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Expatriate career intentions: Links to career adaptability and cultural intelligence

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Expatriate career intentions: Links to career adaptability and cultural intelligence

ABSTRACT
Given the increasing rate of global mobility, it is important to have a greater understanding of the factors that influence intentions for expatriate careers. Guided by Career Construction Theory and Intelligence Theory, this study takes the view that self-initiated expatriation as a form of global mobility is an adaptive vocational behavior driven by an individual’s self-regulatory capacity to thrive in another country and work to build one’s career. This study posits that individuals who want to work overseas rely mainly on their adaptive resources to develop their careers. Additionally, career adaptability, as a self-regulatory competency, is posited to be reinforced by an individual’s intercultural capability (i.e., cultural intelligence). To test these assertions, data were collected in a sample of university students (n=514) in the Philippines, a country reported to have high rates of overseas migration for economic and career-related reasons. Career adaptability was found to be positively and significantly related to overseas career intentions. In addition, cultural intelligence was found to moderate the said relationship. These results offer the groundwork for understanding the earlier stages of expatriate careers and, in particular, how the intention to have a career in another country is developed and influenced by the interaction between the self-regulatory characteristics and intercultural capability of individuals.

Keywords:
Expatriate career intentions, Career adaptability, Cultural intelligence, Philippines
1. Introduction

Globalization makes people increasingly mobile (Collings, 2014; Mayrhofer & Reiche, 2014). People nowadays move across geographical and cultural boundaries to take up work and career opportunities (Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri, 2007; Iredale, 2001). For example, many skilled professionals from the so-called “third world countries” go to “first world countries” to chase their dreams of having stable careers (Cottier & Sieber-Gasser, 2015; Castles & Miller, 2010; Carr, Inkson & Thorn, 2005). This form of global mobility, also known as self-initiated expatriation, is characterized by moving to another country without being sent by a company or an employer (Doherty, Richardson & Thorn, 2013; Cerdin & Le Pargneux, 2010). Unlike traditional expatriation wherein organizations initiate the move to another country, self-initiated expatriation involves moving to a country of one’s choice to seek a job and to establish a more stable career (Collings, Doherty, Luethy & Osborn, 2011; Jokinen, Brewster & Suutari, 2008). Many self-initiated expatriates relocate and move to developed countries such as Australia, New Zealand, USA, Canada, Dubai and the UK (Doherty, 2013; Inkson & Myers, 2003).

1.1 Rationale for the study

One country that has high rates of self-initiated expatriation is the Philippines. A country considered to be “third world”, in 2014 the Philippines had approximately 2.3 million people who migrated to “first world countries” such as Canada, United Arab Emirates and Singapore, among others, to work (Philippine Overseas Employment Administration [POEA], 2015). Many of these self-initiated expatriates were new graduates or had had a few years of work experience in the Philippines. They cited economic and career-related reasons as influential in their decision to relocate and find careers in another country. However, it is unclear whether factors other than economic and career-related reasons influenced their
decisions. In particular, it is unknown whether they had individual-level characteristics that regulated or exacerbated their decision to move to another country to find better career opportunities. Furthermore, it is not clear whether they had been influenced by their adaptive resources or by their intercultural skills and capabilities to pursue overseas careers. These seeming gaps in the literature warrant addressing and can contribute significantly to the growing literature on career development of expatriates (Schulteiss & Davis, 2015; Doherty, Richardson & Thorn, 2013).

1.2 Aims of the study

This study aims to shed light on the early stages of expatriate careers, in particular, the formation of the intention to have a career abroad. As many more people become globally mobile in search of better careers in another country, it is important to have an in-depth understanding of the individual-level factors that contribute to the formation of such intentions to seek overseas careers. To achieve this main goal, a study has been conducted involving university students in the Philippines. It is believed that the intention to seek an overseas career becomes salient at this stage (i.e., university years) following Lee, Porfeli and Hirschi’s (2016) argument that building and establishing career is a critical vocational process that starts from childhood and becomes more important at the young adult stage. Such view suggests that careful examinations of these developmental stages are relevant in fully understanding the career choices of individuals. Hence, an investigation involving university students has been carried out to find the factors that contribute to the formation and development of the intention to have an expatriate career.

