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Social Capital Theory and Self-Initiated Expatriates'
Intention to Repatriate:
German Expatriate Academics in the United Kingdom

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Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract

As the number of global expatriates continues to rise, the need to understand factors that influence their decisions to remain in their host countries or to return home increases. Self-Initiated Expatriates (SIEs) are defined as individuals who relocate across a national border, for an extended period of time, of their own volition, for work purposes. SIEs are the most prevalent expatriates globally (Finaccord, 2014) but are also some of the least understood. Expatriate academics (EAs) form a subgroup of this wider SIE group, and whilst being fairly representative, face their own unique challenges. Interpersonal links and social networks are influential in EA decisions to stay in or leave their host country, yet little is known about the exact function of networks, and how access to resources through networks influences SIE or EA decisions to remain in their host country or return to their home country.

Drawing on social capital theory, this thesis develops a theoretical model that links various characteristics of EAs' ego-networks to EAs' intention to repatriate. Specifically, the model suggests that homophily, density, and hierarchy affect EAs' intention to repatriate and that EAs' national identity and career embeddedness moderate these effects.

The developed hypotheses are tested using data collected from surveys among German academic expatriates in the UK Higher Education sector. In total, 213 responses were analysed using multiple regression analyses. The empirical results underline the importance of similarity of nationality between an EA and their network partners as an influencing factor on their intention to repatriate. The similarity in location of the EA and their network connections did not have any significant impact. The network density, and the EAs hierarchical position within their network also had a direct influence on intention to repatriate.

The thesis contributes to current research on EAs and SIEs by providing a theory-based explanation of the effect of ego-network characteristics on EAs' intention to repatriate. It also contributes to the development of social capital theory by applying social capital logic in a novel context, clarifying the mechanisms underlying this logic and identifying boundary conditions of this logic in the context of SIE academics. The findings of this research are also relevant for HR practitioners in the UK Higher Education sector, by highlighting factors that may help or hinder the retention of key foreign academics.

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1 Introduction

Self-initiated expatriates are expatriates who move to another country of their own accord, predominantly for work purposes, and are not sent by an employer (Tharenou and Caulfield 2010). Self-Initiated expatriation consists of two main components: 1) relocation across a national border, and 2) that the initiative for the relocation comes from the individual moving (Doherty, Richardson and Thorn, 2013). The consultancy firm Finaccord has predicted that there will be 56 million expatriates worldwide by the end of 2017 (Finaccord, 2014). With 73% of the current expatriate population classifiable as self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) (currently above 36 million globally) it has never been more important to understand in detail this section of the workforce.

Self-Initiated expatriation is used by individuals for many purposes, including personal development, finding one-self, and the development of career capital (Richardson and McKenna, 2002; Selmer and Lauring, 2011). SIEs are subject to pressures that are not faced to the same extent by host country nationals or organizationally assigned expatriates (AEs), who have access to formal support networks through their employing organizations that aid in their professional development (Liu and Shaffer, 2005). SIEs have to create and maintain their own social networks which are an important source of support, information and resources (Coleman, 1988; Burt, 2000). Given the comparatively greater role that such networks can play for SIEs as compared to assigned expatriates, it is important to understand the function of these networks in the SIE context, and the role they play in the decisions of SIEs to continue to live outside of, or to return to, their home country.

A subgroup of SIEs for whom networks are particularly important are expatriate academics (EAs). Whilst often referred to by the over-arching SIE term, Trembath (2016) argues that EAs should be studied as their own unique construct, as they face many distinct challenges not faced by the wider SIE group as a whole. For academics, networks are an important source of information and collaboration (on research and publications for example), as their careers depend upon these activities.

From an institutional perspective research that focuses on the role of these networks in the decision of EAs to remain researching and publishing in their host-country, or to pull/push them back to their home country, is warranted, because such research can aid universities in their efforts to retain top academic staff important for keeping them competitive. From an individual perspective this research is also warranted because it can aid EAs in their ability to understand how networks influence their career progression decisions, but also more broadly because it can

help SIEs as a whole start to understand in greater detail how their own networks might influence their decisions to remain abroad, or to return to their respective home countries.

For the individual, staying overseas can be useful for SIEs who are looking to build their career and develop their competencies (Vance, 2005). Self-Initiated expatriation can be useful for employing organizations as SIEs represent a great and abundant source of human capital, with a specific set of skills and knowledge, and a different outlook to local nationals (Howe-Walsh and Schyn, 2010). In the UK higher education sector a shortage of locally trained academics of high enough standards, along with the need to keep the sector competitive, means that knowledge that can aid in the retention of foreign academics is of importance (Brown et al, 2008). Such knowledge is important from a practical perspective outside of academia given organizations' interest in retaining highly skilled workers. Understanding the role of networks is important for governments who look to understand ways in which it may be possible to reverse the brain drain.

Although research has started to investigate EAs and SIEs (Altman and Baruch, 2012; Ellis, 2012; Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009; Suutari and Brewster, 2001; Selmer and Luring, 2011), when compared to the vast literature on assigned expatriates, research on SIEs is scarce (particularly if focusing solely on EAs). Research has started to investigate the motivations behind individuals' decisions to self-initiate their own expatriation (e.g., Richardson and McKenna, 2002; Selmer & Luring, 2011) and the SIE's work situation abroad (Richardson and McKenna 2002) but an understanding of what drives EAs and SIEs' intention to return to their home-country remains limited (for a notable exception on SIEs see Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010). From a theoretical perspective understanding the drivers for EAs' and SIEs' return to their home country are important, given that the factors that explain EA's and SIEs' return to their home countries are likely to be different from factors that explain assigned expatriate's repatriation. This is a gap within the literature that researchers have only recently begun to investigate, and primarily only in the context of SIEs in general, with little to no consideration being given to EAs as a sub-group of SIEs.

Prior research addressing SIE repatriation highlights a small number of factors that drive SIEs to return to their home country (Altman and Baruch, 2012; Richardson and McKenna, 2006; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Cao, Hirschi and Deller, 2014). A recurring factor among these studies has been the degree to which SIEs are embedded in/have built personal networks in their host country (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010, Cao, Hirschi and Deller, 2014). Tharenou and Caulfield (2010), for example, highlight the importance of SIEs' local 'links' through embeddedness at work and in the community.

The current research looks to extend these studies by providing deeper insight into the role of social capital obtained through EAs' ego-networks, i.e. an expatriate's direct personal and professional network with other individuals. This research also extends prior studies by drawing conclusions that will apply primarily to EAs, but that can also be extrapolated to SIEs in general. Social networks have previously been utilized to explain phenomena such as knowledge transfer (Inkpen and Tsang, 2005), the ability of individuals to gain employment (Granovetter, 1974), and the cultural adjustment of expatriates (Mao and Shen, 2015). Theoretical discussions by Mäkelä and Suutari (2009) and Lazarova and Taylor (2009) have stressed the role of social capital for the success of the self-initiated expatriate/global employee, through the development and implementation of their social networks. As of yet, however, very little attention has been paid to EA and SIE access to social capital through their ego-networks, or to the impact of this social capital on the likelihood of an SIE remaining in their host country or returning to their home country. EAs and SIEs' networks are an important, but so far under-researched, potential driver behind their intention to repatriate.

A focus on SIEs' ego-networks is justified given that SIEs do not exist in isolation from external actors, and (in contrast to organizational expatriates who have access to formal support systems in their organization) rely to a greater extent on support from networks that include contacts at current and former organizations, and other personal and professional contacts. In host countries SIEs build fewer personal contacts than assigned expatriates (Jokinen, Brewster and Suutari, 2008) but are also not exposed to institutional mechanisms that allow them to build these contacts, and are not transferred within an organization like AEs (allowing them to keep their networks). The lack of having a pre-established network in an organization makes social networking even more important for the SIE.

A specific focus on EAs networks (rather than SIEs in general) is chosen because unlike many professions, academia is reliant upon individuals conducting and publishing research, often with other individuals with whom they share a network, making the existence of networks particularly important to their own professional and personal development (personal and professional development are listed as two key motivators for SIEs (Richardson and McKenna, 2002)).

Researching the impact of an individual EA's social network characteristics on their retention or repatriation will provide EAs (and thus SIEs in general) with an insight into how to best utilise the social capital they gain from their overseas experience, will provide organizations the insight to how best to facilitate the building of social network structures that may help the retention of highly skilled workers, and can provide governments insight into how social network facilitation may help to reverse the brain drain, or alternatively how governments can facilitate the

retention of foreign talent that heads to their countries, particularly within the higher education sector.

While research has stressed the importance of networks, there has been little research into disentangling the different facets of networks and their potentially different effects on individuals. Since ego-networks vary in the level to which they can provide EAs/SIEs with social support, information, and social capital (Burt, 1992), a finer grained investigation of this variation in EAs' ego-networks and the association with intentions to repatriate is warranted. Doherty et al (2013) have thus called for paying more attention to the role of relationships when investigating SIEs, proposing that '*who an expatriate knows*' will have an impact upon their ability to engage in their host environment

The present research will investigate a number of facets of an EA's network structure: geographical pattern, national homophily, network density, and an EAs hierarchical position within their network.

Drawing on and extending social capital theory, a theory that rests on the existence of networks, I suggest that in particular the *geographical pattern* of EAs' networks affects EAs' intention to return to their home country. The *geographical pattern* of the network is particularly relevant to the globally mobile workforce, and distance between an individual and their network partners is a factor that is likely to influence the benefits available to them whilst they live and work away from their home country. The geographical pattern of an individual's network is still important despite to the rise of I.T aided communication in the 21st century. Whilst it easier to contact people using the internet and maintain communication with them, face to face communication can intensify solidarity between individuals and the cooperation between them (Adams, Faust and Lovasi, 2010; Kwon and Adler, 2014). Geographic patterns in individual level networks remains under-developed in social capital theory and we thus know little about their effects on individuals' social capital.

Furthermore, again drawing on and extending social capital theory, I suggest that the *national homophily* of EAs' networks affect EAs' intention to return to their home country. The similarity (or difference) in nationality between the expatriate and his/her ego-network (national homophily) is particularly relevant in both the EA and the general SIE context as EAs/SIEs, despite being part of an increasingly global community, are different from those around them by nationality, and with the rising temperature of the immigration debate within Europe, nationality maintains its relevance as a concept. Expatriates are often reliant upon host country nationals (HCNs) for support in the host country, and proportionally more HCNs means proportionally lower national homophily. The national make up of an individual's network is

important and likely affects adjustment, performance (Liu and Shaffer, 2005), and in turn, an expatriate's intentions to repatriate. Very little attention has currently been paid to nationality and the national make-up of an individual's network in social capital theory, thus little is known about the effects of varying degrees of national similarity in a network on an individuals' access to social capital.

Because of the importance of both geographic patterns and national homophily of network connections for SIEs, the networks of SIEs provide an ideal setting within which to extend ideas about the effect of propinquity and nationality (Kwon and Adler, 2014) to social capital theorising, as SIEs have the ability to network with individuals in the host country face to face, and in the home country electronically. Analysing the role of national and geographic homophily thus allows for extending social capital theory in the context of SIEs. In the particular context of the expatriate academics, this becomes even more relevant. For EAs, social and professional networks are important sources of knowledge and resources (capital) (Pezzoni, Sterzi and Lissoni, 2012). This makes the EA context - expatriates within a foreign higher education sector, an ideal environment in which to test extensions of social capital theory, as their networks may span institutions, countries and even continents.

Social capital theory highlights the role of *network structure* – the way that ties within a network connect with each other. This is based on the insights within social capital theory that the value of social capital to an individual is at least partially dependent on the number of other people doing something similar (Burt, 1997). The structure of networks either helps information flow in or restricts information and strengthens norms (Coleman, 1988). A network of closely connected (or heavily interconnected) individuals could act as a support network for an EA in their host country. A less dense (less interconnected) network might provide more access to new information that may aid an EA in career development. Different network structures therefore have the ability to influence the ways in which EAs process or receive information, which in turn could impact their decisions to remain in/leave the host country.

Finally, insights drawn from social capital theory, point to the role that an *EA's seniority* and therefore their hierarchical position within society and their network could have on influencing their access to social capital. Insights from within social capital theory that show the value of (and access to) social capital at an individual level is at least partially dependent on the EAs position within the pyramidal nature of society (Lin, 2001).

An individual's status as reflected by seniority in a hierarchy (a more or less senior position) increases or decreases an individual's access to information and resources that could influence their decisions to either try and leave their network in search of better resources, or to stay in

their network and make use of the resources they have access to (Lin, 2001). In the case of the EA, the decisions about remaining in or leaving a network, translate as decisions to remain in the host country or to repatriate. Increased level in a hierarchy (a more senior position) increases an individual's visibility of and access to resources, which in turn allows for more profitable outcomes (Lin, 2001), however an upper reachability effect occurs, whereby as an individual increases in seniority, there are fewer individuals at the same/increased level that are able to help in obtaining of useful resources. In the case of an EA the increased visibility that comes with increasing seniority and experience, but reduced access to superior resources due to reduced number of similarly placed individuals may also influence repatriation intention as progression in the host country becomes harder, as the number of positions reduces due to the pyramid nature of society (Lin, 2001).

Whilst different dimensions of EAs' social networks (the structural aspects of them) may have different effects on their intentions to repatriate, these different effects may also be moderated by other variables. Based on prior research on social capital and on repatriation, I suggest that in particular embeddedness and national identity have moderating effects.

First, previous social capital research has stressed the role of *embeddedness*. Granovetter (1974), Coleman (1988) and Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) all investigated the role of embeddedness, the level to which an individual is engrained within a specific social structure. Moran (2005) highlights the difference between structural and relational embeddedness. Relational embeddedness, the quality of the links between an individual and their network, is likely to act as a moderator because if an individual is more embedded in their network then the quality of their relationships is likely to be better, and thus they are more likely to be looking to remain in a stable environment. This view is supported in Burton, Holtom, Brooks, Sablinski, Mitchell and Lee's (2010) work that shows job embeddedness reduces the likelihood of withdrawal behaviour following negative events.

Second, national identity is a likely moderator. Recent research highlights the role of personality characteristics for the effects of social network brokerage (Oh and Kilduff, 2008) and social network structure and the benefits that can be taken from those structures (Mehra, Kilduff and Brass, 1998). National Identity is the internal measurement of how strong an individual identifies with their home-nation and home country nationals, and varies across individuals in the same way that personality traits do. Migrants embedded in foreign locations can feel varying strengths of national identity, but the stronger the sentiment, the greater the social capital attained from other members of the same nationality (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993). When SIEs enter new countries their previous networks become less salient (Liu and Shaffer, 2005) however an increased sense of national identity may act to a) increase the salience of these networks, b)

increase the strength of interaction with nationally homophilous others and c) reduce the strength of interactions between SIEs and HCNs. It is predicted that this will strengthen any effect of national homophily on repatriation intention.

Career embeddedness (along with national identity) has already been shown to have a direct effect on general SIEs' intention to repatriate (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010), but not yet explored for EAs. By being more embedded in the career in the host country, this research expects that this will increase the proposed effect of geographic homophily on intention to repatriate. By possessing a stronger sense of national identity this research expects that there will be an increase in the effect upon repatriation intention caused by national homophily in the EAs social network. This research expects to replicate this finding in the EA context. Together these propositions and hypotheses are worked together as an extension of the principles of social capital theory into the SIE context to create a conceptual framework.

1.1 Research Context

This thesis is the presentation of a research project conducted on a final sample of 213 German Expatriate Academics (EAs) employed in the UK higher education sector. The purpose of this study was to contribute a greater understanding of the influence that individuals' access to social capital through their professional social networks in the home and host countries has on their repatriation intentions. The study of SIEs has evolved from, and in contrast to, the study of Assigned Expatriation (AE) – whereby an individual is sent abroad by an organization – i.e. the individual is assigned to a position that requires their own expatriation. The (very scarce) study of EAs in turn, has evolved from the study of SIEs, and of a distinct subgroup who may be more highly educated than the general SIE population, working solely within one industry sector. The research gap that this thesis looks to address therefore, is the lack of knowledge and understanding about how networks, a factor that has been shown to be important for SIE intentions to repatriate, without being comprehensively studied in depth (e.g. Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Cao et al, 2014), influences SIE intentions to repatriate. By focusing specifically on EAs, the second gap that this research looks to address, is the lack of knowledge and understanding about a) the similarities and differences between SIEs and EAs, and b) how networks influence EA intentions to repatriate. Specifically the focus is on EAs because of the increased role that networks can play in the career development of academics (Pezzoni et al, 2012), and because of the importance of expatriate academics to higher education globally.

Despite the differences, EAs do share many of the same characteristics of SIEs. Samples in SIE and EA studies therefore need to meet a number of criteria. Firstly, those individuals being studied need to not be natives of the country that they reside and work in, or they need to have

returned from a period of working in another country (dependent on the nature of the study). Secondly, this group of individuals must have made the decision to travel and work abroad on their own, and must not have been sent or seconded by a firm in their home country. Their prime purpose of movement needs to have been for work purposes or to further their careers. Whilst these characteristics are shared between academic expatriates and non-academic expatriates, the former group have an added set of characteristics – they all hold PhDs (or relevant similar qualifications), and all work within a sector that acts as source of (but is also reliant upon) knowledge generation. As knowledge generation often requires the use of networks, for both its creation and its dissemination, academic expatriates are an ideal group within which to explore the role of networks further.

Prior research on SIEs has often used academics (Selmer and Luring, 2012; Froese, 2012; Richardson and McKenna, 2002; Selmer and Luring 2010; Selmer and Luring, 2011; Luring and Selmer, 2011). SIEs play a significant role in many countries' higher education sectors and universities, who are dependent on a steady flow of SIEs. With only 40% of research students being *keen* on a career within academia (Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens & Weale, 2005), and with academic institutions striving to compete in an increasingly international market, the recruitment and retention of quality academic staff is an issue that needs to be addressed. Universities are after all, in the business of knowledge management, and like businesses rely on the creation and distribution of a product (knowledge) for their survival (Rowley, 2000).

The British higher education (HE) sector employs roughly 400,000 people and plays a significant role for the British economy and increasingly relies on foreign nationals, i.e. SIE staff (HESA, 2015; Brown et al., 2008). Given the costs associated with hiring and developing academic staff, retention of SIEs is thus crucial to employers in the HE sector (Huisman, de Weert and Bartelse, 2002). The results of the current research, while being directly relevant to EAs and the HE sector, can also be extrapolated to SIEs as a whole as the primary factors of a) moving of their own volition, and b) moving to a foreign country, are true both of EAs and of SIEs.

German academics were chosen as the sample of the current research specifically, because Germany and the UK have similar sized economies, and similar numbers of universities in the top 500 universities in the world (Shanghai Ranking, 2017). There is therefore no extra incentive for German's to move to the UK (in comparison to an expatriate moving from a country that is much less developed, or an academic specifically moving from a much lower rated higher education sector) because Germany can offer very similar progression to the UK for the academic. Exploring German academic expatriates makes sense in the current research context not because of any specific factors about German academics that are special, but because of the ability to control for extraneous circumstances, by observing individuals who come from a

culture and environment that is largely comparable to the one in which they are expatriating too.

1.2 Research Aims and Questions

The aim of this research is to provide insights about the impact that differing facets of an EA's ego-network (and thus his/her access to social capital) will have on the EA's intention to repatriate. Whereas social capital theory often focuses on the (macro-) level of the entire network and analyses whole networks including network contacts that are twice (or more) removed from one another, the focus of this research is on the individual (ego) and his/her direct/immediate relationships with a network of others (alters). This study focuses on network facets that are particularly relevant for the characterisation of such ego-networks (rather than networks in general), and on factors that are particularly relevant to the expatriate academic. Based on social capital theory and social network analysis, this study identifies a number of key facets of ego-networks that are argued to be of particular importance in explaining the return intentions of EAs. These facets are: network homophily, network density and hierarchy. In addition, the study aims to investigate the moderating role of EAs' career embeddedness and national identity. Specifically the following research questions will be addressed:

1. How does geographical homophily of an EA's ego-network affect his/her intention to repatriate?
2. How does national homophily of an EA's ego-network affect his/her intention to repatriate?
3. How does the density of an EA's ego-network affect his/her intention to repatriate?
4. How does an EA's hierarchical position within their organization/social structure affect his/her intention to repatriate?
5. How does an EA's career embeddedness moderate the effect of geographical homophily on his/her intention to repatriate?
6. How does an EA's sense of national identity moderate the effect of national homophily on his/her intention to repatriate?

1.3 Contributions of Research

This research aims to make theoretical, empirical and practical contributions. **Theoretically**, this research aims to provide a theory-based explanation of how different facets of an EA's ego-network has a contingent effect on their intention to repatriate. In comparison to Assigned expatriation there is very little information on the factors that have any impact on the intention of SIEs to return to their home country. There is no such research that currently exists for EAs. Whilst assigned expatriation has been considered empirically through the lens of social network

analysis, and theoretical discussions about the influence of social capital for self-initiated expatriates, or those with 'boundaryless careers' (Lazarova and Taylor, 2009) has been undertaken, an empirical investigation of social capital and self-initiated expatriates is still outstanding. In so doing, the research extends social capital theory and the study of social networks to the expatriate academic and thus the self-initiated expatriate context. The research aims to contribute to the development of social capital/network theory by (a) providing in-depth analysis of the impact of social networks and access to social capital on intention to repatriate (b) bringing attention to neglected facets of social networks, for example geographical homophily, and by (c) investigating the contingent nature of the effect of network characteristics.

Empirically, the study provides further insight into SIEs in the HE sector through an investigation of the factors that contribute to EAs' intentions to either remain in the UK sector, or move elsewhere. This study provides a unique insight into social capital in the expatriate context by providing in-depth primary data on the ego-networks of SIEs in the UK higher education sector. This research aims to (a) extend social capital theory to the context of EAs in order to provide greater insight, and to (b) specifically focus on the impacts of under-researched facets of social networks that are particularly relevant to the empirical context of the EA and SIE, such as geographic and national homophily.

Practically, this research can help individuals, organizations and governments of both home and host-countries. For individuals, understanding factors that may help increase access to social capital, power, promotion and other desirable outcomes allows for a constructive planning process of ones careers, and allows individuals to form networks accordingly. For organizations looking to retain top-talent that happens to be of international origin, knowing whether to promote networking with host-country nationals or not, and understanding factors that may help them to retain their top talent will be useful. The UK's higher education providers need to understand in what ways they can retain their top international talent if the sector is to remain competitive globally. For host-country governments, understanding social capital at an individual level will help to attract and retain top talent from foreign countries in academic disciplines that are identified as key to the economy, whilst for governments that experience brain-drain to other countries, understanding factors that will influence repatriation decisions is vital, if this brain drain is to be reversed (Baruch, Budwhar and Khatri, 2007).

By making these theoretical, empirical and practical contributions the current research looks to address a number of clear gaps that exist within the study of self-initiated expatriates, expatriate academics and social capital theory. Where currently there are calls by researchers for further investigation into how social capital impacts the SIE experience (e.g. Doherty et al, 2013), and

there are studies that investigate the role that networks as a concept in their own right might play in the repatriation intentions of SIEs (Cao, Hirschi and Deller, 2014), there are as of yet no studies that directly investigate social capital in the SIE context. By contributing a theory based explanation of how different facets of an EA's ego-network has a contingent effect on their intention to repatriate, this research addresses this call for research that investigates how social capital impacts the SIE experience, at the final stage, repatriation. Where currently there is an empirical need to understand in more depth the differences between EAs and SIEs (Trembath, 2016), and the factors that specifically influence EAs rather than just extrapolating from literature that focusses on SIEs as a whole, the current research addresses this gap by providing an in-depth investigation of factors that specifically influence expatriate academics by focussing on them as the subject of investigation. Rather than extrapolating the results from a study of SIEs into the EA context, this research works in the opposite direction, and applies learnings from EAs to the broader SIE group. Where practically there is a need, specifically within the UK higher education sector to understand factors that can help in the retention of top foreign academics (HESA, 2015; Brown et al., 2008; Huisman, de Weert and Bartelse, 2002), this research addresses this gap, by providing an investigation on the contingent effect that social networks have on expatriate academics intentions to repatriate from the UK HE sector, and thus allows academic institutions to learn from this.

1.4 Thesis Structure

To approach the research questions outlined above the following structure shall be taken throughout the remainder of this thesis.

Chapter Two is the first of two chapters reviewing the literature on SIEs, EAs, and social capital/networks respectively. Chapter 2 systematically reviews the concept of self-initiated expatriation and the existing literature on the topic. Beginning with definitions and clarifying what exactly is understood to be a self-initiated expatriate, definitions of the term are provided (Section 2.1). The subsequent sections follow the "life-cycle" of the self-initiated expatriation process. Accordingly, Section 2.2 reviews the literature on the motives that drive individuals to become SIEs. Section 2.3 reviews the literature on the experiences of self-initiated expatriates, the middle stage of the expatriation process, with a focus on activities in the host country – including but not limited to their performance and adjustment. Section 2.4 introduces specific literature on expatriate academics, before section 2.5 reviews the literature on the last stage of being a self-initiated expatriate – either the transition to migrant status or repatriation. Section 2.6 assesses the main themes, theoretical bases and research approaches used in the literature on these different topics and identifies the main gaps in the literature and argues for the particular suitability of a social capital/network view to address these gaps. Chapter 2 primarily

builds on literature that is focused on SIEs as a general group rather than EAs specifically, before moving into a discussion of academic specific expatriate literature as this group of literature is a) sparse in nature, and b) largely informed by the former more general literature on SIEs.

Chapter Three reviews the literature on Social Capital Theory and Social Networks. The interplay between social networks and social capital is discussed with an investigation of the underlying assumptions of social capital outlined by Lin (2001) interlinked with the theoretical perspectives of Burt (2000; 2005), Coleman (1988) and other prominent social capital theorists. Sections 3.1 and 3.2 establish the basis of social capital theory, its core concepts and definitions and underlying assumptions and principles. Section 3.3 follows by highlighting insights gained from investigations conducted through a social capital theory lens, and the applications of social capital theory. In providing this review, gaps in social capital investigation are identified and highlighted. The final sections of chapter 3 are devoted to a discussion of network research as a tool used by social capital theorists and researchers (section 3.4) and the impact that this could make to the study of self-initiated expatriates (section 3.5). Whilst section 3.5 is the core focus of the application of social capital theory to the IHRM and specifically the EA context, effort is made throughout the chapter to draw the literature towards the EA context where possible to highlight how social capital theory can make an impact to the scholarship of expatriate academics.

Chapter 4 draws on social capital theory to develop hypotheses on a number of network characteristics and their contingent effects on EAs' intention to return to their home-country. By working with and building from both sets of literature highlighted in the literature reviews – literature that focuses on social capital and literature that focuses on self-initiated expatriates – chapter 4 aims to bridge the two research foci to aid in the understanding of factors that influence EA repatriation intentions. By developing and stating a number of testable hypotheses within this chapter (sections 4.1 and 4.2), it is possible to provide a model and framework for research (section 4.3), outlining the predicted role of network facets of social capital theory within the EA context.

Chapter 5, the methodology chapter, starts by discussing different theoretical, ontological and epistemological traditions in order to highlight the merits and drawbacks of each, whilst simultaneously outlining the assumptions held by the researcher (section 5.1). Sections 5.2 to 5.5 highlight the research context, participants, sample, ethical considerations and the way in which data will be collected for the research. Section 5.6 outlines the variables and measures used in the data collection phase, whilst section 5.7 outlines the analysis techniques to be used. Section 5.8 concludes the chapter by highlighting the qualitative portion of data collection – a

set of interviews with German academics conducted after the initial quantitative data collection phase.

Chapter 6 presents the results of the main data collection phase in this study. After providing descriptive statistics about the characteristics of the sample in section 6.1, the chapter provides results of the regression analyses used to test the hypotheses in section 6.2, with an overall summary of findings presented in 6.3.

Chapter 7 discusses the results of the quantitative analysis. The chapter is structured so that each section corresponds specifically to one hypothesis only, until the concluding parts of the chapter when a discussion of other non-hypothesized results and a general discussion is given in sections 7.10 and 7.11. Within sections 7.1 to 7.9, discussion includes information obtained from qualitative interviews conducted with a small sample of both German and Non-German academics. This information is supplementary and for the purpose of providing clarification, but also allows conclusions to be drawn from both a deductive perspective (from the quantitative data) and an inductive perspective (from the qualitative data).

Chapter 8 concludes the thesis by highlighting its theoretical and practical implications (8.1) of the current research, pointing out its limitations in 8.2 and highlighting interesting alleys for future research in section 8.3.

2 The Self-Initiated Expatriate (SIE) and the Expatriate Academic (EA)

This chapter reviews the literature and research on SIEs and on EAs that has been conducted to date. After providing a definition of an SIE, the chapter looks systematically at sections of SIE literature ordered as the life cycle/timeline for an SIE: Motivations and Demographics, SIE experiences in their host country, and repatriation or movement to another country. Immediately prior to discussing repatriation, the literature focuses exclusively on literature that relates to EAs, a group of self-initiated expatriates that exclusively consists of those working within academia – this group is to be the focus of the current research. Each of the three ‘life-cycle’ sections provides a table outlining key studies and their theoretical underpinnings, discusses the literature in context, and notes research approaches used and theory guiding the research. Following these sections, a summary of findings is presented along with the gaps in SIE and EA scholarship, leading to a discussion of the reasons why the current thesis has chosen to follow the path of investigating social capital, repatriation intentions and expatriate academics. This structure is outlined in table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1 – Chapter Structure

2.1 Definitions			
2.2 Motivations of the SIE	2.3 SIE experiences and Adjustment	2.4 The Expatriate Academic	2.5 SIE and EA transition/repatriation
2.6 Overall Assessment			
2.7 Chapter Summary			

Using this structure allows for a stage by stage systematic review of the literature, and an assessment of the existing knowledge about the topic of the current research project, whilst also highlighting the gaps in the current understanding of SIEs and EAs. The review purposefully builds an overview of SIEs before highlighting their similarities and differences to expatriate academics who are to be the focus of the current thesis. Specifically, the review concludes by highlighting the need to look at the drivers of repatriation and a ‘social network’ perspective on

SIE research, a perspective that has been used widely in many other disciplines, but not yet fully used to enhance our understanding of the factors that drive SIE and EA repatriation.

The structure outlined in table 2.1 follows the 'life-cycle' of the SIE, in a similar way as covered by Trembath (2016), whose meta-narrative approach to academic expatriates discusses the life-cycle of the EA. Considering the literature in this way allows this review to bring clarity to the constructs of Self-Initiated Expatriation and of Expatriate Academics, a sub-group who form part of this overarching group, but with their own unique challenges and differences.

2.1 Definition of the Self-Initiated Expatriate

In this research, self-initiated expatriates are defined as *'individuals who relocate across a national border, for an extended period of time, of their own volition, for work purposes'*. Ultimately, SIEs are different from assigned expatriates because they make their own decision to relocate (Inkson, Arthur, Pringle and Barry, 1997). SIEs are different from tourists or students because they relocate for work purposes (Finaccord, 2014). SIEs are different from migrants because are not primarily driven by geo-political instability in their home country (Al-Ariss, 2010). Below, previous definitions of self-initiated expatriation and its related concepts are reviewed and discussed, ultimately providing more context, and explaining why (in greater depth) the definition above is the one that has been chosen for the current research. Expatriate academics, it will also be argued, form a crucial part of this subgroup of the globally mobile workforce, but face their own unique and individual challenges. EAs are therefore given their own focus later within this literature review, to provide greater understanding of why it is this specific subgroup of SIEs that are to be investigated in the current research.

The definition of SIE used in this thesis derives from a systematic review of the literature, but is most clearly summarised in more depth by Doherty et al (2013) who state

"...the term SIE infers two essential components. The first is that SIE must involve relocation across a national border. Hence, SIE must be about physical mobility where the individual moves from one country to another (Inkson, 2006). Second, the initiative for that mobility must come from the individual, with individual volition being central to the concept of SIE". (Doherty et al, 2013, p99)

To understand this definition further, it is important to examine what or who constitutes an SIE. However in order to understand what the constituent attributes of an SIE are (both physical and non-physical attributes), it is also necessary to start by examining current accepted or used definitions of what an SIE is, not only the definition stated above, but also the definitions provided during the infancy of the SIE construct.

Whilst this process may initially seem recursive in nature, the purpose of exploring early definitions is to allow for the close examination of each definition’s constituent parts, thus providing some context as to why the current literature focuses on some issues and not others. Secondly, by examining early and current recognised definitions of the SIE, a greater understanding can be gained of the similarities and differences between SIEs and EAs later in this chapter.

2.1.1 Overseas Experience – the birth of the SIE construct

One of the early roots of SIE scholarship lies within investigations of what has been termed ‘Overseas Experience’ (OE) (Inkson et al, 1997). Drawing comparisons with what these authors termed ‘Expatriate Assignment’ on four main scales: Initiation, Goals, Funding and Career Type Inkson et al (1997) suggest that: *“OE is, by definition, a personal odyssey, initiated and resourced by the self. Typically, the initial goals are diffuse – “see the world,” “try something different,” “find myself,” etc.” (Inkson et al, 1997, p352)*

These differences between an assigned expatriate and an overseas experience are highlighted in table 2.2.

Table 2.2 – Overseas Experience

	Overseas Experience (OE)	Assigned Expatriation (AE)
Initiation	Individual	Company
Goals	Individual Development	Company Projects
Funding	Personal Savings and Casual Earnings	Company Salary and Expenses
Career Type	Boundaryless Career	Organizational Career

Table Adapted from Inkson, Arthur, Pringle and Barry, 1997, p352

Whilst providing an initial definition, and highlighting that overseas experience in contrast to assigned expatriation is initiated by the individual, for individual development, funded by personal savings, with a boundaryless career type, Inkson et al’s (1997) focus is very much on the activity itself, and not on the individual conducting the activity. For Inkson et al (1997) the key differences were that the company pushes and funds an AE project, with a clear goal of further developing the profitability of the company. Individuals carrying out this task are working for themselves, and as their experience in the role builds, so does their specific skills that allow them to progress more easily within the company that sent them abroad. OE however, has no company backing, direction or funding. The individual who is obtaining overseas experience uses their own money to fund themselves, both in moving to a country and before finding a role

there. The career development of the OE is not determined by building skills to progress within a specific company, as a specific company did not send them to gain skills in the first instance (Inkson et al, 1997).

2.1.2 Further definitions of SIE

Other scholars have developed the idea of Overseas Experience further and shifted the focus from the activity being undertaken, towards the individual who is expatriating. Jokinen, Brewster and Suutari (2008) for example, referred to “self-initiated expatriate (SE) experiences... [individuals’ who make] their own way to the country and job” (p979) highlighting the importance of the individual and not the task itself.

A key difference between Inkson et al’s (1997) definition and Jokinen et al’s (2008) definition is that the latter avoids any discussion of motivations for expatriation within the definition itself. As will be observed, many of the later definitions of SIE have also avoided discussing specific motivations for expatriation (further than whether the expatriation is for work purposes or adventure) as SIE encompasses a large group of diverse individuals. Including very specific motivations within the definition is overly limiting, and may cause unnecessary exclusiveness of the SIE paradigm. Whilst paradigms should be defined as specifically as possible, taking context into account during their early development stage, self-limiting definitions are restrictive to paradigm development.

The construct of self-initiated expatriation is not necessarily clear-cut, and this is highlighted by the variety and volume of terms used by different authors to describe the same phenomenon. Where Inkson et al (1997) referred to Overseas Experience, other terms used in the past have included ‘self-initiated foreign assignments’ (Suutari and Brewster, 2001), ‘self-directed expatriates’ (Richardson and McKenna, 2006), ‘Self-Initiated international work opportunities’ (Tharenou, 2003), and most recently ‘Self-Initiated Expatriation’ (SIE) (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Doherty, 2013; Jokinen et al, 2008; Inkson and Richardson, 2010; Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013). Table 2.3 below outlines a number of these definitions and their different foci. Understanding whether a study focuses on the experience or the individual helps provide context to the definitions, and demonstrates how definitions have developed over the years. A focus on experience, indicates that the definition treats self-initiated expatriation as a challenge, ordeal, or adventure that is undertaken. A focus on the individual indicates that the definition treats self-initiated expatriates as individuals who make conscious choices.

Table 2.3 – Definitions of SIE

Author(s) and Year	Definition	Terminology	Focus
Inkson, Arthur, Pringle and Barry (1997) p352	<p>“OE is, by definition, a personal odyssey, initiated and resourced by the self. Typically, the initial goals are diffuse – “see the world,” “try something different,” “find myself,” etc.”</p> <p>Also See table 2.2 for further definition</p>	OE - Overseas Experience	Experience
Jokinen, Brewster and Suutari (2008) p979	“self-initiated expatriate (SE) experiences... [individuals’ who make] their own way to the country and job”	SE - Self-initiated Expatriate Experiences	Experience
Richardson and McKenna (2006) p8	"people who have sought an overseas position independently"	self-directed expatriates	Individual
Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) p1009	"professionals who choose to expatriate and are not transferred by their employer"	SIE -Self Initiated Expatriate	Individual
Doherty, Richardson & Thorn (2013, p99)	"...the term SIE infers two essential components. The first is that SIE must involve relocation across a national border. Hence, SIE must be about physical mobility where the individual moves from one country to another (Inkson, 2006). Second, the initiative for that mobility must come from the individual, with individual volition being central to the concept of SIE"	Self-Initiated Expatriation	Individual
Harrison, Shaffer and Bhaskar Shrinivas (2004) p208	"Being personally motivated to live and work abroad, these individuals may even resign from their current jobs or self-sponsor their overseas move. Oftentimes they may not have a pre-arranged job set up in the host country, and the individual may engage in menial work just to make ends meet"	Self-initiated foreign workers	Individual

A review of the literature indicates that SIE as a concept and construct has developed primarily through exploration of a phenomenon that did not fit properly into the existing categorizations given to internationally mobile working individuals, with many early authors highlighting the difference between Assigned company expatriates (AE – also referred to as Organizational

Expatriates/those sent abroad by their organization), and this group of heterogeneous workers who work across international boundaries, but who are not sent to do so by an employer.

An early example of the prevalence of SIEs can be seen implicitly in Riusala and Suutari (2000) who had to discard 32.8% of their completed responses due to the respondents being SIEs and not AEs (Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010). The characteristics of an SIE have been therefore originally sieved from exploratory, comparison studies between groups of individuals sent abroad by a parent company, and groups of individuals who were not sent by a parent company (e.g. Jokinen et al 2008, Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010).

The heterogeneity of SIEs is attributable to the emergence of the concept of SIE as a (quasi-) by-product of research on organizational expatriates, whereby those who did not fit the definition of an OE were grouped as SIEs. Because the development of SIE research is not based in theory, but in practice, and in the non-conformity of certain groups to the predominantly observed phenomenon of Assigned Expatriates (Inkson et al 1997), its development in research is driven partially by the individuals that researchers can obtain access to at the time of research, and partially by a data driven approach to exploring the phenomenon.

Some scholars have highlighted issues with this approach. SIEs are a group of internationally mobile individuals who are not Assigned Expatriates, however they are not the only group of internationally mobile individuals who do not fit the AE model. Immigrants, for example, are a prime example of internationally mobile individuals – those who choose to leave their own home, but who are not included within the SIE construct (Doherty et al, 2013) (see below for a fuller discussion of this issue). Nonetheless – the definitions of SIE given in table 2.3 allow for the incorporation of a wider variety of individuals, and do not limit based on gender, country of origin, education level, or career type. Despite the wide range of people that could be considered as SIEs based upon the broad definitions in table 2.3, a particular effort has been made to exclude specific motivations for expatriation from the definition of SIE.

Cerdin and Selmer (2014) in a bid to bring some conceptual coherence to SIE scholarship suggest that four criteria that should be simultaneously fulfilled for an individual to be classed as an SIE. First, that individuals should self-initiate their international relocation, second, that they should have an offer of, or intention of finding regular employment, third, that they should only have intentions of a temporary stay, and fourth, that they should possess some form of skill or professional qualifications (Cerdin and Selmer, 2014, p1281). Whilst not all definitions include these aspects, and indeed the definition used within the current thesis does not make any reference to Cerdin and Selmer's 4th point about qualifications, as is seen below these themes are common across many of the early definitions of SIE.

The common theme across all definitions in table 2.2 and table 2.3 is that the decision to expatriate is made by the individual. This is arguably the strongest difference between SIEs and AEs (or at least the easiest to articulate). If an individual does not decide to move to a country on his/her own accord, and is instead sent by an employing organization, then the individual does not fit any definition of self-initiated expatriate. However, not all individuals that self-initiate their move can/should be grouped into the self-initiated expatriate bracket because some individuals choose to leave their home country – but not necessarily for work purposes (e.g. refugees and migrants). Refugees for example choose to leave their home country – but their key desire is not to gain international experience, but instead to escape such atrocities as conflict, famine and other disastrous scenarios. This distinction, that individuals moving do so for work purposes, is the second key theme covered in the definitions provided in the above tables, and also links directly to Cerdin and Selmer's (2014) second simultaneous action that defines an SIE (the suggestion that the individual moving abroad should have an offer of, or intention of finding regular employment). Some authors have argued however that there is not a clear distinction between migrants and SIEs (Al-Ariss, 2010), however the present research does not conform to this idea.

Al-Ariss (2010) and Al-Ariss and Crowley-Henry (2013) are one of the first to point out the occasionally unclear distinction between the constructs of SIE and migrant workers. In his 2010 article, Al-Ariss purposefully uses the term 'migrants' to describe a group of Lebanese individuals within France – a minority group – whose aim is to gain international career experience. The distinction between migrants and SIEs claimed by Al-Ariss (2010) is initially that of place of origin. However, the length of stay is also a factor that differentiates between individuals as migrants and individuals as SIEs (The third distinguishing factor of an SIE highlighted by Cerdin and Selmer (2014)).

Cerdin and Selmer's (2014) fourth distinguishing factor of the SIE, their level of skill is only mentioned in one of the definitions of SIE in table 2.3 – the definition provided by Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) who specifically refer to SIEs as professionals who move abroad. As this is not a universally discussed phenomenon, it was not felt necessary to include this factor within the definition of the SIE provided within this thesis. As discussed later however, it is this point that forms a potential distinction between expatriate academics and other SIEs, as defined in the current thesis. Expatriate academics are by design, in possession of specialist skills or qualifications, whilst other non-qualified SIEs (e.g. those travelling with the purpose of 'seeing the world' or 'trying something different (Inkson et al, 1997)) may not hold these qualifications or expectations of their experience.

It is possible at this point to recap, and thus highlight the characteristics and definitions of what an SIE is, and what an SIE is not. It has been established that an SIE is an individual, who chooses to expatriate, without being forced to for reasons of asylum, or without being sent directly by an organization. An SIE is self-funded, and seeks a job or international work experience. The SIEs decision is entirely their own (or a collaboration with a spouse).

“...the term SIE infers two essential components. The first is that SIE must involve relocation across a national border. Hence, SIE must be about physical mobility where the individual moves from one country to another (Inkson, 2006). Second, the initiative for that mobility must come from the individual, with individual volition being central to the concept of SIE”. (Doherty et al, 2013, p99)

In this research, it is on this basis, that I define self-initiated expatriates as individuals who relocate across a national border, for an extended period of time, of their own volition, for work purposes.

2.2 Motivations to Expatriate – What drives self-initiated expatriation?

In the previous section the definition of an SIE that will be used in the current research was outlined and provided. In this section I will review the existing research into the motivations of SIEs. The literature reviewed in this section is relevant to the early/initial phase of the SIE life cycle mentioned previously. The subsequent stages of the life cycle are discussed in the following two sections. Early in the scholarship of SIE, much of the focus and attention was on the motivations of SIEs and how they differed from AEs. It is important to understand the motivations of SIEs for two key reasons. Firstly it is important in order to complete the picture of what it is that constitutes an SIE. Secondly it is important to understand expatriation motivations as they could affect length of stay and intentions to repatriate.

It is possible to split the motivations outlined by the research to date into two broad categories: Career-focused development, and non-career-focused development. These two categories are not mutually exclusive, rather, they overlap regularly. Altman and Baruch (2012) found exactly this, suggesting that self-initiation can be either career oriented or self-development focused, but in general was used as a personal growth opportunity. The authors found sufficient evidence for a protean career attitude – an attitude towards ones career that is highly self-directed regarding the management of the career itself, and specifically in measures of success, where personal values are used for judging what it is to be successful within the career, not the values forced onto an individual by an employing organization or other external body (Yan, Zhu and Hall, 2002).

Altman and Baruch (2012) suggest that the two components that make up the focus of those with a protean career attitude (career orientation and self-development) are not mutually exclusive, however they show the two as separate driving forces behind expatriation, rather than one combined into the protean career attitude. On one hand, SIEs driven by their career aspirations (those with an attitude that measured career success by the heights achieved) were more likely to see expatriation as a means to an end, whilst on the other hand those individuals who judge their career in terms of personal fulfilment and self-development “engender expatriation for the experience itself” (Altman and Baruch (2012: p245). Whilst not being mutually exclusive, the distinctiveness of these two separate motivations mean that it is not possible to include one motivation or the other within any definition of SIE without excluding a large group of individuals. Motivation has thus been largely excluded from previous definitions (highlighted in table 2.3).

Altman and Baruch’s (2012) findings are also in contrast to the initial work of Inkson et al (1997), who did not discuss any career orientation of those going for Overseas Experience. Instead Inkson et al (1997) highlighted the SIEs need for adventure and desire to experience other cultures as driving forces behind the action of self-initiated expatriation. Whilst not without merit, the difference in these two findings highlights the evolution of SIE as a concept and construct in the period between the two studies. Whilst widely accepted as one of the originating points of self-initiated expatriation research, the phenomenon that Inkson and colleagues (1997) investigate is significantly different from what Altman and Baruch (2012) investigate, whilst being simultaneously related. The individuals who aim to go abroad for overseas experience may well possess a protean career attitude, but sit on the side of personal development. Because the SIE construct is so broad, it incorporates such a variety of individuals that motivations are inevitably going to vary largely.

Froese (2012) highlighted that SIEs desire international experience, are driven by attractive job conditions in a host-country, but are also attracted by family ties (if they have family in the host country). In comparison to company assigned expatriates however, the career motives of SIEs are not as strong (Doherty, Dickman and Mills, 2011). Instead of being as career driven as assigned expatriates, Doherty et al (2011) instead find that SIEs are more driven towards specific countries. Rather than being willing to go anywhere abroad in order to further ones career (as is more the case for AEs) SIEs are directed towards specific countries where there might be specific experiences or opportunities available. This suggests in comparison to assigned expatriates, SIEs are arguably more selective when it comes to location – a luxury not available for assigned expatriates, who are often sent wherever is best for the organization.

Authors have suggested different typologies, or classifications of reasons to expatriate. For example Richardson and McKenna (2002) conducted interviews with British SIE Academics, and identified five different reasons for expatriation: Adventure/Travel, Career Considerations, Family, Financial Incentive, and Life Change/Escape. These five categories are argued to encompass the different motivations for departure of SIEs. Adventure/Travel was cited as the most common reason for departure of SIEs. Whilst focusing only on expatriate academics, these five reasons for expatriation, have been largely cited as the predominant reason for expatriation amongst all groups of SIEs, not only highly educated academics.

Research that similarly focused on academics, highlighted the interplay between demographics (outside of level of education) and motivations to expatriate. Selmer and Luring (2010; 2011) showed that motivations to expatriate differ dependent on age and gender (Selmer and Luring, 2010), seniority, marital status, nationality, and previous expatriate experience (Selmer and Luring, 2011). Based on Richardson and McKenna's (2002) five distinct motivations for expatriation (Adventure, Career, Family, Financial and Escape) Selmer and Luring (2011) find little support amongst their sample for the 'Escape' reason for expatriation, but did find support for the other four motivations, specifically finding that career was the strongest reason for self-initiated expatriation across their sample. This is an example of how expatriate academics potentially have different motivations for expatriation than the majority of non-academic expatriates. This difference is discussed further later within this chapter.

SIE motivations are also shaped by demographic characteristics other than age and education. Women for example seek much less risky environments to expatriate into than men, which often affords males greater career benefits. (Myers and Pringle, 2005). Motivated more by relationships than their male SIE counterparts, women seek less risky environments which costs them these career benefits, but in turn affords them more long-term stability in their assignment.

Regarding the interaction of demographics and motivations, Myers and Pringle, (2005) found that age was associated with those expatriating for adventure, for career and for financial incentives, whilst gender significantly interacted with financial motivations. There was no differentiation across age or gender for family motivations to expatriate (Selmer and Luring, 2010). However, married expatriates are significantly more motivated by family reasons for expatriation than non-married individuals (Selmer and Luring 2011). What the research of Selmer and Luring (2010; 2011) serves to highlight is that overall generalizability to all SIEs is not necessarily easy, and for results to be applicable to the wider group, demography needs to be taken into account at each step of the research process. Ultimately they highlight the complicated and convoluted nature of motivations to expatriate (Doherty, 2013).

Table 2.4 – Self-Initiated Expatriation – Theoretical Perspectives

Author(s) and Year	Sample	Theoretical Underpinning	Focus
Inkson, Arthur, Pringle and Barry (1997)	New Zealand Nationals working abroad	None	Why do individuals choose to move abroad of their own accord?
Richardson and McKenna (2002)	Expatriate Academics	None	Why do academics expatriate?
Doherty, Dickman and Mills (2011)	Self-initiated and Assigned Expatriates	None	Differences in motivations to expatriate of SIEs and Assigned Expatriates
Altman and Baruch (2012)	Self-Initiated Expatriates in one company	None	Creating a model to explain Self initiated expatriation as a contemporary global career type
Selmer and Lauring (2010)	Expatriate Academics	None	To understand demographics of SIE academics, and how that influences decisions to expatriate
Selmer and Lauring (2011)	Expatriate Academics	None	To understand demographics of SIE academics, and how that influences decisions to expatriate
Doherty, Richardson and Thorn (2013)	Review Article of previous Literature	None	To clarify the boundaries of the SIE construct

2.2.1 Theoretical perspectives on SIE motivations

The theoretical basis and the focus of each of the articles mentioned in this section are outlined in table 2.4 above. The table highlights that research investigating SIE motivations to expatriate lacks a unified overarching theoretical approach. This is due to SIE research historically being driven by describing a phenomenon, and focusing on basing the research in real world application. As a relatively new research topic, SIE researchers and academics are still working to establish a specific direction in which to extend the field, and mainly focus on demonstrating its lack of complete congruence with the assigned expatriate literature. While there is not a theoretical void within the SIE field as a whole, there is very little theoretical underpinning to work on motivations of SIEs to undertake expatriation.

