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Transnational entrepreneurs, worldchanging entrepreneurs, and ambassadors: a typology of the new breed of expatriates

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Abstract As barriers to globalization have steadily diminished, the number of entrepreneurial and noncommercial expatriates have grown from a trickle to a torrent. Much of what we know about expatriatism may not apply to this new breed of expatriates. A four-quadrant typology of expatriates draws attention to important differences in expatriate types. I make use of the notions of comparative fit and normative fit from self-categorization theory to validate the typology. Examining the experiences of 160 expatriates demonstrates that the proposed typology represents real differences and is invoked by expatriates in the field. Scholars may apply this typology to explain inconsistent findings in extant studies and as a guide for the development of new research questions.

Keywords Typology · Expatriate · Transnational entrepreneur · Non-profit · Self-categorization theory

Introduction

As organizations globalize their operations at steadily increasing rates, the number and extent of businesspeople crossing international borders continues to grow. These individuals, the expatriates, are vitally important to internationalization and to the success of their organizations (Connelly et al. 2007). As such, scholars have devoted a great deal of attention to how organizations select, train, evaluate, care for, repatriate, and learn from expatriates. This line of research has provided both the scholarly and managerial communities with important insights about managing expatriates and expatriate assignments. However, recent years have seen a marked change in the makeup of the broad category of individuals we consider to be

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"expatriates." Scholars have focused mainly on expatriatism as a result of bluechip expansion, but other forms of expatriatism may yield different life and work experiences, unique managerial concerns, and new research questions. In particular, as the two fields of entrepreneurship and expatriatism begin to overlap, it is changing the nature of what we understand an expatriate to be and how we address the phenomenon of expatriatism.

In the early years of expatriate research, organizations grew until they "achieved multinational proportions" (Perlmutter and Heenan 1974), at which point expatriates became an important part of the organizational makeup. As communication, transportation, human resource, and logistical barriers to multinationalism steadily became lower, firms were able to internationalize earlier in their corporate lifecycle (Vernon 1966). In fact, many firms are international from inception, or "born global" (Oviatt and McDougall 2005). This trend toward earlier internationalization has culminated with the emergence of "transnational entrepreneurs" that establish firms in foreign countries (Portes et al. 2002; Yeung 2002). A similar trend has occurred concurrently in the realm of nonprofit organizations (Thompson 2002), as evidenced by record numbers of small organizations that either responded to or were established for Tsunami relief (Chang 2005). These developments have changed the complexion of the expatriate workforce. The Global Relocation Trends Survey (2006) confirms the expatriate population is growing and expatriates today are younger, more diverse, and more entrepreneurial. This new breed of expatriates carries with them a unique set of challenges and research questions that researchers have yet to address. It is important, therefore, to establish a framework allowing researchers to carve up the now very broad category of "expatriates" and explore research questions that are unique to particular types of expatriates.

Toward this end, I propose and validate a typology that draws attention to important distinctions in the expatriate community. The use of typologies and taxonomies for classification and clarification of organizational actors has repeatedly demonstrated itself as a useful scholarly enterprise. Typologies have informed our research on entrepreneurs (Wortman 1987), teams (Bell and Kozlowski 2002), consumers (Holt 1995; Rohm and Swaminathan 2004), and stakeholders (Green and Hunton-Clarke 2003), among others. Organizing and classifying individuals into types has a long history in organizational analysis that hardly needs elaborating, and has frequently served as an important aid for theory development and hypothesis testing (Perlmutter 1969; Haas et al. 1966). However, typologies are most useful when (a) they represent reality and (b) people use them to make sense of behavior. Therefore, after reviewing the state of expatriate research and proposing a framework for classifying expatriates, I validate the framework to ensure that it represents reality and is invoked by expatriates in the field.

