experience is positively related to general adjustment. The successful adaptation of expatriates may depend on how well they can learn from experience in overseas assignments (Ratiu, 1983; Porter & Tansky, 1999; Spreitzer et al, 1997). Stefan (2005) confirmed that previous international experience would relate positively to expatriate job performance; however, previous experience on working in multinational companies or with foreigners could help expatriates adjust to a new workplace faster than those who do not have this experience (Moon et al., 2012). Previous experience of working in a multinational company or with foreigners could enhance expatriates' international working experience and job performance. Previous studies have shown that previous overseas work experience could influence expatriates' adjustment (Li, 2015); however, this study will try to find international work experience and its positivity relating to adaptation and cultural intelligence, respectively. These findings could test the relationship among expatriates international work experience, cultural intelligence, adaptation, and adaptive

performance in China, where has a unique culture for expatriates to adapt to. This part will fill the gaps. Based on this information can help expatriates become more competent with their expects with their uncertainties and their difficult workplaces, which will help them to adjust to a new culture successfully (Kanungo & Misra, 1992); in addition, can help them with schemata formation to handle unfamiliar difficulties.

There are 10 interviewees, 3 of them were using face-to-face interview and the rest of them were using SKYPE interviews. Morgan and Symon (2004) use a shorten term called electronic interviews instead of interviews done in person and over the internet. The use of internet interviews has great advantages as it enables the employer to interview prospective employees who are geographically dispersed. In this study using the Internet is useful, because the researcher is based in the UK, and has to interview the expatriates who are working in China; furthermore, it is easier to record the conversation. However, there are some disadvantages to using the Internet for semi-structural interviews. Using the Internet may cause the interviewee to feel nervous with the interviewer and it may be more difficult to establish trust between each other. To overcome these difficulties, the researcher tried to talk and get to know each other to reduce these disadvantages of using the Internet. And then the interviewees were asked to fill the questionnaire and then answer 18 open questions from the interview. All the interviewees' names were anonymous, in the following table will use number 1 to 10 to instead of their names. In this part, it will focus on whether international work experience will influence expatriates Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance or not provide the results for hypotheses.

To further elaborate International Work Experience variable has three questions: How many countries did you work in? How many months did you work overseas? How many previous assignments have you experienced and what is the overall total duration? This will then link to Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptation variables using interview questions and questionnaires to evaluate their adaptive performance in China.

For the interview part, snowball sampling was used, randomly selecting interviewees based on the following criteria: first, their position. They are all managers in their companies. Second, they can speak English fluently. Third, they are all working in multinational companies now. Therefore, the researcher contacted her prior manager in BMW and her friends to ask for their help. After this process, snowball sampling was used to identify additional participants. And then the researcher has already found only 10 managers from different places and different companies in China (for example BMW, Siemens) because qualitative research only plays a supplementary role for this study to analyse the data. Ten of the managers interviewed, only one of them had no previous international work experience, and nine of the ten have more than one international work experience. Their age ranged from 42 to 59. All of them are male. Eight of them are married, one of them is divorced and one of them is still single. Furthermore, five of them married Chinese women. Three held a master's degree and the others held Bachelor's degrees. Five of them reported that English is their first language, and the rest of them reported that English is their second language, but they could speak English fluently.

Each interviewee was asked to fill the questionnaire out first and talked during this time because there are 84 questions in the questionnaire which could provide insight into

perspectives of expatriates to give them more ideas of how to describe their experience in China. After the interviews, there were three findings that supported hypothesis 3, 4, and 5 in this study.

The first finding was that the manager with no previous international work experience had many difficulties to adapt to live and work in China. In contrast, those with previous international work experience, especially those who experience similar cultural before adapted easier in terms of living conditions, food, housing conditions, shopping, cost of living, entertainment, health care facilities, socialization, interacting or speaking with Chinese and qualified for supervisory responsibilities in China. The one who did not have any previous international work experience found it was more challenging to adapt to China. This supports hypothesis 4 that International work experience is positively related to expatriate adaptation in China.

A second main finding was that no matter who has or has not had international work experience they all know cultures are different all over the world and that China has a unique culture, while they all are eager to know the Chinese culture; however, the one who has no previous international work experience found that understanding culture was more challenging. The others in the sample were better able to accept and try to fit into Chinese and adapt to Chinese culture. However, all of them could not accept delays without becoming upset when in different cultural situations and with culturally different people, they are all following the rules without any exception. They all agree that international work experience could help expatriates to improve their cultural intelligence in China. Therefore, it supports hypothesis 3: International work experience is positively related to expatriates' cultural intelligence in China.

The third finding addressed the questions: how do you evaluate your job performance in China? They all mentioned that international work experience is an aspect that could affect their adaptive performance in China. Because they are all on the lookout for the latest innovations in their jobs to improve the way they work, adapt their work practices to the requirements and suggestions of others, adjust their work practices if someone points out a better solution, try to develop good relationships with all their counterparts is an important factor of their effectiveness, and furthermore, they all try to understand the interview viewpoints of their counterparts to improve their interaction with them. Nine of the ten have previous international work experience, and they did not strive to adapt to the working conditions. However, the one who did not have previous international work experience found it was very challenging to improve his adaptive performance in China, there always has unexpected things always happened. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was confirmed by the interviewees that international work experience is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

Hypothesis 3, 4 and 5 are confirmed in this part to support the researcher's hypotheses in this study; however, qualitative research only played supplementary data role in this study, therefore, more factors should be discussed in the future study to help expatriates to improve their adaptive performance in China.

4.8 Conclusion

In this part, there are 49 missing data; however, 175 questionnaires can be used to analyse the data for quantitative research, while 10 samples can be used for qualitative research. First, through Descriptive Statistics, we can find out what each variables

means and the standard deviation. Second, through the correlation table, we can find out the relationship among expatriates adaptation, cultural intelligence, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, cultural distance, and adaptive performance in China. Third, through regression analysis, we can find the relationship among expatriates Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, and Adaptive Performance in China for testing hypotheses 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 11. Fourth, through Process by Hayes to find out the relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, Ethnocentrism, and Adaptive Performance in China for testing hypotheses 10, 12, 13, 14 and 15. Fifth, through qualitative research, hypotheses 3, 4, and 5 will present the relationship among expatriates International Work Experience, Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, and Adaptive Performance in China. The findings of this study surfaced interesting insights about how to improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China. Using quantitative research and qualitative research have confirmed or rejected 15 hypotheses that the researcher has proposed in this study. In summary, we could summarize the results of all hypotheses in this study in the following table. This table summarizes support or reject all the hypotheses in this study to contribute.

Table 4. 11 A summary of this study' hypotheses and results

Hypotheses	Support or Reject
H1: Adaptation is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.	Support
H2: Cultural intelligence is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.	Support

H3: International work experience is positively related to Cultural Intelligence in China.	Support
H4: International work experience is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.	Support
H5: International work experience is positively related to Expatriates Adaptive Performance in China.	Support
H6: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptation in China.	Support
H7: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptive performance in China.	Support
H8: Learning flexibility is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.	Reject
H9: Expatriates' higher learning flexibility is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.	Reject
H10: Cultural distance moderates the positive relationship between learning flexibility and expatriates' adaptive performance in China.	Reject
H11: Cultural distance is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.	Support
H12: The positive relationship between expatriates Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation in China.	Support

H13: The negative relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation in China.	Support
H14: The positive relationship between expatriates Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China.	Reject
H15: The negative relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China	Reject

This part has already summarized 15 hypotheses' results, and in the following part will focus on the discussion for 15 hypotheses and then find the gaps that this study could make contributions. However, there still exists limitations and give some directions for future studies in this research as well.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The main purpose of this study is to analyse the relationship among expatriates' Learning Flexibility, Ethnocentrism, International Work Experience, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, Adaptive Performance, and Cultural Distance in China. For multinational companies, expatriates' adaptive performance has become an increasingly important factor that they have the ability to deal with cultural intelligence and adaptation problems in China. In this chapter, the framework will be based on the results and then discussed and compared with the literature review part. The contribution and limitations of this study are discussed. This study confirmed the relationship among expatriates' Adaptation and Adaptive performance, Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation, International work experience and Cultural Intelligence, International work experience and Adaptation, International work experience and Adaptive Performance, Ethnocentrism and Adaptation, Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance, Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance, in addition found out that the relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance; the relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance; however, there is no significant relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptation, Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance, the relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance; the relationship among Learning Flexibility, Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, and Adaptive Performance; the relationship among Ethnocentrism, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance. The results of this study play an important role in demonstrating the relationship between the dependent variable (Adaptive Performance)

and the independent variables (International Work Experience, Learning Flexibility, Adaptation, Ethnocentrism, Cultural Distance, and Cultural Intelligence). It then explores other implications and future research in this study.

This chapter will discuss the findings of this study in more detail. This chapter addresses the evidence in relation to the main research question:

- How to improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China?

This chapter is structured around the results, to provide a logical discussion to the findings. The first part will discuss 15 hypotheses that the researcher proposed. The findings of this study will be discussed, particularly with reference to their theoretical implications and practical implications. The contributions of the study will be examined and the limitation of this study will be considered. Finally, some directions to future researches will be highlighted.

5.2 Hypotheses Discussion

Successful expatriates' adaptation requires their adaptability and flexibility (Kolb, 1984). Expatriates in this study were employed by their multinational companies in China to provide knowledge transfer and control of companies' operations. When they came to China, they had different aspects to adjust. In this study, the researcher extended the study area of the expatriates' experience by invoking Kolb's new learning flexibility theory view to investigate the relationship between adaptation and other variables, which could lead to improving expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

This part will summarize and discuss 15 hypotheses that the research has proposed in this study to address areas lacking in research and to make a contribution to this area.

5.2.1 The relationship between Adaptation and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 1 is associated with the relationship between expatriates adaptation and adaptive performance in China. The result of hypothesis 1 is supported in this study. Hesketh and Neal (1999) highlighted that adaptive performance is a term that describes an individual's ability to adapt to dynamic work situations, which means that expatriates' adaptive performance has the ability to adapt to work in a different environment. There are eight dimensions of adaptive performance suggested by Pulakos et al. (2000): handling emergencies or crisis situations; handling work stress; solving problems creatively; dealing with uncertain and unpredictable work situations; learning work tasks, technologies, and procedures; demonstrating interpersonal adaptability; demonstrating cultural adaptability; and demonstrating physically oriented adaptability. According to Audrey and Patrice (2012), there are 8 dimensions for adaptive performance: Dimension 1: Handling Emergencies and Crises, Dimension 2: Managing work stress, Dimension 3: Solving Problems Creatively, Dimension 4: Dealing with Uncertain and Unpredictable Work Situations, Dimension 5: Training and Learning effort, Dimension 6: Interpersonal adaptability, Dimension 7: Cultural Adaptability and Dimension 8: Physical Adaptability. However, only Dimension 5: Training and Learning effort, Dimension 6: Interpersonal adaptability, Dimension 8: Physical Adaptability will be discussed in this research. While these three dimensions could link the other factors relationships in this study. A few studies have tested the relationship between adaptive flexibility and expatriates' performance (for example Bond & Seneque, 2013; Lane, 2011, and so forth). It is likely that expatriates who have higher

adaptive flexibility, will have fewer barriers to face, meaning that they would be able to perform well in living and working in foreign countries.

In this study from the result significant (p -value) $0 < 0.05$, which shows that adaptation is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance. Adaptive flexibility could connect the unique patterns of adaptations to different learning contexts (Sharma & Kolb, 2010). This supports hypothesis 1 in this study that expatriates' higher adaptation could lead to a better adaptive performance in China. If expatriate has a higher adaptive performance this means that expatriates adapt more successfully. Whether the expatriates could adapt quickly and easily or not is based on their adaptive performance in China. The findings suggest that, in China, expatriates who could adapt to China easier have better adaptive performance.

In summary, hypothesis 1: Expatriates Adaptation is positively related to Adaptive Performance in China is confirmed by this study. In addition, the finding of hypothesis 1 can support and highlight previous studies on the relationship between expatriates Adaptation and Adaptive Performance in China, where has a unique culture.

5.2.2 The relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation

Hypothesis 2 is associated with the relationship between expatriates Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China. The result of hypothesis 2 is supported in this study. As Thomas et al. (2008) highlighted cultural intelligence is based on skills and knowledge that relate to cultural meta-cognition to help expatriates to adapt to a new

culture. Kim et al. (2008) proposed that higher cultural intelligence could help individuals to adjust to both work and non-work environments; Li (2013) suggested that the relationship between Cultural Intelligence and adaptation could enhance our understanding of cultural intelligence development. There are three dimensions of cultural intelligence: mindfulness (later changed into meta-cognition), knowledge, and behavior, introduced by Thomas (2006).

However, based on the results of this study, significant (p-value) $0 < 0.05$, which means there is a positive relationship between expatriates Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China. This means that expatriates' higher cultural intelligence could improve their adaptation in China. Lee and Sukoco (2010) found that cultural intelligence had a positive effect on expatriates' adjustment and cultural effectiveness. This means that expatriates who have a higher level of cultural intelligence could adjust more effectively in China.

In summary, hypothesis 2 that expatriates Cultural Intelligence is positively related to Adaptation in China to support the researchers proposed in this study to make a contribution to this area. In addition, the research supports Li's (2013) findings that the relationship between Cultural Intelligence and adaptation could enhance our understanding of cultural intelligence development, and in particular highlights the relationship between expatriates' Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China.

5.2.3 The relationship between International Work Experience and Cultural Intelligence

Hypothesis 3 is associated with the relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Cultural Intelligence in China. This relationship is analysed by qualitative research and the result of hypothesis 3 is supported in this study.

International experience is a factor that can improve cultural intelligence (for example, Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Takeuchi et al., 2006). Furthermore, the previous study has found international work experience positively related to the level of Cultural Intelligence (Li et al., 2012). This study will confirm Li et al. (2012) theory and demonstrate that expatriates' International Work Experience is positively related to Cultural Intelligence in China.

International working experience has been considered essential to develop global leadership skills (Jokinen, 2005; McCall & Hollenbeck, 2002). Moreover, expatriates' international work experience has been given considerable attention in much prior research (for example, Aycan, 1997; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Morley et al., 1997; Waxin, 2004; Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Going to a different culture is often difficult for expatriates; it may be confusing or disorienting, and most will experience a 'culture shock' for at least two months in the new environment (Arthur, 2002). Moreover, expatriates' international work experience is a factor that can improve cultural knowledge's development, in addition, expatriates need to adapt to appropriate behaviors to live and work in a new culture (Kim & Slocum, 2008; Takeuchi et al., 2005). The findings of this study suggested that International Work Experience can help expatriates understand different cultural situations, giving more knowledge and information to contribute to cultural intelligence development. This means that

international work experience can help expatriates understand Chinese culture and gain more information and knowledge in China. Interviews highlighted the positive relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Cultural Intelligence in China, which supports the result of hypothesis 3. This suggests that expatriates who have International Work Experience can help improve their Cultural Intelligence in China.

In summary, hypothesis 3: expatriates International Work Experience is positively related to Cultural Intelligence in China. This will increase the workplace strain for expatriates who are lacking Chinese work experiences or other international work experience. In addition, the findings support and highlight Li et al.'s (2012) research which highlights that, international work experience is positively related to the level of Cultural Intelligence. The findings of hypothesis 3 support previous studies on the relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Cultural Intelligence in China, where has a unique culture.

5.2.4 The relationship between International Work Experience and Adaptation

Hypothesis 4 is associated with the relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Adaptation in China. This relationship is analysed through a qualitative technique, the result of hypothesis 4 is supported by this study. A range of studies has found that previous international work experience is an important factor for their success and adaptation (Black, 1988; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Kim & Slocum, 2008; Okpara & Kabongo, 2010). Black et al (1991) confirmed that international work experience enhances the ability of expatriates to adjust to uncertain expectations.

Previous studies have suggested that previous overseas work experience could influence expatriates' adjustment (Li, 2015). Qualitative data in this study suggest that they all found it easier to adjust to a new country, especially if they had international work experience in a culture similar to China, which would assist them in learning and adjusting in China.

However, due to the small sample size (N=10 interviews), it is difficult to confirm the positive relationship between Adaptation and International Work Experience; however, it has been overcome by using excerpts from respondents. Previous studies have confirmed that international work experience is important for expatriates' success and adaptation (Black, 1988; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Kim & Slocum, 2008; Okpara & Kabongo, 2010) and the findings of this study could allow the researchers gain more information and confirm the relationship between adaptation and international work experience. Moreover, Takeuchi et al. (2005) stated that a lack of awareness of Chinese culture or similar cultural work experiences between expatriates will increase their workplace strain. In addition, expatriates could learn from their overseas assignments to adapt successfully in China. That means expatriates who have International Work Experience can help improve their adaptation in China. International Work Experience was positively related to expatriates adaptation to support the result of hypothesis 4 in this study.

In summary, hypothesis 4: expatriates International Work Experience is positively related to Adaptation in China, and in addition, the findings of hypothesis 4 support previous studies on the relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Adaptation, particularly in the context of the unique Chinese culture.

5.2.5 The relationship between International Work Experience and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 5 is associated with the relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Adaptive Performance in China. This relationship is analysed by qualitative research and the result of hypothesis 5 is supported in this study. Black et al. (1991) and Parker and McEvoy (1993) affirm that international work experience plays an important role in expatriates' adjustment. International experience could be positively related to expatriates' job performance (Stefan, 2005). Furthermore working in a multinational company or working with foreigners could help expatriates to adjust to a new workplace faster than those who do not have this kind of experience (Moon et al., 2012). However, there is no relationship between international work experience and general work adjustment (Shaffer & colleagues, 1999). However, there is a relationship between prior experience and adaptive performance (Griffin & Hesketh, 2003).