First, this study aims to examine career adaptability, as a self-regulatory competency, and the underlying mechanisms through which it facilitates an individual’s intention to build an expatriate career. To date, only one study has been found demonstrating personality traits,
in particular extraversion and openness to experience, to be influential in developing intentions for expatriate careers (Presbitero, in press). The current study extends prior work by emphasizing the role of career adaptability. Hirschi, Herrmann and Keller (2015) assert that career adaptability is very important, not only for working professionals but also for university students. Hence, an investigation of the relationship between career adaptability and intention for expatriate careers among university students is timely and relevant. Second, this study aims to establish the interaction effects between career adaptability (as a self-regulatory resource) and cultural intelligence (as an intercultural capability) in bringing about higher levels of intentions to seek global careers among university students. Such an investigation is novel since it highlights the importance of both regulatory resource and intercultural capability in forming expatriate careers. Third and last, this study aims to offer practical insights to assist career counsellors in universities to focus not only on highlighting the extrinsic motivator (i.e., economic) but also on the role of intrinsic assets in sustaining interest in overseas careers. Doing so would ensure that university students are well-prepared and have the capacities and resources needed to successfully venture into expatriate careers.

1.3 Theoretical assumptions

1.3.1 Expatriate career intentions and career adaptability

Expatriate career intentions have been operationalized as the wanting and the motivation to have a career in another country (Presbitero, in press). Traditionally, careers have been confined, in terms of an individual’s relationship to his or her employing organization, to his or her home country (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). However, globalization has changed the way careers are conceived and conceptualized. Many individuals, for example, have ventured into global careers (Baruch et al., 2013) where the focus is to work beyond the boundaries of one’s home country while transcending different cultures and
geographic locations. Prior research works have examined the roles of gender and age in the expatriation intention. For example, Tharenou (2008) found that men are more willing to venture into expatriation than women due to family concerns of the latter. Selmer and Lauring (2010) also highlighted the role of age as a factor influencing intention for expatriation particularly young age group indicating higher intentions. However, other than these inherent demographic variables, what remains unclear is how other individual-level characteristics contribute to the formation of intentions to engage and venture into expatriate careers. In particular, how do university students form such an intention for an expatriate career in the early stages of their career development?

This study focuses on career adaptability as one of the potential individual-level characteristics that influence the formation of the intention to have an overseas career among university students. Career adaptability refers to an “individual’s resources for coping with current and anticipated tasks, transitions and traumas in their occupational roles that, to some degree large or small, alter their social integration” (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012, p. 662). Career adaptability is viewed as the self-regulatory strengths that individuals possess and utilize in response to present or future vocational tasks (Savickas, 2002). Anchored in Career Construction Theory (CCT) (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), career adaptability has four dimensions – concern, confidence, control, and curiosity. Concern refers to an individual’s ability to look ahead and prepare for a vocational future; confidence refers to an individual’s feelings of efficacy in overcoming possible occupational constraints; control refers to the level of responsibility and conscientiousness an individual possesses when shaping his or her vocational future. Lastly, curiosity refers to an individual’s examination of his or her environment, including future vocational opportunities.

Savickas (2013) asserts that the abovementioned dimensions of career adaptability are self-regulatory strengths that can be tapped and used in response to the ever-changing nature
of careers. Thus, it can be argued that high levels of career adaptability would prompt or drive an individual, in particular a university student, to want an expatriate career despite the challenges associated with relocating to another country. For example, a university student who has a high level of concern would be interested and would look ahead to the possibility of a rewarding vocational future even if it entails relocating to another country. Similarly, a university student who has a high level of confidence would have the self-efficacy to anticipate whatever occupational constraints may come his or her way, making his or her want to pursue an overseas career. Also, a university student who has high levels of control would be conscientious and responsible in shaping his or her future, even if it entails moving to another country that is unknown to them. Lastly, a university student who has a high level of curiosity is more likely to seek and carefully examine future vocational opportunities in another country. These arguments lead to positing that career adaptability, as a self-regulatory mechanism, relates positively and significantly to a university student’s intention to have an expatriate career, such that the higher the career adaptability of a university student, the higher the chances he or she would indicate their intention to seek an expatriate career. These arguments are also corollary to recent findings showing the relationship between career adaptability and intentions for entrepreneurial activities (McKenna, Zacher, Ardabili & Mohebbi, 2016; Tolentino et al., 2014).

