



Vaasan yliopisto
UNIVERSITY OF VAASA

OSUVA Open
Science

This is a self-archived – parallel published version of this article in the publication archive of the University of Vaasa. It might differ from the original.

Managing global and migrant workers

Author(s): Brewster, Chris; Dickmann, Michael; Mäkelä, Liisa; Suutari, Vesa

Title: Managing global and migrant workers

Year: 2017

Version: Accepted manuscript

Copyright ©2017 Palgrave Macmillan.

Please cite the original version:

Brewster, C., Dickmann, M., Mäkelä, L., & Suutari, V., (2017). Managing global and migrant workers. In: Kramar, R., & Syed, J. (eds), *Human resource management : a global and critical perspective* (pp. 359–378). Palgrave Macmillan.

Managing global and migrant workers

Brewster, C., Dickmann, M., Mäkelä, L. & V. Suutari

Intended Learning Objectives

After reading this chapter, the reader will

- 1) understand the different forms of international work;
- 2) be familiar with benefits and problems involved with each type of international work both from individual and organizational perspective;
- 3) understand the issues involved in the management of different types of international work within international organizations.

Brief Summary of Chapter

The international workforce has existed since slaves built the pyramids. But international work has been increasing substantially in recent decades. With it, the interest in how to manage international workers, their talent and global careers has grown. In this chapter we are exploring key forms of international work. We use the length of international assignment as our template and concentrate on international business travellers (IBTs); short-term assignees, company-sponsored long-term expatriates (AEs), self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) and global careerists. We also discuss immigration related mobility of labour. Throughout the text we will investigate contextual, strategic, operational and individual influences and will put a particular focus on how organizations can manage their international workers.

Mini Case Study

“Cool International”

‘Cool International’ is a UK based multinational which has expanded rapidly into European, Asian and South American markets over the two decades through acquisitions and joint ventures. Their global strategy envisaged a rapid growth in the BRIC countries – Brazil, Russia, India, China – as well as other emerging markets. As a result, the character of the company was fundamentally altered and it now has far more business by turnover and profit from international activities than in the UK.

Due to the very rapid growth in the pace of internationalisation, shortages of international managers emerged as a significant problem. The implementation of the global strategy was increasingly constrained by shortages of international management talent which threatened corporate efforts to expand abroad. As a result the company undertook a strategic review of the requirements of resourcing key positions in international operations. This review suggested that the company should shift away from a reliance on traditional expatriate assignments and towards a more flexible form of resourcing international assignments through the introduction of shorter term assignments, international commuter assignments (staff commute from home base while family remains at home) and international business travel [see below for details of these forms of international work]. Increased localization and the establishment of a truly global talent management approach were also considered.

The changes in their global mobility approach were broadly successful and facilitated the company’s continued global expansion and the contribution of international operations to revenues continues to expand. Corporate executives indicate that they feel this success would have been constrained without the introduction of more flexible international staffing arrangements. However, the key problem that ‘Cool International’ encountered was not related to these workers but to their difficulties in encouraging their managers to accept traditional, long-term foreign assignments. One former expatriate – returning from Rio de Janeiro – put a potential problem into words: “When I returned, people asked me ‘How was it on the beach?’. And I had worked so hard in Brazil. Now, it seems, I

have to prove to my new colleagues and my new boss that this was not just a ‘jolly’. I feel that my career chances have definitely taken a turn for the worse’.

Q1. More flexible international staffing may save the company money. Are there any downsides?

Q2. Why do you think the issues arose with the traditional long-term expatriates?

Q3. How should the company handle returning expatriates to make them feel that their time abroad has been valued?

Introduction

International work appears in many different forms within international organizations. Due to the globalization of business life, increasing numbers of professionals and managers have international responsibilities requiring international travel or work in foreign affiliates of multinational enterprises (MNEs) for shorter or longer periods of time. International organizations need to manage, coordinate and integrate their activities across borders, transfer knowledge and best practices between units and across borders, and serve customers across world. At the same time job markets are becoming increasingly international due to increased mobility of individuals. Professionals are increasingly internationally oriented due to their international travel, study exchanges and job experiences abroad. Thus, international job markets may offer increasingly interesting job option for many looking for new experiences and development opportunities in an international environment. In many economies, there are also reports of increasing need for migrant workers, in the context of skill shortages, aging population, and decreasing fertility rates (Al Ariss and Ozbilgin, 2010). Thus international work appears in many different forms in across different organizational level, and organizations increasingly utilize international, mobile workforce in their staffing. In the light of these developments, we will next discuss different forms of international work and the management of these different types of individuals within organizations. We will start by looking at international business travel as an important, currently an under-researched phenomenon.

International business travel

International business travel has increased substantially during the past few decades due to geographically expanded markets and business networks, increases in multinational companies with subsidiaries and globally dispersed projects (Gustafson, 2012) – facilitated by technological capability increases in the air transport industry. Though technical solutions such as web conferences and on-line meetings make communication without the need to be physically present possible, meeting people in person is important for trust creation, relationship building and for the enhanced transfer of tacit knowledge). Advanced transportation connections around the globe have enabled international business travel to increase (Collings, Scullion, and Morley, 2007; Faulconbridge and Beaverstock, 2008; Ramsey, Leonel, Gomes, and Monteiro, 2011), perhaps partly replacing the traditional multi-year assignments abroad. The objective is to provide cost-control for companies and varied career opportunities for employees, since it is argued that there may be a reluctance to expatriate (Gripenberg et al. 2013). International business travellers (IBTs) have become an important and increasing part of the international workforce, with their work involving continual visits to foreign markets, units and projects abroad. The duration of their visits ranges from days to weeks depending on the task required of them (Welch, Welch and Worm, 2007).