Therefore, this study proposes that expatriates International Work Experience is positively related to Adaptive Performance. Based on the findings of this study we can highlight that previous experience of working in a multinational company or with foreigners could enhance expatriates' international work experience and adaptive performance. That means expatriates who have International Work Experience can help improve their adaptive performance in China. Hypothesis 5 supports the results that the positive relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Adaptive Performance in China to make a contribution to fill the gap.

In summary, hypothesis 5: expatriates International Work Experience is positively related to Adaptive Performance in China, and the findings of hypothesis 5 support previous studies on the relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Adaptive Performance in the unique cultural context of China.

5.2.6 The relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptation

Hypothesis 6 is associated with the relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptation in China. This relationship is analysed by quantitative research and the result of hypothesis 6 is supported in this study. Ethnocentrism is the general attitude or belief in the superiority of an individual's home country and customs or ethnic identity group (Neuliep et al., 2005; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997; Pocovnicu & Vasilache, 2012). Expatriates' ethnocentrism means their norms, customs and traditions are "right", however, these are "wrong" in other countries (Black & Gregersen, 1990; Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1999; Mol et al., 2005; Shaffer et al., 2006). Expatriates more easily decide to return to their home country, because they have more ethnocentric attitudes such as insecurity, prejudice, and mistrust (Gouttefarde, 1992). Expatriates treated their "in group" as superior than their "out group", due to their high ethnocentrism (Neuliep et al., 2005; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). Moreover, Pocovnicu and Vasilache (2012) found that expatriates with ethnocentrism accept their "in group" and reject the "out group". Therefore, ethnocentrism will not have a positive impact on improving expatriates' adaptation in China, because they may have a strong desire to return to their home countries. It will cost more money for multinational companies. If expatriates have stronger Ethnocentrism they can have greater difficulty adjusting to living and working in China. Therefore, the researcher proposed that expatriates Ethnocentrism is negatively related to Adaptation in China.

However, based on the results, significant (p-value) $0.001 < 0.05$, which means ethnocentrism is negatively related to adaptation. The findings highlight how ethnocentrism decreases expatriates' adaptation in China and will lead to a stronger

desire to return to their home country because they cannot adjust to working and living in China. Even if ethnocentric individuals view their behaviour as correct, it will make that adjustment to China more difficult and these individuals will experience negative feedback and lack of cooperation due to ethnocentrism behaviours and face frustration and anxiety which in general enhances culture shock and inhibits adjustment to China. Therefore, expatriates' Ethnocentrism is negatively related to Adaptation in China, which supports hypothesis 6 in this study.

In summary, hypothesis 6: expatriates Ethnocentrism is negatively related to Adaptation in China. In addition, the findings of hypothesis 6 support previous studies on the relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptation, especially in China, where has a unique culture. Furthermore, the result of hypothesis 6 supports Black's (1990) confirmation that ethnocentricity is negatively related to all facets of adjustment.

5.2.7 The relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 7 is associated with the relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance in China. This relationship is analysed by quantitative research and the result of hypothesis 7 is supported in this study. Based on the previous discussion, this part will address the negative relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance in China. Previous studies have argued that there is a relationship between a host national country's feedback and support and expatriates' performance (see Mol et al., 2005; Shaffer et al., 2006 for reviews). Therefore, the researcher has proposed that expatriates Ethnocentrism is negatively related to Adaptive Performance in China.

Furthermore, based on the results, significant (p-value) $0 < 0.05$, which means expatriates' ethnocentrism is negatively related to adaptive performance in China. In addition based on Caligiuri's (2016) studies and the results in this study, expatriates' ethnocentrism is negatively related to adaptation and their adaptive performance respectively in China. This means that expatriates who have ethnocentric orientation could have a negative influence on their adaptation and adaptive performance in China. Expatriates with lower ethnocentric attitudes tend to perform more successfully on their assignments, which has implications for multinational companies selecting expatriates overseas, which supports hypothesis 7 in this study.

In summary, hypothesis 7 is that expatriates' Ethnocentrism is negatively related to Adaptive Performance in China. In addition, the finding of hypothesis 7 supports previous studies on the relationship between expatriates' Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance, especially in China. Furthermore, the results of hypothesis 7 support Shirley et al.'s (2016: 13) view that "future research should extend outcomes of categorization (for example expatriate adjustment; expatriate performance)". And Caligiuri (2016) who had the same suggestion for future study.

5.2.8 The relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptation

Hypothesis 8 is associated with the relationship between expatriates' Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China. This relationship is analysed by quantitative research and the results of hypothesis 8 were rejected in this study. Learning Flexibility was previously called Adaptive Flexibility. It is based on Kolb's KLSI 4.0 and is an important aspect of learning style. As Kolb argued, learning flexibility is the learning style for an individual to adapt to the demands of the learning situation. Furthermore,

learning flexibility indicates the development of a more holistic and sophisticated learning process (Kolb, 2010). According to Kolb, “Learning flexibility could help us move in and out of the learning space regions, capitalizing on the strengths of each learning style. Learning flexibility broadens the learning comfort zone and allows us to operate comfortably and effectively in more regions of the learning space, promoting deep learning and development. In addition, KLSI 4.0 provides individuals to move to different learning contexts-their back- up learning styles. That means that an individual’s greater flexibility means they have a higher ability to move around the learning cycle and to adapt to new situations more easily. Kolb and Kolb (2005) stated that learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world. Kolb (2002) stated that empirical evidence of this and stated that ‘the more balanced individuals are the dual dialectics of learning, the more they will show adaptive flexibility’. As we discussed above that adaptive flexibility is positively related to expatriates' job performance in China. Therefore, in this present study, the researcher has tried to test the relationships between expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China. That is, in this part, the focus was on expatriates’ learning flexibility in China to ascertain how they adapt to the demands of the learning situations. However, the results of this study highlight that a relationship was not found between expatriates’ learning flexibility and Adaptation in China to support hypothesis 8 in this study.

Furthermore, based on the results, significant (p-value) $0.4 > 0.05$, which means there is no relationship between expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China.

However, Farh et al. (2010) stated that international assignment can help expatriates develop and learn skills and knowledge to overcome challenges in adapting to a new culture. Moreover, Hocking et al. (2007) agreed that expatriates have to develop and learn a range of skills to adapt their lives in a new culture, such as language, business

setting, and interpersonal communication networks. The successful adaptation of expatriates may depend on how well they can learn from experience in international assignments (Ratiu, 1983; Porter & Tansky, 1999; Spreitzer et al., 1997). Mainemalis et al. (2002) tested the relationship between learning style as measured by the Kolb Learning Style Inventory (KLSI) (Kolb 1999a, 2005) and ASI adaptive flexibility. According to experiential learning theory, learning could lead expatriates to experience and then acquisition and effective adaptation to the new environment (Kolb, 1984). However, the result of hypothesis 8 cannot support the positive relationship between expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China.

In summary, hypothesis 8: expatriates Learning Flexibility is positively related to Adaptation in China is rejected by the results of this study. This means that there is no relationship between expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China.

Although we cannot find any relationship between expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China, we can still make a contribution to this area.

5.2.9 The relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 9 is associated with the relationship between expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance in China. This relationship is analysed by quantitative research and the result of hypothesis 9 is rejected in this study. Sharma and Kolb (2010) found that the Learning Flexibility Index is negatively related to age and educational level. Furthermore, Sharma and Kolb (2010) stated that the Learning Flexibility Index is an important investigating validated tool for expatriates' management, education, and individual development. A few studies have tested the relationship between adaptive flexibility and expatriates' performance (for example

Bond & Seneque, 2013; Lane, 2011, etc.). Furthermore, Kolb and Kolb (2005) argued that analyzing the relationship between learning contexts and learning style could lead to enhanced learning performance. Based on their research the present study proposed hypothesis 9. It is likely that expatriates who have higher learning flexibility, will have fewer barriers to face, meaning that they would be able to perform well in living and working in China. Conversely, expatriates who have lower learning ability, will find more barriers to living and working in China, which may lead to their performing poorly there.

However, based on Experience Learning Theory and the Learning Flexibility Index, the researcher could not find a significant relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance ($p > .01$), which means there is no relationship between expatriates' Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance in China. The findings of the present research reject hypotheses 9. There is no relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance. Furthermore, the study did not find any relationship between learning flexibility and other variables in this study. In summary, hypothesis 9 that expatriates Learning Flexibility is positively related to Adaptive Performance in China is rejected by the results of this study. Therefore, there is no relationship between expatriates' Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance in China.

5.2.10 The relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 10 is associated with the relationship among expatriates Cultural Distance, Learning Flexibility, and Adaptive Performance in China. This relationship is analysed through quantitative research and the result of hypothesis 10 is rejected in this study.

Harrison et al. (2004) stated that expatriates are required to adapt to new cultural environments in foreign subsidiaries. Moreover, Shenka (2001) states that cultural distance causes these differences for expatriates. In addition, Adler (2008) agreed that there are some different aspects between a home country and a host country, such as core values, beliefs, customs, and rituals, legal, political, and economic systems. If expatriates are sent to a foreign country where the culture is quite different from their own, they may feel anxious before they go there and need considerable preparation and adjustment. Conversely, if expatriates are sent to a foreign country where the culture is similar to their own, they may have low levels of anxiety before they go; they do not need to prepare a great deal and expect to make a little adjustment there. However, they may experience a culture shock due to their lack of expectation of the adjustment required, whether the culture is similar or not. Lack of information about the environment, the law, transport, and coordination charges, as well as differences in regulations and other factors, may lead to costs for multinational companies that indigenous companies do not need to pay (Hymer, 1976; Zaheer, 1995; Miller & Eden, 2006). Cultural differences could cause difficulties for international human resource management (IHRM) when doing business abroad (Dowling et al., 1999; Gerhart & Fang, 2005). Multinational companies have to address the problem that employees have with different cultural backgrounds and cooperating in multinational teams (McGaughey et al., 1997; Tanure et al., 2009). Due to cultural distance, expatriates' working and living adjustment also present difficulties. Based on Kolb's model Yamazaki and Kayes (2004) found that learning style can be affected by cultural and learning processes. Moreover, Hayes and Allinson (1988) stated that cultures affect the way individuals learn. Therefore, there are different learning styles that individuals learn in the home country and host country. It is confirmed by De Vita (2001) and Pratt (1991) that learning style is supposed different between and converges within cultures.

Moreover, Hofstede (1997) agreed on this point and argued that an individual's learning modes were shaped by their own culture. This means when expatriates transferred to a new culture, the different culture would influence their learning due to certain skills requirements and success in their international assignments (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Learning about different cultures could improve performance (Ghoshal, 1987). Furthermore, as we discuss above that adaptive flexibility is positively related to expatriates' job performance in China, cultural distance could influence expatriates' adaptive flexibility and performance in China. Therefore, the researcher has proposed hypothesis 10 that Cultural distance moderates the positive relationship between expatriates learning flexibility and expatriates adaptive performance in China in this study.

Cultural distance is an important factor for adaptation and more challenges for ill-being in intercultural travellers (Dunbar, 1994; Furnham & Bochner, 1982; Geeraert & Demoulin, 2013; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward et al., 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 1999). This means the greater the difference between two cultures, the greater the challenge to adapt. Moreover, based on the previous study, there are fewer difficulties in adjusting to the People's Republic of China for ethnic Chinese expatriates than for western expatriates, because they experienced a quite different culture and this caused larger cultural distance (Selmer, 1997a). Therefore, hypothesis 10 is confirmed in this study. However, based on the results, Adaptive Performance and Learning Flexibility $r=-0.009$ and $p=.46>0.01$, which means there is no relationship between Adaptive Performance and Learning Flexibility, in addition, there is no relationship between Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance ($p>0.01$). That is, the results reject hypothesis 10 in this study. The study did not find any relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, and Adaptive Performance in China.

In summary, hypothesis 10 that Cultural distance moderates the positive relationship between expatriates learning flexibility and expatriates adaptive performance in China is rejected by the results of this study. This means that there is no relationship among expatriates Cultural Distance, Learning Flexibility, and Adaptive Performance in China. Although we cannot find any relationship among expatriates Cultural Distance, Learning Flexibility, and Adaptive Performance in China, a contribution to this area can still be made.

5.2.11 The relationship between Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 11 is associated with the relationship between expatriates Cultural Distance, and Adaptive Performance in China. This relationship is analysed through quantitative research and the result of hypothesis 11 is confirmed in this study. Parker and McEvoy (1993) assert that expatriates find it more difficult to adjust to culturally similar countries than they do to culturally dissimilar countries. Furthermore, Peltokorpi (2008) contends that cultural distance is negatively related to non-work and work-related adjustment. Although non-work and work adjustment have a relationship with performance, few studies have examined the relationship between cultural distance and expatriates' performance (for example Babiker et al., 1980; Morosini, 1998; Tihanyi, 2005). Cultural distance is an important factor for adaption and more challenges for ill-being in intercultural traveller (Dunbar, 1994; Furnham & Bochner, 1982; Geeraert & Demoulin, 2013; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward et al., 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 1999). This means the larger the difference between the two cultures, the lower adaptive performance they will have. Therefore, the present study has proposed that expatriates Cultural Distance is positively related to Adaptive Performance in China.

Furthermore, based on the results, significant (p value) $0 < 0.05$, which means Cultural Distance is positively related to Adaptive Performance if expatriates Cultural Distance increase will lead to expatriates Adaptive Performance increase in China. Findings of the present research support the hypotheses 11 in this study. There is a positive relationship between expatriates Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance, which is confirmed hypothesis 11 of this study.

In summary, hypothesis 11 that expatriates Cultural Distance is positively related to Adaptive Performance in China is confirmed by the result of this study. This means that there is a strong positive relationship between expatriates Cultural Distance and Adaptive Performance in China, which we can make a contribution to this area.

5.2.12 The relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 12 is associated with the relationship among expatriates Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance in China. This relationship is analysed by quantitative research and the result of hypothesis 12 is confirmed in this study. Based on previous studies, Oolders et al. (2008) demonstrated that cultural intelligence is positively related to adaptive performance; furthermore, based on the results of hypothesis 1 and 2, the findings show that there is a positive relationship between expatriates Adaptation and Adaptive Performance, Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China. Therefore, the researcher has proposed that the positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation.

In addition, this model was analysed by Process by Hayes. Based on the result of hypothesis 12: Cultural Intelligence is a significant predictor of Adaptation ($p=0$); Adaptation is a significant predictor of Adaptive Performance ($p=0$); Cultural Intelligence is a significant predictor of Adaptive Performance ($p=0$). This means that expatriates Adaptation mediates the relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance in China. That is, variation in Cultural Intelligence causes variation in one mediator-Adaptation, which in turn causes variation in Adaptive Performance. Therefore, there is a relationship among expatriates Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance in China, which supports hypothesis 12 in this study.

In summary, hypothesis 12 that the positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation is confirmed by the result of this study. This means that expatriates Adaptation can mediate the positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance in China. Furthermore, this model was used in the Process by Hayes, in which we can make a contribution to this area.

5.2.13 The relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 13 is associated with the relationship among expatriates Ethnocentrism, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance in China. This relationship is analysed by the quantitative research and the result of hypothesis 13 was confirmed in this study. This model was based on the results of hypothesis 6 and 7 in this study: the negative relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptation, Ethnocentrism, and

Adaptive Performance in China. Furthermore, based on hypothesis 1: the positive relationship between expatriates Adaptation and Adaptive Performance in China. Therefore, the researcher has proposed that the negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation.

In addition, this model was analysed by Process by Hayes. Based on the result of hypothesis 13 that Ethnocentrism is a significant predictor of Adaptation ($p=0.0006$); Adaptation is a significant predictor of Adaptive Performance ($p=0$); Ethnocentrism is a significant predictor of Adaptive Performance ($p=0.0003$). This means that Adaptation mediates the relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance. That means expatriates Adaptation mediates the relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance in China. That is, variation in Ethnocentrism causes variation in one mediator-Adaptation, which in turn causes variation in Adaptive Performance.

In summary, hypothesis 13 that the negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Adaptation is confirmed by the results of this study. This means that expatriates Adaptation can mediate the negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance in China. Furthermore, this model was used in the Process by Hayes, in which we can make a contribution to this area.

5.2.14 The relationship among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 14 is associated with the relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance in China. This relationship is analysed by the quantitative research and the results of hypothesis 14 were rejected in this study. This Process by Hayes' model was based on hypothesis 1, 2,

8, and 9. In addition, Oolders et al. (2008) demonstrated that cultural intelligence is positively related to adaptive performance. Therefore, the researcher has proposed that the positive relationship between expatriates Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China.

However, based on the result of hypothesis 14: first, for Learning Flexibility's outcome, there is no significant relationship between Learning Flexibility and Cultural Intelligence, $p=0.9601$. Second, for the Adaptation's outcomes, there is no significance between Adaptation and Learning Flexibility, $p=0.9526$; however, there is a significant relationship between Adaptation and Cultural intelligence, $p<0.01$. Third, for Adaptive Performance's outcomes, there is no significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Learning Flexibility, $p=0.924$; however, there is a significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Adaptation $p<0.01$; in addition, there is a significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Cultural Intelligence, $p<0.01$. Therefore, hypothesis 14: the positive relationship between expatriates Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance in China was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation is refuted in this study.