MNC emphasis in expatriate research

I adopt the common use of the word "expatriate" to indicate individuals working in a country other than the one in which their organization is headquartered and who are not citizens of that country (Hodgetts and Luthans 2000). However, expatriates could also include individuals working on their own in a foreign country without any

particular host firm, or "sending" organization. The literature on expatriation exists in two broad domains: that which deals with employee factors and that which addresses organizational practices (Lueke and Svyantek 2000). A common denominator in both domains is that researchers appear to have focused on traditional MNCs, possibly neglecting issues that might be raised by more general analysis of other types of expatriates (Brewster 1997). Employee factors that have received the greatest amount of attention in the expatriate literature include adjustment, commitment, and psychological withdrawal. However, scholars have developed the dominant literature streams related to employee factors in expatriate management primarily using samples of expatriates in multinational firms (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. 2004; Black and Gregersen 1990; Shaffer and Harrison 1998). Expatriate research related to organizational factors is similarly skewed. The breadth of these issues is captured by the expatriate cycle of recruitment, training, performance evaluation, and repatriation. All these organizational factors have developed around the complex issues of expatriatism in large multinational corporations (e.g., Adler 1991; Caligiuri et al. 2001; Schuler et al. 1991).

Gaining deeper understanding of these issues will not resolve problems that many international organizations encounter today because whole blocks of expatriates are under-researched as the landscape of expatriatism is changing. Ease of travel and communication has made internationalization accessible to more sizes and types of organizations (Hitt et al. 2006). Whereas Perlmutter wrote of achieving multinational proportions (1974: 122), organizations no longer need to attain such a critical mass before considering overseas markets. In fact, firms with a single employee or a single product/service are not inhibited from internationalizing their business (Oviatt and McDougall 2005). Similarly, whereas nonprofit industries used to require significant infrastructure and internal resources to develop international operations, today organizations in such fields as medicine, charity, and the arts are sending expatriates on overseas assignments in the early stages of organizational development. Growth in worldwide expatriation is as much due to international entrepreneurialism and benevolence as it is to "bluechip" expansion (Suutari and Brewster 2000). The Global Relocation Trends Survey Report (2006) shows the expatriate workforce is getting younger and more diverse, and is increasingly being fed by small firms and entrepreneurs. Rather than building a career around expatriatism, many seek to leverage expatriate experience as part of a domestic career (Caligiuri 2006) or exploit individual opportunities associated with a particular international market (Vance 2005). It has become increasingly difficult to group all expatriates into a single category.

The literature, however, has been too slow to address the complex mix of issues that are unique to expatriates outside of large MNCs. Suutari and Brewster (2000: 434) demonstrate this via their inductive study of 400 Finnish expatriates that reveals a wide variety of expatriate types that do not follow traditional expatriation processes and therefore fall within "a blind spot in the literature." The new breed of expatriates has their own set of concerns at individual and organizational levels, and these concerns are different from their MNC counterparts. For example, expatriates are increasingly less likely to enjoy large per diems and isolated local housing arrangements, so the adjustment construct may need to be shifted toward the host culture as opposed to its current emphasis on host coworkers. At the organizational

level, smaller and younger firms cannot provide the same level of organizational support as large MNCs, so they may be more concerned with issues of adaptability in the expatriate recruitment process, versus technical expertise that has dominated recruitment procedures for large MNCs. Vance (2005) points out that today's expatriate workforce includes many who have self-initiated their expatriate assignments, which has implications for preparatory activities and career building. Further, non-profit organizations with more limited resources, such as Heiffer International and the United Way, are now able to send a greater number of expatriates due to lower costs and reduced boundaries associated with internationalization (Hitt et al. 2006). To address the unique research questions raised by a greater number and variety of expatriates, it is imperative that researchers begin to partition the landscape of expatriatism into categories with common interests.

Expatriate types

Rich's (1992) seminal work on organizational typologies and taxonomies presented guidelines for their creation and validation. I propose an essential-traditional typology built around organizational variables and intuitive categorization. The output of essential-traditional typologies is monothetic groups, which Bailey (1973) describes as a precursive step to the eventual development of polythetic taxonomies. Essential-traditional typologies also provide the basis for mid-range theorizing about the phenomena and forces at work on specific types (Moore et al. 1980). Typological classification of expatriate assignments in an essential-traditional model will be useful both for comparative purposes and for theory development and hypothesis testing (Haas et al. 1966). Therefore, I propose and validate a four-quadrant typology drawing on two key organizational factors.