According to reports focusing on business travel trends in the USA, significant increases in international outbound travel were expected involving many millions of dollars (Global Business Travel Association, 2014) a pattern expected to be replicated around the world (The World Travel and Tourism Council, 2014). There remains an un-researched, perhaps un-researchable, question about whether this is money well spent. Business travel may not reduce costs as much as anticipated: the costs of the travel, hotels,

entertaining, etc is high in itself. Costs are transferred from central expatriation budgets to decentralized line or project budgets, so comparisons are not easy. Of all forms of international experience, HRM departments have least control over business travel (Brewster, Harris and Petrovic, 2001). And the benefits side of the equation is even more difficult to assess. Do these managers and specialists act as a sort of 'flying glue' passing messages between parts of the organization and helping it to work effectively, or are they a set of mavericks flying into contexts they don't understand, making decisions in circumstances that they cannot fully appreciate and leaving the locals to 'mop up' after they have flown out? Because of the costs and the benefits, managing international business travel is important (Welch et al., 2007), but the amount of empirical research on international business travellers from a human resource management perspective remains severely limited (Collings et al., 2007; McKenna and Richardson, 2007).

So far, the studies that we have on international business travelling can be divided into two main categories, one focusing on the organizational perspective and travel management and another examining the travellers themselves (Gustafson, 2012). When business travel has been studied from the perspective of the organization it has mostly adopted the concept of 'travel management' studying the organization's policies and regulations concerning business travel (Holma, 2012). Research related to the employees who do international business travelling as a part of their job has mainly been conducted within the field of travel medicine, focusing on physical or psychological disorders of travellers caused by travelling (Patel, 2011).

For companies, managing international business travelling is not an easy task since it involves different stakeholders (e.g. travellers, travel managers, decision-makers, suppliers and travel agencies) with different interests. The main purpose of 'travel management' in companies is clearly economic: to control and reduce the costs of travels (Holma, 2009). Studies focusing on travel management have examined compliance with corporate travel policies (Douglas and Lubbe 2009), stakeholder values and preferences relating to the travel management process (Gustafsson 2012), corporate travel as a purchasing operation (Holma 2012) and environmental aspects of travel (Hoyer and Næss, 2001). A subsidiary objective for company travel management departments is to ensure the security of business travellers and decent working conditions for them. That is important as their job involves IBTs spending a lot of time in airplanes and airports, working long hours, and undertaking complex tasks, often in challenging or even dangerous environments.

One essential job demand is the intensity of travelling, in particular, how often one needs to travel and how long the trips last (Burkholder et al., 2010; Mäkelä, Bergbom, Tanskanen and Kinnunen, 2014). Studies have provided evidence that increasing the frequency and duration of trips increases the risk of ill health among travellers, linked with such symptoms as increased alcohol consumption, sleep deprivation and feelings of insecurity about the traveller's ability to keep pace with the workload (Burkholder et al., 2010). Earlier research showed that increased trip frequency and/ or duration is related to dissatisfaction with travelling, greater stress, work-family conflict and problems maintaining social networks (Jensen, 2013; Mäkelä, Kinnunen and Suutari, 2013b; Mäkelä et al. 2013a; Mäkelä, Bergbom, Saarenpää and Suutari, 2015; Westman, Etzioni, and Chen, 2008a). Very frequent international business trips also have a negative effect on the well-being of travellers' families (Espino et al., 2002). Moreover, there are job demands related to the risks involved in working in different locations around the globe that can jeopardize IBTs' well-being: including health and safety issues, changing time zones (jet lag) and stress caused by use of a foreign language (Badera and Berg 2014; Ivanevich et al. 2003). In addition to all that, the greater the climatic and cultural contrast between the traveller's country of origin and the travel destination, the greater is the risk of illness (Patel, 2011). Beside these very concrete job demands, psychological demands are important and, for instance, the pressures of planning the trip, trip logistics, health concerns and cultural issues are found to create stress for the business traveller (DeFrank et al., 2000).

Researchers have also identified positive factors related to international business trips including, for instance, variety of tasks, life-style, personal development (Welsh and Worm, 2006; Demel and Mayrhofer, 2010) and possibilities for respite (Westman and Etzion, 2002).

The importance of the support gained from organization during the business travel has been recognized (Mayerhofer et al., 2004; Collings et al. 2007; Harvey et al. 2010). Among the studies focusing on the consequences of international business travel for individual IBTs, some crucial organizational aspects have found to be important. First, control over travel, that is, employee's ability to decide when they travel and how much they travel, has been found to be negatively related to burnout and work-to-family conflict (Jensen, 2013). Another job resource is organization's restitution culture, which refers to organization's attitude to the employee's need for rest after long periods of travelling and whether they are willing to accept, for instance, flexibility in working hours. A restitution culture reported being negatively related to both burnout and work-to-family conflict (Jensen, 2013).

Stop and Reflect

Would you want to be a frequent business traveller? How do you weigh the excitement, the interest sense of importance and the expense account against the stress, the health issues and the risks? How long do you think it is possible for someone to be a frequent international business traveller?

Short term assignments

Another area that has been around as long as international business has existed, but that appears to be growing, is short-term assignments, usually defined as assignments that last between a month and a year (Collings, Scullion and Morley, 2007; Tahvanainen, Welch and Worm, 2005) but in most cases lasting much less than that, anything from a few weeks to six months. In most countries, assignments of more than six months require a local contract in the host country (with associated tax implications). Absence from the country for less than six months means that people stay in the taxation, social security and pensions systems of their home base, so such assignments are much simpler to administer (Tahvanainen, 2003).

Salt and Wood (2012) summarise the evidence about the trends in short-term assignments. They cite a series of consultancy reports that indicate the desire on the part of their clients to increase the amount of short-term assignments and some academic authors who have claimed that it is growing (Collings, et al., 2007; Fenwick 2004; Minbaeva and Michailova 2004; Mayerhofer, Sparrow and Zimmermann, 2008). As good academics, however, they point out that this evidence is thin – we have no real baseline to start measuring from and little solid data to show any growth. Nor is there much evidence about variations between MNEs, or between host locations, or between established and new production centres or markets, which require different strategies for each. We note, too, that there is little evidence about the variation between types of short-term assignments (Suutari, Brewster, Riusala and Syrjakari, 2013).

