

WHAT PREDICTS RECEPTIVITY TO INTERNATIONAL CAREERS OF YOUNG EMPLOYEES? THE LINKS OF PERSONAL AGENCY AND THE PERCEIVED ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

This study sought to understand the person and environment factors related to young employees' receptivity to international careers using constructs from social cognitive career theory. The longitudinal sample comprised 213 Australian employees aged 26 or younger who responded to a follow-up survey, two years after they were surveyed when final year undergraduate business students. Beyond 2-year earlier receptivity to international careers and control variables, receptivity to international careers was positively related to current and 2-year earlier outcome expectancies, negatively to current family influence and presence of partners, and positively to working in organizations with an international focus. Destination made a difference. Employees who preferred countries easy to work in had lower receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar but not culturally similar countries to Australia than those who did not. The qualitative results supported respondents' missing family and friends as the major barrier to taking international jobs, and outcome expectancies as a key factor. Discussion centered on the links found for barriers, opportunities, and outcome expectancies, to receptivity to international careers, in contrast to the lack of links found for human resource support and self-efficacy for international work and life.

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WHAT PREDICTS RECEPTIVITY TO INTERNATIONAL CAREERS OF YOUNG EMPLOYEES? THE LINKS OF PERSONAL AGENCY AND THE PERCEIVED ENVIRONMENT

Understanding how interest develops in international careers is important. First, despite organizations seeking to increase their use of host country nationals (Solomon, 1999), expatriation is still on the increase (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 1999, 2000; Windham, 1998, 2000), partly because of the slow development of host country nationals and the high rate of globalization (Brewster & Scullion, 1997; Stroh & Caligiuri, 1998; Windham, 2000). Second, finding candidates is the most pressing problem (Windham, 2000), with employees reluctant to expatriate often due to family factors (Harvey, 1995, 1997, 1998; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 1999, 2000; Scullion, 1992; Stroh & Caligiuri, 1998; Windham, 1998, 2000). Third, understanding receptivity to international careers is important because it is related to employee adjustment once expatriates (Selmer, 1998), helping increase assignment success.

This study seeks to extend understanding of receptivity to international careers by examining young graduate employees initially when they were final year undergraduate business students and later after they entered fulltime jobs. Why seek to understand receptivity in young graduate employees? First, new college hires and more junior staff are now being sent on international assignments because older, more senior employees refuse to go (Harvey, 1995; Scullion, 1992; Solomon, 1998a; Stroh & Caligiuri, 1998). Second, the longitudinal approach used can extend understanding from the prior studies, all cross-sectional (Adler, 1986; Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1996; Brett & Stroh, 1995; Harvey, 1998; Lowe, Downes, & Kroeck, 1999; Yurkiewicz & Rosen, 1995). Third, young Australians (the country of this study) are relocating abroad for jobs more than before and more than other Australians are (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2000), but the reasons have not been examined. Fourth, some organizations now seek young talent from the pool worldwide (PriceWaterhouseCoopers, 2000; Solomon, 1998b; Weeks, 1992), yet it is not understood what causes young employees to be receptive to relocating internationally for work.

Because of the lack of theory in regard to the development of international careers (Sullivan, 1999), this study borrows concepts from social cognitive career theory for explanation (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994, 2000). Figure 1 presents the person and environment factors proposed to affect receptivity to international careers. In social cognitive career theory, self-efficacy (can I do this?) and outcome expectancies (if I do this, what will happen?) are proposed as the dual aspects of personal agency needed to explain career interests (Bandura, 1997; Betz, 2000; Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Perceived barriers, opportunities, and support are proposed as the three explanatory aspects of the environment (Lent et al., 1994, 2000). In career studies, as shown in Figure 1, differences in individuals in terms of their demographic characteristics and relevant attitudes and experiences are first controlled in order to examine the links of personal agency and the perceived environment to career interests (Arbono, 2000; Bandura, 1997; Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Moreover, direct and interactive relationships are proposed. The environment, by being adverse versus beneficial, can affect whether personal agency is related to career interests (Lent et al., 1994, 2000).

Insert Figure 1 about here

DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

Personal Agency

Based on Bandura (1997), self-efficacy for international work is defined as how certain individuals are of their ability to learn to work and live in countries with different cultures to their own. In social cognitive career theory, self-efficacy affects career interests. People are said to avoid activities and situations that exceed their coping capabilities, and undertake challenging activities and choose social environments they judge themselves as capable of managing (Bandura, 1997; Betz, 2000; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Thus, if students or employees have high self-efficacy for international work and life, they should be more receptive to international careers than if they have low self-efficacy. In support, career studies show that, beyond their

abilities and preferences, students' self-efficacy for specific tasks is related to the range of career options and the specific occupational interests they consider (Bandura, 1997; Betz, 2000; Hackett, 1995; Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Moreover, self-efficacy for international work should be needed more when contemplating working in culturally dissimilar countries to the home country than similar, because the former provide more challenges for daily living and working than do the latter. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 proposes:

H1: For students or employees, self-efficacy for international work will be positively related to receptivity to international careers (H1a), and more to receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar than similar countries to the home country (H1b).

Individuals' receptivity to international careers may also be self-regulated by their preference for "easy" rather than "difficult" countries in which to work. Easy countries to work in should be safe, politically stable, low on corruption, and economically well developed, with good infrastructure for business, and not culturally difficult to deal with (Arthur Andersen, 1997), unlike difficult countries. Employees may vary in their preference for country ease for work. Those who prefer countries easy to work in may not care when contemplating working in culturally similar countries to Australia, because they are easy through stability and safety (Sealy, 1999). They may be unreceptive, however, to working in culturally dissimilar countries to Australia, which are more difficult for work, for example, in regards to safety and stability. Thus, preference for country ease should be more negatively related to receptivity to working in dissimilar countries to Australia but not similar countries.

H2: Employee preference for country ease will be negatively related to receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar, but not similar, countries to the home country.

In social cognitive career theory, the other aspect of personal agency proposed to combine with self-efficacy to affect career interests is individuals' outcome expectancies (Bandura, 1997; Betz, 2000; Lent et al., 1994, 2000), which are personal beliefs about the consequences of performing particular behaviors. Meta-analyses show that individuals' expectations of gaining valued outcomes from particular occupations are related to their career interests (Lent et al., 1994; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996) and choices (Wanous, Keon, & Latack, 1983). Betz (2000) pointed out that efficacy expectations are unlikely to lead to behavior if no positive outcomes are anticipated. Career studies examine the influence of outcome expectancies after controlling for self-efficacy, finding that, beyond self-efficacy, students' outcome expectancies explain their career interests (Bandura, 1997; Betz, 2000). Whether students or employees, those who expect they will gain benefits that will outweigh costs should be more receptive to international careers.

H3: For students or employees, expectations of valued outcomes from international jobs will be positively related to receptivity to international careers.

The Psychological Environment

Lent et al. (1994, 2000) proposed in social cognitive career theory that the perceived environment influences the formulation of career interests, and may provide more powerful presses than person factors do (e.g., attitudes). The fewer the barriers to a particular career and the greater the perceived opportunities and support, the more likely individuals are to develop an interest in that career (Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Moreover, the environment should affect career formulation beyond person factors of demographic attributes, relevant attitudes and experiences (the controls), and personal agency.