In summary, hypothesis 14: the positive relationship between expatriates Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China is refuted in this study. This means that expatriates Learning Flexibility and Adaptation cannot mediate the positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance in China; however, this model was used the Process by Hayes, which can still make a contribution.

5.2.15 The relationship among Cultural Intelligence, Ethnocentrism, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance

Hypothesis 15 is associated with the relationship among expatriates Ethnocentrism, Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance in China. This relationship is analysed by quantitative research, however, the result of hypothesis 15 is rejected in this study. The Process by Hayes was used to analyse this model and based on hypothesis 1, 2, 6, 8, and 13. In addition, Oolders et al. (2008) demonstrated that cultural intelligence is positively related to adaptive performance. Therefore, the researcher has proposed that the negative relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China.

However, based on the result of hypothesis 15: first, regarding Cultural Intelligence, there is a significant relationship between Ethnocentrism and Cultural Intelligence, $p=0$. Second, for Adaptation's outcome, there is a significant relationship between Adaptation and Cultural Intelligence, $p=0$; however, there is no significant relationship between Adaptation and Ethnocentrism, $p>0.01$. Third, for Adaptive Performance's outcome, there is a significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Cultural Intelligence, $p=0$; and there is a significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Adaptation, $p=0$; however, there is no significant relationship between Adaptive Performance and Ethnocentrism, $p>0.01$. As a result, hypothesis 15: the negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence, and Adaptation is rejected in this study.

In summary, hypothesis 15: the negative relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence, and Adaptation in China is refuted in this study. This means that expatriates Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation cannot mediate the negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance in China; however, this model was used the Process by Hayes, which can still make a contribution.

5.3 Conclusion

The findings of this study provide rich insights into how to improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China and how it may add value to multinational companies. The following discussion will consider the results of the study to discuss theoretical implications and practical implications. Also, the limitation of the study and discussion for future research will be considered in the following chapter.

There are 15 hypotheses using the quantitative method and qualitative method to confirm or reject this study. The results of this study have provided empirical evidence that expatriates adaptation, cultural intelligence, international work experience, ethnocentrism, and cultural distance influence their adaptive performance in China. In addition, using the Process by Hayes highlights a positive relationship among expatriates Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance in China; it also highlights the negative relationship among expatriates Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance in China. Furthermore, this study is based on Kolb's Learning Theory; however, based on the results of this study cannot provide any relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance in

China. Which cannot support Kolb's (2010) Learning Flexibility Index which attempts to contribute to a deeper understanding of the factors that influence expatriate job performance in this study.

However, this study supports Li (2013) the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptation, which can enhance our understanding of cultural intelligence development. In addition, Shirley et al. (2016) and Caligiuri (2016) suggested that the outcomes between ethnocentrism and expatriate adjustment influence expatriate performance. Furthermore, based on these the researcher has proposed other relationships that can improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China to make contributions. But the results of this study do not support Kolb's (2010) Learning Flexibility Index which attempts to contribute to a deeper understanding of the factors that influence expatriate job performance. The researcher has tried different ways to calculate the relationship between Learning Flexibility and other variables in this study, but all of them cannot find any relationship between Learning Flexibility and other variables. Finally, ten hypotheses have confirmed that expatriates adaptation, international work experience, cultural distance, and cultural intelligence can improve their adaptive performance in China; however, expatriates' ethnocentrism can decrease expatriates' adaptive performance in China, which can give directions for both multinational companies and expatriates.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Summary of this Study

This study has examined the question of “how to improve expatriates adaptive performance in China.” And then provided the reasons why the researcher chooses China instead of other countries. Furthermore, why the researcher focused this study on expatriates adaptive performance, because previous studies examined that an increasing number of researchers were investigating the factors that influence expatriates’ performance, such as language, culture and family characteristics, such as spouse, work-family conflict and children parental demands (for example, Osherson & Dill, 1983; Bedeian et al., 1988; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001); general adjustment, such as, food, climate, weather, housing and living conditions (for example, Black & Stephens, 1989; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001); previous overseas experience (Black, 1988; Takeuchi et al., 2005); non-work factors (Black & Stephens, 1989; Takeuchi et al., 2002); pre-departure training (Black & Menden-Hall, 1990); expatriates’ personality (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997; Caligiuri, 2000); life adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991); work adjustment (Caligiuri & Hyland, 1998); life satisfaction (Harvey, 1997); work satisfaction (Yousef, 2000); stress tolerance (Bjorkman, 2005); relational ability (Bjorkman, 2005); communicational ability (Bjorkman, 2005); previous international experience (Selmer, 2002; Takeuch & Yun, 2000); cross-cultural training (Black & Gregersen, 1991); cultural distance (Black & Stephens, 1989) and so on. Work has also investigated the positive link between cultural intelligence and adaptive performance (Oolders et al., 2008; Faruk, 2014); the positive relationship between adaptive performance and job performance (Shoss, 2011); the degree to which cultural intelligence moderates domestic and global leadership success (Alon & Higgins, 2005);

the degree to which cultural intelligence moderates the relationship between interactions and assessment of outcomes of cultural intelligence (Ng & Early, 2006); the degree to which cultural intelligence can help individuals adjust to both work and non-work environments (Kim et al., 2008); the positive link between cultural intelligence and innovation (Elenkov & Manev, 2009); the degree to which cultural intelligence has a positive effect on expatriate adjustment and cultural effectiveness (Lee & Sukoco, 2010) and so on. In addition, previous studies of international work experience have also been related to expatriates' career success (Chura, 2006; Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005); whether international work experience can influence cultural knowledge development and behaviors (Kim & Slocum, 2008; Takeuchi et al., 2005); the positive link between international experience and cultural intelligence (Bandura, 1977; Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Takeuchi et al., 2006); the positive link between international living experience and general adjustment (Parker & McEvoy, 1993); the positive relationship between overseas work experience and the level of cultural intelligence (Li, 2012); whether previous international experience positively related to job performance (Stefan, 2005); adaptive performance (Griffin & Hesketh, 2003); expatriates adjustment (Li, 2015) and so on.

Building on previous researches, this study has demonstrated that Cultural Intelligence, International work experience, cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and adaptation can influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China. The findings of this study generally support the previous research of Li (2013), who suggests that the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptation can enhance our understanding of cultural intelligence development. In addition, this study also supports Shirley et al.'s (2016) findings on ethnocentrism and expatriates adaptation and Caligiuri's (2016) study into

the relationship between ethnocentrism and expatriate performance. However, this study's results reject Shaffer and colleagues' (1999) theory which suggests that there is no relationship between previous international work experience and general of work adjustment, instead of finding that there is a positive relationship between expatriates International Work Experience and Adaptation in China. Based on the results we can know that expatriates adaptation, cultural intelligence, international work experience, cultural distance, and ethnocentrism can influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China. Moreover, based on the results we can find out that expatriates' adaptation can mediate cultural intelligence and adaptive performance in China; in addition expatriates' adaptation can mediate their ethnocentrism and adaptive performance in China to support the hypotheses. However, the outcomes of this study also find that there is no relationship between expatriates' learning flexibility and adaptation in China; in addition, there is no relationship between expatriates' learning flexibility and adaptive performance in China; there is also found to be no relationship among expatriates learning flexibility, cultural distance and adaptive performance in China, which therefore does not support Kolb's (2010) Learning Flexibility Index which attempts to contribute to a deeper understanding of the factors that influence expatriate job performance. Based on Kolb's (1984) Experience Learning Theory could find the relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation, and adaptive performance, and in fitting with this the current study should demonstrate that expatriates with higher levels of learning flexibility show better performance in China. However, the results cannot support this. Moreover, the suggestion that the negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation is rejected in this study; in addition, expatriates' cultural distance cannot moderate learning flexibility and adaptive performance in China; and the suggestion that the positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance

was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation is rejected in this study as well, which should be confirmed by the results because each of these variables has a relationship with each other.

To enable the researcher to generate rich and detailed results, first both a deductive approach and an inductive approach were used, and then move on to use a cross-sectional study was undertaken. In order to do both quantitative research and qualitative research, 10 expatriate managers were interviewed and over 200 expatriates in China were given questionnaires; however, due to missing data, only 175 questionnaires could be used to analyse data for the quantitative research part. For the questionnaire part, there were five research instruments: the Learning Flexibility Index (Kolb, 2010), the Expatriates Adjustment Scale (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989), the Adaptive Performance Scale (Pulakos & colleagues, 2000, 2002), Cultural Distance Scale (Drogendijk & Slangen, 2006), and the Ethnocentrism Scale (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). For the data analysis part, there were two data analysis instruments used: Regression Analysis and Process by Hayes. And then move on to the results part: reliability, validity, factor analysis descriptive statistics, normality and correlations were analysed and based on the 15 hypotheses the researcher proposed supporting the following:

- Hypothesis 1: Adaptation is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.
- Hypothesis 2: Cultural intelligence is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.
- Hypothesis 6: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptation in China.

- Hypothesis 7: Expatriate ethnocentrism is negatively related to expatriate adaptive performance in China.
- Hypothesis 11: Cultural distance is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.
- Hypothesis 12: The positive relationship between expatriates' Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance is mediated by Adaptation in China.
- Hypothesis 13: The negative relationship between expatriates' Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance is mediated by Adaptation in China.

However, based on the results, five of them were rejected:

- Hypothesis 8: Learning flexibility is positively related to Expatriate Adaptation in China.
- Hypothesis 9: Expatriates' higher learning flexibility is positively related to expatriates' adaptive performance in China.
- Hypothesis 10: Cultural distance moderates the positive relationship between learning flexibility and expatriates' adaptive performance.
- Hypothesis 14: The positive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance is mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation.
- Hypothesis 15: The negative relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China.

In order to further elaborate on the International Work Experience variable, three questions were posed: How many countries did you work in? How many months did you work overseas? How many previous assignments have you experienced and what is the overall total duration? These were then linked to the Cultural Distance, Adaptation,

and Adaptive Performance variables using interview questions and questionnaires to evaluate their adaptive performance in China. This part using qualitative research confirmed three of the hypotheses:

- Hypothesis 3: International work experience is positively related to expatriates' Cultural Intelligence in China.
- Hypothesis 4: International work experience is positively related to Expatriate' Adaptation in China.
- Hypothesis 5: International work experience is positively related to Expatriates' Adaptive Performance in China.

To conclude, due to globalization, an increasing number of multinational companies have emerged; expatriates have played an important role in international business and international human resources management research in the last few decades (Welch & Björkman, 2015). Expatriates face many challenges in foreign countries and therefore, helping expatriates to improve their adaptive performance is a major challenge for multinational companies. Thus, a deeper understanding of expatriates' adaptive performance in China is required, because multinational companies in China are eager to solve the problem of there being a short supply of expatriates' capable of managing international operations (for example Cooke et al., 2015; Ulrich & Allen, 2014). As Kiessling and Harvey (2008) note, the loss of expatriates' has a negative impact on firms' performance, and therefore improving expatriates' adaptive performance is an important research topic in this regard. While many previous researches have studied factors that contribute to expatriates' adaptive performance, this study went further to find the relationship among cultural distance, international work experience, ethnocentrism, adaptation, cultural intelligence, learning flexibility, and adaptive

performance. However, in this study, it was not possible to link learning flexibility to other factors, and thus the researcher suggests that other researchers should further examine this in the future. Identifying the factors that influence expatriates' adaptive performance is one of the most important challenges for multinational companies. This study has identified factors (international work experience, ethnocentrism, adaptation, cultural Intelligence, and cultural distance) that can influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China and it should have benefits for both expatriates and multinational companies, with a view to minimizing expatriates' poor performance and enhancing the chances of success in China. The findings will provide multinational companies with valuable insight when selecting and developing international talents. Most importantly, more research should be carried out to identify further factors that can influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China and attempt to minimize their failures in China.

6.2 Contribution

6.2.1 Contribution to conceptual development (Theory development)

The findings of this study contribute to knowledge and understanding in a number of ways: first, the study contributes to conceptual development: contributing to the growing literature, this study confirms that expatriates Adaptation influences Adaptive Performance, Cultural Intelligence influences Adaptation, International Work Experience influences Cultural Intelligence, International Work Experience influences Adaptation, International Work Experience influences Adaptive Performance, Ethnocentrism influences Adaptation, Ethnocentrism influences Adaptive Performance, Cultural Distance influences Adaptive Performance in China. However, it finds that

Learning Flexibility does not influence Adaptation and Adaptive Performance, in addition, Cultural Distance cannot moderate the relationship between Learning Flexibility and Adaptive Performance. Furthermore, based on the results and hypotheses, the researcher proposes and highlights the positive relationship among expatriates Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance; and a negative relationship among Ethnocentrism, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance in China. However, the researcher also proposes but cannot confirm that the positive relationship between expatriates Cultural Intelligence and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Learning Flexibility and Adaptation in China and the negative relationship between expatriates Ethnocentrism and Adaptive Performance was mediated by Cultural Intelligence and Adaptation in China. The results of this study have also provided empirical evidence that expatriates adaptation, cultural intelligence, international work experience, ethnocentrism, and cultural distance influence their adaptive performance in China.

This study supports Li's (2013) findings on the relationship between cultural intelligence and adaptation, which can enhance our understanding of cultural intelligence development; as well as Shirley et al. (2016) and Caligiuri's (2016) suggestion of the relationship between ethnocentrism and expatriate adjustment and expatriate performance. Furthermore, based on this, the researcher proposes other relationships that can improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China and make contributions, such as expatriates' adaptation, international work experience, and cultural distance in China.

However, the results of this study do not support Kolb's (2010) Learning Flexibility Index which based on Kolb's (1984) Experience Learning Theory finds a relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation, and adaptive performance. Based on this, the current study should demonstrate that expatriates with higher levels of learning flexibility show a better performance in China. The researcher attempted various different ways to calculate the relationship between Learning Flexibility and other variables in this study, but no relationship was found between expatriates' Learning Flexibility and other variables in China. There is evidence that learners are able to adapt their learning styles according to the demand of different learning tasks; however, several studies suggest that students alter their learning strategies to match the learning demands of a particular discipline (Cornett, 1983; Entwistle, 1981; Kolb, 1984; Ornstein, 1977). Learning effectiveness is increased when an individual can move from one learning mode to another in the learning cycle, entering the different corresponding regions of the learning space. Although this study is based on Kolb's (1984) Learning Theory Experience Learning Theory, which finds a relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation and adaptive performance, the results of this study cannot find any relationship among expatriates' Learning Flexibility, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance in China. Therefore, the results of this study do not support the relationship between learning flexibility and other variables to improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China. All this literature is critical to our academic understanding of expatriates' adaptive performance in China. Finally, ten of the hypotheses confirmed that expatriates' adaptation, international work experience, cultural distance, and cultural intelligence can improve their adaptive performance in China; however, expatriates' ethnocentrism can decrease their adaptive performance in China, knowledge of which can benefit both multinational companies and expatriates.

6.2.2 Contribution to Empirical Research

In this study, the data analysis part of this research comprises another contribution that fills the empirical research gap. In the data analysis part, the Process by Hayes was used to analyse the mediation in this study. Process by Hayes is a new method that can be used to analyse moderation, mediation, multi-mediation, mediation-moderation, and moderation-mediation using many types of models. Unlike the complexity of the drawing graphical model in SEM, PROCESS macro can provide results without drawing a path diagram, which is easier to use for the analysis of data. There are 50 models for us to choose from, providing easy access to analysis moderation and mediation. In this study only model 1, 4 and 6 were used to analyse the relationship among expatriates' learning flexibility, cultural distance and adaptive performance in China; the relationship among expatriates' cultural intelligence, adaption and adaptive performance in China; the relationship among expatriates' ethnocentrism, adaptation and adaptive performance in China; the relationship among expatriates' learning flexibility, cultural intelligence, adaptation and adaptive performance in China, and the relationship among expatriate's cultural intelligence, ethnocentrism, adaptation and adaptive performance in China.

In addition, both quantitative research and qualitative research was used to analyse data to support the 15 hypotheses that the researcher proposed, which entailed two types as methods approach in this study. However, Smith (1981) noted that there are advantages and disadvantages to both qualitative data collection and quantitative data collection analysis procedures and techniques. Whilst McCusker et al. (2015) pointed out that using both quantitative research and qualitative research in one study can allow

researchers to analyse complex research questions and provide pragmatic advantages. In the meantime, using qualitative research can also play a supplementary role, providing a deeper understanding of the results. Although qualitative research can provide rich, in-depth contextual data to help us understand expatriates' perceptions; qualitative research cannot be considered to be generalizable and a way of finding the incidence or prevalence of a situation; qualitative research also cannot be used to draw a statistical conclusion; however, quantitative research can highlight associations between variables using figures. In this study, the researcher interviewed 10 participants, which entailed qualitative research and collected 175 questionnaires which entailed the quantitative research method. The qualitative research and quantitative research is used to describe the theoretical, methodological, and practical problems of this study, which is challenging when combining two research methods. Therefore, using both approaches can minimize the weaknesses and the bias of the results in this study.