The first dimension is the size of the firm's expatriate workforce. This is important because expatriates in firms with few other expatriates are likely to have different assignment experiences and managerial concerns as compared to those in firms with a greater number of expatriates. Those that are part of larger organizations that are not broadly internationalized (i.e., few expatriates worldwide) will differ from heavily expatriated MNCs because their expatriates will likely not enjoy the same level of organizational support, experience, or embedded organizational knowledge about their expatriate assignment. We should expect organizations with a high number of expatriates to have more standardized procedures (e.g., selection procedures), formalized training, extensive expatriation/repatriation policies, and support structures for adjustment. Conversely, organizations with few expatriates are more likely to have ad hoc selection processes, informal or contracted training, and more limited understanding of the adjustment process and its impact on expatriate performance. Organizations with a large worldwide expatriate staff are more knowledgeable about expatriate assignments, and this difference will likely manifest itself in more formalized and structured processes for their expatriate assignments.

The second dimension differentiates between expatriates in public or nonprofit organizations and expatriates in profit-oriented organizations. This organizational factor serves as a proxy for likely differences in motivation, goals, lifestyles, and assignment policies. For example, expatriates working in nonprofit enterprises are

more likely to be more concerned with such issues as community involvement, longer assignments, and the development of social capital. Additionally, these expatriates may be motivated by factors beyond compensation and promotion (West et al. 2008). The selection process for expatriates serving in nonprofit organizations will focus on different characteristics and objectives as compared to their corporate counterparts, and assignment success may be evaluated on nonfinancial measures.

These two dimensions satisfy the requirements for an essential-traditional typology in that they are (a) recognizable to people within organizational settings, (b) comprehensive, and (c) useful for all types of organizations (Bakke 1959). The two dimensions suggest a four-quadrant typology as shown in Fig. 1. There is some evidence suggesting that the body of global expatriates includes individuals from each of the categories described below (*Global Relocation Trends Survey* 2006).

Quadrant I consists of those expatriates in for-profit organizations with a significant contingent of international workers. Most MNCs, such as those listed in the Global 1000 (Business Week 2004), would be categorized here. This quadrant has been the focus of the majority of expatriate research and is the group of people first associated with the word "expatriate." They are labeled *Traditional Expatriates* because their work and life experience in a foreign country is most akin to that which scholars have historically associated with expatriatism.

Quadrant II individuals have begun to receive some research attention within the broader literature on entrepreneurship (Yeung 2002). As with those in Quadrant I, *Transnational Entrepreneurs* are concerned with profit, but they have fewer organizational resources available to them and may even be independent. This group includes a wide variety of consultants and contingent technical professionals. Because they have little or no organizational support for their expatriate assignments, they are likely to develop new processes and will necessarily be self-reliant.

Quadrant III individuals also come from sending organizations with a large expatriate workforce. However, these individuals are with public or nonprofit organizations that are more likely to emphasize their capacity as representatives of their organization and their cause. Examples include expatriates with such organizations as the Red Cross, Oxfam, and the World Wildlife Fund (WWF). This group is labeled *Ambassadors*, owing to their more prominent role as a delegate of

	Large	Small
For-Profit	I. Traditional Expatriates	II. Transnational Entrepreneurs
Public/Non	III. Ambassadors	IV. Worldchanging Entrepreneurs

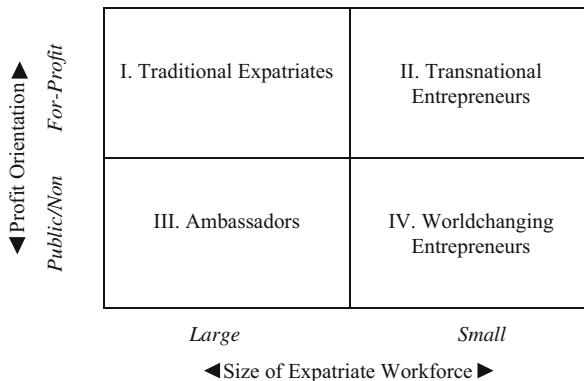▲Profit Orientation▼

◀Size of Expatriate Workforce▶

Fig. 1 A typology of expatriatism

an established greater cause. Early expatriate research focused on this group, giving particular attention to the Peace Corps (Goldberg 1966). This group also includes expatriates serving in government bodies, such as embassies and consulates, and major nonprofit organizations such as the International Red Cross and Heifer Project International.

In Quadrant IV we have individuals that participate in a nonprofit cause but do not enjoy the resources of a large sending organization. This group is labeled *Worldchanging Entrepreneurs*, borrowing a term from the Harvard Business School's Social Enterprise Initiative to emphasize the grand, philanthropic nature of these expatriate assignments. The vast worldwide network of teachers of English as a foreign language falls into this category, as does a broad range of workers in agricultural and economic development arenas who have either struck out on their own or are sponsored by a small or primarily domestic sending organization (Suutari and Brewster 2000; Vance 2005).

