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THE IMPACT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL RESILIENCE ON JOB
PERFORMANCE IN A CROSS-CULTURAL CONTEXT:
EVIDENCE FROM CHINESE MULTINATIONAL
CORPORATIONS

WU, CHUNLIN

SINGAPORE MANAGEMENT UNIVERSITY
2024

The Impact of Psychological Resilience on
Job Performance in a Cross-Cultural Context:
Evidence from Chinese Multinational Corporations

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Submitted to Lee Kong Chian School of Business
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Business Administration

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2024

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I hereby declare that this dissertation is my original work
and it has been written by me in its entirety.

I have duly acknowledged all the sources of information
which have been used in this dissertation.

This dissertation has also not been submitted for any degree
in any university previously.



Wu, Chunlin
5 April 2024

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Chinese Multinational Corporations

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ABSTRACT

As globalisation accelerates and multinational companies expand, more employees are being assigned to work in other countries. This phenomenon of international assignments brings business opportunities and numerous challenges, the most prominent being cross-cultural adjustment. Expatriates must face different cultural backgrounds, values, and lifestyles. Such cultural differences can lead to communication barriers, psychological stress, and lifestyle difficulties, subsequently affecting job performance. This study explores the mechanism between psychological resilience and job performance from the perspective of expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. It conducts empirical research through two rounds of three surveys, collecting 229 valid questionnaires in Cambodia, Thailand, and Vietnam.

First, this study introduces psychological resilience within cross-cultural themes, examining its impact on job performance among expatriates. Empirical research using sample data from Cambodia, Thailand, and Vietnam shows a significant direct positive correlation between expatriates' psychological resilience and job performance. This extends the application of psychological resilience theory, and provides an essential basis for selecting expatriate personnel.

Second, the study deepens the understanding of how psychological resilience influences job performance. Current there is a lack of empirical research on the mechanism by which the psychological resilience of expatriates impact work performance. This study introduces cross-cultural adjustment as a mediating variable and empirically tests that cross-cultural adjustment is one of the key pathways through which psychological resilience affects job performance. This highlights the need for effective strategies and measures to manage cross-cultural adjustment amid the challenges and pressures of foreign cultures.

Third, the study enriches the application of cultural tightness theory. By introducing cultural tightness theory into expatriate research, the study finds that a relatively loose culture aids the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate staff. Under such conditions, the impact of psychological resilience on cross-cultural adjustment is more pronounced.

Fourth, the study incorporates trust in supervisors from a cross-cultural adjustment perspective. The findings suggest that trust in supervisors positively enhances relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance of expatriate employees and will amplify the impact of cross-cultural adjustment on job performance. This conclusion affirms the importance of trusting supervisors from the perspective of international assignees, enriches the research significance of trust in supervisors, and provides practical insights for expatriate personnel management.

Keywords: Psychological Resilience, Cross-Cultural Adjustment, Job Performance, Cultural Tightness, Trust in Supervisor

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Amid the wave of globalisation, businesses often need to dispatch employees to various countries and regions to pursue larger market shares and more comprehensive business coverage. In recent years, more Chinese companies have begun to increase their foreign investments in search of new international developments. Overseas investment has increasingly become one of the effective ways for Chinese enterprises to participate in globalisation, enhance innovation capabilities, strengthen core competitiveness, and accelerate the promotion of open innovation cooperation (Nugent & Lu, 2021; Tan, 2013). According to data released by China's Ministry of Commerce, in 2022, China's total industry foreign direct investment reached 985.37 billion yuan, an increase of 5.2%, indicating steady progress and stable development in foreign investment.

Expatriation is significant from the perspectives of the enterprise, employees, and local society. From a corporate perspective, first, expatriates help companies understand target markets' culture, needs, and consumption habits, providing more targeted suggestions for products and services and thus expanding broader markets. Second, through international assignments, companies can bring their brands and cultures to local areas, enhancing brand recognition and influence. Third, expatriates can manage and supervise local business operations closely, ensuring the

implementation of strategies and stable business development, which is beneficial for multinational enterprise management and operations. Expatriation is a rare career development opportunity for employees, enabling them to encounter different business and cultural environments and enhancing their overall qualities and competitiveness. Generally, expatriates enjoy substantial remuneration and benefits, improving their quality of life and recognising their work contributions. From a local societal perspective, corporate investment and business activities create employment opportunities, promoting regional economic and social development. Moreover, expatriates bring advanced technology and management experience, helping to enhance the operational efficiency and innovation capabilities of local enterprises and to facilitate technology and knowledge dissemination. Furthermore, international expatriation is a business act and cultural exchange. Interactions between expatriates and locals can foster mutual understanding and integration of different cultures, making expatriation significant for enterprises, employees, and local societies.

Existing research from the perspective of positive psychology explores the impact of cross-cultural Adjustment and mechanisms to improve job performance (Ashraf et al., 2023; Ayub & Jehn, 2014; Batool et al., 2022; Haddoud et al., 2022; Hartmann et al., 2022; Kumpfer, 2002; Larson & Luthans, 2006; Luthans et al., 2013; Masten, 2001). Studies find that high psychological resilience helps individuals cope with stress, adapt to environments quickly, and recover swiftly from significant setbacks. As a capability with rapid recovery traits, psychological resilience can assist

expatriates in better adapting to new environments and facing new challenges (Huang et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2013; Ran et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2010; Y. Yu et al., 2014). Hence, psychological resilience may be crucial in achieving high job performance for expatriates facing cross-cultural differences.

In addition, current research on the impact of psychological resilience on job performance under cross-cultural differences mainly focuses on developed countries like Europe and America, with fewer studies on Chinese enterprises' foreign investments. After over forty years of reform and opening-up, China's economy has rapidly developed, currently being the world's second-largest country in foreign investment. The relatively limited research on Chinese multinational operations does not correspond to China's status as a significant foreign investor, and considering China's distinct cultural roots compared to Western developed countries, exploring the impact of psychological resilience on job performance in the context of Chinese enterprises' foreign investment management is of significant importance.

This study collected questionnaire data from expatriates in Thailand, Vietnam, and Cambodia, because these three countries are representative and have more investment from Chinese multinational corporations, with a focus on exploring how the psychological resilience of expatriates in Chinese multinational corporations impact job performance? What is the mechanism?

1.2 Significance

1.2.1 Theoretical Significance

(1) Expanding the Application of Psychological Resilience Theory. Existing research on psychological resilience has primarily focused on its application in psychology, especially in the context of recovering to a normal state under challenges such as pain, setbacks, hardships, strikes, failure, and stress (Kumpfer, 2002; Connor & Davidson, 2003). This study introduces psychological resilience into a cross-cultural context, exploring its impact on expatriates' job performance. It conducts empirical testing with samples from three countries, extending the boundaries of applying psychological resilience theory.

(2) Deepening the Understanding of the Mechanism of Psychological Resilience on Job Performance. Some research has explored the relationship between expatriates' psychological resilience and job performance, but there is a lack of in-depth understanding of how this relationship functions (Hoşgör & Yaman, 2022; Larson & Luthans, 2006). This study introduces cross-cultural adjustment as a mediating variable, positing that psychological resilience, as a psychological trait, primarily influences job performance through cross-cultural adjustment.

(3) Enriching the Research on Cultural Tightness Theory. Many studies on the culture of Tightness mainly focus on the national level (Gelland et al., 2011; Chua et al., 2019). This study introduces the theory of cultural tightness into the psychological

resilience of expatriates, explores the moderating effect of cultural tightness perception on the relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment, and expands the application field of cultural tightness theory.

(4) Enriching the Research on Trust in Supervisors. The positive impact of trusting supervisors on individual job performance has been supported by many empirical studies (Li and Tan, 2012). This study attempts to explore the moderating effect of trust supervisors on the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance of expatriates.

1.2.2 Practical Significance

(1) When selecting expatriates, it is essential to consider their psychological resilience. This study collected data from three countries (Cambodia, Thailand, and Vietnam), and empirical results showed that the psychological resilience of expatriates has a positive impact on job performance. This research conclusion has important implications for multinational enterprises in selecting expatriate staff.

(2) In cross-cultural management, the cross-cultural adjustment of employees should be significant. Cross-cultural adjustment is a crucial pathway affecting the job performance of expatriates. Therefore, in cross-cultural management, it is critical to focus on effectively facilitating the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate employees.

(3) During cross-cultural management, fostering a relaxed cultural atmosphere and enhancing employees' trust in the supervisor is essential. This study, incorporating

Cultural Tightness theory, suggests that creating an inclusive cultural atmosphere will benefit the impact of expatriates' psychological resilience on cross-cultural adjustment. Additionally, enhancing employees' trust in their supervisors is believed to positively modulate the influence of expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment on job performance.

1.3 Chapter Organization

This dissertation is divided into seven chapters:

Chapter 1 Introduction: This chapter discusses the background and significance of the study. It clarifies the purpose and importance of the research and provides an overview of the overall content arrangement.

Chapter 2 Literature review: This chapter delves into the analysis of existing research on the impact of psychological resilience on job performance. It introduces and reviews related studies on mechanisms involving cross-cultural adjustment, cultural differences, and trust in supervisors.

Chapter 3 Hypotheses development: Based on literature reviews, this chapter proposes five research hypotheses and a theoretical framework, laying a theoretical foundation for the study.

Chapter 4 Research design: This chapter describes the research design, including data sources, measurement methods for variables, and specific steps for model construction, laying the groundwork for empirical analysis.

Chapter 5 Sample characteristics and methodology: This chapter introduces the characteristics of the study sample and assesses issues related to common method bias. It conducts reliability and validity tests based on confirmatory factor analysis.

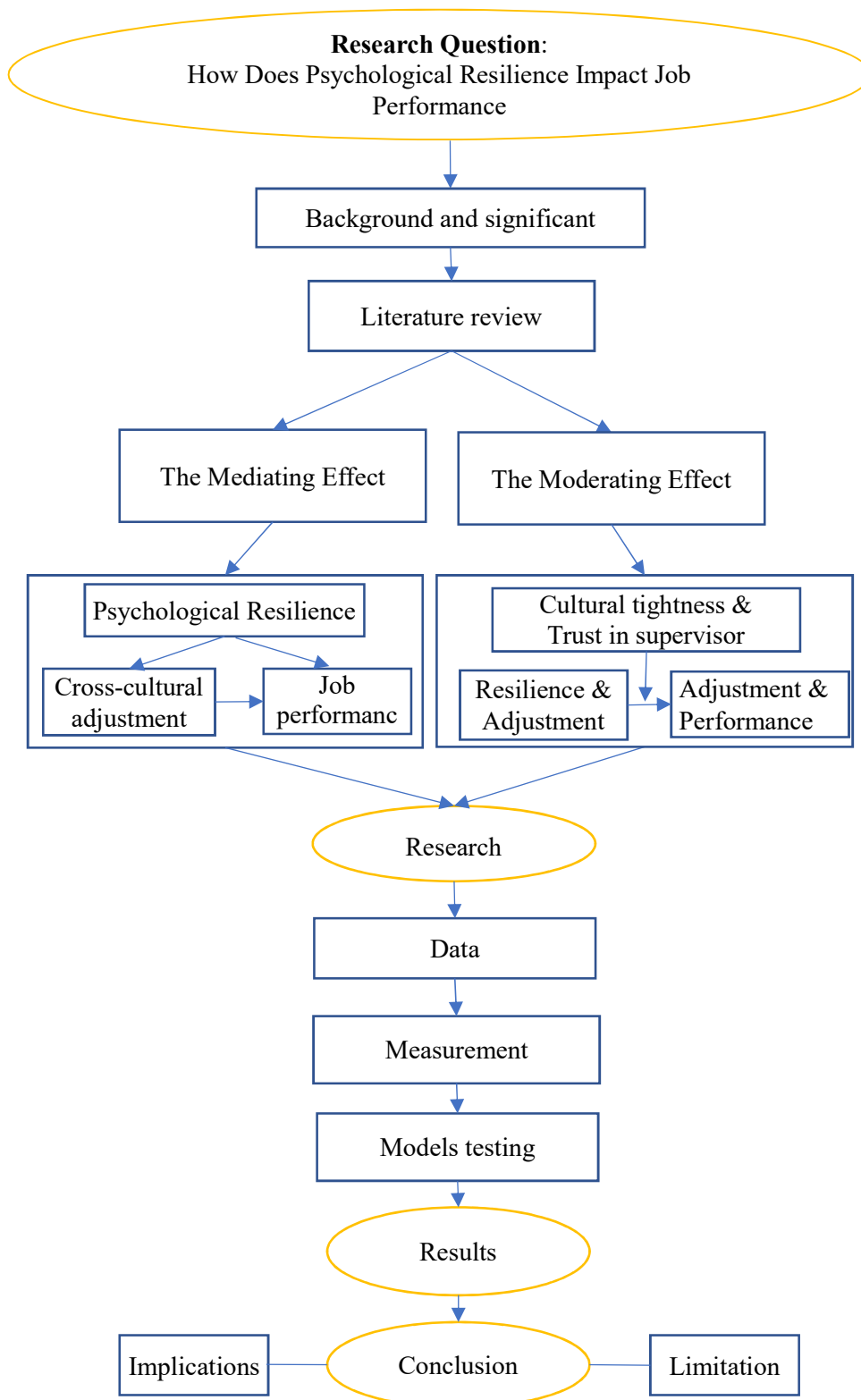
Chapter 6 Hypothesis testing and discussion: Using sample data, this chapter tests the proposed hypotheses and further discusses the mechanism of how expatriates' psychological resilience affects job performance.