6.2.3 Implications for Practice

Expatriates have long played an important role in multinational companies in China. This study has analysed the factors that can influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China. The results of this study highlighted the practices needed to increase expatriates' Adaptive Performance in China. Selecting expatriates who have higher Cultural Intelligence, Adaptation, International Work Experience, and Cultural Distance can influence expatriates' ability to adapt to China and could enhance their Adaptive Performance in China. However, expatriates with higher ethnocentrism will decrease in their adaptation to China. Improving expatriates' adaptive performance in China could benefit both expatriates and multinational companies. Therefore, selecting effective expatriates is a very difficult task for any HR department. Sparrow and Brewster (2003)

have the same opinion that expatriates essentially have soft skills. This study has highlighted a range of factors that can influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China and that the HR department should consider to minimize expatriates' failure in China, for example: selecting expatriates with higher adaptation, cultural intelligence and have previous international work experience, but lower ethnocentrism may help them to improve their adaptive performance in China, which benefits both expatriates and the companies.

On the other hand, offering appropriate training and feedback to expatriates, especially on the unique Chinese culture should also be considered by the HR department as well. Aycan (1997: 445) suggested that expatriates can save time wasted on dealing with new culture issues and the adjustment required if they receive companies' help. Black and Mendenhall (1990) and Waxin and Panaccio (2005) also noted that cross-cultural training research has confirmed that relative training is positively related to expatriates' adjustment; furthermore, appropriate HRM policies and practices can help expatriates to perform at the expected standard which may require HR to use specialist cross-cultural management to select expatriates. The HR department plays an important role in developing their organizations by selecting and training their expatriates; however, in China, the leaders could provide support and feedback to expatriates as well. In order to guide their expatriates' performance in China and minimize their failures, training such as about Chinese cultural content, especially guanxi problems, which can help expatriates to get a better understanding of the Chinese culture before arrival.

In summary, this research has filled the gaps by examining the relationship among expatriates Cultural Intelligence, International Work Experience, Ethnocentrism, Cultural Distance, Adaptation and Adaptive Performance in China. This can help the

HR departments to choose appropriate expatriates to work in China to transfer knowledge. However, this research did not support the relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance in China and therefore it does not support Kolb's (1984) experience learning theory on the relationship among learning flexibility, adaptation, and adaptive performance. The findings will offer valuable insight for multinational companies in their selection and development of international talents and with a view to minimizing any failures in China.

6.3 Limitations of this Study

While the study has made contributions, like other studies, this study has certain clear limitations. This part outlines the limitations of this study. The first limitation is the small number of interviews used in this study. Due to qualitative research playing a supplementary data role in this study, only ten interviews were conducted. In the future study, 25-30 interviewees would provide a better sample size to do the interview to find out the relationships among expatriates adaptation, cultural intelligence, international work experience, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, and adaptive performance in China to provide more detailed information and improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China and other countries.

Second, in this study only expatriates from the UK, Germany, the USA, and Hungary were interviewed which is not representative. The findings, therefore, are not representative and cannot be translated into wider contexts. In future study expatriates from different cultures should be included to find out whether international work

experience could affect expatriates' adaptation, cultural intelligence, and adaptive performance in other contexts. In addition, the researcher also only interviewed expatriates in Beijing, Shanghai, Shenyang, Changchun, and other big cities rather than all over China. Talent shortage is a general problem across different regions and industrial sectors, however, although this shortage may take different forms (Vaiman et al., 2018: 77) and expatriates may have different opinions in poorer regions.

Third, the researcher did not cover all the aspects related to expatriates' living and working conditions in China, in particular, family issues were not considered (husbands or wives' life and work, children's life, and study, etc.). For expatriates who work and live in China, these are important issues that should be considered. Due to the unique Chinese culture, most expatriates have difficulties adapting to work and live in China, and the studies related to these issues provide very important to adaptation and these should be considered by the HR department. In future studies, more factors should be considered to enrich this area. Given some of the obvious limitations of this study, there are further interesting topics and rewarding areas that future studies can consider.

6.4 Areas for Future Research Identified by this Study

This study has highlighted a number of areas for potential future research. First, based on Kolb's (1984) Experience Learning Theory, the researcher proposed a relationship among learning flexibility, cultural distance, adaptation, and adaptive performance; however, the findings in this study did not support the Learning Flexibility Index for expatriates' management and personal development in China (Sharma & Kolb, 2010). This suggests the need to further investigate this facet of the Learning Flexibility Index

to find out other factors that could influence expatriates' learning flexibility, or to attempt to find why these three factors did not link to learning flexibility. The current study did not support Kolb's Learning Flexibility Index (2010) suggesting that the results need to be considered relative to this study's limitations, which could be overcome by future studies.

Furthermore, only three dimensions (Training and Learning Effort, Interpersonal Adaptability, and Physical Adaptability) of Adaptive Performance were used in this study, and therefore it cannot reflect on other variables that many influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China. In the future research could consider the link among Learning Flexibility, Cultural Distance, Adaptation, Cultural Intelligence, International Work Experience, other variables and other dimensions of Adaptive Performance (Handling Emergencies and Crises, Managing Work Stress, Solving Problems Creatively, Dealing with Uncertain and Unpredictable Work Situations and Cultural Adaptability) to find the more relationships and thus improve expatriates adaptive performance in China and other countries. In addition, future research could also interview samples from a wider range of nationalities in future studies, such as a study of Anglo expatriates (Armstrong & Li, 2017). It could compare the explanation from different nationalities' reflections, which may produce different results. Fourth, the wide regional disparity in China was not considered in this study. The researcher interviewed expatriates all over China instead of in specific cities, such as Beijing, Shanghai, and so on. In future studies, regional diversity could be considered, in order to compare expatriates' reflections in the metropolis and small cities. Fifth, the present research was designed to examine the relationships among these variables in a cross-sectional study under the assumption that all expatriates have common experiences and similar traits over time. In future research, a longitudinal study can be used to investigate expatriates'

adaptive performance in China. A longitudinal study using a qualitative method and quantitative method would provide richer and deeper insights into the phenomenon of expatriates' adaptive performance in China. Sixth, this study only focused on expatriates in China; however, expatriates play an important role in many the multinational companies worldwide, in the future, the research could apply these theories to other countries to enhance our understanding of expatriates' comparative adjustment contest.

This study demonstrates the relationship among expatriates adaptation, cultural intelligence, and international work experience, ethnocentrism, learning flexibility, cultural distance, and adaptive performance in China. In the future studies can consider more variables to improve expatriates adaptive performance in China and other countries. In summary, there is a very wide range of variables that may influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China. In the future, the research could consider this wide range and this may influence expatriates' adaptive performance in China, which will help both expatriates and multinational companies at the same time to more fully understand issues of expatriates' adaptation in China and other countries and minimize any unnecessary costs and failures.

6.5 Reflections

As I was developed in doing this research, I would like to note my appreciation for this chance to be a PhD candidate since 2015. In these four years, I have learnt a lot and pushed myself beyond my limits. I would like to express my thanks to my supervisors for giving me directions when I was in desperate times and helping me cross each

bridge. In the whole process, I have encountered some challenges that were difficult and frustrating but also exciting and I would like to share the following:

First, the topic that I considered to have potential may help expatriates to improve their adaptive performance in China. My aim was to fill the gaps and add value to academic research. Therefore, the challenge that I met with was investigating a wealth of previous studies to identify the research gaps that were worth exploring and examining in this study. Thanks to plenty of literature reviews and my supervisors' directions, I was able to identify the variables that can improve expatriates' adaptive performance in China. And then I have developed this during each year's upgrade, which I realise is why I chose China as the target country instead of another country and I came to think about the relationships among the variables logically.

Second, because I would like to produce a thesis to PhD level should be, I chose to use quantitative research and qualitative research, which I knew I would face more challenges than others. For the quantitative research part, I had to design an easy to understand but full of seven scale questionnaires. Each scale I had to ask myself why I chose this scale instead of others. And then I have to email the authors who have these scales to get permissions which cost me almost two months. After finishing the questionnaire, I have to use my network to distribute more than 200 questionnaires to develop data, however, only 175 can be used. While for the qualitative research part, lacking knowledge, I took one month to collect in-depth and rich perspectives from ten interviews. I learned to listen and communicate with the interviewees to summarize and explore their points. This entire process was really interesting for me as it allowed me to draw out their in-depth thoughts and realize other possibilities for improving expatriates' adaptive performance in China.

Third, the data analysis part was very challenging. Lacking a mathematics background in calculating figures and using regression analysis to analyse the data, I encountered plenty of problems. Although taking one year to read and understand regression analysis was rather painful, it allowed me to become familiar with my data and learn how to conduct the analysis in detail. The most frustrating part was that I ultimately did not find out any relationship among expatriates Learning Flexibility, Adaptation, and Adaptive Performance in China. I, therefore, attempted different methods to find where I had made mistakes, however, the results were still the same. During these efforts widened my horizons and developed my understanding of expatriates' adaptive performance in China and the challenges of developing this area.

Last but not least, the writing was another challenge for me to deal with as I find using academic language to be challenging. During this process, I read related journals and continued writing as much as I can, and I talked with my supervisor as a way to improve my writing skills. However, I realize that I need further development to improve my writing skills in my future academic career. Despite all these challenges I have met, I am really satisfied with my contributions to improving expatriates' adaptive performance in China with this study.

Reference:

- Ackoof, R. L. (1971) Towards a System of Systems Concepts. *Management Science*, 17(11): 661-786.
- A review. *Academy of Management Review*, 10: 39-47.
- Adams, G.R., and J.D. Schvaneveldt. (1991). *Understanding Research Methods*. 2nd ed. New York: Longman.
- Adler, N. (1979). Women as androgynous managers: A conceptualization of the potential for American women in international management. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 3(4): 407-436.
- Adler, N. (2008). *International dimensions of organizational behavior*. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western.
- Adler, N. J. (1986). International dimensions of organizational behavior, *Thunderbird international business review*, 28(1): 31-32.
- Adler, N.J., & Bartholomew, S. (1992). Managing globally competent people, *Academy of Management Executive*, 6: 52–65.
- Adorno, T. W., Frenkel-Brunswik, E., Levinson, D. J., & Sanford, R. N. (1950). *The authoritarian personality*. New York, NY: Harper.
- Akrivou, K. (2008). Differentiation and integration in adult development: The influence of self-complexity and integrative learning on self-integration. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.
- Albrecht, D. S., Ahmed, S. U., Kettner, N., Borra, R., Cohen-Adad, J., Deng, H., Houle, T., Opalacz, A., Roth, S.A., Melo M. F., Chen, V., Mao, L., Hooker, J. (2018). Neuro inflammation of the spinal cord and nerve roots in chronic radicular pain patients, *International Association for the Study of Pain*, 159(5): 968-977.

- Ali, A., Van der Zee, K. I., & Sanders, G. (2003). Determinants of intercultural adjustment among expatriate spouses. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 27: 563-580.
- Allen, D. & Alvarez, S. (1998). Empowering expatriates and organisations to improve repatriation effectiveness. *Human Resource Planning*, 21(4): 29-39.
- Allinson, C. W., & Hayes, J. (1988). THE LEARNING STYLES QUESTIONNAIRE: AN ALTERNATIVE TO KOLB'S INVENTORY? *Journal of Management studies*, 25(3): 269-281.
- Allworth, E., & Hesketh, B. (1999). Construct-oriented biodata: Capturing change-related and contextually relevant future performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 7: 97-111.
- Allworth, E., & Hesketh, B. 1999. Construct-oriented biodata: Capturing change-related and contextually relevant future performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 7: 97-111.
- Along, I., & Higgins, J. M. (2005). Global leadership success through emotional and cultural intelligences, *Business Horizons*, 48(6): 501-512.
- Amber, T., & Witzel, M. (2004). *Doing Business in China*. London: Routledge Curzon.
- American expatriate managers in Japan. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14(4): 485-506.
- Ang, S., & Van Dyne, L. (2008). *Handbook of cultural intelligence: Theory, measures and applications*. Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and

decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 3: 335-371.

Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2015). *Armstrong's Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice*, London: Kogan Page.

Armstrong, S. J., & Li, Y. (2017). A Study of Anglo Expatriate Managers' Learning, Knowledge Acquisition, and Adjustment in Multinational Companies in China, *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 16(1): 1-22.

Arthur, N. (2002). Preparing students for a world of work in cross-cultural transition. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 11: 9–13.

Arthur, W. B., Holland, J. H., LeBaron, B., Palmer, R., & Tayler, P. (1997). Asset Pricing Under Endogenous Expectations in an Artificial Stock Market, in W. B. Arthur, S. N. Durlauf, and D. A. Lane (eds.), *The Economy as an Evolving Complex System II*, Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 15-44.

Arthur, W., & Bennett, W. (1995). The International Assignee: The Relative Importance of Factors Perceived to Contribute to Success. *Personnel Psychology*, 48: 99-114.

Ash, R.A., & Levine, E. (1985). Job Applicant Training and Work Experience Evaluation: An Empirical Comparison of Four Methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70(3), 572-576.

Ashford, S. J., & Taylor, M. S. (1990). Adaptations to work transitions: An integrative approach, *Research in personnel and human resources management*, 8: 1-39.

Auyeung, P., & Sands, J. (1996). A cross-cultural study of the learning style of accounting students, *Accounting and Finance*, 36: 261-274.

Aycan, Z. (1997). Expatriate adjustment as a multifaceted phenomenon: Individual and organizational level predictors. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(4), 434-456.

Aycan, Z. (2005). The interplay between cultural and institutional/structural contingencies in human resource practices. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16 (7): 1038-1119.

Babiker, I. E., Cox, J. L., & Miller, P. M. (1980). The measurement of cultural distance and its relationship to medical consultations, symptomatology and examination performance of overseas students at Edinburgh University. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 15(3), pp. 109-116.

Bader, B., & Berg, N. (2014). The Influence of Terrorism on Expatriate Performance: a Conceptual Approach, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(3–4): 539–557.

Baker, J., & Ivancevich, J. (1970). Multinational management staffing with American Expatriates. *Economic and Business Bulletin*, 23(1): 35-39.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. NY, US: W H Freeman/Times Books/ Henry Holt & Co.

Barkema, H. G., Bell, J. J., & Pennings, J. M. (1996). FOREIGN ENTRY, CULTURAL BARRIERS, AND LEARNING, *Strategic Management Journal*, 17(2): 151-166.

Barkema, H.G., & Vermeulen, F. (1997). What differences in the cultural backgrounds of partners are detrimental for international joint ventures? *Journal of International Business Studies*, 28(4): 845-864.

Barnham, C. (2014). Quantitative and Qualitative Research: Perceptual Foundations, *International Journal of Market Research*, 57(6): 837-854.

- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Bedeian, A. G., Burke, B. G., & Moffett, R. G. (1988). Outcomes of work-family conflict among married male and female professionals. *Journal of management*, 14(3), 475-491.
- Bell, J. H. J. (1996). *Single or joint venturing? A comprehensive approach to foreign entry mode choice*, Aldershot: Avebury.
- Bernard, H. R., & Ryan, G. W. (2000). Data management and analysis methods, In *Handbook of Qualitative research*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Berry, J. (1997). Immigration, acculturation, and adaptation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 46, 1, 5–34.
- Berry, J. W. (1997). Immigration, Acculturation, and Adaptation, *Applied Psychology*, 46(1): 5-34.
- Bhagat, R. S., Kedia, B. L., Harveston, P. D., and Triandis, H. (2002). Cultural and strategic considerations of cross-border organization knowledge transfer. *Academy of Management Review* 27(2): 204-221.
- Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Luk, D. M. (2005). Input-Based and Time-Based Models of International Adjustment: Meta-Analytic Evidence and Theoretical Extensions, *The Academy of Management Journal*, 48(2): 257-281.
- Bird, A., & Mendenhall, M. E. (2016). From cross-cultural management to global leadership: Evolution and adaptation, *Journal of World Business*, 51(1): 115-126.
- Bjorkman, Christer. (2005). Foraging behaviour influences the outcome of predator–predator interactions. *Ecological Entomology*, Vol (30), Issue 2, 164-169.

Black, J. S. & Gregersen, H. B. (1990). Expectations, satisfaction, and intention to leave of American expatriate managers in Japan. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14(4): 485-506.

Black, J. S. (1988). Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19, 277-294.

Black, J.S. & Gregersen, H. B. (1991a). The other half of the picture: Antecedents of spouse cross-cultural adjustment. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 3rd quarter, 461-477.

Black, J.S. & Mendenhall, M. (1990). Cross-cultural training effectiveness: A review and a theoretical framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(1), 113-136.

Black, J.S., & Stephens, G.K. (1989). The influence of the spouse on American expatriate adjustment and intent to stay in Pacific Rim overseas assignments. *Journal of Management*, 15, 529–544.

Black, J.S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G.R. (1991). Towards a comprehensive model of international adjustment: An integration of multiple theoretical perspectives. *Academy of Management Review*, 16(2): 291-317.

Bochner, S., Hutnik, N., & Furnham, A. (1986). The friendship patterns of overseas and host student in an Oxford student residence, *Journal of Social Psychology*, 125(6): 689-694.

Bochner, S., McLeod, B., & Lin, A. (1977). Friendship patterns of overseas students: A functional model, *International Journal of Psychology*, 12: 277-294.