Based upon sample alone, it is possible to distinguish two categories of focus within the work on SIE motivations to expatriate: work that looks to understand academics (and their decisions to expatriate), and work that focuses on non-academics.

In the case of SIE academics Richardson and McKenna (2002) and Selmer and Luring (2010; 2011) both focus on the experiences and decisions of expatriate academics as a source of highly skilled labour, who have chosen to move to other countries to further their careers. There is no underlying theoretical basis to these pieces, rather they look to more clearly understand why it is that academics choose to expatriate.

Regarding non-academics, while Inkson et al (1997) discuss SIE experience in relation to literature on entrepreneurship, and Doherty, Richardson and Thorn (2013) aim to bring a level of construct clarity by form of literature review, the bulk of intention-focused research in the SIE field is exploratory in nature and does not draw on a particular theoretical framework. The lack of unified theoretical underpinning serves to highlight this, and falls in line with the development of new fields of research.

Rather than being split along any theoretical lines, this group of research is split by the individuals whom are studied. Whilst some authors highlighted in table 2.4 have studied a more heterogeneous group of expatriates, the choice by the others to limit their research to a more focused group of SIEs actually helps to reinforce the construct, and clarify the aims of those who chose to move abroad by removing many of the industry level variables that may influence repatriation decisions such as foreign job availability or ability to progress within different industries being non-comparable to each other. By restricting the external factors (such as variety in the industrial placement of each SIE), Selmer and Luring, (2010) and Richardson and McKenna (2002) are both able to focus on specific factors that influence the decisions of SIE academics to expatriate in a focused contextual setting. However, whilst bringing construct

generalisability, by focusing on one specific group of expatriates, Selmer and Lauring (2010; 2011) and Richardson and McKenna (2002) actually highlight that there are nuanced differences between EAs and other SIEs. It is partially on this basis that the current thesis has chosen to more closely focus later chapters, and the research itself, on academic expatriates, as a separate sub-group of SIEs, who face their own challenges that are slightly misaligned with those of other SIEs.

Due to the nature of how research into SIEs started – as an investigation into an under-researched group of individuals with a large potential to provide strategic advantage and as a general source of labour -- the research into SIEs, what an SIE is and why an SIE expatriates in the first instance is not theoretically driven. The theoretical discussion that does occur is sparse. For an understanding of theoretical approaches to SIE literature, one needs to consider investigations into other parts of the SIE experience that are not solely rooted in attempts to understand who expatriates of their own accord.

2.2.2 Approaches to studying SIE motivations

Research approaches used in the study of SIE motivations to expatriate are generally exploratory, investigating differences and patterns that occur, to try and understand why and how SIEs are different from AEs. Research on expatriate managers (on assigned expatriates) motivations by contrast has a more solid grounding in theory. For example expatriate adjustment research (outside of the SIE literature) was led by Black (1988), Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991), and Black and Gregerson (1990), who took general turnover research, and created theoretical models that were then tested and extended by numerous other researchers, in a multitude of scenarios. These theoretical models form the solid underpinning of assigned expatriate motivation literature, an underpinning that is absent in SIE literature. Whilst it is this approach that the SIE construct aims to replicate, the relatively young age of the field means that it currently lags behind the broader assigned expatriate literature in terms of a theoretical grounding or unified approach to studying the phenomenon.

There is both a qualitative and a quantitative aspect of SIE motivations research, but primarily the work is qualitative in nature, with the focus on exploring the motivations of individuals who choose to expatriate of their own accord. These include the studies by Inkson et al (1997) and Richardson and McKenna (2002). Bucking the trend slightly is Altman and Baruch (2012), who rather than just using quantitative analysis for exploratory purposes, attempt to build a model that explains motivations of SIEs. Other studies of a more quantitative nature, e.g. Selmer and Lauring (2010; 2011) are also explorative – aiming to understand the demography of SIEs, but

focus solely on SIE academics. Whilst this methodological mixture does provide a level of depth, it is restricted by the previously mentioned lack of theoretical underpinning.

2.3 SIE Experiences and Adjustment Overseas

In the timeline of a self-initiated expatriate, after the decision has been made to expatriate, the process of expatriation begins (whereby SIEs perform in their job roles). Stage 2 of the SIE lifecycle encompasses the adjustment, of the SIE, but also the performance and continued career development. SIE experiences and the ability of SIEs to adjust will shape their time in their host country. This section examines both of these facets of self-initiated expatriation, from the perspective of the individual (the SIE themselves) but also from the perspective of the employing organization. As in the previous section a table that summarises key studies is presented, and the existing literature discussed. As was the case in literature investigating motivations for expatriation, much of the existing research focuses on the individual SIE. However similar to Inkson et al's (1997) focus on the task (not on the SIE), various authors have chosen to investigate the SIE from the perspective of the organization, removing focus from the individual.

2.3.1 Individual vs. organizational perspective on SIE experience, adjustment and performance.

2.3.1.1 *SIE experiences – Individual perspective*

Richardson and McKenna (2006) highlighted some of the key issues that SIEs face in their host country. They suggest that the experience of being an SIE causes emotional distance between individuals and their family and friends in the home country, a fact that seems to increase with time spent away from the home country. The majority of SIEs report a degree of outsider-ness in their host country. The experience of being an SIE therefore, whilst in the first instance having the potential to be positive (providing a chance for an individual to explore themselves, enhance their career, or gain financially); may have negative aspects affecting this positive experience, including the loss of friends from the home country and feelings of being an outsider in the host country.

Other comparisons between SIEs and AEs experiences have investigated the experiences of adjustment (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009) and job satisfaction (Froese and Peltokorpi; 2011). SIEs are more adjusted to interacting with host country nationals than AEs, whilst AEs are supported by a company or organization in the process of expatriation, SIEs make the decision to move on their own and have ownership over the choice of country in which they expatriate to. As country choice is an important motivator (Doherty et al, 2011) it is unsurprising that SIEs adjust more quickly to this aspect of life than AEs, for whom country choice is less of a motivator than the job or career progression itself (although career is also an

SIE motivation). This universal motivation was apparent in Peltokorpi and Froese's (2009) finding that there was no significant difference in work adjustment of SIEs and AEs. A later study by the two authors (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013), showed a mediation between this level of adjustment and the length of stay in the destination country for SIEs. The longer that an individual spends within a specific culture, the more likely s/he is to adjust. This was shown to specifically be the case due to language proficiency. The longer that individuals have to learn and practice the language of their host country, the more likely they are to adjust. A longer stay and greater language proficiency does not however translate into increased job satisfaction for SIEs in comparison to AEs, as SIEs are more likely to work in lower positions, under host-country national supervisors (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013). Working in lower positions, a lack of job autonomy and particularly lack of variety within a job leads to perceptions of underemployment, and ultimately reduced career and job satisfaction (Lee, 2005).

2.3.1.2 SIE performance and career capital – Individual perspective

As one of the major stated reasons for expatriation is an intention to develop one's career further, the development of career capital should be one of the most important outcomes of being an SIE. Career Capital consists of three types of knowing – knowing how, knowing why and knowing whom (DeFillippi and Arthur, 1994). *Knowing how* – or the development of tacit and explicit knowledge is often a reason for Assigned Expatriation (Harzing, 2001) – by sending an individual on an expatriate assignment, they will broaden their knowledge about an organization or function. For AEs this is often dictated by an organization, however the lack of having a backing organization means that for SIEs, this development of knowledge is driven by the individual, for the benefit of the individual. *Knowing why* can be seen as the internalisation of the motives for expatriating. Knowing why provides an individual with a sense of identity to their career, and this identity can be strongly influenced by international assignments (Kohonen, 2005). *Knowing whom* is a careers conceptualization of the importance of social capital (Granovetter, 1974; Burt, 2001; Lin 1999) for an individual.

In an attempt to explore the career capital of SIEs further, Jokinen et al (2008) contrasted the experiences of SIEs and AEs, and the effect that their current foreign work experience had on the development of the three types of knowing. Knowing how and knowing why were significantly improved for both AEs and SIEs by foreign employment, however AEs found more benefit than SIEs from their international experience in the *knowing who* component of career capital. This is partially due to the phrasing and focus of the questions, and partially due to the lack of networks within their host-company prior to expatriation (which AEs are able to grow and benefit from). This is not to say the networks are not important for SIEs, instead it suggests

there is currently an unknown impact of networks on SIEs as they do not necessarily have these networks or access to networks prior to their relocation.

2.3.1.3 SIEs through the eyes of the Organization

There is a growing level of research that also considers SIE at an organizational level. The initial impetus of SIE research was to take the focus away from the organizational aspects of expatriation, with the focus of Inkson et al (1997) being on the choices of the individual and how this affected the activity of working overseas. However, as SIE research has matured from a simple investigation of individuals who did not quite fit into the original concept of the expatriate manager, into the investigation of a source of mobile, highly skilled human capital, the summary sections of the majority of articles have pointed to the benefits that companies can acquire by making good use of SIEs as a source of capital. Even with the focus on the individual, Inkson et al (1997) noted the benefits for organizations if using this pool of resource-rich individuals, even despite the fact that the SIE assignment is temporary in nature. SIE assignments therefore have the ability to cause issues for HR strategies that encourage retention of key staff members (Mayrhofer, Sparrow and Zimmerman, 2008).

One potential problem for organizations that employ SIEs is their (the SIEs) perceptions of underemployment (Lee, 2005). This issue was first pointed out by Suutari and Brewster (2001) who suggested that whilst individuals are willing to expatriate for career purposes, often these SIEs take jobs at lower levels in an organizational hierarchy than they might in their home country simply to fulfil their need for employment. The findings of Lee (2005) (which show that lack of job autonomy and particularly lack of variety within a job leads to perceptions of underemployment, and ultimately reduced career and job satisfaction), have strong implications for organizations that employ SIEs. To effectively maintain high levels of job satisfaction, companies that employ SIEs need to ensure that they provide high levels of variety in the roles that they offer. Monitoring these roles systematically would provide employers with a system that would help manage SIEs (Lee, 2005).

These are not the only implications for HRM of Self-initiated expatriation, but given the relatively short period of time involved, and the assumption that SIEs will repatriate at some point in the future, there is a question as to whether HRM directed specifically at SIEs is even necessary. However as Howe-Walsh and Schyns (2010) and Aycan (1997) highlight, to benefit as much as possible from SIEs, it is in an organization's best interest to both aid their adjustment, and reduce the time it takes SIEs to adjust. Howe-Walsh and Schyns (2010) suggest a number of HRM strategies for SIEs including mentoring, intercultural training, and non-work support. These proposed strategies are likely to improve work, general and interaction adjustment. Inability to manage the implementation of policies properly may increase the likelihood that individuals will

return to their home country, whilst managing these policies well, may reduce likelihood of SIEs repatriating. The obvious benefits to firms in this case are the retention of key SIE staff members, however as is the case in all research applied to industrial contexts, the benefits of retaining these staff members have to be weighed against the costs of introducing programs to aid in their retention. To retain these SIEs organizations should consider both financial and non-financial rewards for high skilled SIEs (Kim, Halliday, Zhao, Wang and Von Glinow, 2016).

Some of the current research has suggested that this is an issue. The findings of Richardson and McKenna's (2006) study for example show the importance of social and familial relationships for SIEs in providing them with psychological security even after long periods of time. These authors suggest that the management of "self-directed expatriates should therefore take into account the importance of family relationships in the home country and indeed relationships more generally" (Richardson and McKenna, 2006, p18). They also point to the importance of relationships in the host country. This is something for employing organizations to consider in retaining and enhancing the output of their SIE staff. The present research both contributes to the existing literature and extends the current base of literature by further investigating the importance of relationships between SIEs and other individuals in their home and host countries.

In contrast to the research on motives for self-initiated expatriation, there is a stronger theory base to the research on expatriate adjustment and experiences. However, this theory base is still not uniform, and a patchwork of different perspectives try to explain different phenomena from different angles. These perspectives (including those already mentioned) and their respective studies are highlighted in table 2.5, and have either already been discussed above or will be discussed below.

Table 2.5 – SIE Performance and Experiences

Author(s) and Year	Sample	Theoretical Underpinning	Focus
Myers and Pringle (2005)	26 Female, 24 Male "Sojourners"	Career Capital	Investigated Gender difference on international experiences and how this affected career development
Richardson and McKenna (2006)	30 expatriate academics	Black and Gregerson's Model of Allegiance	To explore expatriates self-directed relationships with their home country and host country
Jokinen et al (2008)	200 Finnish Expatriates	Career Capital	To examine the differences in development of career capital between SIEs and AEs
Peltokorpi and Froese (2012)	181 Expatriates in Japan	Cross-Cultural Adjustment and Cultural Fit	The impact of different personality traits on cross-cultural adjustment of SIEs in Japan
Peltokorpi and Froese (2009)	179 Expatriates in Japan	Cross-Cultural Adjustment	Comparison of SIEs and AEs - to see who adjusts better to life in Japan
Lee (2005)	302 SIEs in 39 different organizational settings	No clear theoretical underpinning	Factors that influence underemployment of SIEs
Suutari and Brewster (2001)	400 Finnish Expatriates	No clear theoretical underpinning	Exploratory - identifying differences and similarities in the experiences of SIEs and AEs
Howe-Walsh and Schyns (2010)	No sample	Black, Mendenhall and Oddou's Cultural Adjustment Framework	Propositions on the role of HRM for increasing the performance/speed of reaching potential of SIEs
Selmer and Lauring (2011)	SIE Academics in Nordic countries and the Netherlands	No clear theoretical underpinning	Testing the effect of marital status on work effectiveness and performance of SIEs, with moderating effect of Gender
Cao, Hirschi and Deller (2012)	No Sample	Protean Career Attitude, Career Networks, Cultural Intelligence, Career Capital	A conceptual framework that highlights career attitude, career networks and cultural intelligence as influencing career success

Focusing on the difference between SIEs and AEs, Richardson and McKenna (2006) investigated the experience of 30 expatriate academics, modifying Black and Gregerson's (1992) model of Allegiance to host or home country organizations. Using interviews the authors explored the relationships that SIEs have with individuals in their home country and their host country. While Richardson and McKenna make comparisons between SIEs and AEs by drawing on previous research, Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) and Suutari and Brewster (2001) go a step further by investigating both SIEs and AEs in order to form comparisons. Findings are mixed, with a number of similarities and differences being highlighted between AEs and SIEs – including the similar levels of adjustment (although on slightly different timescales), slight demographic differences between the two groups, with motives also being slightly different – where SIEs are more motivated to improve their employment situation and are more internationally focused.

In contrast to the research that mainly draws on comparison, Myers and Pringle's (2005), Jokinen et al's (2008) and Cao et al's (2014) approach was to build bottom up with regards to a theoretical perspective on SIEs. All have an element of career capital theory underlying their work on SIE career development, experiences and success. Myers and Pringle (2005) find accelerated career development opportunities for SIEs, and as a result a greater career capital.

Jokinen, Brewster and Suutari (2008) found more similarities between the career development of AEs and SIEs, but also some notable differences. Differences include reduced ability of SIEs to link resources internationally, to build organizational networks, and to gain knowledge of people with influence within their organization. Whilst there are apparent differences between these concepts, the question needs to be asked of how these factors do impact SIEs, as these are no less important to SIEs than to AEs, and given the self-direction in network building of SIEs who lack support of parent organizations when moving, this is arguably more important for them.

When directly considering the literature outlined in table 2.5, it is clear that there that whilst there is a restricted theoretical basis to slightly more of the work on SIE experience and performance than there is to SIE decisions to expatriate, there is no clear theoretical theme running through the literature as a whole i.e. there is a lack of theoretical congruence. Whilst a number of theoretical perspectives are more apparent than others –for example protean career attitude, and career capital – these perspectives have not been built upon further or discussed in detail regarding terms of their merits and drawbacks. Some aspects of career capital, such as the influence of networks, are investigated further and accounted for within the conceptual framework of this thesis. Networks are important to investigate further because, whilst there is a suggestion by Jokinen et al (2008) that networks are more important for assigned expatriates than self-initiated expatriates, this difference could be because of the lack of pre-existing networks or access to support networks available to SIEs, a factor not accounted for in previous

work. Whilst current work has looked at the differing impact of networks between SIEs and AEs, as of yet there has been no research that purely focuses on network differences between SIEs, and thus the impact that having different kinds of networks might have on SIEs is currently unknown. So far, theories of career capital are the only ones within SIE scholarship that have considered the role of networks, and these considerations have been brief at best.

Career capital (DeFillippi and Arthur, 1994) consists of three separate yet interlinked ideas. These three ways of *knowing* can be defined as knowing why, knowing how and knowing who. As mentioned previously, *knowing how* envelopes the skills and knowledge that one needs to undertake a job role, *knowing why* is the sense of purpose as to why an individual is following a particular career path, and *knowing whom* is the social capital – the professional and personal relations that are combined in a network and may be beneficial to an individual's career (DeFillippi and Arthur, 1994). Career capital can, and has, been investigated both at the organization level and the individual level.

Knowing why is generically covered, although not necessarily explicitly, by the research that focuses on why individuals expatriate, and who expatriates. The sense of purpose, of adventure, of trying to progress ones career by seeking opportunities outside of the home country are all reasons why an individual may be in the career path of an SIE, thus addressing the knowing why aspect of career capital. Knowing how, is something that varies widely from individual to individual and career to career. For example, academics most probably know what it is that they need to do to achieve success in their careers, whilst less skilled or highly trained individuals may exhibit this less so. Jokinen et al (2008) assessed all three aspects within their research, to investigate the differences between assigned expatriates and SIEs. The findings suggested that in knowing how, the key difference was that SIEs develop significantly less knowledge of their organization than AEs (although both types of expatriate do develop this type of career capital when expatriating). Knowing why also demonstrated little significant difference between SIEs and AEs – both sets of individuals scoring relatively highly on these scales. Interestingly however, SIEs developed their knowing who career capital, their social capital, significantly less than the AEs in the sample studied. This interesting finding suggests that for SIEs, the ability to develop such networks may increase the benefits to them of their experiences abroad, however this is as of yet untested.

As a theoretical underpinning, career capital is rarely found outside of the expatriate literature, and provides insights that has only fleeting relevance to other fields of study. Social Capital on the other hand, the construct that forms the basis for the knowing who aspect of career capital, has been used in a variety of areas (Lin, 2001; Burt, 2001) and is far more widely researched. In order to further understand how the impact of who an SIE knows impacts upon their

development process, social capital seems a far more solid construct upon which to base future research on SIE adjustment and on other aspects of the SIE experience as a whole.

2.3.2 Samples used in prior research on SIE experience and adjustment

The research designs within literature that focuses on the experiences of SIEs (including but not limited to their performance and adjustment), uses both qualitative and quantitative designs, with samples being fairly homogeneous. With the exception of Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) and Froese and Peltokorpi (2012) who focused on SIEs in Japan, all studies focus on European and western countries as their context, given the propensity for people to move around Europe with relative ease. There is a tendency for researchers to focus on SIE academics (Selmer and Luring, 2010; 2011; Richardson and McKenna, 2002) as this group of individuals represents a highly educated group, who by nature must seek their own employment abroad if they desire a global career. As universities rarely have campuses in more than one country (although this is becoming more frequent), the only route open to individuals wishing to gain further experience outside of their home country, is by becoming an SIE. Despite the tendency to investigate SIE academics, there is a large variety in the design and sampling of the research outlined in table 2.5, including academics and other professionals. Many of the studies varied their organizational settings, however similar to research into the motives of SIEs, a number of studies focused on expatriate academics (e.g. Selmer and Luring, 2011; Richardson and McKenna, 2002) as a source of easily accessible, highly skilled labour with the freedom to expatriate of their own accord. Whilst these individuals fit the definition outlined by Cerdin and Selmer (2014), particularly the fourth point about being educated or skilled, as is discussed in the latter section of this literature review, Academic SIEs are viewed as a separate subsection of the SIE population as a whole. Academic SIEs have characteristics that are not generalizable to other SIEs and similarly, do not contain characteristics that many other SIEs contain. Whilst the focus on this group may make the results harder to generalize to less trained individuals, it allows for stricter controls of extraneous variables, and uses an example of individuals who fit well within the definition of SIE.

2.4 The Expatriate Academic

To this point the literature review has focused on SIEs in a broad sense, however much of the literature cited uses Expatriate Academics (EAs) in order to answer broad questions about SIEs as a whole. Whilst this approach has been useful for developing the field of SIE research in general, there are a number of unique characteristics about EAs that mean the results of any research about them have been argued to be less generalizable to the SIE population as a whole (Trembath, 2016). The nuances of EAs as a subgroup of SIEs, the similarities to the rest of the SIE population, and their distinct characteristics will therefore now be addressed. It is important

to do this to understand how AEs have been important to the construction of the SIE paradigm, but how they also possess some distinct differences that mean that they must not be solely relied upon for the development of this construct.

Trembath (2016) defines Expatriate Academics as:

“a member of the higher education sector, who has moved their dominant place of residence across national borders to take up legal, long-term, yet time bound employment in a teaching or research related role within a university environment” (Trembath, 2016, p116).

2.4.1 Similarities and differences

Whilst containing all of the characteristics of the definition of the SIE highlighted earlier in this chapter (individuals who relocate across a national border, for an extended period of time, of their own volition, for work purposes), the EA is specifically a member of a higher education institution, and will be employed within a research or teaching related role within a university environment. Whilst this difference is small, the contextual factors around this difference mean that many parts of the experience of expatriating are unique to the EA, and therefore mean that their experience of expatriating is different from non-academic expatriates.

Higher education, unlike many other industries, is primarily funded by the public sector in the majority of countries in the world (Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley, 2010). Higher education is also very structured in terms of its hierarchy, and the roles that are available for those employed as academics. Therefore for EAs looking to relocate across a national border, there is a level of certainty – 1) in terms of the role in which they will be moving into (e.g. Lecturer, Professor or Dean) and 2) in terms of the activities that they are likely to undertake in their new roles (e.g. teaching and research).

By dint of being an Academic, the individual choosing to expatriate must be highly trained and have gone through a much higher level of education than the majority of the population. The AE therefore is likely to be at least in their mid-twenties, as it would take this long to train and attain a doctorate, allowing them to become a teacher or researcher in an academic institution. This alone would impact generalizability to people younger than their mid-twenties.

Other key differences between SIEs in general and EAs include the lack of variability in industry settings, and also a lack of flexibility in terms of entry mode. The training for an academic is very specific, it requires years of study, and the publication of research. This training lends itself to a career within the higher education sector, however for those individuals who complete their PhD but then decide to apply their knowledge elsewhere, they are no longer considered to be

'an academic' as they will work outside of the higher education or university sector. This means that whilst SIEs in other fields may have the ability to switch industry (dependent upon their role), this flexibility is not available for the EA. Similarly, where as an individual working outside of the academic setting might be afforded a chance by their company to relocate, thus having the option of being an assigned expatriate, this opportunity is not available for the expatriate academic, whose institutions are most often based in a single location. For the academic, if they wish to expatriate, self-initiated expatriation is the only option.

Table 2.6 - Summary of similarities and differences between EAs and the general SIE population

Similarities	Differences for EAs
Relocation across national border	Specifically in the Higher Education Sector
Of own volition	Limited role choice
For extended period of time	High level of education
For work purposes	Specialist knowledge
	Little chance of Assigned Expatriation

2.4.2 Literature specific to expatriate academics

Whilst a number of studies have focused on academic expatriates specifically, the scope of the literature that directly focuses on this group is limited. There are a number of articles that either discuss SIEs but draw their conclusions from studying Expatriate Academics, but there are also a handful of articles that deal with academic expatriates directly as their own phenomenon. These articles are all primarily interested in the reasons for academic expatriation, and characteristics that could influence decisions to expatriate, or experiences whilst expatriating. Selmer and Luring (2009; 2010; 2011; 2012) and Richardson and McKenna (2002) both deal directly with these factors, referencing EAs as a subcategory of SIEs. Trembath (2016) deals with EAs as a group in their own right.

Early in the development of the SIE concept Richardson and McKenna (2002) used metaphors to understand the motivations of EAs to expatriate, and to understand their experiences whilst abroad. This approach led the authors to draw a number of conclusions (that have since been applied more generally to the SIE population as a whole). Reasons given for expatriation include to explore, to escape, for monetary purposes, and for career building. Experiences during expatriation include exploring, overcoming difficulty, making connections primarily with others of the same nationality but living abroad, proactive establishment of friendships and networks, and continuous learning. These themes, whilst common across many SIEs, also have a

uniqueness when specifically applied to EAs, because of the disparity between the work of an academic and the work of somebody within a more industrial setting. These themes have been nonetheless built upon by other SIE and EA scholars.

Selmer and Luring (2011) highlight that the difference in reasons for expatriation of EAs is dependent upon their acquired demographic characteristics such as their marital status, and seniority. They found that whilst all academics in their study were more likely to expatriate for the purpose of career building than any other factor, that those more junior were also significantly more likely to also wish to expatriate with a sense of adventure or travel in their mind. Those with previous experience were found to be more likely to expatriate with family in mind than those with little previous experience.

Selmer and Luring (2012) building upon the reasons for expatriation, found that different intentions upon expatriating for EAs had different impacts upon their experiences in the workplace when abroad. Specifically the authors uncovered that when individuals were expatriating to 'escape' a previous life, that they were more likely to experience detrimental effects to their work life, in comparison with those who expatriated for other reasons. The authors noted however that EAs are a comparatively privileged group of SIEs and thus these results are not necessarily generalizable. Other studies by the same authors have focused on adjustment to the new environment from a different angle.

Rather than focusing on work outcomes, and how they are impacted by differing motives for expatriating, Selmer and Luring (2009) find that there is no difference in the ability of EAs to adjust in environments that are both culturally similar and culturally different from their home countries. These findings act to support previous work that investigates assigned expatriates, who also have as difficult a time adjusting to culturally similar environments as they do culturally different ones. This finding is important because it suggests that whilst there are differences between SIEs, EAs and AEs, that there are also generalities that apply to the whole expatriate population. This is not the view held of every scholar, some of whom study EAs not as part of the wider group of SIEs, but treat them as their own separate entity (Trembath, 2016).

Trembath (2016) argues for construct clarity, and using consistent terminology – referring directly to SIE expatriates as expatriate academics. Summarising other research into EAs, the author suggests that whilst it is still in its infancy, there is a strong enough body of literature to build upon in order to continue research into expatriate academics. The author concludes that a three pronged approach should be undertaken in order to progress the field and fill current gaps in literature: firstly there should be a continuation of the qualitative work that currently makes up the bulk of AE and SIE literature, secondly the author suggests charting EAs using

random sampling methods, and thirdly by conducting replication studies in order to understand variance across results (Trembath, 2016). The current thesis takes this advice into consideration when building the research design, and thus looks at EAs independently of other SIEs, taking into consideration the nuances of this subset of the SIE group. Differently from Trembath (2016), this research takes the stance that work on EAs is generalizable, at least in part, to the population of SIEs as a whole, because of the numerous similarities between the two, and the lack of context often applied within SIE definitions. As long as similarities and differences between EAs and SIEs are considered concurrently with the context and scope of the research at hand, then there should not be a substantial issue with generalizability.

Whilst there is a growing body of literature on EAs, this literature is still small, and as with other SIE literature, lacks clarity in direction, and is devoid of theoretical guidance. Evident by its omission from the results of numerous literature searches and published literature reviews, there is no research that currently attempts to decipher the final phase of expatriation for EAs. It is important to investigate this phenomenon further as EAs are integral to the success of the higher education sector globally (Altbach et al, 2010). To grow this literature base, it is preferable to look at studies of other SIEs, and to extend these theories into the EA space, whilst being mindful of the distinctiveness of EAs as a group.

2.5 The End of Self-Initiated Expatriation

2.5.1 Staying versus moving on

If broken into phases, the third and final phase of being an SIE, after initial expatriation (phase 1) and experiencing expatriation (phase 2) is the end to the process of being an SIE. Options include repatriation, transition into another mode of internationally mobile individual, or by migration to a host country permanently. There are arguably differences in this transitional phase for SIEs than there are for other groups of internationally mobile or internationally displaced individuals (e.g. refugees). As there is no literature that currently investigates the repatriation of EAs, this section of the literature review will be composed of literature that focuses exclusively on non-academic SIEs.

As Haslberger and Vaiman state, (2013) “A difference between SIEs and migrants is that SIEs are not necessarily fleeing bad conditions (economically) in their host country. Unlike immigrants they do not intend to remain abroad permanently. Unlike refugees they are not fleeing political climates, but instead are seeking new development opportunities independently” (p12). This distinction underscores the issues of permanence and symbolic status within a country that SIEs and migrants both face (Al-Ariss, 2010), but also the increased options that SIEs have to return

to their country of origin. For EAs this is similar. There is a level of permanence sought, however EAs have the option to return home.

Working expatriates, both company assigned and self-initiated are assumed to be returning at some point in the future, either at an (often)-predetermined point in the case of AEs or an undefined time-point in the case of SIEs. That this time is undefined for SIEs is not because the return is not intended --permanent departure has not been outlined as a motive of self-initiated expatriation -- but because it is a decision that can be influenced by a number of other factors. Most SIEs wish to return permanently, even if they cannot be specific about the date at which they will return (Altman and Baruch, 2012). However, the relative permanence of an individual's expatriation is neither intransigent nor statutory, it is not pre-defined or determined by law (unless explicitly limited by Visa length for example). Therefore when individuals move abroad they may be self-initiated expatriates, but if they decide that this move is to be permanent, then they would transition into the category of being a migrant (Doherty et al, 2013). The point at which an SIE stops being an SIE is not the same experience for everyone, and very much, as with expatriation motivation, an individual decision. Ultimately, however, the majority of individuals do repatriate, even if there is not a specific time-frame set (Richardson and McKenna, 2006). Previous research has shown that the average length of stay for the SIE ranges from roughly 6 to 8 years (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010; Doherty, Dickman & Mills, 2012; Doherty, 2013), and roughly similar for an expatriate academic (Lauring and Selmer, 2015).

SIEs have choice of destination not afforded to assigned expatriates, they control the length of their stay, and have complete ownership over their decision to expatriate, and largely their choice of location; these are things that AEs do not have control over. For AEs, whatever their motivations in leaving, the time limit on their repatriation is pre-defined. Their job role when they return is also pre-determined by their employing organization. For SIEs, whilst motivations for repatriating may differ, there is less *sense of adventure* or even ability to *escape* when repatriating – two of the major motivations highlighted for SIEs when leaving (Inkson et al, 1997; Richardson and McKenna, 2002). Regarding jobs upon return, there is no pre-determination for SIEs. They have no employing organization to provide them with a job role. Instead, they rely much more upon finding a role themselves. In the host country, individuals settle for lower jobs than they would usually accept in the home country (Lee, 2005; Suutari and Brewster, 2001) but upon return would look to assume a similar or better role than that of the one before they left. As one of Altman and Baruch's interviewees stated: *"I think it's more by luck or by circumstance, it's fortuitous that if at the time you want to go back there is a fit and if not, you end up somewhere else"* (Altman and Baruch, 2012, p244).

It is therefore important for SIEs to have access to certain ways of finding other job roles when they return if they are not only to rely upon luck. In this respect, Altman and Baruch (2012) suggest the importance of personal and professional contacts upon repatriation. The authors conducted interviews with a number of repatriated SIEs, and found that *“[repatriation] is even more open to self-initiation than expatriation itself. Therefore assuming responsibility, taking the initiative and being in the know-how of developments back home was seen as paramount to engendering opportunities”*. (Altman and Baruch, 2012, p244). For this to happen, it is an important aspect of expatriation and repatriation to have some level of network to stay abreast of pertinent information. Richardson and McKenna (2006) found that 1/3 of the individuals in their sample suggested relationships in the home country would be one of the main reasons for repatriation. Concluding on their research, they call for a more nuanced approach to the management of SIEs relationships with their home and host countries. Relationships therefore, are not only a factor that could help individuals in finding jobs when they return, but could be a factor that influence the decision to return in the first place. The impact of networks and relationships however is largely underexplored, not only in the self-initiated repatriation literature, but in the SIE literature in general.

Currently, only two other studies have dealt directly with repatriation or intentions to stay in the host country: Cao et al (2014) and Tharenou and Caulfield (2010). Both of these studies, in contrast to the research previously mentioned, are quantitative in nature. Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) work is the only longitudinal study investigating SIEs, and is probably the most theoretically comprehensive work within the SIE repertoire of research, proposing a model of repatriation by SIEs that is informed by the literature on domestic embeddedness (Mitchell, Holtom and Lee, 2001), and on contemporary turnover theory (March and Simon, 1958; Lee, Gerhart, Weller and Trevor, 2008). The authors suggest a number of key factors that influence repatriation that can be labelled as either 'pull factors', 'push factors' or 'shocks'. Push factors are those that relate to the perceived desirability of leaving, Pull factors are those that relate to the perceived ease of leaving, and Shocks are purely jarring events. Pull to remain, or host country embeddedness are factors that negatively relate to intention to repatriate. Other factors that influence intention to repatriate are individuals' sense of national identity, and actions that are heavily correlated with turnover intentions (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sabinski, and Erez, 2001).

What Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) work highlights the impact of interpersonal links with the home or host country in the decision to repatriate, as was the case with Altman and Baruch (2012) and Richardson and McKenna (2006). Links in the case of Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) work are tied implicitly to the concept of embeddedness. An individual's embeddedness

depends upon the potential sacrifices, (interpersonal-) links and fit that an individual perceives they would have to make if repatriating (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010). Links and are connections with people, groups and institutions that individuals have gained through their job (Mitchell et al, 2001).

Given the importance of interpersonal links with the home and host country that are stated in the existing (but limited) literature on SIE repatriation, there is surprisingly little investigation into the impact of social networks of individuals on their repatriation. Cao, Hirschi and Deller (2014) are the first within the SIE literature to specifically address social networks, suggesting that career networks, specifically those between the individual and home or host country nationals, moderate the effect of perceived organizational satisfaction on the SIEs intention to stay in their host country. SIEs that have small numbers of host country nationals in their network, (rather than large numbers of host country nationals), there is an increase in the significant effect of perceived organizational support on SIE career satisfaction (Cao et al, 2014). SIEs who are high in career satisfaction are more likely to stay in their host country and less likely to repatriate (Cao et al, 2014). The effect that having a large home country national network has as a moderator on this interaction, is not that it simply reduces the positive relationship between career satisfaction and likelihood of staying, but it inverts the relationship into a negative one (Cao et al, 2014) (it is worth noting that Cao et al (2014) only provide very limited discussion around this finding).

A number of other factors have been suggested to influence repatriation, and many of these reasons are rooted in relationships, ties, links or connections with others. Richardson and McKenna (2006) highlight the importance of relationships in the home country, whilst Altman and Baruch (2012) point out that for SIEs being aware of developments in the home country is almost a necessary pre-requisite to repatriating. Whilst Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) highlight the push factors, pull factors and shocks – factors that keep people in a host country, or push them away from a host country – they point out the significance of links to community and career. Career networks in the host country of nationally similar others has been pointed out as a factor that moderates perceived organizational satisfaction/career satisfaction – a factor that has a direct effect upon an SIEs likelihood of staying in a host country (Cao et al, 2014).

These results point to the importance of interpersonal links with others and networks as a factor that is important in influencing the repatriation of SIEs. Whilst Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) proposed model took into account the links with locals, and relationships with others, its derivation from job embeddedness theories puts most influence on the job role or career itself, and less influence on the relationships that an individual builds with others as a factor that may influence repatriation. The research presented in this thesis addresses this gap by taking an

approach and that gives much more importance to the relationship between an individual and others, using Social Capital Theory (Lin, 1999; Burt 2000). Social capital theory and the investigation of social networks provides the perspective that is needed to fully account for the relationships between an SIE and others around them that may influence their decision to repatriate, and provides a contrasting, yet complimentary perspective to that of Tharenou and Caulfield (2010).

Whilst no published literature that specifically investigates the repatriation intentions of expatriate academics exists, given the larger similarity between EAs and the rest of the SIE cohort (in comparison to EAs and Assigned Expatriates), it is important to draw from the above discussed SIE body of literature in order to attempt to build an understanding of how EAs might view and experience repatriation. However looking only at SIE literature alone does not provide any consideration of the specific context of repatriating from an academic role. Conclusions relating to this are more suitably drawn from domestic turnover literature that specifically references and focuses on academics and faculty staff.

Directly investigating faculty staff, and the increasing pressure on academics as the number of research fields expands, Padilla-Gonzalez and Galaz-Fontes (2015) cite Job Satisfaction as a key factor in predicting academic retention. This relationship is mediated by job stability, and working conditions. Because of this, the research found that younger, less experienced faculty members were more likely to intend to leave academia. Whilst academic SIEs might not intend to leave academia, the fact that they are working within a foreign institutional context may be a cause for increased perceptions of instability, and therefore may have an impact on intentions to repatriate, and at least leave academia in their host country. Building stability alongside job satisfaction therefore might facilitate academic retention of SIE academics.

Whilst job satisfaction is discussed, there is little crossover research that investigates the impact on academic turnover of career networks (as seen in Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) work), or of international links and ties (as is the case of Cao et al's (2014) work. The closest to work that broaches both topics is that by Pezzoni, Sterzi and Lissoni (2012) who investigate the role of social capital in academic careers. Rather than focusing on turnover, the authors discuss career progression (or lack thereof), being dependent upon links and ties to scientific researchers, that allow increased opportunity for publishing. Specifically, the authors explain career progress by the academic's affiliation to important research organizations, their social ties with senior members of their academic field (who can provide them with access to social capital), and their commitment to work with other members of their own departments that may be more senior than they are (Pezzoni et al, 2012). In the institutional settings of France and Italy, the authors demonstrate, that similarly to SIEs, career progression (or in the case of SIEs - decisions to return

home) can be influenced by the ties that each individual has with other members of their profession.

2.5.2 Theoretical explanations of the end of the SIE life-cycle

With few studies directly investigating self-initiated repatriation, there is not a large enough base of literature to draw from to highlight a clear and overarching theoretical underpinning to the topic of self-initiated repatriation. Table 2.6 below highlights this, but also shows the theoretical underpinnings that have currently been used within research on the factors that influence SIE decisions to remain in their host country or to return to their home country. There is a need for further work to use a theoretical basis that draws the current work closer together. This is the goal of the current thesis, by using a social capital approach.

Table 2.7 – SIE Repatriation

Author(s) and Year	Sample	Theoretical Underpinning	Focus
Tharenou and Caulfield (2010)	546 Australians	Turnover theory, Job Embeddedness Theory	To create an integrated framework to understand repatriation of SIEs
Cao, Hirschi and Deller (2014)	112 SIEs in Germany	Organizational Support, Career Satisfaction and Networks	Examining the effect of intention to remain in host country as a result of organizational support, moderated by career satisfaction and mediated by networks

Repatriation naturally lends itself to being understood in the context of turnover theory (March and Simon, 1958). The two concepts are similar in nature, both entail leaving a job, although repatriation also entails leaving a host country. The March and Simon (1958) model of turnover suggests that the ease of leaving an organization and the attractiveness of leaving work together to influence the act of leaving a job role. Repatriation for the SIE can also be understood in a similar context, with the ease and attractiveness of leaving/staying having an influence on actual repatriation decisions. Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) understand this in terms of embeddedness.

By extending on embeddedness theory, and emphasizing the links and fit of individuals in their host country, Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) point to the importance of contacts and networks in the host country, without investigating it further. Cao et al (2014) more explicitly build upon network-based theories in their hypothesis development, although very little attention is paid

to its role in the discussion. For example Cao et al (2014) highlight the importance of networks in moderating the relationship between perceived organizational support and intention to stay (that is, that the more home country nationals in an individual's network, the stronger and more negative the link between organizational support and intention to stay). The implication is that whilst individuals with networks containing few individuals from their home country may be likely to stay longer in the host country when given greater organizational support, that this relationship reverses when larger numbers of home-country nationals are present in the SIEs network. This relationship is difficult to explain by looking at network structure alone, and therefore theories incorporating networks, but that do not only focus on structural aspects of networks, can help in understanding this relationship further.

Whilst both of the studies (Cao et al, 2014 and Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010) investigate SIE repatriation then have a network angle to their theoretical basis, neither explicitly focuses on the role that an SIEs contacts can play in their decisions to remain in the host country or repatriate. Cao et al's (2014) study does mention the impact of networks indirectly, but does not explore further the direct impact of network relationships, only commenting on the indirect effects.

There have been several other calls, both direct and indirect, for a more focused investigation of the how social networks influence SIEs. Indirectly, there are calls for research fully exploring SIE relationships (Doherty, 2013), the value of social relationships and their significant impact on decisions to stay or return have been discussed (Richardson and McKenna, 2006), and networks that provide information about employment in the home country have been highlighted as useful for those intending to repatriate (Altman and Baruch, 2012).

More explicitly, Doherty et al (2013) call for the investigation of networks and ties in the context of SIEs, and Cao et al (2014) directly call for further study of career networks to be theorized and examined in more detail. In the case of the latter, the authors call for further explanation of the surprising finding that network size of home-country nationals affects SIEs' intention to leave the host country and pose a suggestion that transnational networks (Saxenian, 2005) might be a way to explain the phenomenon. Large transnational networks may provide SIEs with cross-border business and professional opportunities that would then influence their decision to return to their home countries; acquiring career capital during SIE experience could be a stepping-stone for an SIEs future career. A more solid theoretical perspective on the impact of networks, and the benefits of network membership is needed to help the field advance further, and to properly understand the impact on SIEs of being connected with others.

The role of networks for acquiring career capital is mentioned by Cao et al (2014) in their work on self-initiated repatriation, but the actual role of these networks is not the focus of their work, and not expanded upon in detail, and thus any findings about the contingent nature of social networks when it comes to influencing repatriation intentions, is lost. Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) whilst focusing on embeddedness, also discuss the links that an individual would/could potentially lose when they repatriate. These links point towards the ability to secure resources, through networks or otherwise in the host country, and therefore the two pieces of literature on SIE repatriation also point towards the usefulness of understanding the link between networks and SIEs. Other than these two pieces of research there is little work attempting to understand the factors that keep SIEs in the host country, and given the increasing number of SIEs predicted to be part of the workforce by 2018, there has never been a stronger requirement for research into such phenomenon. SIEs, whilst not having the formal support networks provided to AEs by their employing organizations, still require resources and information to aid them in the host country, resources and information that most likely are obtainable through networks of contacts – through access to social capital.

Regarding expatriate academics specifically, whilst no direct work on repatriation for this specific group currently exists, as demonstrated by Pezzoni et al (2012), networks can have a strong influence on career progression at a domestic level, and this lack of career progression opportunities could influence an EAs decision to find career progression in a different location (such as back in their home country).

A solid basis for researching the role of an EA's network contacts would therefore be that of social capital theory, a theory that is also compatible with much of the previous research conducted on SIE experiences by investigating the role of career capital. Specifically social capital theory helps to explain the *knowing who* aspect of career capital, and social capital theory is explicitly discussed during the explanation of this concept within the literature (e.g. in Jokinen et al, 2008).

Social capital, "an investment in social relations with expected returns in the marketplace" (Lin, 2001, p1) has been highlighted within domestic-oriented literature as useful for obtaining resources and job opportunities (Granovetter, 1974), but its influence on international assignments and SIEs is currently unknown. Therefore, an investigation of the impact of social capital is warranted to understand how ties and relationships impact upon SIEs and to give more insight into the knowing whom portion of career capital theory. A social capital investigation not only acts to address further Jokinen et al (2008) finding that SIEs build networks less well than assigned expatriates, but also looks at how individual differences in these networks impact SIEs differently. Social capital would not only prove a practical perspective, but also would provide a

more theoretical approach than currently exists to analysing SIEs. Social capital has already been discussed in terms of domestic career progression for those within the field of academia, and given the importance of networks to other SIE repatriation intentions, the social capital lens would prove a useful tool for investigating the repatriation intentions of expatriate academics.

2.6 Overall Assessment

After reviewing the existing literature on SIEs and expatriate academics, including literature that covers the stages of expatriation experienced by an SIE (including reasons and decisions to expatriate, the experiences of the SIEs abroad, and their decisions to remain in or leave their host country), several things become apparent. A number of gaps, or spaces for further research that could fundamentally aid the progress of SIE and EA research exist. Firstly and most importantly, this group (SIEs) is an important and under-researched part of the overall expatriate population. Expatriate academics, are even further neglected as a research focus, despite their growing importance for higher education sectors globally. As a young and growing field of research, a recent increase in publications and specialist journals in the field of global mobility can be evidenced, however there still exists a level of ambiguity with regards to the clarity of SIE as a concept. This lack of clarity has thus far limited the insights possible.

Secondly, this lack of clarity has led to researchers with the same goal, (i.e. highlighting the importance of and providing research into SIEs) taking different theoretical perspectives on each of the topics, or simply exploring the topics without using theory to guide their research. The lack of uniformity is to some extent a circular phenomenon. A lack of understanding of the theoretical drivers behind events such as SIE repatriation has led researchers to conduct exploratory work, however this exploratory work often does little to extend or cement any theoretical underpinning to the field. What becomes apparent when reading the literature, is that membership of networks has an impact upon many of the major decisions SIEs have to make. However what is also apparent is that there is no clear theoretical basis to any of the work currently conducted that properly considers the roles of these networks, connections and contacts with others. Cao et al's (2014) research, for example, mentions but does not focus on social networks. By focusing on networks, one could address the lack of insight into the contingent effect of social networks.

Thus far, and with the exception of relatively recent work (e.g. Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Cao et al, 2014), research in the SIE field has been driven by a desire to understand the constraints of the construct, to clarify concepts, and to explore relatively small, focused concepts such as job satisfaction. Whilst there is a validity in drawing comparisons with research that focuses on traditional company-assigned expatriates, especially if the comparison is used to

drive forward a theoretical explanation or model that explains large phenomena, this process generally serves to limit the SIE field so that it simply appears as a subsection of the general expatriate literature. Instead if the field is to grow, there should be a concerted effort by academics to consider SIEs as their own entities, and to extend theories so that they explain the concepts embodied by SIE, or to build models that explain phenomenon rather than just describing them. Whilst it is acceptable to build these models on the premise that similar experiences, outcomes and phenomenon have been seen, observed or measured in the assigned expatriate context, it is useful, as Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) and as Cao et al (2014) have done, to build theory that attempt to explain larger phenomenon such as repatriation/intention to stay in host country as experienced by SIEs as a group of their own. The building of such theory needs to account for the importance that networks play in decisions of SIEs, something that as of yet, has been largely neglected. Expatriate Academics, as a subgroup of SIEs are bound by the same constraints as SIEs. Instead of being compared to assigned expatriates, they should be investigated as a group in their own right, as they have their own specific hurdles and issues that are not faced by either assigned expatriates, or the wider SIE group. Conversely, the similarities that do exist between EAs and SIEs allows for conclusions about the larger encompassing group to be drawn from a study that primarily focuses on the smaller group. This precedent has previously been set by work about SIEs as a whole that build on studies that focus solely on expatriate academics (e.g. Selmer and Lauring, 2009; Selmer and Lauring, 2010; Richardson and McKenna, 2002)

There are also a number of positive themes in the current literature on SIEs. For example, whilst Doherty, Richardson and Thorn (2013) assert that the base of work on SIEs, whilst growing, is doing so without any clear direction, more recently there are a number of theorists attempting to bring a capital based focus to the SIE field. Specifically authors have alluded to the impact of expatriation upon career capital, but have not given much discussion to the impact that access to certain types of capital might have upon the development or other outcomes of SIEs. Looking at what access to different types of resources does for an SIE brings a different yet useful perspective, and one that has the ability to help answer questions posed in previous research, such as how does who an individual knows (their access to social capital) have an impact upon the SIE. As a capital based approach that also accounts for the importance of social networks, extending social capital theory to the SIE context fills a large gap currently left in the literature.

Reviewing the literature, highlights that whilst there is an SIE life cycle, more research has been conducted on certain parts of that life cycle than other parts. Particularly lacking, is research that investigates the end of being an SIE. This stage of the life cycle is arguably the most relevant in the current economic climate. With companies looking to retain a competitive advantage and

Finaccord's (2014) prediction of the highest number of SIEs globally by 2017, an understanding of factors that influence their decisions to remain in their host country or to leave for their home country is of increasing importance. Even less research has been conducted on academic expatriates, and therefore increasing this literature base is important.

Whilst a limited amount of work has been done on this topic, more needs to be done in particular, to (1) address the lack of focus on social networks in SIE and EA research, (2) to address the lack of accounting for different facets of these networks, and (3) address the lack of accounting for contingent influence of networks on SIE intention to repatriate. As highlighted above all of these three factors are important to address, and current literature has neglected to do this. To address these gaps I suggest that the current research should focus (a) on the repatriation intentions of self-initiated expatriates, specifically on expatriate academics, to address the need for greater understanding of these processes. The current research will address this by (b) looking to build on work by authors such as Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) and Cao et al (2014) who whilst pointing towards the importance of networks, did not account for the contingent effects of networks on repatriation intention. To do this, the present research will (c) adopt a social capital based approach to the study of SIE repatriation intentions, as this will allow for the accounting of different facets of each EA's network. The adoption of this approach stems from SIE repatriation literature, and domestic turnover literature on academics.

2.6.1 Social networks and social capital as promising theoretical approaches to study EA repatriation

Social networks have begun to be recognised as important factor but remain under-explored in the context of SIE repatriation. There is currently no research on the repatriation of Expatriate Academics. While Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) highlight the influence of interpersonal links, and Cao et al (2014) point to the role of social networks as influential in repatriation decisions, the actual mechanisms and structures of these social networks, and the contingent effects of interpersonal links remain underexplored.

I suggest that Social capital theory as an over-arching lens would provide much insight if extended to the EA and thus the SIE context and contribute to filling some of the key gaps outlined in the current literature outline above. Social capital theory is a theory that highlights both the usefulness of social relations with others, and the outcomes of such relationships. As SIE relationships are as important as suggested by previous research into domestic turnover of academics, and in SIE repatriation literature, then approaching the problem from a theoretical angle that is about social relationships is the most appropriate way to proceed with research in

this field. The measurement of social relationships within social capital theory is primarily achieved by observing the impact of social networks.

2.6.2 Social network analysis as empirical method to investigate SIE intention to repatriate

Research designs have taken two general approaches within the SIE field; qualitative interview for exploring phenomenon in more depth, and quantitative inquiry for testing more specific hypotheses. There has been a data driven approach to SIE scholarship, with a large use of convenience samples which has been suggested as a cause for concern, as the broad scope and lack of clarity in whom to investigate has the capability to undermine the SIE construct (Doherty et al, 2013), however this lack of clarity also potentially widens the SIE construct constructively, enhancing its appeal as a topic of research.