Easier and cheaper travel and improvements in communications technology have made the option of short term assignments more feasible in recent years and, as with the use of the other cheaper, non-standard forms of international experience, the economic crisis that began in 2008 has undoubtedly added to the pressure to use of short-term assignments. In some cases the roles that such assignments play are the same as those played by long-term expatriation, to fill immediate gaps in the labour force until someone more permanent can take over, for example. However they are less likely to be about co-ordination and control and perhaps more likely to be about training and development (Jie and Lang, 2009). Where such assignments bring short-term expatriates into the headquarters operation for this purpose they are sometimes referred to, from an ethnocentric perspective, as in-patriates (Cerdin and Sharma, 2014; Reiche, Kraimer and Harzing, 2009) Short-term assignments may be used to help build new international markets (Findlay, Li, Jowett and Skeldon, 2000; Millar and Salt, 2006). Short-term assignments can offer access to specialized talent in other countries (Hocking, Brown and Harzing, 2004; Minbaeva and Michailova, 2004) and/ or can be used as training assignments to develop specific knowledge and skills in the transferees (Salt and Wood, 2012: 439).

A frequent use of short-term assignments is by organizations that operate on a project basis (Suutari et al., 2013). It has been argued that project assignments came to prominence in the 1970s when the oil and gas industries sent engineers to build refineries and wellheads. Today, such short-term assignments are widely used by industries such as construction, consulting and IT. They are typically characterized by the assignees' technical skills and the limited duration of assignments. The assignment is seen as part of getting the project completed and hence is controlled by the project manager and not by the HRM department (Brewster, Harris and Petrovic, 2001), and are usually classified in the organization as distinct from standard expatriation assignments.

Compared to the standard expatriate, short-term assignees are more likely to be recruited from outside the organization, more likely to leave their families at home, more likely to have their salary paid on an 'at home' basis (plus expenses) and less likely to receive generous benefits (Starr and Currie, 2009). Otherwise, they may not be so different: the host country will invariably treat the short-term assignee like an expatriate, requiring visas and immigration documents in some cases imposing tax obligations, and often restricting their activities in various ways (Suutari et al, 2013).

There are obvious advantages for the organization in having this cheaper, more focused and more flexible resource. The downsides are limited and only operate in certain circumstances: for example, difficulties in building up effective relationships with local employees and customers (Tahvanainen et al., 2005) may be irrelevant to someone doing a highly technical job or only there to learn about an aspect of the business. For the expatriate too there are advantages: the chance to learn with less commitment than a long-term assignment, a quick burst of improved income, with little chance for them to spend it, and the satisfaction of contributing to the completion of a project. On the other hand, they experience many of the same problems that occur with long-term standard expatriation: short notice of the move, little preparation, plus, in this case, separation from the family, which may only be for a few months but that in itself can create strains (Starr, 2009). In addition, the short-term assignee has little opportunity to get 'into' the local community, often ends up working long hours and may find the time of work lonely and depressing.

Assigned Expatriates

Long-term assigned expatriates (AEs) are supported by their employers to legally work in a country outside their country-of-origin generally for a duration of more than one year (Andresen et al., 2014). Research on AEs has been at the centre of academic attention for several decades (Adler, 1984; Black et al., 1991; Brewster and Scullion, 1997; Edström and Galbraith, 1977; Harvey, 1989) and the number of AEs is increasing over time (Brookfield, 2014; The RES-Forum, 2014). A multitude of topics have been explored, including (but not restricted to) demographics, personality, gender, location, remuneration, benefits, tax and social security issues, legal and labour law context, motivations to go, selection, cross-cultural adjustment, health and well-being, hostile environments, host teams and wider host country context, training and development, global careers, performance (including return on investment and broader company benefits), repatriation and retention). The most common perspectives were organizational or individual, at times investigated using a dual dependency approach (Larsen, 2004). In this section we investigate the management of international workers so that the expatriate cycle (Sparrow, Brewster, Harris, 2004) – distinguishing a pre-selection, international work and return phase – is a useful concept to structure our discussion. We will start by exploring strategic and motivational aspects in the pre-selection stage.

There are a multitude of reasons why expatriates are sent by their organizations to their international assignments. These include controlling the MNEs' foreign subsidiaries, coordinating softer aspects such as organizational culture, developing (and testing) the potential global leaders of the future or simply providing expertise and staffing a position when this does not seem possible from the local labour market (Edström and Galbraith, 1977). More recently, drivers such as knowledge transfer, innovation and broader global talent management have become more prominent (Cerdin and Brewster, 2014; Collings, 2014). Key is that organizations are conscious about what the primary driver of a particular assignment is in order to shape their approaches to selection, remuneration, development, careers and

retention. Sending an individual to a country to fill a skills gap, or ‘fire-fighting’ as it is sometimes known, means that the AE needs to perform in the new environment very rapidly and that the ‘value-add’ is being accumulated while the expatriate is ‘out there’. In contrast, global leadership development has far less need for the AE to perform quickly and has much longer ‘return on investment’ times. There are manifold implications for expatriate management, career and retention planning with some organizations starting to tailor their expatriate packages to the assignment drivers (The RES Forum, 2014).

In turn, AEs also pursue their individual motivations when working abroad. Research has shown that AEs are strongly career orientated, valuing a range of developmental opportunities in relation to their job-related skills and abilities, leadership competencies, as well as the promotion prospects, more highly than individuals who are not sent by their company (see section on SIEs below) (Doherty et al., 2011; Andresen et al, 2013). Thus, employers need to pay high attention to the global career aspects of their AEs. Selection can also take account of the different drivers of AEs with the goal to find a strong congruence of organization and individual objectives.

The recommendations for expatriate selection include that organizations should seek individuals who have a strong emotional and cultural intelligence, ie. they have an extensive inter-personal orientation, good communication skills, have a global mindset, demonstrate behavioural flexibility, are inquisitive, can live with high degrees of uncertainty, are resilient, have a high willingness to learn about different national cultures and diverse business contexts, have high self-confidence and optimism (Caligiuri, 2013; Thomas and Inkson, 2004). Beyond the actual selection criteria organizations have a choice whether to use open or closed as well as formal or informal approaches. There is a general sense in the literature that global selection in most organizations could be more sophisticated with companies often using closed and informal approaches (Harris and Brewster, 1999) as well as limited criteria, mostly centred around the willingness of people to move and performance on the job. Involving the expatriate’s partner/family and the host organization in the actual decision whether to work in this particular location is also seen as important for the willingness to embark on the foreign sojourn and the friendliness of reception (Dickmann et al., 2008; Dowling et al., 2008). Allowing ‘look – see visits’ or giving the prospective expatriate the opportunity to have work-relevant insights into the host environment can improve the eventual adjustment (Sparrow et al., 2004; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Providing the expatriate (and the assignee’s family) with some pre-departure training is seen to facilitate adjustment – however, the actual spend on it by organizations is relatively low (Doherty and Dickmann, 2012).