Chapter 7 Conclusion: The final chapter summarises the study's main findings, discusses its theoretical and practical implications, and explores the limitations and future directions for research.

Through this structure, the study aims to provide a comprehensive and systematic analytical framework for analysing how psychological resilience affects expatriates' job performance, offering practical insights for researchers and managers. The conceptual framework of this study is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Research Approach Diagram



Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Research on Psychological Resilience

We will introduce the research development from three perspectives: psychological resilience, the measurement of psychological resilience, and relevant studies on psychological resilience.

2.1.1 The Concept of Psychological Resilience

The concept of psychological resilience originated from observing individual differences in children's adaptation to adversity, and it represents an extension and expansion based on positive psychology research. Reviewing existing research, scholars have different understanding of psychological resilience, which can be categorised into three perspectives: outcome-oriented, process-oriented, and trait-oriented.

Trait-oriented approaches focus on psychological resilience as a positive trait or ability, and on individual psychological adaptation and coping strategies in response to negative events. They argue that psychological resilience is an individual's inherent capacity and quality, representing the ability to achieve positive outcomes, withstand pressure, and recover from trauma in high-risk situations (Werner, 1995). Connor and Davidson (2003) suggests that psychological resilience can be considered a standard for measuring the ability to cope with stress, a trait or ability that individuals demonstrate in the face of negative events, such as stress and adversity, to adapt to the

environment. Similar, scholars like Luthans et al. (2013) believe that psychological resilience is the quality of persisting, recovering, and even surpassing when individuals encounter problems and challenges, ultimately achieving success. The viewpoint of Trait-oriented emerged from the earliest stage, but it is also the most influential and highly concerned.

Outcome-oriented approaches define psychological resilience as a psychological state or phenomenon. Masten et al.(1995) proposed that psychological resilience can be reflected in the adaptability and recovery ability of individuals facing adversity or serious threats, resulting in positive outcomes. Masten (2001) further defines resilience as the ability to adapt or develop positively in the face of severe threats. Kumpfer's (2002) research have a similar view, suggests that psychological resilience results from an individual maintaining a positive mindset, adapting to the environment, and enhancing resistance in the face of significant stress, setbacks, and traumatic high-risk situations. The view of Outcome-oriented provides a new perspective on psychological resilience.

Process-oriented theories focus on the dynamic development of psychological resilience during adversity (Troy et al., 2023). Some scholars view psychological resilience as the relative resistance of individuals to social risks and adverse psychological experiences, which may change over time with various risk and protective factors (Rutter, 1999). Rutter (2000) indicates that psychological resilience is not a fixed personal trait but represents dynamic processes that operate over time

and involve different changes. The latest research on similar viewpoints, Fullerton et al.(2021) through a survey of 306 undergraduates, consider psychological resilience a helpful quality for improving response abilities, emphasising it as a dynamic.

In summary, these three perspectives on psychological resilience have different definitions based on diverse research purposes and perspectives. Drawing from Connor and Davidson (2003)'s perspective, this paper defines psychological resilience as a positive quality or ability inherent to individuals, representing the capacity to endure psychological pressure and recover from it when facing adversity or danger.

2.1.2 Recent Work

Since Luthans et al.(2004) included psychological resilience as one of the four aspects of psychological capital, research on psychological resilience has gained attention and been explored in fields such as organisational management and organisational behaviour. Individual psychological resilience is closely related to behaviour and attitudes, making it commonly used in business management and employee development studies. Larson et al. (2006)'s research indicates a significant association between psychological resilience, a component of psychological capital, and job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Shin et al. (2012) through a survey involving 234 employees and 45 managers in two rounds, demonstrated a positive correlation between psychological resilience and employee commitment changes (normative and affective). The stronger the employees' psychological

resilience, the faster their adaptation to organisational changes. Other studies suggest that psychological resilience can positively influence job performance, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, and more. They emphasise the need for targeted training, interventions, and the sensible development and utilisation of human resources to enhance employees' positive psychological capital (Karataş & Tagay, 2021).

Karataş & Tagay (2021) conducted a survey on 929 adult COVID-19 patients, showing that psychological resilience is influenced by patients' fear of COVID-19 and their experiences of psychological trauma. Shuo et al. (2022) found, through a survey of 1228 postgraduate students, that psychological resilience indirectly plays a role in the relationship between emotional intelligence and the happiness of postgraduate students. They highlight the importance of paying attention to the psychological resilience of postgraduate students.

At the team and organisational levels, psychological resilience plays a crucial role in team performance, team atmosphere, and the formation of team advantages. Luthar (2015) found that psychological resilience is important in relieving stress, reducing cultural differences, and facilitating effective communication. It also improves team performance and enhances risk management efficiency. Newman et al. (2014) shows that high levels of psychological capital are related to organisational citizenship behaviour in teams, and individuals with high psychological resilience have more resources to achieve goals. Furthermore, the psychological resilience of

leaders is positively correlated with the psychological resilience of subordinates, and the psychological resilience of subordinates is positively correlated with their performance. Santoro et al. (2020) establishes a positive correlation between entrepreneurs' resilience and entrepreneurial success. Creating a solid network of stakeholders can help entrepreneurs enhance their resilience and perception of success.

Regarding managerial resilience, some scholars have found that managerial psychological resilience positively impacts long-term business performance and business growth and can promote strategic changes in the enterprise (Santoro et al., 2019). When enterprises face severe challenges, the psychological resilience of entrepreneurs is crucial for business operations and organisational growth.

2.1.3 Measurement of Psychological Resilience

The measurement of psychological resilience, initially designed for patients with psychological trauma, has now been expanded and applied to the general population. Measurement tools for psychological resilience are becoming increasingly sophisticated, and domestic and international scholars have developed various types of scales, as shown in Table 1. Existing scales are primarily based on the trait theory of psychological resilience. Block and Kremen(1996) proposed using a self-report resilience scale to measure an individual's psychological resilience. The scale consists of 14 items and is measured on a 4-point scale. The "CD-RISC Resilience Scale,"

authored by Connor & Davidson, is widely used, demonstrating good reliability and validity. It comprises five dimensions and 25 items: personal competence, instinct, acceptance of change, sense of control, and spiritual influence (Connor & Davidson, 2003). The CD-RISC resilience scale was initially designed for patients with post-traumatic stress disorder but has gradually been extended to the general population.

Wagnild & Young (1993) developed the RS-25 Resilience Scale after interviewing older women who had experienced significant negative events. The scale consists of 25 items: self-acceptance, life acceptance, and personal competence. Friberg et al.(2003) developed the Resilience Scale (RSA) from five dimensions, it aims to assess the psychological health status of adults in coping with extreme events. In addition, some scholars have developed resilience scales suitable for the Chinese context, such as the Adolescent Resilience Scale (Prince-Embury, 2008).

Table 1
Measurement of psychological resilience

Authors, Year	Scale	Research Subjects	Dimensions
Wagnild & Young, 1993	RS-25 Psychological Resilience Scale	Older adolescent females with significant casualty experiences	Acceptance of self and life, personal competence
Block et al., 1996	Self-Psychological Resilience Scale	Individual psychological resilience traits	There are no sub dimensions, a total of 14 items
Connor &	CD-RISC	People with	Personal competence,

Authors, Year	Scale	Research Subjects	Dimensions
Davidson, 2003	Psychological Resilience Scale	disabilities, general population, etc., emphasis on post-trauma	instinct, accepting change, control awareness, spiritual impact
Friborg et al., 2003	Adult Psychological Resilience Scale (RSA)	Adults who have experienced stressful events	Self-efficacy, operational style, social skills, familial cohesion, social resources
Prince-Embury, 2015	Children and Adolescents Psychological Resilience Scale	Children and adolescents aged 9-18	Sense of control, sense of relatedness, and emotional reactivity

2.2 Research on Cross-cultural Adjustment of expatriates

We will provide separate overviews of research on cross-cultural adjustment and introduce the dimensions and measurement of cross-cultural adjustment from two perspectives.

2.2.1 Recent Development

As more and more expatriates are sent overseas, research on cross-cultural adjustment is also receiving increasing attention (Black & Stephens, 1989; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Black et al.(1991) proposed the definition of expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, stating that it is the process in which "expatriates feel comfortable psychologically with overseas life and work environments and become familiar with the culture". The definition has been widely accepted since its proposal (Strubler et al., 2011).

In research on the adjustment of expatriates, the expatriate international adaptation model proposed by Black et al. (Black et al., 1991; Thomas & Lazarova, 2006) has the greatest influence. They summarised the main factors influencing expatriate adaptation at four levels (Black et al., 1991). Subsequent empirical studies based on this theoretical framework have fully or partially validated the relationships among these variables (Aycan, 1997; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black et al., 1991; Shaffer et al., 1999).

In recent years, there have been innovations in research perspectives, with many introducing moderating variables. For example, scholars have specifically analysed the impact mechanism of expatriate motivation on cross-cultural adjustment under the moderating effects of variables such as company support and cultural distance (Jenkins & Mockaitis, 2010; Wang & Takeuchi, 2007). Takeuchi et al.(2009) using data obtained from 324 managers and 522 expatriates from 76 Japanese companies, found that the relationship between high job performance at the enterprise level and employee job satisfaction and emotional commitment is moderated by the attention paid to employee atmosphere at the enterprise level. (Takeuchi et al., 2009).

Given the numerous empirical studies in this field, many scholars have conducted comprehensive validations through meta-analytic methods. Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) used meta-analysis on over 50 determining factors and the consequences of expatriation adjustments using data from 8474 foreign nationals in 66 studies. They also studied the trajectory of adjustment over time, as well as time as a moderating

factor for the adjustment effect. The results emphasized the centrality, criticality, and complexity of the adjustments, strongly supporting the models of Black et al. (1991).

2.2.2 Dimensions and Measurement

Currently, there are two main ways of categorising dimensions related to cross-cultural adjustment: a three-dimensional approach, including general adjustment, job adjustment, and interaction adjustment (Black & Stephens, 1989; Bruning et al., 2012), and a two-dimensional approach, encompassing psychological adaptation and sociocultural adjustment, widely used in the field of cross-cultural psychology (Searle & Ward, 1990).