As a construct that grew to fill a gap within a pre-existing area of research – the expatriate area – the demography of SIEs were initially unclearly defined. This lack of construct clarity (Suddaby, 2010; Doherty et al, 2013) means that researchers have been free to include anybody within their sample a) who is not an assigned expatriate – not sent abroad by a company, and b) who has self-initiated their own expatriation. As time has continued and the body of research has increased, some broad patterns can be noted regarding individual characteristics of SIEs, however many of these are constrained by the sampling method/technique and also the focus of the research.

Rather than arguing for who should or should not be included within the SIE sample, thus including a number of heterogeneous individuals, the initial building of a theoretical perspective should attempt to control its sample accordingly, to allow the key theoretical issues to be properly measured and analysed. As the construct of SIE is now more clearly defined, looking at a smaller subsection of SIEs therefore allows not only for greater control, but also allows an insight into a more under-researched group. In the vein of a number of previous SIE researchers, this research chooses to use SIE academics as its sample, this negating the impact of vastly different levels of education.

Looking at academic expatriates not only allows to for a look into a group who expatriate of their own accord, but also provides a vital insight into how expatriate academics might differ from other SIEs. Secondly, the SIEs in question come from Germany and have expatriated to the United Kingdom. This, whilst limiting the sample to a specific context, reduces the influence on repatriation or expatriation decisions caused by visas, or wildly different institutional differences in the home countries. Both countries have similar sized economies, are the largest in Europe, in the top ten world economies, and are not limited by visas due to the freedom of movement

principles of the EU (of which both are members). Germans were chosen not because of any specific factors about Germans, but because Germans were viewed as coming from a country with similar levels of industry, and similarly competitive higher education sectors, with both having roughly 40 universities in the global top 500 (Shanghai Ranking, 2017).

Not only has sampling previously been a methodological constraint, but the choice of methodological focus has led to a lack of depth in insights. Despite the suggestion by authors such as Doherty et al (2013), Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) and Cao et al (2014) that SIEs social networks are important, none of the methods used to collect and analyse data in these pieces of research have fully accounted for the contingent influence of networks. Whilst questionnaires and interviews can gather information about an individual, information about the interpersonal links possessed by the EA is better obtained from the use of social network analysis.

Social Networks are defined as a set of nodes that are tied or connected by relations (Wasserman and Faust, 1994), and a major appeal of using social network analysis is that it brings its own unique lens to the examination of micro, macro and meso-level phenomenon. A social network approach ideally meets the calls of authors to “adopt a macro, micro and meso level approach in order to facilitate the development of theoretical connections and organize the research stream” (Doherty, 2013, p459), whilst also contributing to the *knowing who* question posed within the career capital literature (DeFillippi and Arthur, 1994).

However, whilst enabling the exploration of EAs networks structurally, simply using social networks as the tool of analysis to investigate networks provides little theoretical value or extension to the SIE construct. Therefore social networks as a tool of investigation within the social capital field is the ideal foundation upon which to build the current research, in order to address the gaps within the SIE literature. This tool is housed within a more traditional survey research methodology to allow for the capture and exploration of non-network, capital related concepts. Social capital theory asserts that individuals can access resources through network ties (Lin, 2001) and then use these resources that they have accessed through the networks. Social capital theory is discussed in more depth in the following chapters. Given how important access to social capital has been proven to be for obtaining resources outside of the expatriate context (Lin, 2001; Burt, 2001; Coleman, 1988; Granovetter, 1974), it is logical to extend its use to research the role it plays within the SIE context.

Social capital and social networks are important for the career choices of SIEs, especially as their move to the host country is initiated by themselves and not by an employer, as is the case for assigned expatriates. Social capital allows EAs the possibility of not only relying upon themselves, social capital facilitates actions (Coleman, 1988), and can create advantages (Burt,

2005) for the SIE, that may not be available to them without access to social capital using social networks.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an introduction to self-initiated expatriates, the focal population of the current research. Having discussed current definitions of self-initiated expatriates, and the qualities of the population as a whole, it is now possible to describe a self-initiated expatriate as an individual whom moves abroad of their own volition, and who fund their own move. This group's demography is heterogeneous, equally split in gender, generally under the age of 55, and usually assumed to be from economically prosperous nations as they can afford to fund their own expatriation. SIEs desire international experience and adventure, but often the career is the strongest reason for expatriation. Little is known directly about repatriation of SIEs, but many studies point to relationships, links with others and social networks having an impact. Based upon these findings its necessary and appropriate to extend social capital theory in the self-initiated expatriate arena, in order to help further explain repatriation of SIEs further.

An investigation of the life-cycle of an SIE highlighted both the lack of investigation into (a) the final part of the life cycle, and an SIEs intention to remain in their host country or to leave and repatriate, and (b) the role of SIEs direct social networks and the contingent effect that they might have on SIE intentions to repatriate. The chapter finished by suggesting social capital theory as the theoretical approach that should be taken to address these gaps in SIE literature.

This chapter provides the foundations for the research and research context, the following chapters will build upon this by exploring social capital theory further, and then combining and extending the two sets of literatures to formulate testable hypotheses that investigate how social capital theory and social networks influence self-initiated expatriates repatriation decisions.

3 Social Capital Theory

This chapter reviews the literature on social capital theory. The structure of this chapter will be as follows: First, it will discuss the concepts of capital and social capital, providing some definitions and outlining core concepts for clarification. Included is an assessment of the common elements amongst definitions of social capital, and the definition(s) used in this research. Following is a discussion of the basic logic of social capital theory, including outlines and discussion of underlying assumptions and principles of the theory. The chapter will then move to discuss insights and current applications of social capital theory, both generally across the broad scope of the research that it covers, and then more specifically within the HRM and expatriate literature. The chapter then moves on to a discussion of the concept/paradigm of social network analysis, including a brief discussion of its origins and purposes. This is followed by an explanation of the relationship between social network analysis and social capital theory, including justifications for its usefulness within the arena of self-initiated expatriate research, drawing conclusions on expatriate academics.

By structuring the chapter in this way, a number of key objectives can be achieved. Firstly, by giving insight into social capital theory, its underlying principles and assumptions, and the background research involving social capital theory, it is possible to explore the usefulness of extending social capital theory into the SIE context. Secondly, by exploring the link between social network analysis and social capital theory, it is possible in later chapters to formulate a succinct and theory-based research approach to understanding how different dimensions of EAs' ego-networks have a contingent effect on EAs' intentions to repatriate. Finally, by outlining the usefulness of social capital theory within the area of SIE and EA research in the latter stages of this chapter, it is possible to outline under-developed areas within social capital theory, and to identify areas into which social capital theory can be developed further in to build a number of testable hypotheses.

Social capital theory is important in the context of the current research because of the potential it has to unify a number of different theoretical approaches to self-initiated expatriation and repatriation. Social capital theory's focus on the benefits (or otherwise) that can be attained from connections, relationships and social networks can be extended to cover SIE networks, relationships and connections, and thus from a theoretical perspective, help explain why networks and relationships are so important for self-initiated expatriates, particularly in their intentions to repatriate.

Social capital theory and social network analysis have been highlighted towards the end of the previous chapter as being potentially insightful theoretical underpinnings that would allow

greater understanding of the relationship-based factors that might influence SIEs and ultimately EAs to repatriate or to remain in their host countries (e.g. Cao et al, 2014; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010). Social capital theory allows us to understand the role that resources obtained through connections has in both obtaining future resources, and retaining current resources. In the case of the expatriate academic, this is important because the access to different types of connections could influence the types of resources available, and thus the decisions to either remain or return home. Resources for the expatriate academic can come in many forms, for example in the form of support from host country nationals, or information from individuals based in the home country. This is just one example of a scenario that could be influenced by social capital, and the rest of this chapter aims to highlight the mechanisms by which social capital may be important. Whilst access to social capital through networks may not be the only factor that is important in influencing SIE and academic expatriates' intentions to repatriate, given the discussion of and indirect focus on networks, connections and embeddedness of previous research investigating SIE intentions to repatriate (Cao et al, 2014; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010), this research has chosen a social capital lens as the primary theoretical underpinning by which to investigate intentions to repatriate further.

It is worth noting the structural nature of the current chapter. Effort is placed on building a grounded understanding of social capital theory outside of the SIE context, before discussing social capital in HRM, International HRM, SIE or AE contexts. Throughout the chapter there are mentions of how each facet of social capital theory is relevant to the SIE and EA context, but the bulk of this is saved for section 3.4.2, where the previous foundations are pulled together. Factually speaking, literature searches of relevant databases yield very few results that apply the social capital approach relevant to the current study (see section 3.4 for greater detail on the individual/internal approach). Therefore this chapter lays ground work for chapter 4, where hypotheses are developed based on a combination of the literature outlined in chapters 2 and 3. Whilst there is little research that focuses on the individual internal approach to social capital theory within the HRM context, effort is made within each subsection of the chapter to show the relevance of the social capital theory research discussed to SIEs, EAs, or academics in general, and to show how research to date applies and impacts these groups of individuals.

3.1 Social Capital – Core Concepts and Definitions

To allow greater understanding of the literature reviewed in following sections, an initial overview of development of social capital theory, the core concepts of social capital theory, and the definitions of social capital are presented in this section. The original Marxist theory of capital is discussed initially, as the roots of social capital theory, human capital theory and other theories of capital all stem from this concept. If social capital theory is to become an accepted

and widely used theoretical construct within the self-initiated expatriate context, that provides useful contributions, then this initial discussion is important because of the current conversation by authors (e.g. Doherty, 2013) of how SIE relates to another capital related concept – career capital.

3.1.1 Social capital – Definitions in the literature

In order to understand the concept of social capital, it is important to understand its roots in classic theories of capital/theories of capital that preceded its existence, and its links to other types of capital such as human capital.

The *theory* of capital relies on the *concept* of capital. Capital as a theory and capital as a concept are both separate and intertwined. The concept of capital can be traced back to Marx who described it as a by-product of the production and exchange of goods and commodities (Marx, 1867). Capital (the concept) is the surplus value created by capitalists, who sell their resources for further profit (Marx, 1867). Marx's *theory* of capital describes the process of production and exchange by which capital (*the concept*) is created, captured and reinvested (Marx, 1867; Lin, 2001). In Marx's conceptualization capitalists aim to gather as much 'capital' as possible by controlling the production process, paying the minimum possible to those producing the products, and selling the products at the highest market value possible. By selling at the highest market value, the capitalist can maximise the surplus (capital), and then re-invest this capital into the production process to further increase his profit and consequently his capital. It is upon this basis, the idea of investment and return, that a number of theories of capital are built, including cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986), human capital (Pigou, 1928), and social capital (Lin, 2001).

Social capital, as with the concept of capital mentioned above, involves investment and returns – "Investment in social relations with expected returns in the marketplace" (Lin, 2008). However it is not as simple as to label social capital a pure investment and return concept – as reflected by the number of differing definitions (outlined in table 3.1). Each definition takes a slightly different stance on what social capital is, and this has drawn a number of detractors within the academic community. Castle (1998) for example asserts that social capital has now been so used and diluted as a concept that it risks becoming irrelevant, and losing its value. It can be argued however, that it is the broadness of its definitions that allow it to tackle so many problems, and that this instead of causing it to become irrelevant, is what makes social capital so valuable. Table 3.1 below includes a number of the most highly cited definitions of social capital, including those of authors such as Lin, Coleman, Burt and others. Of the ten definitions provided in the table, eight either directly or indirectly refer to social networks or a form of social structure.

As highlighted by the below definitions in table 3.1, social capital is essentially an investment in networks and relationships, with the potential for some sort of return from that investment. This potential for return is what makes social capital, a capital as defined by Marx (1867).

Social capital is embedded in social networks of intertwined relationships between an individual and their network contacts. Social capital and social networks are however not one and the same. The existence of social capital – capital embedded in social relations – relies upon the existence of social networks. To measure social capital and the effects of access to social capital, one should measure the configuration of an individual's social network/networks, as has been done by Granovetter (1974), Coleman (1988), Burt (1997) and many others social capital theorists.

Without social networks, social capital could neither exist or be accessed, instead individuals would have to rely upon their own human capital. To measure social capital or access to social capital therefore requires the analysis of social networks, analysis of the structures that house social capital, analysis of the building blocks and foundations of social capital. However just explaining social capital in terms of its existence within networks is inept. Discussing social capital in terms of networks provides an understanding of where social capital exists, and the basic premise that underpins all social capital theory. Instead social capital should be thought of in terms of networks, whilst also keeping in mind its classical roots in capital, a series of benefits that are enabled by the existence of relationships that allow exchange.

Through social networks, an SIE or EA can make use of resources of their network partners (e.g. their academic reputation or access to other important individuals such as journal editors) that can provide benefits to the SIE. An expatriate academic can use their connections to their advantage when it comes to publishing, to obtaining career advice, or in general when it comes to gaining traction within their academic discipline. An academic SIEs contacts could influence their decision to either remain, in close proximity to the networks that they have, or to return to their home country. For these applied reasons, a deeper investigation of social capital is warranted, in order to understand the mechanisms by which this might occur.

Table 3.1 – Definitions of Social Capital

Author, Year	Definition
Burt (2005)	"The advantage created by a person's location in a social structure" p ix
Burt (1992)	"friends, colleagues and more general contacts through whom you receive opportunities to use your financial and human capital" p9
Bourdieu (1986)	"the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance recognition" p248
Coleman (1990)	"Social capital [is defined by its function. It] is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities having two characteristics in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structure and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within the structure" p302
Lin (2001)	"Resources embedded in a social structure which are accessed and /or mobilized in purposive actions" p29
Lin (2001)	"investment in social relations with expected return in the marketplace." p19
Lin (2008)	"resources embedded in a social structure which are accessed and/or mobilised in purposive actions" p51
Portes (1998)	"The ability of actors to secure benefits by virtue of membership in social networks or other social structures" p6
Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993)	"those expectations for actions within a collectivity, that affect the economic goals and goal-seeking behaviour of its members even if these expectations are not oriented towards the economic sphere" p1323
Putnam (2000)	"social networks have value... social capital refers to connections among individuals - social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them" p19

By browsing these definitions, it is initially clear that there are two key aspects of social capital that both link and distinguish it from other forms of capital. The key differences are the focus on the social structure being the root to obtaining new resources and the means by which an individual can invest their own human capital. The similarity between social capital and other

capital based concepts is that they all accept that investment can bring potential returns and benefits.

Capital as described earlier in this chapter is a concept and a theory where surplus is gained from the process of exchange with other actors, in a system that allows such an exchange. Social Capital as defined within the above table 3.1 is a process where an individual can invest and exchange things, including their own human capital, or their access to other individuals, in order to gain a surplus of resources or access to resources. In this way, social capital, is a good example of capital.

3.1.2 Assessments of, and common elements of existing definitions of social capital

The definitions outlined in table 3.1 all have a number of common elements. The first is that social capital is some form of added extra, or added value concept. Burt (2005, p ix) mentions the *“advantage created”*, and the process of *“receiving opportunities”* (Burt, 1992, p9). Coleman’s (1990, p302) definitions raise the ability of social capital to *“facilitate actions”* and Lin (2001) explains that social capital should come with *“expected returns in the marketplace”* (p19). Portes (1998) definition also starts by highlighting the link between social capital and the *“ability of actors to secure benefits”* (p6).

The second common element relates to the location of social capital: Social Networks and structures. Burt specifically highlights a *“person’s location in a social structure”* (2005, pIX), Bourdieu includes within his definition of social capital *“possession of a durable network”* (1985, p248) and highlights that all entities that are enveloped by the social capital metaphor possess the characteristic of *“social structure”* (1990, p302). Similarly Portes (1998) and Putnam (2000) specifically mention social networks within their definitions. The similarities between these definitions serve to highlight that definitions and explanations of what social capital is, need to account for two key antecedents. Firstly, that social capital is based within a social structure, or more specifically within a social network, and secondly that social capital is a function that provides a benefit or return for an actor.

Previous definitions of social capital have invariably made a reference to either an aspect of context, (e.g. where social capital exists) or application (e.g. how social capital can be used), causing a disagreement amongst researchers from different fields, and with different foci, on exactly what social capital is (Robinson, Schmid, Siles, et al 2002). One argument, in an attempt to bring some clarity to the debates, is to reduce social capital to its simplest form, by defining each of the component parts of social capital separately, i.e. defining *what social capital is* separately from *where social capital resides* (Robinson et al 2002, p4), consequently allowing

serious comparison between social capital and the economic concept of capital, devoid of additional context.

Defining social capital without making note of where it exists however, whilst aiming to clarify the concept and provide meaning, actually reduces the meaning and impact of any definition. By omitting where social capital exists in the definition, one loses sight of its relevance. Both Robinson et al (2002) and Castle (1998) push for the clarification and refinement of the construct; *“Unless the social capital concept is used with some degree of precision and in a comparable manner, it will come to have little value as an analytical tool”* (Castle (1998) in Robison et al, (2002)), however such refinement of all social capital definitions under one umbrella does not concentrate research, or focus analysis, but instead muddles currently useful definitions, that make light of social capital in different situations. Rather than diluting or invalidating social capital (a criticism thrown at social capital theory by its detractors), the multitude of definitions provided by different authors, take the concept of social capital (a concept that despite the varying definitions is still uniformly considered) and help to apply it to a variety of slightly altered scenarios. Rather than reducing its validity, they instead extend its validity across scenarios and disciplines, thus highlighting the universality of the concept. Therefore taking note of context, of the network structure within which social capital exists, is important when choosing the definition to guide the current research. In the previous chapter networks and connections were highlighted to be important in shaping the intentions of SIEs to repatriate or to remain in their host country, so the definition chosen in this current study should take into consideration the individual (the SIE or expatriate academic), and the role of networks.

3.1.3 Definition adopted in this study

When discussing social capital it is important to keep in mind the role of networks and the benefits that social capital can bring. Whilst definitions by Burt (1992) *“friends, colleagues and more general contacts through whom you receive opportunities to use your financial and human capital”* (p248) and Portes (1998) *“the ability of actors to secure benefits by virtue of membership in social networks or other social structures”* (p6), highlight the importance of network structures and relationships with others for obtaining resources or benefits, Lin’s discussions of and definitions of social capital articulate this more clearly. Social capital is viewed as *“Investment in social relations with expected return in the marketplace”* (Lin, 2001, p19) and as *“resources embedded in a social structure which are accessed and/or mobilised [in purposive actions]”* (Lin, 2001, p29). These statements highlight the investment, the expected return, the resources, and the importance of social structure, all of the key components of social capital highlighted so far.

In this research the statements by Lin (2001) and Burt (1992) about social capital are taken as the definition of social capital, however a shorter version of their (Lin's and Burt's) statements that has been adopted in numerous other pieces of research (e.g. Lin and Erickson, 2010; Schweers Cook, 2005; Molm, 2010) is used to encompass all of the above. This research therefore views social capital as ***Access to resources through network ties*** (Burt, 1992; Lin, 2001).

Aside from its ability to articulate clearly and succinctly the relationship between networks and benefits, there are several other reasons why this version of Burt's (1992) and Lin's (2001) definition is taken as the guiding theoretical definition for this thesis. Firstly, Lin (2001) is focused on the role of networks specifically in social capital theory, and often uses the term 'Network Theory of Social Capital' to describe the concept at hand. Other authors, whilst acknowledging the importance of networks, are more focused on other aspects of social capital, such as collective outcomes for society (Putnam, 2000). Burt's later definitions vary slightly, with Burt (2005) focusing on the role of position within social structure. Burt (1992) does discuss the opportunities to use other forms of capital, but is focused on the resources that an individual can access through their network contacts. The focus of the current research, on expatriate academics' intentions to repatriate, is a focus on decisions made by an individual, which impacts the individual and not a wider group. By choosing a definition of social capital that focuses on access to resources through network ties, this research can maintain the focus on access to resources that might influence an individual expatriate's decision to repatriate.

Whilst other aspects of social capital are important, *access to resources through network ties* is succinct enough to allow focus in the context of the SIE and EA, and specifically in the context of how networks might influence repatriation intentions. For academics wishing to return to their home country, access to resources in their home country, through network ties that may assist them with this access, is a research gap that has been highlighted in previous chapters, and this fits succinctly with Lin's (2001) definition. Because the focus of this definition is the network, it emphasizes the source of social capital (Malm, 2010) and the structures within which social capital is acquired. These sources and structures are highly important to consider when investigating many of the decisions made by self-initiated expatriates, highlighted in chapter 2.

When focusing on the longer version of Lin's (2001) definition, it not only highlights the importance of being a member of a social network or social structure, but explicitly highlights that such membership can provide outcomes and resources to the individual that come directly from the existence of specific ties within the network. Whilst this definition of social capital is used, it is not at the expense of other definitions or theoretical perspectives on social capital, as they provide insights and raise questions that may have been overlooked by Lin. This research,

whilst more closely following the theoretical underpinnings outlined by Lin, does not discount the work of other authors, but integrates it into the theoretical discussion of social capital, in an attempt to highlight the unity and uniformity between authors' approaches, despite their often differing research contexts. In this vein, this research attempts to reconcile some of the criticisms of social capital levied by its detractors, that it is too broad, or conflicted (e.g. Castle, 1998).

Investment in relationships is captured by Lin's definition. For any benefit or otherwise to come from these relationships, the resources that an individual will have access to is embedded in the social structure of the networks that they invest in. Without these networks, there is no access to the resources embedded in them. It is the capturing of the importance of networks for obtaining resources that can benefit the individual SIE (as a return) that makes Lin's definitions most relevant to the current context.

Expatriate Academics are individuals who whilst working within a wider departmental or team context, are often reliant upon being able to use their contacts, knowledge, and skills in order to further their own careers without the use of teamwork. Whilst having contacts is important to academics as a whole, team-focused working does not necessarily provide the greatest source of improvement to their career. It is therefore more relevant in the current context to use a definition of social capital that focuses primarily on the individual, and on the resources or types of information that the individual can obtain from networks.

By focusing on the outcomes specific to the individual (for example their intention to repatriate) there is little focus on the impact upon the wider collective, or on the notion of reciprocity, meaning that following Putnam's (2000) definition would not necessarily capture the relevant information. A similar reasoning is true for the definition of social capital provided by Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993). Being internationals in foreign countries, SIEs are required to invest in social relations in the host country that they wish to generate, and to invest in relationships in the home country that they wish to maintain. For this reason, the current definition was chosen.

Lin's three related definitions provided in table 3.1, rooted in research about the nature of social structure, and the benefits of networks also then rest on a number of underlying principles about the macro-structure of society in general. The following section looks to outline these principles generically, before then demonstrating how they apply to the expatriate academic context.

3.2 Basic Logic of Social Capital Theory - Underlying Principles and Assumptions

It can be understood from the definitions outlined and provided that social capital is an investment in social relations, that there are some forms of expected returns from investing in

social capital, and that social capital is reliant upon the existence of networks for individuals to be able to obtain access to resources that exist within these networks. Whilst these definitions clearly explain what social capital is and where it can be found, this chapter has so far provided little information about social capital theory *as a theory*, and what it attempts to explain. It is important to understand the mechanisms underlying social capital, in order to understand more clearly how it may be able to help explain expatriate academics intentions to repatriate.

Social capital theory in its current form was initially developed by two separate scholars, independent of one another. Bourdieu (1986) and Coleman (1988) introduced their own social capital theories into the mainstream as a research topic, and whilst there were differences in the purpose of each of their theories, there are a number of common elements between the two. Bourdieu is interested in social reproduction (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990), whilst Coleman is interested in individuals as resources. Whilst their foci vary, both conclude similarly that social structure, and belonging to a group, allows access to resources. Social capital theory itself, as was originally conceived, is an explanation of how social structure and membership of a network or group can provide access to resources, and how this access is constrained or enhanced by the different facets of societal and group structure.

Lin (2001) outlines a number of key assumptions and underlying principles of social capital theory. These principles and assumptions are (at least partially) apparent in multiple conceptions of social capital theory, but are stated clearly and succinctly by Lin (2001). Lin (2001) suggests that Social capital theory is based on a number of assumptions about the structure of society as a whole. These higher level assumptions then filter down into the principles and propositions and overall thesis of social capital theory.

One underlying principle behind social capital theory purports that an individual will take action to either maintain 'goods' or 'resources', or to pursue and obtain/gain resources or goods in order to promote their self-interests (Lin, 2001, p30). The assumption is based on the idea of rational actor theory – that individuals act purposively and rationally. This principle is particularly relevant to SIEs who must make a rational decision to become SIEs and must also make rational choices or actions that may influence the SIE either gain new resources or maintain their resources in their adopted country, ultimately impacting their intention to repatriate. To take this a step further, the decision of EAs to become expatriate academics follows from multiple rational decisions starting early in their career, including but not limited to completing a PhD, becoming an academic, choosing a focus of their research, and then deciding to further this research in another country. The influence of a network on a rational actor (in this case the EA) is therefore important to investigate. This is not however the only underlying principle of social

capital theory that has particular relevance to the SIE and EA context. The assumptions that are most relevant for SIEs and EAs shall be discussed in the following section.

3.2.1 Macro-level assumptions about society and social structures

This section details the general assumptions about society, and about networks that are made in the key social capital literature (e.g. Lin 2001, Burt, 1992). Following the detail of these assumptions a commentary of why they have been selected and taken forward in the current research context is offered, particularly in the way each assumption relates to the current research context.

If the definition of social capital accepted is that social capital is access to resources through network ties (Lin, 2002), then it is also possible to accept that social capital relates to access to a set of resources embedded within a social structure (Lin, 2001). It is fundamentally important to the current research to fully understand the rules of the structure within which these resources are embedded.

Lin (2001) makes four general assumptions about the macro-structure of society, the assumptions are:

1. About the nature of a social structure
2. About the hierarchy in a social structure
3. About the pyramidal shape of the hierarchical structure
4. About the complexities of social structures and resource transactions

3.2.1.1 The nature of a social structure

A social structure is a set of positions in which resources are embedded (Lin, 2001). This definition of social structure reflects the nature of how society as a whole is ordered: a set of positions, whereby people's importance or level in the hierarchy is defined by the amount of power that they hold within the society. People in all positions of a social structure are influenced by power, and guided by "rules and procedures" (Lin, 2001) on how to act and to use their resources, and by following these rules and procedures society becomes uniform in function and action. This is the assumed nature of social structure held within social capital theory.

3.2.1.2 The hierarchy in a social structure

As alluded to previously, social structure is arranged and ordered into a set of hierarchical positions based upon levels of power, defined by rules. This means that within any social structure, there is a hierarchy, usually based upon control. The more control an individual has, the higher the position that they are likely to hold within that social hierarchy.

This organization of social structure is not simply implied, but formalised by the rules and procedures within a social structure and society as a whole. Whether a social structure is formally recognised, such as that of an organization, or informal such as a friendship group, a hierarchy exists. For example within a formal organization, this hierarchy is formalised in terms of positions of seniority: managers, senior managers and CEOs holding different levels of the hierarchy dependent on the level of control that they possess and exercise. Conversely, in less formal structures such as friendship groups, hierarchy is more implied, with those individuals who hold more social power and control holding higher positions within the social hierarchy than those who possess less control over the group (Lin, 2001).

Lin notes that these hierarchies are enforced (often in more formal structures) by the larger community, with actions being taken against those who go against the rules. An important related concept is that of visibility. Social capital theory assumes that those higher up in a structure not only possess more control, but also more visibility of and access to the locations of important and valuable resources (Lin, 2001). The higher in a hierarchy, the more information and access to resources.

This has been evidenced in many pieces of research indirectly. Directly, this is evidenced by Krackhardt (1992) who notes that the players who are most central in an advice network in a small organization hold the most power in giving advice, whilst those who are most senior in terms of job role hold the most power in terms of how they dictate what happens in the workplace. There are crossovers between hierarchies in different networks, but these are not always uniform.

Within academia hierarchy is inherent and important. Positions are based upon seniority, and seniority is based upon experience and expertise. Hierarchy is not implied, but formal. For EAs and academics in general, hierarchy is part of their institutional context that is simply accepted (see 3.2.2 for a more in depth discussion).

3.2.1.3 The pyramidal shape of a hierarchical structure

A simple observation of society provides the third underlying assumption made by Lin (2001), that as the level in a hierarchy increases, the number of people occupying these positions appears to decrease. This was also found to be true in a research setting (Lin, 1982). As such, the picture of a hierarchical society based upon number of people occupying positions vs the hierarchical level of positions appears to look like a pyramid.

As has been already discussed, social capital theory assumes that society is a set of ordered positions, and the level in a hierarchy of ordered positions is dependent on the level of control held by the individual. If this is the case then as a consequence of the relationship between these

two assumptions and the third pyramidal assumption, is a concentration of resources and power in higher levels of the hierarchy amongst a much fewer number of people. Those at higher levels whilst holding relatively more power, also hold the greatest visibility of all possible resources available to them.

Pyramids have often been used symbolically in social capital research. Bishop Smith, Menon and Thompson (2012) ask their participants to point to their/their family's position within the pyramid of American social hierarchy. The findings by Bishop Smith et al (2012) point also to the better ability to access social capital/the constraints put on access to social capital dependent on the position of an individual in the pyramid. In a time potential job loss, those at the bottom of a pyramid are more likely to use a closer network, whilst those higher in the pyramid are more likely to spread their net wider in times of job uncertainty, or when faced with a potential job loss. The ability of those higher in the pyramid to cast their net wider is indicative of the greater visibility of resources the higher in a hierarchy an individual is. Pyramid shaped hierarchy is evident in the academic context (see section 3.2.2 for greater clarity).

3.2.1.4 The complexities of social structures and resource transactions

Social capital theory is primarily interested in the used of social resources gathered through membership of social structures. Given that we now assume that social structures exist, with a pyramidal hierarchy based upon control or power, it is possible to consider the implications for resources. Involvement in a social structure is not limited to being a member of one hierarchy, but multiple hierarchies (Lin, 2001). Because social capital theory assumes that resources are embedded within these social structures, the number of structures that an individual is involved in is dependent upon the resources that they possess or are looking to acquire. Social structures can be defined across a number of different dimensions – political, economic, or social. The fourth assumption of social capital theory is, put simply, a congruence between hierarchical positions in one structure to the hierarchical position in another structure. If an individual is at a high level in an economic structure, this is likely to correlate to their level in both economic and *social* structure also. Even if a congruence does not exist, an individual's level of power or control in one structure can be used as leveraged to gain resources from another (Lin, 2001). An example of this can be seen most obviously in the context of corrupt societies. An individual whom has a lot of money (is high in the economic dimension) can use some of their resources to gain an increased amount of capital in the political sphere. This relationship can work both ways, with those high in the political structure wagering some of their resources in order to achieve capital within the financial structure.

3.2.2 Summary and applicability of assumptions to SIEs and EAs

The development of social capital theory is underlined by a number of assumptions about the macro-structure of society. Social capital theory assumes firstly that society consists of a set of positions that are hierarchically ranked, that this hierarchy is based upon the level of control over resources that an individual has, and that these hierarchies are enforced and maintained by a set of rules (either formal or informal). Social capital theory assumes that the hierarchical social structures within society are numerous and pyramidal, i.e. that there is a converse relationship between the level or position held within a hierarchy, and the number of people occupying positions at that level. The higher in this pyramidal structure, the better the visibility of and access to social resources. Finally underlining social capital theory is the assumption that there is a structural similarity across resources. An individual high within a political structure is also likely to be high within a power structure or a wealth structure, and where a disparity between positions exists across hierarchies, individuals can leverage their superior visibility of and access to resources as a leverage to gain resources or capital from another structure.

SIEs and EAs are no exception to the assumptions made by social capital. SIEs, whilst being a unique subset of the population, do not exist in isolation from the rest of the world, and therefore the assumptions about society at a macro-level also apply to SIEs. Understanding of the above assumptions that underlie social capital theory is an important first step in understanding why social capital theory can and should be extended to the SIE context to understand the gaps that exist in the literature.

For Expatriate Academics, the above assumptions about social capital theory are visibly applicable to their working lives, but also to the lives of academics in general. Academics exist within a social structured hierarchy, whereby the more senior an academic within their field, the more power that they hold. This not only applies to their direct roles, but also externally to their indirect lines of work – for example holding editorial positions at journals. Academics are just as guided by rules, procedures, and adherence to social structures as individuals who are not working within the academic sphere. EAs are no less bound by these rules and procedures than academics working within their home country context.

The more central to these external social structures (such as holding editorial roles) that an EA is, the more likely they are to dictate what papers are publishable in their journal, and set editorial direction. This can be seen as confirmation of the hierarchy in social structure, and nature of social structure assumptions outlined in sections 3.2.1.1 and 3.2.1.2. Conforming to the assumption outlined in section 3.2.1.3, academia, like many professions, adheres to the

pyramid nature of social structure. Whilst there may be many junior academics and lecturers, there are fewer senior lectures and fewer professors still (HESA, 2014).

Finally the complexities in social structure are evidenced for expatriate academics, when they take on extra non-academic work within their departments. Department or group leaders are unlikely to be brand new academics, as they have not built a reputation or proven record of leadership. Those who hold resources in one area, are therefore more likely to gain or hold resources in another area of their work-based role.

By understanding that the basic but important assumptions about social capital hold true in the academic setting, and that they are applicable to SIEs and EAs, it makes it possible to further investigate the facets of social capital theory that are most relevant in the EA context. In chapter four, the hypotheses stated, are built on the understanding that these underlying assumptions of social capital are evident for SIEs and EAs.

3.3 Insights and Applications of Social Capital Theory

3.3.1 General

To understand how social capital may relate to the context of the current research, it is first important to understand previous research and approaches to the study of social capital outside of the limited focus it has received with the expatriate academic and self-initiated expatriate context. This will allow for broader findings about the role of access to social capital, to be extended to the study of SIEs and EAs. Due to its usefulness in explaining and understanding phenomenon in a multitude of disciplines, social capital has been extended to include within its remit of explanation topics from within the sociology field such as deviant adolescent behaviour (Coleman, 1988) community and civic action (Putnam, 2000); topics from within politics and economics such as corruption (Uslaner, 2008) and tax compliance (Feld, 2009), Social health studies (Kawachi et al, 1997) and many more areas.

Two common themes are often present in theoretical discussion about social capital, and both are found consistently in social capital research across all fields of research that use the social capital concept: the element of social structure, and the element of receiving *a benefit* from membership in a *social structure* (See below in brackets the studies where this is highlighted).

In the field of sociology for example, Smith (2000) uses a social capital lens investigate the mobilization of job contacts (*social structure*) and the impact that this mobilization has upon career outcomes (*the benefit*). Within social psychology, the concept of social capital has been used to investigate friendship between job applicants and recruiters (*social structure*) and the assessment of applicants by the recruiters (*the benefit*) (Nguyen, Allen and Lynn, 2006). Within

the field of economics the level of embeddedness within a community – measured by whether an individual was or was not a homeowner (*social structure*) was investigated in line with social capital theory to predict local citizenship behaviours (*the benefit*) (DiPasquale and Glaeser, 1999). It is clear, that across fields of study, that social capital, whilst being considered as an umbrella concept (Hirsch and Levin, 1999) that covers a wide variety of different themes, in-fact is often a very refined concept with a contextually refined focus on social structure and benefits/returns.

Social capital is becoming more and more popular as a research topic and is being used in a wide range of disciplines, and to explore an increasingly wide range of phenomenon (Kwon and Adler, 2014). The popularity of social capital theory as an explanatory theory is rooted in the widely held belief that social ties, or the involvement in networks can be used to the advantage of the individual to gain any number of outcomes including (but not limited to) increased access to job opportunities (Granovetter, 1974), social support (Coleman, 1988), career success (Burt, 1992), and societal involvement (Putnam, 2000).

To tackle the vast literature that uses social capital theory as its underlying theoretical basis, instead of simply picking and choosing at random, instead it is important to choose literature that investigates more specifically the role of networks, and secondly literature that has a focus on individual benefits.

Payne et al (2011) created a typology of social capital research by investigating social capital literature across two dichotomies. Firstly they assessed whether empirically focused social capital literature defined social capital ties as internal or external, and secondly whether social capital was conceptualized in terms of its impact on the individual or upon the collectivity. Based upon this categorization they suggested that research fits into one of four quadrants, shown in table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 – Quadrants of Social Capital Research

Internal Ties	<p>Quadrant 1: Individual/Internal</p> <p>General Definition: Assets and resources made available through social relationships that an individual can use to their personal benefit</p>	<p>Quadrant 2: Collective/Internal</p> <p>General Definition: Assets and Resources made available through relationships within the social structure of the collective (ie. group or organization) that can be utilized by the collective</p>
	<p>Quadrant 3: Individual/External</p> <p>General Definition: Assets and resources made available through social relationships that span boundaries and through which both the individual and the collective can draw upon and benefit</p>	<p>Quadrant 4: Collective/External</p> <p>General Definition: Assets and resources made available to the collective through network ties that span boundaries to other collectives, and through which the collective may benefit</p>
External Ties	Individual Social Capital	Collective social capital

Table adapted from Payne, Moore, Griffis and Autry (2011, p497)

Internal ties are closely related to definitions of social capital such as that of Burt (1992) (those definitions that highlight social contacts and the ability to gain from their human capital), whilst external ties follow more closely the definitions of social capital given by authors such as Putnam (2000) whose focus is more on trustworthiness and norms of reciprocity. Individual social capital is concerned with outcomes for the individual, whilst collective social capital is more interested in outcomes for the collective, such as groups of minorities, or clusters of businesses.

The description of the interest in social capital that is described by quadrant 1 – “*Assets and resources made available through social relationships that an individual can use to their personal benefit*” (Payne et al, 2011, p497) – is the one that most appropriately aligns with the definition of social capital used in the current research “Access to resources through network ties” (Lin, 2001).

Payne et al (2011) highlight a number of pieces of empirical research that are from the internal/individual perspective, from pieces on Teamwork (Balkundi and Harrison, 2006) to CEO Compensation (Belliveau, O’Reilly and Wade, 1996). In fact, all four quadrants outlined by Payne et al’s (2011) conceptual model contain research on aspects of social capital in fields ranging from sociology to politics. In comparison to the individual/internal view of social capital, the

other three perspectives focus more on the group, and societal benefits of social capital (e.g. Subramaniam and Youndt, 2005), on the benefits attainable from links with external connections (e.g. Mosey and Wright, 2007) or both societal benefits from external social connections (e.g. Khanna and Rivkin, 2006).

The most relevant perspective on social capital to the current research, and to the SIE, is the perspective outlined in quadrant 1, which focuses on individual assets and resources, individual benefits, and close social relationships in close social networks. As the focus of the current research is to further understand the role of networks, and of social capital for the individual SIE, then it is the individual/internal quadrant of social capital, and thus the research that is most pertinent to this line of thinking, and that is most relevant to the current study. The split of focus along two dichotomies – internal vs external, and individual vs collective – highlighted by Payne et al (2011) illustrates the diverse nature of social capital theory and research. By specifically focusing on literature that is related to the individual and internal nature of social capital, the current thesis provides insights that are directly relatable to the context of expatriate academics – who as previously discussed, primarily can use networks for their own internal benefit, and who exist within universities – an example of a close social network.

The split between how social capital is both internal and external, and also both individual and collective, are not the only dichotomous splits presented within the social capital literature. Because social capital theory has been extended to cover such a broad range of phenomenon, a number of academic debates about the best outcomes of access to social capital have occurred. The most widely cited debate within the social capital field is the debate surrounding the best type of network structure for social capital to exist within. The debate focuses on the way in which different social structures influence the access to, and the function of social capital within networks, and ultimately which social structure is best. The debate is largely centred on the importance of the *openness* or *closed-ness* of networks, and which structure is more beneficial for performance.

One view, is that closed, dense, networks, where each individual within the network has ties to each of the other individuals within the network, provides greater benefits. The alternate viewpoint is focused on the importance of structural holes, i.e. where alters within a network are not directly connected, and instead connected via someone else in the network (Burt, 2000; Coleman, 1998). Within social network analysis, this concept is often described and measured in terms of network density – the number of connections within a network divided by the total number of possible connections within a network. Within network theory the concept of density describes the general level of linkage or connectedness among nodes within a network.

Rather than providing the best access to, or optimum environment for social capital, the usefulness of dense or loose networks instead is dependent on the outcome of interest (Lin, 2001). For example denser networks have an advantage over loose networks for the maintenance of resources (Coleman, 1988; Lin, 2001) whilst loose networks provide an advantage for those looking to gain resources (Burt, 2005). Density, and closure of networks is just one factor of many that can influence an individual's access to social capital. Other authors have highlighted several key differences in individuals' networks that can differentiate between the access they have to social capital, and therefore the access they have to resources that can influence their decisions. Considering this dichotomy in the current research is important, to help gain greater understanding of whether open or closed networks have different impacts on the networks of the sample of expatriate academics being studied.

Lin (2001) outlines four distinctive dimensions that influence access to social capital that a) specifically relate to the interplay between social capital theory and social networks themselves, and b) generally fit into quadrant 1 of table 3.2 (i.e. are focused around the individual internal benefits that can be obtained from social capital). These dimensions help to explain the access that an individual has to resources through their network. These four distinctive dimensions are homophily, network structure, hierarchy, and embeddedness. These dimensions of social capital will form the basis of the current research's hypotheses about the drivers from within social capital that have an impact on SIE repatriation.

These dimensions are the accumulation of knowledge that relates to four distinctly different concepts that contribute to an individual's access to social capital, and thus resources embedded within a social structure. These dimensions, the concepts of homophily, hierarchy, embeddedness and network structure all aid the understanding of how an individual's network and connections to others can impact their access to social capital. Whilst research into each of these phenomenon exist, gaps in knowledge and understanding of the impact of these different facets of social capital still exist. These gaps are highlighted below, along with an overview of each of the four concepts, and a review of research that has investigated these facets of social capital theory. As in previous sections of the current chapter, the literature is reviewed generically, before context is applied to the expatriate or academic contexts.

3.3.1.1 *The concept of homophily*

Lin (2001) highlights a difference between 'strong ties' and 'weak ties'. Strong ties embody the *homophily principle*, a principle that explains that people tend to associate with those who are similar to themselves. Historically the principle of homophily became a research topic in the 50's, with scholars such as Homans (1950) and Lazarsfeld and Merton (1954). Homans' (1950) *theory of the human group* was one of the first theory to look at sub-divisions of societies as

individual micro-groups, whilst Lazarsfeld and Merton (1954) proposed that those who had similar social status are more likely to associate with each other. Homans (1950) focus on groups and exchange, and Lazarsfeld and Merton's (1954) focus on similarity causing clustering of individuals highlights how important social relations can be, and how important similar characteristics, thoughts and opinions are for the formation of groups, and for access to resources.

For social capital theorists, homophily was highlighted as an important factor by Lin (1982) who theorized that for expressive actions, those actions that are intended to preserve resources, that homophilous ties are the most useful. Conversely, for instrumental action, those actions that are intended to gain resources, interaction with dissimilar others is useful (Lin, 1982; 2001).

The homophily principle itself contends that there is a relationship between the intensity of interactions and the sharing of sentiment and resources (Lin, 2008). Used in the context of networks and social capital theory, the homophily principle suggests that resources and opinions/sentiments of people close (in relationship terms) to an individual, are likely to be similar/homophilous. Lin argues that for expressive action, that close bonding/binding ties could facilitate positive outcomes, if these ties were resource rich. However the concept of homophily/similarity in relations means that if an individual is resource poor, those closest ties to them are also likely to be similarly resource poor.

The implication of homophily is, that instead of finding help and capital from homophilous and potentially resource poor networks, an actor looking to gain resources, instead would benefit from heterophilous interactions, interactions with dissimilar others. This *heterophily principle* is not a unique component of Lin's conception of social capital, but has been demonstrated and supported by a number of other theorists (Granovetter, 1974; Burt, 1992; 2003). Granovetter (1974) argues that weak ties are more likely to link groups of dissimilar individuals together, allowing access to information. Homophilous networks are thus those in which an actor's contacts are similar to the actor on a specific characteristic. Homophilous interaction provides a low effort/high return environment for maintaining resources (expressive action) but a low return if the sought outcome is instrumental, or gaining resources (Lin, 2001).

Expressive actions relate to individuals' efforts to maintain the structure of, and norms within their network and the current set of resources available to them (Lin, 2001). The simple act of agreeing with the opinion of another person is an expressive action, undertaken to reinforce the status quo and maintain the dynamics of the group/strengthen norms. *Instrumental action* relates to efforts to gain resources or capital which are most effective through contacts with dissimilar others (individuals who are not the same as the ego on a specific characteristic or

grouping) – heterophilous interaction. By the nature of being dissimilar to the ego, these other individuals provide information and access to information and resources that the individual would likely be unable to obtain from a network of similar others (Lin, 2001). This information and access to new resources through social relationships with dissimilar others allows the ego to gain social resources that they previously did not have access to – an example of instrumental action.

Homophilous relationships bring with them a number of benefits for individuals and organizations such as ease of communication and increased ability to predict the behaviour of others (Kanter, 1977; Ibarra, 1995; Lincoln and Miller, 1979). Kanter (1977) for example, shows that for women and men in organizations, there are both benefits to communication and performance, and drawbacks for communication/performance depending on the gender makeup of a group and how homogenous the group is. Ibarra (1995) however highlighted the dangers of homophilous groups for minorities that may look to progress their careers. For minorities, Ibarra's study showed that high potential individuals usually had more ties to those of a different race, whilst those who were not high potential contained less balanced social networks.

Homophilous networks can provide benefits to those looking to gain capital or increase their level in their organizational structural hierarchy, if homophily is measured vis-à-vis gender (Ibarra, 1992). Men, who tend to have more gender homophily than women, also appear to reap greater rewards and benefits than women, both from networks as a whole and from individual relationships. In the research conducted by Ibarra (1992), homophilous ties appear to bring advantages to males – a finding that would act to dispute Lin's homophily principle – that homophilous ties are better for preserving current resources, whilst heterophilous ties are better at gaining resources. These advantages however, are potentially an outcome not of greater access to resources, but instead a reinforcement of existing ideas and of the status quo, where men hold the power, thus finding it easier to advance, as women in the same scenario benefit more from heterophilous gender relationships. This homophily is status based, an ascribed characteristic. While Lazarsfeld and Merton (1954) described both status and value homophily, (ascribed homophily and circumstantial or belief based homophily), it is not necessarily clear how different status characteristics or different value characteristics influence or impact individuals. As the above examples serve to highlight, different homophily in different situations can have different outcomes.

Homophily is important in the current context because academics are surrounded, in their departments, by others with access to similar resources. Academics can however utilize contacts met at conferences with less similar resources – those who work in other departments, and have

access to different types of capital. For the academic SIE the added complexity of similarity in cultural background/nationality, or physical location become important factors. These different types of homophily may have different impacts.

McPherson et al (2001) state “The most basic source of homophily is space: we are more likely to have contact with those who are closer to us in geographic location than those who are distant”. Spatial propinquity is given strength because it takes more energy to connect to those who are far away (Zipf, 1949). Whilst this was true when research into spatial propinquity was initially conducted, the increasing use of the internet for virtual global meetings and relations, and the ability for individuals to connect with little effort to others in distant locations, may mean that this perspective is out-dated.

There is currently a space within the literature on social capital, where there currently exists a lack of research that accounts for the impact of physical distance, and the similarity or difference in the location of network partners. Logan (2012) argues that within social sciences there is a need for greater emphasis on space and geography in order to answer a range of questions related to social relations. Whilst at an organizational level the effects of propinquity and geographic proximity have been tested against the ability of firms to generate innovation (Funk, 2013), this has not been explored in depth at the individual level. An exception is Yuan and Gay (2006), who investigated the formation of expressive and instrumental ties, and found that geographic homophily between individuals did impact their ability to build ties. The effect of geographic homophily on maintaining relationships however has not been explored.

Homophily is clearly an important factor that influences access to social capital. Homophilous relationships in one category (e.g. age) does not guarantee homophily across all categories (e.g. social class). An individual may be close proximally to an individual, i.e. in a similar location, but may have no other similarity. However, an individual may also share multiple similarities with another member of their direct social network, so care must be taken to define what similar properties are going to be investigated.

Homophily also differs from other factors that can influence an individual’s access to social capital because it is not a concept that is structural in nature. Whereas hierarchy relates to a person’s structural position within society, embeddedness refers to a level of embeddedness within the societal structure, and structure itself is interested in the patterns of relationships between individuals/across networks; homophily is not necessarily explained by looking at network data alone. Whilst structure and hierarchy can potentially be observed without any interaction between a researcher and their subject of study (ie. data collection can occur based on observation alone), if a researcher wishes to investigate similarity between individuals on

specific characteristics, then this requires knowledge to be supplied by participants about themselves and their network contacts. For this reason, homophily is an important factor to include when researching the impact that social networks have on access to resources, and to outcomes based upon these resources.

3.3.1.2 Network density and network structure

Ego-networks characterized by dense structures allow for the sharing of advice between members, and provides an environment where norms are easily controlled, with sanctions being readily admitted by more than one group member for those who go against group norms (Lin, 2001). Dense networks also limit the opportunities for input and influence from sources external to the network. However, the increased density of a network is related to greater within group information sharing (Sparrowe et al, 2001). A network characterized by completely closed ties, where each person's contact is only with other members of the group restricts the information that can flow into the social structure from external sources (Coleman, 1990). If an ego is surrounded by a dense and completely closed network then their chance to access external, resource gaining, social capital is limited as any information available to the ego is available from multiple other sources within the interconnected group (Burt, 1998; Coleman, 1990). If an individual's network is open and not densely connected, then they have access to information from other sources that may not be connected to others in their network. There is a higher chance that any information passed down this channel of communication to them has not been passed to them before by individuals also connected to them.

Network density is a factor of network structure that has received attention, from authors including Wellman, (1979); Fischer, (1982); Burt, (1984); Campbell and Lee, (1991); Flap and Volker, (2001); Sparrowe et al, (2001); and Morrison, (2002). The results of these studies vary dependent upon the context of each investigation. Wellman (1979) for example, found that community ties in east York, were not particularly dense, with only a few individuals being able to be relied upon for help in dealing with everyday emergencies. Morrison (2002) found that in newcomers to a job, that the density of their information network significantly increased task mastery and role clarity - improving their ability to do their job, however network density did not significantly affect their social integration or organizational commitment. Variations in network structure can have an impact upon the social resources obtained (Siebert, Kraimer and Liden, 2001) and information benefits (Anderson, 2008). Teams that consist of networks of densely connected individuals better attain their goals, and display a stronger commitment to staying together (Balkundi and Harrison, 2006).

Investigating the impact of density on networks of academics and how this density might influence their behavioural intentions would therefore have the dual benefit of allowing greater

understanding of the role of network density and help in understanding whether this area of social capital and networks influences intentions to repatriate. For academic expatriates within dense networks, the results of Morrison (2002) provide an insight that suggest that they are likely to master their role in the host country better than if they exist within less dense networks, which could lead to the greater development of their own career capital. Once career capital has been developed, one of the major objectives of expatriation will have been achieved (Richardson and McKenna, 2002).