The typology, therefore, delineates the following four categories:

Traditional Expatriates originate from MNCs with a large international workforce. These are the individuals most frequently associated with expatriatism. Firms with expatriates in this category are likely to have a corporate-level international strategy (Connelly et al. 2007) and a comprehensive set of expatriation policies. These expatriates view their assignments as a crucial step in their professional career. They are likely to expect high degrees of compensation for work, living, and any personal risk involved in the assignment. Repatriation is an important component of these assignments.

Transnational Entrepreneurs may be consultants working on their own, entrepreneurs establishing a business, or from firms with a small international workforce. This person (or small company) seeks to generate rents by leveraging strategic competitive advantage in an international environment that is likely to have less competition than their domestic counterpart. They may or may not be experienced with expatriatism, but they will be expected to be highly entrepreneurial. Expatriate assignments in this category typically include a high degree of social networking in the host culture because they cannot rely on in-country experience of the firm.

Ambassadors come from public or nonprofit organizations with a large international workforce. These organizations bring significant resources and often have a long history of expatriatism. They are typically more concerned with the host culture and connected with institutions in the host country. Expatriate assignments are focused on social networks and the maintenance and leverage of social capital. Many expatriates in this category move between overseas assignments, so integrating back into the home office is often not part of their agenda.

Worldchanging Entrepreneurs come from nonprofit organizations with a small expatriate workforce, or possibly are on their own. These organizations (or individuals) may be new to the international arena and are likely to develop policies and procedures to address the battery of issues they face in their new environment. Expatriate assignments for this group are more ideologically

based, and may be a reward in their own right rather than a means to a career end. The combination of being small *and* nonprofit makes it difficult for expatriates in this category to capture resources or leverage attention in many circles.

Comparative fit of the typology

Typologies are judged by their utility and accuracy in representing reality. A typology that does not accurately reflect the world it purports to categorize provides no value to researchers or practitioners. Although the dimensions of the proposed typology are objective and organizationally based, the categorization mechanism is only useful insofar as it is considered relevant and important to expatriates in the field. Turner's (1985) self-categorization theory provides a useful tool to evaluate the extent to which the typology accurately represents real divisions among expatriates.

Self-categorization theory seeks to explain a person's subjective sense of self—who they think they are. This theory describes individuals in terms of a social identity that is shared with other members of an ingroup, but not with members of an outgroup (Turner et al. 1987). A foundational component of self-categorization theory is that of "fit," which refers to the degree to which a particular social categorization matches relevant features of reality (Bruner 1957). Haslam et al. (2000: 324) describe how fit "specifies the processes that dictate *whether* people define themselves in terms of … social identity and, when social identity is salient, *which* particular group membership serves to guide behavior." A good fit implies the category appears to the individual to be a good way of organizing and making sense of their world.

Scholars have examined two distinct types of fit: comparative and normative (Oakes et al. 1991). Comparative fit is defined by the principle of meta-contrast. For a social categorization mechanism to exhibit comparative fit, differences among members in a category ought to be perceived to be smaller than differences between members of that and all other categories. For example, in an environment with Traditional Expatriates and Worldchanging Entrepreneurs, comparative fit suggests that differences between the two groups would appear larger than differences among Traditional Expatriates themselves. Turner (1985) notes that comparative fit predicts that people will define themselves in terms of a particular self-category. Therefore, the typology exhibits comparative fit if group membership may be predicted by comparison of differences among group members with differences between group members.

> Hypothesis 1. Group membership within the typology may be accurately predicted based on comparison of differences among members of each quadrant versus differences between quadrants.

Normative fit of the typology

Normative fit refers to the match between category specifications and the individual's expectations about those categories (Oakes 1987). If expectations about

group members are not met, self-categorization will not be employed to make sense of events (Haslam et al. 2000). Therefore, while comparative fit examines whether the typology is valid, normative fit examines whether the typology is invoked. Stated differently, comparative fit examines differences within categories versus differences between, whereas normative fit examines whether these differences are consistent with expectations about the categories. For example, a Traditional Expatriate at a mixed gathering of Traditional Expatriates and Worldchanging Entrepreneurs is unlikely to classify themselves as a Traditional Expatriate if members of these two groups do not act in ways that are expected of them (e.g., if Traditional Expatriates are concerned primarily with the welfare of the local community and Worldchanging Entrepreneurs primarily with discussion about salaries and promotion).