Three Dimensions and Measurement. In the study of the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates, the dominant model proposed by Black & Stephens (1989) includes general adjustment (related to basic social life), interaction adjustment (about interactions with the local population), and job adjustment (related to tasks abroad). They developed the measurement scales, and this structure has been widely employed in expatriate adjustment research. Scholars have repeatedly confirmed the reliability and validity (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Bruning et al., 2012; Jenkins & Mockaitis, 2010; Kraimer et al., 2001). The scale comprises 14 items: general adaptation (7 items), interaction adaptation (4 items), and job adaptation (3 items). Numerous studies have effectively validated this model, establishing a solid foundation for these three dimensions.

Two Dimensions and Measurement. Following the model proposed by Black et al. (1989), Searl & Ward (1990) reviewed the literature on the adjustment of expatriates. Based on this, they divided cross-cultural adjustment into psychological adjustment, referring to emotional satisfaction and happiness, and sociocultural adaptation, referring to the skills of integrating into and successfully coping with a new culture, primarily indicating behavioural changes. Psychological adaptation is mainly based on stress-coping theory, measured by individual stress or depression and life satisfaction. Sociocultural adaptation is based mainly on social learning theory, measured by cross-cultural behavioural changes (Searle & Ward, 1990). Although the two-fold categorisation by Ward et al. is widely used in cross-cultural psychology and communication studies, Black's model is more popular and influential in the research on expatriate adaptation (Thomas & Lazarova, 2006).

2.3 Research on Job Performance

Below, we will present research progress from three perspectives: the concept of job performance, dimensions and measurement of job performance, and the current status of research on expatriate job performance.

2.3.1 The Concept of Job Performance

Job performance has consistently been a significant focus in management and human resource management practices, typically used to measure the outcomes of work execution and serves as the basis for employee compensation, promotion, and

rewards or penalties. Currently, there are three main viewpoints regarding the conceptual meaning of job performance: the results-oriented view, the behavior-oriented view, and the integrated view.

The results-oriented view posits that job performance is the work output within a certain period, reflecting the completion of tasks. Hawkins & Sloma (1979) suggest that employee job performance can be manifested by the degree of organisational goal achievement. Bellogin et al. (2011) propose that job performance can be measured using indicators such as productivity and service quality, representing a relatively objective and fair evaluation method.

The behaviour-oriented view focuses more on employee behaviour, which results in achieving organisational and personal goals as the process that signifies job performance, viewing job performance as a type of behaviour. They believe that job performance encompasses all aspects of an employee's performance in achieving organisational goals and fulfilling job tasks, emphasising the behavioural attributes of performance (Campbell, 1990; Murphy, 1989). Driven by the behaviour-oriented perspective, some scholars argue that the generation of job performance is directly related only to behaviours directly associated with organisational goals. In contrast, others believe that whether an employee's behaviour is directly related to organisational goals or not, it should be included in performance assessments.

The integrated view combines the results-oriented and behaviour-oriented perspectives, considering job performance to include an employee's work outcomes

and the process of achieving those outcomes. Motowidlo et al. (1994) argue that job performance should encompass the overall contributions made by employees to the organisation and differentiate between task performance and contextual performance. Task performance is the employee's contribution to achieving organisational goals, while contextual performance is related to behaviours that constitute the employee's psychological background and organisational social relationships. Borman & Motowidlo (1997) propose a two-dimensional structure, with task performance and contextual performance collectively constituting work performance. Some researchers also divide job performance into work performance and contextual performance, exploring the relationship between work and quality of life, the relationship between work and commitment, and the relationship between work and performance. Luo et al. (2016) suggest that work performance should also encompass learning, innovation, and knowledge sharing.

2.3.2 Research Progress on Expatriate Job Performance

The assessment of expatriate failure rates, as a crucial criterion, primarily hinges on the performance of employees. Unlike regular employees, expatriates are tasked with fulfilling the parent company's objectives and achieving mission goals in the host country. Consequently, expatriates' job performance has gradually become a focal point for scholars. Existing research indicates that external and internal factors generally influence expatriate job performance.

On the internal factors, personal traits and knowledge skills impact job performance externally. Research by Stajkovic & Luthans found that self-efficacy strongly drives job performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Empirical studies suggest positive emotions enhance individuals' adaptability when facing negative events. When individuals recover after setbacks, their adaptability strengthens, leading to better task completion (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Proficiency in the host country's language has been shown to enhance expatriate job performance, allowing for more efficient adaptation and task completion (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Shaffer et al. (2006) indicates that knowledge and skill levels that positively impact expatriate job performance focus on enhancing their cross-cultural capabilities. Ramalu et al. (2010) through studying the relationship between personality and job performance, found that personality traits can predict employee job performance and interactions and job adjustments can moderate this relationship.

Support from colleagues, the organisation, and family can also influence job performance to a certain extent, representing external factors. Guzzo et al.'s (1994) survey of 63 companies revealed that employers provide financial support, general support, and family support for expatriate employees. The study showed that the connection between employers and employees strengthens after expatriation tasks, built on trust and employer support. Using a sample of foreign nationals from an American information technology company, Caligiuri (2000) found that organisational support can influence expatriate job performance. This includes

organisational support through cross-cultural training, providing sufficient preparation time before expatriation, and other forms of organisational support. Bhaskar et al. (2005) shows that the adaptability of family members affects expatriate employees' emotions and job performance. Negative emotions from family members can lead to poor job performance for expatriates. Takeuchi et al. (2007) study with 170 pairs of Japanese expatriates and their spouses sent to the United States revealed that spouses play a crucial role in the adaptation process of expatriate employees in the host country. If spouses can better adapt to work and life in the host country, it promotes expatriate employees' focus on work and increases the success rate of completing expatriation tasks. Friedman et al. (2009) found that with the help of colleagues, expatriate employees gain a deeper understanding of the cultural rules of the host country's company and gradually adapt to the new environment. Heijden et al. (2009) discovered that expatriate employees' perceived occupational support negatively correlates with turnover intention. Occupational support, prospects within the home organisation, and expatriate performance are positively correlated. In other words, when employees perceive more occupational support, it improves their expatriate performance (Van Der Heijden & Horton, 2009). Institutional support includes general, professional, financial, and family support.

2.3.3 Dimensions and Measurement

Due to the diversification in defining the concept of job performance, various forms of dimensionality have been employed in its classification. At present, there are mainly scales with one dimension and two dimensions.

In the early stages of research, job performance was mainly viewed as a one-dimensional construct, primarily focusing on assessing an individual's work completion, i.e., task performance. Williams and Anderson (1991) developed a measurement scale for job performance by studying the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The scale included questions related to fulfilling responsibilities, meeting performance assessment requirements, completing tasks diligently, fully accomplishing assigned tasks, neglecting duties, and overlooking essential tasks. Another study, aiming to understand how team learning influences job performance and interpersonal relationships, developed a scale measuring the degree of organisational goal achievement and the completion of employee tasks, consisting of five questions (Zellmer-Bruhn & Gibson, 2006).

In the research involving two-dimensional scales, scholars proposed that job performance can be divided into two major categories, task performance and contextual performance, with eight questions (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Van Dyne & LePine (1998) studied the importance of role behaviour theory in employee performance, introducing a job performance scale consisting of two dimensions: in-role performance and extra-role performance, which can further be subdivided into helping behaviour and voice behaviour. Building on Borman & Motowidlo(1997)'s

research, Conway (1999) further divided job performance into leadership and technical (Technology) administrative job performance, with additional performance aspects including interpersonal facilitation and work dedication.

In summary, measurement scales for job performance exhibit diversity and multiplicity. The variations in the design of these scales arise from differences in research objectives.

2.4 Research on Cultural Tightness

2.4.1 The Development on Cultural Tightness

The term "tightness" in cultural tightness-looseness refers to strong norms, low tolerance for deviant behaviour, and intense punishment. In contrast, "looseness" refers to weak norms, high tolerance for deviant behaviour, and weak punishment (Gelfand et al., 2011). Cultural tightness-looseness comprises two key elements: the strength, clarity, and universality of norms and the severity of punishment or tolerance for deviating from norms (Gelfand et al., 2006). Therefore, cultural tightness-looseness reflects the societal norm culture that determines the degree of punishment and intensity for deviant behaviour.

The conceptualisation of cultural tightness-looseness has evolved. When studying Thai culture, Embree (1950) observed a distinct contrast in cultural tightness between Thailand and Japan, labelling Thailand as a loose culture and Japan as a tight culture. Although he introduced the term "cultural tightness-looseness," he did not

provide any theoretical content. Ryan and Straus (1954) further shared their insights into loose culture, emphasising the flexible expression of social norms, easy tolerance for deviant behaviour, and underdeveloped group values, rituals, responsibility, and solidarity. They highlighted "social norms" and "tolerance for deviant behaviour" in cultural tightness-looseness. Still, they only emphasised the loose dimension, failing to constitute a complete concept of "cultural tightness-looseness" and lacking an operational definition. In subsequent studies, anthropologist Pelto (1968) defined cultural tightness-looseness with 12 standards from loose to tight, forming a relatively complete one-dimensional, bipolar concept. This milestone made measuring cultural tightness-looseness in different cultural communities possible, providing a scientific basis for conceptualising it. However, Pelto did not explicitly state that social norms are the core of the cultural tightness-looseness concept. He defined cultural tightness-looseness based on the looseness-tightness of social systems and organisational structure characteristics. This differs somewhat from the generally recognised core of the cultural tightness-looseness concept in current cross-cultural psychology. When analyzing the impact of culture on oneself, the culture tightness has been regarded as an equally important cultural concept as individualism and collectivism (Triandis, 1989). Subsequently, Gelfand and colleagues (2006) developed the cultural tightness-looseness theory, proposing a multi-level research framework. By exploring the top-down, bottom-up, and moderating influences of cultural tightness-looseness on individuals and organisations and the impact on differences at

multiple levels of analysis, they expanded the dominant paradigm of cross-cultural research. They provided a new complementary perspective for values research (Gelfand et al., 2006). The cultural tightness-looseness theory entered a new stage.

2.4.2 Measurement of Cultural tightness

In terms of measuring the culture tightness, Gelfand and others developed the Cultural Tightness–Looseness Scale (CTLS) for individual-level measurement. They conducted a large-scale survey in 33 countries to measure perceived cultural tightness-looseness, further refining and establishing the core elements of the recognised cultural tightness-looseness: the strength of social norms and tolerance for deviant behaviour (Gelfand et al., 2011). Subsequently, scholars used the CTLS for large-sample investigations into cultural tightness-looseness. Harrington & Gelfand (2014) conducted a study in 50 states in the United States, suggesting that the degree of cultural tightness-looseness varies significantly between countries and within the 50 states in the United States. This variation is related to different ecological and historical factors, psychological characteristics, and states. Later, Chua et al. (2019) used the CTLS to assess cultural tightness-looseness distance among 31 provinces and autonomous regions in China. In the latest research, it was indicated that within the same society, women are more susceptible to norm constraints than men, and gender bias in cultural tightness is positively correlated with gender inequality (Qin et al., 2023).

Although the CTLS developed by Gelfand et al. (2011) is the most influential measurement scale in cultural tightness-looseness, some scholars are not entirely satisfied with it. Research suggests that, among Chinese university students surveyed, the reverse-scored item 4 (People in this country have a great deal of freedom in deciding how they want to behave in most situations) reduces the scale's reliability and misleads the factor structure. Some even indicate excluding the first item (There are many social norms that people are supposed to abide by In this country) of the CTLS through item analysis (Leng et al., 2023). Nevertheless, the scale developed by Gelfand et al. (2011) remains the most widely used and accepted scale for measuring cultural tightness-looseness.

In this study, we use the scale developed by Chua et al. This scale consists of six items and has been used in a cultural looseness-tightness survey across 31 provinces in China, demonstrating satisfactory reliability and validity (Chua et al., 2019).

2.5 Research on Trust and Trust in Supervisor

Below, we will introduce the research progress from two perspectives: research on trust and research on trust in supervisors.