The conclusion drawn from reviewing the literature is that whilst some research shows that network density does have a significant effect on outcomes that can be linked to social capital, in other research there is no significant effect shown. The decision for an individual to *stay together* in a team of individuals, or to leave that team is a decision faced by SIEs when contemplating repatriation. The impact of network density is something that should be investigated further in the SIE context for two reasons. Firstly investigation is needed to help clarify further the conditions in which network density has an impact upon access to social capital, or upon outcomes that are influenced by access to social capital. Network density, and the interconnectedness of ties within a network is not a topic that possess uniform agreement from scholars on it's benefits or drawbacks. Where Burt (1988) stresses that dense networks negatively influence the flow of information into the network, and therefore sees network density as negative; Coleman (1990) focuses on a benefit from increased cohesion and information sharing within the network – thus viewing density positively. Finally, as network structure has been shown outside of the SIE context to have a real impact upon career success (Siebert et al, 2001), further investigation is needed to understand if network density's impact upon career success extends to the SIE context.

3.3.1.3 *Hierarchy*

Lin (2001) contends that the better the position that an individual holds within a social hierarchy (i.e. their position of origin), the more likely the actor will access and use better social capital. An individual's *position of origin* can be either ascribed to and individual, or attained by an individual (Lin, 2001)

Ascribed positions, those inherited from parents, are discussed in great detail (although not explicitly) by Bourdieu (1986) in his works on class and cultural production. Social class is more often than not an ascribed position in the hierarchy of society, inherited by an individual by being born into families within specific class groups. These individuals status in the hierarchy gives them control over resources that are not within the reach of those in lower social classes. Therefore, for Bourdieu, ascribed societal hierarchy was important. Attained positions refer to

those that an individual has acquired, such as a job role or a lead position within a social group (Lin, 2001).

Whether ascribed or attained, this strength of position proposition predicts that those individuals that occupy better positions, will have better access, to better resources (Lin, 2001). By better (position) Lin invariably means more senior/higher in the hierarchy. This position has been broadly supported by a number of social capital theorists and researchers. A notable example of this is Burt (1997), in research that shows managers hold more social capital (and have access to better resources as a result), in comparison to non-managerial staff. Burt's (1997) key finding highlights that an individual's social capital varies as a function (mathematically) of the number or amount of people carrying out a specific role.

Within any hierarchy, those with more power are those who also appear at higher levels in the hierarchy. If power is considered a resource, then a better position in the hierarchy instantly provides a better access to resources. As hierarchical position also appears to be congruent across multiple social structures, hierarchical position within one structure should be congruent with hierarchical position in another structure, implying that an individual holds power across multiple structures, and thus access to resources. Finally, if an individual holds control and power in one structure, but requires resources that they don't currently possess, then they can leverage some of their own resources to acquire new resources. This is something that individuals with less power and resources, lower in the hierarchy, cannot do.

Not only do those in ascribed or attained positions have better access to capital, simply because of visibility (Lin, 2001), but also because of the linkages and responsibilities afforded to the positions themselves. Individuals that occupy certain roles may be required, as a condition of such a role, to attend certain meetings, or be involved in higher level decision making processes. Being involved in high level decision making processes exposes individuals to other individuals with similar power and control that they would otherwise have not been exposed to. Therefore, particularly in organizational settings, hierarchy appears to increase access to better capital.

Theoretically appearing as a sound principle, empirically there is a lack of investigation into this specific portion of social capital theory. This lack of investigation is surprising given the focus on this by Lin (1999, 2001), Ibarra (1992) and Adler and Kwon (2002), and their calls for further investigation. Adler and Kwon (2002) note with regards to hierarchy that *"the early call by Tichy (1981) for research on how formal organization hierarchy shapes informal social relations...has largely gone unanswered"* (p27). The SIE environment, where an individual moves themselves and embeds themselves within a new hierarchical social structure, is an ideal environment to

investigate this phenomenon further. Hierarchy within academia is attained, and not ascribed, and therefore the role of attained hierarchy is of interest.

A few authors that have directly investigated the role of hierarchy in individuals' social structures include Belliveau et al (1996) and Carroll and Teo (1996). When setting the compensation of a CEO, Belliveau et al (1996) found that whilst social homophily had no significant impact, that hierarchy did play a significant role. A CEO's absolute social capital, relative to the chair, had a significant positive impact – the social status of the CEO played a big role in the awarding of compensation. Carroll and Teo (1996) highlight the self-perpetuating nature of hierarchy and social status. Using General Social Survey (GSS) measures, they found that managers vs non-managers were significantly more likely to be members of clubs and societies, thus exposing themselves to more potential capital and increasing their social status. Thus, whilst empirical literature is scarce on the impact of social status and hierarchy, there is a pattern that supports the theoretical assumptions set out by Lin (2001).

An individual's place in a hierarchy whilst influencing the rewards they can obtain, can also dictate the social capital that they hold. Burt's (1997) findings highlight this most successfully. Using structural equation modelling, Burt finds that within a workplace, an individual's social capital varies as a power function that can be calculated in relation to the number of people carrying out a job role. Where there are few individuals in a role, their social capital is increased. Where there are more people in a role, they hold less social capital. Within a hierarchical system, there are less managers than workers lower in the hierarchy. This was observed in Burt's (1997) study, and acts as evidence in support of the underlying assumption that the hierarchy within society is pyramid shaped (Lin, 2008).

3.3.1.4 *Embeddedness*

The concept of embeddedness recurs consistently within social capital literature. Definitions of social capital discuss the embeddedness of resources within networks. Granovetter (1985) was the first to bring the concept of embeddedness to the field of social capital research (although Granovetter did not explicitly realise at the time the impact his work would have on the social capital paradigm). In discussing and researching the process of economic exchange, Granovetter noted that "most behaviour is closely embedded in networks of interpersonal relations" (p504). Embeddedness has been explained elsewhere in the expatriate literature as the factors that pull an individual to remain in the environment in which they are in (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010). Before even the creation of social capital theory, Granovetter had highlighted the importance of social networks for gaining benefits. The concepts and theories of social network analysis grew out of Granovetter's pioneering work.

The relationship between an individual and their surrounding environment is often discussed in terms of structural embeddedness and relational embeddedness (Moran, 2005). Structural embeddedness is a term used to refer to the relationships that are shared between individuals, and the structural embeddedness of dyadic relationships consists of the crossovers in contact similarity (Wellman, 1982). An individual's structural embeddedness in their own network is therefore about the nature of the relationships, and the patterns between individuals. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) make clear distinction between the concept of structural and relational embeddedness by defining them as follows: Structural Embeddedness "*the impersonal configuration of linkages between people or units*" (p244) and define Relational Embeddedness as "*personal relationships people have developed with each other through a history of interactions*" (p244). The difference between structural and relational embeddedness is therefore fairly clear. Structural embeddedness is the physical configuration of a network, and has been discussed above in the network structure section. Relational embeddedness is everything else, the personal level, partially discussed in the section about homophily. The concept of relational embeddedness encompasses not just the similarity between two individuals, but the feelings, opinions and non-network structural based factors that embed an individual within their environment.

By considering the concept of relational embeddedness, social capital theory distinguishes itself from theories and methodologies such as social network analysis, by not simply relying upon structure. It is not only the structure of a network that affects an outcome, but it is the quality of relationships between dyads within a network, and to an extent how embedded an actor feels within the social structure itself, rather than simply how embedded they appear to be. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) highlight factors such as trustworthiness, identity and feelings of closeness in their description of factors of relational embeddedness. This was emphasized by Ingram and Roberts (2000) who found that the more embedded that hotel managers were within their networks, performed better and shared more knowledge.

Embeddedness then as a concept encompasses not only network structure – the ideas of Burt and Coleman, the argument between dense and loose networks, the concept of network density or sparsity, but also encompasses network hierarchy (as an element of structural embeddedness) and similarity and difference between actors or homophily – as part of the relational element of embeddedness. There is a reason that the concept of embeddedness recurs in discussion of social capital, because it encompasses network structures and relationships between individuals. But it also embeds a network itself and the individuals within the network into the larger structure of society, into the environment with which the actors in a network operate. By extending and testing embeddedness, looking at concepts of homophily,

network structure and hierarchy, and other interrelated concepts, it is possible to test how network embeddedness influences the current research. Moran (2005) refers to structural embeddedness as the configuration of an individual's network, and relational embeddedness as the quality of those relations.

3.3.2 Social capital in the area of HRM/expatriate management

The social capital theory literature highlighted so far has primarily been either theoretically based, or contextually broad, and not specific to the current area of research. There are few empirical or theoretical investigations that deal directly with the extension of social capital theory and its principles to the international human resources and global careers context, and fewer pieces of work that deal directly with any link between social capital theory and the expatriate context. The research that has been done this are discussed below.

Much of the HR focused social capital research places an emphasis on HR strategy, and the role that social capital can play within corporate HR strategic planning. Gomez and Sanchez (2005) for example consider the environment, and theorise about how HR strategy impacts upon the creation of group social capital. By implementing policies that build human capital, and encouraging environments where employees can build networks that allow for communication, knowledge sharing and a sense of *family* between the members of an organization are encouraged. Similarly, Taylor (2009) lists a number of barriers and opportunities for MNCs to build social capital. Highlighting such challenges as status identity, and the variation of the importance of status across cultures causing challenges related to the hierarchy principle of social capital theory, for example when considering the differences between the importances placed upon hierarchy in individualist versus collectivist cultural settings. Taylor stresses the importance of cultural difference in creating social capital. More specifically to the expatriate literature, but still with a focus on HR strategy, Lazarova and Taylor (2009) critically investigate how boundaryless careers can impact the formation and utilization of social capital, suggesting that the most beneficial type of career for organizational social capital is one that is "Internal enacted" – ie. Where individuals are moved (internationally) internally (assigned expatriates) in order to increase personal and organizational benefits.

Also focusing on social capital in assigned expatriates, but at the individual level, Liu and Shaffer (2005) investigated expatriate adjustment and performance from a social capital perspective. Findings included that social capital as a whole did appear to influence expatriate adjustment and performance. Specifically Liu and Shaffer (2005) found that network density predicted job performance, but whilst national homophily was recorded (number of host country/home country nationals in the network) it was not reported on by the authors, implying that it is

important in the assigned expatriate context, but not considered relevant to the further development of their research. Whilst there are differences between assigned expatriates and self-initiated expatriates (as highlighted in chapter 2), whether the role of social capital in influencing job performance differs for the latter group is as of yet without investigation.

Mäkelä and Brewster (2009) found that cross-border interaction is associated with increased trust and knowledge sharing, which is ultimately beneficial to the expatriate. Mäkelä and Suutari (2009) showed both the potential benefits and risks of multiple MNC expatriate assignments, and finally Mäkelä (2007) found expatriate relationships to be characterised by higher levels of trust, ultimately facilitating knowledge sharing. These studies show the potential for social capital to extend further into the expatriate area of research. Trust and knowledge sharing are two important outcomes of different network structures highlighted as important within social capital theory (Burt, 2000; Coleman, 1988).

Whilst a number of SIE researchers have called for further investigation into how social capital impacts the SIE experience (e.g. Doherty et al, 2013) there as of yet are no empirical or theoretical examinations of social capital specifically in the SIE context. Studies have investigated some network characteristics, but this has usually been secondary to the main focus of the research (e.g. Cao et al, 2014). With this in mind, it is this gap that needs filling in order to continue to grow and progress the field of SIE research.

Building from domestic research into social capital within HRM, and on social capital theory's underlying principles in general, it is possible to build a number of hypotheses about the role that social capital might play in the expatriate academic setting. These hypotheses are broadly outlined here, but then built upon in more depth throughout chapter 4. Some general assumptions about social capital in the SIE context can also be made.

Firstly where Gomez and Sanchez (2005) highlight that organizations which encourage network building can increase access to instrumental career building social capital, this can be applied to an academic setting in the SIE context, to suggest that an increased development of social capital would be acquirable. By design, universities foster environments that allow for collaboration and network building. Publications that come from academic study, often with others, are the currency (or capital in the traditional sense of the word) of academics worldwide. This increased capital could potentially lead to EAs' length of stay in their host country being longer than general SIEs as they build and have increasing access to capital. As environments that traditionally foster a collectivist outlook, and building on Taylors's (2007) assumptions, it is also possible to assume that social capital is more important in the EA context than in other SIE contexts.

As network density appears to impact SIE job performance (Liu and Shaffer, 2005) this is suspected to similarly apply to SIEs. If job performance is positively impacted this could either have a positive or negative effect on SIE intention to repatriate, as whilst high performance might increase access to career building capital, and increase embeddedness, there is a chance that this capital could be leveraged to find a better position in the home country. The stance taken by this research is clarified and outlined more fully in chapter 4.

Given Mäkelä and Brewster's (2009) finding that cross border knowledge sharing increased trust and shared cognitive ground, any international cooperation could be beneficial to an AE looking to increase their capital. However, this increase benefit in the host country is also negated if these cross-border contacts come at the expense of local country contacts and knowledge sharing, as this may potentially isolate SIEs from local resources and collaborative opportunities in the host country. Given that these questions can be asked based upon a relatively small sample of existing literature, there is a large potential for this research to answer many questions and uncover much that is unknown about social capital in the EA context. Whilst current SIE research addresses issues relating to the role of resources obtained through networks and contacts (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010), none of the research addresses or discusses social capital directly. A more comprehensive investigation of the potential links between social capital theory and the SIE context is therefore warranted, and this linking of the two sets of literature is done in chapter 4 where hypotheses are then built.

3.4 Social Capital Theory, Social Network Analysis and SIEs

This literature review has focused primarily on social capital a) based at the individual level and b) focused on connections and networks. Social capital theory is vast, and penetrates such a variety of disciplines, that this review has tried to focus on research that has direct implications for International HRM and specifically for Self-initiated expatriates. This review highlights that whilst there is a lot of theoretical research that can be extended to aid the understanding of SIEs, that currently there is little empirical research on social capital that has tackled self-initiated expatriation or repatriation. For SIEs, as discussed in chapter 2, social capital and social networks are important for the career choices of SIEs, especially as their move to the host country is initiated by themselves and not by an employer. Social capital allows EAs the possibility of not only relying upon themselves, social capital facilitates actions (Coleman, 1988), and can create advantages (Burt, 2005) for the SIE, that may not be available to them without access to social capital using social networks. Networks, contacts and links have the potential to keep SIEs more strongly embedded with their host country (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010) and therefore investigating the role of social capital directly in this context will help untangle the specific role that networks have.

The literature review has highlighted that there is a need to increase the attention given to the homophily principle of social capital theory. Homophily is one of the few areas of social capital research that goes beyond structural investigation, instead placing more focus and attention onto the individual acquiring social capital and the exact way in which they are related to their contacts. Homophily is an underexplored dimension of social capital theory, and its further investigation is warranted given the relevance it has for globally mobile employees and SIEs in general, but expatriate academics in particular. In the case of geographic homophily for example, the similarity or difference of location of network partners could greatly affect the amount of information sharing that is possible, because academics are able to deal directly or informally with their proximate network contacts in situations that would not occur if that contact was not located in close proximity. This has been seen at the organizational level by Funk (2013).

A closer investigation of the impact of similarity between an individual (ego) and other members of their networks, specifically in terms of the effect on the individual in questions is needed. This will address more closely the circumstances by which homophily benefits an individual versus harms them in their career development. From an individual career perspective, there is not yet a clear answer to this question. Belliveau et al (1996) outlined the positive impact of similarity in the work place, whilst Belliveau (2005) highlighted the negative impact.

Lazarsfeld and Merton (1954) outlined both status homophily and value homophily. Status homophily, for example race or nationality cannot be changed. Value homophily, such as what an individual thinks, or where an individual chooses to work, can be changed. The impact of these two types of homophily on an individual's actions should be further explored. Moreover, the impact of similarity between individuals, and how this impacts their decisions has been completely ignored in the SIE and EA context, and thus exploring the different impacts of different types of homophily (e.g. status or value homophily) will enhance understanding of SIE decisions. As highlighted by McPherson et al (2001), space is the most basic form of homophily, and space also plays a role in networks. Whether this role or not has changed should also be investigated further. For academics, interaction with local contacts within their university department is influential in career progression (Pezzoni et al, 2012), and thus exploring this in the expatriate context will help understand if this applies for international academics as well as domestic ones, Academics rely on publishing innovative and new research for career progression, and the link between innovation and proximity of actors has been shown at an organizational level (Funk, 2013) but not at an individual level. By specifically investigating this under-explored facet of social capital theory, the current research will make a direct contribution to the social capital literature, and to the expatriate academic literature.

Another gap that a review of the literature has highlighted is that there is currently a lack of clarity about the conditions in which network density has an impact upon access to social capital, or upon outcomes that are influenced by access to social capital. Whilst Burt (1988) explains benefits from loose open networks, Coleman (1990) explains benefits from dense, closed networks. There is an opportunity present to clarify the contingent nature of the effect of network density, by investigating the role of network density in a new setting. The potential therefore exists to explore this relationship in the current research to bring better clarity to the field. Whilst network structure has been shown to have an impact upon career success (Seibert et al, 2001), the contextual factors that could potentially interact with network structure have not been properly investigated, and thus further investigation within a different setting is required.

Despite the calls of authors such as Adler and Kwon (2002) and Tichy (1981) to investigate hierarchy and the role it plays in access to social capital, little has been provided empirically. Empirical research on the relationship of hierarchy and its impact upon access to social capital would provide support (or otherwise) to the statements made by Burt (1997) and Lin (2001) about the pyramidal nature of society, and the advantages gained by higher starting positions when it comes to accessing superior social capital.

Finally there is an opportunity to extend the work conducted by Randel and Ranft (2007). These authors find that individuals who maintain relationships with others that facilitate job performance, are more likely to share interorganisational information. This interorganisational information sharing has a stronger relationship with facilitating the finding of a new job, if the individual has an intention to leave their organization. The more embedded an individual is within their organizational surrounding, the lower their intentions to leave (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010). This could have strong implications for turnover of EAs, who have the added complication of repatriation to their home country being a possibility upon job turnover intention. Testing this aspect of social capital theory (embeddedness) in an IHRM environment will help to clarify if this is an observation within social capital theory that is relevant universally, or if it is specific to certain circumstances. Whilst some aspects of networks having a role on adjustment and embeddedness has been discussed in previous literature (eg. Cao et al, 2014), it is not yet clear what contingent effect social networks and social capital have upon SIEs and particularly EAs intentions to repatriate.

The key underlying assumptions of social capital theory made by Lin (2001), Burt (1997), Coleman (1988) and others, who advocate the importance of networks in building, retaining and creating social capital, can extend to help explain SIEs decisions to move, to retain their capital, or to build new networks. These assumptions – (for example assumptions about the nature of

social structure, the hierarchy in social structure, the pyramidal shape of hierarchy, and the complexities of social structure) all appear to fit well in the SIE context, thus creating the foundations on which social capital can be built, created and used.

The key insights of Social capital theory (e.g. open vs. closed networks, the influence of similarity in access to resources, etc.) are likely to be relevant in the context of SIEs, and this context also allows for clarifying and testing the logic of Social Capital theory. If dense networks offer support but little access to resources, this is likely to have an effect on the SIE. If sparse networks offer increased access to information that is otherwise unavailable, then this is also likely to have an impact upon the expatriate academic. Extending social capital theory to cover the SIE and EA context will also allow a contribution to the development of social capital/network theory by focusing on facets of individuals' ego-network that are particularly important in the context of SIEs, but have been neglected in prior research on the Social Capital of domestic employees. Whilst homophily for example has been tested in a number of work-related contexts, specific attributes such as nationality and the geographic location of individuals are particularly relevant to self-initiated expatriates, and are as of yet untested in other contexts. Testing such concepts would therefore contribute to the development of the social capital construct both inside and outside of expatriation relevant scenarios.

Using Social Capital to investigate EAs also allows for extending the use of social capital theory in the area of HRM. The main theoretical and empirical focus of social capital research in the IHRM field is currently on the group and collective benefits of organizations aiding in the creation of social capital. Whilst insightful, this only examines the collective benefits for employee groups and organizations as a whole, and does not take into account the individual benefits described in table 3.2. Social network analysis as a tool to examine access to social capital is therefore useful in the context of SIEs and EAs, and will allow for investigation of individual benefits and outcomes that are obtainable from increased or decreased access to social capital, providing new insights for the IHRM field in general and for the SIE and EA fields in particular. In this research (as is the case with the majority of social capital theory based research) social network analysis has been chosen as the main tool by which to study how access to social capital influences the decision of expatriate academics to either remain in their host country, or to repatriate.

Given the context of the current research on expatriate academics as a specific subset of self-initiated expatriates, it is most appropriate to employ an ego-network analysis, and focus attention at the individual level – as repatriation of expatriates happens at the level of the individual, and it is therefore effects of networks on an individual that appears most important. A focus at the individual level also allows for insights highlighted in previous paragraphs to the

impact of access to social capital on the individual, and not on the collective where the majority of social capital research in the IHRM field already focuses. At the micro-level of analysis, network research is interested in investigating the individual. Measurement of actor specific characteristics such as centrality of an individual or an individual's prestige within a network are appropriate when single actors roles within a network are the focus of investigation. (Wasserman and Faust, 1994). Relationships at the individual actor level are often characterised within ego-network analysis. Ego-network analysis focuses on the individual that data is being collected about, and the other individuals that they are directly connected with (their alters). This approach will allow the most in depth investigation of network of the EA at the individual level.

3.5 Social Network Analysis as a Tool in Social Capital Research

Social Network Analysis (SNA) is one of the main tools used in Social Capital research based on the assumption that the variations in the structure of an actor's network or the features of their network determine their access to resources (ie. social capital). This assumption is in line with the theoretical principles, assumptions and propositions outlined by social capital theory (outlined below), but also is supported by previous social network research. Granovetter (1973) is often cited by proponents of social network theory, and social capital theory. Granovetter's work is an example of using networks to gain access to resources, and how the structure of these networks influences the level of access to such resources. This point illustrates that social networks and social capital are intertwined, whilst remaining conceptually separate.

A number of key points arise from the discussion of social capital. Whilst social capital has many definitions, it is essentially an investment in networks and relationships, with the potential for some sort of return from that investment. Social capital is embedded in social networks of intertwined relationships between an individual and their network contacts. Social capital and social networks are however not one and the same. The existence of social capital – capital embedded in social relations – relies upon the existence of social networks. To measure social capital and the effects of access to social capital, one should measure the configuration of an individual's social network/networks, as has been done by Granovetter (1974), Coleman (1988), Burt (1997) and many others social capital theorists.

Social network analysis is the study of patterns within networks and relationships between actors within networks (Wasserman and Faust, 1994; Scott, 1991). By studying these patterns it is possible to make inferences about a number of different outcomes, based upon the different structure of networks. There are two main approaches to social network analysis: the individual approach (at the micro-level) and the socio-centric approach (Barnes, 1954) which focuses on

the investigation of networks as a whole (the macro level). When the focus is at the individual level, the researcher attempts to revolve analysis around a particular point of focus, either an individual or an individual organization, and thus 'ego-network analysis' is the appropriate tool for investigating social networks (Scott, 1991). Ego-network analysis is solely focused on one individual or ego, and the alters (other individuals) that they have direct interaction with. This approach is most appropriate for investigating the different patterns of individuals' social circles in order to directly compare them to one and other. Alternatively, researchers who take the more socio-centric approach look to investigate whole networks either from a distance, or close up, in order to explain how linkage between individuals within a network influences their access to certain resources available within the same network.

Whilst social network analysis is interlinked strongly with social capital, it is also a research field in its own right, often used for analysing patterns within networks at varying levels. Social Network Analysis the field is strongly rooted in Graph Theory (Harary and Norman, 1953 in Scott and Carrington, 2011), a branch of mathematics. Whilst graph theory and social network analysis can be used to measure social phenomenon (such as the use of social networking websites, and where referrals are more likely to come from), when the focus is more social then it lacks the underlying value-laden theoretical principles to fully explain behaviour, instead simply highlighting patterns. It is in this latter respect that social capital theory is used, to start to understand the patterns outlined by conducting social network analysis. Social capital theory, whilst not being the same as social network theory or social network analysis, is reliant upon social network analysis for capturing the phenomena outlined by its theory.

Data collection for social network analysis is not unlike that of regular social science research, often relying upon survey and interview methods to obtain information about the network and the structure of the network. There are some key differences between social network data collection and the collection of psycho-social measures often collected in the social sciences, given that the foci of social network analysis is not on individual perception, but upon network structure and configuration. Similar to standard quantitative and qualitative methods within the social sciences, social network analysis uses both survey and interview methods for data collection (Marin and Wellman, 2011) asking respondents to report the names of individuals with whom they interact or share some form of relationship with. Ego-network data, with the focus on the individual, most often uses a name generator method to collect the names of people that an individual has contact with, followed by questions about the characteristics of the ego's contacts (alters) that the researcher is interested in, and about the linkages between the alters (Marin and Wellman, 2011).

By using this approach it is possible to gather information about the similarity between an ego and their alters (homophily), the structure of the network, and the pattern of linkages amongst individuals (e.g. density and centrality), the social status of the individuals involved in the network (hierarchy), and how embedded individuals are within their network – through exploratory work, or measurements such as tie strength. The use of such techniques are evident in work by Burt (1984), Coleman (1988), Granovetter (1974), Lin (1982) and by numerous other social capital theorists and researchers.

3.6 Chapter Summary

In this chapter existing definitions of social capital were outlined and compared, the core concepts of social capital were assessed and discussed, and the basic logic of social capital theory and its underlying principles highlighted. Social capital can be defined as "Investment in social relations with expected return in the marketplace" (Lin, 2001) and as "resources embedded in a social structure which are accessed and/or mobilised [in purposive actions]" (Lin, 1999). Based on these definitions, in this thesis social capital is defined as *access to resources through network ties* (Lin, 2001).

The literature surrounding social capital theory was reviewed, specifically literature that investigated social capital theory at the individual/internal level. The limited social capital research that deals with issues that sit within the IHRM field was also reviewed. This chapter explained how social networks and social capital are intertwined constructs, and proceeded to explain how prior research provides the building blocks and the starting point for the developing testable hypotheses relating to expatriate academics and other SIEs in the following chapter.

4 Hypothesis Development

Previous chapters have highlighted gaps in our understanding of self-initiated expatriation, and gaps in our understanding of social capital theory, specifically gaps in our understanding of expatriate academics and their intentions to repatriate, and in how networks may affect these decisions. It is the aim of the current research to address these gaps, doing so by combining and extending these two areas of scholarship – concurrently using insights from previous research in both fields, to theorize about possible interactions between networks and intentions to repatriate. By extending and applying social capital theory to the return intentions of expatriate academics (EAs) it is possible to understand better the role that social networks can play for SIEs. By using an international setting and investigating the impact of access to social capital through networks, in EAs, it is possible to gain a clearer insight into some of the more inconsistent claims made by social capital theorists (around network density for example). This clearer insight can be gained by accounting for the contingent nature of the effects that different network dimensions have on EAs intentions to repatriate.

By building upon social capital theory and extending it to the context of self-initiated repatriation, this chapter develops a set of hypotheses that link key characteristics of individuals' ego-networks to EAs' intention to repatriate. The hypotheses evolve in response to questions raised by reviewing the literature sets together and examining how social capital theory might apply to the SIE, and specifically to the EA context. Because of this, the hypotheses are deductive in nature. They take into account existing literature and theory that has been outlined extensively in the previous two chapters, and aim to answer questions that arise from closer looking at this research. The hypotheses will look to test specific variables, in order to answer the research questions stated in the introduction (chapter 1), and in order to provide answers to some of the gaps in the understanding of social capital theory and its application to self-initiated expatriates' intentions to repatriate highlighted in previous chapters. Therefore in this chapter, hypotheses are developed that link the characteristics of social capital theory highlighted in the previous chapter as being potentially the most influential on SIEs' ability to access resources, to the repatriation intention of a specific subgroup of SIEs – academic expatriates. In testing these hypotheses about EAs, the final chapters will look to draw some broader conclusions about how this research could apply to the wider SIE group. In addition, the chapter develops hypotheses about the role of National Identity and Career Embeddedness in moderating some of these direct effects of network characteristics on EAs' intention to repatriate.

4.1 The direct effects of (geographic and national based) homophily, density and hierarchical position on SIEs intention to repatriate

4.1.1 Homophily

This section will highlight the impact and influence of similarity between an EA and their network contacts. Specifically this section demonstrates that national and geographic homophily of EAs' ego-network will affect their intention to repatriate. Because homophily will affect the level and nature of resources that are available to EAs, and the information that will flow into their network, it will thus impact their ability and willingness to return home. Increased interaction with those in the host country (increased geographical homophily) is a factor that can help expatriates adjust to their host country surroundings (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013) and this increased adjustment, through network interaction is likely to influence the information that flows through the network, ultimately impacting intentions to repatriate.

Social capital theory highlights the role of homophily in understanding the defence and maintenance of an individual's current set of resources (Lin, 2001). Whereas homogeneity refers to the members of a network sharing certain characteristics, homophily refers to members of an (ego-)network sharing the same characteristic as the ego. As discussed in the previous chapter, homophilous networks are thus those in which an actor's contacts are similar to the actor on a specific characteristic. Homophilous interaction provides a low effort/high return environment for maintaining resources (expressive action) but a low return if the sought outcome is instrumental, or gaining resources (Lin, 2001). Networks are important for academics, because of the information and resources that can be obtained from them, as well as the support they offer the individual (Nicolau and Birley, 2003). Networks are important for expatriates because they can provide a system of support, trust and information (Liu and Shaffer, 2005).

Expressive actions relate to individuals' efforts to maintain the structure of, and norms within their network and the current set of resources available to them (Lin, 2001). The simple act of agreeing with the opinion of another person is an expressive action, undertaken to reinforce the status quo and maintain the dynamics of the group/strengthen norms. *Instrumental action* relates to efforts to gain resources or capital, efforts which are most effective through contacts with dissimilar others (individuals who are not the same as the ego on a specific characteristic or grouping) – heterophilous interaction. By the nature of being dissimilar to the ego, these other individuals provide information and access to information and resources that the individual would likely be unable to obtain from a network of similar others (Burt, 2000). This information and access to new resources through social relationships with dissimilar others

allows the ego to gain social resources that they previously did not have access to, through instrumental action. For expatriate academics, this expressive action, is exemplified by working with network contacts to form research groups or write publishable papers that are similar to, or restate the authors' current interests, thus maintaining the status quo.

Lin's homophily principle (2001) implies that people are more likely to be in relationships with those that are similar to themselves. However, he also points out the different benefits and/or drawbacks of homophily in networks. Whilst expressive actions become easier for an individual with a homophilous network, there are issues for obtaining access to new capital, or even introducing new information into a network. Homophily within a network denotes similarity between network members, but from the perspective of somebody outside of the network itself, this group of similar others could be regarded as a clique. The label clique can have either negative or positive connotations depending on an individual's position in this tight-knit network (on the inside or on the outside), and illustrates that social capital is not necessarily only a positive phenomenon as it is often painted to be (Burt, 2002). Homophilous networks can seriously restrict information flows for those that are in them (Peiperl, 1999). Whether the similarity exists with regard to the ethnicity or gender or any other trait of individuals', individuals in such networks are likely to experience strong cohesion, but also a restriction of information (Kilduff and Krackhardt, 2008; Festingher, Schachter and Beck, 1950; Mehra et al, 1988). For academic expatriates, examples of homophilous ties are those that are of the same nationality as them, or based in the same geographical location.

The opposite of a homophilous network, i.e. a network of others that are all the same on a specific characteristic, is a heterophilous network, - a network of individuals that are completely different on a specific characteristic. Reversing the logic of what is known about homophilous networks, it can be assumed that heterophilous networks are less likely to be cohesive. However given the lack of similarity between heterophilous individuals, these connections also more likely to involve the introduction of new/novel information between the individuals, and to the network (Kilduff and Krackhardt, 2008; Festingher et al, 1950; Mehra et al, 1988). This novel information can be leveraged, allowing individuals to gain more social capital (Lin, 2001). As networks with dissimilar individuals are less cohesive, they are more likely to bridge gaps, or structural holes in the network (Burt, 2005), which are beneficial for providing/acquiring new and novel information and resources. Granovetter's strength of weak ties theory applies similar concepts to give insight into why people often get jobs or interview opportunities, not through close friends, but instead through more distant, less similar, heterophilous acquaintances (Granovetter, 1973). For academics, examples of heterophily are when the direct network connections of the academic in question are either not from the same country (geographic

heterophily), or when an expatriate has network connections that are primarily of a different nationality to them (national heterophily).

Homophilous relationships bring with them a number of benefits for individuals and organizations such as ease of communication and increased ability to predict the behaviour of others (Kanter, 1977; Ibarra, 1995; Lincoln and Miller, 1979). Often a key focal point of investigation in homophily research is homophily based on race or ethnicity, due in part to the primary research context of a majority of homophily studies being the USA, and the long history of racial division in the country. Nationality as a sub-factor of race is therefore an important factor in homophily research, which is particularly relevant to the expatriate context.

Homophilous relationships have the possibility to influence and shape an EAs environment and access to resources at multiple stages of their career. Interaction with host country nationals (those in the same location as the SIE) for example, can strongly influence their adjustment to the host country environment (Peltokorpi, 2008). After expatriation an individual will most likely have to find new network partners, in their new location, however this does not necessarily mean that they will drop their close contacts from their destination of origin/home country, and these contacts could play a significant role in providing novel and new information not available in the host country.

For SIEs that are to create new relationships whilst maintaining old/existing relationships, homophily as a concept can then shape whether information is easily flowing into their networks, or whether their networks are insulated and like a clique. For EAs, this logic also applies. Two factors are important in this context. The concept of geographic homophily, or propinquity, the similarity in location of individuals – an important factor because of the international nature of the SIE means that their networks invariably span large distances. Secondly, nationality based homophily, because SIEs are of a different nationality than those that surround them in their new environment. Network homophily with regard to location (e.g. host vs. home country) and with regard to nationality are thus particularly important in explaining SIEs' intention to return to their home country. Specifically, it is suggested that whereas homophily in terms of geographical location *reduces* EAs' intention to return to their home-country, homophily in terms of network members' nationality *increases* EAs' intention to return to their home-country.

Geographic homophily has always been a factor that has needed consideration because it takes more energy to connect to those who are far away (Zipf, 1949). However given the increasing use of the internet for virtual global meetings and relations, it may no longer be the case for SIEs that it takes much more effort to interact with those who are further away from them. Whilst

McPherson et al (2001) states “The most basic source of homophily is space: we are more likely to have contact with those who are closer to us in geographic location than those who are distant” it is now unclear as to how relevant distance between individuals is, as there is no longer effort required to interact with those who are more distant.

4.1.1.1 *Geographical homophily*

Because homophily is associated with *increased expressive action* (Yuan and Gay, 2006) an ego-network contacts’ similarity in terms of geographical location will allow for increased expressive actions among co-located employees. Having such a co-located network of contacts will thus strengthen behaviours that reinforce and maintain their current set of resources (that EAs can draw on). These resources are not necessarily physical, but in the forms of increased bonds between individuals, or information relevant to increasing their ability to do their job and get promoted within the host country. The geographical location of network contacts is thus important for the development of relationships (and thus the maintenance of resources) (Yuan and Gay, 2006). It is hypothesized therefore, that homophily in terms of geographical location will thus decrease expatriate academic’s intention to repatriate to their home country because increased interaction with those in the host country will likely help them adjust (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013), provide them with a sense of career identity that is rooted to the host country (Kohonen, 2005), but also limit information about the home country that may pull them to return.

As homophilous networks provide a low return environment for gaining resources, geographically homophilous networks do not provide environments conducive to gaining resources outside of that location. Expressive action does not aid in gaining additional resources, but instead prevents the loss of current resources (Lin, 2001). Conversely, geographically heterophilous networks, i.e. one in which contacts are not co-located with the EAs, provide EAs with access to and information about resources outside the host country/in the home country that would otherwise be unavailable from interactions with similar others, and therefore are the ideal environment for expressive action to occur.

In the case of the EA, resources include information and informal support, or the ability to adapt to the host environment and maintain or increase their position and ability (also resources). A geographically homophilous network is therefore more likely to facilitate the flow of information relevant to the location that the EA is in, whilst not providing information about, or resources relevant to the EA’s home country. A geographically heterophilous network will have the opposite function. Geographic homophily is therefore likely to decrease EAs intention to repatriate to their home country. Outside of the expatriate context, but within academia,

working with, and building capital from close members of an academics own department – those who are geographically in the same location as the academic, can help to further the immediate career of the academic Pezzoni et al (2012). Relationships with proximate others directly benefits academics in the environment in which they exist, and therefore are likely to benefit an expatriate academic in their host country if they have multiple ties with others in the same location.

Proximate ties are also beneficial for in-group knowledge transmission, whilst non-proximate ties are not beneficial for knowledge transmission. Distant ties are superior for new knowledge flow, as they span “Geographic holes” (Bell and Zaheer, 2007), which whilst being theoretically similar to theorizing about structural holes (Burt, 2005) also fall in line with principles of homophily and heterophily, that similar ties are good for sharing between individuals, whilst dissimilar ties (in this case geographically dissimilar) are good for introducing new information into networks (Lin, 2001). If new information is likely to be brought to an EA who is in a network where they possess many distant ties, (a benefit less likely to occur for any SIE in a network with few distant ties), then geographic homophily is likely to decrease the new information (for example about jobs, opportunities, and developments in the home country) that the EA has access to and therefore will negatively impact intention to repatriate.

Networks of host country nationals that are propinquitous (closely located) are helpful for SIEs when attempting to adjust to host-country culture, and cultural adjustment/feeling more comfortable in the host environment is good for job satisfaction and commitment (Padilla-Gonzalez and Galaz-Fontes, 2015). Factors such as cultural distance and language proficiency are examples of phenomenon that all effect levels of expatriate job satisfaction (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2011). Job satisfaction is the most consistent and reliable predictor of turnover, and turnover intention (Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, 2000; Moynihan and Pandey, 2008) – if an individual is satisfied in their job then they are unlikely to leave. Therefore, if an individual has a network or geographically homophilous individuals, that aid adaption to the new environment that they inhabit, then they are likely to experience increased job satisfaction and less likely to want to leave their organization/are more likely to stay at their organization (in the case of expatriate academics, the university within which they work).

Relationships in the home country are stated by EAs as one of the main reasons for EAs intending to repatriate (Richardson and McKenna, 2006). If an EA’s network is then made up mainly of individuals in their home country, this could act as a pull factor towards repatriation, whilst if an individual’s support network is made up mainly of individuals in their host country, then this increased ease of contact between the SIE and their network partners could influence their decision to remain in the host country. As there is already a difficulty for SIEs (in comparison to

AEs) to link resources internationally (Jokinen, Brewster and Suutari, 2008), the increased homophily in location is likely to impact this further, promoting the maintenance of the expatriate academics current resources in the host country, thus reducing their intention to repatriate

As homophilous networks do not provide individuals with access to and information about diverse resources outside the host country, instead provide the setting for the maintenance of the current resources within the host country, there should be a negative impact on the EAs' intention to return to his/her home country, as this would engender the loss of the current resources available in the host country.

Hypothesis 1: The greater the geographic homophily of EAs' ego-networks, the weaker their intention to repatriate.

4.1.1.2 National homophily

Individuals with homophilous ego-networks share characteristics. National homophily refers to an SIE's ego-network in which the members have the same nationality as the SIE. For an Expatriate academic, this principle is the same, with a network that is homophilous based upon nationality being one where the academics contacts are primarily of the same nationality as the academic. Homophilous relationships provide both support of existing ideas opinions and norms, and for the maintenance of resources (Lin, 2001). Individuals with ego-networks that share a nationality share this as a resource, but also provide information and resources pertaining to their shared nationality. Heterophilous relationships on the basis of nationality cannot provide information, resources or the reinforcement of ideas related to national background as this is not something that is shared by an ego and their nationally dissimilar alters.

For the EA, nationality has the potential to be the single most salient social identity at an individual level, as it is often an easily noticeable characteristic (Moreland, Levine and Wingert, 1996). Individuals can consider themselves as members of multiple social groups, but the most salient in any given situation is often dependent on subjective importance, situational relevance (Mael and Ashforth, 2001), and accessibility and fit to the situation (Oakes, 1987). For the SIE, nationality is situationally relevant, and likely to be salient, as SIEs are foreigners in a nation that is not their own, but are likely to be surrounded by individuals that are more likely to be of a different nationality to themselves. In the wider expatriate field, many studies have pointed to the effect of relationships with those who a) have the same nationality as the expatriate, and b) who have a different nationality to the expatriate (e.g. Calliguiri, 2000). Much of the research in this area focuses on the difference between a) home country nationals, vs. b) host-country

nationals, in host country located networks. The salience of nationality is likely to be similarly relevant to expatriate academics, who are no different to other expatriates in terms of their exposure to host country nationals in a host country academic setting. Given the international nature of academia, nationality may in fact be even more salient for EAs as they are likely to be in a highly international environment. In the UK for example, 28% of academics are non-UK nationals (HESA, 2016).

As mentioned previously, homophily is associated with increased expressive action (Yuan and Gay, 2006) and homophilous networks provide a low return environment for gaining new resources. Heterophilous networks, conversely, provide a high return environment for gaining resources (Lin, 2001). Whilst homophilous networks do not provide the ideal environment for gaining new resources, in the case of SIEs with nationally homophilous networks, the likelihood of information about the home country being shared or ideas about the home country being reinforced are higher than if the network contained a higher proportion of individuals from outside of the ego's home country, by restricting information that would allow for instrumental actions to build capital in the host country and restricting EAs/SIEs from achieving the goals of their expatriation such as career building or personal development (Richardson and McKenna, 2002). An inability to achieve these goals such as career building, can lead to perceptions of underemployment (Suutari and Brewster, 2001) and ultimately lower job satisfaction for the EA (Lee, 2005), thus increasing intention to repatriate. This information may facilitate the SIEs repatriation to their home country. Ease of communication between homophilous individuals is increased compared to communication between heterophilous individuals (Ibarra, 1995), but this information is likely to overlap and more likely to be redundant (Lin, 2002).

Applied directly to the EA context this would imply that communication is easier for academics whom share a nationality, compared to those who don't. However, whilst information sharing might be easier in homophilous networks, increased variety in the network of the expatriate also means that they are more likely to hear about jobs/resources away from networks of homophilous nationals. An expatriate exposed to information from heterophilous others has access to more variety of information than an expatriate that is exposed only to information from nationally homophilous others. Information from outside including information about jobs and resources in the host country is less likely to be available within groups that are all the same nationality. The information that is more likely to be shared is information pertinent to the nationality of the SIE and their homophilous network contacts. This lack of access to new information about potential resources in the host country is likely to lead to higher intention to repatriate.

Whilst there is potentially more cohesion amongst groups of individuals whom are the same nationality, two of the main motivations of SIEs are personal and professional growth (Doherty et al, 2011). The intent to expatriate for carer building (professional growth) purposes is most common in EAs (Lauring and Selmer, 2011). Being in a network that consists primarily of those with the same nationality is insular. SIEs will be insulated from personal growth opportunities and insulated from professional growth opportunities that may have been provided through having diverse networks, due to increased likelihood of expressive rather than instrumental action (Lin, 2002). Even when career building is not the main motivation, Selmer and Lauring (2012) find that those EAs looking to expatriate for reasons of escape were more likely to experience detrimental effects to their work life (e.g. a lack of professional and personal growth opportunities). A lack of personal growth opportunities can lead to feelings of underemployment and stagnation for SIEs (Lee, 2005), which may lead to increased intention to repatriate.

An SIE or EA with an increasingly homophilous network has proportionally fewer ties that are host-country nationals. Host-country nationals as dissimilar others are a source of information and resources that relate to the host country, information and resources that a) may not be available without such network connections, and b) would allow an ego to gain new resources in their host country. These suggestions are partially supported by previous research by Cao et al (2014) who found that increasingly large networks of home country nationals (those who are nationally homophilous to the SIE) not only reduced the relationship between perceived organizational support and an SIEs intention to *stay* in the host country, but in fact turned the relationship negative, suggesting an increased likelihood to return to the home country.

It is thus suggested that national homophily increases EAs' intention to repatriate as information provided by those with a similar nationality is likely to be more relevant to resources in the home-country, than information/resources accessible from interaction with nationally dissimilar others. This information is likely to be more easily shared than information from heterophilous individuals within the network. Interaction with nationally dissimilar others is instead useful for obtaining resources from locations other than the home country.

Hypothesis 2: The greater the national homophily of an EA's ego-network, the greater their intention to repatriate.

4.1.1.3 The combined effect of national homophily and geographical homophily

Because both geographic and national homophily have the potential to affect the nature and level of resources that academic expatriates can draw on and which affect their ability and

willingness to repatriate, geographic and national homophily of an SIE's ego-network are likely to interact in influencing their intention to repatriate – ie, there is the potential of an interaction effect.

The arguments made previously regarding the effect of geographical homophily suggest that an EA's intention to return to his or her home-country is low if all of the members of their ego-network are co-located with them, i.e. in the host-country. Yet, accounting for the effect of national homophily EA's intention to return is likely to be higher if all the co-located members of their ego-network share their nationality. In other words, even though the ego-network of a German SIE in the UK may exclusively consist of contacts in the UK, thus reducing their intention to repatriate, their intention to return to Germany will be reduced even further, as having a network of similar others in the host country will help an individual to adapt to their host country environment quicker (Black et al, 1991). In cases in which the members of an EA's ego-network are geographically dispersed, thus increasing their intention to repatriate, this effect will be even stronger if these geographically dispersed alters share the EA's nationality.

Individuals in highly homophilous networks on **both** geography and nationality of alters will be much more likely to remain in their host country than to return to their home country. A network that is both nationally similar, and made up of individuals based in close proximity to each other acts to further insulate the individuals within the group, and specifically the ego at the centre of the network, from outside information and access to resources and social capital from individuals that are not homophilous. This lack of information, and increased similarity of the network partners acts to embed the SIE within their environment and the network itself (Coleman, 1988), reducing the likelihood that they will take any instrumental actions to leave the network, and increasing the likelihood of expressive actions to reinforce and maintain their current social capital (Lin, 2001).

If expatriate academics' networks are formed of individuals based primarily in the same location as they are, then they have easy access to local resources and sources of support (Cox, 1994; Ibarra, 1993). If these networks also consist of other individuals of the same nationality, then there is less need for an individual to move, or return to their home country to receive social support, or to increase their own feelings of good mental health (Lin and Dean, 1984). The access to support that they may require as individuals in a foreign country is available from proximate others, and national homophily will therefore strengthen the relationship between geographic homophily and repatriation intention.

Hypothesis 3: National homophily within EAs ego- networks positively moderates the relationship between geographical homophily and repatriation intention.

4.1.2 Density

Network structure is by far the most discussed and researched aspect of social capital, especially if the focus is on 'access' to social capital, rather than the use of social capital. One aspect of network structure that has received particular focus is Network Density. Network Density refers to the number of actual ties within an individual's ego network, as a proportion of the potential ties in the network. For an expatriate academic, this means that the more individuals that they consider to be in their direct network, that they frequently have contact with, but whom also have contact with each other, the higher their ego-network density would be. As the number of connections between individuals in a group increases, the likelihood of redundant information being shared also increases, I expect the density of EAs' ego-network to have an impact on an SIE's ability to obtain information that would enable them to develop and prosper in their host country, and thus expect network density to have an influence on the EA's intention to repatriate.

As discussed in chapter 3, there is an often referenced debate between social capital theorists that support the structural holes perspective (Burt, 2000; 2005), and those who support the network closure perspective (Coleman, 1988).

Authors have discussed how Burt (2000; 2001; 2005) and his theory on loose, open networks, provides the best access to social capital, whilst balancing that against Coleman's (1988) contention that dense, closed networks provides the best access to social capital. Usually the author will come out on one side or the other, in support of one approach to social capital. However, this thesis considers the *debate* or *difference* between the two approaches as not opposing each other, but instead as two sides of the same coin. Both of these approaches – one focused on network closure, the other focused on network openness, both provide the best access to social capital, however the capital that access is provided to is different, and therefore only best dependent on the desired outcome. If the desired outcome is maintaining the current set of resources, then closure is required.

Dense networks, ones that are closed, with ties that facilitate sharing are best for the maintenance of resources, if the sought outcome of access to social capital is expressive (Lin, 1999; Coleman, 1988). If the gaining of new resources is the desired outcome – instrumental action, a network with few interconnecting ties and many structural holes is necessary (Lin, 2001). The question should not be which structure provides best access to social capital, but instead the question should be 'why has this been framed as a debate in the first place?' Both perspectives on social capital are correct, so the focus should not be on whether network structure **a** vs network structure **b** gives the best access to social capital, but instead how does

network structure **a** vs network structure **b** have differing impacts upon individuals in the context of each experiment. The merits of openness versus closed-ness of a network in each given context should be discussed, instead of broad statements about which structure gives 'best' access to social capital. By testing the impact of density in the current research, some clarity can be brought to this debate, specifically in the international mobility context.

There are two possible impacts of network density in the SIE and EA context. These outcomes are an increase in intention to repatriate, or a decrease. Firstly, if the network is dense, including many connections between individuals, information shared is likely to be often repeated, and increasingly redundant. The opportunity to access resources in the host country is limited to those within the dense network. The information and influence of those outside of the network for gaining new employment in the host country is therefore less likely to penetrate the social network or reach the ego (Granovetter, 1974). For this reason there is a likelihood that opportunities in the host country will be limited and the individual more likely to return or intend to return to their home country to attain further resources and opportunities. Networks that are not characterised by a structure that encompasses a lot of ties/interconnectedness between alters, alternatively allow for greater flow of information into the network which would allow information about other job opportunities in the host country to penetrate the network more easily, and allow the SIE to fulfil one of the main motivations of expatriation – gaining international experience and career capital. In this scenario increased network density increases the likelihood of repatriation.

The alternative to this scenario, is that a dense network including connections between individuals is likely to increase the level of trust and reciprocity between individuals in the network. The increased sharing of information between individuals in the network increases trust and the reinforcement of norms (Coleman, 1988) and the likelihood of sanctions for those who do not conform to the norms of the network and thus reducing the likelihood that individuals would leave the network (Lin et al, 1985). Whilst a closed network limits information about opportunities in the home country, it also limits the ways that information can be introduced into the network about developments in the host country, and this is in itself seen as something that "*engenders opportunities*" to repatriate (Altman and Baruch, 2012, p244), therefore the latter option is rejected in case of the former in the current research, and network density is seen as directly increasing the likelihood of intention to repatriate of expatriate academics..