1.3.2 Cultural intelligence as a moderator

The positive and significant relationship between career adaptability and the intention to pursue an expatriate career among university students is further argued to be enhanced by their level of cultural intelligence. Cultural intelligence, or CQ, has been defined as the capability of an individual to function effectively in situations characterized by cultural diversity (Earley & Ang, 2003). CQ involves culturally-relevant capabilities which have been
found to be distinct from broad individual differences such as personality (Ang et al., 2007). CQ is also considered to be distinct from general cognitive ability (Schmidt & Hunter, 2004). General cognitive ability focuses on the ability to learn and possess knowledge needed to perform in different social contexts which may not have cultural dimensions. CQ is distinct in the sense that the focus of CQ is on social interactions and contacts that have intercultural dimensions (Earley & Ang, 2003; Ang, Van Dyne & Koh, 2006; Ng & Earley, 2006). CQ has been found to relate to outcomes such as task performance among expatriates (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Kim, Kirkman & Chen, 2008) and performance effectiveness in intercultural contexts (Presbitero, 2016a; Presbitero, 2016b).

The moderating role of cultural intelligence that is asserted in this study is drawn from Intelligence theory (Sternberg & Detterman, 1986; Sternberg, 1999) which highlights that intelligence is an enabler for individuals to effectively learn and, consequently, adapt to the changing needs and demands of their environment. Intelligence is comprised of higher-order capabilities such as abstract reasoning, mental representation, problem-solving and decision-making (Sternberg, 1999). Such sets of capabilities enable individuals to adjust easily and exhibit high levels of effectiveness despite the challenges of the new environment. CQ is a form of intelligence that enables an individual to adjust easily and exhibit high levels of effectiveness. Ng, Van Dyne and Ang (2012) assert that individuals who possess high levels of CQ are more capable of adjusting and meeting the demands of a new cultural environment. The ability to adjust to a new cultural environment is brought about by the cognitive, metacognitive, and behavioral functions of CQ (Earley & Ang, 2003). Recently, Presbitero (2016c) found that CQ influences sociocultural and psychological adaptation among international university students. When a university student has high levels of CQ, he or she is likely to be more knowledgeable and skilful in another cultural environment. Such knowledge and skill can interact with his or her self-regulatory competency, such as career
adaptability, making him or her more interested in an expatriate career. In other words, the interaction between career adaptability and CQ can influence a university student’s intention to venture into an expatriate career, such that the higher the CQ, the higher the likelihood that he or she would indicate a greater liking and intention to pursue an expatriate career.

1.4 Hypotheses
Given the abovementioned theoretical assumptions, we offer the following hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 1.** Career adaptability would be positively and significantly related to intention to seek an expatriate career.

**Hypothesis 2.** Cultural intelligence would moderate the relationship between career adaptability and the intention for an expatriate career, such that the higher the CQ, the higher the chances of indicating intentions for an expatriate career.

1.5 Conceptual framework
Figure 1 below illustrates the conceptual framework of this study. The relationship between career adaptability and intention for expatriate careers is initially investigated. Then, this is followed by testing the moderating influence of CQ in the relationship between career adaptability and intention for expatriate careers.