Barriers are events or conditions that make taking up of particular occupations or careers difficult, and include factors external to the individual and their attitudes/reactions to situations (Lent et al., 2000; Swanson & Woitke, 1987). Family factors are the most frequent barrier found to receptivity to expatriation, especially the presence of spouses and children (Adler, 1986; Aryee et al., 1996; Brett & Stroh, 1995; Harvey, 1995, 1997, 1998; Yurkiewicz & Rosen, 1995). The latter are not likely in young students. But young students' attachment to parents, friends, and community may reduce their receptivity to international work (Figure 1). Attachment may mean that, after graduation, students would rather live with their parents or in the community of their family and friends than relocate internationally for work. Partners may be more influential when students become employees, because the likelihood of gaining a partner increases with age

as students move into young adulthood, perhaps reducing their receptivity to international jobs. In addition, the extent young employees' families and friends have a strong influence on their taking international work and young employees are unreceptive because of loss of family life and social contacts, the lower should be their receptivity to international careers. Thus, beyond person factors, Hypothesis 4 poses:

H4: Students' family attachment (H4a) and employees' partners and family influence (H4b) will be negatively related to receptivity to international careers.

Lent et al. (2000) proposed that positive aspects of the environment (opportunity, support) influence career formulation, perhaps more than barriers do. Opportunities for international assignments should be greater, the greater the number of countries in which the organization has operations -- and thus the possibility of receptivity. Opportunities for international careers should also increase in organizations with strong international focus, again increasing the possibility of receptivity (Figure 1). Consistent with Barham and Devine (1991), an organization with an international focus is one increasing its international activities in order, for example, to achieve business objectives (e.g., growth) and deal with its environment (e.g., competition, market changes). Organizations with international operations and focus also provide employees with exposure to role models and encouragement to expatriate that may increase their receptivity. Thus, beyond person and family factors:

H5: The greater organizations' countries of operations (H5a) and international focus (H5b), the more young employees will report receptivity to international careers.

Lent et al. (2000) defined supports/resources as aspects of the psychological environment that facilitate the formation and pursuit of individuals' career interests. Support from human resource (HR) policies is relevant when considering expatriate assignments because of the special challenges of working in other cultures including culture shock, financial issues, relocation, partner issues, and repatriation (Borstorff, Harris, & Giles, 1997; Windham, 1998, 2000). Some of these challenges may not arise for young employees, such as relocating their own residences, or finding employment for partners, yet alone schools for children. Little evidence exists, but Brett and Stroh (1995) did not find HR support for international jobs was related to U.S. managers' willingness to expatriate. The relevance of HR support may be affected by the destination. HR support may be especially needed when considering working in culturally dissimilar countries to the home country than similar ones, because more assistance is required (e.g., accommodation and relocation help; cross-cultural and language training). Aryee et al. (1996) found HR policies in regard to adjustment or career concerns were related to Singaporean managers' receptivity to expatriation to culturally dissimilar countries but, unexpectedly, policies for family concerns were related to receptivity to culturally similar destinations. More research is needed on the link of HR policies to receptivity, especially by destination. Thus, beyond person and family factors:

H6: HR policies for international work will be positively related to employees' receptivity to international careers (H6a), and more to receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar than similar countries to the home country (H6b).

Moderator Links

Lent et al. (2000) proposed in social cognitive career theory that personal agency and the perceived environment may not only have direct links to career interests but also interact. The environment provides conditions that affect whether personal agency can translate into career interests. If the environment is adverse (e.g., low opportunity, little support, many barriers) rather than beneficial (e.g., high opportunity, much support, few barriers), personal agency is less likely to be able to translate into career intent (Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Working in an organization with high international focus and HR support and having low family influence and no partner may enable self-efficacy, low preference for country ease, and outcome expectancies to be related to receptivity to international careers, more than when working in an organization low in international focus and HR support and having high family influence and a partner. Thus, Hypotheses 7, 8, and 9 propose that employee self-efficacy (H7), preference for country ease (H8; negatively), and outcome expectancies (H9) will be more related to receptivity to international careers when employees perceive:

- (a) higher rather than lower organizational international focus (H7a, H8a, H9a),
- (b) more rather than less HR support for international work (H7b, H8b, H9b),
- (c) lower rather than higher family influence (H7c, H8c, H9c), and
- (d) have no partners rather than having partners (H7d, H8d, H9d).

METHOD

Respondents and Data Collection

At Time 1, I surveyed all final year Australian (non-international) undergraduate business students of a university ($n = 2434$) because business graduates are well represented amongst the young Australians who relocate abroad to work for a year or more (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2000). They were told the survey's aim was to examine interest in international work in early career (after graduation when students). The return rate was 35.45% by reply-paid post, giving 863 students. Most were 24 or younger (73%), fulltime students (71%), childless (88%), and not married or cohabiting (76%); 56% were women. Of the 863, 674 volunteered their names and addresses for follow-up and were surveyed two years later. At Time 2, 43 did not return the survey because they were foreign nationals or not employed, 42 could not be contacted (e.g., abroad), and 37 surveys were returned to sender. Of the 562 remaining, 343 responded, giving a 61% response rate. Chi-square tests of the Time 1 data ($n = 863$) showed that Time 2 nonrespondents ($n = 520$) more than respondents ($n = 343$) were single (78% vs 68%), childless (89% vs 85%), and fulltime students (74% vs 67%) -- and hence likely to be of interest to this study. It is also possible some non-respondents were already abroad working, thus further underestimating the results found.

Because the Times 1 and 2 samples had skewed variables (e.g., age, parents) and the study needed young employees entering work fulltime or in very early career, I needed to exclude some of the sample. At Time 2, I excluded those older than 26 (104 were from 27 to 58) and those not employed more than 30 hours per week ($n = 12$) because they were most likely not to be young adults in fulltime jobs after graduation. I excluded the (a) two parents who remained after the exclusion of those 27 or older, (b) the nine foreign nationals to increase within-sample cultural similarity to test Hypotheses 1b, 2, and 6b related to cultural dissimilarity of destinations, and (c) the 15 respondents who had already expatriated.

The final Time 2 sample comprised 213 employees all 26 or younger. The sample had 63% women, 42% with partners (5% married, 11% cohabiting, 26% in a relationship but not cohabiting), and 80% Australian-born. Some (42%) worked in multinational firms, and 90% in the profit sector. Employees worked in finance and accounting (34%), marketing and sales (20%), consulting (10%), general management (5%), business development (4%), and the rest in a range of functions (27%). They worked in the industries of business and property services (43%), retail and wholesale (16%), personal and other services (12%), transport (6%), manufacturing (5%), government (4%), and the rest in a range of industries (14%).