There are inconsistent findings about the impact of network within the general expatriate literature (e.g. Liu and Shaffer, 2005; Bruning, Sonpar and Wang, 2012) regarding the impact of network density on overall job performance of expatriates, and on their adjustment to their

environment. Reiche, Harzing and Kraimer (2008) propose that expatriate networks rich in structural holes, with little interconnectedness (low density) gives great access to information, and control over resources in the host and home country, thus increasing their access to and command of social capital. Reiche et al's (2008) proposal can be somewhat extended to SIE context from the AE context, implying that SIE's with expatriate networks that are highly connected, with few structural holes present, are less likely to increase their access to and command of social capital. The lack of ability of SIEs to gain access to social capital is unlikely to have a positive effect on their ability to progress in their job role in the host country, and therefore likely to increase their intention to repatriate.

Outside of the expatriate literature, there are investigations about how networks can influence the publishing ability of academics who do not speak English as their primary language (Curry and Lillis, 2010). These scholars found that the existence of local durable networks in the initial instance, allowed them to gain access to larger, international research networks, which then facilitated their ability to publish journal articles in English. Whilst the initial instance of the durable local network allowed them to eventually gain access to the larger research network, the larger transnational network, often formed by meeting individuals at conferences who were not interconnected with their other network partners, facilitated their ability to publish and gain the capital that would allow them to progress further in their career. The lack of existence of this loose network, and the existence of the dense network, meant that their ability to progress in publishing articles was limited. This limited scope for improvement, especially in the expatriate academic context will likely lead to dissatisfaction in the environment, or is the manifestation of an inability to adapt. This in turn has the potential to increase the intention to repatriate, as the opportunities to progress ones career abroad that is often the motivation of EAs is not manifesting itself, reducing job satisfaction (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013).

Clarity should be briefly brought to the difference between the impact of dense networks and homophilous networks. Whilst both have the potential to impact resource gathering or information flow, the mechanisms underlying each are different. Whilst homophily acts to increase or limit information flow due to the similarity between the EAs and their network partners (facilitating for example, discussion about shared interests or novel information), density acts to restrict or enhance information flow through increasing or decreasing the ability of novel information to flow through a network, regardless of similarity or difference between EAs and other individuals in their network.

In the context of EAs networks, bringing the expatriate and social capital literature together suggests that increased density acts to either restrict or allow new information and resources entering the network. Egos within closed and dense network structures are less likely to

encounter new information, or be able to utilize their resources for instrumental action, but are instead able to maintain the resources at their current disposal. The connections are more likely to be expressive in nature, and the norms of the network are more easily regulated. Egos within more open network structures will experience less redundancy, and the possibility of more variety in the information and resources that they encounter (Burt, 2005). This is seen outside of the EA context in domestic academic contexts by Curry and Lillis (2010).

In the current context, whilst having a dense network of interconnected ties may strengthen norms and reciprocity (Coleman, 1988), it may also limit the amount of new information available to an SIE, and increase the amount of redundant information that is received (Burt, 2001). This redundant information is unlikely to aid in the progression of an EAs career within their host country, and the lack of new information may exhibit itself as a lack of knowledge of new opportunities. Increasing network density, as a consequence may see SIEs seeking roles back in their home country or limiting their intention to remain in the host country. I therefore suggest that network density will have a positive effect on SIEs' intention to repatriate.

Hypothesis 4: The denser and EA's ego-network, the stronger their intention to repatriate.

4.1.3 Hierarchical position of the expatriate academic

Social capital theory assumes that society consists of sets of rank ordered positions that society is pyramidal in nature (i.e. as rank increases, the number of individuals occupying that rank decreases), that positions closer to the top of the pyramid have better access to and command of social capital, and that individuals act to maintain and then gain social resources (Lin, 2008). Thus, the higher an individual's position (their hierarchal position - e.g. Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, Professor), the greater their access to/and visibility of social resources and social capital. This proposition can also be observed as important within other conceptions of social capital (such as Bourdieu's) who suggest that those in senior position control more social resources than those in lower positions (Bourdieu, 1986).

The higher an individual's position does not only theoretically allow them greater visibility of resources, but allows them visibility and access to better resources than individuals lower in the hierarchy, due to the underlying principle of social capital theory relating to hierarchical structures. Lin (2001) states that those high in one structure often see congruence with their position in another structure, they are high in both structures (for example wealth and power structures). Similarly, the idea of lateral positions – the ability of an individual in a structure to interact with other individuals of similar social status more easily than those lower in the

structure, affords them theoretically greater access to social resources the higher up in a structure that they are.

Adler and Kwon (2002) distinguish hierarchical relations as one of three dimensions of social structure. These authors suggest a conceptual difference between social and hierarchical relations. Hierarchical relations are those where authority is obeyed by individuals in exchange for the security of resources, whereas social relations are more about the exchange of favours and gifts (Adler and Kwon, 2002). These social relations are where Adler and Kwon (2002) perceive social capital as being rooted in. In fact, social relations themselves have a hierarchical structure, and therefore the two concepts are not necessarily as different as originally portrayed. Social capital, whilst being rooted in social exchange, also has a hierarchical constituent, as social relations are embedded within structures that are naturally hierarchical (Lin, 2001). If hierarchical relations are used as a way for individuals to maintain security of their current resources, through the obedience of rules and authority, then it dictates that those lowest in the hierarchy will have the most rules to follow, but also the least opportunity, and are most likely to follow the rules, or obey those higher in the hierarchy, thus maintaining their current resources. For a self-initiated expatriate, maintaining current resources involves maintaining their current set of circumstances. For the SIE maintaining their current circumstances and resources involves staying in a job or organization, and ultimately in their host country. Therefore expatriate academics lower in hierarchies are less likely to leave as they can gain capital and learn from those around them in more senior positions (Pezzoni et al, 2012), and preserve their current set of resources.

Specifically for expatriate academics, whilst there has yet been any research that directly looks at hierarchy levels on their own, research by Awang, Ismail, Hamid and Yusof (2016) supports the idea that the ability to increase within a hierarchy (within this case, academic job seniority) has an impact on intention to repatriate. Where there is an existence of human resource practices that promote career advancement, SIE academics are less likely to intend to repatriate. Having HRM practices in place such as mentor schemes where those expatriates lower in a hierarchy can learn more, or receive mentorship from those more senior in the hierarchy, aids SIE adjustment to their new environment (Howe-Walsch and Schyns, 2010; Aycan, 1997).

Given the pyramid nature of the academic profession, with many more junior academic staff than senior academic staff, initially, and lower in the levels of academic hierarchy, there are real prospects of promotion and opportunities for development. However as expatriate academics become more senior, the avenues for career progression are reduced. This lack of career progression opportunity is linked to an increased repatriation intention of SIEs (Lee, 2005).

Whether obedience to authority or visibility of better resources is the function, hierarchies are important to social capital theory. For SIEs in general, hierarchies are also important to their functioning in their host country. An increase in level of a hierarchy represents an increase in power and resources (Lin, 2001). One of the main reasons cited for SIE expatriation is for the gaining of career capital (Jokinen, 2010; Jokinen et al 2008), that can then be taken and used in the home country upon return. Through working in high-level/leadership positions overseas, individuals gain personal career capital that might make the candidate more attractive/employable for/by home-country employers. The increased opportunities in the home country available from building this capital would decrease the need of the SIE to remain in their host country and therefore would likely lead to increased levels of repatriation intention. Similarly, by gaining such experience in more senior/leadership positions that are higher in the hierarchy, it is more likely that SIEs have obtained the career capital they hoped to through their self-expatriation. Thus achieving one of the main objectives of expatriation, and have thus less reason to stay remain in their host country. For these reasons, SIEs that are in higher hierarchical positions, are more likely to intend to repatriate.

Whether the mechanism is increased obedience at the bottom of a hierarchy in exchange for resource security, whether an SIE has fulfilled one of their main goals of expatriation – the gaining of career capital (through increasing their hierarchical status), or whether at increased levels of hierarchy there is less chance of progression in the host country; I propose that in the context of the expatriate academic, the outcome is still the same, that the higher up within an organizational hierarchy that an individual reaches, the more likely that they are to repatriate or intend to repatriate.

Hypothesis 5: As an academic expatriate's hierarchical position within their organizational setting increases, so does their intention to repatriate.

4.2 The moderating role of career embeddedness and national identity

To this point, the hypotheses and the conceptual framework consists of the direct effects of homophily (both geographical and nationality based), network structure (measured in the ego-networks of the EAs through network density), and hierarchical status. Intention to repatriate is used as a substitute for actual repatriation, as actual repatriation is difficult to measure outside of a longitudinal study. The following hypotheses are focused on those relationships that are proposed to moderate the previously stated hypothesized relationships. The hypotheses to this point have been solely focused on the structural network related aspects of social capital. The moderators are derived from aspects of other SIE repatriation research that is both relevant to expatriate academics but also the individual SIE and enriches social capital theorizing about the

topic. The first five hypotheses have focused on the network dimensions of social capital that are relevant to the SIE, the following moderating hypotheses remain relevant to social capital theory, but are not related to the specific structure of an individual's network.

Moderating relationships are investigated in this research for a number of reasons. Given that there are inconsistent findings within the social capital literature (for example homophilous environments providing a low return environment for the gaining of resources, but also enabling increased information sharing amongst individuals in a homophilous network (arguably a resource in itself)) then there is the possibility that another force is also influencing the outcomes of network homophily. These inconsistencies point to the potential existence of moderators that may be affecting the influence of homophily. Moderators proposed in the current research are both relevant to social capital theory, but more importantly relevant to academic expatriates. These moderators are apparent in previous other work that has investigated repatriation intentions (e.g. Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010) as direct effect relationships – but the ability of these factors to moderate access to social capital through varying network structures, and thus the moderating role that each factor plays in impacting intention to repatriate has not yet been evaluated.

There are two potential key factors that are likely to moderate the role of homophily on intention to repatriate. These factors are career embeddedness and national identity. Career embeddedness is the links and fit that an SIE has not only with individuals within their ego-network, but also with the systems, job, and institutions within their wider environment in the host country (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010). 'Links and fit' in this sense does not only relate to relationships between EAs and others in their network, but also to the relationships that EAs have with the institutions that employ them and surround them, or other factors around them in society that might cause a sense of loss if these things were taken away. How embedded an individual is within their career is likely to affect their ability to obtain resources that are beneficial to their development. An SIEs embeddedness in their host country career is also likely to influence the ability of the SIE to build networks in the host country, and may also be likely to affect their ability to maintain networks in their home country. Career embeddedness is therefore likely to moderate the relationship between geographic homophily and intention to repatriate.

National Identity is also specifically likely to act as a moderator on the effect of National Homophily on intention to repatriate. How rare a group is in an environment increases the likelihood that they will use that grouping as part of their shared identity, but are also subject to marginalization from other more dominant groups (Mehra, Kilduff and Brass, 1998). The strength of identity can enable easier communication between individuals with a shared

national identity – or who are nationally homophilous. This may act to close the SIE off from further opportunities in the host country further. For academic SIEs, identity plays a key role in shaping them as individuals in the global workforce. A strong sense of national identity can act as an anchor to the home country, and potentially have an impact on repatriation intention, both directly, and indirectly through increasing the likelihood of EAs seeking ties with nationally homophilous others, and strengthening the effect of these relationships. Therefore the effect of National homophily within an SIEs network on intention to repatriate is therefore likely to be moderated by an SIEs strength of national identity.

4.2.1 The moderating and direct effect of career embeddedness

Embeddedness is an individual's links and fit with their environment. Career embeddedness reduces the likelihood that an individual will intend to leave their organization (Mitchell et al, 2001). Higher embeddedness means more, or stronger links with people and organizations in the environment that the individual is embedded in.

Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) distinguish between structural and relational embeddedness. The previous hypotheses have dealt with structural embeddedness, *"the impersonal linkages between people or units"* (p244), and instead when embeddedness is discussed in the current research context, it refers more closely to relational embeddedness, *"personal relationships people have developed... through a history of interaction"*. These relationships, in the case of the expatriate academic may not be solely with individuals around them, but with employing organizations or other institutional bodies with which they are involved. Individuals therefore may appear to be highly embedded in a network through links and ties with multiple others (including with organizations), however if these links and ties are superficial, or meaningless, then the relational embeddedness within an environment will be much lower than the structural embeddedness.

Embeddedness is not only necessarily related to the relationships with individuals in the network on a dyadic level, but is related to embeddedness within an environment as a whole, which includes their job and organization. In job embeddedness theory, three factors are stated to influence an individual's intention to leave or remain in their job/how embedded in their job/organization. These factors are 1) the links to individuals, groups and teams, 2) perceptions of fit with the job and organization, and 3) what they say they would have to sacrifice if they left their jobs (Holtom, Mitchell and Lee, 2001). Whilst no explicit mention or link is made between social capital theory and embeddedness theory, the concept of embeddedness has clear and direct links to social capital theory. Reassessing the three factors that influence an individual's decision to remain or stay in their role, it is possible to see the link between each of these factors

and social capital theory. The links to individuals, groups and teams in job embeddedness theory (Holtom, Mitchell and Lee, 2001) are equivalent to an individual's social network in social capital theory. An individual's perceptions of fit with the job and organization in job embeddedness theory (Holtom, Mitchell and Lee, 2001) is equivalent to their relational embeddedness within social capital theory. What an individual says they would have to sacrifice if they left their jobs as conceptualised in job embeddedness theory (Holtom, Mitchell and Lee, 2001) is the equivalent of their access to certain social capital within social capital theory. (Holtom, Mitchell and Lee, 2001). In the case of the current research, the testing of embeddedness theory essentially investigates how much an expatriate academic feels they might have to lose if they were to no longer exist within their host-country environment.

At the level of the organization, there is a benefit of increasing the relational embeddedness of SIEs. Inkson et al (1997) noted the benefits to organizations of employing highly skilled SIE workers, and specifically within academia this has been presented as a global opportunity (Wit and Knight, 1999). For organizations to retain EAs, HRM strategies that achieve increased embeddedness are key (Aycan, 1997; Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010), with both financial and non-financial incentives that the SIE would feel is a loss if they were to leave (Kim et al, 2016).

Embeddedness is more relevant to local network partners, than to those that are situated further away. Co-located partners can have face-to-face contact, personal discussion, and are more likely to interact directly with one and other than individuals who are based in another geographic location. If EAs can maintain a network connection with an individual that is located far away geographically, removing the EA from their environment seems less likely to affect this relationship, as they have already managed to maintain this relationship, in a different environment. Therefore embeddedness is likely to have an impact upon any relationship between geographic homophily and intention to repatriate. The above mentioned HRM strategies by Howe-Walsh and Schyns (2010) and Aycan (1997) include factors that are likely to have an influence on the number of people in the host country that an SIE interacts with (and thus impact the levels of geographical homophily in a network, and the outcomes that geographical homophily has on the individual).

The more embedded an individual is within their local environment, the more likely they are to have developed links to individuals and groups in their geographic location (Holtom, Mitchell and Lee, 2001). Because SIEs embedded in their environment are less likely to want to leave that environment (Holtom et al, 2006), their intention to seek resources from elsewhere is reduced. For EAs this is no different, and therefore the effect of having a geographically homophilous network will likely be increased if embeddedness is high.

The increased embeddedness is therefore likely to strengthen the effect of geographic homophily on intention to repatriate. The more embedded an EA is, the stronger the effect of increased geographic homophily on reducing repatriation intentions. As increased geographic homophily is hypothesized to reduce intentions to repatriate, increased network embeddedness is hypothesized to strengthen this effect.

Hypothesis 6: Host country career embeddedness positively moderates the relationship between geographical homophily and repatriation intention.

Moran (2005) and Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) refer to social capital as having two components: structural embeddedness and relational embeddedness. Structural embeddedness refers to the configuration of an individual's network, and relational embeddedness refers to the quality of relationships within that network. I suggest however that in the case of the expatriate academic it is not just the embeddedness within the network that has an impact on intention to repatriate, but embeddedness within the wider environment, specifically in the career of the expatriate, and how embedded they feel in their career in their host country.

Shen and Hall (2009) have shown that job embeddedness helps organizations retain their expatriate talent, and Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) have highlighted the link between host country career embeddedness and intention to repatriate. The more embedded individuals are within their organization, the less likely they are to leave (Mitchell et al, 2001). If the EA displays a high level of embeddedness, they are relationally embedded within their network, and at their organization in the host country. Embeddedness will then lead to them being more inclined to remain within the environment in which they are embedded, and thus reduce their intention to repatriate.

Whilst they did not directly measure embeddedness, Awang et al (2016) showed that expatriate academics with a stronger sense of organizational commitment are less likely to intend to repatriate. Building a stronger sense of organizational commitment can be facilitated by employers that work harder to embed their employees within the organizational environment (Lee et al, 2004). When on-boarding of expatriates in general occurs, there is evidence to suggest that efforts to increase environmental embeddedness through cross-cultural training (Feitosa et al, 2014) may help in this process. A lack of cultural adjustment can lead to earlier repatriation (Selmer and Luring, 2009) and so as a whole, increased embeddedness in the environment could help to reduce EA repatriation intention. Embeddedness has previously shown to reduce the intention to repatriate of SIEs (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010), but this has not been tested in EAs, where based on the previously highlighted information, the same outcome is expected.

Embeddedness is a concept that captures an individual's relationship with their network as a whole. Whilst ties may be homophilous, close or strong, embeddedness is more about how an individual fits into the whole network or structure itself, and how the relationship fits. Greater embeddedness may act to give support but may also restrict movement away from the network itself. Therefore, I hypothesize that greater embeddedness within a network for the EA will have a direct negative impact upon their intention to repatriate.

Hypothesis 7: The greater an EA's host country career embeddedness the weaker an EA's intention to repatriate.

4.2.2 The moderating and direct effect of national identity

Arnett (2002) in discussing globalization and national identity suggests that as globalization increases both within and outside of the organizational context, that perceptions of national identity may give way to perceptions of global citizenship, weakening the strength of expatriates' feeling towards their country of origin. Identity theorists have long shown the connection between sense of national identity and behavioural intentions (Albert, Ashforth and Dutton, 2000). In the case of the SIE national identity may act as a push-factor (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010), enhancing the emotional link between an ego and their country of origin, and thus increase intention to repatriate. The link between national identity and intention to repatriate to the home country has been previously demonstrated by De Cieri et al (2009) and a similar finding is expected. Whilst academia is a globally collaborative field, national identity is highlighted as important in spreading healthy discourse and increasing the internationalisation of higher education in a number of institutional contexts (Wit and Knight, 1999). National identity is also an important part of the social identity of expatriates in general, but also can cause contention between SIEs and host-country nationals (Toh and Denisi, 2003). National Identity is therefore important in the current research context, as both a source of increasing the internationalisation of higher education, but also as a potential source of difference between an EA and their counterparts.

An individual's (birth) nationality is unchangeable, however an individual's sense of national identity is something that can fluctuate. Individuals form groups based upon characteristics that are salient, and if an individual's national identity is strong then they are more likely to form groups and a social identity based upon this factor (Tajfel and Turner, 1986). An individual with a strong sense of national identity may be more strongly influenced by similarity between individuals with the same identity. An individual with a weaker sense of national identity may be less influenced. National identity will reinforce actions within relationships between nationally homophilous individuals such as the sharing of norms and reinforcement of values. It

will increase ability to maintain resources and thus will moderate the relationships between national homophily and intention to repatriate. (National homophily is the similarity of individuals in a network based upon their shared characteristic of nationality).

Social identity theorists assert the benefit of group membership with those perceived as having the same characteristics as an individual. In the current research context, strength of national identity would evidence salience of nationality as an identity construct, and the benefits of mixing with a group of others with the same social identity (in this case evidenced by a nationally homophilous network) include information sharing and reinforcement of beliefs. These are also factors that are evidenced in homophilous relationships. Therefore there is expectation that national identity will strengthen the outcomes of such relationships for expatriate academics.

Hypothesis 8: National Identity positively moderates the relationship between national homophily and repatriation intention.

An increased sense of National identity is not just likely to facilitate information flow between nationally homophilous individuals, thus moderating the influence of national homophily and intention to repatriate, but is also likely to lead to increased intention to repatriate directly. Individuals with stronger sense of national identity are more likely to gravitate to their home country. Expatriate academics with a stronger sense of national identity are therefore more likely to intend to return to their home country, an environment where it is easier to relate and build upon this part of their identity. Previous research on sojourners has pointed to aspects of national identity having an impact upon adjustment in the host country. A weak sense of co-national identity is a strong predictor of a lack of adjustment (Ward and Rana-Deuba, 2000), thus EAs with a stronger sense of national identity (home-national identity) are more likely to suffer this lack of adjustment and thus more likely to intend to repatriate.

SIEs with a lower sense of national identity may develop a stronger sense of global identity (Arnett, 2002), and are therefore much less likely to associate their own feelings and opinions with that of their home country, instead associating more with being an international citizen. If a stronger sense of co-nationality is adopted, then cross-cultural adjustment is also more likely (Ward and Rana-Deuba, 2000). If a strong sense of home-national identity is present, then a global identity is unlikely, and thus cross-cultural adjustment is less likely to occur.

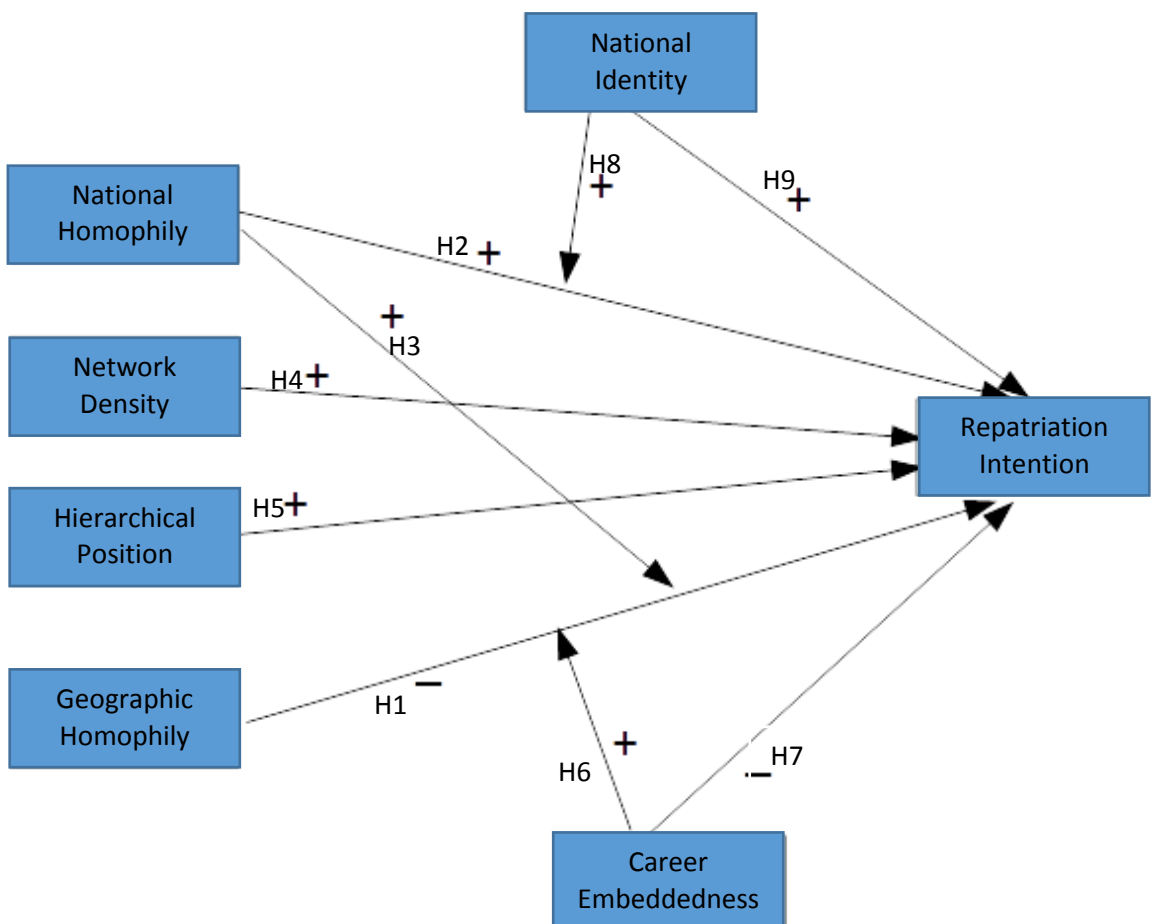
Outside of the expatriate context, but still within the European Union, individuals with strong national identities have shown lower levels of support for the EU and EU integration (Carey, 2002). For the German academics in question in the current study, a stronger sense of national identity will likely exhibit in a lower positive affect for EU integration and stronger feelings about the home country. Stronger feelings about the home country, at the expense of feelings about

integration in the host country, are likely to manifest in increased intention to repatriate. For these reasons, it is likely that those with lower sense of national identity will be less likely to intend to repatriate than those with a stronger sense of national identity, supporting findings of previous research by Tharenou and Caulfield (2010).

Hypothesis 9: The greater an EAs sense of National Identity, the stronger their intention to repatriate.

4.3 Proposed Model

Based upon the hypothesized relationships presented in this chapter, the following model is suggested as an explanation of the impact of social capital and social network structure on the repatriation intention of SIEs. This model also takes into account the proposed direct and moderating effects of National Identity and Career Embeddedness as important factors that whilst remaining external, also pertain to a social capital perspective on expatriate academics' repatriation intentions.



4.4 Summary of Chapter

This chapter has drawn on theories of social capital and social networks, linking them with what is currently known about SIEs and EAs to develop a set of hypotheses that are to be tested in the current research. The model highlighted above attempts to bring greater clarity, and pull closer together the theories about EAs, SIEs and Social Capital highlighted within the literature review chapters. Specifically, this model acts to provide a testable theory based solution to the shortage of analyses of the effect of EAs' social networks on their return intentions. This model also addresses the lack of a differentiated investigation of various dimensions of these social networks, by applying and extending theories of social capital into a context where it is possible to analyse these differences. Investigation of the expatriate academic at an individual level, allows for the close investigation of differences in the configuration of multiple networks of similar individuals, in an environment where networks and access to social capital are important for development. By putting forward arguments that aim to uncover the different effects of differences in network configurations, this chapter has aimed to provide answerable questions that once tested, will give a greater differentiated insight into the impact of different facets of social networks on an EAs intention to repatriate. Finally, this chapter, by drawing on theories social capital and extending these concepts to existing theories SIE intentions to repatriate, and adapting them to apply to EAs, the current dearth of research that accounts for the potential contingent nature of the effects that different aspects of EAs' ego-networks on their intention to repatriate, is added to.

The proposed model above outlines a graphical representation of the hypotheses to be tested and of the variables that will be investigated in the current research. By testing these hypotheses and this model it is possible to understand the influence that networks and access to social capital has upon intention to repatriate of expatriate academics.

5 Methodology

A method as defined by the Oxford English Dictionary is “A particular procedure for accomplishing or approaching something, especially a systematic or established one” (Oxford English Dictionary, 2015). Often incorrectly used interchangeably with the word method, methodology is a system of methods, and encompasses the epistemological and ontological perspectives of a researcher that lead them to use a specific method for study. These underlying philosophical assumptions held by a researcher inform their method, but also their outlook on world and on reality as a whole. It is important then to understand the methodological assumptions held by any scientific researcher in order to gain a greater understanding of the perspective that they take on any given topic and this the approach taken to investigate that topic.

This chapter is split into two sections, and has a number of primary goals. The first goal of this chapter to outline the philosophical assumptions held by this researcher that led to the design of the method used in this enquiry. Only once these assumptions has been outlined is it then appropriate to investigate in more depth the methods employed to investigate this research topic, the design of the research and the challenges that are faced undertaking such research with the chosen methods. The second goal of this chapter is to outline the quantitative research used in the current study, providing information about the methods and methodology. This part of the research is deductive in nature, testing the hypotheses that have been previously stated, and developed as a result of thorough literature reviews. The third goal of this chapter is to outline the methods and methodology used in collecting and analysing qualitative data. Whilst a need for inductive, qualitative inquiry has not been previously discussed, after quantitative data collection and analysis had occurred, it was evident that interview data would not only enrich the current deductive research, but would also help understand the context in which the research was being conducted in more depth, and provide some potential answers inductively, that would complement the primarily deductive work conducted.

As a result, the current chapter will firstly outline the approach to research adopted by the researcher. Following this, an outline of the deductive portion of the research project is provided – highlighting methods and methodology, the data to be collected, and the sample to be studied. Finally this chapter will focus on the inductive portion of the current research project, outlining the approach taken to this portion of the research, and giving a brief outline of the participants in the research that were interviewed.

5.1 Methodology, Research Paradigms and Methods

Moses and Knutsen (2007) use an excellent metaphor for understanding the difference between methods and methodology – the metaphor of the carpenter and the electrician.

“Think of methods as tools and methodologies as well equipped toolboxes... methods can be understood as problem-specific techniques... we can expect electricians to view the world differently from carpenters (that is, they aim to resolve different types of problems)” (Moses and Knutsen, 2007, p3).

An English colloquialism, ‘you wouldn’t call a plumber to fix your electricity’ perfectly sums up the differing perspectives of individuals in different methodological, ontological, and epistemological camps. Where one method is suitable for one specific job, it may be completely useless for conducting research that looks to answer a very different type of question. A screwdriver is no more useful for carving through a plank of oak, than a circular saw is for changing a fuse. It is therefore completely understandable that a wide range of methodologies and methods would exist to answer a wide range of different questions within management, and the social sciences in general. Rather than being at odds with one and other, as is often portrayed, these different perspectives in tackling different questions are useful for understanding the world we live in, in more depth; they can be seen as complimentary.

Methodologies are rarely discussed alone however, and are discussed in terms of the paradigm within which they sit (the underlying and guiding belief system and theoretical perspective). A paradigm can be characterised through its ontology, epistemology and methodology (Guba, 1990).

The term paradigm, introduced by Thomas Kuhn (2012) in *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* refers to a framework or structure of accepted practices and general assumptions, that is followed by researchers and academics. Identifying a number of *scientific revolutions* that happened throughout the past millennium Kuhn highlighted that there is not one single paradigm that exists at any one time, but often a number of competing paradigms that throw up their own evidence to support their practices and assumptions. Ultimately, Kuhn argues that if something unexpected starts occurring, experimental results that cannot be explained by the current paradigm, and new explanation arises and replaces the old explanation and set of assumptions, this is a paradigm shift, where a new paradigm replaces the old.

Currently in the social sciences there is still no single paradigm, but instead a number of different paradigms, that whilst on the one hand compete with one and other for dominance in certain fields, actually compliment one and other, by focusing their investigation upon different

phenomenon, coming from different angles. Where Kuhn suggested that a new paradigm would dominate and overturn other paradigms, this is not the case (currently) in the social sciences, with multiple paradigms coexisting. These paradigms can coexist because they represent different points of view and approach research from different angles (Babbie, 2008). There have been a number of dominant paradigms over the past century, including Positivism, Interpretivism, the Critical paradigm and Post-Positivism. These paradigms are briefly outlined below.

5.1.1 Positivism

The positivist paradigm is the closest social sciences and the natural sciences come to being kin. Positivism in the social sciences arose from the empiricist nature of the sciences that preceded it, and guided early social scientists. The positivist views the world through eyes that believe in only what they can see, what they can test and what they can measure. The emphasis from positivists is on reason, rationality and scientific knowledge itself – knowledge created through testing *things* and measuring the outcomes that follow. The positivist within social sciences identifies phenomenon that they can see and measures variables that may influence these phenomenon, just as a chemist or physicist would test a hypothesis by observing a phenomenon in a tightly controlled environment. The positivist remains objective, removing subjective observations and judgements from the equation. If reality and the world exists separately from the individual, and is observable, then there is no place for subjectivity.

5.1.2 Interpretivism

Interpretivism is the approach, or set of approaches that are far more subjective than the positivist approaches that preceded it. The argument is not that the social sciences are not scientific, in fact quite the opposite. Interpretivists see social and natural science as being different, but both equally as scientific.

“The social sciences study human beings, and human beings are different from the objects of physics or chemistry – they know they are being studied, they can understand what is said about them and they can take scientists’ findings into account and act differently” – (Benton and Craib, 2001, p10)

Benton and Craib (2001) are suggesting that whilst social science is scientific in its approaches, the nature of the human condition and consciousness means that individuals know that they are being studied, and can thus amend their behaviour accordingly or unknowingly. Similarly, human consciousness leads to interpretation of results in certain ways that may not necessarily be interpreted by others. The interpretivist tradition therefore sees that our knowledge of the

social world is based purely on interpretation. My interpretation of the world might be different to somebody, or everybody else's interpretation. The interpretivist is far more interested in the subjective viewpoint of the individuals being studied than the empirically based positivist. An interpretivist is not simply interested in what increases the likelihood of one behaviour, but in the opinions of the individual exhibiting the behaviour about their interpretation of such behaviour. For interpretivists, the world cannot simply be measured as fact, especially when human beings are involved, as a consciousness of a phenomenon could influence perceptions of the phenomenon or the phenomenon itself. This is both true of those being studied, but also of the researcher who inflicts their own opinions and perspectives upon research design and research analysis.

5.1.3 Critical paradigm

If we understand the positivist paradigm as looking to explain social phenomenon (through scientific testing), and the interpretivist paradigm as looking to understand phenomenon (through clarifying each individual interpretation of a phenomenon), then we can understand the critical paradigm as one in which exists a framework and structures that's main role is to challenge the existence of social phenomenon. Challenging the status quo as a tool for the creation of more equal society, the objective of the critical paradigm, means that it is fairly political in its motivations, however the goal of critical theory is rooted in Marxist beliefs that society should provide equality for all its members. Critical theorists see the world as unequal, serving those in power, and systematically supporting and reproducing current hierarchies. Their goal is to challenge this.

5.1.4 Post-positivism

For the post-positivist, existence stems broadly from the critical-realist perspective, which in itself extends from the realist perspective that the world exists as hard solid facts and things, observable in nature, and independent from the observer. Phillips defines realism as "the view that entities exist independently of being perceived, or independently of our theories about them" (Phillips, 1987, p205). Critical realism, takes the ontological perspective that "still assumes an objective reality, but grants that it can be apprehended only imperfectly and probabilistically so" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p111). The world exists as an entity outside of the perception of the researcher, whether this researcher can perceive the world or not, however understanding of the environment is problematic due to the nature of error present in human understanding and perception.

5.1.5 Central dimensions to describe paradigms

These four paradigms have competed within the social sciences for dominance over the last century, however which paradigm exists as the framework for research, depends largely on the ontological and epistemological perspective of the researcher. Based upon these perspectives, a researcher then understands the approach that they can take to gain or create knowledge, and finally can rest upon the methodology and methods to be used. Below a brief discussion of each of these terms is provided, with a summary of the position taken in the current research.

5.1.5.1 *Ontology*

Science, both social and physical, constantly and consistently attempts to answer the questions of what things exist by testing empirically (or otherwise) assumptions and theories. There are however a number of questions that science cannot answer, and may never be able to, questions that attend to the nature of existence; what does it mean to exist, what actually is existing? These questions are instead addressed by philosophy, specifically the branch of philosophy called Ontology. Etymologically speaking, ontology derives from two classical Greek words for 'being' and 'study/science', and can therefore literally be defined as the study of being or existence. Any researcher, before making assumptions about the existence of any phenomenon, needs first to own some comprehension of what *existence* actually is, or what it means to *exist*.

In the current research, the world is seen as something that physically exists – something that is testable and observable by the researcher. The profession of academia, the activity of self-initiating expatriation, and the intentions of the individual to return to their home country are all seen as measurable phenomena. This aligns most closely with the positivist and post-positivist traditions of research.

5.1.5.2 *Epistemology*

Epistemology is concerned with the question of what is knowledge. What can be defined as knowledge and what can be defined as hearsay, rumour, speculation, or other. Epistemology is then the philosophical investigation into the exact nature and limits of human knowledge, or what the difference is between what we know to be true and what we believe to be true. Epistemology within a paradigm shapes the understanding, and the criteria by which individuals' judge what the difference is between knowledge and belief, and what exactly falls into the definition of knowledge.

In the current research, the epistemological perspective is that knowledge exists as a by-product of experimentation – reality is measurable. Knowledge can be gained from observing the results

of tests and experiments, conducted on phenomena that exist. This follows primarily the approach taken by positivists and post-positivists. This research also has the perspective that knowledge can be gained from interviews about phenomenon and experiences with other individuals – whilst reality is perceived to exist, not all phenomenon can be specifically tested in certain contexts. Therefore there is knowledge and truth to be gained from interviews and qualitative methods – indirectly measured through understanding experiences. This approach is more indicative of an interpretivist of critical perspective, however when viewed in the light of uncovering facts, this approach is also applicable to the post-positivist perspective.

5.1.5.3 Methodology

As highlighted at the beginning of this chapter, a methodology is a system of methods – the amalgamation of a number of different tools, the use of which is informed by the ontological and epistemological perspectives of the researcher. The current research is primarily informed by positivist and post-positivist thinking, and the ideas that the world is knowable and testable, and that knowledge is observable and collectible. It makes sense to therefore use a methodology of scientific experimentation – testing phenomenon, and using statistical reasoning to understand if the observed phenomenon likely happened by chance, or likely happened because of the existence of a specific knowable truth. The methodology of the deductive portion of the current research, is that of survey methodology, mixed with social network data collection and analysis.

5.1.6 Method

Guided by the beliefs outlined in the ontology, epistemology and methodology sections above, the methods used for the current study – the techniques used to appropriate the knowledge about the world – include the sampling of expatriate academics, asking them measurable and testable questions, and then testing the answers that they provide using statistical analysis techniques. The rest of the current chapter are dedicated to detailing these methods, to allow for an exact understanding of the undertaking of the current research.

The stance taken in this research follows the post-positivist tradition, that the world is separate from the observer, that it is observable, testable and measurable, and that relationships between variables that are tested can provide answers. Context is key, hence it is not possible to control for every variable, fact or issue that may arise, and there is a fallibility about human beings, which makes measurement of phenomenon subject to inaccuracy. Therefore, hypotheses about social phenomena are subject to a certain probability, and this is reflected in statistical methods that measure the probability of relationships being produced randomly or as a result of an altered set of variables. By testing relationships to significance levels of .05, it is

assumed that the researcher can be at least 95% sure that their results were not purely chance or coincidence.

The measurement of the world can be considered to be knowledge, but with the added element of knowing that there is room for error. That is, that measurement does not necessarily prove a hypothesis to be true, but that it provides enough evidence to not disprove the hypothesis. From this perspective, the epistemological perspective held throughout this research is that of objectivism, the idea that the researcher is measuring phenomenon and comparing them with currently existing knowledge to provide evidence to suggest whether the hypotheses about such phenomenon are true or not (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

Understanding and recognising one's own ontological and epistemological assumptions allows an individual to select a methodology, a toolbox for which to conduct the research job at hand. For the positivist, methodology should involve experimentation and manipulation of variables in tightly controlled settings. Scientists for example used laboratory conditions to control for variables when conducting empirical investigation. For the post-positivist, experimentation and variable manipulation is equally as important, however they counterbalance many of the criticisms thrown at positivism by "doing enquiry in more natural settings, collecting more situational information, and reintroducing discovery as an element of inquiry" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). There is also an element of post-positivist enquiry that allows for qualitative enquiry, so that the post-positivist may understand and pinpoint meanings that are ascribed to actions, by those being studied.

In this research it is therefore correct that a level of empiricism be applied that is relevant to the post-positivist paradigm and critical-realist ontology and epistemology of the researcher, however it is also important that a level of context be maintained. In social sciences and specifically in the study of business and management it is important that a level of context be maintained, as the research conducted should necessarily apply to real life scenarios. To conduct empirical experimentation devoid of context may increase reliability of the results, however the validity and generalisability of any results extends no further than the confines of the laboratory settings in which they were conducted. With this in mind, it is now important to consider the context of the current research before settling upon a method of data collection and analysis.

In attempting to answer the broad research question 'What is the influence of access to social capital, on the repatriation intention of expatriate academics?' from a post-positivist perspective, one must attempt to investigate the phenomenon as a set of testable hypotheses, based on variables that measure observable phenomenon, in real-world, contextually relevant scenarios or environments. The research question implies the collection of data should consider

two key fronts; firstly data collection must consider how to collect information about access to social capital, and second information should be collected on the repatriation intentions of the sample. This sample, should consist of self-initiated expatriates.

Measuring repatriation intentions has primarily been investigated from a quantitative perspective. Measuring potential access to social capital has previously been tackled from both qualitative and quantitative perspectives. Access to social capital is not the same as social capital, and social capital itself is a complicated concept to explicitly measure, a) because of lack of consensus about what exactly social capital is, and b) because many authors argue that the exact 'thing' that is social capital is not necessarily the relevant concept, and instead it's the benefits (or otherwise) that it brings that is the important factor for measurement (Van Deth, 2008). In this case, indicators of social capital's existence (or lack of) are measured, for example altruistic donations (Putnam, 2000), or perceptions of social cohesion, and even crime rates (Cote and Healy, 2001).

As one of the goals of the current research is to investigate networks of SIEs, it is important to be able to objectively measure the networks. For this purpose, quantitative data collection must be conducted, to allow for the empirical testing of hypotheses. Taking into consideration the need for context, network questions are supplemented with other questions that allow the testing of further hypotheses. This data is finally supplemented with data collected from interviews with EAs, to allow for consideration of the wider context within which the current research exists. Whilst the qualitative data collected from interview does not allow the empirical testing of hypotheses based upon observable phenomenon (observable by the researcher), it does provide the necessary context, and allows for the extra depth to help explore the results of hypothesis testing further – this in depth approach to interview after the quantitative data collection is framed as the inductive portion of the current research – whereby knowledge is brought into the results section not through the testing of hypotheses, but through the exploration and classification of answers to questions.

5.2 Research context

With aspects of social capital theory such as geographical homophily, network density and hierarchy being under-researched, there is a need to find a contextual setting that allows for the appropriate investigation of these phenomenon. As previously mentioned, any research that is conducted from a post-positivist perspective needs to consider the applicability of the research within the context that it is being conducted. A context where there are a number of individuals from different national backgrounds allows for the testing of national homophily, and where individuals have moved from their network to a different geographical location allows for

research that investigates geographic homophily and locational similarity. The EA context is therefore a highly appropriate setting within which to further investigate these aspects of social capital theory.

In 2013, there were over 50 Million expatriates worldwide (that is roughly the population of England), and this figure is one that has been rising steadily for years. In 2009 there were only 46 Million expatriates worldwide (Finaccord, 2014). Finaccord, the company conducting the research that uncovered this figure, have predicted that the figure of 50 million, will rise to 56.8 million expatriates worldwide by 2017. With increasing expatriation, the importance of the topic is therefore growing and growing, in a world that is becoming more glocal (both global and local). In earlier chapters, a distinction was made between expatriates and immigrants as a whole. Finaccords analysis groups all migrants together, and estimates that the expatriate population is to reach 23.4% of global migrant population by the year 2017, with almost one in four individuals that move away from their home country falling into the expatriate group.

Interestingly, Finaccord's research shows a vastly different picture to the make-up of the expatriate collective than highlighted in other research. Where Peltokorpi and Froese (2013) suggest that between 50% and 70% of expatriates are self-initiated, Finaccord's findings suggest an even higher percentage. According to their research, 73.6% of what they would class as expatriates are self-initiated, 8.8% are students, 3.7% are retired expatriates, and '*corporate transfers*' are 1%. The remaining 12.8% consists of the trailing spouses or children of expatriates. Research trends of the past two decades within the international HRM field have focused primarily upon the small, 1% corporate transfer groups, those who are sent abroad by an organization for work purposes. Second most studied is the trailing spouse group, at 12.8% of the expatriate population. It is abundantly clear that this sample of self-initiated expatriates needs much deeper investigation.

Further, a large source of the SIE pool is made up of expatriate academics, a group of SIEs who work exclusively within academia, but a group whom have been comparatively under investigated as a representative group of highly skilled, highly educated SIEs. This group forms an important part of any governments plan to maximise the potential from its higher education sector. By attracting and retaining the top academic talent in the world, innovation and knowledge creation can be increased.

Once the decision to investigate EAs '*on location*' becomes the clear founding point of the research project, it is important to decide upon which location. SIE research has, quite rightly, been conducted globally, and reflects the global nature of those travelling and their destinations. To date SIE research has investigated Germany (Cao, Hirschi and Deller, 2013), China (Chiu, Wu,

Zhuang and Hsu, 2009), Belgium (Ellis, 2012), South Korea (Froese, 2012), Japan (Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009) and many others. Global locations, and global applicability leads to globally located research. The United Kingdom is a location with a large in-flow of expatriates (Finaccord, 2014), and is a developed economy that sits within the European Union. If the UK, or any other European Union country was the basis of research, then the issue of visas or immigration law from and between other EU countries would not be an issue that may influence repatriation, due to the freedom of movement agreement and the right to work of any European Union citizen in any European Union country. The UK also has one of the most highly regarded HE sectors in the world, with a large proportion of the top 100 universities worldwide being based the UK.

Regarding the focus of the sample of SIEs being specifically on the EA subgroup, SIEs are a diverse group, however expatriate academics have often been used as the group of interest (E.g. Selmer and Luring, 2012; Froese, 2012; Richardson and McKenna, 2002). This group is highly skilled, but also driven to expatriate for their own personal benefit. There is no requirement for academics to remain with one organization or in one location to further progress their careers. SIE academics are different to assigned expatriates because there is no requirement for individuals to move from location to location to gain experience, and academics are rarely sent abroad by their employing organizations. For investigating SIEs, academics make a useful target sample because of their ease of identification on their university websites on LinkedIn profiles. With a target sample across organizations, but within the same industry sector it is possible to control for factors such as job instability, or sector growth.

Some of the benefits of using academics as a target sample are also some of the possible drawbacks. Whilst academics are highly trained and highly educated, this does not necessarily represent fully the entire SIE population. Similarly, as experts in their field, academics may not be constrained by some of the same visa issues that lower skilled expatriates may face.

The UK higher education sector employs a substantial number of foreign academics (Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens & Weale, 2005), but also looks to attract foreign students – the second largest single group of expatriates after SIEs (Finaccord, 2014). However with only roughly 40% of research postgraduate students being keen on a career inside academia, there is a strong case for using SIEs within the UK higher education sector as the target for current research in order to understand factors that will enable universities to retain them.

In this research I have chosen to investigate the hypotheses among German SIEs in the Higher Education sector in the United Kingdom. Prior research on SIEs has predominantly used academics ([Selmer & Luring, 2012](#))(Froese, 2012; Richardson and McKenna, 2002; Selmer and

Lauring 2010; Selmer and Lauring 2011a; Selmer and Lauring 2011b). I suggest that higher education sector constitutes a particular good setting for this research. SIEs play a significant role in many countries' higher education sector and universities dependent on a steady flow of SIEs. With only 40% of research students being *keen* on a career within academia (Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens & Weale, 2005), and with academic institutions striving to compete in an increasingly international market, the recruitment and retention of quality academic staff is an issue that needs to be addressed. Universities are after all, in the business of knowledge management, and like businesses rely on the creation and distribution of a product (knowledge) for their survival (Rowley, 2000). Academics, as the staff of universities are therefore important as resources, and a high turnover rate involves not only increased costs in training and replacing the human resource, but also costs associated with disrupted teaching and lack of continuity in research programs (Nagowski, 2006). Finally there is the less quantifiable, long term costs to an institution of losing a departmental scholar whose knowledge may have been an invaluable resource in terms of research output and impact. Academics are among the most likely groups to engage in self-expatriation given the increasingly global nature of research, the comparatively easy transferability of skills and recognition/comparability of qualifications across nations. Finally, investigating SIE academics helps overcome the dearth of research on SIE academics ([Selmer & Lauring, 2011](#)).

Germans within the UK were chosen for a number of reasons. Firstly, Germans constitute one of the largest groups of inpatriates to the UK. Secondly, not being constrained in their work or movement by UK/EU laws/visa regulations means that Germans are free to move to the UK as SIEs without any extra restrictions or requirements that they must fulfil in order to gain access to the UK. Their ability to become SIEs in the UK is not constrained by the visa application system or immigration policy in the UK at the time of travel. Thirdly, given the relative sizes of the economies of the UK and Germany (Britain now the second largest economy in Europe behind Germany), financial or economic issues that might drive vast numbers of migrants are excluded, particularly as both the UK and Germany have developed economies. Finally, Both the UK and Germany have strong higher education sectors. If there was a disparity between the two sectors, then there would be a higher chance that individuals would be less inclined to return to their home country. Despite some differences between the education systems in the two countries, both Germany and The UK are within single figure numbers of each other when considering the number of universities that each has within the Global to 500.

Additional interviews, with German and Non-German academics are also conducted in order for the exploration of any potential role of the institutional context in the SIEs home country, that may be missed by focusing on SIEs from one country only.

5.3 Participants and Sample

A list of 804 German EAs in the UK was compiled based upon a list obtained from the German Embassy in London, along with information from LinkedIn, and University Websites. Google searches were conducted on each employee, and where information was available, the email addresses of each was clarified. The term Academic was applied loosely to anybody that held a PhD or the equivalent German qualification, and who worked within a University or University-affiliated research institution in the UK. Emails containing a link to the web-based survey instrument were sent to all of these individuals. Respondents could choose to complete the questionnaire in either English or German.

258 participants completed the questionnaire, providing a 32.1% response rate. Data was finally excluded on a listwise basis – if an individual had answered all of the network based questions but not completed the rest of the questionnaire, then their responses were discounted (and vice versa). This left the final sample of 213 individuals for analysis, 26.5% of the original sample. Listwise case deletion can be problematic, particularly in the instance of Structural Equation Modelling (Allison, 2003) where keeping as many cases as possible is better for statistical accuracy. However it is preferable in the current research, as opposed to pairwise deletion/casewise deletion, because it maintains the sample size across all variables included in regression models.

5.4 Ethical Considerations

A number of ethical considerations were taken into account when collecting data for this research. There are a number of differences between classical questionnaire studies and the collection of data for network studies. The most obvious difference, and one that causes the largest ethical problems, is that of anonymity (Borgatti and Molina, 2005). This issue is predominantly a problem in whole network data/research, as the researcher needs to know exactly who is connected to who, so that the whole network and all interaction can be recorded and plotted. In ego-network analysis, the identity of nodes is less important, and instead their characteristics are more important. These characteristics are still possibly identifying, it is therefore both legally and ethically important to take all the necessary steps to keep data anonymous at all stages of the research process.