2. Method
2.1 Research context
To test the abovementioned hypotheses, this study was conducted in the Philippines. The Philippines was considered to be a suitable context for investigation given the following
The Philippines reported an unemployment rate of 6.5% and an under-employment rate of 21% in July 2015 (https://psa.gov.ph/statistics/survey/labor-force). With economic uncertainties looming in the country, many Filipinos have resorted to relocating overseas to work and develop their careers. In 2014, the number of Filipinos who went overseas to work reached 2.3 million (POEA, 2015). This figure showed an increase of 59,000 from the data reported in 2013. This data included new university graduates who could not find jobs in the Philippines and, hence, had to relocate to work and explore career opportunities in another country.

2.2 Participants

A total of 514 students in a private university based in Manila, the Philippines participated in the study. Seventy percent (70%) were females and 30% were males. In terms of age, the mean was 19.70. The participants were sampled from a population of second year students who were enrolled in the liberal and communication arts program of the university. There were 825 students enrolled in the program at the time of data collection, however, only 514 voluntarily participated in the study (62% response rate).

2.3 Procedures

2.3.1 Survey development and pilot testing

A survey instrument was initially developed and pilot tested with a small sample of university students (n=15). This was to allow the researchers to ensure that the questions, items and language of the survey were appropriate and clear to the target respondents. After the pilot testing, it was demonstrated that the survey was generally clear and easily understood by the university students in the Philippines. This outcome is not surprising given that English is the medium of instruction used in universities in the Philippines, not to
mention the fact that the research was undertaken in one of the top universities in the Philippines, based in the capital city, Manila, where English is commonly used (Bernardo, 2004). This is evidenced further by recent research conducted in universities in the Philippines using English as the primary language for surveys (e.g., Garcia et al., 2015; Tolentino et al., 2013).

2.3.2 Survey administration

The survey was administered using a pen and paper approach. The survey, which was administered by one of the researchers, was first given ethics approval by the university. The ethics approval required de-identification of the personal information of respondents, as well as voluntary participation in the study. Hence, in the introductory section of the survey, these points were mentioned together with the overall aims and objectives of the study. Moreover, it was indicated that non-participation in the survey would not in any way influence their standing vis-à-vis their marks in class. Also, the participants were asked to sign the informed consent section to indicate their voluntary participation in the study.

The researcher who conducted the survey visited a number of classes to personally invite the students to take part in the study. Forty-five minutes were given to the researcher to visit those classes: 20 minutes were spent to explain the study, invite participants and ask interested students to read and sign the informed consent; and 25 minutes to complete the survey items presented below. When the surveys were completed, the surveys were returned to the researcher for tabulation and analysis.

2.3 Measures

The response format for all items used a 5-point Likert scale (where 1 = strongly disagree, and 5 = strongly agree.)

2.3.1 Career adaptability
The CAAS-International form contains 24 items that combine to yield a total score indicating career adaptability (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The 24 items are divided equally into four sub-scales that measure the adaptability resources of concern, confidence, control and curiosity. Standardization of this scale was not done since previous studies have already utilized this scale in the context of university students in the Philippines (e.g., Garcia et al., 2015; Tolentino et al., 2013) demonstrating internal reliabilities ranging from .87 to .97. The scale also demonstrated adequate construct validity when correlated with outcome variables (r=.43, p<.001; Tolentino et al., 2013) Sample items included: “Looking for opportunities to grow as a person”, “Thinking about what my future will be like” and “Making decisions for myself”. In the present study, the Cronbach’s alpha was .94.

2.3.2 Cultural intelligence

Cultural intelligence was measured using nine items adapted from Ang and Van Dyne (2008). This measure has been used in prior research (i.e., Fischer, 2011) demonstrating internal reliability of .80. The scale also demonstrated adequate construct validity when correlated with another individual-level variable particularly open-mindedness (r=.57, p<.01; Fischer, 2011). Sample items included: “I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures”, “I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me” and “I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds”. The Cronbach’s alpha in the present study was .89.