Measures

Receptivity to International Careers

At Times 1 and 2, Adler's (1986) 5, 7-point item scale measured receptivity to an international career. Examples of the items were: "I would like to move internationally in my work more than 40% of the time", and "I am seriously considering pursuing an international career". An international job was defined as relocating to work as a fulltime employee in a foreign country for a year or more (Adler, 1986). Principle components factor analysis of the Time 2 data ($n = 343$) resulted in three factors: receptivity to international careers (Factor 1, Adler's, 1986, five items), and receptivity to working in culturally similar countries to Australia (Factor 3) and culturally dissimilar countries (Factor 2). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using LISREL 8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996) showed the three factors fitted the data well (GFI = .984; AGFI = .978; RMSEA = .074), with a mean factor loading of .90 for receptivity to international careers.

Receptivity to Working in Culturally Similar and Culturally Dissimilar Countries

At Time 2, 10 single 5-point items assessed the extent to which employees were willing from 1, very unwilling to 5, very willing to relocate for a job in each of 10 specific country clusters. They were the nine

Ronen and Shenkar (1985) country clusters (e.g., Nordic), with Central and West Africa added. I gave exemplifying countries for each cluster, omitting Australia in the Anglo cluster. In the principal components analysis previously reported, receptivity to working in the Anglo, Germanic, Latin European, and Nordic clusters, which are the most culturally similar country clusters to Australia (Ronen & Shenkar, 1985), loaded on Factor 3. Loading on Factor 2 were Latin/South America, Near East/East Europe, Far East/Orient, Arab, Independent (e.g., Brazil, Japan, India, Israel), and Central and West African countries, which are culturally dissimilar country clusters to Australia compared to the earlier four (Ronen & Shenkar, 1985). The mean factor loadings were .93 (F3) and .90 (F2) from CFA.

Self-efficacy

At Times 1 and 2, Cianni and Tharenou's (2000) 12-item scale measured confidence in one's ability to learn to work and live in a country with a different culture to one's own, on an 11-point scale ranging from 0% (high uncertainty) to 100% (high certainty). Examples of some shortened items were: "work with a boss of a different culture than my own", "learn the skills in my job", "get ahead in my career", "handle work-related problems", "live in a country that may have more political instability than my own", "work in a country in which I know no one when I first arrive", and "adapt my behavior to fit into the culture". Using principal components analysis, at Time 1 ($n = 863$), self-efficacy emerged as a distinct factor from Sherer et al's. (1982) general self-efficacy scale and this study's measure of attachment to family. At Time 2 ($n = 343$), self-efficacy emerged as a distinct factor from family influence and preference for country ease. CFA (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996) showed at Times 1 and 2 respectively that the three factors fitted the data well (GFI = .975, .983; AGFI = .970, .980; RMSEA = .061, .162), with mean factor loadings for self-efficacy at Times 1 and 2 of .84 and .86 respectively, supporting construct and discriminant validity.

Preference for Country Ease

At Time 2, employees reported how much they preferred to work in countries that were safe, stable, well developed, low on corruption, not culturally difficult to deal with, not lacking infrastructure for business, and which accorded similar social status to women as men. The score averaged 7, 7-point items, based on Arthur Andersen (1997), answered from 1, strongly disagree to 7, strongly agree. From the CFA previously described, the average factor loading for preference for country ease was .76.

Outcome Expectancies

Outcome expectancies were the likelihood that respondents would gain valued outcomes from accepting an international job. Using Vroom's (1964) formula, at Times 1 and 2, the instrumentality of gaining outcomes from accepting an international job was multiplied by the valence or desirability of each outcome for the individual. Instrumentality was the likelihood respondents would gain particular benefits (16 items) and hindrances (9 items) from accepting an international job from 0% (not at all likely) to 100% (extremely likely) on an 11-point scale. The items were from earlier studies (Adler, 1986; Yurkiewicz & Rosen, 1995). They were of four main types: (a) personal development and cross-cultural experiences (e.g., "add to knowledge of the world and other cultures", "opportunities to travel to new places"); (b) social factors (e.g., "cause my family emotional distress", "put at risk some of my personal relationships"); (c) advancement and job content (e.g., "promoted at a faster rate", "seen as more valuable by employer"); and (d) daily living (e.g., "greater inconveniences on a daily basis", "not enjoy the same health advantages"). To measure valence, respondents were asked how desirable each outcome was, ranging from zero, not at all desirable, to 100, extremely desirable on an 11-point scale.

Partner

At Time 1, partner was scored as 1, married/cohabiting and 2, single. At Time 2, partner also captured relationships apart from marriage and cohabiting. The item was scored as 1, married/cohabiting; 2, relationship but not cohabiting; and 3, single.

Family Attachment

At Time 1, attachment to family and friends averaged Cianni and Tharenou's (2000) 5, 7-point item scale ranging from 1, strongly disagree to 7, strongly agree. The two highest loading items on the factor from the analysis described of the Time 1 data were: "I would prefer to live 'with my parents when I graduate' and 'close to the community in which my parents live when I graduate'". The mean factor loading from the CFA was .57.

Family Influence

At Time 2, family influence with regard to taking international jobs averaged 8, 7 point items scored from 1, strongly disagree to 7, strongly agree. Items assessed how much employees agreed (a) "family or friends/community have a strong influence on my taking international work" (two items) and "family approval and support are important to my taking international work", and (b) they were unwilling to take international work because of "time away from family/friends or important events" (two items), "loss of family and social contacts", and "family/home responsibilities". The mean factor loading from CFA was .90.

Number of Countries of Operation

Employees (Time 2) gave the number of countries other than Australia in which their organizations had physical operations. If employees wished, they could give their organizations' names. The information their organization provided on the number of countries in which they had operations was then gathered (e.g., from websites, annual reports). Not all organizations gave the information or all the countries in which they had operations. The correlation between the respondent-reported scores and the available organization scores was .81 ($n = 138$), indicating satisfactory validity.

Organizational International Focus

The score averaged 14, 7-point items, measured from 1, strongly disagree to 7, strongly agree, assessing the extent employees' (i.e., Time 2) organizations had an increasing international focus in order to achieve business objectives, based on Barham and Devine's (1991) scale. The items assessed how much organizations were increasing their international focus: (a) to grow (e.g., "grow the business/expand", "take advantage of business potential abroad"); (b) to achieve business objectives; (c) from necessity (e.g., "survival needs"); and (d) to deal with market changes (e.g., "speed of market changes"). Principal components factor analysis of the 14 items with the 24 HR policies for international work gave two clear factors, confirmed by CFA (GFI = .989; AGFI = .988; RMSEA = .140), with a mean factor loading of .79 for international focus.

HR Policies for International Work

The score averaged the extent employees' (i.e., Time 2) organizations offered 24 HR policies for international work, scored from 1, never to 5, at all times. They came from Borstorff et al's. (1997) review of the HR policies needed for expatriation, and covered those typically required. Shortened examples are: "accommodation assistance", "cross-cultural training", "financial assistance", "planned career paths", "country briefings", "position on repatriation", "incentives and remuneration", and "assistance with partner employment". Some items came from existing scales (Aryee et al., 1996; Barham & Devine, 1991; Brett & Stroh, 1995). The mean factor loading from the CFA was .90.