This anonymity is provided in the current study in a number of ways. Ex-ante, this was controlled for by including instructions to participants that informed them not to include the real names of people in the name generator list, and instead to use nicknames, initials, or other identifiers that would not identify the individual to the researcher, but who would be easily identifiable by the participant in follow up questions. Ex-post, when results were tabulated and processed for

analysis, names and identifiers were completely removed and replaced with an alphanumeric identification system. This was possible because within the current research, identification of nodes by name is not necessary.

5.5 Data Collection

Those measuring social capital from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives often, instead of measuring social capital the 'thing', focus on outcomes of the access to social capital, because the assumption held is that the potential access available (the capacity) is indicative of the returns achieved by an individual (Lin, 2008). Commonly the collection of network data is employed in the measurement of social capital. Network data can be collected through a number of different mediums, both qualitative and quantitative (Marin and Wellman, 2011). Some of the less common methods include observation (common when collecting network data about animals e.g. Gibson and Mann, 2008), from archive and communication analysis (for example when networks being studied are historic, no longer exist, or when the researcher does not have direct access to the individuals being studied e.g. Gould, 1995; Mok, Wellman and Carrasco, 2010). The most commonly used method of data collection in the field of social network analysis uses survey and questionnaire data, however network data differs from standard data collected in social sciences due to the fact that networks are inherently interested not only in the participant being questioned, but also in the other alters and networks partners that the participant has in their network (Wasserman and Faust, 1994). Those who research networks are not simply looking for cause and effect relationships based on psycho-social measurements, but are looking for patterns of connectivity and structure (Wellman, 1988, p2).

There are a number of approaches to this method of data collection, the most common of these being (from the network perspective) the name generation method. The name generation method requires individuals to list a finite number of individuals, with whom for example, they 'have regular contact with'. The qualifying nature is relationship-based, ie, the question is usually 'Please list or name individuals with whom...' followed by a relationship based statement e.g. "...you work with", "you discuss your personal life with" or similar. The aim of this is to provide a list of individuals whom the focal point of investigation has contact with. These are the direct members of their network that provide their access to social capital. Follow up questions are then posed to individuals, known as qualifiers or name interpreters. These qualifiers may ask individuals how each of the contacts they listed are related to one and other (or if they are connected at all), and characteristics of importance to the researcher, such as age, or gender of the network contacts.

Alternative methods to gathering names have been developed more recently, such as the position generator (Lin and Dumin, 1986) and the resource-generator method (Van der Gaag and Snijders, 2005). Both are in the same vein as the name-generator method, aiming to obtain a list of names or direct contacts held by an individual, from whom they can potentially access resources. The position generator asks individuals to name others that they know within certain occupational positions such as lawyers, teachers, lorry drivers and alike. The resource generator asks about potential access to social resources of each individual, but does not ask about names or positions of individuals. Resource access includes access to someone that can help you move house, or access to someone who can give advice on matters of law. Again, both of these two methods imply that greater access either to individuals in positions or resources is indicative of greater access to/ability to use social capital, and thus inferences are made on this basis.

It can be concluded, that social network analysis is popularly used within much of social sciences, as a tool that allows for the investigation of network structure. Its focus, rather than being solely on an individual – as is the focus in the majority of survey data and survey measures, is instead on the relationships between individual units (either individuals, or between two business units, or organizations) (Wasserman and Faust, 1994). This investigation of the actual relationship between ‘*person a*’ and ‘*person b*’ is what makes social network analysis so useful for the investigation of access to social capital. Social capital does not come from the individual, but instead from the network in which the individual is embedded (Lin, 1999). Therefore, as a tool that captures the structure of a network, its usefulness is unparalleled in the study of social capital and how different network structures can influence different access. This has been highlighted by the applicability and usefulness of studies from Burt (1992) and Granovetter (1974) whom both analyse the impact of social network structure on other outcomes.

Used in the current context, social network analysis at the ego-level will be an invaluable tool for the investigation of expatriate network structure. It will not be used entirely on its own however. The information gathered from such analyses can also be analysed, and the outputs used within other statistical models (e.g regression models) and plotted against survey data, to give more comprehensive insights into the links between network structure and other individual level variables. Researching information about relationships, and about outcomes of an individual, mirrors the process of social capital itself: an individual outcome, made more or less likely due to networks and relationships.

While the above methods are not necessarily quantitative in their collection of data, they are quantitative in their aims. Binary recordings are made about access to resources, and within the name generator’s name interpreters, questions are asked about categorical variables such as gender or religion. These methods are more comprehensive in nature than qualitative methods

of investigating social capital, which most often involve interviews that simply ask about perceptions of the sense of community, or family (e.g. Onyx and Bullen, 2000). Even qualitative exploration of data often becomes quantitative in some form within the field of social capital. For example, Mäkelä and Brewster (2009) conduct structured interviews with their sample of managers from MNCs, however this data was analysed using MANCOVA/ANCOVA analyses. In the expatriate context, there is currently only a single study to take a fully qualitative perspective on the exploration of social capital. Speaking in semi-structured interviews with 20 Finnish expatriates, Mäkelä and Suutari (2009) probed about the development and usage of interpersonal networks established during assignments on the development of the career of the expatriate. Whilst this approach provides some generic information, with a sample size of 20, little statistically significant observations can be made with any generalisability, however deeper individual understanding can be gained.

Given the previously outlined ontological and epistemological perspective of the researcher, it is evident that the preference within the current study is primarily to opt for the testable, quantitative methods, however not discounting the value of context that interviews can provide. The focus of the current study, being on individuals' use of social capital, or at least the effect of an individuals' access to social capital, requires the investigation of the phenomenon of access. Because the focus is not on societal benefits of social capital, levels of altruistic donation, or social volunteer participation – as measured extensively by Putnam (2000) – are not necessary and would be irrelevant for this current study. Instead, the foci, as with the majority of social capital research conducted at the level of the individual, is on the structure of the social network that an individual is embedded within. Therefore the most appropriate, and in the opinion of this author, most useful tool for the analysis of social capital, is social network analysis, specifically collected through the name-generator approach, paired with survey data that looks to investigate other more individually/internally focused aspects of social capital.

5.5.1 Collection tools

Quantitative data was collected by means of an online questionnaire survey. The survey was made using the Qualtrics questionnaire tool (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). This tool allows for presentation of questions in more than one language, which enabled the alleviation of any language barrier issues. Whilst these were not expected given the education of the participants, the survey questions used were translated from English to German, and the option to read and answer in either English or German was presented. To ensure that there was no miscommunication, the translations were back-translated to check for accuracy.

Qualtrics provides a benefit for asking social-network focused questions because it allows for looping and skipping of questions based upon previous answers. A criticism of the name generator method is that it can generally appear confusing or unclear, or be hard to administer. Qualtrics can be coded to alleviate such problems – eliminating redundant questions. This provides a benefit of decreased confusion amongst participants, and reduced time spent taking the survey.

In the interviews that followed the quantitative data collection, participants were recorded, and their interviews transcribed and anonymised.

5.5.2 Survey

Participants completed a two-part questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire took an ego-centric network design that required participants (egos) to list up to 18 connections (alters) that they worked with or considered to be a contact within their professional network. There were no set criteria as to the nature of these alters, and egos were asked to list individual characteristics for each of these alters such as relationships to the ego, location of work and nationality. Finally, within this section egos (participants) were asked to indicate which alters within their network also had a connection to each other.

The second part of the questionnaire used established item-batteries to capture the remaining variables that are of interest in the study – the variables that are not directly measurable via social network analysis. These variables include repatriation intention, national identity, and career embeddedness.

It is worth noting that the method of data collection within social network analysis can vary dependent on the level of focus of the study. Often broken into two broad categories, social networks can be investigated at the Micro level and the Macro level.

5.5.3 Micro vs Macro level investigation

At the micro-level of analysis, network research is interested in investigating the individual. Dyadic relationships, between two actors can be investigated in terms of strength of relationships or frequency of interactions. Triad focused research between three individuals or actors often investigates the concept of reciprocity. Measurement of actor specific characteristics such as centrality of an individual or an individual's prestige within a network are appropriate when single actors roles within a network are the focus of investigation (Wasserman and Faust, 1994). Relationships at the individual actor level are often characterised within ego-network analysis.

Alternatively, macro-level social network analysis focuses on whole networks. Whole networks take a snap-shot overview of an entire social structure – be it the connections within a department, or all the connections within a company as a whole. In contrast to ego-network analysis, which is interested only in a single ego, and then the nodes that are directly connected to that ego, whole-network analysis is interested in every single node or individual within the network. A popular culture example of the whole-network approach was popularised by Brett Tjaden (in Watts and Strogatz, 1998) who conducted a thorough search of the whole network of all movie stars ever (those listed on the internet-movie database) and discovered that the farthest connection to the actor Kevin Bacon, is eight degrees (The farthest American connection is 4 degrees). In this example, the whole network was measured and plotted. This method of data collection is far more detailed than ego-network analysis in its ability to measure all connections – both close and distant. However this approach is also far more time consuming and often unnecessary for the purposes of whatever is being studied – in the current context, this also applies.

5.5.4 Common method bias

In order to minimize the possibility of a common method bias I employed some of the *ex-ante* strategies suggested by Chang, van Witteloostuijn and Eden (2010). Whilst it was not possible to collect measures for different constructs from different sources, I was able to separate questions, and inverted some of the items within multi-item measures. I also employed different scale types, including percentage scales, and 5 and 7 point Likert scales. After data collection I used ex post measure to minimize the potential common method variance (Chang et al, 2010) by running a Harman single factor test. This analysis provided results that did not indicate any common method bias.

The sample itself consists 56.4% Males (N=133), 40.3% females (N=95) and 3.4% unspecified (N=8). Respondents' age ranged from 29-67 with a mean of 45.3 years of age, and individuals included in the sample had been living in the UK for between two and 39 years (mean 13.38). Individuals had worked at between 1 and 7 different organizations since completing their doctoral studies, with a mean of 2.66 organizations. *The majority of participants held the position of insert position, (N=86).*

5.6 Variables and Measures

5.6.1 Dependent variable – Repatriation intention

The measurement of intention to repatriate was based on Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) compilation of three previous measures of repatriation intention (Inkson et al, 1997; Mak, 1997).

Each of the three questions were measured on a 1-5 Likert scale and included the questions “I intend to return to Germany” (1 strongly disagree – 5 Agree), “I intend to remain abroad permanently” (reverse coded) and “I plan to return to Germany within the next two years”. A copy of the key items and measures used in the current survey are displayed below in Appendix 1.

5.6.2 Independent variables

As previously mentioned, the chosen way of measuring access to social capital is the name-generator method, a method whereby an individual is asked a question e.g. “with whom do you usually discuss your work with?”, and then a list of names, their status, and connections to each other is listed (Lin, 2008; Van Deth, 2008). Once the names are collected it is possible to measure network-based information that can help assess the access to social capital available by each of the individuals in the sample, using measures such as homophily and density.

A requisite for measuring the characteristics of an EA’s ego-network as the independent variables was to capture an individual’s ego network. Following prior research the name-generator method was used. Respondents were asked to list the names of individuals with whom they discuss particular topics, and then provide additional information on these contacts, such as, for example, their status or their connections to other contacts on the list (Lin, 2008). Based on this information the following variables were measured.

To ascertain the network variables such as density and homophily, the ego-network information supplied by each of the participants was transformed and entered into the E-net (Borgatti, 2006) software package. This package allowed for the production of a multitude of network variables for each of the ego-networks, and also provided visualizations of each ego-network. The data obtained from this software package was then transferred back into the main dataset for analysis in SPSS.

Homophily was measured using the Krackhardt and Stern E-I index calculated as $\frac{E-I}{E+I}$ where E is the number of ties between actors external to the ego’s classification and I is the number of ties between actors internal to the ego’s classification. This was measured for both nationality and for place of work. The index ranges from a value of -1 to +1 and is negative when the group is inward looking, and positive when the group is outward looking. Given that a score of -1 indicates a completely homophilous network, we then multiply the results with a factor of -1 in order to allow for easier interpretation of data. In this scenario, any significant positive relationships between network homophily and the other factors will indicate a relationship between increasing levels of network homophily, whereas using the original measures increased

levels of homophily would be indicated by significant negative correlations. National Homophily was calculated using information collected on the nationality of alters in the individual ego-networks of the participants (relative to their own nationality) and Geographic homophily was calculated using information collected on the location (i.e. country) of alters in the individual ego-networks of participants (relative to their own location).

Network Density was measured using the e-net software (Borgatti and Halgin, 2011) and based on Wasserman and Faust (1994) computation of network density as $D = \frac{T}{N(N-1)}$ where T = unidirectional ties between actors and are therefore measurable. In the current scenario, given that ties are never assumed to be unidirectional (ties go both ways between alters that know each other – one person cannot be in contact with another person without this contact being reciprocated), the sum becomes $D = \frac{2T}{N(N-1)}$. This was calculated automatically within the e-net software, and represents the number of ties between alters in a network (excluding the ties to the ego), as a proportion of the maximum possible number of ties.

Social Status (position in the hierarchy) was measured based on the position of the ego in terms of their positional seniority. Given the nature of the sample there are only a certain number of positions including lecturer, senior lecturer, professor, reader, etc, that were then ranked to relate to structure within the hierarchy of their organization.

5.6.3 Moderating variables

Career Embeddedness - the role that embeddedness can play in moderating the access to social capital of EAs was deemed important. While links to individuals, groups and teams are one facet of job embeddedness, the construct also includes actors' perceptions of fit with their job and organization, and the potential sacrifice associated with leaving a particular job. We used the items suggested by Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) to measure this variable. Three separate questions were used to measure host country career embeddedness. Three items measured the sacrifices that an ego would have to make if they were to leave their host country, and were scored on a 1-5 Likert scale. The second question related to career fit, and consisted four items, rated on a 1-7 Likert scale. Two items measured *links* to the host country employing organization, one item measured tenure (7 point scale) and one item measured job permanency (3 point scale). These measures were devised by Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) to apply Lee et al (2008) theory of embeddedness to the self-initiated expatriate career.

Given indications in past research that national identity is likely to affect the return intentions of (organizational) expatriates (De Cieri, Sheehan, Costa, Fenwick, & Cooper, 2009) and SIEs (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010), I measured for the moderating effect National Identity – National

Identity was measured based on Cameron (2004) measures of National Identity. This was a 9 item question and included questions such as “I have a lot in common with other Germans” and “In general, being German is an important part of my self-image”. These questions were answered on a 1-7 Likert scale (Strongly disagree to strongly agree).

5.6.4 Control variables

I controlled for a number of factors that are likely to affect EAs’ return intention, based on prior research into the return intentions of both SIEs and AEs (e.g. Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Black and Gregersen, 1990). I controlled for the age and gender of EAs, the length of time they had spent in the host country, their overall network size, the time since they had obtained their doctorate, the number of organizations that had worked for since obtaining their doctorate, EAs commitment, and the status of the organization employing the EA.

Research on AEs has shown that the age of an expatriate is likely to be associated with time overseas in the host country (Gregersen and Stroh, 1997). While younger, SIEs are less likely to have spent time developing ties to either their host or home country that might influence their decisions to leave or remain. Younger SIEs are less likely to have developed their careers and therefore are lower in the social hierarchy, and thus may be more likely to repatriate earlier. Controlling for age, controls for this potential. EAs’ age was measured in years.

Gender was measured using a dummy variable with 0 for male and 1 for female respondents. Within academia males are statistically more likely to occupy more of the senior roles, and therefore be higher within the organizational hierarchy. Controlling for gender will enable to control for this factor.

Time overseas in years was chosen as a proxy for tenure abroad, as within domestic literature, length of tenure has been linked to turnover within domestic literature (Macaulay, 2003). E.g. Macaulay suggests that tenure reduces the likelihood of turnover. The intention of EAs to repatriate may thus decrease with the length of their tenure overseas.

Controlling for network size was required because the instrument to collect data on EAs’ ego-network only allowed for a maximum ego-network size of 18 alters. When studying overlaps within networks, the number of connections between alters in a network is a function that is limited or extended by the size of the network itself (McPherson, 1982) and hence it is necessary to control for network size to allow for accurate representation of the impact of factors such as network density.

Both time since the EA had obtained their doctorate and the number of roles held since obtaining their doctorate was controlled for. Given that a doctorate is requirement for an

academic lecturer or professor, the length of time since an individual has obtained their doctorate is also indicative of the potential seniority of an SIE academic.

Furthermore, I controlled for organizational commitment of the expatriates as this has previously been linked in domestic literature with turnover intention (e.g. Wasti, 2003). This was measured using Meyer and Allen's (1991) three component model of organizational commitment.

Finally, I included a control variable relating to the status of the institution that each participant worked within. Working for a high status institutions may enhance individuals desire to stay on; at the same time, it may enhance their employment opportunities in their home country. This was measured using a binary variable taking on the value of 1 if the respondent's employer was a member of the prestigious Russell group universities, and 0 if not.

5.7 Data Analysis

5.7.1 Analysis of quantitative data

In this thesis statistical analysis was conducted using Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS). For the testing of all of the hypotheses, significance was based on a confidence value of 0.05, however if the confidence value was between 0.05 and 0.10 then this was also noted for discussion. All outputs from SPSS were tabulated in order to allow for systematic and clear analysis of results, and easy highlighting of significant or unexpected values. A hierarchical multiple regression model was run to investigate the hypotheses and model as a whole. Common method variance is tested for using Harman's single factor test (Chang, et al 2010). The model includes three levels, the first for control variables only, the second testing regression coefficients of variables hypothesized in the model to have a direct correlation with the independent variable, and the third level including all previous variables and the proposed moderating relationships. Prior to inputting data into the regression model, each variable was tested for normality, and skewness.

5.8 Qualitative Data (Inductive)

As mentioned at the start of this chapter, to allow for the interpretation of context, and for further insights into the hypotheses investigated with the quantitative data, a small number of 12 semi-structured interviews were conducted with German EAs from a number of different academic contexts. Whilst the majority of these EAs worked within the UK at the time of data collection, the sample also included individuals who had previously worked within the UK HE sector, but who had now repatriated. Being semi-structured, these interviews focused on broad topics relating to the hypotheses tested, to enable further contextual insight. Questions were

asked around all of the key themes of the current research, and any information that was relevant to providing extra context was followed up with further questions.

5.8.1 Analysis of qualitative data

After the quantitative data had been collected, and a number of significant relationships highlighted it was necessary to explore the findings further qualitatively. The purpose of this exploration was to delve deeper into some of the findings to understand more comprehensively the role that access to social capital and social networks might play on intention to repatriate. As previously highlighted, the post-positivist tradition and approach to research highlights that whilst it is possible to test relationships to ascertain knowledge, that contextual information is both important and relevant. The imperfect nature of human consciousness means that knowledge can only be imperfectly gained. Qualitative follow up to the quantitative research allows for the investigation, consideration and maintenance of context in more depth, as previously outlined as an important requirement of post-positivist enquiry. It also allows for more clarity when trying to understand the quantitative, deductive results.

Based on this reasoning, a number of interviews were conducted with SIE academics that were either based in the UK currently, or who had already repatriated. Whilst the quantitative sample was exclusively of German origin, a decision was made to also only interview German academic expatriate, so to avoid confusing new information which may have underlying roots in different contexts, from contextually relevant findings.

Interviews were semi-structured, with a number of topics being addressed, revolving around networks and repatriation intention. These interviews lasted between 20 minutes and 45 minutes, and were transcribed to allow for a thematic analysis. Data was anonymised during the transcription process.

Thematic Analysis is the qualitative research process of examining themes within data, and presenting them for analysis (Guest, Namey and Mitchell, 2012). Thematic analysis can complement the quantitative analysis conducted on EAs in the current research by providing a method that allows the capturing of deeper meanings and patterns within a sample of EAs, thus providing more depth to the research. Whilst the qualitative aspect of this research is not the main focus, and instead is conducted to provide support to, or uncover further some of the relationships highlighted by the quantitative data, it is still a useful tool that provides greater context and clarity.

The interviews were structured in such a way to try and capture data about the relationships hypothesized in chapter four, but without directly asking participants about these themes unless

the direction of the conversation flowed this way. This allowed for a naturally progressing interview structure that built upon basic early questions about the EAs experiences.

Table 5.1 – Interviewee Descriptive Information

Gender	6 Male, 6 Female
Age Range	27 to 60
Position Range	From post-doctoral and teaching-focussed academics through to Professors
Country of Origin/Nationality	9 Fully German Citizens, 2 Dual Nationality German Citizens, 1 Austrian passport holder who lived in Germany from birth until expatriation to the UK.
Current Location	10 in UK, 2 in Germany

6 Results

This chapter presents the results of the empirical analysis which forms the deductive part of the research in the current thesis. It begins with an outline of the descriptive results, focusing on a number of central characteristics of both the individual EAs as well as their ego-networks. This is followed by a presentation of the correlation matrix, highlighting a number of interesting correlations, and more importantly – checking some of the requirements for the subsequent regression analysis. The third section starts by presenting the assumptions of regression, followed by presenting the tables and models that test the hypotheses outlined in the previous chapter. The chapter finishes with a brief overview of the findings relating to each hypothesis.

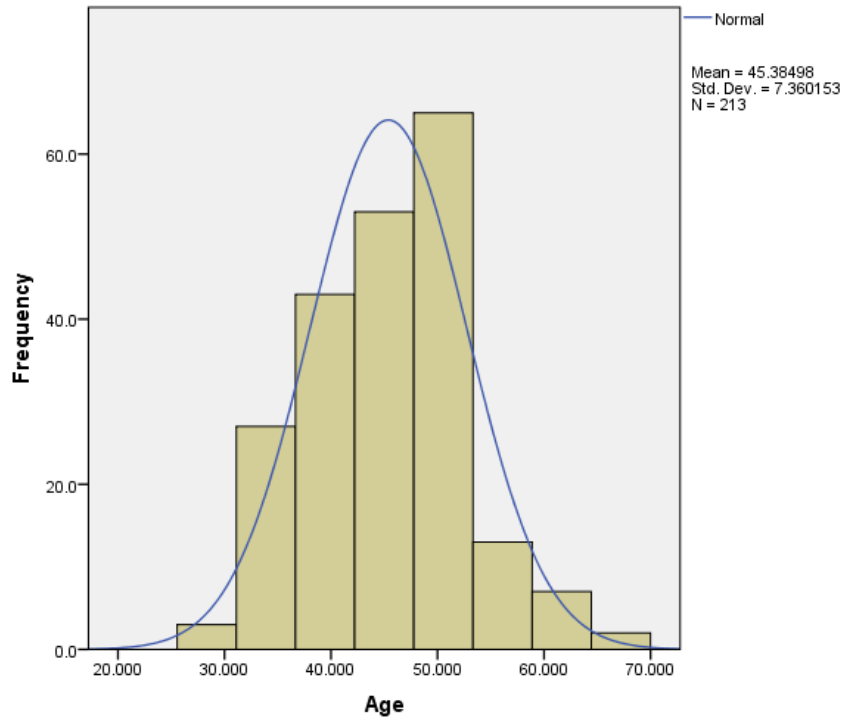
6.1 Descriptive Results

The following presents the descriptive results on Age, Gender, and length of stay of respondents to confirm/compare with previous definitions and descriptions of expatriates. This comparison is necessary in order to understand whether the current sample is representative of SIEs and EAs in light of previous work (the importance of accounting for previous research and theory is highlighted previously in chapter 5). Secondly, it is important to check that the make-up of the current sample is an accurate representation of the overall context of the UK higher education sector. It is also important to examine these distributions as they form part of the final regression model and so it is important that they do not violate any of the underlying assumptions of regression models.

6.1.1 Demographic characteristics

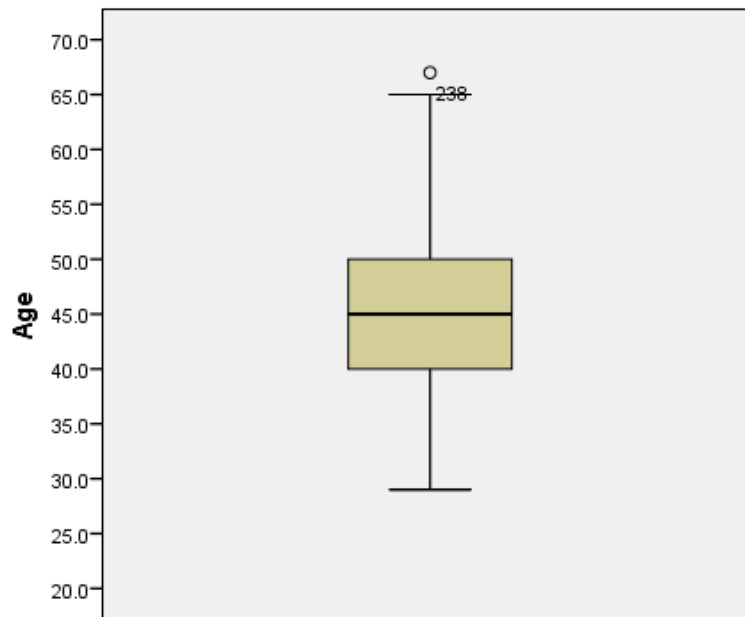
Diversity of respondents is somewhat limited by the sampling techniques used. For example, the minimum age for the sample group is restricted by the fact that those within the sample all possess a doctorate or equivalent. This fact is discussed further in later chapters. The average age of respondents was 45.38 years of age, with the minimum age of anybody in the sample being 29 and the maximum age of respondents being 67. Barring the 18-29 year old age group, this sample covers the entire spectrum of working age individuals. The standard deviation of this group is 7.36 years, and with fairly neutral skewness and kurtosis statistics (0.245 and -0.156 respectively) the distribution in age ranges fits the assumptions of normality. There were 6 missing values.

Figure 6.1: Age distribution of sample with normal distribution curve



A different perspective on the *spread* of age reveals that whilst both the mean and median are 45 years, that actually 75% of the entire sample are under the age of 50, and 50% of the sample are between the ages of 40 and 50. This fits largely with previous samples of SIE academics, for example that of Richardson and McKenna (2002) whose samples consisted of individuals between the ages of 26 and 55. Similarly Selmer and Lauring (2012) and Froese (2012) both had samples primarily consisting of individuals in their 30s, 40s and 50s. Where this sample differs slightly, is from non-academic SIEs. Cao et al (2014) for example had a sample of 112 SIEs who were primarily between the age of 25 – 35 years of age, and Tharenou (2003) whose average sample age was 23 years old. What this information suggests is that whilst the concept of the SIE encompasses a heterogeneous group of ages, that in terms of SIE academics, that the sample of the current research is largely representative.

Figure 6.2: Box-plot of ages of sample



The sample consisted of 146 males, 102 females and 10 missing values – either those who did not respond or did not wish to respond. This left 248 individuals who classified their genders either as male (58.9% of valid sample) or female (41.1% of valid sample). Of the 213 selected listwise cases, 58.2% (n=124) were male and 41.8% (n=89) were female. It is worth noting that this is not an even 50/50 split as would be expected as a subset of society as a whole however HESA (2015) notes that in the UK HE sector, that females account for only 45% of academic job roles, which appears to be more consistent with the current sample.

As the data entered into the model was excluded pairwise, the final number of individual entries into the regression model was n=199. As this number is lower than the original number of respondents by a margin of over 10%, the two samples were compared on each variable to determine if the reduced n had a significant impact on the mean and spread of the variables, and would potentially skew or impact upon the results of the regression. After conducting these tests, no significant difference between the means or standard deviations was found.

6.1.2 Career related characteristics

All participants in the sample moved to the UK a minimum of 2 years prior to the date of data collection. The range of time since expatriation occurred (the length of time in the UK) was 37 years, with the longest individual within the sample being in the UK for 39 years. The longest expatriated individuals were in the minority, and this skewed the average length of time spent in the UK to 13.22 years. This is demonstrated in figure 6.3 below.

Previous studies have found the average duration of stay for non-academic SIEs to be far shorter, Cao, Hirshi and Deller (2013) report that the average length of stay of SIEs in their sample is 7.73 years. However it is worth noting that over 30% of their sample stayed “Longer than 10 years”. Again, instead of investigating the mean, which is liable to skewness from upper values, a boxplot uncovers that there are a number of outliers pulling the mean and length of stay upwards. This is important to account for due to Al-Ariss (2010) assertion of the difference between a migrant and an expatriate. One of the key distinctions is length of stay, migrants staying more permanently, whilst expatriates usually intending to return to their country of origin at some point. The question, should in future be posed, as to whether there is a specific amount of time that an individual can temporarily experience a different country, and at what point this temporality becomes permanent. Whilst this is not the case of this research, this is important to consider. The difference in length of stay could also partially be indicative of one of the major differences between SIEs and EAs. The length of stay of the current sample of EAs is longer than in previous SIE studies that focus on non-academic expatriates, thus this observation can be pointed to as a key source of difference.

Figure 6.3: Histogram of Duration of Stay in UK

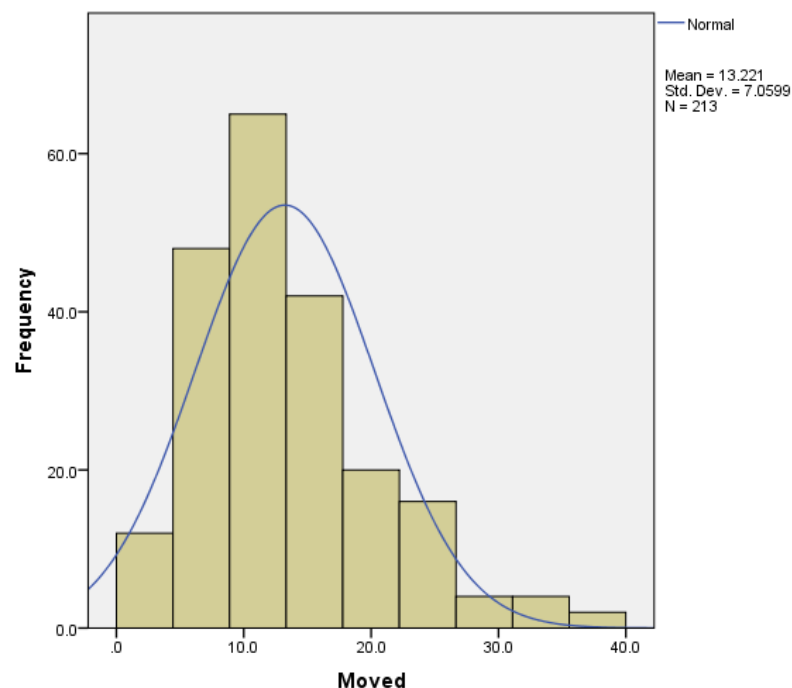
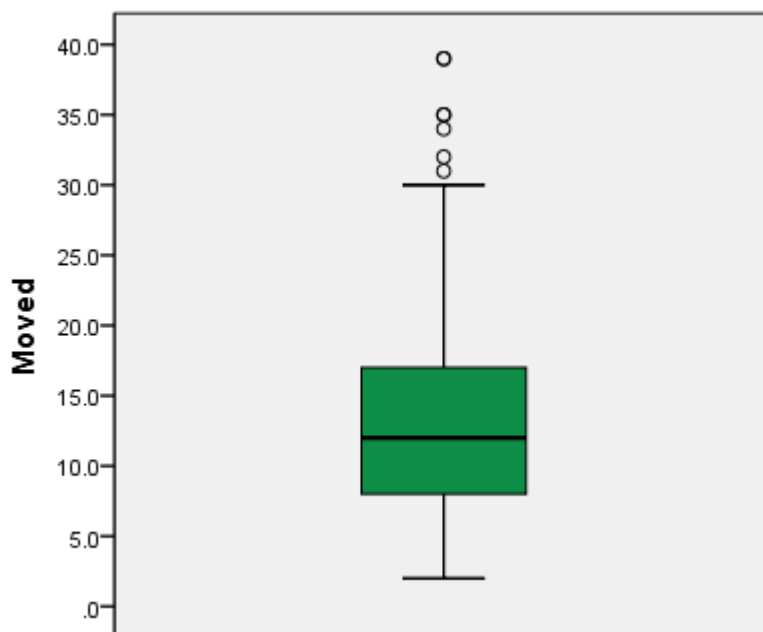


Figure 6.4: Boxplot depicting length of stay of EAs



Further and deeper analysis of the Box plot highlights that whilst there are a number of individuals who have stayed longer than 30 years, 95% of the sample have been in the UK 26 years or less.

Respondents were all asked when they completed their PhD and how many organizations that they had worked for since completing their PhD. Individuals had been awarded their PhD between 1 and 42 years ago, with an average of 13.7 years since obtaining doctoral status. Individuals within the sample had worked for between 1 and 7 organizations since obtaining their PhDs. The mean was 2.66 organizations. The average intention to return score was 2.6. Both affective and continuance commitment showed higher average scores than normative commitment (means of 4.27, 4.54 and 3.32 respectively).

6.1.3 Characteristics of EA ego-networks

The size of EA ego networks ranged from between 0 and 18 contacts with the EA (the maximum limited by the survey), with an average network size of 8.61. In geographic homophily, networks ranged from -1 to +1, indicating that individuals within the sample had connections that were at all levels of the spectrum (including individuals with networks solely based outside of the host country, and networks based solely in the host country). The mean homophily was -.49. Similarly with National Homophily, scores ranged from -1 to +1, indicating that there were individuals

within the sample that were limited to only German Contacts, whilst others in the sample had no German network contacts. The mean score was .59

6.1.4 Correlations

A pairwise correlation was conducted on all variables to test for simple and significant correlations. The initial results of this correlation analysis, including means and standard deviations of each variable is presented in the table below. Providing a correlation matrix allows for initial relationships to be pointed to, through observation of simple correlation analysis. It also allows for a crude measure of collinearity of certain variables. At this stage the high correlation between Age and PhD (When participants completed their PhD) was noted – and therefore, the PhD variable was removed from the regression analysis to reduce likelihood of multicollinearity. This was checked within an initial regression itself against the VIF statistics that confirmed PhD had a high variance inflation factor and was thus not included.

Table 6.5 – Correlation Matrix

	Correlations																					
	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1 When Moved	13.19	7.10	1.000																			
2 Organizations worked for	2.65	1.26	-.023	1.000																		
3 Gender	1.41	1.41	.124*	-.135*	1.000																	
4 Russel Group?	0.51	0.50	-.103	.008	-.135*	1.000																
5 Network Size	8.70	3.76	.083	-.004	-.036	.044	1.000															
6 Affective Commitment	4.27	1.29	-.014	-.025	-.099	.110	.155*	1.000														
7 Continuous Commitment	4.54	1.15	.075	-.077	.159*	-.177**	-.117	-.154*	1.000													
8 Normative Commitment	3.32	0.64	.012	-.122*	-.073	-.108	.029	.298	.028	1.000												
9 Useful Home Contacts	3.86	4.40	-.071	.059	-.059	.069	.104	-.049	-.126*	.001	1.000											
10 Useful Host Contacts	7.87	6.78	.140*	.027	-.039	-.063	.242**	.209**	-.119*	.058	.291	1.000										
11 Geographic Homophily	0.01	0.45	.180**	-.071	.011	-.024	-.054	-.005	.133*	-.030	-.237**	.104	1.000									
12 National Homophily	0.02	0.39	-.278	-.044	.047	-.052	-.062	-.108	-.031	.004	.225**	-.162*	-.387	1.000								
13 Heirarchy	3.71	1.47	.136*	.293	-.233**	.102	.096	.063	-.104	-.089	.025	-.104	-.087	-.054	1.000							
14 Network Density	0.12	0.09	.076	-.134*	-.043	-.037	-.164	.026	.178**	.105	-.152*	.015	.341	-.042	-.038	1.000						
15 National Identity	4.50	0.98	.049	-.040	-.021	-.068	.028	.071	-.054	.096	-.026	-.016	.009	.088	-.017	.021	1.000					
16 Career Embeddedness	-0.03	0.51	.125*	-.090	.091	.062	.007	.302	-.007	.024	-.196**	.164	.216**	-.154*	.005	.119*	-.030	1.000				
17 National Homophily/Geographic Homophily Interaction	-0.07	0.19	.152*	.011	-.047	-.105	.012	.151*	.014	.103	-.275	.012	.171**	-.231**	-.026	.056	-.027	.177**	1.000			
18 National Homophily/National Identity Interaction	0.03	0.39	-.088	.001	-.130*	.080	-.032	-.042	-.056	.037	.020	-.040	-.048	.201**	.067	-.025	.041	.022	-.051	1.000		
19 Geographic Homophily/Career Embeddedness Interaction	0.04	0.24	.083	.065	.019	-.068	-.006	-.122*	-.040	.041	.245**	.079	-.277	.202**	.007	.009	-.072	-.036	-.233**	-.014	1.000	
20 Repatriation Intention	2.60	1.04	-.104	-.044	-.116	-.060	-.093	-.366	.011	.114	-.061	-.215**	-.148*	.244**	.078	.103	.243**	-.363**	-.118*	.002	.125*	1.000

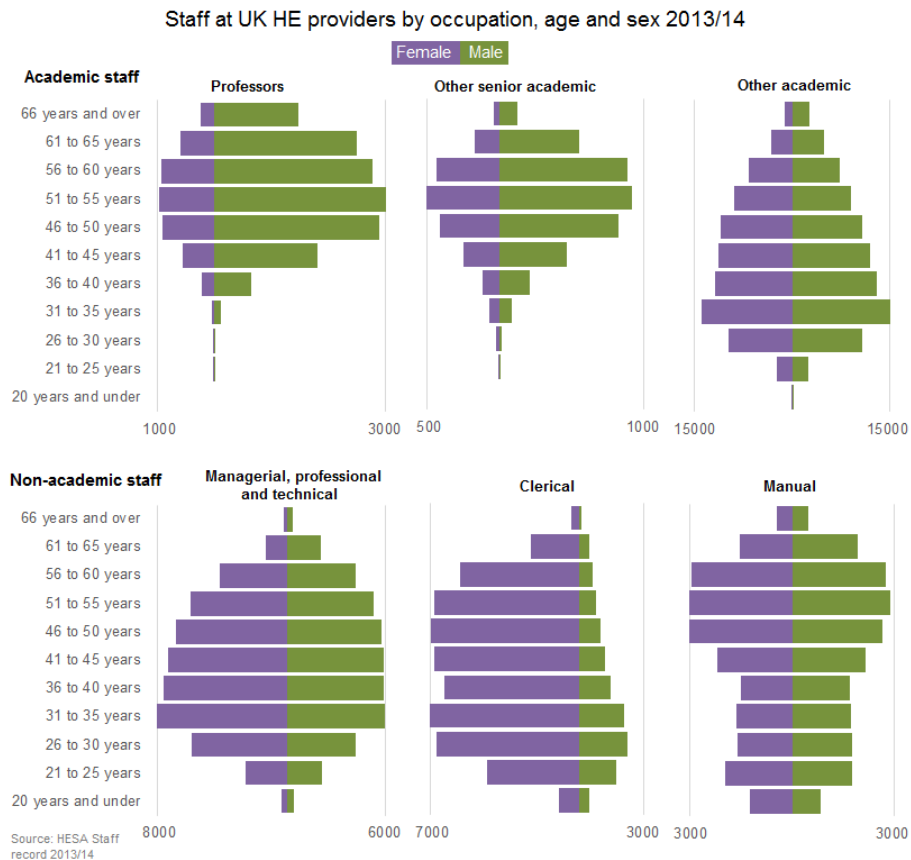
** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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

n=199

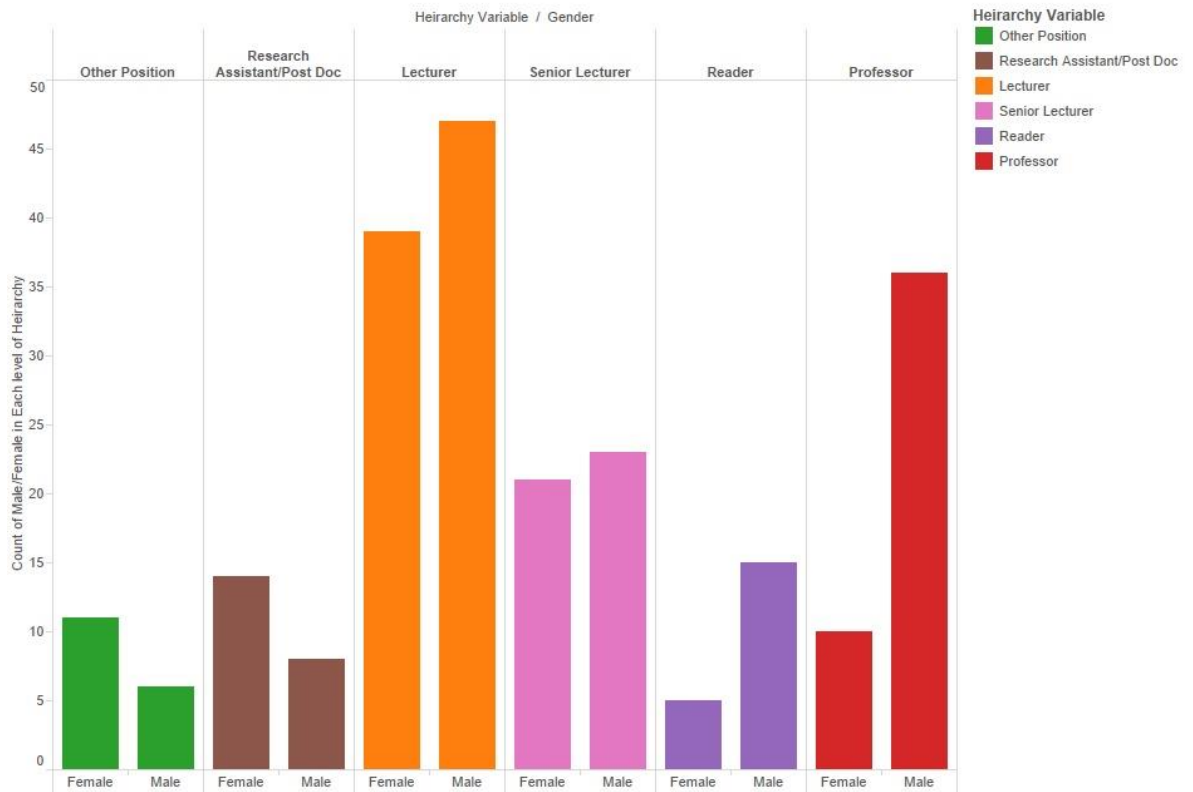
The correlation matrix highlighted a number of modest correlations. However none of these correlations were strong enough to present a problem for analysis, or to highlight any direct relationships between the variables in the regression. The existence of correlation points to simple relationships; however the more complex nature of these relationships is not uncovered until the full regression model is run. Of the independent variables being investigated, national homophily had a weak to modest positive correlation with the length of time ago that an individual moved to the UK (When Moved), and a modest negative correlation with the number of contacts in their home country that they reported being useful for finding jobs (Useful Home Contacts). Hierarchy appeared to be negatively correlated with gender, suggesting a potential relationship between gender and the position that an individual holds within their organization. Whilst not the focus of the current study, this is a correlation that would be expected, and is supported externally by HESA (2015). The figure 6.6 below is reprinted with permission from HESA and illustrates the similarity in findings. Figure 6.7 illustrated the similarity in the current dataset.

Figure 6.6 – HESA Data



Source: HESA. Reproduced by permission of the Higher Education Statistics Agency Limited.

Figure 6.6: Gender make up of each hierarchical position in UK HE



A significant modest positive correlation is also observed between geographic homophily and career embeddedness, and career embeddedness. The dependent variable, repatriation intention had significant positive pairwise correlations with a number of the independent variables and interaction variables, including national homophily, geographic homophily, national identity, National/Geographic homophily interaction, and Geographic homophily career embeddedness interaction. The dependent variable had two moderately strong correlations that were not significant – Affective commitment, and career embeddedness.

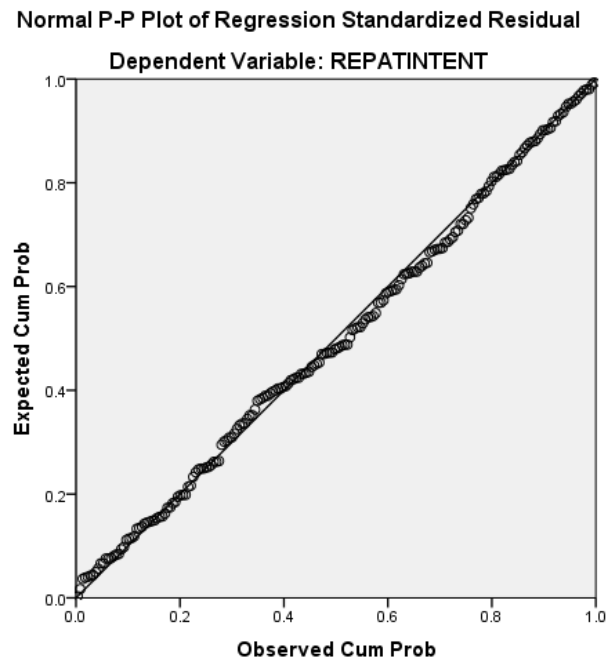
6.2 Regression Analyses

6.2.1 Assumptions of regression

When analysing collected data a number of assumptions have to be tested to ensure the validity of the results being presented. (Field, 2013). The following assumptions are made in linear regression – **additivity and linearity, normality, homogeneity of variance, and independence**. Firstly, to test for **multicollinearity** in the model, collinearity diagnostics were run. All of the variables displayed low Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) statistics, of below 2, with tolerance statistics all of above 0.6.

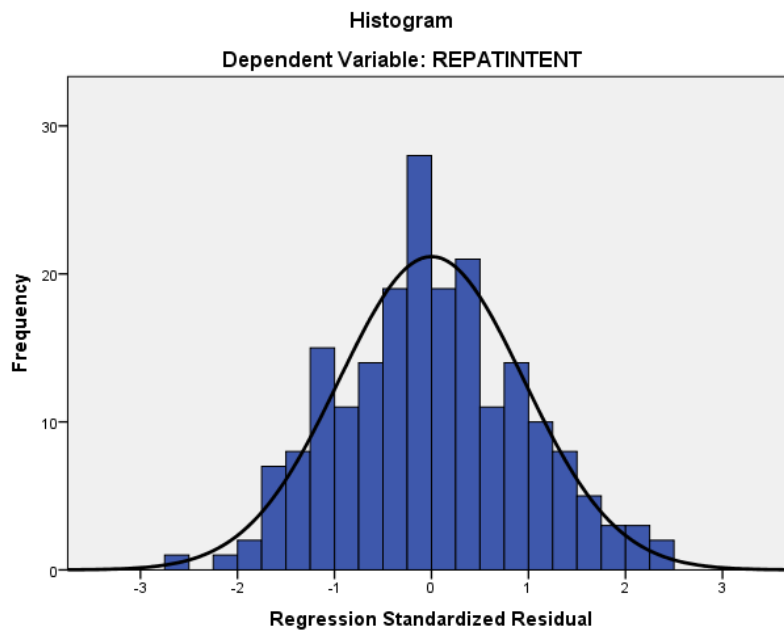
To diagnose whether the **principle of linearity and additivity** had been violated, a P-P plot of the Regression Standardized residual, with the expected probability versus the observed probability plotted against one and other. As is evident in figure 6.8 below, the variance around the diagonal line is fairly constant across the observations, indicating that this principle has not been violated.

Figure 6.8: Principle of Linearity and Additivity



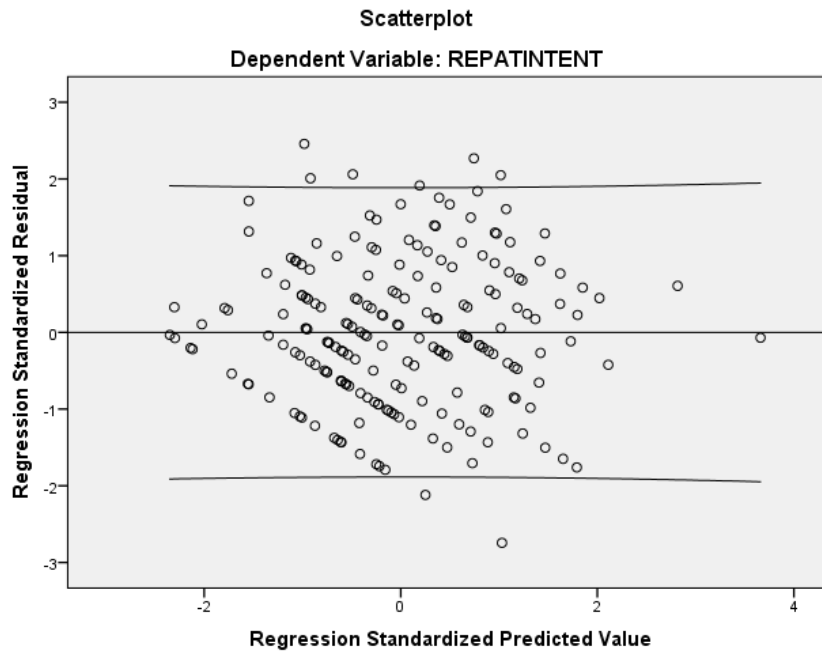
To test for the **normality of the variance**, a histogram of the residual was plotted, and again as pictured below in figure 6.9, shows no violation of this assumption.

Figure 6.9: Normality of Variance



In the test for *heteroscedascity*, shown in figure 6.10 below (a plot of the standardized residual against the standardized predicted value) no evidence was found. Therefore the homogeneity of variance principle does not appear to have been violated.

Figure 6.10: Heteroscedascity Scatter Plot



There was no requirement to test that the residuals in the regression were not correlated from one regression to the next (the presence of *serial correlation* amongst the residuals in the equation) as this data was not part of a longitudinal or time-series analysis.

Based upon the above analyses and tests, it is possible to assess that none of the assumptions suggested as important (Field, 2013) have been broken, and therefore that the regression model does not contain any unnecessary bias that would influence and reduce the reliability and validity of the results.

6.2.2 Main results of regression

To test the hypotheses a hierarchical regression consisting of three levels is used. A hierarchical regression consists of a set of independent variables that are entered into a regression model cumulatively, in an order that is predetermined or specified. This is not to be confused with stepwise regression, a regression procedure where all variables are entered into a model, and their order of importance decided by a computer program. The stepwise process does not take into account any underlying theoretical principles, or theoretical relationships between variables, and therefore provides little in the way of answering questions of theory. Conversely, the order of entry in hierarchical regression is “dictated by the purpose and logic of the research” (Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken, 2003; p158) and is therefore increases the theoretical and statistical relevance of the analysis procedure.

The lowest level consisted only of the control variables in the study (see Model 1 in Table 6.12). These variables were ‘When Moved’, ‘Organizations Worked For’, ‘Gender’, ‘Network Size’, ‘Russel Group?’, ‘Useful home contacts’, ‘Useful host contacts’, and three organizational commitment variables: ‘Affective Commitment’, ‘Continuance Commitment’ and ‘Normative Commitment’. Originally a variable representing ‘Time since PhD’ was also included in the model, however due to issues of multicollinearity in earlier tests this was not included in the final model.