- Bolino, M. C. (2007). Expatriate assignments and intra-organizational career success: Implications for individuals and organizations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38: 819-835
- Bolino, M. C., Klotz, A. C., Turnley, W. H., & Harvey, J. (2013). Exploring the dark side of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(4), 542-559.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural Equations with Latent Variables*. New York: Wiley.
- Bond, C. and Seneque, M (2013) Conceptualizing coaching as an approach to management and organizational development, *Journal of Management Development*, 32(1): 57-72.
- Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt, & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organizations* (pp. 71-98). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Borrmann, W. (1968). The problem of expatriate personnel and their selection in international enterprises. *Management International Review*, 8: 37-48.
- Boud, D., & Garrick, J. (1999). *Understanding Learning At work*. New York: Routledge.
- Boulnois, L. (2004). *Silk road: monks, warriors and merchants on the Silk Road*. Hong Kong: Odyssey Publications.
- Bowen, H. B. and Wiersema, M. F. (1999). Matching method to paradigm in strategy research: limitations of cross-sectional analysis and some methodological alternatives, *Strategic Management Journal*, 20: 625–36.

- Boyacigiller, N. (1990). The role of expatriates in the management of interdependence, complexity, and risk in multinational corporations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 21(3): 1-11.
- Boyatzis, R. E., and Kolb, D. A. (1993). Adaptive Style Inventory: Self-scored inventory and interpretation booklet. Hay Group, Hay Resources Direct.
- Brein, H., & David, K. (1971). Intercultural communication and the adjustment of the sojourner. *Psychological Bulletin*, 76(3): 215-230.
- Brewster, C. (1991). *The Management of Expatriates*, London: Kogan Page.
- Brewster, C., Bonache, J., Cerdin, J.-L., & Suutari, V. (2014). Exploring expatriate outcomes. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 25, 1921-1937.
- Briscoe, D. R. (1995). The role of expatriates in the management of interdependence, complexity and risk in multinational corporations, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 21(3): 357-381.
- Brislin, R. (1993). Understanding culture's influence on behavior. San Diego, CA, US: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Brislin, R. W. (1981). Cross-cultural encounters: Face to face interaction. Elmsford, NY: Pergamon Press.
- Brislin, R., Worthley, R., & Macnab, B. (2006). Cultural Intelligence Understanding Behaviors that Serve People's Goals, *Group & Organization Management*, 31(1): 40-55.
- Brookfield Global Relocation Services (2011) Global Relocation Trends. [online], <http://expatriateconnection.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/Brookfield-global-mobility-survey-2011.pdf>.

- Brookfield, S. D. (2014). Foundations of Critical Theory, *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 16(4): 417-428.
- Brouthers, K.D., & Brouthers, L.E. (2001). Explaining the national cultural distance paradox. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(1): 177-189.
- Brumback, G. (2011). Performance Management Fundamentals. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 4(2): 182–183.
- Bryman, A. (1992). Charisma and Leadership in Organizations. Newbury Park, Sage.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). Business research methods. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Buckley, P. J. and Casson, M. C. (1976). The Future of the Multinational Enterprise. London: Macmillan.
- Budhwar, P. S., & Sparrow, P. R. (2002). An integrative framework for determining cross-national human resource management practices. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(3): 377-403.
- Burns, R. and Burns, R. (2008). Cluster Analysis In: Business Research Methods and Statistics Using SPSS. Sage Publications.
- Burrell, G and Morgan, G. (1979). Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis: Elements of the Sociology of Corporate Life. Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Caligiuri, P. M. (2000). The Big Five personality characteristics as predictors of expatriate's desire to terminate the assignment and supervisor-rated performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 53, 67–88.
- Caligiuri, P., & Tarique, I. (2009). Predicting effectiveness in global leadership activities. *World Business*, 44: 336-346.

- Caligiuri, P., & Tarique, I. (2016). Cultural agility and international assignees' effectiveness in cross - cultural interactions. *International journal of Training and Development*, 20(4), 280-289.
- Caligiuri, P.M., A. Hyland, A. Joshi and A. Bross. (1998). A Theoretical Framework for Examining the Relationship Between Family Adjustment and Expatriate Adjustment to Working in the Host Country. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 598-614.
- Campbell, D. J. (2000). The proactive employee: Managing workplace initiative. *Academy of Management Executive*, 14(3): 52– 66.
- Campbell, D. T. (1969). Reforms as experiments. *American Psychologist*, 24(4), 409-429.
- Campbell, J. P. (1990). Modeling the performance prediction problem in industrial and organizational psychology. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Campbell, J. P., McCloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H., & Sager, C. E. (1993). A theory of performance. In N. Schmitt, W. C. Borman, and associates (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organizations*: 35- 69. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Campion, M.A., Cheraskin, L. & Stevens, M.J. (1994). Career-related antecedents and outcomes of job rotation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(6), pp. 1518-1542.
- Cao, S. X., Zhang, J. Z., & Zheng, X. Y. (2017). Challenge of political globalization, *Time & Society*, 28(2): 828-837.
- Caprar, D.V. (2011). Foreign locals: A cautionary tale on the culture of MNC local employees. *Journal of International Business Studies* 42, 608-628.

- Carpenter, M. A., Sanders, W. G., & Gregersen, H. B. (2001). Bundling human capital with organizational context: The impact of international experience on multinational firm performance and CEO pay. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44: 493–511.
- Cassell, C., Nadin, S. J., Gray, M., & Clegg, C. (2002). The Use of HRM Practices in Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises. *Personnel Review*, 31: 671-692.
- Charbonnier-Voirin, A., & Roussel. P. (2012). Adaptive Performance: A New Scale to Measure Individual Performance in Organizations. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 29 (3): 280-293.
- Charbonnier-Voirin, A., El Akremi, A., & Vandenberghe, C. (2010). A multilevel model of transformational leadership and adaptive performance and the moderating role of climate for innovation. *Group & Organization Management*, 35(6), 699-726.
- Chen, A. S., Wu, I. H., & Bian, M. D. (2014). The moderating effects of active and agreeable conflict management styles on cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment, *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 14(3):270-288.
- Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kim, K., Farh, C. I. C., & Tangirala, S. (2010). When does cross-cultural motivation enhance expatriate effectiveness? A multilevel investigation of the moderating roles of subsidiary support and cultural distance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53: 1110-1130.
- Chen, H. (1990). Issues in constructing program theory, *Evaluating Sustainability: Evaluativ support for Managing Processes in The Public Interest*, 47: 7-18.
- Chou, C., Roberts, A., and Ching, G. S. (2012). A study on the international students' perception and norms in Taiwan. *International Journal of Research Studies in Education* 1(2): 71–84.

- Chuah, C. W., & Rose, R. C. (2011). The Effects of Cultural Intelligence on Cross-Cultural Adjustment and Job Performance amongst Expatriates in Malaysia, *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(9): 59-71.
- Chura, H. (2006). A year abroad (or 3) as a career move. *New York Times*.
- Church, A. (1982). Sojourner adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 91: 540-572.
- Churchill, G. A. Jr. (1979). A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16(1): 64-73.
- Coghlan, D and Brannick T, (2005). *Doing Action Research in Your Own Organisation Second edition*, Sage, London.
- Cohen, E. (1977). Expatriate communities. *Current Sociology*, 24(23), 5-133.
- Colakolu, S., & Caligiuri, P. (2008). Cultural distance, expatriate staffing and subsidiary performance: The case of US subsidiaries of multinational corporations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(2): 223-239.
- Collings, D.G., Scullion, H., & Morley, M. J. (2007). Changing patterns of global staffing in the multinational enterprise: Challenges to the conventional expatriate assignment and emerging alternatives, *Journal of World Business*, 42(2): 198-213.
- Collings, D. G. (2014) Toward Mature Talent Management: Beyond Shareholder Value, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 25(3): 301-319.
- Collis, J., & Hussey, R. (2009). *Business research: A practical guide for undergraduate & postgraduate students*. Basingstoke, Hampshire UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Converse, J. M., & Presser, S. (1986). *Survey questions: Handcrafting the standardized questionnaire*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

- Cooke, F. L., Wood, G., & Horwitz, F. (2015). Multinational firms from emerging economies in Africa: implications for research and practice in human resource management, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(21): 2653-2675.
- Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. (2008). Business research methods. New York, McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Cooper, J. O., Heron, T. E., & Heward, W. L. (2007). Applied behavior analysis (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Cornett, C. E. (1983). *What you should know about teaching and learning styles*. Fastback 191. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Cornwell, J. M., & Manfredro, P. A. (1994). Kolb's learning style theory revisited. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 54(2): 317-327.
- Cortina, J. M. (1993). What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and applications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(1): 98-104.
- Costello, A. B., & Osborne, J. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. *Practical Assessment Research & Evaluation*, 10(7): 1-9.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1950). Further evidence on response sets and test validity. *Educ. Psychol. Meas.* 10: 3-31.
- Crowne, K. A. (2008). What Leads to Cultural Intelligence? *Business Horizons*, 51: 391-399.

- Crowne, K. A. (2013a). An Empirical Analysis of Three Intelligences. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science/Revue canadienne des sciences du comportement*, 45: 105
- Daily, C., Certo, T., & Dalton, D. (2000). International experience in the executive suite: The path to prosperity? *Strategic Management Journal*, 21: 515-523.
- Dale, A., Arbor, S., & Procter, M. (1988). Doing secondary analysis. London, UK: Unwin Hyman.
- Darwish A. Yousef, (2000). Organizational commitment: a mediator of the relationships of leadership behavior with job satisfaction and performance in a non-western country, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15(1): 6-24.
- De Cieri, H. L., & Hutchings, K. (2008). The international context of human resource management. In K. Macky (Ed.), *Managing Human Resources: Contemporary Perspectives in New Zealand* (3rd ed., pp. 52 - 81). North Ryde NSW Australia: McGraw-Hill Education.
- De Vaus, D. A. (2002). *Surveys in Social Research*, 5th edition, Allen & Unwin, Crows Nest, Australia.
- De Vita, G. (2001). Learning styles, culture and inclusive instruction in the multicultural classroom: A business and management perspective, *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 38(2): 165-174.
- Delbridge, R. and Kirkpatrick, I. (1994). Theory and Practice of Participant Observation, In Wass, V. and Wells, P. (eds.) *Principles and Practice in Business and Management Research*, Dartmouth Gower: Aldershot.

- DeNisi, A. S., & Pritchard, R. D. (2006). Performance appraisal, performance management and improving individual performance: a motivational framework. *Management and Organization Review*, 2 (2): 253–277.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln Y. S. (2003). Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and Education. Kappa Delta Pi.
- Dinopoulos, E., and Thompson, P. (1998) Schumpeterian growth without scale effects.
- Dowling, P. J, Festing, M., & Engle, A. D. (2013) International human resource management, 6th edition. London: Cengage Learning.
- Dowling, P.J., Welch, D.E. and Schuler, R.S. (1999) *International Human Resource Management: Managing People in an International Context, 3rd edn*. Cincinnati, OH: South Western College Publishing, ITP.
- Dowling, P.J., Welch, D.E. and Schuler, R.S. (1999) *International Human Resource Management*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- Drever, J. (1952). A dictionary of psychology. Oxford, England: Penguin Books, Inc.
- Drogendijk, R., & Slangen, A. (2006). Hofstede, Schwartz, or managerial perceptions? The effects of different cultural distance measures on establishment mode choices by multinational enterprises, *International Business Review*, 15: 361-380.
- Dunbar, E. (1994). The German executive in the U.S. work and social environment: Exploring role demands. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 16: 1-16.
- Earley P. C., & Mosakowski, E. (2004). Cultural intelligence, *Harvard Business Review*, 139–146.

- Earley, P. and Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. USA: Stanford University Press.
- Earley, P. C., Ang, S., and Tan, J. S. (2006). *CQ: Developing cultural intelligence at work*. Stanford University Press.
- Early P. C., & Ang S. (2003). *Cultural Intelligence across Cultures*, CA: Stanford University Press, Stanford.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Golden-Biddle, K., and Locke, K. (2008). Working with pluralism: determining quality in qualitative research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11(3): 419-429.
- Edström, A., & Galbraith, J. (1977). Transfer of managers as a coordination and control
- Edwards, J. R., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2000). On the nature and direction of the relationship between constructs and measures. *Psychological Methods*, 5: 155–74.
- Elashmawi, F. (2001). *Competing globally – Mastering multicultural management and negotiations*. Burlington, MA: Butterworth-Heinemann/Elsevier.
- Elenkov, D., & Manev, I. M. (2009). Senior expatriate leadership's effects on innovation and the role of cultural intelligence, *Journal of World Business*, 44(4): 357-369.
- Entwistle, N. (1981). *Styles of learning and teaching: An integrated outline of educational psychology for students, teachers, and lecturers*. New York: Wiley.
- Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., MacCallum, R. C., & Strahan, E. J. (1999). Evaluating the use of exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychological Methods*, 4(3): 272-299.
- Farcas, D., & Goncalves, 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.

Farh, C. I. C., Bartol, K. M., Shapiro, D. L., & Shin, J. (2010). Networking abroad: A process model of how expatriates form support ties to facilitate adjustment. *The Academy of Management Review*, 35(3): 434-454.

Feldman, D. C., & Thomas, C. (1992). Career management issues facing expatriates. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23, 271-293.

Feldman, J. M., & Lynch, J. G. (1988). Self-generated validity and other effects of measurement on belief, attitude, intention, and behavior. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 73: 421–35.

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*. 3rd Edition, Sage Publications Ltd., London.

Field, D. A. (2000). Qualitative measures for initial meshes, *International Journal for Numerical Methods in Engineering*, 47(4): 887-906.

Finch, J. (1984). It is great to have someone to talk to: The ethics and politics of interviewing women, in *Social researching: politics, problems, practice*, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Fisher C. (1986). Organizational socialization: An integrative review. In Ferris GR (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (vol. 4, pp. 101–145).

Florkowski, G. W., & Fogel, D. S. (1999). Expatriate Adjustment and Commitment: The Role of Host-Unit Treatment, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(5):783-807.

Foddy, W. (1994). *Constructing questions for interviews and questionnaires: Theory and practice in social research*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

- Foote, M. R. (1977). Controlling the cost of international compensation. *Harvard Business Review*, 55(6): 123-132.
- Ford, J., Quinones, M., Sego, D., & Sorra, J. (1992). Factors affecting the opportunity to perform trained tasks on the job. *Personnel Psychology*, 45, 511-527.
- Freeman, P. (2008). *Julius Caesar*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Froese, F. J., & Peltokorpi, V. (2011). Cultural distance and expatriate job satisfaction. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 35: 49– 60.
- Froese, F.J., & Peltokorpi, V. (2013). Organizational expatriates and self-initiated expatriates: Differences in cross-cultural adjustment and job satisfaction *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24, 1953-1967.
- Furnham, A., & Bochner, S. (1982). Social difficulty in a foreign culture: An empirical analysis. *Studies in cross-cultural interaction*, Oxford, UK: Pergamon.
- Gama, E., & Pedersen, P. (1977). Readjustment problems of Brazilian returnees from graduate studies in the United States. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 1(4): 46-59.
- Geeraert, N., & Demoulin, S. (2013). Acculturative stress or resilience? A longitudinal multilevel analysis of sojourners' stress and self-esteem. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 44(8): 1241-1262.
- Gerhart, B., & Fang, M. (2005). National culture and human resource management: Assumptions and evidence. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(6): 971 – 986.
- Gerhart, B., & Fang, M. (2005). National culture and human resource management: Assumptions and evidence. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16:6 971 – 986.

- Ghemawat, P. (2001). Distance still Matters. The hard reality of global expansion. *Harvard Business Review*, 79 (8): 137-147.
- Ghoshal, S. (1987). Global strategy: An organizing framework, *Strategic Management Journal*, 8(5): 425-440.
- Gillham, B. (2008). *Observation Techniques: A Review of Observation Techniques: Structured to Unstructured*, London & New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- GMAC Global Relocation Services (2004). GLOBAL RELOCATION TRENDS 2003/2004 SURVEY REPORT. [online].
<http://www.nftc.org/default/hr/GRTS%202003-4.pdf>.
- Gonzalez, R. F., & Negandhi, A. R. (1967). *The United States Overseas Executive: His Orientations and Career Patterns*, East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University.
- Gouttefarde, C. (1992). Host national culture shock: What management can do, *European Business Review*, 92(4), i-iii.
- Grant, P. R. (1992). Ethnocentrism between groups of unequal power in response to perceived threat to social identity and valued resources. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science / Revue canadienne des sciences du comportement*, 24(3): 348-370.
- Grant, P. R., & Brown, R. (1995). From Ethnocentrism to Collective Protest: Responses to Relative Deprivation and Threats to Social Identity, *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 58(3):195-212.
- Greenberg, J., & Rosenfield, D. (1979). Whites' ethnocentrism and their attributions for the behaviour of blacks: A motivational bias, *Journal of Personality*, 47: 643-657.
- Griffin, B., & Hesketh, B. (2003). Adaptable behaviors for successful work and career adjustment. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 55: 65-73.

Gudykunst, W. B., & Hammer, M. R. (1984) Dimensions of intercultural effectiveness: Culture specific or culture general? *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 8, 1–10.

Gudykunst, W.B., and Hammer, M.R. (1984). Dimensions of Intercultural Effectiveness: Culture Specific or Culture General? *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 8, 1–10.

Guthrie, G. M. (1975). A behavioural analysis of cultural learning, cross-cultural perspectives on learning. Wiley, New York.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis*, Seventh Edition. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.

Hakim, C. (2000). *Work-lifestyle choices in the 21st century: preference theory*. Oxford:Oxford University Press.

Hall, R. (2002). Enterprise resource planning systems and organizational change: transforming work organization? *Briefings in Entrepreneurial Finance*, 11(5): 263-270.

Han, D. P. (2008). *The Unknown Cultural Revolution: Life and Change in a Chinese Village*, New York: Monthly Review Press. Reviewed by Munir Ghazanfar.