2.5.1 Research on Trust

Social exchange theory posits that social exchange is a voluntary activity based on mutual trust (Blau, 1964). In interpersonal interactions, reciprocal principles allow parties to form relationships and establish trust in the exchange, leading to social

exchange behaviours (feedback behaviours) (Oparaocha, 2016). Reciprocity is a sustainable positive state between exchange parties, and feedback behaviour is the specific conduct of treating the other party well, serving as both the foundation of reciprocity and the outcome derived from it (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Compared to economic exchange, social exchange is often open. It is the foundation for higher-quality interpersonal relationships, especially trust (Kingshott, 2006). In contrast, economic exchange is typically based on equivalent transactions involving lower levels of trust (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009).

Trust is a psychological state where one party has positive expectations about the intentions of another party and is willing to take risks without fearing that the other party will harm their interests (Mayer et al., 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998). It is a positive psychological state where the trustor places their vulnerability under the control of the trusted party based on positive expectations of the trusted party's intentions or behaviour (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Trust can generally be classified into cognitive trust and affective trust. Cognitive trust is the rational judgment of an individual on others' work ability, reliability, and character (e.g., integrity, honesty, fairness). On the other hand, affective trust stems from mutual care and concern, reflecting specific emotional connections between the parties involved (McAllister, 1995; Schaubroeck et al., 2011).

Trust further influences employees' work attitudes and behavioural performance as an individual psychological state. When employees trust their immediate

supervisors more and engage in reciprocal relationships, they exhibit positive organisational citizenship behaviours (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Organisational commitment is also enhanced, with employees making maximum efforts for organisational development, ultimately leading to improved individual and organisational performance.

Leadership trust encourages closer relationships between employees and management, making employees feel psychologically closer to management and treating them as "insiders." According to social exchange theory, this positive psychological state leads employees to engage in beneficial organisational behaviours. It strengthens their willingness to stay within the organisation, reducing the turnover intention within the workgroup (Ertürk, 2014).

2.5.2 Research on Trust in Supervisor

Since the 1960s, employees' trust in management has entered the academic research field and has been widely studied. Trust in management by employees is an essential concept in applied psychology and related disciplines. It represents a crucial aspect of organisational trust relationships and has positive implications for enhancing cohesion and improving work efficiency. For example, leadership theory research closely examines the relationship between leadership style and employee trust and work behaviour. Particularly in Chinese organisations, certain unique leadership

qualities, such as moral qualities and a paternalistic approach, profoundly impact employees' psychology and behaviour (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014).

Trust in the supervisor is a core component of interpersonal trust within an organisation, and it has significant effects on individual employee behaviour and organisational performance (Tan & Tan, 2000). Employees' trust in supervisors lies in their willingness to accept the risk of being exploited by supervisors based on positive expectations of supervisors' essential behaviours. The goodwill and integrity of supervisors can influence employees' trust in the supervisor, and the interaction between the two is built on the perception of trust (Mayer et al., 1995; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Research indicates differences in the relationship between cognitive and affective trust in leaders' and subordinates' behavioural performance. For instance, studies suggest that the impact of transformational leadership on subordinates' job performance is more transmitted through subordinates' cognitive trust in leaders (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014). On the other hand, Tian and Sanchez (2017) argue that paternalistic leadership's influence on subordinates' innovative behaviour is mediated by subordinates' affective trust in leaders (Tian & Sanchez, 2017). Additionally, scholars like Yang et al. (2009) propose that procedural justice mainly influences task performance through subordinates' cognitive trust in leaders and influences extra-role behaviours, such as helping behaviour, through affective trust.

Trust in the supervisor can encourage employees to better utilize their abilities. Research suggests that innovative ideas and behaviours involve risks for employees, as they are uncertain about how their immediate supervisors will respond and evaluate these new ideas and behaviours. They may even face errors and failures (George & Zhou, 2007). Team leaders typically hold the highest power in a team and are responsible for evaluating each member. Trusting leaders can enhance employees' motivation to engage in risky behaviours (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) and provide a safe atmosphere and environment for employee behaviours such as creativity.

The trust relationship between employees and team leaders provides a secure environment for employees to engage in proactive behaviours (Gong et al., 2013). Based on emotional trust, team members believe that leaders will support their creative activities and are more willing to guide their efforts toward achieving these goals, creating a safe environment that encourages creativity rather than hindering it (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

2.6 Summary of Literature Review

Based on the research questions raised earlier, this chapter reviews relevant literature, including psychological resilience, cross-cultural differences, job performance, cultural differences, trust in supervisors, etc. Firstly, reviewing relevant studies shows that addressing cultural differences is increasingly important for multinational enterprises. Some academic studies have explored the impact of

psychological resilience, but there is still a lack of research on the impact of psychological resilience of expatriates on job performance through samples from Chinese multinational corporations. Secondly, from the literature review in this section, it can be seen that psychological resilience has gradually become a research hotspot in fields such as organizational behavior and management. However, what is the mechanism by which psychological resilience affects the work performance of expatriate employees? More research is needed for in-depth discussion.

Chapter 3 Hypothesis Development and Research Framework

This chapter will propose five research hypotheses and a theoretical research framework. This will provide a theoretical foundation for subsequent empirical testing.

3.1 Psychological Resilience and Job Performance

The impact of psychological resilience on job performance has been explored in previous studies. Positive psychology theory posits that psychological resilience helps individuals resist external pressures, maintain normal work and life, and adapt positively to new environments (Palmer & Cooper, 2013). Through a survey of 334 employees, Wong et al. (2021) found that individuals engaged in higher-level work initially demonstrated higher psychological resilience. Additionally, in the gig economy, collaborative work contributes to the development of higher psychological resilience. Batool et al. (2022)'s research supported the significant influence of servant leadership on psychological resilience, with creativity and psychological resilience mediating the relationship between servant leadership and organisational adaptability. Hoşgör & Yaman (2022), during the COVID-19 pandemic, found that nurses with rich experience and high work enthusiasm exhibited higher levels of psychological resilience, and psychological resilience was positively correlated with job performance, contributing to enhanced nursing performance. Haddoud et al.(2022)'s

study with 180 market owners/managers in Egypt indicated a significant relationship between psychological resilience and entrepreneurial success in the tourism industry.

Furthermore, numerous studies have shown a significant positive relationship between various dimensions of psychological resilience and employee job performance. Factors such as hope, optimism, and tenacity within psychological resilience significantly promote job performance (Larson & Luthans, 2006). Tenacity involves a stronger commitment to oneself, a positive attitude towards the environment, and effective self-control, and individuals with more extraordinary tenacity are better able to cope with stressful events (Kobasa, 1979). Resilient individuals can maintain positive emotions for themselves and others in risky environments, contributing to focused attention and flexible problem-solving (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Brissette et al.(2002) survey of male and female college students in their first semester found that those with optimistic emotions could better adapt to stressful life events and maintain confidence in the face of setbacks. Tenney et al.(2015) indicated that having optimistic emotions improves outcomes when an individual's behaviour considerably impacts the results. Loftus et al.(2020) demonstrated that courage and optimism among surgeons, who frequently face unavoidable challenges and failures, contribute to their growth, strengthen their abilities, and ultimately improve performance. Based on the analysis above, this study replicates the following research hypothesis:

H1: Psychological resilience has a positive relationship with job performance.

3.2 Psychological Resilience and Cross-cultural Adjustment

Positive psychology theory posits that psychological resilience helps individuals resist external pressures, maintain normal work and life, and adapt positively to new environments (Palmer & Cooper, 2013). Despite facing setbacks, difficulties, and adversity, individuals with high psychological resilience can adapt and face challenges effectively. On the one hand, employees with high psychological resilience can maintain a positive attitude and approach problems with a proactive mindset when experiencing adversity, setbacks, or high-pressure situations. This enhances their ability to adapt to external environments to some extent. Further, individuals with higher psychological resilience have stronger recovery abilities. Despite setbacks or unfavourable circumstances, they can bounce back, maintain a positive mindset, and continue to work and live effectively (Palmer & Cooper, 2013). This is because individuals with high psychological resilience have confidence in themselves, persevere relentlessly to achieve their goals, and attain individual and organisational success.

When expatriates find themselves in a cross-cultural context, ample research indicates that individual factors, such as personality, motivation, and other factors, influence general adaptation (Caligiuri et al., 1999; Shaffer et al., 1999). The study by Connor & Davidson (2003) suggests that psychological resilience can be considered a criterion for evaluating the impact of stress on capabilities, representing traits or abilities that individuals exhibit when facing negative events, stress, adversity, etc., to

adapt to their environment. Empirical research shows that positive emotions enhance individuals' adaptability when facing negative events. When individuals overcome setbacks and bounce back, their adaptability strengthens, allowing them to perform better at work (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004).

Hechanova et al. (2003) through a meta-analysis found that individual factors are significant factors influencing expatriate adaptation. Similarly, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) in a meta-analysis reached a similar conclusion. Based on the above analysis, we posit that in a cross-cultural context, the psychological resilience of expatriate employees has a positive impact on cross-cultural adjustment.

H2: Psychological resilience is positively related to cross-cultural adjustment.

3.3 The Mediating Role of Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Young Yong Kim's cross-cultural adjustment integration theory defines a cross-cultural adjustment as "a dynamic process in which individuals, through repositioning themselves in a new culture, establish, maintain, stable, mutually beneficial, and functionally sound relationships with the new environment" (Kim, 2000). Expatriates go through a "stress-adaptation-growth dynamic" model, adapting to the driving force of a new culture, ultimately achieving personal growth.

Expatriation is also a rare career development opportunity for employees, allowing exposure to different business and cultural environments and enhancing comprehensive skills and competitiveness. The work of expatriates needs to adapt to

changes in work status and roles due to cross-cultural differences (Black, 1988). In a cross-cultural environment, expatriates must spend more time and effort addressing work-related issues (Shih et al., 2010). This can easily lead to negative outcomes such as employee dissatisfaction, increased turnover, and significant negative impacts on organisational performance and commitment (Aryee et al., 2005). The success of expatriation depends mainly on job adaptation (Breiden et al., 2006). The psychological resilience of expatriates can help individuals make adjustments in response to environmental changes, adapt to new challenges and pressures, and promote personal growth and development. Therefore, cross-cultural adjustment is an essential mediating factor in the impact of expatriate psychological resilience on job performance. Thus, we propose:

H3: Cross-cultural adjustment mediates the relationship between psychological resilience and job performance.

3.4 The Moderating Effect of Cultural Tightness

Cultural tightness reflects the cultural norms regarding the punishment intensity and severity of deviant behaviour. In a "tight" culture, norms are strong, resulting in strong punishment. In contrast, norms are weak in a "loose" culture, tolerance for deviant behaviour is high, and punishment is soft (Gelfand et al., 2011).

Research indicates that individuals in multicultural environments may experience communication difficulties due to social, cognitive, perceptual, and intellectual

differences between cultures, leading to conflicts arising from cultural differences (Alagözlü, 2017). Individuals with high psychological resilience actively seek positive meanings from negative events and use positive emotions to regulate their psychological states. Therefore, expatriates with high psychological resilience can better adjust their mindset to adapt to challenging cross-cultural environments (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004).

As the deepest social embedding and cultural formation level, cultural tightness influences the relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment. In environments with relatively loose cultural tightness, social normativity is weak, promoting an open and inclusive work atmosphere, allow for different ways of thinking and acting (Gelfand et al., 2011). In such an environment, employees are less affected by cross-cultural impact, and under the influence of psychological resilience, they will demonstrate higher cross-cultural adjustment (Gelfand et al., 2006).

H4: The looser the cultural tightness, the the stronger the positive relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment.

3.5 The Moderating Effect of Trust in Supervisor

Trust, as a psychological state, develops over time between two or more individuals and results from social exchange processes (Currall & Judge, 1995; Whitener et al., 1998). Trust in the supervisor is a core component of interpersonal

trust in organisations, significantly influencing individual behaviour and organisational performance (Tan & Tan, 2000).