2.3.3 Intention for expatriate careers

Intention for expatriate careers was measured using a two-item scale modified from Lee, Wong, Foo and Leung (2011). This measure has been used in prior research to indicate intention for various career pursuits such as entrepreneurial intentions demonstrating internal reliabilities ranging from .72 to .85 (e.g., Tolentino et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2011) and convergent validity with another established measure (r=.79, p<.01; Kolvereid, 1996). Items included, “I have always wanted to relocate and work overseas”, and, “If I have the
opportunity, I would work and build my career in another country”. The Cronbach’s alpha in the present study was .86.

2.3.4 Control variables

Age and gender were controlled consistent with the findings that these variables are likely to influence the intention to seek overseas careers (e.g., Selmer & Lauring, 2010, 2012).

3. Results

3.1 Common method bias and effect size

Two major tests were conducted to determine the presence of common method bias: Harman’s single-factor test (Harman, 1976; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Lee, 2003), and the partial correlation technique using a marker variable (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Harman’s single-factor test explains that common method bias is present in the data set when a single factor emerges, or one factor accounts for more than fifty percent of the variance of the items in the factor analysis (i.e., unrotated matrix). Results of the Harman’s single-factor test demonstrated the absence of a single factor, and that no factor accounted for more than fifty percent of the variance. These findings imply that common method bias was not an issue in the current data set. In terms of the partial correlation technique (Lindell & Whitney, 2001), a correlation matrix was developed to assess the zero-order correlation coefficients of the constructs in the study and the marker variable. The results showed that the marker variable had correlation coefficients close to zero relative to other variables. These findings further validate the fact that common method bias was not an issue in the data set used in the study. Furthermore, results show that effect size (i.e., minimum of \( r = .2 \)) was not an issue following Ferguson’s (2009) recommendations for correlational designs. A Rasch analysis was also conducted, following the procedures prescribed by Hibbard et al. (2005). Results indicated that males yielded .82 fit statistics, while females yielded .99 fit statistics. Results that ranged
between .75 to 1.2, according to Linacre (2002), demonstrate the acceptable fit of items used in the study.

3.2 Validity of measures

The a priori loadings of all items are above the acceptable minimum threshold of 0.50 and significant at p<0.05 demonstrating convergent validity of the study constructs. Moreover, results show discriminant validity of the constructs as indicated by the low cross-loadings of items as well as the average variance extracted (AVE) ranging from 0.75 to 0.80. The values of Cronbach’s alphas and Dillon-Goldstein ρ values are also above the minimum acceptable value of 0.70 further supporting the homogeneity, uni-dimensionality and composite reliability of the items used in the study.

3.3 Confirmatory factor analyses

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) were conducted using AMOS IBM version 22 (http://www-03.ibm.com/software/products/en/spss-amos) to further test the hypothesized 3-factor model. The following indices were used to assess model fit: the Chi-square test, the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). A 3-factor model was tested initially with CAAS, CQ and intention for expatriate careers each loading on a single factor. The results showed a good fit between the data and the model: $x^2/df(145) = 323$; CFI = 0.94; TLI = .94; RMSEA = .67; and SRMR = .068. Next, a 2-factor model was tested, where CAAS and CQ were combined and intention for expatriate careers was treated as a single factor. The results yielded a relatively poor fit: $x^2/df(201) = 1528$; CFI = 0.86; TLI = .87; RMSEA = .80; and SRMR = .077. Lastly, a 1-factor model was tested, where all the factors were combined into one single factor. These results yielded the
worst fit: \( x^2/df(232) = 3115; \) CFI = 0.66; TLI = .70; RMSEA = .83; and SRMR = .91. Results are presented in Table 1.

\[
\text{Insert Table 1 here}
\]

3.3 Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations

Table 2 shows the means, standard deviations and correlations among the study variables. The Cronbach’s alphas demonstrate high reliabilities and that the intercorrelations are statistically significant.

\[
\text{Insert Table 2 here}
\]