Han, T. Y., & Williams, K. J. (2008). Multilevel investigation of adaptive performance: Individual- and team-level relationships. *Group & Organization Management*, 33: 657–684.

Hannigan, T. P. (1990). Traits, attitudes, and skills that are related to intercultural effectiveness and their implications for cross-cultural training: A review of the literature. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14(1): 89-111.

Hapgood, D., & Meridan B. (1968). *Agents of change: A close look at the Peace Corps*, Boston, MA, Little, Brown and Co.

- Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P. (2004a). Going Places: Roads More and Less Traveled in Research on Expatriate Experiences. Oxford: Elsevier, Ltd.
- Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P. (2004b). Going places: Roads more and less traveled in research on expatriate experiences. *Research in personnel and human resources management*, 22: 203-252).
- Harvey, L., Moon, S. and Geall, V with Bower, R., (1997). *Graduates' Work: Organisation change and students' attributes*. Birmingham, Centre for Research into Quality (CRQ) and Association of Graduate Recruiters (AGR).
- Harzing, A.W. (2001a). An analysis of the functions of international transfer of managers in MNCs. *Employee Relations*, 23: 581–598.
- Hayes, A. F. (2012). PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process modelling. Retrieved from <http://www.afhayes.com/public/process2012.pdf>.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to Mediation, Moderation, and Conditional Process Analysis: A Regression-Based Approach: A Regression-based Approach*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Heenan, D. (1970). The corporate expatriate: Assignment to ambiguity. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 5(3): 49-54.
- Howard, C. (1974). The returning overseas executive - culture shock in reverse. *Human Resource Management*, 13(2): 22-26.
- Hemmasi, M., & Downes, M. (2013). Cultural distance and expatriate adjustment revisited, *Journal of Global Mobility: The Home of Expatriate Management Research*, 1(1): 72-91.
- Hendry, C. (1994). The Single European Market and the HRM response, *Human Resource Management in Europe: Perspectives for the 1990s*, 93–113.

- Henry, E. (1966), Lessons from Peace Corps selection and training, *The International Executive*, 8(1): 9-10.
- Hesketh, B., & Neal, A. (1999). *Technology and performance*. In D. R. Ilgen & E. D. Pulakos (Eds.), *The changing nature of performance: Implications for staffing, motivation, and development* (pp. 21–55). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hewstone, M. (1989). *Causal Attribution*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Hill, C. W. (2001). *International Business: Competing in the Global Marketplace*. Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin McGraw-Hill.
- Hinds, P., Liu, L. & Lyon, J. (2011). Putting the global in global work: An intercultural lens on the process of cross-national collaboration. *Academy of Management Annals*, 5(1), 1-54.
- Hinkin, T. R. (1998). A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey questionnaires [Electronic version]. Retrieved [15/06/2018], from Cornell University, School of Hotel Administration site: <http://scholarship.sha.cornell.edu/articles/521>.
- Hinton, P. R., Brownlow, C., McMurray, I. and Cozens, B. (2004). *SPSS explained*. Routledge Inc. East Sussex, England.
- Hippler, T., Caligiuri, P. M., Johnson, J. E., & Baytalskaya, N. (2014). The development and validation of a theory-based expatriate adjustment scale, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25:14, 1938-1959.
- Hipsher, S. (2008). *Expatriates in Asia: Breaking free from the colonial paradigm*. Oxford, UK: Chandos Publishing.
- Hocking, J. B., Brown, M. and Harzing, A.-W. (2007), Balancing global and local strategic contexts: Expatriate knowledge transfer, applications, and learning within a transnational organization. *Hum. Resour. Manage*, 46: 513–533.

- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*. London, UK: McGraw-Hill.
- Hofstede, G., & McCrae, R. R. (2004). Personality and Culture Revisited: Linking Traits and Dimensions of Culture, *Cross-Cultural Research*, 38(1): 52-88.
- Holopainen, J., & Björkman, I. (2005). The personal characteristics of the successful expatriate: A critical review of the literature and an empirical investigation. *Personnel Review*, 34 (1): 37-50.
- Hoover, J. D., Giambatista, R. C, Sorenson, R. L., & Bommer, W. H. (2010). Assessing the effectiveness of whole person learning pedagogy in skill acquisition. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 9: 192-203.
- Hough, L.M. (1992). The “Big Five” personality variables-construct confusion: Description versus prediction. *Human Performance*, 5, 139-156.
- Howard, C. (1979). Integrating returning expatriates into the domestic organisation. *The Personnel Administrator*, 24: 62-75.
- Howell, M. and S. Newman (1959). How we should train for overseas posts, *International Executive*, 1(1): 21–22.
- Huberman, M., & Miles, M. B. (1991). *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Collection of New Methods*. Bruxelles: De Boeck.
- Hutcheson, G., & Sofroniou, N. (1999) *The Multivariate Social Scientist: Introductory Statistics Using Generalized Linear Models*. Sage Publication, Thousand Oaks, CA.

- Hymer, S. (1976). *The international operations of national firms: A study of direct foreign investment*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Imai, L., & Gelfand, M. J. (2010). The culturally intelligent negotiator: The impact of cultural intelligence (CQ) on negotiation sequences and outcomes, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 112: 83-98.
- Ivancevich, J. (1969). Selection of American managers for overseas assignments. *Personnel Journal*, 48: 189–200.
- Jackson, S.E. and Schuler, R.S. (2003), *Managing Human Resources through Strategic Partnerships*, 8th ed., South-Western, Cincinnati, OH.
- Janssens, M., & Brett, J. (2006). Cultural intelligence in global teams: A fusion model of collaboration, *Management and Organizations*, 31(1): 124-153.
- Jenkins, E. M., & Mockaitis, A. I. (2010). You're from where? The influence of distance factors on New Zealand expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21: 2694-2715.
- Johnson, G., Melin, L., & Whittington, R. (2003). Guest Editor's Introduction. Micro Strategy and Strategizing: Towards an Activity-Based View, *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(1): 3–22.
- Johnson, J.P., Lenartowicz, T., & Apud, S. (2006). Cross-cultural competence in international business: Toward a definition and a model. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37(4): 525-543.
- Johnson, P., & Clark, M. (2006). *Business and Management Research Methodologies*, London, SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Jokinen, T. (2005) Global leadership competencies: a review and discussion. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 29(3), p. 199-216.

Jones, L. (1975). Training in the jungle - CALTEX style. *Education + Training*, 17(1/2), 45-48.

Journal of Economic Growth, vol (3): 313-335.

Judge, T. A., Cable, D. M., Boudreau, J. W., & Bretz, R. D. (1995). An empirical investigation of the predictors of executive career success. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 485-519.

Jyoti, K., & Kaur, D. (2013). Enhancement in the Performance of K-means Algorithm, *International Journal of Computer Science and Communication Engineering*, 2(1): 29-32.

Kahn, R. L., & Cannell, C. F. (1957). *The dynamics of interviewing: Theory, technique and cases*. New York: Wiley.

Kaiser, H. (1970). A second generation Little Jiffy. *Psychometrika*, 35: 401-15.

Kane, D. (2006). *The Chinese language: Its history and current usage*. Rutland, VT: Tuttle Publishing.

Kanungo, R. N., & Misra, S. (1992). Managerial resourcefulness: A reconceptualization of management skills. *Human Relations*, 45(12): 1311-1332.

Katz, N. (1988). Individual learning style: Israeli norms and cross-cultural equivalence of Kolb's learning style inventory, *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 19: 361-379.

Kauppinen, M. (1994), *Antecedents of Expatriate Adjustment: A Study of Finnish Managers in the United States*, Helsinki: Helsinki School of Economics Press.

Kawai, N., & Strange, R. (2014). Perceived organizational support and expatriate performance: Understanding a mediated model, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(17): 2438-2462.

- Kayes, D. C. (2002). Experiential learning and its critics: Preserving the role of experience in management learning and education. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 1: 137-149.
- Kegan, R. (1982). *The evolving self*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Kegan, R. (1994). *In Over our Heads: The Mental Demands of Modern Life*. Cambridge, Ma, London, UK: Harvard University Press.
- Kild, J. B., Li, X., & Richter, F. (2001) *Advances in Human Resource Management in Asia*. New York, NY: Palgrave.
- Kiernan, P. H. (1963). What it takes to be a successful international manager, *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 5(4): 1-4.
- Kiessling, T., & Harvey, M. G. (2005). Strategic Global Human Resource Management Research in the Twenty-First Century: An Endorsement of the Mixed-Method Research Methodology, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(1): 22-45.
- Kilduff, M. and Day, D. (1994). Do chameleons get ahead? The effects of self-monitoring on managerial careers, *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(4): 1047–1060.
- Klein, K., & Harris, B. (1979). Disruptive effects of disconfirmed expectancies about crowding. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37(5): 769-777.
- Kobrin, S. J. (1988). Expatriate reduction and strategic control in American multinational corporations, *Human Resource Management*, 27(1): 63–75.
- Kogut, B., & Singh, H. (1987). Entering the United States by joint venture: Industry structure and competitive rivalry. *Cooperative Strategies in International Business*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Press.

- Kohonen, E. (2005). Developing global leaders through international assignments: An identity construction perspective. *Personnel Review*, 34: 22-36.
- Kolb, A. Y., and Kolb, D. A. (2005b). *Bibliography of research on experiential learning theory and the Learning Style Inventory*. Department of Organizational Behaviour, Weather head School of Management, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH
- Kolb, A., & Kolb, D. A. (2002). Bibliography on experiential learning theory. Retrieved July 2002 from <http://www.experience.com>.
- Kolb, A., & Kolb, D. A. (2009). The learning way: Meta-cognitive aspects of experiential learning. *Simulation Gaming*, 40, 297–327.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Kolb, D. A. (1988). Integrity, Advanced Professional Development, and Learning, In (Ed) Srivastava, S. *Executive integrity: The search for high human values in organizational life*, pp: 68-88, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kolb, D. A. (1999a). *Learning Style Inventory, Version 3*. Boston, MA: Hay Group, Hay Resources Direct.
- Kolb, D. A. (Ed.). (1991). *The challenges of advanced professional development*. Chicago, Illinois: The Council for Adult and Experiential Learning (CAEL).
- Kolb, D. A., & Wolfe, D. (1981). Professional education and career development: A cross-sectional study of adaptive competencies in experiential learning.
- Kolb, D. A., Rubin, I. M., & McIntyre, J. M. (1971). Learning style inventory. In D. A. Kolb (Ed), *Organizational psychology: An experiential approach to organizational behavior*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Konopaske, R. and Werner, S. (2005). 'US managers' willingness to accept a global assignment: do expatriate benefits and assignment length make a difference?'

International Journal of Human Resource Management 16(7): 1159–1175.

Kozlowski, S. W. J., Watola, D., Nowakowski, J. M., Kim, B., & Botero, I. (2008).

Developing adaptive teams: A theory of dynamic team leadership. In E. Salas, G. F. Goodwin, & C. S. Burke (Eds.), *Team effectiveness in complex organizations: Cross-disciplinary perspectives and approaches* (pp. 113–155). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kraimer, M. L., Shaffer, M. A., & Bolino, M. C. (2009). The influence of expatriate and repatriate experiences on career advancement and repatriate retention. *Human Resource Management*, 48: 27-47.

Kraimer, M. L., Wayne, S. J., & Jaworski, R. A. (2001). Sources of support and expatriate performance: The mediating role of expatriate adjustment. *Personnel Psychology*, 54 71-99.

Lane, P. R. (2011). "The Irish Crisis," in *The Euro Area and The Financial Crisis* (Miroslav Beblavy, David Cobham and Lúdivit Odor, editors), Cambridge University Press, 59-80.

Lang, T. A., & Secic, M. (2006). *How to report statistics in medicine*. Philadelphia: American College of Physicians.

Laouami, L., & Faridi, M. (2018). The three facets of the adaptation of expatriates to Morocco under the effect of the family profile. *International Journal of Advanced Engineering, Management and Science*, 4(3): 208-214.

Lauring, J., & Selmer, J. (2014). Global mobility orientation and the success of self-initiated expatriates in Greater China. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 20(4): 523-540.

- Lee, L. Y. & Sukoco, B. M. (2010): The effects of cultural intelligence on expatriate performance: the moderating effects of international experience, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21:7, 963-981
- Legendre, P. (2005). Species associations: The Kendall coefficient of concordance revisited, *Journal of Agricultural, Biological, and Environmental Statistics*, 10(2): 226-245.
- Leiba-O'Sullivan, S. (1999). The distinction between stable and dynamic cross-cultural competencies: Implications for expatriate trainability. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30(4): 709-725.
- Lenartowicz, T., Johnson, J. P. & Konopaske, R. (2014). The application of learning theories to improve cross-cultural training programs in MNCs. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25 (12): 1697-1719.
- LeVine, R. A., & Campbell, D. T. (1972). *Ethnocentrism: Theories of conflict, ethnic attitudes, and group behavior*. Oxford, England: John Wiley & Sons.
- Lewin, K. (1951) *Field Theory in Social Science*, New York: Harper and Row.
- Li, M., Mobely, W, H., & Kelly, A. (2013). When Do Global Leaders Learn Best to Develop Cultural Intelligence? An Investigation of the Moderating Role of Experiential Learning Style. *Academy of Management Learning & Education* 12(1): 32-50.
- Li, Y. (2015). *Expatriate Manager's Adaption and Knowledge Acquisition: Personal Development in Multi-National Companies in China*. Singapore, Springer.
- Loevinger, J. (1966). *The meaning and measurement of ego development*. *American*
- Loevinger, J. (1976). *Ego Development: Conceptions and theories*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass, Inc.

- Loevinger, J., Hy, L., Bobbitt, K. (1998). Revision of the Scoring Manual. In J. Loevinger (Ed.), *Technical Foundations for measuring ego development: The Washington University Sentence Completion Test*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Luo, Y., & Mezas, J. (2002). Liability of foreignness: concepts, constructs, and consequences, *Journal of International Management*, 8(3): 217-21.
- Lysgaard, S. (1955). Adjustment in a foreign society: Norwegian Fulbright grantees visiting the United States. *International Social Science Bulletin*, 7: 45-51.
- Mabey, C. and Salaman, G. (1995) *Strategic Human Resource Management*, Oxford: Blackwell Business.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. (2002). A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects. *Psychological Methods*, 7: 83-104.
- Maertz Jr., C.P., Hassan, A., Magnusson, P. (2009). When learning is not enough: A process model of expatriate adjustment as cultural cognitive dissonance reduction. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 108: 66–78.
- Mainemelis, C., Boyatzis, R., & Kolb, D. A. (2002). Adaptive Flexibility: Testing Experiential Learning Theory of Development, *Management Learning*, 33 (1):5-33.
- Malek, A. M., & Budhwar, P. (2013). Cultural intelligence as a predictor of expatriate adjustment and performance in Malaysia. *Journal of World Business*, 48(2): 222-231.
- Malik, A., Cooper Thomas, H. D., & Zikic, J. (2014). The neglected role of cultural intelligence in recent immigrant newcomers' socialization. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management*, 14(2): 195-213.
- Mandell, M.M. (1958). Selecting Americans for overseas assignments, *Journal of American Society for Personnel Administration*, 21(6): 25–30.

- Marquardt, M. J., Berger, N. O., & Loan, P. (2004). *HRD in the age of globalization: A practical guide to workplace learning in the third millennium*. New York: Basic Books.
- Mason, J (1996). *Qualitative Researching*, London, Sage.
- Matthews, R., & Ross, E. (2010) *Research Methods: a practical guide for the social sciences* Harlow: Pearson Education.
- McCall, J., Hollenback, G. (2002) *Developing global executives-The lessons of international experience*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- McCall, M.W., Lombardo, M.M., & Morrison, A.M. (1988). *The lessons of experience: How successful executives develop on the job*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- McCusker, K., & Gunaydin, S. (2014). Research using qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods and choice based on the research, *Perfusion*, 30(7): 537-542.
- McDaniel, M. A., Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. E. (1988b). Job experience correlates of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 327-330.
- McGaughey, S. L., Iverson, R. D. & De Cieri, H. (1997). A multimethod analysis of work-related preferences: A cross-national study. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8:1-17.
- McKnight, D. H., Cummings, L. L., & Chervany, N. L. (1998). Initial trust formation in new organizational relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 23 (3), 473–490.
- Mendenhall, M. E. & Oddou, G. R. (1985). The dimensions of expatriate acculturation: A review. *Academy of Management Review*, 10: 39-47.
- Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. (2000). *Readings and cases in international human resource management (3rd ed)*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western College Publishing.

- Mendenhall, M., Dunbar, E., & Oddou, G. (1987). Expatriate selection, training and career-pathing: A review and critique. *Human Resource Management*, 26(3): 331-345.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Mervosh, E. M., & McClenahan, J. S. (1997). The care and feeding of expats. *Industry Week*, 246(22): 68–72.
- Miller, E. (1973). The international selection decision: A study of some dimensions of managerial behavior in the selection decision process. *Academy of Management Journal*, 16(2): 239-252.
- Miller, E. (1975). The job satisfaction of expatriate American managers: A function of regional location and previous international work experience. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 6(2): 65-73.
- Miller, S. R., and Eden, L. (2006) LOCAL DENSITY AND FOREIGN SUBSIDIARY PERFORMANCE, *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(2): 341-355.
- Miller, S.R., & L. Eden. (2006). Local density and foreign subsidiary performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49: 341-356.
- Mincer, J. (1978). Family migration decisions. *Journal of Political Economy*, 86(5): 749-773.
- Misa, K., & Fabricatore, J. (1979). Return on investment of overseas personnel. *Financial Executive*, 47: 42-46.
- Mol, S. T., Born, M. P., & Van der Molen, H. T. (2003). Developing Criteria for Expatriate Effectiveness: Time to Jump off the Adjustment Bandwagon. Manuscript submitted for publication.