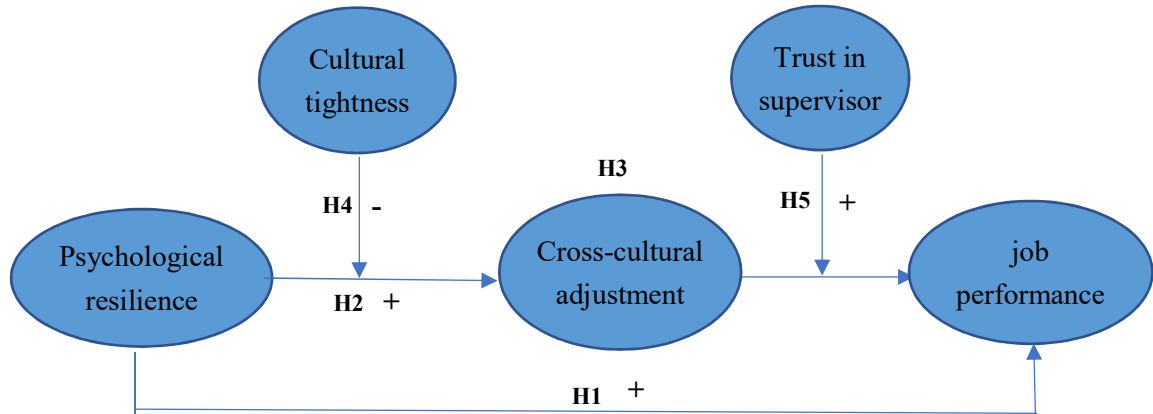
Trust in supervisors can amplify the impact of cross-cultural adjustment on job performance. Research on innovation (innovation is their job performance) suggests that trust in the supervisor is conducive to innovation. Innovative ideas and behaviours involve risks for employees, as they are uncertain about how their leaders will respond to and evaluate these new ideas and behaviours; they may even face errors and failures. Trust in the supervisor encourages employees to reduce concerns and boldly attempt innovations, thus promoting innovation among employees (George & Zhou, 2007). Similarly, facing the stress of cross-cultural shock, employees are uncertain how their supervisors will evaluate their adaptive behaviours and job performance. Such concerns can impact their adaptation and job performance. Trust in supervisors encourages expatriates to engage boldly in their work, leading to better performance in job-related aspects. Empirical research indicates that high-trust relationships are usually associated with subordinate job satisfaction (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). When employees perceive leaders as trustworthy, subordinates are more motivated to improve performance, thus magnifying the promoting effect of cross-cultural adjustment on job performance, resulting in higher job performance (Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994).

H5: The higher the trust in the supervisor, the the stronger the positive relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance.

In summary, the model framework depicting the above hypotheses is illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2

The conceptual model diagram



Chapter 4 Research Design

4.1 Sample and Data Collection Procedure

This study's questionnaire survey was conducted among Chinese expatriates employed by Chinese multinational corporations in Cambodia, Thailand, and Vietnam. The study was conducted in two rounds with a one-month interval to avoid common method bias issues associated with questionnaire completion. The first survey round was conducted in November 2023, targeting expatriates and collecting demographic information and psychological resilience scores. The second round of the survey took place one month later, from December 2023 to early January 2024. This round involved supervisors and expatriates: supervisors provided performance evaluations for expatriates, and expatriates completed surveys on cross-cultural adjustment, cultural tightness, and trust in the supervisor. The surveys were filled out anonymously, and matching was done based on expatriates' names to create complete sets. Each set of survey questionnaires included two rounds of surveys for expatriates and one questionnaire for the expatriates' supervisors.

In this study, a total of 33 supervisors of expatriates participated in our survey and rated the job performance of expatriates (see Table 2). On average, there were 6.94 subordinates of expatriate personnel under the same supervisor. Among them, supervisors with either one or two expatriates were the most common, with five such

supervisors; whereas the supervisor with the most expatriates had 28, although there was only one supervisor like this.

Table 2

Number of supervisors with the same subordinate employees

Number of expatriate employees	Supervisors	% of total supervisors
1.00	5	15.2
2.00	5	15.2
3.00	4	12.1
4.00	3	9.1
5.00	2	6.1
6.00	4	12.1
7.00	1	3.0
8.00	1	3.0
10.00	2	6.1
14.00	1	3.0
17.00	1	3.0
18.00	1	3.0
22.00	2	6.1
28.00	1	3.0
Total	33	100.0

In the first round of questionnaire survey in this study, 270 questionnaires were distributed to expatriates, and 251 questionnaires were collected, with a response rate of 92.96%. In the second round of questionnaire survey, 251 questionnaires were distributed to expatriates, and 233 questionnaires were collected, with a response rate of 92.83%; In the second round of questionnaire survey, 251 questionnaires were distributed to the superiors of expatriates, and 235 questionnaires were collected, with a response rate of 93.63%. After matching three survey questionnaires, a total of 230

sets of questionnaires were collected, 1 set was invalidated due to a high missing rate. A total of 229 valid questionnaires were collected. Among them, a total of 229 sets of valid questionnaires were collected, with 70 from Vietnam(30.6% of the total sample), 129 from Thailand (56.3% of the full sample), and 30 from Cambodia(13.1% of the full sample). Below are brief introductions to three Chinese multinational enterprises that distributed the survey questionnaires. For details, see Table 3.

Table 3

Number and proportion of host countries in the sample

Host countries	Sample Size	Proportion to total sample(%)	Total number of expatriates	Proportion of total expatriates (%)
Vietnam	70	30.6	85	82.35
Thailand	129	56.3	180	71.67
Cambodia	30	13.1	50	60

Chinese Multinational Enterprise 1: Chun Xue (Cambodia) Cashmere Textile Co., Ltd. was established in 2015 in Phnom Penh, Cambodia. It specialises in the production of high-end knitted products. The company employs over 2000 local Cambodian workers and 50 Chinese management personnel. The study collected 30 valid questionnaires from expatriates in Cambodia, accounting for 30.6% of the total sample.

Chinese Multinational Enterprise 2: New Thai Wheel Manufacturing Co., Ltd. (Thailand) was founded in 2010. The company has 1600 employees (including 180 Chinese expatriates) and an annual production capacity of 3 million aluminium alloy car wheels. It is an OEM supplier for renowned global brands such as BMW,

Mercedes-Benz, Audi, Fiat, Opel, Ford, General Motors, etc. The study collected 129 valid questionnaires from expatriates in Thailand, constituting 56.3% of the total sample.

Chinese Multinational Enterprise 3: Vietnam Ruisheng New Materials Co., Ltd. was founded in 2021, The company has 1150 employees, including 1065 Vietnamese and 85 Chinese employees. Chinese personnel mainly hold middle and senior management positions and technical roles. The study collected 70 valid questionnaires from expatriates in Vietnam, representing 13.1% of the total sample.

4.2 Measurement of Constructs

4.2.1 Dependent Variable: Job Performance

Based on the research question, this study will use job performance as the dependent variable and measure it using the Expatriate Performance Scale developed by Kraimer et al. (2001). This scale comprises task performance and contextual performance, each with three items, comprising six items. To address the issue of common method bias, the questionnaire for job performance was completed by the supervisors of the expatriate employees.

4.2.2 Independent Variable: Psychological Resilience

Based on the research question, this study will use psychological resilience as the independent variable and measure it using the CD-RISC(Connor & Davidson, 2003).

The CD-RISC was used to measure resilience (Connor & Davidson, 2003), consists of 25 items that describe various aspects of resilience, including adaptability, coping ability, toughness, meaningfulness, optimism, emotional regulation, and self-efficacy (Connor & Davidson, 2003). Scores for these items range from completely incorrect (0) to almost always correct (4), with higher scores indicating higher resilience. The CD-RISC is considered to have excellent psychometric properties among various resilience measures (Windle et al., 2011).

4.2.3 Mediating Variable: Cross-cultural Adjustment

We adopt the three-dimensional scale developed by Black & Stephens (1989), including 14 items across three dimensions to measure cross-cultural adjustment.

The first factor consists of 4 items measuring interactional adjustment with the host country. The second factor comprises seven items measuring general life adjustment. The third factor includes three items measuring work adjustment (Black & Stephens, 1989).

4.2.4 Moderating Variables: Cultural Tightness and Trust in Supervisor

This study includes two moderating variables: cultural tightness and trust in supervisors.

A scale developed by Chua et al. (2019) is employed to measure cultural tightness. This scale consists of 6 items and has previously been used in a cultural tightness survey in China, demonstrating satisfactory reliability and validity. The

measurement items include: (1) In this country, many social norms exist. (2) In this country, there are clear expectations about what actions should be taken in most situations. (3) In this country, there is much consensus about appropriate or inappropriate behaviour in most situations. (4) In this country, people can decide what to do in most situations. (5) In this country, if someone does something inappropriate, others strongly oppose it. (6) In this country, people almost always follow social norms.

A scale developed by Mayer, Schoorman, and Tan (2018) measures trust in the supervisor. The scale consists of 4 items: (1) I would be comfortable letting A influence important issues. (2) I would be willing to let A have control over my future. (3) I would be willing to let A have control over decisions that are important to me. (4) I would be comfortable having A have access to information that could adversely affect my reputation.

4.2.5 Control Variables

When exploring the impact mechanism of psychological resilience on job performance in this study, it was considered that the job performance of expatriates may also be influenced by their individual characteristics (gender, age, marital status, and host country) (Chen et al., 2010). To exclude the impact of these variables on job performance, these variables were treated as control variables.

4.3 Data Analysis Methods

This study utilised a questionnaire survey method to collect research data. Specifically, the questionnaires were distributed to expatriate and their supervisors. The study aims to draw conclusions through statistical analysis and provide optimisation suggestions for the operation of multinational enterprises.

Regarding the measurement model analysis, we primarily employed Amos for CFA. CFA examines whether the relationships between the variables and their corresponding measurement items align with the theoretical relationships designed by the researchers. Through CFA, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire data can be assessed, laying the measurement foundation for further hypothesis testing.

For hypothesis testing of variable relationships, we utilised SPSS 22 software for principal component analysis to obtain factors for each variable. We applied hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test theoretical hypotheses. To conduct an overall model test for the theoretical framework of this study, we also used the Process 4.1 plugin in SPSS for comprehensive analysis.

Chapter 5 Sample and Measurement Model Analysis

5.1 Sample Characteristics

This study collected a total of 229 sets of valid questionnaires. The distribution of sample characteristics, including host country, gender, marital status, age, education, and duration of expatriation, is detailed in Table 4.

In terms of the host country for expatriates in this study, there were 70 questionnaires from Vietnam, accounting for 30.6% of the total sample; 129 questionnaires from Thailand, representing 56.3% of the full sample; and 30 questionnaires from Cambodia, accounting for 13.1% of the full sample.

Regarding the gender of expatriates in this study, there were 190 males, constituting 83.0% of the total sample; 38 females, accounting for 16.6% of the full sample; and one omission or not filled out, making up 0.4% of the total sample.

Concerning the marital status of expatriates in this study, there were 33 unmarried individuals, representing 14.4% of the total sample; 189 married individuals, making up 82.5% of the full sample; and seven individuals with other marital statuses or not filled out, constituting 3.1% of the total sample.

In terms of the age of expatriates in this study, there were 26 individuals below 29 years old, accounting for 11.4% of the total sample; 116 individuals aged 30-39, making up 50.7% of the total sample; 55 individuals aged 40-49, representing 24.0% of the total sample; and 32 individuals aged 50 and above, constituting 14.0% of the full sample.

Concerning the education level of expatriates in this study, there were 123

individuals with high school or lower education, constituting 53.7% of the total sample; 59 individuals with college education, making up 25.8% of the full sample; 45 individuals with undergraduate education, representing 19.7% of the full sample; and two individuals with master's degree education, accounting for 0.9% of the total sample; and no individuals with a doctoral degree.

Regarding the duration of expatriation in this study, there were 35 individuals with less than six months of expatriation, accounting for 15.3% of the total sample; 41 individuals with more than six months but less than one year of expatriation, making up 17.9% of the full sample; 35 individuals with 1-2 years of expatriation, representing 15.3% of the full sample; 37 individuals with 2-3 years of expatriation, constituting 16.2% of the total sample; and 81 individuals with three years and above of expatriation, accounting for 35.4% of the full sample.