The second level of the hierarchical regression includes the variables predicted to have a direct effect on the dependent variable by the theoretical framework outlined earlier in this thesis (see Model 2 in Table 6.12). These new variables include ‘Geographic Homophily’, ‘National Homophily’, ‘Hierarchy’, ‘Network Density’, ‘National Identity’, and ‘Host Country Career Embeddedness’.

The third and final level of the hierarchical regression includes all of the previous variables and the interaction variables/moderating variables in the theoretical framework/on the dependent variable (see Models 3, 4, and 5 in Table 6.12). These moderating variables include “National homophily/Geographic Homophily Interaction”, “National homophily/National Identity Interaction” and “Geographic homophily/Host Country Career Embeddedness Interaction”. Due to potential issues with multicollinearity from using multiple interaction variables that use the same independent variable these relationships were tested separately, hence three models. Model 3 includes the interaction between national and geographic homophily, Model 4 includes the interaction between national homophily and national identity, and model 5 includes the interaction between geographic homophily and host country career embeddedness.

The overall model summaries for this regression are presented in table 6.10 below.

Table 6.11: Model Summary

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.50	.245	.205	.931	.245	6.094	10	188	.000
2	0.64	.412	.360	.835	.167	8.609	6	182	.000
3	0.64	.412	.357	.837	.001	0.190	1	181	.663
4	0.65	.419	.365	.832	.007	2.278	1	181	.133
5	0.65	.418	.363	.833	.006	1.949	1	181	.164

Table 6.11 below shows the Coefficients for each level of the regression model, split into hierarchical layers, labelled model 1, model 2, model 3, model 4 and model 5. Models 3, 4 and 5 test each moderating hypothesis separately so to avoid any effects of multicollinearity. Model 2 tests the direct hypotheses, and this is what will be reported on for any direct effect. The overall adjusted R² value of model 2 was 0.36, suggesting that all of the variables in this model account for 36% of the variance in intention to repatriate of self-initiated expatriates, over one third of the variance in the model.

Table 6.12 – Hierarchical Regression Models 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables predicting Repatriation Intentions of Self-Initiated Expatriates

Variable	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β	SE B	β
When Moved to the UK	0.01	-0.082	0.009	-0.062	0.009	-0.059	0.009	-0.064	0.009	-0.076
Organizations worked for	0.054	-0.044	0.051	-0.072	0.051	-0.071	0.051	-0.074	0.051	-0.079
Gender	0.139	-.139*	0.13	-0.084	0.131	-0.086	0.131	-0.095	0.13	-0.083
Working in a Russell Group Institution?	0.138	-0.028	0.126	0.018	0.127	0.015	0.126	0.026	0.125	0.022
Network Size	0.018	-0.001	0.017	-0.018	0.017	-0.018	0.017	-0.021	0.017	-0.017
Affective Commitment	0.057	-.437**	0.053	-.392**	0.054	-0.389**	0.053	-.400**	0.054	-.379**
Continuance Commitment	0.061	-0.066	0.055	-0.044	0.055	-0.045	0.055	-0.046	0.055	-0.04
Normative Commitment	0.11	.236**	0.100	.200**	0.101	0.201**	0.100	.206**	0.1	.194**
Useful Home Country Contacts	0.016	-0.065	0.016	-.170*	0.016	-0.176*	0.016	-.174**	0.016	-.185**
Useful Host Country Contacts	0.011	-0.121	0.01	0.001	0.01	0.000	0.010	0.003	0.010	-0.004
Geographic Homophily			0.158	-0.102	0.158	-0.100	0.157	-0.098	0.162	-0.077
National Homophily			0.177	.138*	0.179	0.135*	0.180	.159*	0.178	.128†
Network Density			0.723	.133*	0.725	0.133†	0.722	.128*	0.727	.122†
Societal Hierarchy			0.046	.139*	0.046	0.137*	0.045	.145*	0.045	.141*
National Identity			0.062	.226**	0.062	0.224**	0.062	.228**	0.062	.233**
Host Country Career Embeddedness			0.131	-.242**	0.132	-0.239**	0.131	-.235**	0.132	-.249**
National Homophily*Geographic Homophily					0.337	-0.027				
National Homophily*National Identity							0.161	-0.089		
Geographic Homophily*Host Country Career Embeddedness									0.276	0.088
Adjusted R ²	0.205		0.36		0.357		0.365		0.365	
F for change in R ²	6.094**		8.609**		0.19		2.278		2.278	

** significant to p < .01, * significant to p < .05, † Significant to p < .10

Hypothesis 1 predicted that *homophilous networks based upon geographical location* would have a significant negative correlation with intention to repatriate. The higher the proportion of network contacts in a similar location to the EA geographically, the less likely they are to repatriate, as measured by the repatriation intention variable. This hypothesis was made with regards to the overall model proposed and presented in the theoretical framework.

As a direct hypothesis, the direct interaction outlined in model 2 is observed to confirm results for this hypothesis. This model showed that the geographic homophily present in an expatriate's network was not found to significantly predict repatriation intention, $\beta = -.102, p > .05$. Whilst a pairwise negative correlation exists, once other factors in the model are taken into account, this correlation does not significantly impact intention to repatriate of EAs. Based upon this result, it is not possible to support hypothesis 1, that homophilous networks based upon geographical location have a significant negative correlation with intention to repatriate. The relationship observed in model 2 was consistent across all models that also tested interaction effects.

Hypothesis 2 regards the effect of *national homophily* (the similarity of an EA to other individuals in their network based on nationality). This hypothesis specifically suggested that national homophily in ego-networks would have a positive effect upon an EA's intention to repatriate. The higher the proportion of network contacts of the same nationality as the EA geographically, the less likely they are to repatriate, as measured by the repatriation intention variable.

Observing model 2, the regression model shows $\beta = .138, p < .05$, a significantly positive prediction of intention to repatriate, as suggested in the theoretical framework. The significant positive coefficient in the regression model, provides evidence to allow the support of hypothesis 2. This result was also consistent across all models.

Hypothesis 3 regarding the relationship between national homophily and geographic homophily was hypothesized to have a significant impact upon repatriation, specifically, national homophily is predicted to moderate the influence of geographic homophily. Put simply, the hypothesis suggests that if an individual's network is high in homophilous individuals – both nationally and geographically, then they are more likely to stay. An increase in the level of national homophily is predicted to increase the effect of geographic homophily on repatriation intention. No significant relationship was found between the interaction term and the dependent variable. The result of this interaction is tested and shown in model 3, in table 6.12.

Network density was hypothesized to have a positive correlation with intention to repatriate (*hypothesis 4*). The prediction is that the more interconnected that an EA's direct network contacts are the more likely that the EA is to repatriate (as measured by repatriation intention).

The result of regression model 2 show $\beta = .133, p < .05$ which shows a result that is significant at a 95% confidence interval. Therefore hypothesis 4 is accepted. This result was consistent across all models, however in models 3 and 5 significance of this results is only clear at a 90% confidence interval.

Hypothesis 5 states that an *EA's hierarchical position* within their organization has a positive effect on EAs' intention to repatriate. In model 2, the result $\beta = .139, p < .05$ is seen, therefore it is possible to conclude that hierarchy does have a significant impact upon intention to repatriate. Therefore hypothesis 5 is supported.

Hypothesis 6 suggests that host country career embeddedness will positively moderate the relationship between geographic homophily and repatriation intention. This moderation effect was tested exclusively in model 5. Hypothesis 6 suggests that the more embedded an individual is within their career in their host country, the greater the effect of geographic homophily – the hypothesized relationship in hypothesis 1. This was tested in model 4 where the interaction effect was included. *Hypothesis 6* is not supported by the results as the respective coefficient is not statistically significant, and $\beta = -.089, n.s.$

Hypothesis 7 states that host country career embeddedness will also have a direct negative effect on EA repatriation intention. Hypothesis 7 suggests that the more embedded and individual is within their career in the host country, the less likely they are to leave that country. With regards to the direct relationship predicted by *hypothesis 7*, support was found. The regression model supports the significance of this variable in predicting repatriation (intention) of EAs with $\beta = -.242, p < .01$ (see model 2 in table 6.12). Based upon these results it is possible to accept hypothesis 7, that host country career embeddedness does have a direct effect on EA repatriation intention.

Hypothesis 8 predicted a moderating effect of national identity of the EA on the association between national homophily and EAs' intentions to repatriate. Specifically, *hypothesis 8* predicted that national identity would positively moderate the relationship between national homophily and repatriation intention. Model 5 shows that there is no statistically significant relationship between the relevant interaction term and intention to repatriate, indicating that an EAs sense of national identity does not moderate the relationship between national homophily and repatriation. Hypothesis 8 is thus not supported.

Hypothesis 9 suggested a direct link between national identity and intention to repatriate. An increased sense of national identity by the EA is proposed to increase the strength of relationship between national homophily and intention to repatriate. As shown in Model 2

national identity does have a statistically significant, positive, direct effect on repatriation intention ($\beta = .226, p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 9.

6.2.3 Results of control variables

A number of the control variables included in the regression results showed a statistically significant influence on intention to repatriate. In line with previous work on the role of organizational commitment and turnover, affective commitment was found to have a strong negative effect on intention to repatriate ($\beta = -.392, p < .01$, see Model 2) however slightly surprisingly, normative commitment had a positive effect on intention to repatriate, $\beta = .200, p < .01$ (model 2). Even more surprising however is that 'Home Country Contacts' had a significant negative effect upon intention to repatriate $\beta = -.170, p < .05$ (model 2). This result shall be discussed further in the discussion chapter. There were no significant impacts from any of the other control variables in the study.

6.3 Summary of Findings

After observing and recording bivariate correlations, and testing that the data collected did not violate any of the assumptions of regression models, a hierarchical multiple regression was used to analyse the data, with hierarchical levels being based on controls, direct relationships, and moderating relationships.

The findings showed partial support for the conceptual framework outlined, suggesting that EA intention to repatriate is significantly directly affected by National Homophily, Network Density, Organizational Hierarchy, Career Embeddedness, and National Identity. There appeared to be no impact of geographical homophily, or moderating relationships as outlined in the conceptual framework. Hypotheses 2, 4, 5, 7 and 9 were thus supported, whereas hypotheses 1, 3, 6 and 8 were not supported.

A number of control variables show significant results. First, whilst Gender, time spent in the UK, number of organizations worked for, and network size appeared to have no effect on intention to repatriate, two of the three control variables capturing different facets of EAs' commitment show statistically significant relationships with intention to repatriate. Specifically, the results show that whereas affective commitment reduces SIEs' intention to repatriate ($\beta = -.392, p < .01$), normative increases EAs' intention to repatriate ($\beta = .200, p < .01$). These findings will also be discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

7 Discussion

As outlined by Evans, Gruba and Zobel (2014), the point of a discussion is to “critically examine [your] findings in the light of the previous state of the subject as outlined in the background, and make judgments as to what has been learnt in [one’s] work”. With these brief guidelines in mind this section of the thesis has several key aims. Firstly the discussion will examine each hypothesis in turn, directly investigating the findings themselves, and discussing the implications of these findings in relation to expatriate academics, SIEs, expatriates in general, and social capital theory. At the results stage of the current enquiry, further interviews were conducted to investigate why some of the results may not have been significant, but also to provide support to the significant hypotheses. Interviews were conducted at this point in the research to provide further insight into some of the findings of the quantitative study, to both aid interpretation of the results and to explore any issues that may have been missed from the quantitative data collection, in particular in relation to any unsupported hypotheses or unexpected findings. The rationale for conducting such interviews stems from the fact that whilst the quantitative research exposed a number of key relationships, some of the underlying mechanisms were not uncovered, and post-hoc qualitative exploration through a set of short interviews with a number of expatriates allowed for these mechanisms to be investigated further, and conclusions to be drawn from a mixture of data sources. This approach allows for any results obtained deductively by testing hypotheses, to be built upon, supported, or added to/contrasted with information that is used inductively, to come to conclusions about expatriate academics.

Following the methodological and ontological principles of the post-positivist paradigm, this qualitative data is used to provide further meaning and depth to the results found in the primary analysis conducted for this research. Within the discussion section interview data is drawn upon to give further insight, thus creating a more in depth understanding of the quantitative results, and providing information that may help to explain why some of these findings differ from the expected findings outlined by the previously stated hypotheses. This interview data is also used to understand the deeper implications of the supported hypotheses.

In this respect the discussion chapter will take an approach that mixes both inductive and deductive techniques. For each hypothesis, the quantitative survey results will first be considered and thus deductions made from the data collected. Secondly, for each hypothesis, a discussion of the interview findings will occur, and relevant information will be presented. This information will then be used in tandem, to draw conclusions at a number of key levels. Level one is the EA level – where discussion of the impact of the findings for expatriate academics will be shown. Secondly (and only if relevant) , results are considered at the level of the UK context

– where if any specific factors are uncovered about the UK context, or if there are any special circumstances that may impact the findings, then these will be discussed. Thirdly, the level of the SIE as a whole will be addressed, and the relevance of any findings to all SIEs will be presented. Finally, the results will be discussed in relation to their relationship with, and potential impact on social capital theory. After investigating the hypotheses themselves a general discussion of the impact of the current research, and its level of agreement or direction setting within the SIE, expatriate and social capital fields of research. This chapter will provide a brief discussion of other results found within the course of this research, the meaning of each finding, and the implications of each finding for the relevant sets of literature.

7.1 Hypothesis 1 – Geographic Homophily and Repatriation Intention

Within the quantitative data, no significant relationship was found between geographical homophily and intention to repatriate. It was hypothesized that geographical homophily of an EA's network would have a significant negative effect on intention to repatriate, that the increasing overall similarity in location of network partners would increase the likelihood of an individual intending to remain in their host country; reducing their intention to repatriate. No support was found for this assumption. This finding in itself is initially the most surprising to draw from the quantitative data for a number of reasons.

From a theoretical perspective, geography is stated as being the most immediate source of homophily and similarity between an ego and their alter (Zipf, 1949), and the geographical location of network contacts initially appears to be particularly important for SIEs and EAs due to their movement from one location to another, leaving old network contacts and creating new ones. The hypothesis was formed on this basis, and upon the foundations of social capital theory that suggest that close ties (in this case geographically close) would strengthen norms and support amongst others in the network, reducing intention to repatriate. From a theoretical perspective, the lacking existence of any relationship between geography and other outcomes may be because the SIE has less access to pre-existing support networks that are put in place to aid EA adjustment. This assumption is supported by some of the comments made in the qualitative interviews.

Within the interviews a number of individuals mentioned that they do keep in contact with both personally and professionally with individuals that are proximate to them geographically, but also with individuals based in their home and third countries (heterophilously/non-homophilously located to the SIE). The role of the network connections, both closely located and far away, have different purposes for the EAs interviewed. All those interviewed maintained contact with individuals from their home country, and all those interviewed with the exception

of one had formed network connections with individuals in their host country. The difference in the purpose of the different contacts from different geographic locations often depended upon the motivation for expatriating in the first instance. For those who expatriated to gain further knowledge, experience or qualifications in order to advance their career, geographically distant contacts held more of a strategic role. However for those who initially came to study, with a more adventurous aim, or who came because of a partner, the geographically distant contacts or heterophilous contacts tended to be more social. For example, one interviewee stated that:

“It was quite easy [to maintain relationships with people back in the home country]. It was easy to keep up relations in my personal field, but also in terms of jobs and job options also” – Interview 4 [expatriated for career progression]

For some interviewed, geographically homophilous ties were hard to acquire at first, and it was much easier to maintain geographically heterophilous networks.

“It was much easier to retain the ties that I had in [my host country], as I still have friends there and colleagues there who we are in contact with. To build up new networks here has been a bit difficult. More difficult than [I] expected it to be honest. It took 2, 3 or 4 years to be honest. It is only more recently that we have developed new friends and new colleagues and so on. That has been a bit of a challenge that we didn’t expect really.” – Interview

2

The qualitative interviews highlighted a number of things that it was not possible to measure in the quantitative research, regarding the underlying reasons for levels of geographic homophily in an individual’s network. Firstly, the interviews pointed towards the underlying reasons for expatriation appearing to play a role in the way that networks are formed. Those who reported expatriating for one reason (e.g. career progression), appeared anecdotally to have different network configurations than those who expatriated for a different reason (e.g. escape). To further investigate this assumption, more research that specifically focuses on this factor is required. Secondly, despite time spent in the host country being accounted for as a control variable, simply controlling for time in the host country does not control for the ability or inability of individuals to network in their new host country. For the respondent in interview 2, an inability to create new contacts in the host country meant that more out of circumstance than anything else, that their network remained heterophilous in terms of geographic location. Only once a substantial amount of time had passed, was this individual able to start to increase the geographic homophily in their own network. This experience was not exclusive to interviewee

2. Another interviewee who expatriated for reason of escape also found the first two years difficult:

The first year here was pretty rough. The culture was very different... I even sent emails and letters back to Germany saying please have me back!" –

Interview 11

Whilst it may be the case that the reason for expatriating may have had an impact on the way that networks impacted the interviewees ability to adapt, those EAs who were interviewed who had returned to their home country, or who had intentions to return to their home country did report the importance of network connections located outside of the host country when it came to applying for a job.

"I think that [having a network there] would be the only way that you would get a job there. Because it is all done through networks and people putting positions to one and other, or to one and other ... there are a finite number of professorships, and once a professorship comes up then there is intense competition and normally those people who are very well connected get

those positions" – Interview 1

Given these findings, whilst the lack of statistical support for hypothesis 1 is not surprising, contextually there is some support for the idea that geographic homophily does have at least a small role to play in repatriation, but not necessarily in repatriation intentions. This finding contradicts the assumptions made about the underlying mechanisms described in social capital literature that the current hypothesis was built upon. Quantitative findings (from model 2) suggest that the similarity in location of an EAs network contacts, and thus their access to geographically relevant resources, does not have an impact upon the EA's intention to repatriate and thus the finding is not supported statistically. Exploratory (and unreported) post-hoc analysis was conducted where the dependent variable (Intention to Repatriate) was replaced with Cross Cultural Adjustment. This also failed to show any statistically significant influence from geographic homophily, so the proposed mechanism informing this hypothesis, that similarity in location of individuals will aid adjustment as a mechanism which will consequently reduce any intention to repatriate, is something that is not supported in the current research.

Whilst this hypothesis is not supported, with geographic homophily not playing a role in the EAs intention to repatriate, the inductive work gathered from interviews does point to geographic homophily playing some role for the expatriate academic – whether that being in their ability to adapt in their environment, or in supporting their intention to repatriate. Therefore whilst geographic homophily does not play a role in EA repatriation intentions, it may assist in their

ability to retain a job in the host country, even for those who may intend to repatriate. Geographic heterophily, may have the opposite impact, helping EAs who do wish to repatriate in securing employment in their home country.

Whilst only further investigation in different contexts would be able to extract more information about the impact that access to pre-existing support networks has on non-academic SIEs, I argue based on the findings in the current context that the self-reliant nature of the expatriate, (e.g. their ability to now use technologies such as social media or mobile communication at ease without significant costs) also starts to reduce the relevance of geographical distance for any global worker, and in particular for the SIE when it comes to influencing decisions to repatriate. Once the decision has been made however, contacts in different locations may be of strategic use for the SIE in securing better resources. For EAs and SIEs in general, the existence of a large number of network contacts in the home country, whilst not influencing intention to repatriate may act as a valuable resource in the act of repatriating. This inductive finding, that EAs seem relatively able to maintain their international relationships contrasts with previous suggestions that SIEs find it comparatively more difficult to link resources internationally (Jokinen, Brewster and Suutari, 2008), and thus highlights a potential difference between EAs and SIEs. The assumption in the development of hypothesis 1 was that because EAs would gain support and information from academic networks (Nicolau and Birley, 2003), and that it would be difficult to link resources internationally (Jokinen et al, 2008), that the EAs support would come from those in a geographically homophilous location (Liu and Shaffer, 2005). However, as the interviews have uncovered, despite many academics surveyed quantitatively having geographically homophilous networks, they may still be able to remain in contact with those in distant locations (such as the home country), and thus there is no impact of geographic homophily found.

Investigating the characteristics of an expatriate's network (in terms of similarity and difference), provides a different perspective to that provided by the majority of expatriate and global mobility literature that addresses the topic of contacts and connections between individuals. The classic distinction made is that of host versus home country national, and whilst this distinction has been useful for progressing the field, it lags behind the times. Nowadays workplaces and work environments are often made up of individuals from all over the world. This new perspective that focuses on similarity and difference can provide insight for researchers beyond the simple home/host country distinction, and instead considers the locations of the individual being studied as well as the location of the individuals with whom they have contact from the perspective of whether they overlap or not.

Where it was proposed that contacts in the same location as the expatriate would provide support, increasing cohesion (Kilduff and Krackhardt, 2008), and thus reduce the likelihood of

the SIE intending to repatriate, this was not the case. It is therefore implied that the location of individual contacts is not necessarily important for support purposes, rather the contacts themselves that are important, regardless of location. This would imply that if Richardson and McKenna's (2006) suggestion that relationships in the home country are a key reason for SIEs intending to repatriate, it is perhaps not the quantity of these relationships providing information, but the quality of the information gained from these relationships that is important.

Mäkelä (2007) highlights the importance of social capital factors for expatriates, who gain much more benefit from relationships that are richer rather than simply from cross-border relationships with their host organization. When considered alongside the present findings, the deduction is that it is not therefore where the network connection or relationship is based, but instead is the quality of relationship that is important for the expatriate. In future this could be investigated by looking at other measures of relationships and relationship strength between individuals that could influence their access to social capital.

In terms of the contribution to social capital theory, the findings of hypothesis 1 taken on their own contradict logic with regard to homophily in social capital theory. Social capital theory highlights the role of homophily in understanding both the defence and maintenance of an individual's current set of resources, as well as their ability to obtain and access new resources (Lin, 2001). This hypothesis suggested that geographic homophily would play a role in maintaining the structure of the current set of resources, thus negatively influencing intentions to repatriate of SIEs, however the results of regression suggest that this is not the case, and that homophily or heterophily based upon location actually has no impact upon intention to repatriate, with a suggestion therefore that it has little impact upon maintenance of resources in the host country or pursuit of new resources in the home country. This perspective is partially supported by the qualitative interviews that highlight whilst difference between an SIE and the location of their network partners might be good for obtaining new resources, that no support is given for any suggestion that similarity in location of network connections will aid the maintenance of the current set of resources.

This finding is particularly interesting given the importance placed upon similarity between individuals by Lin (2001) suggesting that whilst similar in location, that these contacts may not specifically be useful only for expressive action or instrumental action alone (to maintain or to gain resources) but instead homophily based upon location actually does not follow the trend for social capital. The implication is therefore (assuming that the assumptions of social capital theory are correct) that geography, and propinquitous relationships do not follow the trend in terms of the impact of homophily. Just because an individual's contacts and network

connections are in a geographically similar location does not necessarily lend them to being useful for either expressive or instrumental action, and instead the similarity (or difference) between ties is based upon something less obvious than location. That this finding is true in the expatriate academic context, an environment where arguably location of network connections is more important than in other scenarios, implies that it is unlikely to be true in other contextual environments.

Whilst context is important, there is little evidence, in either the deductive or inductive work, to suggest that the UK context causes any specific circumstance that enhances or decreases this phenomenon. Whilst host country context may have an influence in other areas of the current research (as discussed later in this chapter), for network factors this does not appear to be the case.

Considering both the quantitative and qualitative findings, this research suggests that whilst location is the most basic source of homophily (Zipf, 1949), and that whilst geography does appear to be a relevant and salient construct for SIEs (given that they are moving from one place to another), that similarity between an individual and their network partners in location does not impact upon their adjustment or upon their intention to repatriate. Instead, geography appears to be important in giving an advantage to individuals who have already had their repatriation intention influenced by other factors. Forrest and Kearns (2001) suggest that the neighbourhood is no longer a place for collective identity, and that distance matters less and less. Social Cohesion and social identities that could form the basis of similarity judgements come from places that are not location based. The evidence from the current research supports this finding.

7.2 Hypothesis 2 – National Homophily and Repatriation Intention

Hypothesis 2 focused on the direct effect of national homophily on intention to repatriate. It was hypothesized that an increased level of national homophily would have a positive influence on intention to repatriate, i.e. the more individuals/network contacts that an EA possesses in their ego-network whom are the same nationality as the EA, the more likely they are to display a heightened intention to repatriate. Nationality was highlighted as a key variable to investigate within the expatriate context given that nationality is likely to be one of the most salient social identities that an expatriate has in a foreign country (Moreland, Levine and Wingert, 1996) due to its situational relevance (Mael and Ashforth, 2001). A network with an increased proportion of nationally homophilous contacts was predicted to be insular in nature, restricting the in-flow of useful information and resources from diverse subjects, providing information that was primarily pertinent to those sharing the same nationality, and less likely to include information

that would be relevant to acculturation into the new host country environment. As a result it was suggested that this would relate to an increased level of intention to repatriate. Model 2 suggests that this is indeed the case, and this is supported in all models that include moderating variables. The deductive portion of the current research therefore provides support to the assumption tested in hypothesis 2.

The qualitative interview data in the case of national homophily alone had little to add to the quantitative data. A number of supporting statements were made indirectly by the SIE interviewees about the number of relationships that they maintained or had with individuals of their national origin, and these anecdotally correlated with the intentions about repatriation that were reported within the interviews. For example one interviewee whom indicated that they “do go home and visit, but [I] do not want to go back and stay there” – (Interviewee 9) also indicated that they had very little desire to obtain or maintain network partners of their same nationality.

Other interviewees also mentioned not seeking out German contacts, but did imply that a lack of national homophily was something they valued about their international environment that they enjoyed within their place of work in the UK.

“I would say a great mix, that’s one of the things I really like about [institution], my colleagues and friendship group there, my contacts, they are very international.” – Interviewee 10

Previously Richardson and McKenna (2006) stated that relationships in the home country are one of the main reasons for repatriation of SIEs, and whilst *hypothesis 1* did not provide any support for this stance, *hypothesis 2* does highlight that certain relationships **are** important for SIEs when considering their intentions to repatriate. Thus regarding the specific context of the expatriate academic, both the inductive and deductive results provide support to the current hypothesis, that EAs with greater national homophily will have increased intentions to repatriate, whilst those with lower national homophily will have a lower repatriation intention.

Comments made by those interviewed, highlighted the contextual impact of location. Many of the comments could be specifically linked to policy in the UK or life in the UK in general. The ARWA survey, ranking the world’s top universities shows that the UK has more universities in the top 20, 100, and 200 than any nation other than the USA (Shanghai Ranking, 2017), and thus the UK is an attractive place for any academic who wishes to be surrounded by the top members of their profession. This in itself is likely to increase the diversity of the system, as experts in any field are attracted from many national backgrounds to the UK HE sector to further their careers and build their own capital (HESA, 2016). The suggestion by those who were interviewed that

they enjoyed the international mix of the environment is therefore potentially because of the draw of international experts, and thus a natural increase in diversity of work and opinions.

Whilst it is the aim of many countries to attract top academics to their HE sector, the UK has been previously successful at this. However interviews pointed out that political context could be an influencing factor that was overlooked in the deductive portion of the research, especially when considering the role of networks on influencing intention to repatriate. Interviews for this thesis were conducted both prior to, and after the UK had announced its decision to leave the EU. Therefore, many individuals mentioned their anxiety about this decision (prior to it occurring) and their feelings about the decision after it had happened. Most relevant to the current research, were the comments from those interviewed who mentioned that despite their international network within the UK, political uncertainty and instability was a factor in them now having an increased desire to look for work outside of the UK, or to repatriate.

Those interviewed spoke of conversations that they had undertaken with other international academics in the UK about the Brexit result, and about the situation that they now faced. Thus in this specific circumstance, one of political uncertainty, one where there are factors of influence outside of the control of the SIE, and where there is a real option that a repatriation decision might be made for them, the role of heterophilous national networks actually seemed to work against the results of the quantitative work, and against the words spoken by those interviewed before the Brexit decision.

This sort of unexpected political event is an example of a phenomenon described in the wider expatriate field as a 'shock' (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010). Whilst not considered in the current research on academic expatriates, for SIEs in general shocks have been found to increase likelihood to repatriate. Shocks of political nature do appear in this research to have an impact on intentions to repatriate, and to interact with geographical homophily's influence on intention to repatriate, but this was not tested quantitatively, only reported qualitatively. This is evidenced further by events in the UK after Brexit, within one year of the vote, there was a noted increase in European expatriates leaving the UK (O'Connor and Warrell, 2017). To further clarify the role in the academic expatriate context, further research should be undertaken that focuses on this.

In general, and in contrast to the findings relating to hypothesis 1, the findings of hypothesis 2 indicate a level of support for current network conceptualizations of social capital theory. The significant finding that national homophily does have an impact upon intention to repatriate implies that homophilous ties do affect the maintenance of current resources, and ultimately influence intentions to repatriate. This finding, that a lack of heterophilous ties restricts

instrumental actions that would increase an SIEs access to resources in the host country, thus reducing their intention to repatriate, is in support of the general assumptions of social capital theory (Lin, 2001).

Specifically the finding that national homophily has a direct effect upon intention to repatriate also suggests that for any organization with a global workforce, who are looking to retain their top talent, that providing opportunities for networking with individuals who are from different backgrounds to the SIE is important to retaining these staff. Host country national mentors are an important source for an expatriate when it comes to learning on the job (Feldman and Bolino, 1999) and the finding that a more heterophilous network in terms of nationality (one that might include more host country nationals) is likely to result in lower intention to repatriate provides some support to this assumption.

The hypothesized relationship was built around the assumption that homophilous relationships are most effective for expressive action (Lin, 2002) and that an increasingly nationally homophilous network would act to limit the EAs ability to achieve the instrumental/purposive goals of expatriation such as career development (Richardson and McKenna, 2002), thus reducing potential job satisfaction (Lee, 2005) and increasing likelihood to repatriate. Similarly, interaction with host country nationals – individuals of a different nationality to the EA, would be likely to increase adjustment to the new environment (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013) and thus reduce intention to repatriate. The current findings provide support to these assumptions by showing that the outcome of increased national homophily is an increased intention to repatriate.

The impact of this finding upon the current stream of SIE literature is that it highlights the importance that nationality still plays in a multi-cultural world. Despite the fact that there are more SIEs globally than ever before (Finaccord, 2014), and that this increased number of international individuals are therefore more likely to mix with one and other, that having networks primarily consisting of individuals of the same nationality as the SIE is a factor that will increase their likelihood of intending to return to their home country. Whilst the sample of the research is only of Germans, and therefore may not be generalizable to all national groups, this is the first piece of evidence to highlight the importance of nationality of group members being a factor that may influence intention to repatriate. Reversing the scenario, an SIE with an increase in heterophily (difference between the ego and the alter) is likely to show a reduced intention to repatriate. This translates as an SIE with a diverse network based upon nationality, or even a network that simply consists of less individuals who are of their own nationality, having an increased intention to *remain* in their host country. The implications this has for SIEs is then that the increase in diversity of their contacts, would increase the likelihood that they may

remain in their host country, having implications for both the employing organization and the SIE themselves.

As is a similar case with geographic homophily, making a distinction between individuals and groups on the basis of their similarity to one and other, instead of distinguishing between set dichotomies of host and home country nationals, is a novel approach thus far in the expatriate field. Homophily in any area provides the opportunity for expatriate scholars and global mobility researchers as a whole to uncover much more about the personal characteristics of the direct connections to the expatriate, rather than simply their home or host nationality. What the investigation of homophily provides is a platform for further research within the expatriate field as a whole. Instead of focusing on the similarity or difference between EAs, SIEs and AEs, further investigation into the similarity between an AE and their network contacts, or between EA/SIEs and their network contacts can be conducted on a multitude of characteristics. These comparisons and investigations can provide valuable insights into what might influence any member of the global workforce to remain in their host country, return to their home country, to aid their adjustment or their productivity.

Whilst this anecdotal evidence provides some context, there were no clear themes that arose within the interviews on the role of similarity between the SIE and their network connections based upon nationality. Whilst some of the SIEs interviewed maintained relationships with individuals of the same nationality, others did not, and the reasons for this did not become apparent throughout the interview process. The lack of a consensus amongst the small sample of interviewees highlights why it has been important in the current research to aim for a differentiated analysis of how aspects of social networks can influence EAs and SIEs intentions to repatriate.

7.3 Hypothesis 3 – The Relationship between National Homophily, Geographic Homophily and Repatriation Intention

Hypothesis 3 tested the moderating effect of National homophily on the relationships between geographic homophily and intention to repatriate. The argument was that increasing national homophily would increase the strength of the hypothesized effect between geographic homophily and intention to repatriate. This hypothesis grew from the idea that whilst geographic location of an individual's contacts is potentially important in obtaining access to information and resources (tested by hypothesis 1), that so is the similarity between contacts based upon nationality (tested by hypothesis 2). Where a hypothesized relationship suggesting that increased geographic homophily in a network would lead to reduced intention to repatriate was suggested (as tested by hypothesis 1), the strength of having an increased extra level of

national homophily, thus further embedding EAs in their host country environment was suggested to cause this moderation. No moderating relationship of national homophily on the impact of geographical homophily on repatriation intention was found when tested quantitatively. Whilst an increase in both national homophily and geographic homophily on an SIEs ego-network consists increasingly of individuals both with the same nationality as the SIE and based in the same location, the predicted increase in strength of the relationship with repatriation intention was not found.

The impact of having contacts of the same nationality, but in a different location was however reported by two of the interviewees to have impacted their decision to expatriate, or helped them to find work in the host country after expatriating. Two different SIEs interviewed stated that nationally homophilous, but geographically different (heterophilous) network contacts had helped them to get interviews in the home country (at times when repatriation had been considered). None of the individuals reported having networks that were both primarily geographically proximate, and made up primarily of individuals of the same nationality as the SIE. One interviewee reported that an increase in national heterophily, but geographic homophily had enriched their life in the UK, and one suggested that this was a reason they had decided to remain.

One individual did report having many contacts of the same nationality in the UK, but because they also reported having many non-home country national (nationally dissimilar) contacts, their network could not be classed as homophilous. This individual reported a lack of interest in returning to their home country, but did not necessarily directly connect this to their network being heterophilous or homophilous. Instead they connected the ability to interact with others who were not of their own minority national group in the host country, as something that made them happy.

“In general this is more the kind of international ambient environment that we work in which we appreciate [as well] and which we enjoy working in. Yes we have some networks still with people from the old times, but still we have in our daily lives the experience of working with people from different nationalities with different backgrounds which makes this interesting” –

Interview 10

Whilst this anecdotal evidence does suggest that there is some interaction between national and geographic homophily, no explicit suggestion was made by any interviewee that having an increased nationally homophilous network would at all influence the relationship between also having a geographically homophilous network on intention to repatriate. Further research

should be conducted that investigates this interaction further, both qualitatively and quantitatively.

Whilst national homophily was found to be a statistically significant factor influencing repatriation intention, geographical homophily is not. The combined effect of the two types of homophily has until now not been investigated in the EA or SIE field. Whilst this finding was not significant, the lack of significant findings raises a number of interesting questions for both the EA and the SIE research fields in general. Firstly, this finding suggests that despite moving to a new country, it is not important for SIEs to mix primarily with people from any particular location, or with any particular national background – a finding supported by a number of the EAs interviewed qualitatively. Secondly, if there is both a high degree of national homophily and geographic homophily present in an SIEs network, this does not necessarily effect their likelihood of remaining in the host country or returning to their home country. Whilst it appears important from the findings of hypothesis 2 that SIEs should network with people who are not exclusively of their own nationality if they do not intend to repatriate, that it is not necessarily important where these professional contacts are based locationally. Thirdly, as a response to some of the questions asked by those focusing on career capital about the importance of *'knowing whom'* (DeFillipi and Arthur, 1994; Jokinen et al, 2008); *'knowing whom'* does appear to be important for EAs in order for them to access resources. The ability of an EA to access resources should not however be solely dependent on individuals of an EAs nationality in a close proximity to them, nor solely dependent on individuals of a different nationality a far distance from them. Whilst nationality plays a role, and similarity plays a role - the implication is that other non-geographic types of similarity and difference between an SIE and their professional contacts may be more important. The current hypothesis clarifies that judgements about the level of variety in whom an individual knows should not be made based on proximity or distance. Which qualities should be used for such assessment should be the topic of further investigation in future research.

Whilst this research was conducted using German EAs in the UK higher education section, there is little in the work to suggest that this finding (the lack of support for hypothesis three) would be any different for non-German SIEs, non-academic SIEs, or SIEs working outside of the UK higher education sector. Whilst networks are intrinsically important for academics to conduct their research, neither the deductive or inductive portions of the research in this study suggest that this (lack of) interaction is explicit to expatriate academics. I therefore expect this finding to be replicable in SIEs in general.

That there is no distinct relationship between geographic and national homophily for EAs intention to repatriate could also point to a similar relationship being present for globally mobile

employees as a whole. Whilst an importance of having an diverse mix of nationalities in an expatriates network seems beneficial for retention, there is no suggestion that these network contacts need to be from a location that is either close to the expatriate or geographically distant from them. This fits with Takeuchi's (2010) suggestion that having HRM policies in place for large multinationals looking to successfully transfer expatriates to and from other countries, policies such as mentoring, is important for the success of an expatriates assignment, however whether these mentors are based in the home or host country or somewhere else appears not to be important.

Within the qualitative interviews, it became apparent that whilst a mixture of national and geographic homophily *could* be construed as useful, the usefulness that networks connections have in terms of the resources they provide is dependent upon the individual SIE that is seeking to use these contacts. It is also worth noting that none of those interview reported having networks that were both geographically homophilous, and nationally homophilous.

Of the three hypotheses testing the impact of homophily on intention to repatriate, only one is supported. The direct effect of national homophily, similarity in nationality, implies that this factor is important as a lone factor, however when this is considered combined with geographic homophily there is no significant effect. The implication of this finding is that whilst homophilous ties do have the potential to influence intention to repatriate, geographic homophily (the most basic form of homophily (Zipf, 1949)) is not one of those factors. In terms of the impact of this on social capital theory, the mixed findings suggest that the extension of the theory into the expatriate and SIE contexts is at least somewhat relevant, but that an inclusion of geographical factors into research that looks at the ability of individuals to access resources is a limited endeavour, and that other factors are more important and pertinent to individuals' sense of identity. More research is needed to fully explore this assumption, but the implication is that social capital theorists should consider further the individual characteristics of individuals that may influence the resources that they a) have access to, and b) would influence the access that they extend to other members of their social networks.

7.4 Hypothesis 4 – Network Density and Repatriation Intention

Hypothesis 4 tested the impact of network structure, specifically network density on the intention to repatriate of EAs. Specifically this hypothesis stated that network density would have a positive relationship with intention to repatriate, i.e. that as network density increases, so does the EAs intention to repatriate. This hypothesis was based upon previous work by Burt (2000; 2005) and Coleman (1988) who discussed the impact and usefulness of different network structures for a variety of different scenarios and outcomes. In the case of the EA, a dense

network structure with a lot of ties between the alters directly connected to the ego was hypothesized to restrict the flow of information that could penetrate the network, and increase the amount of redundant information being shared. Rather than aiding the SIE in assimilating into their new environment, or helping them to find new or better opportunities in their host country, this insulation acts to restrict the flow of new information, and increase their likelihood of repatriation intention. This hypothesis was supported by the findings outlined in model 2.

Within the inductive (interview) portion of the research, very little discussion was had about network density. One respondent alluded to density in a discussion of ‘*pockets of excellence*’ – *Interview 11* – where the more researchers that were present doing great research, the greater the incentive to stay and build capital in the form of publications or involvement in research.

“The plan was initially to stay for two years, my original grant was for two and a half years, but then I was surrounded by people in a pocket of excellence. I was just lucky enough to choose one of those pockets.” –

Interview 11

Whilst not directly discussing density, this respondent provided valuable insight into the mechanism that causes network structure to be an effective tool of retention, specifically for EAs. Whilst increased network density has been suggested to restrict the inflow of external information (Burt, 2002), for knowledge creators such as EAs, the dense network can facilitate the sharing of ‘created information’ and act as a facilitator of innovations. This pattern has been seen at an organizational level (Funk, 2013) outside of the expatriate context, and is supported by the work of Morrison (2002).

Whilst initially appearing contradictory to each other, the combination of knowledge uncovered by both the inductive and deductive parts of the current research combine to create a picture that better informs us on the role and mechanisms underlying network density for EAs. Specifically in the UK context of higher education, as universities look to remain competitive and world leading, the development of centres of excellence are important. As previously mentioned, the UK has more universities than any other nation (excluding the USA) in the global top 100 and 200 (Shanghai Ranking, 2017), and so dense networks in this context can enhance the career capital and social capital of those involved whilst simultaneously providing the incentive to stay put in the host country by providing the EA with a network of interconnected individuals who are also increasing their own capital. Whilst membership of a centre of excellence implies high density through collaborative knowledge sharing, and thus the reduced intention to repatriate seems counter-intuitive to the current results, actually this implication from interviewee 11 makes sense when considered alongside the findings of Curry and Lillis

(2010). Curry and Lillis (2010) find that for academics specifically, local dense networks can allow access to greater, more diverse knowledge networks, thus a small dense centre of excellence might act to reduce EAs overall network density in the long term. From the perspective of universities, fostering local dense networks helps the collaboration between department members, whilst also helping to protect unique and influential research, ultimately allowing the universities to leverage it as capital of their own.

In the wider SIE context, these results may or may not be so applicable. Whilst there is little evidence to suggest that the deductive (quantitative) results would be any different, it may be the case that the mechanism underlying this finding may not be the same. Non-academic organisations could foster knowledge creation and development by promoting dense network structures, but whether or not the SIEs in general would receive the same effects as EAs is dependent on how important gathering knowledge is for the individual themselves, or within their industry. For expatriates in general, richer networks that are less dense, with more structural holes, benefit knowledge flow (Reiche, Harzing and Kraimer, 2008), and the quantitative findings of the current research provide support to this, with increased density influencing increased intention to repatriate.

Network structure is one of the most important factors of social capital theory research. The deductive finding that network density does have an impact upon individuals' decisions to repatriate, provides further support to the impact of network structure on the access to resources and the outcomes that this then brings. Density, measured here as the proportion of an SIEs direct contacts that were connected with one and other, is often a requirement for the utility of collective action to be realised (Paldam, 2000), and networks that lack density are less able to conduct actions that require collective action. Density can act to restrict or enable knowledge exchange and flexibility in an actors direct social network (Inkpen and Tsang, 2005; Krackhardt, 2002) an assumption that is supported by the current research. There has been a recent tendency to focus primarily on access to information outside of the direct network connections of an individual, and the role that either the individuals or their contacts play as structural holes (Burt, 2000) to other actors in the overall network. Whilst this research does not provide any direct support or contradiction to this work, it highlights the need to not only focus on structural holes, but re-states the importance of Coleman's (1988) work on network closure. By highlighting that network closure plays a role in increasing intentions to repatriate, the suggestion is that the mechanism of information restriction about current roles in the home country, and an increase of redundant information may inhibit any progress that an SIE might have in the host country, despite the slightly contradictory inductive results.

Whilst the current study focused only on the repatriation intentions of EAs, this statistically significant finding suggests that having direct contacts that overlap with one and other may have implications for an EA's adjustment, or ability to find new jobs in the host country. Previous studies on assigned expatriates have found no effect of network density on factors that have been linked with AE decisions to repatriate such as adjustment and performance (Bruning et al, 2012). The fact that network density does have an impact upon SIE intentions to repatriate contradicts Altman and Baruch's (2012) suggestion that there is less difference between SIE and AE factors that influence repatriation, than other factors of the SIE and EA experience. This finding also provides support to the implication that the mechanism causing network density's influence is potentially unique to EAs or SIEs who specifically benefit from knowledge creation.

The investigation of network structure (including network density) is growing in the overall expatriate field (including AEs, sojourners etc). The current findings of this research relating to the impact of network density add to work by Bruning et al (2012) which looks at the density of expatriate networks with host country nationals, and Oh and Kilduff (2008) which discusses the open versus closed networks of Korean expatriate business owners in the USA, and the types of people whom form such networks. It does so by adding the current study to the growing literature on general expatriates from the perspective of social capital, social networks, and social network structure. Indeed Farh, Bartol, Shapiro and Shin (2010) put forward a process model of expatriate networking tactics, including theories about homophily and density of expatriate networks.

This study is the first in the field of SIE research to investigate the structure of any SIEs' network and how it influences the decision to expatriate. The finding that network density has a positive impact upon EA intention to repatriate suggests network structure is important in determining the length of time that an EA will stay in their host country. By highlighting the importance of network structure, the findings of the current research, and specifically of this hypothesis points towards the need for further investigation into how different ego-network configurations may have different influences on EA and SIE career decisions.

7.5 Hypothesis 5 – Hierarchy and Repatriation Intention

Hypothesis 5 was concerned with an EA's hierarchical position, i.e. the position that they held within their organization (in terms of how senior or not they are in the hierarchy of their organization). In the case of SIE academics this is represented by their job role and reflected in their job title. Social capital theory assumes that those in more senior positions have better access to better resources than those in lower positions, due to increased visibility (Lin, 2001). Social capital theory also suggests however that as individuals increase their position in a hierarchy that they hit a ceiling of upper-reachability, i.e., their ability to climb in seniority is limited by numbers of positions available (as society is pyramidal in nature), and because of the increased investment needed to obtain better resources (Lin, 2001). In the case of the SIE, it was suggested that the impact of this mechanism of social capital theory would be to limit the access to resources in the host country of the SIE, and would therefore increase the intention to repatriate. Based upon this assumption it was hypothesized that hierarchical position had a positive relationship with EAs' intention to repatriate. Statistical support was shown for this hypothesis within the quantitative analysis and it was therefore accepted. A positive pairwise correlation was also shown between hierarchical position and intention to repatriate. The higher an individual position within their organization/society, the higher that their intention to repatriate is likely to be. In the sample, those in higher positions include professors and senior lecturers, who appear to have higher intentions to repatriate than those individuals who have a lower position such as research assistants.

The idea of hierarchy being a factor that influences SIEs' decisions to remain in the host country, to return to the home country, or to leave the home country in the initial instance also became apparent within the SIE interviews. Multiple interviewees suggested that a key reason for expatriation in the first place was the intention to progress ones career further in the host country job market, and thus more quickly progress in the hierarchy in comparison to the perceived speed of progression in the home country.

“In my home country they kept telling me I should do a PhD but I didn't think it was attractive in the [home country] context. I could see people that were doing a PhD, and they were like 7 years in and they were still working under really precarious working conditions” – Interviewee 7

This particular EA (interviewee 7) chose to expatriate to gain experience faster than would have been the case in their home country. This suggestion supports that amongst the reasons for expatriation, one of the primary reasons is to increase (more quickly) an individual's level or status within their career-based hierarchy (Richardson and Mckenna, 2002).

Utilization of this experience is particularly important in the early career of the SIE academic, and the quantitative results imply that as individuals are more senior, there is less intention to remain in the host country to further their careers and more intention to return to the home country. This is potentially a result of individuals achieving the goals of gaining experience in the host country and thus increasing their hierarchy, and is an idea that would also support suggestions of those investigating EA's from a career capital perspective. Therefore the findings of this hypothesis both support some previous assumptions about SIEs and also breaks new ground about hierarchy. This idea is supported within the EA interviews, with respondents who had suggested that they have intentions of progressing their career and leaving, needing to build the experience before doing so.

"I don't think I am going to eventually end up in the UK, but I know it is too early for me to look for somewhere else. Too early in my academic career to look for somewhere else in the world, like my home country or a third country. These are options, but I haven't set a deadline for myself yet." –

Interviewee 8

For EAs, the role of hierarchy appears evident, however one question that has not been answered is the role of initial expatriation motivations to leave their host country in the importance of hierarchy on intention to repatriate. Those who expressed that hierarchy was an important factor, also pointed to career as the factor that led them to expatriate in the first instance. For those whose motivation was to escape, or for family, the inductive part of the research is less clear. This suggestion has implications across the broader SIE spectrum. Those who leave with serious intentions of advancing their career may be more prone to the effects of hierarchy than those expatriating with the purpose of seeking adventure. Whilst this particular implication falls outside the scope of the research conducted within this study, there are important follow up questions that could be studied to get a clearer answer to this.

In the context of the SIE in general, HRM practices that promote those lower in hierarchies being mentored by more senior members of staff increases embeddedness, and are likely to promote the retention of SIEs (Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010; Aycan, 1997). Paired with knowledge about academics specifically benefitting from interaction with (senior) members of their departments (Pezzoni et al, 2012), it is clear that for those lower in a hierarchy, there is a benefit for EAs if these HR strategies are implemented. Whilst the current research was not designed with the scope to directly investigate the role of different HRM practices, the current research provides the foundation for interesting avenues for further exploration in this area.

To date, the general expatriate literature has investigated hierarchical position from the perspective of constraint of female expatriates (Janssens, Cappellen and Zanoni, 2006; Insch, McIntyre and Napier, 2008), and from an organizational perspective, highlighting the hierarchy present between headquarters and subsidiaries (Brock, Shenkar, Shoham and Siscovick, 2008). In the case of Janssens et al (2006) the negative impact of hierarchical structures that define society are highlighted as a hindrance to development, but also questions are raised by the authors about how female expatriates can strategically place themselves to avoid the negative impact of this hierarchical restraint. The current study provides a different perspective, by focusing on hierarchy within a role or organization, rather than perceived status hierarchy based upon gender.

The hierarchy principle as with other social network and social capital principles has not previously been investigated within the SIE context. The finding of hypothesis 5 therefore provides further evidence that social capital is relevant when extended to the SIE context as a whole. Where previous research has suggested that SIEs may tend to be underemployed (working in jobs lower than they may be working in their host country and based upon their experience) (Lee, 2005), that this is not the case. The EAs sampled in the current research mirror fairly accurately the ratios of individuals in each position of the UKHE sector. If underemployment had been an issue then the expected findings would have been a pool of SIEs lower in hierarchy in a disproportional manner that was not representative of the UKHE sector. This was not the case.