3.5 Hypotheses tests

Moderated multiple regression analyses were then performed with SPSS version 22 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, 2016) to test the hypotheses using the procedures recommended by Aiken and West (1991). In the first step, the demographics (gender and age) were entered to predict intention for expatriate careers. In Step 2, the main predictor (CAAS) was entered to predict intention for expatriate careers. In Step 3, CQ was entered to predict intention for expatriate careers. In Step 4, a multiplicative, centered term was computed (CAAS x CQ) to test the interaction effects on intention for expatriate careers. Results show that CAAS has a significant and positive influence on intention for expatriate careers (\( \beta = .19, p < .05 \)), showing support for Hypothesis 1. In addition, results show that the interaction term has a significant influence on intention for expatriate careers (\( \beta = .27, p < .05 \)), demonstrating support for Hypothesis 2. See Table 3 for full results.

\[
\text{Insert Table 3 here}
\]
The conventional approach of plotting simple slopes, as suggested by Aiken and West (1991), was also used to better interpret the interactive effects at one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderator. The slope generated indicates that CQ moderates the relationship between CAAS and intention for expatriate careers, such that the relationship is stronger when CQ is higher, and weaker when CQ is low. Results are shown in Figure 2.

4. Discussion

4.1 Contribution

Previous research works have examined the role of inherent demographic variables such as age and gender in determining expatriation intention (e.g., Tharenou, 2008; Selmer & Lauring, 2010). The current study contributes to the literature by investigating other individual-level factors that influence intention for expatriate careers particularly focusing on the early stages of career development (i.e., young adulthood stage). As Lee, Porfeli and Hirschi (2016) have asserted, the vocational process starts at childhood and becomes more salient at the young adult stage. Hence, an investigation of university students provided an avenue to examine the formation of intention for expatriate careers. The context in which this study was carried out (i.e., the Philippines) was suitable and appropriate given that the country has experienced high levels of self-initiated expatriation in recent years.

This study demonstrates that career adaptability as a self-regulatory competency is positively and significantly related to the intention to pursue an expatriate career among
university students. This finding contributes to the scant literature showing that while economic factors contribute to one’s decision to relocate and move overseas, personal attributes and characteristics also contribute to the formation of an intention to build an expatriate career. Drawing from Career Construction Theory (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), the current study demonstrates that career concern prompts individuals, particularly university students, to venture into expatriate careers. Moreover, this study points out that career curiosity (i.e., being inquisitive about what opportunities are available overseas) can also contribute to the formation of the intention to work overseas. Similarly, career control (i.e., taking responsibility for managing one’s career) and career confidence (i.e., having the self-efficacy to perform tasks in an unfamiliar career context) also relate to the formation of such intentions. These findings, which concur with recent studies relating career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions (e.g., McKenna, Zacher, Ardabili & Mohebbi, 2016; Tolentino et al., 2014), provide new insights into the influence of career adaptability in determining the likelihood that a young adult would venture into expatriate careers.

This study further demonstrates that while career adaptability can influence the formation of intention for expatriate careers, CQ, or the intercultural capability to function effectively in a new cultural environment (Earley & Ang, 2003), can also enhance the likelihood of wanting to venture into an expatriate career. Previous studies have focused mainly on CQ and its direct impact on effectiveness and performance of expatriates (Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Kim, Kirkman & Chen, 2008). The current study extends the nomological network of CQ by looking into the role of CQ as a moderator. Drawing from the Intelligence Theory (Sternberg & Detterman, 1986; Sternberg, 1999) which emphasizes the role of intelligence in an individual’s learning and adjustment, this study reveals that CQ can interact with career adaptability in bringing about higher levels of intention for expatriate careers. Such a finding is novel since there has been no existing study that investigates the interactive
effect between career adaptability as a self-regulatory mechanism and CQ as an intercultural capability. Such an investigation deepens our understanding that the intention to pursue an expatriate career is not only motivated by demographic variables or economic factors but also by the interaction between individual-level dispositions and attributes particularly career adaptability and CQ.