This moves our discussion into the time when AEs work abroad. Research has been devoted to investigate factors that make the successful adjustment – or at least coping – of expatriates to their host environments more likely. Much of the attention has been on the conceptualization of adjustment, the cognitive, emotional and behavioural aspects of living abroad and what individual and organizational characteristics may improve individual adjustment (Black et al., 1991; Haslberger et al., 2013).

Adjustment is improved when family and dual career issues that are important to AEs and their families are factored into the costs and support that expatriates receive (Harvey, 1997). The administrative and logical support of the organization for the physical move of the AE and his/ her family is important to the expatriate and can determine how much time and effort the AE is able to spend on the organization’s work in the first weeks of the assignment (Dowling et al., 2008). Generally, the individual’s interaction with the host team (Toh and DeNisi, 2005) and his/ her family’s reaction to their new context are seen as having an impact on the emotional, cognitive and behavioural reaction of the AE to the foreign environment. Local ‘buddies’ can help AEs, to support partners to carve out meaningful roles in the host country and to design integrative approaches so that the expatriate is not seen as an outsider who has the role to control locals (on behalf of the HQ).

While the degree of adjustment needed by the AE depends on many factors — in some ways the organization often wants the assignee not to completely become local. This is the case especially for control and coordination driven global postings, for instance when the host environment is characterized by a high degree of bribery or highly ineffective work or negotiation practices (Briscoe and Schuler,

2004). However, in most cases organizations do want their assignees to adjust to a large degree to their host environments as this is argued to be good for both employers and individuals (Black et al., 1991). A new conceptualization of the dimensions of adjustment (Haslberger et al., 2013) argues that the behavioural adequacy of AEs increases over time though they may initially suffer from culture shock. Their affective comfort with living in the new country will go up and down but over time should also increase, as, hopefully, will their ability to apply locally effective behavior. The process takes time (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hippler, Brewster and Haslberger, 2015). We lack the empirical evidence that investigates the work effectiveness of people when suffering they have failed to adjust. It still seems prudent to recommend that organizations seek to draw up policies and practices that aim to support expatriates to either avoid culture shock or to help them cope with it successfully.

MNEs may have performance and reward management practices that are globally integrated to a high extent (Dickmann et al., 2009). This is likely to encourage a better global – local cooperation, understanding and transfer of knowledge (Ferner, 1997; Edwards et al., 2007). AEs are likely to understand the sending organization and the effects of their international HRM policies and practices on their career prospects over time. AEs benefit from international moves in terms of their remuneration and career progression (Andresen et al., 2013).

One of the modern career approaches frequently used in expatriation research is the intelligent careers framework (DeFillippi and Arthur, 1994). It argues that individuals need to maximise their investment (and accumulation) of three forms of career capital (Inkson and Arthur, 2001): their knowledge, skills and abilities (knowing how), their social networks (knowing whom) and why they work and the energy and motivation that they bring into the world of work (knowing why). Each of the three ‘knowings’ is interconnected and the general idea is that the usefulness of the intelligent career for individuals depends on the transferability of acquired career capital. In terms of acquiring transferable skills, insights and abilities a thorough understanding of the competencies of the host unit is important and how these would fit into the long-term careers of individuals within their organizational setting (cf. Shaffer et al., 2012). Where career systems are not strongly enacted, social networks are highly important for expatriates (Dickmann and Doherty, 2008), especially at the point of return. Career capital considerations have strong impacts on how individuals behave and what choices they are likely to take. For instance, AEs may prefer to go to a centre of excellence as this may increase the chances of knowledge and skills transfer to their following location. In addition, in organizations with informal career systems, AEs may network more strongly, especially if they know that their ‘return ticket’ to a meaningful position could be assured through social connections.

Repatriation is one of the biggest challenges for organizations (Suutari and Brewster, 2003). In a world with perfect knowledge, MNEs would understand the drivers, strengths and weaknesses of their expatriates, would have chosen an assignment that increased the career capital of their assignees in tune with corporate objectives, would be in a position to design a long-term career and return plan etc. However, knowledge is not perfect and the competitive context as well as their staff resources are highly dynamic. The determinants of repatriate career success (Lazarova and Cerdin, 2007) include the characteristics of the international experience (how long was it, how successful was it, was it developmental, and how important was the assignment unit?). In addition, the global strategic configuration (Dickmann and Müller-Camen, 2006; Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1999) and top management experience are important. The more highly integrated the organization and the more international experience is valued, the more likely repatriate career success is. Moreover, management practices with respect to career development plans, repatriation assistance and international connectivity mechanisms also impact long-term career success (Lazarova and Cerdin, 2007). Research indicates that while repatriate churn is high in the period immediately after return, over the longer term retention figures of repatriates and non-expatriated peers are similar (Doherty and Dickmann, 2012). Further recommendations for organizations to manage their international workforce through the difficult repatriation phase include early communication about the next career step with the expatriate (which may include the management of repatriate expectations), coherent and consistent execution of global career policies and practices, and symbolic career systems that value international experience (Dowling et al., 2008; Briscoe and Schuler, 2004; Sparrow et al., 2003; Doherty and Dickmann, 2009). In addition,

job choice 'at home' that does not reduce responsibilities and autonomy would be important, thereby implicitly recommending an evaluation of whether the repatriate can be promoted. We will now explore the issues involved in the management of members of the international workforce who were not sent abroad by their employer but made their own way there.

Class activity/ Exercise

Discuss the benefits and disadvantages of Short-term and long-term assignments from the point of view of the organization and of the expatriates. Construct a four-box chart showing these clearly.