Table 4
Sample Characteristics

Sample characteristics	Thailand	Vietnam	Cambodia	Total	Proportion
Total	129	70	30	229	
Gender					
Male	121	55	14	190	82.97%
Female	7	15	16	38	16.59%
Other and miss	1	0		1	0.44%
Marital status					
Unmarried	17	15	1	33	14.41%
Married	110	50	29	189	82.53%
Other and miss	2	5	0	7	3.06%
Age					
<29 yrs old	15	10	1	26	11.35%
30-39 yrs old	78	36	2	116	50.66%
40-49 yrs old	35	17	3	55	24.02%
>50 yrs old	1	7	24	32	13.97%
Education					

High school or below	49	45	29	123	53.71%
Associate degree	37	21	1	59	25.76%
Undergraduate degree	41	4	0	45	19.65%
Master degree or PhD	2	0	0	2	0.87%
Time of expatriation					
Less than half a year	22	13	0	35	15.28%
Half a year to one year	13	28	0	41	17.90%
1-2 years	20	15	0	35	15.28%
2-3 years	23	14	0	37	16.16%
Over three years	51	0	30	81	35.37%

5.2 Assessment of Common Method Bias

Regarding the Common method bias (CMB) issue, this study implemented controls and checks from both the questionnaire survey procedures and statistical analysis perspectives.

In the questionnaire survey procedures, we surveyed in two rounds with a one-month interval to mitigate the potential for same-source error. In the first round, questionnaires were distributed to expatriates, collecting demographic information and psychological resilience scores. In the second round, questionnaires were distributed to both expatriates and their respective supervisors. The supervisor's questionnaire primarily assessed the job performance of expatriate employees. In contrast, expatriate employees completed scales on "cross-cultural adjustment" and "cultural tightness" and responded to the "trust in supervisor" scale regarding their supervisors. This approach introduced a one-month buffer between completing questionnaires related to independent, mediating, and dependent variables. This strategy minimises common method bias concerns in the questionnaire design and implementation process.

To examine whether there was a significant Common method bias issue in the questionnaire survey data, we followed the recommendation of Podsakoff et al. (2003) and employed Harman's single-factor test for diagnostic analysis. The principle of Harman's single-factor test involves 1) determining whether a single factor emerges and 2) assessing whether the first common factor explains the majority of the variance.

In this study, using SPSS22, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on the data from the 55 relevant items. The EFA results revealed nine initial eigenvalues greater than 1, indicating that there is more than one factor. Moreover, the most significant factor could only account for 28.547% of the variance, falling below the commonly accepted standard of 40%, and no factor explained a substantial portion of the variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). These findings suggest no severe common method bias issue in this study.

5.3 CFA, Reliability and Validity

5.3.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The confirmatory factor analysis results for various structures are presented in Table 5. This study referred to the approach of Li&Tan (2012) and test the χ^2 difference to compare the 5 factor model (model 5, including psychological resilience, cross-cultural adjustment, cultural tightness, trust in supervisor and job performance) and the null model(model 0), the 1 factor model(model 1, combining all factors), the 2 factor model(model 2, psychological resilience + cross-cultural adjustment + job performance, cultural tightness + trust in supervisor), the 3 factor model(model 3, psychological resilience + cross-cultural adjustment + job performance, cultural tightness, trust in supervisor), and the 4 factor model(model 4, psychological

resilience + cross-cultural adjustment, job performance, cultural tightness, trust in supervisor). It was found that of all fit indices, the 5 factor model was the best fit ($\chi^2=3324.41$, $df=1420$, $\chi^2/df =2.34$, $RMSEA=0.077$, $CFI=0.80$, $TLI=0.79$, $RMR=0.068$).

Table 5

Model fit comparison between alternative models and 5 factors model

	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	RMR	Comp	Δdf	$\Delta\chi^2$
Criteria	-	-	≤ 3	≤ 0.08	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	≤ 0.08	-	-	-
Model 0-null	10832.97	1485	7.29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Model 1-1fac	7781.61	1430	5.44	0.140	0.32	0.29	0.150	1 vs 0	55	3051.35***
Model 2-2fac	6913.15	1429	4.84	0.130	0.41	0.39	0.171	2 vs 1	1	868.46***
Model 3-3fac	5619.08	1427	3.94	0.114	0.55	0.53	0.133	3 vs 2	2	1294.08***
Model 4-4fac	5137.49	1424	3.61	0.107	0.60	0.59	0.121	4 vs 3	3	481.59***
Model 5-5fac	3324.41	1420	2.34	0.077	0.80	0.79	0.068	5 vs 4	4	1813.08***

5.3.2 Reliability and Validity

5.3.2.1 Reliability

The Cronbach's alpha reliability, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and correlation coefficients for each variable in this study are presented in Table 6. According to Table 6, Cronbach's alpha reliability for Job Performance is 0.88, with a CR of 0.93. The Cronbach's alpha reliability for Psychological Resilience is 0.94, with a CR of [value]. The Cronbach's alpha reliability for Cross-cultural Adjustment is 0.95, with a CR of 0.98. The Cronbach's alpha reliability for Cultural Tightness is 0.95, with a CR of 0.95. The Cronbach's alpha reliability for trust in supervisors is 0.96, with a CR of 0.96. All variables exhibit high reliability, exceeding 0.8, indicating reliable consistency in the measurements of this study as verified by the reliability tests.

Table 6*Reliability, AVE and Correlation Coefficients of Variables*

Variables	Cronbach's alpha	AVE	1	2	3	4
1. Job performance	0.88	0.70	1			
2. Psychological resilience	0.94	0.67	0.23***	1		
3. Cross-cultural adjustment	0.95	0.75	0.19***	0.39***	1	
4. Cultural tightness	0.95	0.76	-0.22**	-0.31**	-0.38**	1
5. Trust in supervisor	0.96	0.86	0.44***	0.03	-0.06	-0.22**

Note: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

5.3.2.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity and discriminant validity are components of validity testing. A measurement scale is considered convergent validity when the variance of all individual indicators and structures is more significant than measurement errors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This implies meeting two criteria: first, the factor loading coefficients of the indicator variables should be greater than 0.707, ensuring that the variance extracted from the measurement indicators is greater than measurement errors; second, the extracted average variance (AVE) should be greater than 0.5, indicating that the explained variance for the construct is greater than 50%.

For Job Performance, the factor loadings (standardised) between 0.795 and 0.909, all exceeding 0.707, satisfying the first criterion. Additionally, the AVE for Job Performance is 0.704, exceeding 0.5, fulfilling the second criterion. Hence, it can be considered to have convergent validity.

For Psychological Resilience, the factor loadings (standardised) between 0.624 and 0.864, mostly exceeding 0.6, satisfying the first criterion. Moreover, the AVE for Psychological Resilience is 0.672, exceeding 0.5, fulfilling the second criterion. Therefore, it can be considered to have convergent validity.

For Cross-cultural Adjustment, the factor loadings (standardized) between 0.799 and 0.909, all exceeding 0.7, satisfying the first criterion. The AVE for cross-cultural adjustment is also 0.751, exceeding 0.5 and fulfilling the second criterion. Hence, it can be considered to have convergent validity.

For Cultural Tightness, the factor loadings (standardized) between 0.648 and 0.949, mostly exceeding 0.6, satisfying the first criterion. Moreover, the AVE for Cultural Tightness is 0.764, exceeding 0.5, fulfilling the second criterion. Therefore, it can be considered to have convergent validity.

For trust in the supervisor, the factor loadings (standardized) between 0.905 and 0.962, all exceeding 0.7, satisfying the first criterion. Additionally, the AVE for trust in the supervisor is 0.862, exceeding 0.5, fulfilling the second criterion. Hence, it can be considered to have convergent validity.

5.3.2.3 Discriminant Validity

According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), discriminant validity is established when the AVE values of all variables are greater than the squared values of the correlation coefficients between variables. As seen in table 6, the AVE values for the variables in this study are as follows: Job Performance (0.704), Psychological Resilience (0.672), Cross-cultural Adjustment (0.751), Cultural Tightness (0.764), and trust in supervisor (0.862). The AVE values for all five variables range from 0.672 to 0.862, with the minimum value being 0.672. The correlation coefficients between variables in Table 6 range from 0.025 to 0.443, with the maximum value being 0.443. Therefore, the maximum squared value of the correlation coefficients between factors is 0.196 (0.443×0.443), less than the minimum AVE value of 0.672. Hence, for all variables in this study, the AVE values are greater than the squared values of the

correlation coefficients between variables, indicating that the measurement model in this study has discriminant validity.

These results demonstrate that the measurement in this study exhibits satisfactory reliability and validity, supporting the subsequent statistical analysis of relationships between variables.

Chapter 6 Hypothesis Testing and Further Analysis

6.1 Hypotheses Testing

Table 7 presents the descriptive statistics of the research variables. The results show that all variables are significantly related to job performance and in the expected direction. Specifically, psychological resilience is positively correlated with job performance ($r=0.23$, $p<0.01$), cross-cultural adjustment is positively correlated with psychological resilience ($r=0.39$, $p<0.01$), and job performance ($r=0.19$, $p<0.01$).

Table 7

Descriptive statistics and correlations for study variables (N = 229)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	1.17	0.37									
2. Marital status	1.88	0.40	-0.07								
3. Age	2.41	0.87	.21**	.38**							
4. Host country	1.57	0.71	.42**	0.04	.48**						
5. Psychological resilience	3.00	1.07	-0.03	0.12	.20**	0.05	(0.94)				
6. Cross-cultural adjustment	5.41	17.93	0.11	0.10	0.13	0.04	.39**	(0.95)			
7. Cultural tightness	3.97	1.76	-0.07	-0.10	-.15*	-0.03	-.31**	-.38**	(0.95)		
8. Trust in supervisor	4.50	1.74	.18**	.140*	.29**	.352**	0.03	-0.06	-.22**	(0.96)	
9. Job performance	4.94	1.63	0.06	0.02	.26**	.29**	.23**	.19**	-.22**	.44**	(0.88)

Note: ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$.

Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female.

Marital status: 1= Unmarried, 2= Married, 3= Other

Host country : 1=Thailand, 2=Vietnam, 3=Cambodia

Alpha coefficients are reported on the diagonal in parentheses.

To test the theoretical hypotheses of this study, we applied SPSS 22 software for principal component analysis to derive factors for psychological resilience, cross-cultural adjustment, cultural tightness, trust in supervisor, and job performance. Since the country of assignment, marital status, and gender are categorical variables,

this study employed a Generalized Linear Model (GLM) with the use of dummy variables for hypothesis testing.

Table 8 shows the results of the analysis on the impact of psychological resilience on job performance. Control variables include gender, marital status, age, and host country. Considering the impact of categorical variables, in the analysis, gender was treated with 1=male as the reference group, marital status with 1=unmarried as the reference group, and host country with 1=Thailand as the reference group. The analysis results indicate that the impact of psychological resilience on job performance is significant, with a coefficient greater than zero ($\beta=0.17$, standard error=0.07), and a chi-square value of 6.88 (degrees of freedom=1, $P<0.01$), thus supporting Hypothesis 1 that psychological resilience has a positive effect on job performance.

Table 8

The impact of psychological resilience on job performance

Independent variable	B	Standard Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.
(Intercept)	-0.30	0.21	-0.72	0.11	2.08	1	0.15
[gender=2]	-0.04	0.17	-0.37	0.30	0.05	1	0.82
age	0.13	0.09	-0.05	0.30	1.96	1	0.16
[marital status=3]	-0.40	0.42	-1.22	0.41	0.94	1	0.33
[marital status =2]	-0.11	0.19	-0.49	0.27	0.33	1	0.56
[host country =3]	0.83	0.21	0.42	1.25	15.32***	1	0.00
[host country =2]	-0.02	0.15	-0.31	0.26	0.03	1	0.87
psychological resilience	0.17	0.07	0.04	0.30	6.88***	1	0.01

Note: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.10$.