Controls

I controlled variables in the analyses to take into account differences within the sample (e.g., gender). I also controlled variables that may have been related to the dependent variable, such as receptivity to relocating domestically for work, or to both the dependent and independent variables, such as foreign experiences and educational major. These controls helped assess the unique links of the major variables to receptivity to international careers and control third variable explanations. Age was in years. Gender was coded as 1, male, and 2, female. Birthplace was measured as 1, Australia; 2, English-speaking country abroad; and 3, non-English-speaking country. An educational major in international business/management in respondents' degrees was scored as 1, no; 2, a minor; and 3, a major. Foreign experiences comprised Caligiuri's (1994) 4, 5-point item scale assessing fluency in foreign languages and frequency of travel abroad. Willingness to relocate domestically for a job was Brett and Reilly's (1988) five-point item answered from 1, I will move domestically for a job, to 5, I will not move domestically for a job for any reason. Managerial level was measured from 1, subordinate to 6, senior manager. Organization size (12 categories) was skewed, and collapsed into three scores: 1, fewer than 100 employees; 2, 100 to 2000; and 3, greater than 2000 employees. Objective scores for size from the organizations (websites, annual reports) and respondents' scores were correlated .73 ($n = 100$), indicating satisfactory validity. Employment sector was measured as 1, public sector and 2, private.

Open-ended Questions

I asked respondents two open-ended questions about the main reasons they would or would not take up an

international job, to provide supplementary information to the quantitative data.

Insert Tables 1 and 2 about here

RESULTS

Tables 1 (Time 1 predictors) and 2 (Time 2 predictors) give the means, standard deviations, alpha coefficients, and intercorrelations for the variables. The alphas were high except for Time 1 family attachment (.67) and Times 1 and 2 foreign experience (.68, .67), which were close to .70 and so retained. As shown by *t*-tests (Table 1), when students or employees (*n* = 213), respondents had similar levels of receptivity to international careers.

Because some variables were related, I conducted formal tests to estimate multivariate multicollinearity by measuring tolerances and variance inflation factors (VIFs), as advocated by scholars (e.g., Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The tolerances were greater than .70 and VIFs were less than 2, thus showing no multicollinearity, including for the interrelated variables in Tables 1 or 2. Still, I repeated all regression analyses dropping variables within a block to assess how robust the results were for particular variables when other variables were not included (e.g., for Time 1 self-efficacy and outcome expectancies when Time 1 receptivity was not included). I also changed the order of entry of the blocks of variables to assess if this influenced the magnitude of their results. Overall, the results from the regression analyses were robust, not affected by multicollinearity or the order of entry of the variables.

Initial regression analyses including all control variables showed that birthplace, managerial level, employment sector, and organizational size were not related to receptivity to international careers. Their inclusion made no difference to the results of the major predictors nor did they interact with them. So, to increase power, I dropped the four variables as controls. Transformations to the skewed variables (e.g., educational major) made no difference to the results so the untransformed results are presented for ease of interpretation.

Hierarchical regression analysis tested the hypotheses. I conducted two major types of analyses to capitalize on the longitudinal data, and in all controlled Time 1 receptivity to international careers to predict change in receptivity and to help control for third variable explanations. First, I used the Time 1 measures as predictors. Time 2/employee receptivity to international careers was regressed in five steps (Table 3) in order on Time 1/student: (1) receptivity to international careers; (2) the control variables; (3) self-efficacy to test H1a; (4) outcome expectancies to test H3, to allow its effects beyond self-efficacy to be assessed as in career studies (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Betz, 2000; Lent et al., 1994, 2000); and (5) family attachment to test H4a. In a separate equation to test family (H4b) and organizational (H5, H6a) variables (Table 3), in Step 5, I then included Time 2/employee family variables, in Step 6, the organizational variables. Second, I used the Time 2 measures as predictors. Time 2/employee receptivity to international careers was regressed in six steps (Table 4), in order, on: (1) Time 1/student receptivity, and Time 2/employee: (2) control variables; (3) self-efficacy (H1a) and preference for country ease (H2); (4) outcome expectancies (H3); (5) family variables (H4b); and (6) organizational variables (H5, H6a). Third, to test the moderator effects proposed in H7, H8, and H9, Step 7 added blocks of interactions between each personal agency variable and the environmental variables to the main six-step equation (Table 5). All analyses were repeated for the dependent variables of Time 2/employee receptivity to working in culturally similar and dissimilar countries to test H1b, H2, and H6b (Tables 3, 4). It should be noted that in Tables 3 and 4, student receptivity to international careers and employee receptivity to domestic relocation for work were related to employee receptivity to international careers.

Insert Tables 3 and 4 about here

H1 proposed that, for students or employees, self-efficacy for international work would be positively related to receptivity to international careers (H1a), and more in culturally dissimilar than similar countries to the home country (H1b). H1a did not gain support. When taking into account all other variables, neither student self-efficacy (Table 3) nor employee self-efficacy (Table 4) were related to change in receptivity to international careers. For H1a, self-efficacy was also not significant when outcome expectancies and preference for country ease were omitted from the equations. Student self-efficacy never predicted employee receptivity, and employee self-efficacy became nonsignificant when family or organizational variables were added (e.g., as shown in Table 4). H1b gained partial support. Student self-efficacy (Table 3), but not employee self-efficacy (Table 4), predicted increased receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar countries to the home country but not similar countries. Employee self-efficacy (Table 4) was predictive without preference for country ease entered, suggesting the latter was more explanatory. Because of the lack of direct links of self-efficacy, I also assessed its possible mediation of the relationships of the environmental variables with receptivity. Using Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step procedure, self-efficacy did not mediate the links of family influence, partner, or international focus (self-efficacy was only related to family influence) to receptivity to international careers or to working in culturally dissimilar or similar countries (nor did it mediate the links of preference for country ease or outcome expectancies).

H2 proposed that employee preference for country ease for work would be negatively related to receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar, but not similar, countries to the home country. As can be seen in Table 4, H2 gained support. Employees' preference for country ease for work was negatively related to their receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar countries to the home country, but not culturally similar countries.

H3 proposed that, for students or employees, outcome expectancies from international jobs would be positively related to receptivity to international careers. H3 gained partial support. As shown (Table 3), supporting H3, students' outcomes expectancies predicted increased receptivity to international careers 2 years later when employees but, not supporting H3, became nonsignificant when employee family and organizational variables were added to the equation. Supporting H3, as shown in Table 4, with all variables entered, employee outcome expectancies predicted increased receptivity to international careers.

H4 proposed that students' family attachment (H4a) and employees' partners and family influence (H4b) would be negatively related to receptivity to international careers. H4a did not gain support. Students' family attachment did not predict their receptivity to international careers as employees (Table 3). H4b gained support. For employees, family influence and partners (Tables 3, 4) were related to decreased receptivity to international careers. Unhypothesized, employees' family influence was negatively related to receptivity to working in both culturally dissimilar and similar countries to the home country (Tables 3,4).

H5 posed that, the greater the number of countries of operation (H5a) and company international focus (H5b), the greater employees' receptivity to international careers. H5a was not supported. All beta coefficients for the number of countries of operations were nonsignificant (Tables 3, 4). Supporting H5b (Table 3), an organizational international focus was related to employees' increased receptivity to international careers and, unexpectedly, also to receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar countries to the home country.