One way to examine normative fit is to consider an individual's own behavior as compared to that which they expect of individuals from each quadrant. The typology exhibits normative fit when individuals categorize their behavior as being most closely aligned with that which they expect of individuals in the same quadrant and distinct from that which they expect of individuals from other quadrants. This leads to the following hypotheses about normative fit:

Hypothesis 2a. Traditional Expatriates categorize their behavior as most closely aligned with that which they expect from other quadrant I individuals.

Hypothesis 2b. Transnational Entrepreneurs categorize their behavior as most closely aligned with that which they expect from other quadrant II individuals.

Hypothesis 2c. Ambassadors categorize their behavior as most closely aligned with that which they expect from other quadrant III individuals.

Hypothesis 2d. Worldchanging Entrepreneurs categorize their behavior as most closely aligned with that which they expect from other quadrant IV individuals.

Validating the types

Sample and measures

Expatriates were invited to participate in this study via a password-protected Internet web site. Cluster sampling made certain there was a representative population from each quadrant, yielding a balanced design to facilitate analysis. Orthogonality was ensured by including two prequalification questions to determine the respondents' quadrant and capping the number of allowed respondents per quadrant at 40. This resulted in a sample population of 160, with responses coming from individuals of 15 nationalities assigned to 39 different host countries. The sample population was 38% female, with a wide range of age and length of service as an expatriate.

Section I of the survey asked respondents to reply to a list of specific behaviors typical of expatriate life that could predict group membership. This section drew upon the expatriate adjustment literature for a list of behaviors salient to expatriates. Black (1988) developed a 14 item list that measured three facets of expatriatism: work roles, interacting with host nationals, and everyday life. Rather than asking

about their adjustment in these three facets, respondents were asked how the list of behaviors encompassed their daily lives. Each item used a forced-choice six point Likert scale to (strongly) agree or (strongly) disagree with the statement "this is an important part of my expatriate experience." A six point scale was chosen in order to remove the neutral choice, since all respondents should have some response to each of the items (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro et al. 2006).

Section II of the survey examined normative fit by comparing respondents' understanding of their own behaviors in comparison to that which they expect of expatriates in other categories. Paired comparison scaling with four treatments in two iterations determined which quadrant the respondent expected to be most similar to their own. Prior studies have used the method of paired comparisons as a means to obtain similarity judgments in multiple dimensions (Malhotra 2004). The treatments for the first iteration compared expatriate job titles that carry clear understanding of both the size and profit orientation of the organization, such that each title is readily classified in a particular quadrant. These were MNC corporate executive (quadrant I), self-employed business consultant (quadrant II), Peace Corps volunteer (quadrant III), and private English teacher (quadrant IV), all in an international (i.e., expatriate) context. Respondents were presented with each possible combination of treatments and asked to select one based on which expatriate they expect to have behaviors and experiences most similar to their own. The second iteration contained the same instructions, but the treatments in this case represented more extreme descriptors of expatriates in each quadrant. The paired comparison measurement determined which quadrant respondents expected to be most similar to their own with respect to the holistic set of behaviors of individuals in each quadrant. A forced-choice survey design reduced the possibility of first-place ties (Trawinski and David 1963).

To test internal reliability, two questions from Section I of the survey were paired with reverse-coded questions seeking the same information. If the reverse-coded answers for either of these question pairs did not corroborate, the entire case was discarded. Inclusion in the sample required completion of all questions on the survey. The survey also asked respondents for their current country of residence. If this did not match the registered country of origin of a domain name system (DNS) reverse-lookup, the case was deemed unusable.