- Mol, S.T., Born, M.P., Willemsen, M.E., & Van Der Molen, H.T. (2005). Predicting expatriate job performance for selection purposes: A quantitative review. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 36(5): 590-620.
- Moon, B.A. (2008). *Learning style influence on relationship sales success*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.
- Moon, H. K., Byoung, K. C., & Jae, S. J. (2012). Previous international experience, cross-cultural training, and expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment: Effects of cultural intelligence and goal orientation, *Human Resources Development Quarterly*, 23(3): 285–330.
- Moon, K. H., Choi B. K., & Jung. J. S. (2012). Previous International Experience, Cross-Cultural Training, and Expatriates' Cross-Cultural Adjustment: Effects of Cultural Intelligence and Goal Orientation. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 23: 285–330.
- Morgan, S.J. & Symon, G. (2004) Electronic interviews in organizational research, in C. Cassell & G.Symon (Eds) *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research*, London, Sage Publications.
- Morley, M., Burke, C., O'Regan, T., & Inwood, S. (1997). The Irish in Moscow--a question of adjustment, *Human Resource Management Journal*, 7(3): 53-66.
- Morosini, P. (1998). *Managing cultural differences: Effective strategy and execution across cultures in global corporate alliances*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press.
- Morrison, T., Conaway, W. A., & Borden, G. A. (1994). *Kiss, bow, or shake hands: how to do business in sixty countries* Holbrook, Mass: B. Adams.
- Murray, J. (1973). International personnel repatriation: Culture shock in reverse. *MSU Business Topics*, 21(3): 59-66.

- Nancy, J. A (2002). *International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior*. 4th ed. Cincinnati: South-Western College Publishing.
- Naumann, E. (1992). A conceptual model of expatriate turnover. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(3), 499-531.
- Negandhi, A. R., & Estafen, B. D. (1965). A Research Model to Determine the Applicability of American Management Know-How in Differing Cultures and/or Environments, *Academy of Management Journal*, 8(4): 309-318.
- Nelson, D. L., Quick, J. C., & Eakin, M. E. (1988). A longitudinal study of newcomer role adjustment in US organizations. *Work & Stress*, 2(3): 239-253.
- Neuliep J. W., Hintz, M. S. & McCroskey, J. C. (2005) The influence of ethnocentrism in organizational contexts: Perceptions of interviewee and managerial attractiveness, credibility, and effectiveness. *Communication Quarterly*, 53: 41-56.
- Neuliep, J. W. & McCroskey, J. C. (1997). The development of intercultural and interethnic communication apprehension scales. *Communication Research Reports*, 14(2): 145-156.
- Neuliep, J. W. (2012). The Relationship among Intercultural Communication Apprehension, Ethnocentrism, Uncertainty Reduction, and Communication Satisfaction during Initial Intercultural Interaction: An Extension of Anxiety and Uncertainty Management (AUM) Theory.
- Neuliep, J. W., Chaudoir, M., & McCroskey, J. C. (2001). A cross-cultural comparison of ethnocentrism among Japanese and United States College students. *Communication Research Reports*, 18: 137-146.
- Ng, K. Y., & Earley, C. P. (2006). Culture and intelligence: Old constructs, new frontiers. *Group & Organization Management*, 31: 4-19.

- Ng, K. Y., Van Dyne, L., & Ang, S. (2009). From experience to experiential learning: Cultural intelligence as a learning capability for global leader development. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 8: 511-526.
- Ng, T. W. H., Eby, L. T., Sorensen, K. L., & Feldman, D. C. (2005). Predictors of objective and subjective career success. A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 367-408.
- Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. (1995). *The knowledge-creating company. How Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Novicevic, M. M., & Harvey, M. (2001). The changing role of the corporate HR function in global organizations of the twenty-first century. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12: 1251-1268.
- Nowak, C., & Linder, C. (2015) Do you know how much your expatriate is? An activity based cost analysis of expatriation, *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2015(1).
- Nunes, I. M., Felix, B., & Prates, L. A. (2017). Cultural intelligence, cross-cultural adaptation and expatriate performance: a study with expatriates living in Brazil, *Human Resources and Organizations*, 52(3): 219-232.
- O'Sullivan, S. L. (2013). The empowering potential of social media for key stakeholders in the repatriation process. *Journal of Global Mobility*, 1, 264-286.
- Oberg, K. (1960). Culture shock: Adjustment to new cultural environment. *Practical Anthropologist*, 7: 177-182.
- Oberholster, B., & Doss, C. (2017). Missionary (religious) expatriates. In Y. McNulty, & J. Selmer (Eds.), *Research handbook of expatriates*. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

- Oddou, G., Osland, J. S., & Blakeney, R. N. (2009). Repatriating knowledge: Variables influencing the "transfer" process. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 40, 181-199.
- Ones, D. S., & Viswesvaran, C. (1997). Personality determinants in the prediction of aspects of expatriate job success. In D. M. Saunders (Series Ed.) & Z. Aycan (Vol. Ed.), *New approaches to employee management: Vol. 4. Expatriate management: Theory and research* (pp. 63–92), Stamford, CT: JAI Press.
- Oolders, T., Chernyshenko, O.S., Stark, S. (2008). Cultural intelligence as a mediator of relationships between openness to experience and adaptive performance. In: Ang, S., Van Dyne, L. (Eds.), *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence*. M.E. Sharpe, New York, pp. 145–158.
- Oppenheim, A. (1992). *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*, London, Pinter.
- Ornstein, R. E. (1977). *The psychology of consciousness (2nd ed.)*. New York: Harcourt Brace, Jovanovich.
- Osherson, S. & Dill, D. (1983). Varying work and family choices: their impact on men's work satisfaction. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 45(2), 339–346.
- Parasuraman, S. & Simmer, C. A. (2001). Type of employment, work-family conflict and well-being: A comparative study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22, 551-568.
- Parker, B. and McEvoy G.M. (1993): Initial Examination of a Model of Intercultural Adjustment. In: *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* 17 (3): 355-379.
- Pearce, J. L., & Porter, L. W. (1986). Employee responses to formal performance appraisal feedback. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(2), 211-218.

- Peltokorpi, V. (2008). Cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates in Japan. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19, 1588–1606.
- Perlmutter, S. (1990). *Cognitive complexity and time perspective in hybrid organizations*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.
- Perry, W. (1970). *Forms of Intellectual and Ethical Development in College Years*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.
- Peterson, R., & Schwind, H. (1977). A comparative study of personnel problems in international companies and joint ventures in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 8(1): 45-56.
- Peterson, R., Sargent, J., Napier, N., & Shim, W. (1996). Corporate expatriate HRM policies, internationalization, and performance in the world's largest MNCs. *Management International Review*, 36(3): 215-230.
- Pless, N. M., Maak, T., & Stahl, G. K. (2011). Developing Responsible Global Leaders Through International Service-Learning Programs: The Ulysses Experience. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 10: 237–260.
- Pocovnicu, A., & Vasilache, S. (2012). An Interview-Based Assessment of the Influence of Ethnocentrism in Business, *Review of International Comparative Management*, 13(3): 478-492.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *J. Appl. Psychol*, 88: 879–903.
- Porter, A. (1997). Cultural imperialism' and protestant missionary enterprise, 1780–1914. *The Journal of Imperial and Commonwealth History*, 25: 367–391.

- Porter, G. & Tansky, J. W. (1999). Expatriate success may depend on a learning orientation: Considerations for selection and training. *Human Resource Management*, 38(1), 47-60.
- Pratt, D. D. (1991). Conceptions of self within China and the United States, *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 15: 285-310.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments and Computers*, 36: 717-731.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008a). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40: 879-891.
- Presbitero, A. (2016). Culture shock and reverse culture shock: the moderating role of cultural intelligence in international students' adaptation, *International journal of intercultural relations*, 53: 28-38.
- Presbitero, A. (2017). Religious expatriates' cultural intelligence and adaptation: The role of intrinsic motivation for successful expatriation, *Journal of Global Mobility: The Home of Expatriate Management Research*, 5(2): 146-157.
- Pulakos, E. D., Schmitt, N., Dorsey, D. W., Arad, S., Hedge, J. W., & Borman, W. C. (2002). Predicting adaptive performance: Further tests of a model of adaptability. *Human Performance*, 15, 299–323.
- Pulakos, E., Arad, S., Donovan, M., & Plamondon, K. E. (2000). Adaptability in the workplace: Development of a taxonomy of adaptive performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 612–624.

- Pulakos, E., Dorsey, D. W., & White, S. S. (2006), *Adaptability in the Workplace: Selecting an Adaptive Workforce*, in C. Shawn Burke, Linda G. Pierce, Eduardo Salas (ed.) *Understanding Adaptability: A Prerequisite for Effective Performance within Complex Environments (Advances in Human Performance and Cognitive Engineering Research, Volume 6)* Emerald Group Publishing Limited, pp.41-71.
- Ramalu, S. S., Rose, R. C., Naresh, K., & Jegak, U. (2010). Doing business in global arena: An examination of the relationship between cultural intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment, *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 15(1): 79-97.
- Ratiu, I. (1983). Thinking internationally: A comparison of how international executives learn. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 13(1-2), 139-150.
- Reich, R. B. (1993) *The Work of Nations: Preparing Ourselves for 21st Century Capitalism*, London: Simon and Schuster.
- Reiche, B.S., Lazarova, M.B., & Shaffer, M.A. (2014). Me, myself and I: From individual-centered to multiple stakeholder perspectives in expatriate research. *Panel presented at the 56th Annual Meeting of the Academy of International Business*, Vancouver, Canada, June 23-26.
- Reynolds, C. (1972). Career paths and compensation in MNCs. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 7(6): 77-87.
- Richard E. Boyatzis, David A. Kolb, (1995). From learning styles to learning skills: the executive skills profile, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 10 Issue: 5, pp.3-17,
- Rindfleisch, A., Malter, A., Ganesan, S., & Moorman, C. (2008). Cross-Sectional Versus Longitudinal Survey Research, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 45(3): 261-279.
- Riusala, K., & Suutari, V. (2004). International knowledge transfer through expatriates', *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 46(6): 743-770.

- Robson, C. (2002). *Real World Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner Researchers*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Rockstuhl, T., Seiler, S., Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Annen, H. (2011). Beyond general intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EQ): The role of cultural intelligence (CQ) on cross-border leadership effectiveness in a globalized world. *Journal of Social Issues*, 67: 825-840.
- Rogers, C. R. (1961). *On Becoming a Person*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Ronen, S. S., & Shenkar, O. (1985). Clustering Countries on Attitudinal Dimensions: A Review and Synthesis, *The Academy of Management Review*, 10(3): 435-454.
- Sahin, F., & Gurbuz, Sait. (2014). Cultural intelligence as a predictor of individuals' adaptive performance: A study in a multicultural environment. *International Area Studies Review*, Vol 17, Issue 4.
- Sahin, F., Gurbuz, S., & Koksall, O. (2014). Cultural intelligence (CQ) in action: The effects of personality and international assignment on the development of CQ, *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol (39): 152-163.
- Sambharya, R. B. (1996). Foreign experience of top management teams and international diversification strategies of U.S. multinational corporations. *Strategic Management Journal*, 17: 739 –746.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students, 5th ed.*, Harlow, Pearson Education.
- Schollhammer, H. (1969). National Economic Planning and Business Decision-Making: The French Experience, *California Management Review*, 12(2): 74-88.

- Searle, W., & Ward, C. (1990). The prediction of psychological and sociocultural adjustment during cross-cultural transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14: 449-464.
- Seibert, S.E., Crant, J.M. and Kraimer, M.L. (1999). Proactive personality and career success, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(3): 416–427.
- Seidman, I. (2013) *Interviewing as Qualitative Research: A Guide for Researchers in Education and the Social Sciences*. Teachers College Press, New York.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach (5th ed.)*. West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Selmer, J. (1998) *International Management in China: Cross-Cultural Issues*. London: Routledge.
- Selmer, J. (1999). Career issues and international adjustment of business expatriates, *Career Development International*, 4(2): 77-87.
- Selmer, J. (2001). Adjustment of Western European vs North American expatriate managers in China, *Personnel Review*, 30(1): 6-21,
- Selmer, J. (2002). Practice Makes Perfect? International Experience and Expatriate Adjustment, *Management International Review*, 42(1): 71-87.
- Selmer, J. (2004) ‘Psychological barriers to adjustment of Western business expatriates in China: newcomers vs. long stayers’, *International Journal of Human Resource Management* 15(4/5): 794–813.
- Selmer, J., & Shiu, L. S. C. (1999). Coming home? Adjustment of Hong Kong Chinese expatriate business managers assigned to the People’s Republic of China. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 23(3): 447–463.

- Selmer, J., Luring, J., Norman, J., & Kubovikova, A. (2015). Context matters: Acculturation and work-related outcomes of self-initiated expatriates employed by foreign vs. local organizations. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 49: 251-264.
- Sergeant, A. and Frenkel, S. (1998). Managing People in China: Perceptions of Expatriate Managers. *Journal of World Business*, 33(1): 17–34.
- Shaffer, M. A., & Harrison, D. A. (1998). Expatriates' psychological withdrawal from international assignments: Work, nonwork, and family influences. *Personnel Psychology*, 51: 87–118.
- Shaffer, M. A., & Harrison, D. A. (2001). Forgotten partners of international assignments: Development and test of a model of spouse adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 238–254.
- Shaffer, M., Harrison, D., & Gilley, K. M. (1999) Dimensions, Determinants, and Differences in the Expatriate Adjustment Process, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30(3): 557-581.
- Shaffer, M.A., Harrison, D.A., Gregersen, H., Black, J.S., and Ferzandi, L.A., (2006). You Can Take It with You: Individual Differences and Expatriate Effectiveness, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91: 109-125.
- Sharma, G., & Kolb, D. A. (2010). The adaptive flexibility index: Assessing contextual flexibility in learning style. In S. Rayner & E. Cools, (Eds.), *Style differences in cognition, learning and management: Theory, research, and practice*. New York, NY: Routledge Publishers.

- Shay, J.P. & Baack, S.A. (2004) 'Expatriate assignment, adjustment and effectiveness: an empirical examination of the big picture', *Journal of International Business Studies* 35(3): 216–232.
- Shenkar, O. (2001). Cultural Distance Revisited: Towards a More Rigorous Conceptualization and Measurement of Cultural Differences, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(3): 519-535.
- Shi, X. S., & Franklin, P. (2013). Business expatriates' cross - cultural adaptation and their job performance, *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 52(2): 193-214.
- Shirley C. Sonesh, Angelo S. DeNisi, (2016) "The categorization of expatriates and the support offered by host country nationals", *Journal of Global Mobility*, Vol. 4 Issue: 1, pp.18-43
- Shoss, M. K., Witt, L. A., & Vera, D. (2012). When does adaptive performance lead to higher task performance? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33: 910-924.
- Sigler, E. A., & Tallent-Runnels, M. K. (2006). Examining the Validity of Scores From an Instrument Designed to Measure Metacognition of Problem Solving. *Journal of General Psychology*, 133(3): 257-276.
- Sims, R.H., & Schraeder, M. (2004). An Examination Of Salient Factors Affecting Expatriate Culture Shock. *Journal of Business and Management*. 10(1): 73 – 87.
- Sinangil, H. K., & Ones, D. S. (2003). Gender Differences in Expatriate Job Performance, *Applied Psychology*, 52(3): 461-475.
- SMITH, J. K. (1983). Quantitative versus qualitative research: an attempt to clarify the issue, *Educ. Researcher*, 12(3): 6-13.

- Sonesh, S. C., & DeNisi, A. S. (2016). The categorization of expatriates and the support offered by host country nationals. *Journal of Global Mobility*, 4(1): 18-43.
- Sparrow, P.R., & Hiltrop, J.M. (1994). *European Human Resource Management in Transition*, London: Prentice Hall.
- Spreitzer, G. M., McCall, M. W. Jr., & Mahoney, J. D. (1997). Early identification of international executive potential. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(1), 6-29.
- Stahl, G. K., Miller, E. L., & Tung, R. L. (2002). Toward the boundaryless career: A closer look at the expatriate career concept and the perceived implications of an international assignment. *Journal of World Business*, 37: 216-227.
- Steinmetz, L. (1965). Selecting managers for international operations: The wife's role. *Human Resource Management*, 4: 26–29.
- Steinmetz, L. (1966). Cutting foreign managers from the domestic herd. *Human Resource Management*, 5: 11–16.
- Stening, G.W. (1979). Problems of cross-cultural contact: A literature review. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 3: 269-313.
- Stern, A. H. (1966). Selection of overseas personnel. *Personnel*, 45: 224–228.
- Sternberg, R. J. (1985). Implicit theories of intelligence, creativity, and wisdom. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49(3): 607-627.
- Sternberg, R. J., & Detterman, D. K. (Eds.). (1986). *What is Intelligence?* Norwood, USA: Ablex.
- Sternberg, R. J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (2006). Cultural Intelligence and Successful Intelligence, strategy in multinational organisations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22(2): 248-263.