H6 proposed that HR policies for international work would be positively related to receptivity to international careers (H6a), more to culturally dissimilar than similar countries (H6b). H6 did not gain support. All beta coefficients for HR policies were nonsignificant (Tables 3, 4), including without organizational focus and number of countries in the analyses. I also assessed if individual HR policies were related to receptivity and overall they were not.

Insert Table 5 about here

H7, H8, and H9 proposing moderator effects did not gain support for self-efficacy or outcome expectancies. Interactions of employee self-efficacy (H7) and outcome expectancies (H9) with each of international focus, HR policies, family influence, and having partners did not add to the explanation by the main effects, with only two interaction terms significant (Table 5). For preference for country ease, interactions did add explanation to receptivity to working in culturally similar countries, and two interactions were significant for receptivity to international careers (Table 5). In the opposite direction to H8b and H8d, for employees who preferred country ease for working rather than not, being single rather than married (also for those with low self-efficacy) and HR support for international work were related to receptivity to international careers and to working in culturally similar countries to home.

Insert Table 6 about here

Two raters independently derived the themes from the answers to the two open-ended questions asked at Times 1 and 2. Interrater reliabilities were high (.97, .98). The scores averaged the two raters' scores. Table 7 provides the frequencies for the reasons given, omitting reasons given at both Times 1 and 2 by fewer than 5% of the sample.

As can be seen (Table 6), respondents gave expectations of benefits as the reasons they would take, and expectations of costs as the reasons they would not take, international jobs, supplementing support for H3 from the quantitative analysis. The major benefits expected were cultural experiences (new cultural experiences, travel opportunities), career prospects (career development, pay, job opportunities and content), growth (personal, skills), and excitement (excitement and challenge, change). The major costs expected were missing, or loss of, significant others (miss family and friends, lose relationship/partner, loneliness), adverse daily living (country danger and political instability, country undesirability and lower living standard), cultural differences (cultural differences and shock, home country liking and jobs), financial costs and loss, and uncertainty/fear. In regard to H2, some respondents reflected preferences for country ease by saying they would not take international jobs because of country danger and political instability, and undesirability and lower living standards than home (e.g., health systems). The reasons supported H2, though only in relation to country undesirability and living standard were culturally dissimilar countries mentioned.

The most frequent reason given for not wanting to take an international job was missing family and friends (Table 6), consistent with the quantitative support for H4b indicating that loss of/time away from family and friends reduced receptivity. Loss of partners was also a deterrent, supplementing support for H4b. From Table 6, little support arose for H1, as in the quantitative results. Few respondents mentioned self-confidence for international work, though language barriers and uncertainty and fear about the change were mentioned as reasons for not taking international jobs. The qualitative data did not support the quantitative results for H5. Employees made no mention of their company's international focus. Few mentioned HR policies, consistent with the lack of quantitative support for H6.

The results of matched *t*-tests when the respondents moved from being students to employees showed few differences in why they would take international jobs (Table 6). However, employees reported less frequently than when they were students that they would not take international jobs because of social loss (miss family and friends, lose relationship/ partner) and because of cultural differences (cultural differences and shock, home country liking and good jobs, language barriers). When employees more than when students, they said they would not take international jobs because of country undesirability and standards of living, and career problems (not benefit career development, poor pay).

DISCUSSION

This study extends understanding of the person and environment factors related to young employees' receptivity to international careers. First, those receptive when students to international careers (the highest predictor) and receptive when employees to relocating domestically for jobs, as found (Brett & Stroh, 1995), are most receptive when employees to international careers. Some respondents appear to be "willing movers".

Second, for this sample and measures, some support arises for Lent et al's. (1994, 2000) social cognitive career theory. The environment, in terms of the perceived barriers of missing family and friends and opportunities of working in organizations with an international focus, is more related to interest in international careers than are individuals' attitudes, especially their self-efficacy for international work. Not in support of social cognitive career theory, the dual aspects of personal agency of self-efficacy and outcome expectancies are not both related to receptivity to international careers (Betz, 2000; Lent et al., 1994, 2000), but only employees' outcome expectancies. The results also do not agree with the theory that support, as HR policies, is related to interest in international work, nor that personal agency and the environment interact to explain receptivity. Destination may make a difference to the explanation by self-capabilities. When employees prefer country ease for work and when students have higher than lower self-efficacy, they report less receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar countries to the home country, but not culturally similar ones. The finding is consistent with self-efficacy theory that individuals avoid situations in which they do not feel capable (Bandura, 1997; Betz, 2000; Wood & Bandura, 1989), reducing their receptivity to working in dissimilar countries.

Barriers and Opportunities

Overall, for this sample, barriers and opportunities appear to be the most important aspects of the perceived environment for employees' receptivity to international careers. Missing family and friends is the greatest barrier, as suggested by the quantitative and qualitative results, and irrespective of the cultural similarity of the destination to the home country. Moreover, even for this young sample, those with partners are less receptive to international careers than those without, as found for students (Adler, 1986) and older employees (Aryee et al., 1996; Brett & Stroh, 1995). In the open-ended responses, respondents say they do not wish to be away from, or lose their partners, suggesting partners may not want to move abroad, or disrupt their careers (Harvey, 1995, 1998), reducing the employees' receptivity. Moreover, in this sample, those with higher preference for country ease and lower self-efficacy than others are receptive to international careers when they are single rather than married, suggesting that partners provide unfavorable circumstances.

This study extends understanding by being the first to show that, beyond person and family factors, working in organizations with an increasing international focus (e.g., to grow the business, deal with market changes) is related to receptivity to international careers. When a new graduate works in a company with an international focus, they appear to develop interest in international careers beyond their earlier receptivity to international careers and are more receptive to working in countries dissimilar to their home country, perhaps from need, opportunity, exposure/modeling, social norms (e.g., Ajzen, 1991), and encouragement, than if they work in a company with little international focus. However, these are cross-sectional results. The relationship may also be in the opposite direction. Graduates interested in international work should be attracted to organizations that have an international focus, consistent with the attraction-selection hypothesis in which people are differentially attracted to organizations that fit their interests (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995).

For this sample, human resource support is not related to employees' receptivity to international careers, including in culturally dissimilar countries, not supporting Aryee et al. (1996). Brett and Stroh (1995) found that HR support from managers' companies was related to their spouses' receptivity to expatriation, for whom it may have been more relevant. HR support may not be relevant to young employees. For example, they may not be making arrangements for selling or buying homes or disrupting their partners' employment (they may not have a partner), and are not disrupting their childrens' schooling. Moreover, they may not intend expatriating for their employer, but self-initiating international jobs, as found (Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, & Barry, 1997), so rendering their current employers' HR policies irrelevant. Suggesting the need for HR

support to be relevant to individuals' needs, HR support is related to receptivity to international careers for those who prefer countries easy to work in rather than not. However, the lack of significant results for HR support may also be because it is restricted in range, mostly ranging from never being offered to sometimes being offered.