Results

Discriminant analysis Comparative fit suggests that group membership should be predictable based on some set of independent variables. In this case, for the typology to exhibit comparative fit means that respondents should be accurately classified into their predefined group based on their answers to the 14-item survey measuring expatriate behaviors (Black et al. 1991). Multiple discriminant analysis is an appropriate procedure because of the categorical nature of the groups (Traditional Expatriates, Transnational Entrepreneurs, Ambassadors, and Worldchanging Entrepreneurs) and the ordinally interval scales that may be derived from Likert scores on the 14 items of Section I (Chandler and Lyon 2001). Discriminant analysis assigns cases to mutually exclusive categories on the basis of a linear function of the Likert score predictor variables. Each predictor is assigned a weight so that the ratio of the

between-groups sum of squares to the within-groups sum of squares is maximized. The canonical discriminant function is as follows:

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{ik} \beta_0 + \beta_{jk}\theta_{ik},$$

where C_{ij} is the centroid (average) of each mutually exclusive category i in discriminant function j, the βs are unstandardized discriminant function coefficients, and θ_{ik} are mean values in an array of k variables for each group i.

Multiple discriminant analysis is highly sensitive to the inclusion of univariate and multivariate outliers (Tabachnick and Fidell 2000). A log transformation of the independent variables ensured normalization of their distribution. Visual scan of the box plot of standardized z scores of the log-transformed independent variables showed no univariate outliers. Four independent multiple regressions of the independent variables for each quadrant on a dummy dependent variable yielded the Mahalanobis D^2 statistic (Rasmussen 1988), which revealed three significant multivariate outliers. These three cases were deleted, leaving a sample size of 157 for this portion of the analysis. The pooled within-group correlation matrix indicated low correlations between the predictors, with all predictor-pairs having a correlation below .42, so multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem.

There was no a-priori knowledge about the ability of each predictor to discriminate among groups (Malhotra 2004), so the Wilks' lambda method was the most economical (Birley 2001). Conservative entry and removal criteria ensured inclusion of the most statistically important predictor variables. Entry, based on probability of F, was set at .15 and removal at .20 (Costanza and Afifi 1979). With four categories in the dependent variable, the analysis extracted three discriminant functions. Table 1 shows that all three functions are significant, as indicated by the chi-square distribution of Wilk's lambda. This indicates there is reliable separation of the four groups based on this array of predictors. I used the discriminant weights to calculate a classification matrix and assign cases to groups based on the nearest-centroid decision rule. A leave-one-out classification method allowed each case to be classified by the functions derived from all other cases (Albaum and Baker 1976). This analysis yielded a hit ratio of 73%. Daniels and Darcy (1983) suggest classification results yielding an improvement of 25% over that obtained by chance are significant. Therefore, the four categories of expatriates are not arbitrary but

Table 1 Results of discriminant analysis

Statistic	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Eigenvalue	1.83	.66	.63
Percent of common variance	58.7	21.1	20.2
Canonical correlation	.80	.63	.62
Wilk's λ	.13	.37	.61
Chi-square (d.f.)	306* (39)	150* (24)	74* (11)

*$p < .01$

instead they exhibit distinct empirical profiles. These results lend support to Hypothesis 1.

Paired comparison analysis Hypotheses 2a-d proposed that respondents from each of the respective quadrants would categorize their own behaviors as being consistent with that which they expect of expatriates from the same quadrant. The paired comparison section of the survey tested this hypothesis. Analysis of paired comparison data has received some attention in statistical methodology, beginning with Thurstone's (1927) Law of Comparative Judgment and carrying forward to the popularly used Bradley-Terry-Luce (BTL) model (Bradley and Terry 1952; Luce 1959). I created a preference matrix, consistent with the coding scheme of the BTL model, wherein for each paired comparison a score of 1 indicated the treatment was selected and 2 indicated the treatment was not selected. Four treatments and two iterations of comprehensive comparisons yield a most favorable rank sum of 6 and a least favorable rank sum of 12.

Hypothesis 2a addressed Traditional Expatriates, who would be expected to select the quadrant I comparison treatment more than any other. The mean rank sum of the quadrant I treatment in the preference matrix for these respondents should be significantly lower than the mean rank sum of the next lowest quadrant. Traditional Expatriates obtained a mean rank sum of 6.95 for the quadrant I treatment. This was significantly lower ($p<.05$) than the next highest mean rank sum, 9.13, which was obtained for the quadrant IV treatment. Hypothesis 2a is thus supported by these results.