Self-initiated expatriates

As we have said, the early research on expatriates was conducted on the people sent abroad by their employers (AEs) and that has been the case since. However, several studies suggest that there is, perhaps, more or less, an equal number of people working in foreign countries as expatriates, that is, intending to move on from that country before the end of their careers, who are not assigned there by their employer, and are not employed on expatriate terms and conditions, but have made their own way to the country (Cerdin and Le Pargneux 2010, Jokinen, Suutari and Brewster 2010, Peltokorpi and Froese 2009). These individuals, first identified only in 2000 (Suutari and Brewster, 2000), have become known as self-initiated expatriates (SIEs). SIEs have found international jobs on their own initiative, changed their employer, and moved abroad. These are part of the internationally experienced and capable labour force and offer an alternative staffing possibility for organizations looking for such professional staff. Their use may be increasing, because of increased use of on-line recruitment tools and the growth in numbers of people who have different kinds of international experiences through education, travel and, in some cases, previous work in other countries. SIEs take foreign jobs with employment contracts that match either other international employees or local employees; they do not get expatriate salaries or benefits.

SIEs differ from AEs not just in the employment contracts but in a number of other ways. SIEs are typically recruited to lower level jobs than assigned expatriates, even if these are still managerial or expert roles (Cerdin and Le Pargneux 2010): the costs of the latter generally mean that they are only used for higher level posts and more challenging tasks in the foreign affiliates. Since, see above, the costs of moving employees with their families to foreign locations are so high the contribution has to be commensurately high in order to be economically reasonable. When costs are high companies typically aim to reduce them, in this case to reduce the need for assigned expatriates with full expatriate compensation packages. SIEs offer one option for recruiting people with quite similar capabilities, often very internationally oriented professionals, but with different, cheaper, kinds of contracts and related salary benefits than AEs. Because SIEs are normally recruited locally on local, host country contracts, they do not typically get the extra support, allowances or insurances than AEs receive – though on rare occasions more experienced SIE may be able to negotiate some similar benefits into their contracts. Due to their personal interests, international orientation and type of their contract, SIEs on average stay longer in their assignments than AEs with shorter and fixed-term contracts, so employers benefit from the services of SIEs for longer.

The SIE-population is very diverse and different groups within it have different motives for working abroad (Suutari and Brewster, 2000). The population includes early career professionals who are looking for international experience and new adventure or language skills immediately or soon after their graduation, typically working in lower level jobs in local organizations. At the other end of the career continuum we find internationally experienced senior managers who have spent much of their career internationally, and thus operate in senior management jobs, often within large MNEs. Some SIEs are so-called localized professionals who have first worked abroad as assigned expatriates but after a long stay, their contract is changed to local contract by employers who are not prepared to pay expatriate salaries for people who have chosen to stay in the foreign country and will do so even without the expatriate uplift. Sometimes expatriates have found other local options and thus have move to other

employers within the host country. Often there are family reasons behind such overall life decision of staying permanently abroad. Another common type of SIEs is partners of dual-career couples in which the other partner is working as an assigned expatriate and the partner looks for work in the same country. A distinct category is that of people working for the international organizations (the UN, the EU, etc) who have applied for posts in those organizations, taken examinations and been appointed – to an office outside their own home country. They earn the same as all other employees of the international organizations. From the international staffing perspective all kinds of SIEs offer different possibilities for organizations looking for specific professional expertise in combination with an international orientation.

In order to gain full advantage from self-initiated expatriates, organizations must try to smooth their transfer from one country to another (Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010) and be active in their induction processes. SIEs, by definition, can be supported only after appointment and arrival in the host country. Less experienced SIEs and their families might benefit from training (e.g. cross-cultural training, language training, professional training, induction to the new organization) and overall support (e.g. living arrangements, health care system, taxation and local regulations, partner job search assistance, social connections, social activities).

Critical Thinking Box

What are the advantages for organizations of employing self-initiated expatriates? Usually such expatriates are employed on local terms and conditions without any of the enhanced salaries, or payments of housing costs, education costs and travel advantages. Are they being exploited? Could organizations exploit them (take advantage of their skills and knowledge) more?

Why would an assigned expatriate want to become a self-initiated expatriate? Why would a self-initiated expatriate want to become an assigned expatriate?

Global careerists

An increasing proportion of international professionals have a succession of international jobs. These global talents have developed an ability to apply skills and transfer knowledge quickly and efficiently and to lead foreign and cross-cultural teams and activities abroad. Organisations need internationally experienced and mobile employees, particularly at managerial level, who are ready to assume responsibilities in global or regional headquarters, or to open and manage new international operations in different contexts. One archetype of such internationally mobile employees is that of the 'global careerist', a manager with a long-term global career (e.g. Suutari 2003; Stahl and Cerdin 2004; Cappellen and Janssens 2005; Dickman and Harris 2005; Herman and Tetric 2009; Suutari, Tornikoski and Mäkelä, 2012). For example, between 40% and 70% of existing European expatriates have already had previous international experience; and among self-initiated expatriate samples the figure is at the top end of that (Stahl and Cerdin 2004, Jokinen et al., 2008; Cerdin and Le Pargneux 2010). Patterns vary – some organizations have 'foreign staff' who only work outside their home country, while many other global managers sometimes also work periodically in the home country. Some of them change between AE and SIE positions when they transfer to other MNEs or to local companies.

Due to their mobile nature, these experienced global careerists are important assets to international organizations. The globalization of business life means that increasing proportion of companies need to develop international competence when opening or expanding their international operations. The developmental nature of international work experiences means that, over the course of their careers, these professionals assume various challenging roles in a number of different international environments, so their competencies develop considerably (Suutari and Mäkelä, 2007). They have strong global career capital and social networks as well as high levels of self-awareness and self-confidence, which they can utilize in their next international jobs.

However, their very mobility may cause challenges for companies in retaining such individuals (Evans, Pucik, Bjorkman, 2011). They are likely to be head hunted, and may receive indirect job offers through

their wide international professional and social networks. Such departures represent losses for the organisation, not only in terms of talent, skills and knowledge, but also in terms of the previous investment in the development of the departing individual and the cost of finding someone else. Thus the importance of successful talent management of such global professionals becomes crucial (Cerdin and Brewster, 2014; Collings, 2014; Suutari, Wurtz and Tornikoski, 2014). Such talent management refers to the HRM activities which aim to attract, develop and retain individuals with high levels of career capital (Schuler and Tarique, 2012).