Personal Agency

Outcome expectancies are related to receptivity to international careers, as found for career interests (Lent et al., 1994; Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996; Wanous et al., 1983), unlike self-capabilities. In particular, the open-ended responses suggest that, when students or employees, the respondents of this sample are receptive to international jobs to gain cultural experiences, career prospects, growth, and excitement. The major costs they imagine are missing/loss of significant others, adverse daily living, and culture shock, though less as they move from being students to employees. They are more concerned as employees than students about country undesirability and lower standard of living in particular countries and lack of benefit to their career development from international jobs.

For this sample, self-capabilities (e.g., preference for country ease) are not related to overall receptivity to international careers, but by destination, when they should be most relevant. If employees prefer countries easy for work through safety, stability, and development, they should avoid countries dissimilar to Australia (which is safe, stable, and developed), and thus be less receptive to dissimilar countries. Some respondents also specifically mention being deterred by concerns about country danger and political instability, and country undesirability and lower standards of living in particular countries.

Similarly to country ease, in this sample students lower than higher in self-efficacy for international work appear to prefer to avoid working in culturally dissimilar countries when employees, reporting lower receptivity to them. Overall, however, the results support expectations of outcomes and preference for country ease as more important attitudes for receptivity to international work than confidence about being able to handle international work and life. In open-ended responses, respondents rarely mention self-confidence, unlike their mentions of expectations of benefits and costs and concern for country danger/stability and desirability/living standards. Therefore, this study does not support the importance given to self-efficacy by social cognitive career theory for career interests in regard to international careers (Bandura, 1997; Betz, 2000; Lent et al., 1994, 2000). The lack of a direct link to receptivity to international careers may also arise because of the high (over 70%) and relatively restricted ($SDs = 14$) self-efficacy reported for international work and life. So the respondents are not likely to vary substantially in approaching versus avoiding international work except for more extreme situations such as working in culturally dissimilar countries.

Limitations, Future Research, and Practical Implications

This study has several limitations. The longitudinal sample represents a low response rate from those originally sampled, reducing generalizability. Nonrespondents may have been those not interested in international work, and the study does not include those who have already gone abroad for work, restricting the dependent variable and thus underestimating the links found. The findings may also hold for older employees, but no comparison was made with the younger employees. Moreover, the measures in this study require further validation. The high scores for self-efficacy suggest other items may have resulted in lower and more variable scores than those obtained, and thus more variation to allow approach or avoidance behaviors. The data were self-report. Lent et al. (2000) have also pointed to the importance of assessing the objective environment, although they do not consider it as influential as the perceived environment for career formulation. Moreover, inferences cannot be made about cause and effect and the direction of relationships, and common method variance may have inflated relationships. Some tests are restricted to cross-sectional data (e.g., of organizational international focus), though third variable explanations were partly controlled. Future research requires large representative samples, comparison with older employees, inclusion of objective measures, and fully longitudinal research testing bidirectional relationships.

This study has also not tested social cognitive career theory in terms of the complex mediated model proposed (e.g., Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Future research requires larger samples and structural equation

modeling to do so, and inclusion of further variables. Lent et al. (2000) proposed learning experiences as a major aspect of the distal environment that should be mediated by self-efficacy and outcome expectancy to affect career interests. Moreover, the theory of reasoned action proposes that an important environmental force on intentions is social norms (Ajzen, 1991), and these should be assessed in future research. Future research should also include prediction by traits that may be relevant to receptivity to international work such as cultural sensitivity, sense of adventure, and openness to learn.

Practical implications arise from the results of this study, which may be used both by organizations to encourage their employees to expatriate and by organizations seeking to lure young employees from other countries. First, organizations should target those who have been receptive for some time. Second, to encourage receptivity to international careers, organizations need to help employees gain the benefits they desire, those of cultural experiences, career prospects, and growth, and avoid the costs, especially social loss and adverse living conditions. In particular, organizations need to address the influence of missing family and friends. Provision of easy contact (e.g., e-mail, visits home) may help overcome feelings of loss for both young employees and their family and friends. Assistance with partners' careers (e.g., jobs, study) may enhance partners' receptivity to go, and thus employees'. Despite these social barriers, companies that provide a clear international direction for their employees with the reasons understood (e.g., necessity, growth, market changes), should encourage receptivity including to culturally dissimilar countries to home. Preferences for country ease and self-efficacy for international work should be considered when selecting employees for culturally dissimilar destinations to the home country.

Finally, the results may provide some guidance to companies wishing to stem the loss of their young employees to jobs abroad. They need to provide employees with the benefits they desire from international jobs, perhaps by building into their domestic jobs international responsibilities to be managed from home, which thus increases opportunities for cross-cultural experiences, career prospects, and growth (e.g., through short residential stints abroad, business trips), while capitalizing on their not wishing to lose/miss significant others and concerns about adverse daily living (e.g., PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2000). The results also suggest intervening with those to stay who are most receptive to working abroad: those receptive since students, and receptive as employees to domestic relocation, and for whom family and partners are not paramount.

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Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Alpha Coefficients, and Correlations between the Time 1 Predictors and Times 1 and 2 Receptivity to International Careers for the Longitudinal Sample

Variables	X	SD	Correlations													r ₁₂	t ^a	p	
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13				
Time 2																			
1. Receptivity to int. careers	4.49	1.46	(.92)																
2. Culturally similar	3.44	1.18	.52	(.90)															
3. Culturally dissimilar	2.74	1.09	.52	.70	(.92)														
Time 1																			
4. Receptivity to int. careers	4.70	1.34	.58	.28	.42	(.91)											.58	0.19	ns
5. Age	21.04	1.11	-.11	.02	.12	.09	-										.92	-	-
6. Gender	1.59	0.49	-.13	-.05	-.08	.04	-.04	-									1.00	-	-
7. Receptivity domestic	2.00	0.89	-.08	.03	-.02	-.21	-.00	-.01	-								.35	-1.04	ns
8. Foreign experience	3.26	1.01	.17	.04	.09	.28	.05	.15	.23	(.68)							.86	1.02	ns
9. Self-efficacy	72.25	14.33	.29	.26	.37	.50	.06	.01	-.16	.23	(.93)						.63	-0.63	ns
10. Outcome expectancies	48.32	10.50	.41	.38	.34	.52	-.07	.08	-.16	.17	.48	(.81)					.38	5.42	.00
11. Family attachment	3.66	1.04	-.13	.15	-.16	-.21	-.08	.04	.21	.03	-.12	-.17	(.67)				-	-	-
12. Partner	1.93	0.26	.06	.08	.00	.06	-.18	-.11	.07	.04	-.03	.01	.12	-			.74	-	-
13. Birthplace	1.03	0.22	.07	.01	-.00	.04	-.00	.04	.13	.12	-.01	-.01	.05	.03	-		1.00	-	-

Note. Int. = international. For the longitudinal sample of 213, correlations are significant at .14 for $p < .05$, at .18 for $p < .01$ and at .22 for $p < .001$. For the cross-sectional Time 1 sample of 630, all 24 or younger, correlations are significant at .08 for $p < .05$, at .11 for $p < .01$, and at .13 for $p < .001$. Alpha coefficients are in the diagonal. Dashes indicate where alpha coefficients could not be calculated. ns = nonsignificant.