In contrast to the research on expatriates in general however, social capital research has investigated the role of hierarchy reasonably extensively. Hierarchy is one of the key foundations of network theories of social capital (Lin, 2001), and helps explain access to information and resources, as well as general visibility of information and resources. The current finding adds to the existing literature on the role of hierarchy within social capital theory by implying support for a number of the underlying principles of social capital theory – namely that there is an upper reachability that would prohibit any further progression (in the host country) and thus push individuals towards their home country. Adler and Kwon (2002) state “Its sources [social capital] lie in the social relations amongst actors and these social relations can be differentiated (notionally) from relations of market exchange and of hierarchical authority” (2002, p412). Whilst Adler and Kwon suggest that hierarchical relations are to be differentiated from social relations that form the source of social capital, Lin (2001) argues for the role of hierarchy within social capital theory as a concept that differentiates access to poor resources and good resources, as well as something that provides visibility of resources as a whole. The current study clarifies these two opposing stances, and provides support to Lin’s suggestion that hierarchy is

an important concept within social capital theory, by showing that individuals at different levels of the hierarchy are influenced to act in different ways, or intend to act in different ways. Support is given therefore to Burt's statement that "Social capital predicts that returns to intelligence, education and seniority depend in some part on a person's location in the social structure of a market hierarchy" (Burt, 1997, p339). What the findings in support of hierarchy's role in intention to repatriate contributes to social capital theory, is an affirmation of the role of hierarchy as an important part of social structure, that can play a role in intentions and behaviours.

The current study is the first that fully investigates hierarchy a) as a factor that can influence decisions to remain or repatriate during the assignment, and b) that approaches hierarchy from its functional perspective within social capital theory. By approaching hierarchy from this perspective the current research again provides strength to the perspective that social capital theory is an appropriate and potentially invaluable tool for further investigating the expatriate experience. It also validates organizational hierarchy as a relevant factor in determining the likelihood of repatriation of an SIE, which in turn provides supporting weight to the limited number of papers in which hierarchical research has been conducted within the expatriate field in general.

7.6 Hypothesis 6 – Embeddedness as a Moderator of Geographic Homophily on Repatriation Intention

The moderating effect of host country career embeddedness on the relationship between geographical homophily and intention to repatriate was the focus of hypothesis 6. Specifically it was hypothesized that host country career embeddedness would positively moderate the relationship between geographical homophily and repatriation intention. Embeddedness within a network is an important concept within social capital, and it follows that as resources are obtainable from the general environment within which an individual exists, that their level of embeddedness within the wider environment is also important. Based upon Tharenou and Caulfield's (2010) conceptualization of career embeddedness for SIEs that takes into account their relational embeddedness, SIE's social networks, and their access to social capital, it was hypothesized that an increase in career embeddedness would moderate the relationship between geographic homophily and intention to repatriate, increasing the strength of ties and relevance of ties with those who are geographically homophilous to the expatriate academic. This has previously been untested in either SIEs or EAs, and therefore this is one of the unique contributions of the current thesis. The empirical results do not support this hypothesis.

Interview data collected also failed to provide much insight into why this hypothesis was not supported. No clear information was collected about the influence (if any) of embeddedness on the make-up of an individual's network, other than brief mentions by a couple of those interviewed about their personal circumstances. Academics in general have network connections in a number of locations, and therefore this variety in network connections may also act separately to the level of embeddedness of an EA. One key insight gained from interviews was that reasons for expatriation may also be a factor that contributes to this relationship.

As previously noted, one interviewee pointed to the impact of working within a centre of excellence, and how this contributed to their decision to stay in the UK. Not wanting to lose benefits of an environment where one is surrounded by others who have the possibility of increasing ones capital could be a factor specific to EAs, but this effect did not play out statistically, as evidenced by the deductive research obtained from the quantitative portion of the enquiry. For non-academic SIEs in general, embeddedness in one's career has been shown as a factor that directly influences repatriation intentions. That this has not been considered as a moderator in previous work may be due to lack of statistical support, rather than general lack of investigation. Research that focuses on academics (non-EA academics) supports this suggestion. Pezzoni et al (2012) explain career progress of academics by their affiliation to important research organizations, their social ties with senior members of their academic field (who can provide them with access to social capital), and their commitment to work with other members of their own departments that may be more senior than they are. This supports the notion of hierarchy playing a particular role in allowing visibility and access to greater levels of capital in a more direct sense.

In terms of the relevance of these findings for self-initiated expatriate research, this is the first time that career embeddedness's effect has been tested as a moderating factor between any network specific variable and intention to repatriate. Specifically, a number of researchers have pointed to the importance of embeddedness in the host country environment as a direct factor (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Biemann and Andreson, 2010) but the finding that it has no moderating effect upon geographical homophily suggests two things. Firstly, it is important to note that geographic homophily was found to have no significant impact on its own, whilst career embeddedness does have a direct effect. The implication is therefore that host country career embeddedness is a factor that should not necessarily be ruled out as a moderating influence on other factors that drive intention to repatriate, simply that it alone does not interact with geographic homophily. Further research may be able to disentangle the complex

web of effects, whereby the use of structural equation modelling can confirm the existence of any moderating effects of career embeddedness on a number of other factors.

7.7 Hypothesis 7 – Embeddedness and Repatriation Intention

Hypothesis 7 tested the direct relationship between an EAs career embeddedness and their intention to repatriate. Specifically this hypothesis suggested that career embeddedness will have a direct negative effect upon intention to repatriate. This hypothesis derives theoretically from social capital theory, where embeddedness in networks and environments has been shown to have an effect on access to resources. Within the field of SIE research, Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) found that increased levels of embeddedness had a negative impact upon intention to repatriate, however they did not consider embeddedness with regards to its place in social capital theory. From the theoretical perspective of social capital theory, embeddedness in an environment is likely to decrease an EAs intention to return to their home country due to the EA being embedded in their host country networks, and career environment as a whole. This hypothesis was supported statistically by the empirical results.

Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) described career embeddedness as a pull factor, something that keeps SIEs in their host country. Their suggestion is that if SIEs have to make substantial career sacrifices when repatriating, then they are likely to remain in the host country. As a multi-item measure, this question asks about the home country and the host country, but only one question (out of 9 that make up this factor) directly references the SIEs feelings about potential levels of opportunity in the home country. When interviewing the EAs, the influence of lack of home-country opportunities, or of home-country instability in the wider political system was a much larger part of the consideration about whether it was attractive to stay in the host country or return to the home country, than given consideration for within the quantitative questions. Culture differences also had an impact on how embedded individuals were in the host country.

“Culture has a role to play in terms of me making a decision about coming back to my home country or staying in the UK. One person who had a great impact on me was my supervisor. I was offered a couple of jobs... my supervisor was telling me, if you go back – then it’s a waste” – Interviewee

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The interviews also uncovered that embeddedness is not only a personal consideration, but also a family consideration. Whilst an individual may or may not be embedded in their environment, their job, their role, and their social circle and thus having a large or a small amount to lose from leaving that environment, often this consideration was made in conjunction with the immediate family members of the SIE. How embedded an EA feels within their environment is not an

individual consideration. Factors including whether the EA has a spouse or children, or family that have since moved to join them in the host country, all influence the level of embeddedness reported by the EA and thus their intention to repatriate. Even if an EA no longer feels that they are personally embedded, if their direct family members are embedded – then by proxy, the EA is more embedded.

“[Since moving here] I’ve had two kids who are now very English. So we’ve kind of put down roots.... The realistic thing will be after the kids leave. [The kids being here] is not the biggest factor [keeping us here], but it’s tied second, long with the fact that we like it here.” – Interviewee 3

A number of other interviewees also referenced children and family as a key factor influencing their decision to remain in the UK. One interviewee expressed a will to leave once their children were in university, and another suggested that uprooting their family simply was not an option, whether they wished to repatriate or not. The idea of children growing old enough to make their own decisions, or at least getting to specific milestones were factors that strongly played a part in the role of embedding the EA in the host country.

“I don’t think I would go back to Germany, but to a third country definitely, once my Children have settled in University” – Interview 9

“I would be more than happy to relocate but wouldn’t want to uproot my family that I have built here” – Interview 11

For EAs and SIEs this appears to be an area of overlap. Other studies have mentioned that family is important as one of the key motivations for expatriation (Richardson and McKenna, 2002) and others have shown family as a reason for intending to remain in the host country (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010). There are not any apparent circumstances where this would differ between the two groups – EAs and SIEs in general. What the inductive findings of the interviews have uncovered however, is the potential for embeddedness to more strongly, and from an underlying theoretical perspective, consider the role of family ties not only as an influencing factor, but as something inseparable from the embeddedness of the individual. Whilst previous work has considered family as a factor influencing embeddedness, the current interviews suggest that the embeddedness of one’s family is indistinguishable from their own embeddedness.

As previously mentioned other studies have investigated the direct effect of embeddedness for SIE repatriation, with Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) finding a negative effect of host country career embeddedness on intention to repatriate. Crowley-Henry (2007) suggests that career

embeddedness is weaker in SIEs than in AEs for the expatriation process, but the current findings suggests that this factor is definitely significant in predicting intention to repatriate. Biemann and Anderson (2010) confirm the lower career-embeddedness in SIEs than AEs during the expatriation process, however this research points to the fact that whilst it may appear to be less relevant, that it is still a highly important factor for companies looking to aid retention, or reduce SIE intention to repatriate.

Job embeddedness was found by Kraimer et al (2012) to lead to identity strain upon repatriation. This is particularly interesting in the AE scenario (as investigated by Kraimer et al, 2012) because it highlights one of the key differences in repatriation for SIEs and AEs, and acts as evidence to contradict the findings of Altman and Baruch (2012) that suggest that there is only a small relative difference between factors that influence repatriation for SIEs and AEs. For assigned expatriates, whilst there may be a strain in repatriation (and similarly with SIEs), the difference is that AEs are required to return to their home country based upon a timeframe set by their employer. For assigned expatriates who have developed a strong sense of career embeddedness in their host country, this will cause them to have an identity strain upon repatriation, which will in turn facilitate turnover of the AE. For the EA (who is not constrained by timeframes set by an employing organization) an increased level of job embeddedness (career embeddedness) reduces intention to repatriate, and as the decision to return is their own, they are less likely to experience the identity strain that leads to turnover, simply because they are not required to return unless they choose to of their own volition.

Embeddedness is discussed within social capital theory in a number of diverse ways. Originally the importance of embeddedness was highlighted by Granovetter (1985), who explained that “the behaviour and institutions to be analysed are so constrained by ongoing social relations that to construe them as independent is a grievous misunderstanding” (p482). What Granovetter highlights is that social relationships themselves are not separate from the institutions that they exist within, but are intertwined with them. Relationships do not exist independently, but are impacted by the environment they exist within. Embeddedness in the current study is investigated in a similar light, whilst not only focusing on the social relations, embeddedness is measured as the links and fit between an individual and their environment, and in such a way is treating embeddedness in the same way as Granovetter, as an intertwining of the social relations and the institutional environment in which the individual SIE is inhabiting. To simply look at network embeddedness as has been a pattern in social capital research would therefore be short-sighted. Instead, the current study contributes an investigation of embeddedness that not only accounts for the links between and SIE and their environment, but

also with the perceived fit of an SIE to that environment, thus following closely the explanation given by Granovetter (1985).

Following Granovetter's conceptualization of embeddedness, scholars evolved the term to discuss structural and relational embeddedness – the structure and quality of an individual's network. Whilst these two dimensions of embeddedness inform the current study, the novelty is that the current study takes into account embeddedness within the environment in which an SIE operates, whilst previous embeddedness research (e.g. Moran's (2005) and Nahapiet and Ghoshal's (1998) distinction of structural and relational embeddedness) neglects to account for this environmental influence. What the significant finding of the current research suggests in terms of social capital theory research is that there is a valid reason to investigate access to resources in terms of how these resources exist within the wider environment, and specifically in the wider environment as seen from the perspective of the individual being studied.

Whilst the current research was not conducted to directly test or support of the concept of relational embeddedness, the findings of the current hypothesis do support some of the distinguishing factors of relational embeddedness described by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998). Despite the concept's neglect of specific environmental factors, relational embeddedness as described by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) does encompass the personal relationships and "history of interaction" (p244) between individuals. Perspectives accounting for embeddedness, or social capital research that directly investigates embeddedness should in future should ensure that **both** the meaningful relationships within an environment, and the environment itself are accounted for.

Effectively, the concept of embeddedness is not simply a 'pull' factor, but more appropriately framed as a cross between the existence of a number of pull factors (either for the individual, or for the individual because of the embeddedness of their family members) and the lack of any push factors (political or economic instability in the home country, a lack of job opportunities in the area or field of the SIE's work). This mixture of both pull and (lack of) push factors was not considered in previous conceptualizations of embeddedness. Future research using embeddedness as a measure, or focusing on embeddedness as a whole should take into consideration the context in more detail. SIEs moving from a politically or economically unstable environment might more easily become embedded, or even may have less desire to go home despite not having a low level of embeddedness. Further research would uncover this complex relationship further, and highlight the exact role that job embeddedness or embeddedness within the career setting itself plays in the overall role of embedding an EA or SIE in their host country. In keeping with the traditions of social capital theory, future research should also more carefully consider the role of other network connections that an individual has on influencing

their embeddedness. As highlighted by interviewee 11, an EAs contacts has the ability to impact the perception of how much that individual has to lose if they were to leave their host country – and judgements about what an EA is likely to lose or sacrifice by leaving, is exactly how Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) describe host country career embeddedness. This research therefore provides support to existing findings, but also uncovers avenue for further research, for example, relating to how to distinguish family embeddedness to the embeddedness of the individual.

7.8 Hypothesis 8 – National Identity as a Moderator of Homophily on Repatriation Intention

Hypothesis 8 was concerned with the moderating effect of national identity on the relationship between national homophily and intention to repatriate. It was hypothesized that national identity would positively moderate the effect of national homophily on intention to repatriate, strengthening its effect. This hypothesis was based upon the assumption that if individuals held an increased sense of national identity, this salient social identity would increase the likelihood of sharing of information about issues that were pertinent to the nationality of the individual. This sharing was predicted to strengthen the effect that national homophily had on SIEs' intention to repatriate, due to an SIE's strength of feeling towards their home country strengthening relationships with individuals also of their shared nationality, and thus pushing them towards feelings of repatriation. This finding was however not supported statistically by the results of the quantitative analysis.

The interesting finding here is that whilst individually national homophily (as discussed previously) and national identity (as discussed later) have direct impacts upon intention to repatriate, that combined they do not. One does not moderate the other, which suggests that the two constructs whilst both being focused on nationality and national identity are not linked and are therefore separate. In terms of the current research on SIEs this finding suggests that both factors, and their unique potential for influencing repatriation intentions should be investigated further. The findings also contrast with the proposed nature of the personal network push to repatriate described by De Cieri et al (2009) whose factor loadings highlighted that national identity could be included within the personal network push factors. Along with relationships with relatives, parents and friends, national identity made up the personal network aspect of de Cieri et al's (2009) study. The authors results included significant impact of national identity on predicting intention to repatriate as a direct effect (a result replicated by the current study), but also showed links between national identity and strength of relationships with relatives – whom one would assume to be of the same nationality as the expatriate. As the current study finds no interaction between the two (relationships with individuals of the same

nationality as the expatriate, and national identity) when predicting repatriation intention, there are questions that need to be answered about whether national identity does interfere with network factors or not as the findings of the current study contradict the suggestions made by previous research.

Whilst no data from EAs could be gathered that provides further insight to SIEs as a whole, a number of those interviewed for the inductive portion of the current research alluded to some factors that are contextually specific to the sample of German academic SIEs.

“I don’t really think that Germans are encouraged to any form of nationalism or patriotism. I do think Brexit has played a role however – I do now think that I have a European identity more than anything. I remember the world championships in 2010. To suddenly see German flags everywhere, it was quite uncomfortable” – Interview 5

“I don’t really see myself as German, or as European. But as Bavarian” – Interview 11

Interviewees questioned on the topic of national identity, whilst mainly feeling at some level that they had some form of German Identity, also mentioned that this sense of nationalism and national pride has not been encouraged in the second half of the 20th century. They saw those with a stronger sense of national identity as a rarity, however this was not supported by the deductive, quantitative portion of the research, where scores on self-reported scales measuring sense of national identity ranged from low to high.

Whilst this may be the case, national identity was not found to be a moderator when testing the hypothesis statistically, and was also found not to be a moderator when interviews were conducted. Instead, the clear feeling that national identity for those that express it, exists separately from the formation of networks, and appears to play no interactive role in whether an individual is likely to maintain a network based predominantly of Germans or non-Germans, or any role in the impact that this network will then have on intentions to repatriate. Instead, for Germans, this sense of national identity appears to be separate completely. This as explained by the interviewees, demonstrated in the quote above, could be related to the strong discouragement of nationalistic or patriotic sentiment since the end of the Second World War. Whilst this may be unique to Germans, only exploring this across contexts, with EAs or SIEs of other nationalities, will allow greater understanding of this.

This was not the only unique contextual factor to the current research involving national identity, national homophily and repatriation intentions. A number of those interviewed

discussed Brexit as a factor that has made them embrace their identity more strongly, particularly a sense of European identity, and that has made them question their relationship with the UK, potentially increasing their consideration (if not intent) to repatriate. EAs reported speaking with others, either non-British Europeans in general, or specifically to Germans, about their feelings of unease, uncertainty, and potential increase in likelihood to repatriate. Whilst the quantitative portion of the current research did not support the hypothesis that national identity would moderate the relationship between national homophily and intention to repatriate, the inductive portion of the research implied that there may be certain unique circumstances where the opposite is in fact true. Remarks made by those interviewed therefore suggest that this interaction could be context dependent, or completely reliant upon the political and cultural context with which the EA (or SIE in general) might find themselves in.

The results of the present study are also partially in contrast to the propositions of Mao and Shen (2015) who suggest that home culture embeddedness in expatriate social networks will act to facilitate affirmation – the strengthening of one’s national identity. The argument posed by these authors is that being embedded in a network that consists largely of those from the home country (national homophily) will act to strengthen a sense of national identity. No relationship to suggest the existence of such a phenomenon was found in any of the regression models in the current study.

A potential explanation for the difference in findings of the current study and that of Mao and Shen’s (2015) previous research, is that despite there being a distance between the country of origin of the SIE and the host country, in the present research this distance is less than in the comparable studies conducted previously. Alone, this impact may be small, however, reduced distance allows for shorter travel times, and lower expense when travelling to the home country. Maintaining a sense of National Identity and keeping in contact with others of the same nationality (as the SIE) is more easily fulfilled by return trips to the home country in the current research. The interviews with the SIE’s conducted after the quantitative data collection highlights the difference in frequency of travel of those whose home countries are, relatively speaking, a closer distance to the host country.

7.9 Hypothesis 9 – National Identity and Repatriation Intention

Hypothesis 9 related to the direct effect of national identity on intention to repatriate. Specifically hypothesis 9 states that strength of national identity will have a direct negative effect upon intention to repatriate. This hypothesis was arrived at due to the implications of previous research suggesting a link between national identity and behavioural intentions (Albert, Ashforth and Dutton, 2000). Previous research in the SIE context had shown a link between

national identity and intention to repatriate (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010) and it was therefore expected that the results would be replicated in the current study. The stronger the emotional link with the country of origin, the more likely that an SIE is to receive information and resources from or relating to this country, and their strength of feeling towards this country may act as a push-factor to drive their intention to repatriate. The empirical results provide support for this hypothesis. The higher an SIE's sense of national identity, the more likely they are to exhibit an increased intention to repatriate.

This finding confirms what has been previously found by a number of empirical studies into SIE repatriation. Tharenou (2003) and Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) both highlighted the importance of national identity as a factor that influences repatriation intention. Both of these studies suggested that national identity is a strong factor that should be considered by employing organizations looking to retain talent. Whilst different identities are salient dependent upon context and relevance, the findings suggest that in particular a sense of national identity is a strong influencing factor for EAs, supporting findings from non-academic SIEs. As expatriates have a stronger sense of national identity, their sense of 'global' or co-national identity is reduced, which in turn can cause lower levels of adjustment and thus increase intention to repatriate (Arnett, 2002; Ward and Rana-Deuba, 2000).

Within the general expatriate field, Kraimer et al (2012) found that identity strain promotes turnover of repatriates. Identity strain is when a repatriate feels that their identity is as an international employee rather than their actual national identity. Both the findings from the quantitative portions of the current research and the limited findings of the SIE interviews compliment Kraimer et al's (2012) research by suggesting that having a strong sense of national identity within an international environment also promotes turnover intention. This in itself can be framed as an identity strain, as the EA in the context of the current research feels strong sense of national identity which may place strain on their identity as an international employee, which in turn would also promote turnover. Cohen and Kranz (2015) investigate state assisted return programmes (SARPs), and their lack of ability to deal with a sense of national identity. The authors accredit the limited success of the return programmes partially to their inability to properly account for identity related issues.

The current finding that a strong sense of national identity influences intentions to repatriate suggests that the statements made by Cohen and Kranz (2015) are correct, and that if SARPs can incorporate mechanisms to account for national identity strength that they may be able to assist the repatriation of highly skilled workers with a strong sense of national identity (And thus a stronger intention to repatriate). De Cieri (2009) finds that strength of national identity

significantly increases repatriation intention of expatriates, and therefore the findings of this hypothesis support this.

Identity has played a small role to date within the social capital literature, whereby Coleman discussed closed networks as a facilitator of the development of a group identity (Coleman, 1988). Rather than focusing on the development of new identities, the focus within this research was on those identities that an individual brings with them to their new environments, namely their national identity. Similarly in his work on class and group structure, Bourdieu (1985) discusses identity as a construct of social class, but also places emphasis on space and on hierarchy, implying that the development of identity is something that happens within a social space. Whilst Bourdieu focuses on class identity, and on occupational identity, this is not without a thought of national identity, whom Bourdieu suggests can still be the defining characteristic of a collective, but only under certain circumstances

“Though there is more chance of mobilizing the set of workers than the set composed of workers and bosses, it is possible, in an international crisis, for example, to provoke a grouping based on the basis of links of national identity” (Bourdieu, 1985, p726).

Whilst the discussion of class mobilization is not necessarily applicable to the current research, Bourdieu’s implication is that national identity is less of a factor than other forms of identity, an implication which can be questioned based on the current findings. The current findings imply that national identity is in fact a source of grouping strong enough to elicit a response, or to drive someone to intend to act to protect that sense of identity. Social capital theorists should therefore pay more direct attention to national identity as an antecedent of action.

7.10 Discussion of Other Significant Effects

A number of other significant relationships with intention to repatriate are highlighted within the regression models – namely useful home contacts and two factors of organizational commitment (Affective commitment and normative commitment). Useful home contacts, the number of contacts in the home country that an EA reported as being useful for finding new employment, was inversely related to the EAs intention to repatriate. This finding appears at first to be counter intuitive, with EAs that are reporting more individuals in the home country whom they have contact with who would be able to help them secure/re-secure employment in the home country, being likely to have a reduced intention to repatriate to the home country. The ability to use contacts and resources to obtain jobs in the host country makes intention to return less likely. Whilst initially appearing to be counter-intuitive, if framed in relation to social capital theory, this finding makes a little more sense. Firstly, whilst these home contacts are more distant, and are viewed as a resource that could aid in repatriation, this means that the EA

values these individuals as sources of information or as resources in general. As well as providing the EA with help or information that could aid repatriation, these resources, in the context of SIE academics may also be a source of information or collaboration, thus increasing the individual's human capital, a resource that can aid their own career advancement. These information sources are different to those immediately accessible by the EA in the host country. Whilst being contextually relevant to academics with networks forming the basis of collaborative projects that can increase career capital through research and publication, the finding that home country contacts being inversely related to intention to repatriate also has implications for SIEs in general, not just academics.

The ability to access diverse sources of information that are unlikely to be connected allows the SIE to act as a structural hole, with access to information in both the home country and the host country. This then supports notions of social capital provided by Burt (2000) about the usefulness of structural holes, and Siebert et al's (2001) finding that structural holes are related to contacts in other functions and at different levels of a hierarchy, that in turn can offer access to information and resources.

This is then, the only quantitative evidence within the current research to suggest any support for the impact of geography on intention to repatriate. This evidence is not in support of geographic homophily or any relationship outlined in hypotheses 1 and 3, instead supporting the opposite, that geographic diversity has a negative effect upon intention to repatriate. Further investigation of this phenomenon is therefore required.

The results of the empirical investigation show that affective commitment had a negative impact upon intention to repatriate, Affective commitment is the "affective or emotional attachment to the organization" (Allen and Meyer, 1990, p2) or an "identification and involvement with the organization" (Meyer et al, 2002, p21). Affective commitment has a negative correlation with turnover intention, and studies have shown it as an antecedent of turnover intention and turnover (Meyer et al, 2002). The stronger an individual identifies and has an affective attachment to an organization, the lower their intention of leaving. In the current research, intention to repatriate as a measure has foundations in turnover intention, and is therefore a linked concept (also because repatriating would usually imply also terminating ones role in an organization).

The finding in the current research, that affective commitment has a negative impact upon intention to repatriate, is therefore unsurprising given the link between the two concepts. The implications of this finding for the field of EA research is however slightly larger, with a suggestion that by fostering a sense of affective commitment in its employees, an organization

can greatly affect the EAs intention to remain in the host country. This suggestion that the organization can play a significant role is a step away from most SIE research, that has primarily focused on the role that the individual plays. This finding therefore opens the door to a whole new area of research in the SIE field, focusing on the impact of the employing organization on the SIE. For UK universities, this means taking a greater role, or larger portion of ownership when it comes to retaining foreign academic talent. This finding suggests that it is not just governments, but organizations involved in the creation of knowledge that should be implicit in helping reduce the brain drain, by fostering greater sense of commitment.

Normative commitment was found in the current study to have a negative relationship with intention to repatriate. Normative commitment is a “perceived obligation [by the employee] to remain in an organization” (Meyer et al, 2002, p21) whereby an individual feels committed to an organization not out of a sense of belonging or involvement, but more as a sense of obligation and duty, possibly due to investment in the individual by the organization (in the form of training etc). Similar to affective commitment, normative commitment has been found to negatively predict turnover intention (and turnover). However in contrast to affective commitment, the current study shows a positive impact of normative commitment on intention to repatriate (i.e. it increases). This finding goes against generally held assumptions about affective commitment and normative commitment being positively correlated (Meyer et al, 2002) despite being distinguishable concepts. As evidence by table 6.1 the correlation between the two variables sit at $r = .3$, but is not deemed to be significant. This finding brings into question how applicable the widely held assumptions about organizational commitment are within the SIE field.

That normative commitment bucks the trend in the current research in comparison to previous research is interesting in that it suggests that EAs may have different needs to general workers in terms of remaining committed to a foreign institution and in a foreign location, and that the mechanisms leading to turnover intention (and intention to repatriate) are therefore different. The implication of this finding is that whilst it is important that an organization helps build affective commitment, they should not do so in such a way whereby an SIE feels more obligated to stay, and instead should focus on avoiding this feeling of obligation in favour of feelings of belonging and contribution.

7.11 General Discussion

While not all of the proposed hypotheses were supported – including a number of the proposed relationships that were explored in this research to ascertain the impact of access to social capital and intention to repatriate, the statistically significant results found in other tested relationships does provide a level of support for the main research question; suggesting that

access to social capital does appear to have at least some impact upon intention to repatriate. Specifically, national homophily, network density and societal hierarchy have been shown to have a statistically significant impact upon intention to repatriate in the model tested.

Table 7.1 – Summary of Hypothesis Support

Hypothesis	Statement	Supported? (Y/N)
Hypothesis 1	Hypothesis 1: The greater the geographic homophily of EAs' ego-networks, the weaker their intention to repatriate.	N
Hypothesis 2	Hypothesis 2: The greater the national homophily of an EA's ego-network, the greater their intention to repatriate.	Y
Hypothesis 3	Hypothesis 3: National homophily within SIEs ego-networks positively moderates the relationship between geographical homophily and repatriation intention.	N
Hypothesis 4	Hypothesis 4: The denser and EA's ego-network, the stronger their intention to repatriate.	Y
Hypothesis 5	Hypothesis 5: As an expatriate academic's hierarchical position within their organizational setting increases, so does their intention to repatriate	Y
Hypothesis 6	.Hypothesis 6: Host country career embeddedness positively moderates the relationship between geographical homophily and repatriation intention.	N
Hypothesis 7	Hypothesis 7: The greater an EA's host country career embeddedness the weaker an EA's intention to repatriate.	Y
Hypothesis 8	Hypothesis 8: National Identity positively moderates the relationship between national homophily and repatriation intention.	N
Hypothesis 9	Hypothesis 9: The greater an EA's sense of National Identity, the stronger their intention to repatriate.	Y

The overall findings of the current research are mixed. Whilst the findings do point to a number of direct effect relationships between social capital conceptualizations of access to resources and an academic expatriate's intention to repatriate, there are a number of predicted relationships that were not significant. The research questions posed at the beginning of this thesis have primarily been answered by the quantitative investigation that has taken place, with more insights being provided by the follow up interviews.

The combination of quantitative enquiry with qualitative exploration has provided a unique perspective on the role that networks play for expatriate academics and their intentions to repatriate. It has allowed for broader conclusions to be drawn about EAs and in turn about SIEs, and has pointed to areas that require more research in order to fully understand the role that social capital plays within the internationally mobile workforce.

In terms of the generic contribution that the current research has for social capital theory itself, it provides evidence to support network conceptualizations of social capital theory, and in particular provides a plethora of support to Lin's (2001) conceptualization of social capital. The support for one of the homophily hypotheses, the structural density hypothesis and hierarchy hypothesis link directly back to Lin's (2001) propositions about social capital theory, and the structure of the sample in terms of its fit to Lin's assumptions about society also support the overall theoretical basis of investigation. How the current research extends social capital theory is to highlight the impact of specific individual groupings, in this case nationality and national identity, and the formation of social identity based upon such concepts. By highlighting these factors the suggestion is that future developments of social capital theory should also take into account such factors and the impact that they may have upon a number of outcomes. By extending the reach of social capital theory to the Self-Initiated Expatriate field, the current research has also demonstrated further the universality of Social Capital, both as a concept and as a theory, adding to the extensive existing literature that demonstrates how social capital can shape outcomes in numerous areas both within an academic setting, and in the real world.

As highlighted in table 8.1, the findings for the impact of homophily were mixed. Geographic homophily not having a significant effect but national homophily significantly impacting intention to repatriate implies that similarity between SIEs and their network connections does have an impact upon their intention to repatriate, however similarity based upon location does not. Whilst location is a factor that would appear to be particularly important for SIEs as globally mobile employees, it does not affect their access to information and resources or their decisions to remain in their host country or return to their home country. The findings for homophily emphasize the relationship factor that is often overlooked in any network focused research. Whilst the definition of social capital used in the current research is '*Access to Resources through network ties*', the focus on network ties should not ignore that these ties are not inanimate objects, but individuals or groups. The guidance offered for other social capital theorists, based upon the significance of some of the homophily-based hypotheses in the current research, is to treat these ties as relationships, and to fully consider the similarities and differences between nodes in a network – on a more personal or attributional basis.

Significant direct relationships were also seen in the present research from network density, hierarchy, embeddedness and national identity. The overall assumption that social capital theory would be both a useful and appropriate tool for the investigation of SIE intentions to repatriate has been implied, and that it is a useful tool for EAs in particular, has been supported. That no moderating relationships were found, whilst disappointing suggests that each of the different concepts tested are significant in their own right, and each important factors that enable more insight into EA (and thus SIE) repatriation, and the role that social capital has in determining intentions to repatriate. Focussing on EAs as the subject of research has addressed calls by Trembath (2016) for EAs to be considered in their own right.

In line with the typology created by Payne et al (2011), the focus of the current research was on the individual, and the internal social capital that they can build up through connections with other individuals in their network, the current research provides greater depth to this stream of social capital literature. Whilst no quantitative findings supported any influence of physical distance on either the intention to repatriate, or the flow of social capital at the level of the individual, this does not automatically suggest that physical distance between nodes or groups has no influence on the decisions or access to resources and capital at collective level. Any follow-up research, that specifically is looking to enhance understanding of social capital theory and its applications, has two potential streams to follow. The first would be to explore the applicability of the current findings to groups or how external social capital has an influence. This would test the coherence of Payne et al's (2011) four-group topology of social capital approaches. The second direction that could be taken, would rather than focusing on the outcomes of differing levels of access to social capital brought by different network configurations, or different attributes of individuals within the networks – would be to investigate how the configurations and attributes of these individuals more specifically impact the flow of information through each node in the network.

The contribution that the current research makes to the overall SIE field of research is to provide a new perspective on factors that influence intention to repatriate, beyond the limited factors that have previously been examined. Where a number of calls have been made for further investigation of career capital (Doherty, 2013), a concept that generally focused on the global mobility field of research, a social capital approach takes a theoretical perspective that has a) been used to explain a number of phenomenon across vastly different research fields, and b) extends it to explain outcomes in the SIE field. There are distinct similarities between the concepts of career capital and social capital, with career capital even including aspects of social capital in its remit (discussing how *who* people know (i.e. their networks) impacts upon their career). Career capital explained as three distinct types of *knowing* – 'knowing why', 'knowing

how' and 'knowing whom' (DeFillipi and Arthur, 1994; Dickman and Mills, 2005) and discusses the factors that contribute to the success of an individual's career. Calls from SIE scholars for further investigation into how the development of career capital impacts an SIEs career (Al Ariss, 2012), and specifically repatriation have largely been ignored. However, 'knowing why' has been investigated in terms of looking at motives for expatriation – why individuals choose their career abroad – and to an extent by Tharenou and Caulfield (2010) for repatriation in terms of their focus on push and pull factors that affect repatriation. The 'Knowing how' component of career capital is as of yet un-researched, however this study contributes greater insight towards the *knowing whom* aspect of career capital by investigating the career networks of EAs and how this influences their decisions when abroad, thus responding to calls for such research by Doherty et al (2013). The current research has shown that intention to repatriate is affected by who an EA knows. There is also implication within social capital theory that whom an individual knows might also impact the 'knowing how' aspect of career capital, as access to sources of information from the individuals in the SIEs network could inform of such knowledge, or restrict access to it. By creating a clear crossover between two distinct streams of literature – career capital and the more established social capital, it is possible for future researchers to work to either combine these approaches, or to create a clearer distinction between the two.

With regards to social capital theory's application and extension to the SIE, the current research has attempted to build a solid foundation in the SIE field to enable further researchers to explore other influences of networks, access to resources, and of whom an individual knows; and any contingent affect this might have on SIEs decisions and performance (amongst many other possible investigations).

In the general area of expatriate research a number of authors have written conceptual articles with propositions about the impact of social capital on expatriates. This research provides evidence to support such articles, and implies that social capital theory should take a more prominent focus within future research that investigates expatriates. By adding to this growing body of literature this study strengthens the social capital and social network perspectives as ways of understanding the expatriate experience.

8 Conclusion

This research has attempted to investigate the role that social networks and access to social capital plays in expatriate academic's intentions to repatriate. In doing so this research has made a number of contributions, both to the development of the literature on expatriate academics (and more broadly to the Self-Initiated Expatriate field of research), but also contributions to the richness of the social capital field of research. This final chapter aims to provide an overview of these contributions, and to summarise the implications of the current research. This chapter will also discuss the limitations of the current research, and finalise by suggesting directions for future research.

8.1 Contributions and Implications

The current research aimed to answer a number of questions about how social networks and access to social capital influences expatriate academic's intentions to repatriate. Specifically, the research aimed to answer the following six broad questions:

1. How does geographical homophily of an EA's ego-network affect his/her intention to repatriate?
2. How does national homophily of an EA's ego-network affect his/her intention to repatriate?
3. How does the density of an EA's ego-network affect his/her intention to repatriate?
4. How does an EA's hierarchical position within their organization/social structure affect his/her intention to repatriate?
5. How does an EA's career embeddedness moderate the effect of geographical homophily on his/her intention to repatriate?
6. How does an EA's sense of national identity moderate the effect of national homophily on his/her intention to repatriate?

In the first chapter a number of gaps in the current literature were outlined. These gaps included 1) a theoretical gap, where there have been calls by researchers for further investigation into how social capital impacts the SIE experience (e.g. Doherty et al, 2013), 2) an empirical gap, with a need to understand in more depth the differences between EAs and SIEs (Trembath, 2016) and the factors that specifically influence EAs rather than just extrapolating from literature that focusses on SIEs as a whole, and 3) a practical gap, where there is a need, specifically within the UK higher education sector, to understand factors that can help in the retention of top foreign academics (HESA, 2015; Brown et al., 2008; Huisman, de Weert and Bartelse, 2002),

This research has attempted to address these gaps 1) by providing a theory based explanation of how different facets of an EA's ego-network has a contingent effect on their intention to repatriate, addressing the call for research that investigates how social capital impacts the SIE experience at the final stage, repatriation, 2) by providing an in-depth investigation of factors that specifically influence expatriate academics by focussing on them as the subject of investigation, addressing the call for a differentiated understanding of EAs and 3) addressing the need for a greater understanding of factors that can help reduce foreign academic repatriation from the UK HE sector by providing an investigation on the contingent effect that social networks have on expatriate academics intentions to repatriate in the UK HE context.

By investigating EAs, a subgroup of the broader group of SIEs, this research aimed to provide a greater understanding of the factors that influence academic expatriate's intentions to repatriate, but also lay foundations for future work that will provide insight into the role of networks and social capital on the repatriation intentions of SIEs in general.

In testing the 9 hypotheses, and following up with interviews to provide an extra level of depth, this research helped answer the six questions listed above, questions that were previously unanswered. These answers can in many ways be extended to address questions about the broader group of SIEs, but are also limited partially by the context of the current research. Whilst this is a factor that needs to be taken into consideration, this does not take away from the broader applications or contributions of the current research to the wider SIE field. Broadly, in answering these questions, the current research has provided three main contributions.

Firstly, this research has provided a theoretical model that has allowed for the investigation of how network factors influence EAs intentions to repatriate. Whilst EAs are a subgroup of SIEs, the factors investigated are not exclusive to EAs, and do affect the broader group of SIEs. This investigation not only addressed calls from researchers whose focus is on self-initiated expatriates for further development of theoretical based models that investigate repatriation intention (Doherty et al, 2013), but also builds on current research that points to the importance of networks, links and ties in decisions of SIEs to repatriate, without fully investigating these factors (e.g. Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010; Cao et al, 2014).

Secondly, this research has contributed, as an extension of the first contribution, by providing a differentiated look at how different factors of an EAs network influence their decisions to repatriate. In answer to Richardson and McKenna's (2006) call for a more nuanced approach towards the investigation of relationships between the SIE and their network partners, the current research investigates the individual facets of an academic SIE's ego-network, and how the structural and relational aspects (Moran, 2005) of this network may influence (either directly

or indirectly) an SIEs intention to return to their home country. This contribution is made possible through the use of social network analysis at the ego-level, to capture these attributes. This is the first time this has been done within the current context, investigating intentions to repatriate

Thirdly, in answering the six questions above, the current research makes a contribution by drawing on social capital theory and extending it to help explain the repatriation intentions of EAs, addressing the current dearth of research that accounts for the contingent nature of the effects that different aspects of an SIE's ego network has on their intention to repatriate.

Whilst each of these three contributions are linked to one and other, they are distinct in their focus. The first contribution helps understand how networks as a whole may influence intentions to repatriate, building on current research and answering calls from other scholars. The second contribution is achieved by focusing on ego-networks specifically. Doing this makes it possible to more closely focus on and understand the role of relationships between individuals, and how these influences and impacts SIEs in general. The third contribution is then focused on the specific aspects of ego-networks, and how each of these different aspects of an SIE's network (structural and relational) can have a contingent effect on the SIEs intention to repatriate.

Alongside these three key theoretical contributions, there are also a number of other contributions that the current research makes. By testing the relationship between network density and intention to repatriate, a context in which network density has until now not been investigated, the current research acts to help clarify the debate on the potential role, influence and outcomes of network density. Empirically, this study has provided further insight into SIEs in the UK higher education sector, and their intentions to remain in the UK or to return to their home country. By providing in-depth analysis of a newly collected primary data source, this study has aided the understanding of the make-up of ego-networks of foreign academics in the UK. Practically, this research has the potential to help individuals understand factors that can more strongly embed them in their host country environment, but can also help host companies and governments to understand factors that have some influence on SIEs intention to repatriate. This is important for organizations looking to retain top talent, but also important for home country governments that might be experiencing a brain drain.

8.2 Limitations

Whilst the current research makes a number of valid theoretical, empirical and practical contributions, there are also a number of limitations to the research. Considering the sample, the rational choice to focus on one national group was made, within one country, to alleviate

the influence of different institutional contexts and backgrounds that would not be easily controlled for. The precedent for focusing on a single nationality was set by previous authors who researched SIEs and who have conducted research in a similar way (e.g. Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010 – who focused on Australian’s). The countries chosen for focus were countries that both reside within the EU, because this restricts any issues with visas as countries within the EU share freedom of movement, and a right to work in any other country within the EU. Controlling for this factor means that visa decisions would not play a role in influencing intention to repatriate for the individuals being studied in the current research.

Where the above mentioned controls benefited the research by adding higher levels of control, they also restrict in some ways its generalizability. There is an argument to be made that the current research may not be easily extended to other cultures or nationalities. Whilst this is a fair criticism, by focusing on countries within the EU, this research should be broadly generalizable to other countries within the EU. The issue of the UK announcing its decision to leave the European Union before the completion of the qualitative portion of this research also provides potential complications. Responses and data collected before this decision was made could now be different, particularly due to the potential influence of political context on intention to repatriate highlighted by the interviews that were conducted after the decision to leave was announced. If conducted again, the research should therefore take into consideration the impact of political and institutional context in much greater depth at the data collection phase.

This research focused on academics, within the UK higher education sector. There have been question by researchers in the past on the applicability of work that focuses on academics to the rest of the SIE population (Trembath, 2016). This research, particularly within the inductive and qualitative portion of data collection attempted to assess whether any key differences were evident. Little information was found to imply that this research is not generalizable to the larger and wider group of SIEs who work outside of academia, however it is noted throughout the research that there is a great importance within academia on publishing research, an activity that is almost exclusive to academia. In support of the current researches generalizability are findings that are consistent replications of other research that focuses on non-academic expatriates. This would imply that whilst differences between EAs and SIEs may exist, that these differences are not as broad as has been suggested in other research (Trembath, 2016), and these differences do not greatly impact the generalizability of the research.

By design, this research is also limited in the scope of the number of issues that it included within its model. Rather than offering a full and complete model of issues that may affect SIE intentions to repatriate, this research’s key focus was on the contingent nature of different facets of an

SIEs social network. To enable focus on these factors, the key part of the methodology chosen was social network analysis, enabled by data collected through a questionnaire designed to generate names of SIEs direct network contacts, and to understand the relationship between them. This leads to two potential limitations of the current research. Firstly, that this research focuses on direct network connections only, rather than looking at whole network structures. Whole network analysis is the study of an entire complete network of individuals, and comparing the structure of each of these networks (Scott, 1991). Ego-network analysis, (used in the current research) is similar in that it allows comparison of networks, but it does this on a much smaller scale, but on a scale that allows for much greater measurement of individual social capital (Payne et al, 2011), the focus of the current investigation. Whilst it is true, that whole network analysis would have provided greater visibility of entire networks, entire networks were not the focus of the investigation because measuring them would not have been the most effective way of investigating the individual structural and relational (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998) aspects of social capital, experienced by SIEs.

Whilst the current research focuses on networks, there is another side of social capital that is interested in societal trust and reciprocity (Coleman, 1988; Bourdieu, 1986) which has been neglected in the current research. This aspect of social capital is much more appropriate when considering the investigation of collective social capital (Payne et al, 2011), and its neglect in part is due to a lack of consensus amongst social capital theorists about how to measure this aspect of social capital (Van Deth, 2003). Instead of opting to measure this, the current research focuses on network aspects of social capital, or access to social capital provided through networks and neglects the investigation of exactly how each individual uses such social capital. To do this would have made the scope of the current investigation too broad, and instead should be the focus of future research, that builds on the current work by not only investigating access to social capital, but the use of social capital by SIEs.

8.3 Directions for Future Research

There are numerous ways in which the current research could be extended in future, to a) alleviate some of the concerns about the limitations described, and b) to compliment the current research and provide greater insight into the contingent effect of access to social capital on SIEs intentions to repatriate.

Given the conflicting findings about network homophily, with one of the hypotheses about the direct influence of similarity (on nationality) on intention to repatriate being accepted, and another relating to geographic homophily being rejected, there should be further investigation into its role in access to social capital and intention to repatriate of EAs and SIEs. Which social,

personal and locational dimensions of similarity are important a) for the SIE when looking to gain or maintain social capital, and b) that have a potential influence on intention to repatriate. Whether it is similarity in age, gender, political outlook, (or in the case of SIE academics, subject, and research focus) or many other factors.

Similarly, where the finding in the current research is that geographic homophily has no influence on intention to repatriate, it is important to further understand this, given that the SIE is in a country that is not their own. As the most basic form of homophily is space (Zipf, 1949), it is important to understand if this plays any role in the timeline of the SIE – whether having closely located network partners aids adjustment, or influences decisions to move in the first instance.

Given the strong direct influence of national identity on intention to repatriate, there is a need to further investigate the crossover between identity and social capital. Tajfel and Turner (1986) in building social identity theory, highlighted the identity that individuals can draw from being a member of a group, and the benefits that such identity can bring to the individual. There is a clear crossover between social identity theory and social capital theory, as both advocate the benefits and focus on the general outcomes of being members of groups or networks. The influence of individual identity is largely ignored within social capital theory (for an exception see Mehra, Kilduff and Brass, 1998). Pursuing research that looks to integrate these two theories more closely would potentially benefit both fields of research.

The inductive portion of the current research – the qualitative interviews – whilst providing greater depth also highlighted areas that should be included in any follow-up research. The personal instability felt by those interviewed after the decision was made to leave the European Union highlighted the role that political and host-country contextual circumstances can play in shaping decision of individuals to repatriate. This should be given greater focus in future research. Similarly, the discussion of the role of family appears to be under-represented in current conceptualizations of embeddedness. Whilst familial embeddedness is considered in current conceptualizations, the research conducted for the current study highlighted the inability of EAs to separate their own embeddedness from that of their spouses or children. This should be given greater focus in future research.

Finally, addressing some of the questions raised by the investigation of the sample of the current research should be addressed. Previously, Cao et al (2013) found that the average length of stay of an SIE was roughly 7.73 years, however in the present sample, the average stay was 13.22 years. This clear difference in length of stay would imply that there should be more investigation into this factor to clarify this. One of the key differences between migrants and SIEs is that

migrants intend to stay indefinitely in their host destination (Al-Ariss, 2010). However if an SIE initially decides that they intend to return at one point, but change their mind and stay indefinitely, then the question about at which point they transition from an SIE – (an individual who is in a host country for a temporary (albeit potentially lengthy) period of time), to a migrant, needs to be answered. This answer could be related to the current study's exclusive focus on academic expatriates, but only further comparative research would help uncover if this is the case.

The current research forms a first step in investigating the role of social capital and networks on the repatriation intentions of ASIEs and thus SIEs. Whilst there are a number of limitations, and still a number of questions that remain unanswered, the unique contributions provided in this study go some way to aiding the greater understanding of contingent factors that impact self-initiated expatriates' intentions to repatriate.

9 References

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10 Appendices

10.1 Appendix 1 – Items and Measures used when collecting survey data.

Repatriation Intention

Q17 What is the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I intend to return to Germany and live there permanently (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I intend to remain abroad permanently (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I plan to return to Germany within the next two years (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Social Network Questions – Name Generator

Q11 Please list up to six individuals that are important to you for discussing work matters.

Q12 Please list up to six individuals that are important to you for discussing research projects. PLEASE DO NOT LIST ANY INDIVIDUALS THAT YOU LISTED IN THE PREVIOUS CATEGORY..

Q13 Please list up to six individuals that are important to you for discussing issues related to your career. PLEASE DO NOT LIST ANY INDIVIDUALS THAT YOU LISTED IN ANY OF THE PREVIOUS CATEGORIES.

Social Network Questions – Relationships between SIE and other actors in Network

Q14 What is your relationship with the following people? (Please select all options that apply)

	This person is part of my professional life (1)	This person is part of my social life (2)	This person is part of my family life (3)	None of these (4)
Person 1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Person 2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Person 3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Person...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Person 18	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q15 Nationality, place of residence, gender and connection to your contacts:

Q16 Please select all of the people who you believe *Person x*, discusses teaching, research projects or other work matters with. (Loop)

Career Embeddedness

Q19 To what extent would the following be sacrifices or losses to you if you returned to Germany?

	Not at all (1)	Very Little (2)	Somewhat (3)	A Fair Amount (4)	To a Great Extent (5)
The career and employment opportunities I have here/abroad (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The money I earn or can earn here/abroad (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The business opportunities I have here/abroad (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20 How much do you agree with these statements with respect to the country that you live in?

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
My career needs fit with the opportunities available in the UK (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My professional growth and development fits with what is happening in the UK (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My career plans do not fit with with what is available back in Germany (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have needs for international experience met by the opportunities in the UK (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q21 How long have you worked for your present employer?

Q22 Which of the following best describes your current employment status:

National Identity

Q18 What is the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree (1)	(2)	(3)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (4)	(5)	(6)	Strongly Agree (7)
In general, I am glad to be German (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't feel good about being German (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have a lot in common with other Germans (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Generally I feel good when I think about myself as a German (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often think about the fact that I am German (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel strong ties to other Germans (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, being a German is an important part of my self-image (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The fact that I am German rarely enters my head (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't feel a sense of being connected to other Germans (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Control Variables

Q5 In which year did you move to the UK? (If you have lived in the UK previously on more than one occasion, please state the year that you moved to the UK most recently).

Q6 In which year were you awarded your PhD (or equivalent doctoral Degree, eg. Dr. rer nat/ DPhil)?

Q7 How many different organizations have you worked for since completing your PhD?

Q40 What is your Age?

Q41 What is your Gender?

Q34 Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the below statements?

"Organization" refers to your current employer (Organizational Commitment)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	(2)	(3)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (4)	(5)	(6)	Strongly Agree (7)
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy discussing about this organization with people outside of the company (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that I could easily become as attached to another company as I am to this one (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do NOT feel like part of the family at this organization (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do NOT feel emotionally attached to this organization (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do NOT feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q35 Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the below statements.

"Organization" refers to your current employer (Organizational Commitment)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	Strongly Agree (7)
I am NOT afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It would be very hard for me to leave this organization right now even if I wanted to (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave this organization right now (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It WOULDN'T be too costly for me to leave this organization right now (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Right now, staying with this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organization (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of alternatives (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice - another Company may not match the overall benefits that I have here (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q36 Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the below statements
(Organizational Commitment)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	Strongly Agree (7)
I think that people these days move from company to company too often (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his/her company (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jumping from company to company does not seem at all unethical to me (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
One of the major reasons I continue to work in this company is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I get another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave this company (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one company (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Things were better in the days when people stayed in one company for most of their careers (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not think that to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