In order to succeed in attracting and retaining such experienced global managers, it is important to understand what kinds of career motives they have and how organisation should support them. Global careerists clearly value the nature and characteristics of their job over the financial compensation involved (Suutari, Tornikoski and Mäkelä, 2012; Stahl and Cerdin, 2004) and look for meaningful, strategic jobs in which they can fully utilize their experiences and skills, in order to develop those further. To gain the attention of global careerists, organisations should thus focus on the job itself, the competencies required and the developmental challenges involved. Global careerists enjoy working in challenging and culturally diverse job environments, and so are attracted to challenging new roles in the international business environment. Given that their international jobs often involve a high level of managerial autonomy in combination with wide responsibilities, it is also likely that global careerist finds narrow and restrictive job descriptions less interesting. It is also important to recognize that, typically, experienced global careerists are headhunted or get job offers through their wide professional networks, rather than actively seeking jobs on the open market, so different recruitment approaches may be necessary.

Global managers, and their families, develop valuable coping skills in dealing with the challenges involved with frequent relocations and related adjustment issues (Mäkelä and Suutari, 2011) but they have also learned to value and expect the organizational support offered to them and their families. Corporate support is expected, with practical arrangements such as accommodation, school and day-care arrangements, and health care. Family concerns are perceived as important due to constant adjustment pressures on the family and thus family training and support (e.g. language training, cross-cultural training, spouse career support and support in building social connections locally) may be valued by the global careerists. Long working days and frequent international travel mean that the global careerists in turn value flexibility from their employers in arranging their schedules and also securing adequate time for staying with the family. In order to stay in touch with extended family and friends at home country, companies often offer paid travel back to the home country during vacations. The complexity of their personal and family situation means that global careerists often needed assistance too with practical matters provided by legal counsellors, pension specialists, insurance advisors, investment and tax consultants. Since international job are often on fixed-term contracts and since global careerists see less attraction in staying in a certain job and location more permanently, career support and planning becomes crucial: companies find that career discussion with their international professionals periodically helps to retain them during the transition stages when, typically, they analyse the external options as well.

In the News

In the area broadly defined as the Middle East, and amongst migrants in other countries and regions from the Middle East there has been, at least amongst a minority of people, a growth in commitment to a militant and aggressive form of Islamism. At the same time, a continuing series of military interventions in local conflicts in the region by Western powers over a couple of decades led, in 2015 and 2016, to a massive surge of migration into Europe from the region, which caused huge political debates. What to do with the migrants? How would governments be able to filter out the militants, hiding amongst these desperate people as a way into their 'enemy' countries, from genuine refugees? There were active debates between those who felt a duty to assist people forced from their homes and countries in terrible circumstances – and who noted that historically refugees and immigrants are more entrepreneurial and have been an engine of economic growth - and those who felt that they would change social structures forever, including some who felt that Muslims would never assimilate into Christian Europe, and would put extra pressure on already stretched housing, social care, health and

educations systems. Could they all be fed and housed and looked after? And then, how were they to be integrated into local labour markets? How were they to find jobs? Would people want to live with, or to work with, people from a different religion and culture? And from a human resource management point of view, how do you assess for work applicants who have no paperwork, who cannot prove their qualifications or their credentials; and what can you do to integrate them with the existing workforce?

Migrant workers

In many economies, there is an increasing need for migrants, in the context of skill shortages, aging population, and decreasing fertility rates (Al Ariss and Ozbilgin, 2010). Migrants tend to be more entrepreneurial, more active and prepared to do unpopular jobs, which means that they are often seen as a key means to keep economies moving forward. Indeed the last few decades have seen migration – a feature of the world population for thousands of years – expanding considerably. Historically, migration changed in character after the First World War with the widespread introduction of passports as governments tried to keep control of who entered and left their territories. The total number of migrants is now estimated as almost a quarter of a billion people (UN, 2013). Most migrants work: they are, especially the skilled ones amongst them, now an important part of the global talent pool (Guo and Al Ariss, 2015).

They are not necessarily a well-managed part of the global talent pool. In many cases their skills are under-utilized (Al Ariss and Syed, 2011; Al Ariss, Koall, Özbilgin and Suutari, 2012); it is not uncommon to hear tales of medically qualified doctors having to work as taxi drivers in countries with a shortage of medical staff. Migrants often face problems of discrimination (Dietz, 2010; Turchick Hakak and Al Ariss, 2013) and consequent lack of opportunities. How well they adapt to the new working environment often depends on their motivation for migration in the first place (Cerdin, Abdeljalil-Diné and Brewster, 2014): those expatriates who have looked forward to a new life in their adopted country are more likely to adapt well than those who have been driven from their home and have no great attachment to their new place of residence. For the former, in particular, the overlap with the self-initiated expatriate category may be considerable. The main difference seems to be intent to stay – migrants intend to stay for a long time, maybe for the rest of their lives, expatriates for a shorter time. But some expatriates stay on until they die and some migrants return home within a short time. Here too there may be prejudice: Al Ariss and Crowley-Henry (2013) show that those who move from developed Western countries are usually referred to as expatriates; those who come from the less-developed countries are often called migrants.

Human resource management of migrants is a “hidden aspect” of the subject (Guo and Al Ariss, 2015, 1290). The existing research indicates that they may be discriminated against in selection or promotion processes or in daily management practices by supervisors, due to them being seen as 'different', so diversity / cross-cultural training is often needed to support the equal treatment of employees in the workplace when the diversity of the workforce increases. Due to their different backgrounds, immigrants also often need more in-depth and longitudinal initiation to the workplace and the work itself in order to succeed as expected. Due to the ever greater globalization of the workforce, MNCs increasingly develop diversity management policies and practices to help to deal with possible problems and, in turn, to fully utilize the benefits which such diversity may offer (Sippola and Smale, 2007). Clearly, employers can either hinder or facilitate the process of migrants getting work permits, having their qualifications recognised, gaining a job that utilises their skills to the full and offers a good salary and fitting in with the rest of the workforce.

Class Activity/ Exercise

Imagine you have just arrived in a country as a new immigrant with a Masters degree in engineering, but no papers to prove it– these were lost in the journey - and only a rudimentary knowledge of the local language. A distant cousin finds you a job in a factory packing wine into boxes. The pay is far more

than you earned as an engineer in your own country but you know that with the higher costs of living in your new country it will be of less value.

Do you take the job? Justify your decision

Assume you do take the job, what support would you expect from your employer? From your workmates?