^at-tests were performed on the matched sample of 213.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Alpha Coefficients for the Time 2 Predictors and Time 2 Receptivity to International Careers

Variables	X	SD	Correlations																				
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Time 2																							
1. Receptivity int. careers	4.89	1.46	(.92)																				
2. Age	23.18	1.06	-.06	-																			
3. Gender	1.63	0.48	-.13	.00	-																		
4. Receptivity domestic	2.11	1.10	-.41	.06	.13	-																	
5. Foreign experience	3.19	1.04	.21	.10	.22	.10	(.67)																
6. Int. degree	1.48	0.72	.28	.03	.17	-.16	.11	-															
7. Self-efficacy	71.95	13.92	.32	.21	-.05	-.08	.22	.12	(.94)														
8. Country ease	5.45	1.07	-.23	-.13	.31	.13	-.04	-.02	-.24	(.89)													
9. Outcome expectancies	41.56	11.98	.44	-.09	-.04	-.25	.24	.21	.22	.06	(.89)												
10. Partner	2.42	0.75	.19	-.19	-.17	-.14	.04	.04	-.05	.08	.15	-											
11. Family influence	3.77	1.46	-.52	-.05	.19	.29	-.10	-.08	-.30	.30	-.16	-.05	(.90)										
12. Number countries	22.96	42.74	.19	-.13	.03	-.05	.14	.05	.08	-.09	.09	-.06	-.07	-									
13. Org. int. focus	4.08	1.54	.32	.02	.06	.01	.23	.19	.16	.04	.26	-.02	-.01	.19	(.95)								
14. HR policies	2.42	1.02	.16	-.08	-.06	-.11	.07	.08	.14	-.06	.20	-.07	.07	.48	.47	(.98)							
15. Culturally similar	3.44	1.18	.52	.02	-.05	-.36	.08	.13	.28	-.14	.25	.09	-.40	.16	.18	.13	(.90)						
16. Culturally dissimilar	2.74	1.03	.52	.11	-.08	-.36	.16	.16	.35	-.41	.24	.05	-.43	.19	.19	.13	.70	(.92)					
17. Birthplace	1.33	0.70	.06	.05	.15	.16	.38	.08	.00	.15	.15	.12	.10	.03	.19	-.02	-.10	-.05	-				
18. Managerial level	1.75	1.25	-.01	.21	-.00	.09	.00	.00	.10	-.09	-.02	-.14	-.01	.00	.07	-.04	-.02	-.00	.01	-			
19. Sector	1.90	3.05	.04	-.07	-.10	.02	.05	-.03	.10	.04	-.15	-.01	-.02	.17	.10	-.00	.04	.00	.05	.06	-		
20. Size	1.99	0.82	.06	-.05	-.06	-.06	.03	.06	.03	-.10	-.04	-.09	-.10	.41	.24	.47	.05	.11	-.03	-.15	-.20	-	
Time 1																							
21. Receptivity int. careers	4.70	1.34	.58	.11	.03	-.23	.32	.28	.28	-.18	.33	.05	-.37	.08	.10	-.03	.28	.42	.18	.04	-.00	.00	-

Note. Correlations are significant at .14 for $p < .05$, at .18 for $p < .01$, and at .22 for $p < .001$. Dashes indicate where alpha coefficients could not be calculated. Alphas are in the diagonal. Int. = international; org. = organizational; HR = human resources.

Table 3

Regressing Time 1 (T1) and Time 2 (T2) Receptivity to International Careers (RIC) on Predictor Equations that Include the Time 1 Variables

Predictor variable	Beta coefficients			
	T2 RIC	T2 RIC	T2 RCS	T2 RCDS
Time 1 (when students)				
Receptivity	.54 ***	.44 ***	.03	.20 **
ΔR^2	.33 ***	.33 ***	.08 ***	.18 ***
Age	-.15 **	-.12 *	.05	.11
Gender	-.17 **	-.08	.02	-.02
Receptivity dom. relocation	.04	.05	.16 *	.12
Foreign experience	.02	-.04	-.13	-.11
ΔR^2	.05 **	.05 **	.02	.02
Self-efficacy	-.04	-.04	.08	.17 *
ΔR^2	.00	-.01	.02 *	.04 **
Outcome expectancies	.15 *	.08	.25 ***	.08
ΔR^2	.01 *	.01 *	.06 ***	.01
Family attachment	-.01	.03	-.04	-.02
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.00
Time 2 (when employees)				
Partner		.11 *	.07	.05
Family influence		-.34 ***	-.32 ***	-.30 ***
ΔR^2		.10 ***	.09 ***	.08 ***
Number countries		.05	.06	.10
Org. international focus		.25 ***	.13	.14 *
HR policies		.06	.07	.03
ΔR^2		.08 ***	.04 *	.04 **
R^2	.40 ***	.57 ***	.30 ***	.32 ***

Note. *df* in order of the columns are 8,204; 13,199; 13,199; and 13,199. RIC = receptivity to international careers; RCS = receptivity to working in culturally similar countries; RCDS = receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar countries; org. = organizational; dom. = domestic; HR = human resources.

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

Table 4

Regressing Time 2 Receptivity to International Careers on Time 2 Variables

Predictor variable	Receptivity to international careers						RCS	RCDS
	1	2	3	4	5	6		
Time 1								
Receptivity	.58 ***	.46 ***	.42 ***	.38 ***	.31 ***	.32 ***	.06	.18 ***
Time 2								
Step 2								
Age		-.11 *	-.14 **	-.12 *	-.10	-.08	.02	.06
Gender		.16 **	.13 *	-.10	-.05	-.05	.05	.08
Receptivity dom. reloc.		-.27 ***	-.26 ***	-.22 ***	-.16 **	-.17 ***	-.23 ***	-.22 ***
Foreign experience		.12 *	.09	.05	.04	-.01	-.05	-.01
Education major		.13 *	.12 *	.10	.10	.07	-.01	-.02
Step 3								
Self-efficacy			.16 **	.13 *	.09	.06	.13	.12
Prefer country ease			-.05	-.09	-.06	-.07	-.01	-.30 ***
Step 4								
Outcome expectancies				.19 ***	.18 ***	.14 **	.08	.05
Step 5								
Partner					.09	.11 *	.06	.06
Family influence					-.26 ***	-.26 ***	-.26 ***	-.17 **
Step 6								
Number countries						.08	.10	.10
Org. international focus						.23 ***	.12	.15 *
HR policies						-.03	.00	-.03
	ΔR^2	.33 ***	.13 ***	.03 **	.03 ***	.06 ***	.05 ***	-
	R^2	.33 ***	.46 ***	.49 ***	.51 ***	.57 ***	.62 ***	.30 ***

Note. Dom. reloc. = domestic relocation; org. = organizational; HR = human resources; RCS = receptivity to working in culturally similar countries; RCDS = receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar countries. *df* for each step are respectively 1,211; 6,206; 8,204; 9,203; 11,201; 14,198; 14,198; 14,198.