Aside from the theoretical contributions, this study also offers practical insights for career and vocational counsellors. In particular, there is a need to go beyond examining the extrinsic motivations (i.e., economic rewards) of an overseas career and to focus as well on intrinsic motivations. Doing so would ensure that, on graduation, university students would stay motivated and interested in expatriates careers despite the many associated challenges and hurdles. Moreover, this study also highlights the importance of developing career adaptability and CQ at universities. This requires providing avenues for university students to understand their personal qualities in relation to their capability to adapt in expatriate careers, as well as their capability to adapt to new cultural environments. The provision of training programs or counselling sessions in universities, particularly in “third world” countries, is needed. Such programs could help university students clarify why they want to venture into expatriate careers, and aid them with the necessary adaptive resources and intercultural skills to be successful in their expatriate careers.

4.2 Limitations and directions for future research

While this study has offered significant contributions both to the literature and to practice, this study is not without limitations. First, this study focused on the intention to have an expatriate career. While results are encouraging, future studies could look into the implementation intention, as well as the actual implementation and actualization of venturing into overseas careers. Doing so would bridge the “intention-implementation” gap concerns
present in this study. Second, the research model presented and tested in this study is fairly simple (with only one predictor of intention for expatriate careers). Future studies could examine other factors such as family-related variables (i.e., whether immediate members of the family have overseas careers), or types of jobs (i.e., whether one would be engaged in an in-demand job overseas). Future studies could also examine other demographic variables such as university majors, social class or travel experiences abroad. Examining these factors could provide greater understanding of other variables that contribute to the formation of intentions for expatriate careers. Third, this study has also examined CQ as a moderator influencing intention for expatriate careers. Future research can extend the nomological network of CQ by positioning it as a mediator. Similarly, career adaptability can also be positioned as a moderator or a mediator extending the construct’s nomological network. Finally, this study utilized data only from university students. Further studies could include career counsellors and other vocational professionals and the career interventions they are undertaking to help students who have high levels of intentions to take up expatriate careers. Doing so would lead to a better understanding of how universities respond to the continuing growth in the number of students wanting to venture into expatriate careers.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study adds to our understanding of expatriate careers, namely, that they are not mainly driven by economic and financial factors. Other individual-level factors such as career adaptability and cultural intelligence also contribute to the formation of the intention to have an expatriate overseas career, particularly among university students in a third-world country such as the Philippines. The findings in this study offer theoretical insights that can guide researchers interested on exploring expatriate careers. Moreover, the findings also provide practical insights that can guide career counsellors and those young
adults who are interested and drawn to an expatriate career. However, further studies are needed to fully understand the dynamics and processes involved in expatriate careers.

References


Statistical Package for Social Sciences (2016). *SPSS version 22*. IBM.


Figure 1

The relationship between career adaptability, cultural intelligence and intention for expatriate careers
Table 1
Confirmatory factor analyses results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>$x^2/df$</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3-factor model</td>
<td>145(323)</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-factor model</td>
<td>201(1528)</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-factor model</td>
<td>232(3012)</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: 3-factor model (1=Career adaptability, 2=CQ, 3=Intention for expatriate career); 2-factor model (1=Career adaptability and CQ, 2=Intention for expatriate career); 1-factor model (1=all factors combined)
Table 2
Descriptive statistics, reliabilities and correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Career adaptability</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>(.94)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Cultural intelligence</td>
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<td>0.79</td>
<td>.58*</td>
<td>(.89)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Intention for expatriate career</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>.58*</td>
<td>(.86)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=514; Reliabilities are shown along the diagonal in parentheses.
*Significant at p < 0.05; **Significant at p < 0.01 level
Table 3

Moderated multiple regression analysis results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Intention for expatriate career ($\beta$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career adaptability</td>
<td>.19*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural intelligence</td>
<td>.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career adaptability x CQ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at $p < 0.05$
Figure 2

The moderating effect of cultural intelligence on the relationship between career adaptability and intention for expatriate career
Highlights:

- Several factors influence the intention for expatriate careers.
- Career adaptability mainly influences intention for expatriate careers.
- Career adaptability is strengthened by cultural intelligence.