Gender coded as 1 = male for the reference group, marital status coded as 1 = unmarried for the reference group, and the host country coded as 1 = Thailand for the reference group.

Table 9 presents the analysis results on the impact of psychological resilience on

cross-cultural adjustment. The results indicate that the impact of psychological resilience on cross-cultural adjustment is significant, with a coefficient greater than zero ($\beta=0.33$, standard error=0.06), and a chi-square value of 25.27 (degrees of freedom=1, $P<0.01$), thus supporting Hypothesis 2 that psychological resilience has a positive effect on cross-cultural adjustment.

Table 9

The impact of psychological resilience on cross-cultural adjustment

Independent variable	B	Standard Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.
(Intercept)	-0.10	0.21	-0.51	0.31	0.23	1	0.63
[gender=2]	0.39	0.17	0.06	0.72	5.26**	1	0.02
age	0.06	0.09	-0.11	0.23	0.47	1	0.50
[marital status=3]	0.45	0.41	-0.36	1.26	1.19	1	0.28
[marital status =2]	0.04	0.19	-0.33	0.42	0.05	1	0.82
[host country =3]	-0.26	0.21	-0.67	0.15	1.57	1	0.21
[host country =2]	-0.40	0.15	-0.68	-0.11	7.41***	1	0.01
psychological resilience	0.33	0.06	0.20	0.45	25.27***	1	0.00

Note: *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.10$.

Gender coded as 1 = male for the reference group, marital status coded as 1 = unmarried for the reference group, and the host country coded as 1 = Thailand for the reference group.

Table 10 presents the results of the analysis on the impact of psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment on job performance. The results show that, upon including the effect of cross-cultural adjustment (with a chi-square value of 4.16, degrees of freedom=1, $p<0.05$), the coefficient for psychological resilience decreases from 0.17 to 0.13, and its significance level drops from 0.01 to 0.06. This change signifies that the effect becomes non-significant from the perspective of a significance level of 0.05. Therefore, cross-cultural adjustment acts as a full mediator between psychological resilience and job performance.

Table 10

The impact of psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment on job performance

Independent variable	B	Standard Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.
(Intercept)	-0.29	0.21	-0.70	0.12	1.93	1	0.16
[gender=2]	-0.09	0.17	-0.43	0.24	0.28	1	0.59
age	0.12	0.09	-0.06	0.29	1.74	1	0.19
[marital status=3]	-0.47	0.42	-1.28	0.35	1.26	1	0.26
[marital status =2]	-0.12	0.19	-0.50	0.26	0.38	1	0.54
[host country =3]	0.87	0.21	0.45	1.28	16.85***	1	0.00
[host country =2]	0.03	0.15	-0.26	0.32	0.04	1	0.84
psychological resilience	0.13	0.07	-0.01	0.26	3.48*	1	0.06
cross-cultural adjustment	0.14	0.07	0.01	0.27	4.16**	1	0.04

Note: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.10.

Gender coded as 1 = male for the reference group, marital status coded as 1 = unmarried for the reference group, and the host country coded as 1 = Thailand for the reference group.

Table 11 presents the results of the analysis on the moderating effect of cultural tightness on the relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment. The results indicate that the coefficient for the interaction term between psychological resilience and cultural tightness is less than zero ($\beta=-0.16$, $SE<0.06$), and is significant at the 0.01 level (chi-square value = 6.11, degrees of freedom = 1, $p<0.01$). This finding suggests that cultural tightness negatively moderates the relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment, meaning the looser the cultural tightness, the more pronounced the impact of psychological resilience on cross-cultural adaptability. The study results support Hypothesis 4.

Table 11

Cultural tightness moderating the relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment

Independent variable	B	Standard Error	95% Wald Confidence Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.
			(Intercept)	-0.07	0.20	-0.46	0.32
[gender=2]	0.29	0.16	-0.03	0.60	3.15*	1	0.08
age	0.04	0.08	-0.12	0.21	0.27	1	0.60
[marital status=3]	0.45	0.39	-0.32	1.22	1.32	1	0.25
[marital status =2]	-0.02	0.18	-0.38	0.34	0.01	1	0.91
[host country =3]	-0.24	0.20	-0.63	0.16	1.40	1	0.24
[host country =2]	-0.29	0.14	-0.57	-0.02	4.31**	1	0.04
psychological resilience	0.28	0.06	0.15	0.40	19.01***	1	0.00
cultural tightness	-0.21	0.07	-0.34	-0.08	10.50***	1	0.00
psychological resilience * cultural tightness	-0.16	0.06	-0.28	-0.03	6.11***	1	0.01

Note: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.10.

Gender coded as 1 = male for the reference group, marital status coded as 1 = unmarried for the reference group, and the host country coded as 1 = Thailand for the reference group.

Table 12 provides the results of the analysis on the moderating effect of trust in supervisor on the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance. The results show that the coefficient for the interaction term between psychological resilience and cultural tightness is greater than zero ($\beta=0.27$, $SE<0.05$), and is significant at the 0.01 level (chi-square value = 30.93, degrees of freedom = 1, $p<0.01$). This indicates that trust in supervisor significantly and positively moderates the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance, meaning that the more an individual trusts their supervisor, the more pronounced the impact of cross-cultural adaptability on job performance. The study results support Hypothesis 5.

Table 12

Trust in supervisor moderating the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance

Independent variable	B	Standard Error	95% Wald		Hypothesis Test		
			Confidence Interval		Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
(Intercept)	0.16	0.19	-0.20	0.53	0.77	1	0.38
[gender=2]	-0.29	0.15	-0.58	-0.01	3.98**	1	0.05
age	0.06	0.08	-0.08	0.21	0.71	1	0.40
[marital status=3]	-0.56	0.35	-1.26	0.13	2.54	1	0.11
[marital status =2]	-0.35	0.17	-0.67	-0.02	4.37**	1	0.04
[host country =3]	0.64	0.18	0.29	1.00	12.70***	1	0.00
[host country =2]	-0.14	0.12	-0.38	0.10	1.36	1	0.24
cross-cultural adjustment	0.18	0.05	0.08	0.29	11.30***	1	0.00
Trust in supervisor	0.35	0.06	0.23	0.46	36.88***	1	0.00
cross-cultural adjustment							
* Trust in supervisor	0.27	0.05	0.17	0.36	30.93***	1	0.00

Note: *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.10.

Gender coded as 1 = male for the reference group, marital status coded as 1 = unmarried for the reference group, and the host country coded as 1 = Thailand for the reference group.

6.2 Further Analysis

Regarding the impact of psychological resilience on job performance, it is worth noting that according to the previous analysis results, cross-cultural adjustment is a full mediator of the impact of psychological resilience on job performance (after adding the influence of cross-cultural adjustment, the regression coefficient of psychological resilience decreased from 0.17 to 0.13, and the significance decreased from 0.01 to 0.06, that is, from a significance perspective of 0.05, from significant to insignificant). That is to say, there is only an indirect effect through cross-cultural adjustment between them, and no direct effect. Therefore, from the perspective of multivariate relationships, this study supports hypothesis 3, but since psychological resilience does not have a direct impact on job performance, the results of multivariate

analysis do not support hypothesis 1.

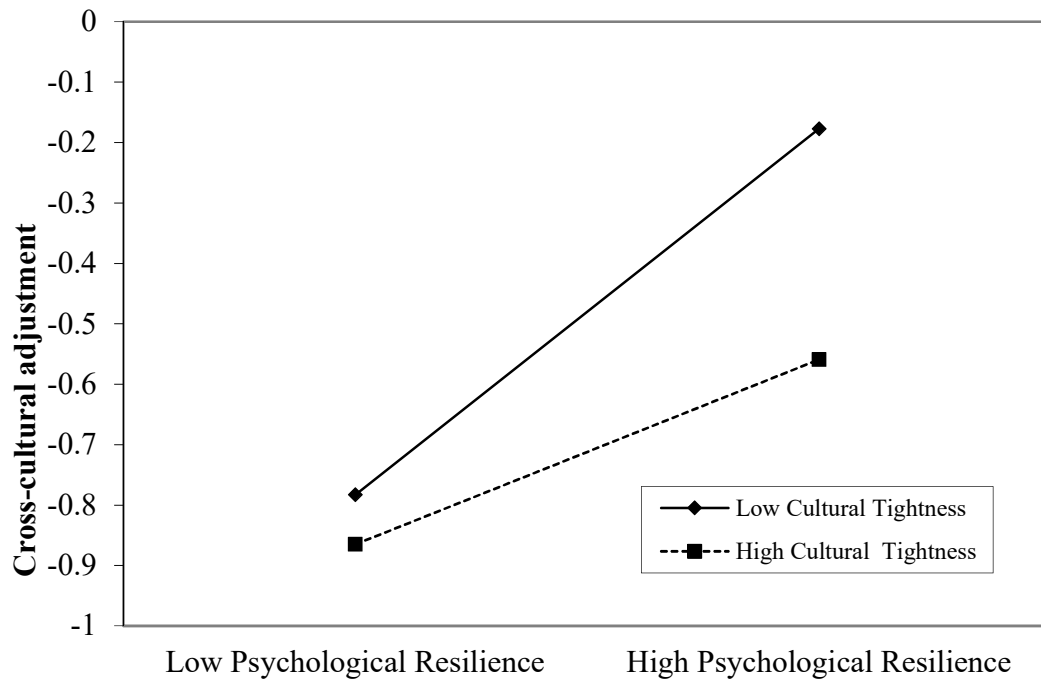
Regarding the moderating effect of cultural tightness, Table 11 shows that cultural tightness moderates the relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment with a negative moderation effect coefficient of -0.16 ($p < 0.05$). This indicates that in a loose cultural context, the impact of psychological resilience on cross-cultural adjustment is more pronounced.

It is worth noting that cultural tightness negatively correlates with cross-cultural adjustment, with a coefficient of -0.21 ($p < 0.01$). In other words, employees tend to adapt to cross-cultural situations in a loose cultural context more quickly. This may be because employees feel more secure in a loose cultural background and are more likely to be tolerant and accepted. Therefore, people can rapidly adapt to cross-cultural situations in such a cultural atmosphere.

To visually illustrate the moderating effect of cultural tightness on the relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment, Figure 3 displays the moderation effect, with high and low groups representing plus and minus one standard deviation, respectively. Figure 3 shows a positive correlation between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment, regardless of loose or tight cultural contexts. However, in loose cultural contexts, the slope of the relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment is steeper, indicating a stronger positive relationship. Additionally, due to the direct negative impact of cultural tightness on cross-cultural adjustment, the overall effect suggests that the line for loose culture is above the line for tight culture.

Figure 3

The moderating effect of cultural tightness



As a deep-seated social embedding and cultural form of a country or region, the cultural tightness experienced by expatriates to three host countries may be different. Table 13 presents the results of the analysis of variance on the cultural tightness experienced by expatriates in Thailand, Vietnam, and Cambodia. The results showed that the average score of cultural tightness experienced by expatriates in Vietnam is 4.688, significantly higher than the scores of Thailand (average score is 3.730) and Cambodia (average score is 3.344), indicating that expatriates feel there is a stronger normative culture in Vietnam.

Table 13

Analysis of variance of cultural tightness perceived by expatriates in three host countries

	Host countries (M±SD)			F-value	Sig.
	Thailand (n=129)	Vietnam (n=70)	Cambodia (n=30)		
Cultural tightness	3.730±1.507	4.688±1.491	3.344±1.476	12.307	0.000

Regarding the moderating effect of trust in supervisors, from the results of Table 12, it is evident that trust in supervisors has a positive moderating effect on the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance, with a moderation effect coefficient of 0.35 ($p < 0.01$). This implies that in situations with high supervisor trust, the impact of cross-cultural adjustment on job performance is more pronounced than in situations with low supervisor trust.