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

Table 5

~~Addition of the Interaction Cross-Products Between Time 2 Person and Environment Variables to Predict Time 2 Receptivity to the Six-Step Equation~~

Steps	RIC		RCS		RCDS	
	ΔR^2	B	ΔR^2	B	ΔR^2	B
Main effects						
Steps 1 to 6	.62 ***		.30 ***		.45 ***	
Interactions						
Step 7	.02		.04		.00	
SE X no. countries		-.07		.07		-.04
SE X int. focus		.01		-.12		-.02
SE X HR policies		.03		-.03		.00
SE X partner		-.06		-.14 *		-.03
SE X family influence		-.12 **		-.03		-.02
Step 7	.01		.04		.01	
OE X no. countries		-.02		-.12		-.10
OE X int. focus		-.02		-.17 *		-.09
OE X HR policies		.07		.03		.05
OE X partner		-.02		.06		.06
OE X family influence		.02		.09		-.03
Step 7	.01		.04 *		.02	
CE X no. of countries		-.01		-.02		-.03
CE X int. focus		-.03		-.12		-.11
CE X HR policies		.13 *		.19 *		.11
CE X partner		.11 *		.21 **		.11
CE X family influence		.02		-.03		.08

~~Note.~~ df steps 1-6 = 14,198; df step 7 = 4,193. RIC = receptivity to international careers; RCS = receptivity to working in culturally similar countries; RCDS = receptivity to working in culturally dissimilar countries; SE = self-efficacy; OE = outcome expectancies; CE = preference for country ease; no. countries = number of countries; int. focus = international focus; HR = human resources.

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

Table 6

Reasons Coded from Open-Ended Data on Why Respondents Would or Would Not Take an International Job at Time 1 (T1) and Time 2 (T2)

Reason for taking (n = 182)	t	T1 %	T2 %	Reason for not taking (n = 180)	t	T1 %	T2 %
New cultural experiences	1.02	67	63	Miss family and friends	2.04 *	66	57
Career development	1.30	44	37	Danger and political instability	0.90	31	27
Pay	1.46	41	35	Relationship/partner loss	3.29 ***	25	22
Job opportunities & content	1.24	39	31	Country undesirability/living standard	-2.24 *	24	33
Travel opportunity	-1.08	31	36	Loneliness	0.58	21	18
Exciting, challenge	1.29	24	19	Cultural differences & shock	2.98 *	20	10
Personal growth	0.14	23	22	Home country liking & jobs	4.68 ***	16	3
Meet new and different people	3.29 ***	21	10	Financial costs & loss	1.49	15	10
Skill use and development	-1.87	16	23	Uncertainty/fear about change	0.67	14	12
Country/location fit	2.45 *	14	7	Language barriers	2.22 *	14	7
Change	0.17	13	12	Missing job opportunities at home	4.07 ***	10	1
Language skill use & enhancement	2.39 *	10	4	Lifecycle issues/family	0.60	8	6
Expatriation policies	1.50	7	3	Current job satisfaction	2.36 *	8	3
Desire to live and/or work overseas	-3.29 ***	1	8	Duration of assignment	1.21	7	4
				Poor expatriation policies	-0.47	6	7
				Not benefit career development	-2.54 *	5	12
				Poor pay	-4.48 ***	1	12
				Disruption to partner's career	-2.76 ***	1	6

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

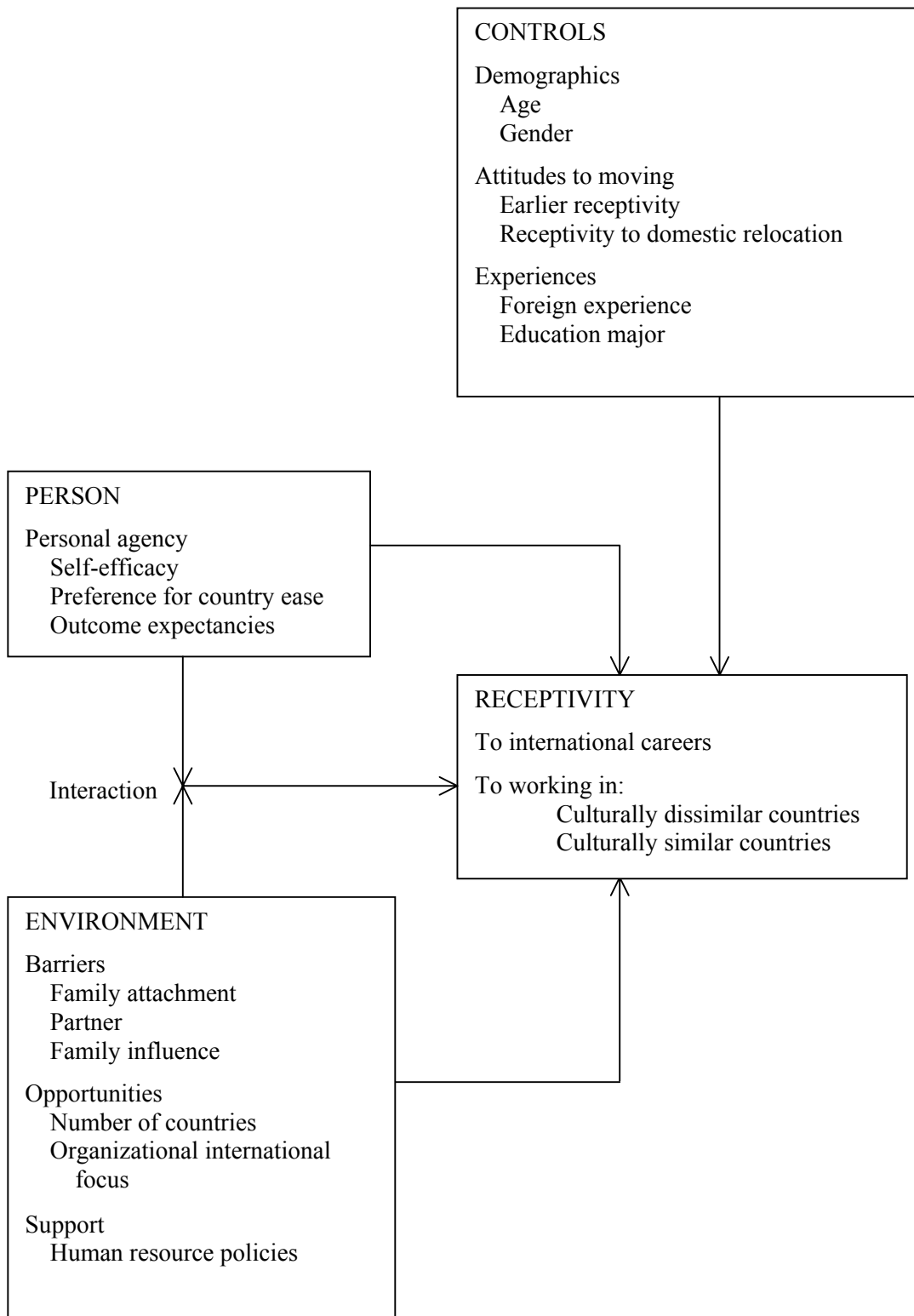


Figure 1. Factors proposed to be related to receptivity to international careers from a social cognitive career theory approach.