What would you do in these circumstances?

Critical Thinking Box

Is migration a good thing in general or does it create more problems than it solves? From whose point of view? What role does migration play in ensuring that work opportunities and workers are likely to be found in the same place? Can societies survive without migration? And, from an HRM point of view, does the kind of migrant matter? What can organizations do to best utilise the skills and capacities that migrants bring with them?

Global Work and the Use of Knowledge and Networks

One of the modern career approaches frequently used in expatriation research is the intelligent careers framework (DeFillippi and Arthur, 1994). It argues that individuals need to maximise their investment (and accumulation) of three forms of career capital (Inkson and Arthur, 2001): their knowledge, skills and abilities (knowing how), their social networks (knowing whom) and the energy and motivation that they bring into the world of work (knowing why). Each of the three ‘knowings’ is interconnected and the general idea is that the usefulness of the intelligent career for individuals depends on the transferability of acquired career capital. In terms of acquiring transferable skills, insights and abilities a thorough understanding of the competencies of the host unit is important and how these would fit into the long-term careers of individuals within their organizational setting (cf. Shaffer et al., 2012). Where career systems are not strongly enacted, social networks are highly important for expatriates (Dickmann and Doherty, 2008), especially at the point of return. Career capital considerations have strong impacts on how individuals behave and what choices they are likely to take. For instance, AEs may prefer to go to a centre of excellence as this may increase the chances of knowledge and skills transfer to their following location. In addition, in organizations with informal career systems, and may network more strongly, especially if they know that their ‘return ticket’ to a meaningful position could be assured through social connections.

The successful acquisition, transfer and use of skills, knowledge, capabilities and social capital during and after international work is highly important not only for individuals but also for their employers (Al Ariss and Syed, 2011). Edström and Galbraith (1977) in a classic work outlined why this was crucial for organizations. Amongst their predominant drivers for expatriation we can find situations in which locals do not have the capabilities to fill certain positions successfully. Therefore, skills gaps and the need to rapidly fill positions when local talent are not available are one key driver of expatriation and, often, lead to knowledge transfer towards the host unit (Dickmann and Baruch, 2011; Bonache and Dickmann, 2008). In addition, another key driver is the development of future leaders for the organization which, in essence, means knowledge and experience acquisition in the host unit to be used in the long term, mostly in further stages of individuals careers which may well mean in their home countries (Dickmann and Baruch, 2011). In addition, it becomes more and more common that expatriates have the explicit goal to rear a local successor – this embodies a major effort to transfer explicit knowledge, skills and insights to the host unit. Moreover, the coordination aim outlined by Edström and Galbraith (1977) incorporates the attempt to transfer cultural norms, values and behaviours from the head office to the local unit.

It is clear that the transfer of knowledge upon the return of expatriates can be highly valuable for organizations and that their talent management would be seriously impaired if such a transfer would not happen (Farndale et al., 2010). Furthermore, individuals strive to maximize (Inkson and Arthur,

2001) and transfer (Lamb and Sutherland, 2010) their social capital. With respect to social work contacts expatriates are likely to build valuable structural and relational networks (Burt, 1997) during their time abroad. After repatriation, they may experience network advantages in comparison to non-expatriated peers as they tend to interact with more central, powerful business actors (Burt, Kilduff and Tasselli, 2013; Doherty and Dickmann, 2012). It is likely that returning migrants and self-initiated expatriates also attempt to utilize their international networks to their and their employers' advantage (Andresen, Al Ariss and Walter, 2012).

Stop and Reflect

How could companies widen the perspectives they use to think about the different types of jobs involving international element? How would they find and implement new ideas, and turn them into practice? Can international work be used to improve employees' well-being in the future?

Work-life balance related issues facing expatriates

International work often leads employees and their families to leave their home country and move to another country, some doing that only once or some doing that several times in a row. Even if the job is not requiring relocating the whole family, it may lead to distant relationship and regular absences from home due to travel and/ or short-term assignments. Thus, it is evident that this kind of job and career is not only having effect on employee him- or herself but it is having impacts to whole family (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008). The global trends such as increased number of women in positions involving international responsibilities and common existence of dual career couples (see for a review Kierner, 2015) has made the work-family issues more predominant in the context of international work. Moreover, different types of expatriate jobs and the jobs of international business travellers' are often found to be very challenging, for instance, because of broadness of responsibilities, high level of autonomy and a need to adjust in new work environment. These kinds of job demands are not easing international employees' possibilities to balance their work and family lives. From that perspective it is not surprising that work-family interface is among main challenges faced by people working in international work environment (Suutari 2003; Mäkelä & Suutari, 2011).

Among expatriates, family reasons have been found to be among the main reasons for expatriate failure, and family adjustment has been found to impact negatively on expatriate performance. Also divorces among expatriate couples are quite common (McNulty, 2015). However, expatriate career may also limit the possibilities to even start the family life (Mäkelä, Suutari & Mayerhofer, 2012) and this can lead to loneliness and feelings of unbalance between work and personal life. Among international travellers research has not been very intensive so far, but nevertheless, already the findings from such studies have indicated that frequent international travelling causes work-life balance problems (Westman & Etzion, 2002; Mäkelä, Kinnunen & Suutari, 2015; Mäkelä, et al, 2014) which, in turn, may lead to health problems, such as sleep problems (Mäkelä et al, 2014) or burnout (Jansen, 2013). In addition, it has also been found (Mäkelä, et al, 2015) that parental responsibilities increase the risk of work-family conflict and the risk is the most severe for mothers who travel very intensively (compared to non-parent travellers and father travellers). On contrary, positive experiences also exist and international environment is seen to offer an interesting, stimulating and developmental working and living environment both for international professionals and their families (Mäkelä & Suutari, 2011; Suutari, 2003). Moreover, family members can also be a source for social support and thus provide important backing for international employee (Mäkelä, De Cieri & Mockaitis, 2015). However, it is important that companies employing international workforce create and implement policies and practices helping people to combine their work and personal lives, for instance helping their expatriates with accommodation and children's school arrangements. They should also provide flexi-time and time for recovery after business trips. These kinds of policies and practices are likely to improve employees' well-being and through that, lead to better organisational outcomes (De Cieri & Bardoel, 2015).