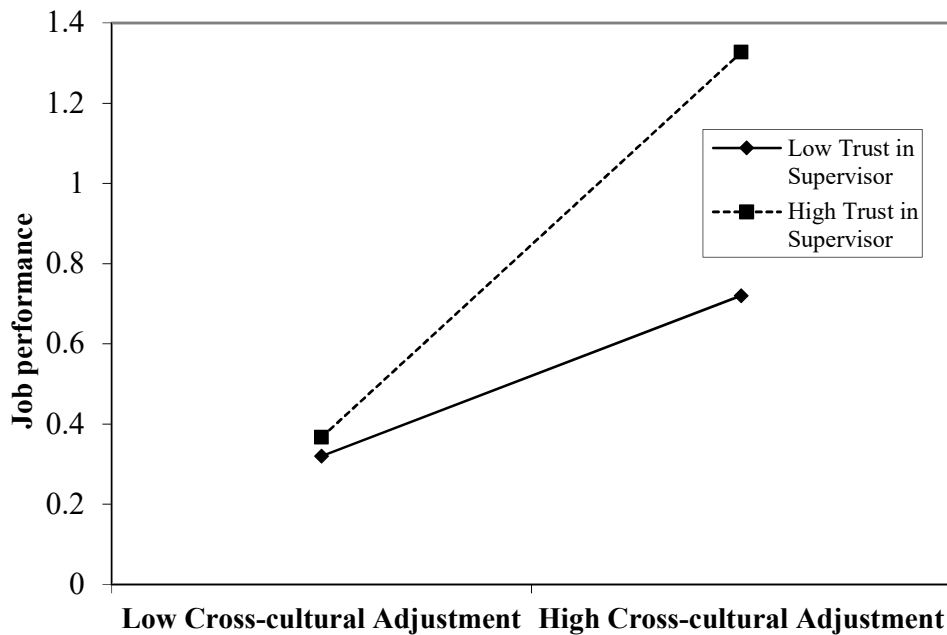
Simultaneously, trust in supervisors positively and significantly impacts expatriates' job performance, with a coefficient of 0.27 ($p < 0.01$). This suggests that in situations of high trust in supervisors, expatriate personnel's cross-cultural adjustment will result in higher job performance output, indicating the positive significance of trust in supervisors for job performance.

To visually illustrate the moderating effect of supervisor trust on the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance, Figure 4 displays the moderation effect, with high and low groups representing plus and minus one standard deviation, respectively. Figure 4 shows that supervisor trust acts as an amplifier, magnifying the positive correlation between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance. In other words, in situations with high supervisor trust, the slope of

the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance is noticeably steeper, indicating a more pronounced positive relationship.

Figure 4

The moderating effect of trust in supervisor



In addition, although the measurement of job performance in this study was using a widely used scale developed by Kraimer et al. (2001) in the field of studying expatriates, the scale includes two dimensions: task performance and expatriate contextual performance. The expatriate contextual performance dimension is highly correlated with cross-cultural adaptation and psychological resilience. Therefore, I attempted to use only the task performance dimension as a substitute variable for job performance for analysis. The alpha reliability of the task performance dimension for the three items is 0.889, indicating that the measurement of this dimension is reliable. The impact of psychological resilience on task performance dimensions is shown in Table 14, and the impact of psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment on task performance dimensions is shown in Table 15. Based on these results, it can be

found that the impact of psychological resilience on task performance dimensions is not significant. This result also indicates that the psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates play a more important role in the expatriate contextual.

Table 14

The impact of psychological resilience on task performance

Independent variable	95% Wald Confidence						
	B	Standard Error	Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.
(Intercept)	-.115	.2153	-.537	.307	.286	1	.593
[gender=2]	-.150	.1742	-.491	.192	.737	1	.391
age	.073	.0918	-.107	.253	.632	1	.427
[marital status=3]	-.368	.4266	-1.204	.468	.744	1	.388
[marital status =2]	-.057	.1989	-.447	.333	.082	1	.775
[host country =3]	.754	.2170	.329	1.179	12.070	1	.001
[host country =2]	-.274	.1501	-.569	.020	3.338	1	.068
psychological resilience	.076	.0671	-.055	.208	1.298	1	.255

Table 15

The impact of psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment on task performance

Independent variable	95% Wald Confidence						
	B	Standard Error	Interval		Hypothesis Test		
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Wald Chi-Square	df	Sig.

(Intercept)	-.102	.2136	-.521	.317	.228	1	.633
[gender=2]	-.201	.1747	-.543	.142	1.322	1	.250
age	.065	.0912	-.114	.244	.508	1	.476
[marital status=3]	-.428	.4242	-1.259	.404	1.017	1	.313
[marital status =2]	-.063	.1973	-.449	.324	.100	1	.751
[host country =3]	.789	.2160	.366	1.212	13.345	1	.000
[host country =2]	-.222	.1513	-.518	.075	2.148	1	.143
psychological resilience	.033	.0701	-.104	.171	.223	1	.637
cross-cultural adjustment	.133	.0680	.000	.266	3.814	1	.051

Chapter 7 Conclusions, Implications and Limitations

7.1 Conclusions

The issue of cross-cultural adjustment and job performance among expatriate employees is one of the management concerns in today's economic globalisation. This study, conducted in Thailand, Vietnam, and Cambodia, collected 229 valid questionnaires to explore the impact of expatriates' psychological resilience on job performance. The study conducted an analysis of the mediating and moderating mechanisms, yielding meaningful conclusions as follows.

Firstly, the empirical results from the sample collected in Thailand, Vietnam, and Cambodia indicate a significant positive correlation between expatriates' psychological resilience and job performance. This finding suggests that factors such as hope, optimism, and resilience within psychological resilience play a significant positive role in job performance (Larson & Luthans, 2006), and this perspective remains valid when applied to expatriate employees. The results of this study are generally consistent with previous research, extending the application boundaries of psychological resilience theory and providing positive insights for the study of expatriate employees.

Secondly, the empirical results of this study demonstrate that psychological resilience affects job performance through its impact on cross-cultural adjustment. This conclusion deepens our understanding of how expatriates' psychological resilience influences job performance and emphasises the importance of addressing expatriate employees' cross-cultural adjustment.

Furthermore, this study introduces the theory of cultural tightness into the psychological resilience of expatriates, explores the moderating effect of cultural

tightness perception on the relationship between psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment, and expands the application field of cultural tightness theory, enriching the research on cultural tightness theory. In addition, the study results indicate that the relationship between expatriates' psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment is moderated by cultural tightness. In loose cultures, the impact of expatriates' psychological resilience on cross-cultural adjustment is more pronounced. This provides inspiration for creating a loose culture and enhancing cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate employees.

Lastly, the research results indicate that the moderating effect of trusting in superiors acts as an amplifier, amplifying the positive correlation between cross-cultural adaptation and work performance. The positive impact of trusting in supervisors on individual job performance has been supported by many empirical studies (Li and Tan, 2012). This study collected samples in Thailand, Vietnam, and Cambodia, supplementing and enriching evidence of trust in supervisors playing a positive role in expatriate. The study results indicate that in situations with high trust in supervisors, the slope of the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and job performance is significantly steeper, indicating a more pronounced effect.

7.2 Implications

In the wave of globalisation, enterprises often need to expatriate employees to different countries and regions to pursue larger market shares and broader business coverage. However, overcoming the challenges and risks in the expatriation process and improving the success rate and effectiveness of expatriation are questions that enterprises need to consider and explore deeply. This study provides insights for enterprises to leverage the potential of multinational expatriates better and

successfully implement globalisation strategies.

Firstly, when selecting expatriate employees, it is important to consider their psychological resilience. The empirical research results in three countries (Cambodia, Thailand, and Vietnam) indicate a positive impact of expatriates' psychological resilience on cross-cultural adjustment and job performance. This study provides a basis for managers to make informed decisions in expatriate selection, considering individual psychological resilience as one of the criteria. At the same time, multinational corporations should pay attention to the cultivation of psychological resilience among expatriate employees, providing them with the necessary support and training to help them better cope with the challenges of cross-cultural adjustment. In a cross-cultural context, expatriate employees need to flexibly deal with various complex situations and environmental changes. Individuals with high psychological resilience are able to adapt to new environments more quickly, better handle emergencies and complex problems, and improve work efficiency.

Secondly, in cross-cultural management, companies should prioritize the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate employees. The results of this study indicate that cross-cultural adjustment is the main pathway through which the psychological resilience of expatriate employees impacts job performance. Therefore, it is very necessary to focus on the cross-cultural adjustment work of expatriate employees. Cross-cultural adjustment helps expatriate employees better integrate into new cultural environments, enhances their communication skills, enables them to understand others' intentions and needs more accurately, avoids communication misunderstandings and conflicts, thereby improving work efficiency. Hence, cross-cultural adjustment plays a crucial role in the professional development and personal growth of expatriate employees. Companies and organizations should value

the cultivation of cross-cultural adjustment in expatriate employees, providing them with the necessary support and training to help them better adapt to new cultural environments, achieving mutual development of both individuals and the organization.

Secondly, when engaging in cross-cultural management, enterprises should emphasise the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate employees. Cross-cultural adjustment is a crucial pathway influencing the job performance of expatriate employees. Therefore, in cross-cultural management, efforts should be made to enhance the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate employees. Strategies can be developed based on the adaptation stages and the development stages of psychological resilience. For instance, before and at the beginning of expatriation, organising learning sessions for expatriates to understand the host country's politics, culture, customs, and laws can help reduce the impact of cultural differences. Secondly, the parent company should provide sufficient organisational support to help expatriates' families address issues at home and minimise the impact of cultural differences from external sources. Thirdly, interventions and guidance for expatriate employees should be implemented, such as assistance from psychological experts and organising psychological counselling activities. Lastly, when the expatriate adaptation state is relatively stable, managers can provide more encouragement and affirmative measures to stabilise the individual's psychological resilience in daily work.

Thirdly, Enterprises should strengthen the creation of a relaxed cultural atmosphere in cross-cultural management. The study results suggest that a loose and inclusive cultural atmosphere will benefit the impact of expatriate employees' psychological resilience on cross-cultural adjustment, thereby improving job performance. A loose cultural atmosphere provides a supportive environment for

expatriate employees, making them feel accepted and understood. In such an environment, employees are more likely to build confidence and actively face the challenges of cross-cultural adjustment, thus facilitating adaptation to the impact of cross-cultural differences.

Finally, for multinational businesses, enhancing employees' trust in supervisors will magnify the positive impact of expatriate employees' cross-cultural adjustment on job performance. Therefore, companies should actively conduct initiatives to promote trust in supervisors. For instance, to enhance this trust, supervisors should demonstrate transparency and approachability and engage in positive communication with employees, fostering a culture of open communication and feedback (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001). Supervisor trust promotes job performance through psychological availability and safety, which is particularly crucial for expatriate employees (Li & Tan, 2013).

7.3 Limitations

Based on empirical data from Chinese expatriates in Cambodia, Thailand, and Vietnam, this study contributes academically and provides practical insights into how expatriates' psychological resilience influences job performance. However, the research has certain limitations and suggests directions for future studies.

Firstly, this study relies on cross-sectional data for model validation. The psychological resilience and cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate employees constitute a dynamic process. Therefore, future research should consider longitudinal studies to validate the changing curves.

Secondly, the study samples are exclusively from developing Southeast Asian countries, exhibiting distinct regional characteristics. Therefore, caution should be

exercised when generalising the research findings to non-Southeast Asian developing countries or other host countries with significant cultural differences. Future research could collect samples from different host countries in Europe, America, Asia, etc., to enhance the generalizability of research conclusions.

Finally, this study employed samples from Chinese expatriate enterprises, and the research conclusions may apply to countries with situations similar to China and roughly similar levels of development. However, whether these conclusions apply to developed countries or countries with relatively lower development levels requires further discussion. Future research could collect samples from countries with different cultural backgrounds to validate and modify the process model.

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