- Stroh, L., Black, J., Mendenhall, M., and Gregersen, H. (2005). *International assignments: An integration of strategy, research, and practice*. New York: CRC Press.
- Sumner, W. G. (1906). *Folkways: A study of the sociological importance of usages, manners, customs, mores, and morals*. Boston, MA: Ginn and Company.
- Tahvanainen, M. (2000). Expatriate performance management: the case of Nokia Telecommunications, *Human Resource Management*, 37(4): 267-275.
- Takeuchi, R. (2010). A critical review of expatriate adjustment research: Progress, emerging trends, and prospects. *Journal of Management*, 36, 1040-1064.
- Takeuchi, R., Tesluk, P. E., & Marinova, S. V. (2006). Role of international experiences in the development of cultural intelligence. *Cultural intelligence: An introduction*, 56–91.
- Takeuchi, R., Wang, M., & Marinova, S. V. (2005). Antecedents and consequences of psychological workplace strain during expatriation: A cross-sectional and longitudinal investigation. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 925-948.
- Takeuchi, R., Yun, S., & Tesluk, P. E. (2002). An examination of crossover and spillover effects of spousal and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment on expatriate outcomes. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(4),
- Tanure, B.; Barcellos, E.P.; Fleury, M.T.L.; (2009). Psychic distance and the challenges of expatriation from Brazil, *The international journal of human resource management*, Vol. 20: 1039-1055.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed methodology: combining qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Taylor, A. (1968). The selection of NZ volunteers for service abroad: An appraisal of the first five years, *Personnel Psychology*, 21(3): 345-357.

- Taylor, D. M., & Jaggi, V. (1974). Ethnocentrism and causal attribution in a south Indian context. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 5(2): 162-171.
- Teague, F. A. (1970). International management selection and development. *California Management Review*, Spring: 1-6.
- Tesluk, P. E. & Jacobs, R.R. (1998). Toward an integrated model of work experience. *Personnel Psychology*, 51, pp. 321-355.
- Thomas, C., Ranchin, T., Wald, L. & Chanussot, J. (2008). Synthesis of Multispectral Images to High Spatial Resolution: A Critical Review of Fusion Methods Based on Remote Sensing Physics, *IEEE Transaction on Geoscience and Remote Sensing*, 46(5): 1301–1312.
- Thomas, D. C., Lazarova, M. B., & Inkson, K. (2005). Global careers: New phenomenon or new perspectives? *Journal of World Business*, 40: 340-347.
- Thomas, D. C., Liao, Y., Aycan, Z., Cerdin, J., Stahl, G. K., Lazarova, M., Fock, H. K. Y., Arli, D., Moeller, M., Okimoto, T., & Van der Vijver, F. (2014). Cultural Intelligence: A Theory-based, Short Form Measure, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 1-20.
- Thomas, D. R. (2006). A General Inductive Approach for Analyzing Qualitative Evaluation Data, *American Journal of Evaluation*, 27(2): 237-246.
- Thompson, D. (1959). Contracts for Americans working abroad, *International Executive*, 1(1): 19–20.
- Thompson, G. (1999). Introduction: situating globalization, *International Social Science Journal*, 51(160): 139-152.
- Thomson, W. (1999). The Young Person's Guide to Writing Economic Theory. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 37(1): 157-183.

- Tihanyi, L., Griffith, D. A., & Russell, C. J. (2005). The Effect of Cultural Distance on Entry Mode Choice, International Diversification, and MNE performance: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 36(3): 270-283.
- Torbiorn, I. (1982) *Living Abroad: Personal Adjustment and Personal Policy in Oversea Setting*, New York: Wiley.
- Triandis, H. (1963). Factors affecting employee selection in two cultures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 47: 89–96.
- Triandis, H. C. (2006) Cultural intelligence in organizations. *Group and Organization Management*, 31(1): 20-26.
- Tung, R.L. (1981). Selection and Training of Personnel for Overseas Assignments, *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 16: 21-25.
- Tung, R.L. (1984). Strategic Management of Human Resource in the Multinational Enterprise, *HR Management*, 23: 129-143.
- Tung, R.L. (1998a). A Contingency framework of selection and training of expatriates revisited. *Human Resource Management Review*, 8(1), 23-37.
- Ulrich, D., & Allen, J. (2014). Talent Accelerator: Understanding How Talent Delivers Performance for Asian Firms, *South Asian Journal of Human Resources Management*, 1(1): 1-23.
- Vaiman, V., Collings, D. G., & Scullion, H. (2017) Contextualising talent management Journal of Organizational Effectiveness. *People Perform*, 4(4): 294-297.
- Vaiman, V., Sparrow, P., Schuler, R. S. & Collings, D. G. (2018). Macro talent management: A global perspective on managing talent in developed markets. London: Routledge.

- Van der Heijden, B. I. J. M., Boon, J., Van der Klink, M. and Meijs, E. (2009b). Employability enhancement through formal and informal learning: an empirical study among Dutch non-academic university staff members, *International Journal of Training and Development*, 13(1): 19–37.
- Varma, A., Toh, S.M., & Budhwar, P.S. (2006). A new perspective on the female expatriate experience: The role of host country national categorization. *Journal of World Business*, 41: 112–120.
- Vermeulen, F., & Barkema, H.G. (2001). Learning through acquisitions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(3): 457-476.
- Walker, W., Norris, R. A., Lotz, D. W., & Handy, R. T. (1985). A history of the christian church (4th ed.). New York, NY: Scribner.
- Wallace, W. (1959). How to maintain productive working relationships with overseas managers, *International Executive*, 1(2): 17–18.
- Walton, K. L. (1990). Mimesis as Make-Believe: On the Foundations of the Representational Arts, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wang, D., Feng, T., Freeman, S., Fan, D., & Zhu, C. J. (2014). Unpacking the “skill – cross-cultural competence” mechanisms: Empirical evidence from Chinese expatriate managers. *International Business Review*, 23(3): 530-541.
- Wanous, J. P., Poland, T. D., Premack SL, Davis KS. (1992). The effects of met expectations on new comer attitudes and behaviors: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 288–297.
- Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1994). Acculturation strategies, psychological adjustment, and sociocultural competence during cross-cultural transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 18: 329-343.

- Ward, C., Bochner, S., & Furnham, A. (2001). *The psychology of culture shock*. East-Sussex, UK: Routledge.
- Ward, C., Fischer, R., Lam, F. S. Z., & Hall, L. (2009). The convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of scores on a self-report measure of cultural intelligence. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 69, 85-105.
- Waxin, M. F. (2004). Expatriates' interaction adjustment: the direct and moderate effects of culture of origin. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 28: 61-79.
- Weiss, A. M., & Heide, J. B. (1993). The nature of organizational search in high technology markets. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 30(2): 220-233.
- Welch, D., & Björkman, I. (2015). The place of international human resource management in international business. *Management International Review*, DOI 10.1007/s11575-014-0226-3.
- Whitley, E., & Ball, J. (2001). Statistics review 1: Presenting and summarising data, *Critical Care*, 6(1): 66-71.
- Worm, V. (1997) *Vikings and Mandarins: Sino-Scandinavian Business Cooperation in Cross-cultural Settings*. Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School Press.
- Yamazaki, Y. (2010). Expatriate Adaptation: A Fit between Skills and Demands among Japanese Expatriates in USA. *MIR: Management International Review*, 50(1), 81-108.
- Yamazaki, Y., & Kayes, D. C. (2004). An Experiential Approach to Cross-Cultural Learning: A Review and Integration of Competencies for Successful Expatriate Adaptation. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 3(4): 362-379.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Doing case study research. 4th ed.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yoshino, M. (1976). *Japan's multinational enterprises.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University
- Young, A. (2012). The African Growth Miracle, *Journal of political Economy*, 120(4): 696-739.
- Yuen, C., & Lee, S. N. (1994). Applicability of the Learning Style Inventory in an Asian context and its predictive value. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 54(2): 541-549.
- Yvonne, D. P. (2011). Cultural Intelligence as Managerial Competence. *Alternation*, 18(1): 28-46.
- Zaheer, S. (1995) Overcoming the liability of foreignness. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38: 341–363.
- Zhang, L. Q., Liu, J., Loi, R., Lau, V. P., & Ngo, H. (2010). Social capital and career outcomes: a study of Chinese employees. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(8): 1323-1336.
- Zhang, L.E., Harzing, A.W. (2016) From Dilemmatic Struggle to Legitimized Indifference: Expatriates' host country language learning and its impact on the expatriate-HCE relationship, *Journal of World Business*, 51(5): 774-786.
- Zhu, J., Wanberg, C. R., Harrison, D. A., & Diehn, E. W. (2016). Ups and downs of the expatriate experience? Understanding work adjustment trajectories and career outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101: 549-568.
- Zikmund, W. G. (2003) *Business Research Methods, 7th edition*, Thomson /South-Western.

Appendix

Appendix A Research ethics committee consent form

Business School

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

CONSENT FORM: SURVEYS, QUESTIONNAIRES

I, _____ of _____

Hereby agree to participate in this study to be undertaken

by Jinglin Jiang (PhD student in Hull University Business School)

and I understand that the purpose of the research is A study of Expatriates International Work Experience, Cultural Distance, Adaptation and Job Performance in Multinational Companies in China.

I understand that

1. Upon receipt, my questionnaire will be coded and my name and address kept separately from it.
2. Any information that I provide will not be made public in any form that could reveal my identity to an outside party i.e. that I will remain fully anonymous.
3. Aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be reported in scientific and academic journals (including online publications).
4. Individual results **will not** be released to any person except at my request and on my authorisation.
5. That I am free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

Signature:
Date:



The contact details of the researcher are: Jinglin Jiang Email: J.Jiang@2013.hull.ac.uk

The contact details of the Module leader are: Dr Ming Li (Lily) Esk 223 Email: Ming.Li@hull.ac.uk

In some cases, consent will need to be witnessed for example where the subject is blind/intellectually disabled. A witness must be independent of the project and may only sign a certification to the level of his/her involvement. A suggested format for witness certification is included with the sample consent forms. The form should also record the witnesses' signature, printed name and occupation. For particularly sensitive or exceptional research, further information can be obtained from the HUBS Research Ethics Committee Secretary, for example, absence of parental consent, use of pseudonyms, etc)

NOTE:

In the event of a minor's consent, or person under legal liability, please complete the Research Ethics Committee's "Form of Consent on Behalf of a Minor or Dependent Person".

Business School

Appendix B Questionnaire for Quantitative research

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a PhD student from the University of Hull in the UK conducting a research about the relationship among expatriates international work experience, cultural distance, adaptation and job performance in multinational companies in China. I would be grateful if you would help me with this research by completing the paper survey. The survey will take about 30 minutes to complete, please be assured your answers of paper survey will be kept strictly confidential, only I have access to the data. Please sign consent form Appendix D to participate in the survey.

I am acutely aware of how valuable your time is but your participation in this research would be highly appreciated.

Thank you in anticipation.

Yours faithfully,

Jinglin Jiang, PhD Candidate (J.Jiang@2013.hull.ac.uk)

Part One: Basic questions

Name: _____ Nationality _____

Gender: (1)--Male (2)—Female Age: _____

Educational Level: (1)--Bachelor (2)--Master (3)—PhD (4)--Others

How many countries did you work in? _____

How many months did you work overseas? _____

How many previous overseas assignments have you experienced and what is the overall total duration? _____

Have you worked with foreigners? _____

What are the function and level of your latest job? _____

Part Two: Adjustment (Harrison and Shaffer, 2005)

This scale consists of fourteen items. You need to rate your own degree of adjustment to each item.

Rating anchors ranged

1=not very adjusted; 2=not adjusted; 3=slightly not adjusted; 4=neutral; 5=slightly adjusted; 6=adjusted; 7=well adjusted

1. living conditions in general								
2. housing conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. cost of living	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. entertainment/ recreation facilities and opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. health care facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. socializing with host nationals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9. interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10. interacting with host nationals outside of work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11. speaking with host nationals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12. specific job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13. performance standards and expectations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14. supervisory responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Part Three: Learning Flexibility Index Items (Kolb, 2010)

*The following eight items assess how you learn in different situations at work. For each of these situations, try to think of actual examples you encounter at work before you rank the four choices. For example, if the general situation described in the item is "When I try to complete a task on time" your actual examples might be "completing a policy draft", "preparing my reports on time" and so on. With your examples in mind, **rank** the four sentence endings, giving a **4** to the item that best describes how you deal with the situation and a **1** to the item that least describes your response.*

Remember: 4=*most* like you 3=*second most* like you 2=*third most* like you 1=*least* like you

	A	B	C	D
1. When I start something new...	I rely on my feelings to guide me	I try to be practical and realistic	I analyse the situation	I imagine different possibilities
2. When I decide between two alternatives...	I collect information about them	I rely on what feels right to me	I establish criteria to evaluate them	I try them out
3. When I plan something...	I am open to making changes	I am organized and logical	I consider all possibilities	I am goal and action oriented
4. When I learn in a group setting...	I get to know everyone	I look for experts	I jump in and contribute	I sit back and listen
5. When I try to influence someone...	I take initiative to talk with them	I try to understand their point of view	I explain my ideas logically	I share my feelings with them
6. When I evaluate an opportunity...	I act without delay	I trust my sense of what is best	I consider different opinions about it	I weigh the costs against the benefits
7. When I analyse something...	I think about how the basic principles relate to each other	Intuition is often my best guide	I search for its practical applications	I look at it from different perspectives
8. When I want to know someone better...	I pay attention to their feelings	I analyse why they act the way they do	I do things with them	I listen to them

Part Four: Cultural intelligent (Thomas et al., 2015)

Below are 10 statements about one's experience when interacting with people from other cultures. Please indicate to what extent each of the following statements describes you.

1=not at all 2=slightly 3=somewhat 4=neutral 5=fairly 6= very 7 extremely well

I know the ways in which cultures around the world are different	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can give examples of cultural differences from my personal experience, reading and so on	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy talking with people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have the ability to accurately understand the feelings of people from other cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I sometimes try to understand people from another culture by imagining how something looks from their perspective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can change my behavior to suit different cultural situations and people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I accept delays without becoming upset when in different cultural situations and with culturally different people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am aware of the cultural knowledge I use when interaction with someone from another culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think a lot about the influence that culture has on my behavior and that of others who are culturally different	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am aware that I need to plan my course of action when in different cultural situations and with culturally different people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part Five: Ethnocentrism (Paula, 2016)

1=strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= little disagree 4=undecided 5=little agree 6=agree 7= strongly agree

I dislike interacting with people from different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Generally, I am comfortable interacting with a group of people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am tense and nervous while interacting with people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to get involved in-group discussions with others who are from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Engaging in a group discussion with people from different cultures makes me tense and nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am calm and relaxed with interacting with a group of people who are from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
While participating in a conversation with a person from a different culture, I feel very nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have no fear of speaking up in a conversation with a person from a different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations with a person from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations with a person from a different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
While conversing with a person from a different culture I feel very relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I'm afraid to speak up in conversations with a person from a different culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I face the prospect of interacting with people from different cultures with confidence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My thoughts become confused and jumbled when interacting with people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Communicating with people from different cultures makes me feel uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part Six: Cultural distance (Drogendijk and Slangen, 2005)

How did your management team perceive the cultural differences between your country and China

1=very small; 2=small; 3=little small; 4=average; 5=little large; 6=large; 7=very large

Differences in norms and values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Habits and customs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Behaviors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Business practices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Organizational practices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ways of communication	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Relationships with people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part Seven: Adaptive Performance (Charbonnier-Voirin and Roussel, 2012)

1=well below expected 2= little below expected 3= below expected 4=average 5 above expected standard 6=few above expected standard 7=well above expected standard

1. I am on the lookout for the latest innovations in my jobs to improve the way I work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I undergo training on a regular basis at or outside of work to keep my competencies up to date	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I wait for the innovations having to do with my job to become widespread in the company before I put major effort into relevant training or learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I prepare for change by participating in every project or assignment that enables me to do so	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I look for every opportunity that enables me to improve my performance (training, group project, exchanges with colleagues, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I adapt my work practices to the requirements and suggestions of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I do not consider negative comments about my work very important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I adjust my work practices if someone points out a better solution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Developing good relationships with all my counterparts is an important factor of my effectiveness.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I try to understand the viewpoints of my counterparts to improve my interaction with them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I strive to adapt, however difficult, to the working conditions I am in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I can only work efficiently in a comfortable environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I sometimes research my physical limits to accomplish an urgent task.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part Eight: Job Performance

How do you evaluate your work performance for the assignment?

1=very poor; 2=poor; 3=below average; 4=average, 5=somewhat above average; 6=above average; 7=well above average

Overall performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ability to get along with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Completing tasks on time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Quality of performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Achievement of work goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix C Questions for Qualitative research

Interview questions:

Name

Nationality

Job

1. What is your major issues/ challenges in adapting to working and living in China?
2. What were major challenge/ issues for your family adapt to China?
3. Did you get support from your family before you go to China?
4. How did you prepare for assignment in China?
5. Were your family included in pre-departure training?
6. What were the major cultural difference?
7. Learning issues?
8. Challenges of team working in China?
9. How did Chinese people see you?
10. How would you identify major challenge in the first six months?
11. What was the most important thing you learned in first six months?
12. How would you describe your relationship with your co-workers?
13. How many did you supervise? What was the challenge for supervisor local members?
14. Did you feel you changed as a result of working abroad? If so, how?
15. Would you go abroad to work again? Why?
16. What advice would you have for HR departments about handling expatriates?
17. What does expatriate success or failure mean to you?
18. How do you evaluate your job performance in China?