Transnational Entrepreneurs obtained a mean rank sum of 8.28 for the quadrant IV comparison treatment. This was significantly lower ($p<.05$) than all other mean rank sums, lending support to Hypothesis 2b. Expatriates from nonprofit organizations with a large expatriate workforce obtained a mean rank sum of 7.48 for the quadrant III treatment (Ambassadors). This was significantly lower ($p<.05$) than all other mean rank sums, supporting Hypothesis 2c. Lastly, expatriates from nonprofit organizations with a small expatriate workforce obtained a mean rank sum of 8.30 for the quadrant IV comparison treatment (Worldchanging Entrepreneurs). This, too, was significantly lower ($p<.05$) than all other mean rank sums, supporting Hypothesis 2d.

Discussion

Two primary conclusions emerge from this empirical analysis. First, discriminant analysis of a heterogeneous sample of expatriates accurately placed respondents into categories of the proposed typology based on examination of lifestyle similarities and differences. This indicates the typology exhibits comparative fit, or that it represents real differences in expatriate experiences. Second, the categorization mechanism is consistent with respondents' expectations of behavior within the typology. Paired comparison analysis demonstrated that respondents categorized their own behaviors consistent with that which they expect from members of the same group. This suggests the typology exhibits normative fit, or that the categorizations are invoked as in-group and out-group mechanisms by expatriates in the field.

This typology is expected to be useful both looking backward and looking forward. Looking back, it alerts scholars to varieties of expatriatism, which can help

to better understand past research and may help explain divergent data. A variety of expatriate studies have come to inconsistent and sometimes even contradictory conclusions on such matters as expatriate selection, training, and success measurements (Connelly et al. 2007). Distinguishing between the categories of expatriates under consideration may help to explain the source of certain inconsistencies. Interpreting past research in view of the proposed typology will also help scholars to compare and contrast various constructs within the expatriate literature as they apply to different types of expatriates. How, for example, does the research on repatriation that has been conducted on Traditional Expatriates (e.g., Suutari and Brewster 2003) apply to Transnational Entrepreneurs? As we consider the research on pre-departure training (e.g., Vance 2002), how would recognition of the unique experiences of Worldchanging Entrepreneurs and Transnational Entrepreneurs change what we know about how to best prepare them for their assignments?

The typology is also likely to be useful to scholars going forward as it brings attention to new research questions. What kind of knowledge, for example, do organizations gain from different types of expatriates? What is the relationship between these different types of expatriates as they encounter one another in daily life? What is the relationship between, for example, Transnational Entrepreneurs and economic development in the host country? How are interactions with host country nationals different for each type of expatriate and for whom are such relationships most important? In sum, the typology fills a need in the literature for a framework that allows the community of international scholars to begin partitioning the broad landscape of expatriatism.

The typology also has a number of implications for managers in general and more specifically for entrepreneurs. One important conclusion is that experience in one quadrant of expatriatism may not be directly applicable to jobs in other quadrants. So, for example, a Traditional Expatriate seeking to become a Transnational Entrepreneur may find many aspects of their experience do not translate to their new endeavor. Moving from one quadrant to another may entail significant change in both practice and philosophy, even though the individual is still considered by many to be an "expatriate." The very existence of these categories, and awareness of them by expatriates in the field, suggests managers should be aware that policies in place for one type of expatriate may not be appropriate for expatriates in other quadrants (Oddou 1991). Entrepreneurs, too, should recognize that learning from experience gained in traditional forms of expatriatism may not be directly applicable to entrepreurial expatriate endeavors.

A few limitations regarding the results are of note. First, there are some limitations to the measures used in validating this typology. Black et al.'s (1991) scale served as a reasonable proxy to capture the breadth of expatriate experiences at work, interacting with host nationals, and in everyday life. However, there may be other aspects of expatriate life and work not addressed by Black's scale and possibly aspects that are unique to particular categories of the typology. More detailed and specific measures are likely to improve the ability of predictors to discriminate between categories and therefore enhance the results. The typology also relies on the size of the firm's expatriate workforce as a proxy for organizational support. Although firms with more expatriates should have the resources and experience to provide better support to its expatriates, this may not always be the case. Another

limitation is that there is some potential for same-source bias given the cross-sectional nature of data collection. However, responses from the two sections of the survey are not in a causal analysis, so this is not likely to have influenced the results. Lastly, the essential-traditional typology proposed and validated here is the first step in a process of further defining, classifying, and organizing the broad category of expatriatism. Future research might build on this foundation to consider even more specific groups of expatriates based on common embedded values or underlying organizing principles.

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