Class activity/ Exercise*Work-life balance*

Think about your current life situation. What kind of international work would suit you now? How your personal life would affect your possibilities to succeed in that kind of international work? After that, imagine your ideal life situation in 5 to 10 years from now. What kind of international work would suit you then? What was the role of your imaginary life situation on your thoughts? For instance, if you think that different international work would suit you in present situation compared to the situation in a future, why was that? What kinds of work-life balance policies and practices you would expect from your employer in these two situations? Discuss about your thoughts in the groups of 3 to 5 peers.

Conclusions

This chapter has explored the importance and difficulty of managing the international workforce, recognizing that contextual and strategic influences will affect the strategic management of international mobility. The different options presented here are not mutually exclusive: an individual member of the labour force can belong to different categories (being a short or long term assignee *and* self-initiated, for example). Further, people move between these option over time, being an inpatriate at one point in their career, a frequent flyer at another and a standard expatriate at a third. In between they may be members of a local workforce. MNEs need to think about all of their internationally experienced and capable human resources comprehensively and coherently: focusing just on standard expatriates may mean that they are not effectively managing all their global workforce. The overlap between the current attention to expatriates and global talent management has been noted (Collings, 2014; Farndale, Scullion and Sparrow, 2010; Furusawa and Brewster, 2014), but the full range of talents open to an MNE goes well beyond expatriates or even those on the organization's high-flyers list.

There is a clear and obvious need for more focus on and more research into all forms (summarized in eg Andresen, Al Ariss, and Walther, 2012; Mayrhofer, Reichel and Sparrow, 2012; Suutari and Brewster, 2009) and researchers are beginning to catch up with this requirement. As tabulated in Suutari and Brewster (2009: 134-136), each of these forms comes with a built-in set of advantages and disadvantages for the organization and the individual. However, there is relatively little empirical research to confirm these suggestions. Long-term, standard expatriation is usually managed by the international human resource department through the mechanism of organization-wide policies. However, there is much less clarity about short-term assignments – are they also managed as if they are one form, or are there separate groups within the category? We have even less information about frequent flyers or about global careerists or migrants and how they fit into the global workforce. By whom are these assignments managed, how that is done and what are the organization-level co-ordination and control mechanisms for such projects, if there are any?

Most of all there is a research gap in identifying the full range of international experience available within an MNE, the advantages and disadvantages for all concerned in each of the forms and the extent of, and how, they ensure that they are able to co-ordinate the appropriate mix of different forms of international experience in a more effective manner that will enable them to take full advantage of the expertise that they have available.

Class activity/ Exercise

Before coming to the class, search different virtual communities (e.g. LinkedIn group, Facebook group, discussion forum etc) consisting of international employees. What kind of communities were available and what kinds of international employees were part of those communities? What were the main topics covered in the discussions? Share your findings with your peers and discuss in small groups: first, what does the virtual communities reveal about current situation of international work environment; second, discuss how the virtual communities, social media and advanced communication technologies in general have changed the work and life of international employees.

End of Chapter Case Study

Management of short-term project mobility within a Finnish company

The company is a leading global provider of process solutions, technologies and services for its business segment. It employs over 2000 people more than half work of whom work in foreign subsidiaries. The first international assignments in the company took place in the 1960's and since then the number of employees working abroad has grown steadily. As is typical in many companies, it has already created good assignment policies concerning long-term international assignments while a need to develop better policies for managing increasing numbers of short-term assignees, and in particular project assignees, emerged.

So, a project concerning the development of new policies was launched involving interviewing assignees, line managers and HRM-professionals. Among the different types of assignments, *project assignment* was clearly the most common type in the company. From an organizational perspective, the key benefit of short-term assignments was flexibility in human resource planning with shared utilization of individual work and short-term transfers of human resources to fulfil urgent or short-term staffing needs. Project-based international mobility was expected from employees also, since technical assistance and support is included within each sale. Short-term staff transfers were seen to enhance the communication and knowledge sharing between units - an issue that was seen to be of increasing importance. Thus, the assignments were seen to support the strategic aim of increased global integration. Close contact with customers was also stressed, since the assignees got a lot of feedback for their services and products which can then be utilized in R&D and marketing.

From the individual perspective, the positive characteristics involved the development opportunities the international projects offered assignees. This involved seeing different ways of doing things across units, formation of personal relationships across organizational and national borders, in-depth learning of environments in which customers operate, a possibility to see how technological solutions operate in the field, as well as contacts to foreign customers and the understanding of their specific needs. International project work typically included also challenges such as tight schedules and intensive working, often in pressured or even dangerous circumstances. The main challenges faced by project assignees involved distance to family – sometimes connected with limited communication possibilities due to working in difficult environments, or different time zones, but also by the intensive nature of the work. Due to the limited length of stay in each location, it was difficult to get adjusted to any specific place. Due to the intensive group form of working during projects, individual problems caused challenges for the well-being and performance of the whole group.

The company lacked guidelines on how to deal with these kinds of problem situations and often they were not dealt with early enough. The other concerns faced by the HRM specialists were related to challenges in developing fair assignment policies that would apply in a multitude of different circumstances; and the sensitivity and complexity of handling family-related concerns. The assignees called for more support from HRM.

The Company is trying to clarify its policies on these short-term assignments. Separate policies were determined for short-term assignments (as opposed to the policies for more traditional expatriate assignments) because the management processes are very different. Previously, everything up to three months had been classified as a business trip. More recently The Company has developed a separate policy for project assignments to cover all assignments lasting more than a month. Assignments between 3 and 6 months have been administered with something called "*the memo*" in which terms and conditions have been specified. Assignments over 6 months involved more detailed contracts, and in many countries such a contract is required in the host country as well. Assignees with shorter contracts

receive their salary in their home country whereas for longer stays salary arrangements may differ. Employees may, with company support, move their family when assignments are more than four months long. The company also started to arrange visits and informal guidance on these issues for the whole family before the assignment.

It was also felt that the selection of project assignees was not systematic enough. Assignees argued that not all employees are suitable for such assignment and stressed the need for more careful selection. Project assignees tended to get the posts because of their personal relationships with the project manager. Senior managers either confirm the selected group, which is formed by the project leader or, jointly, plan the recruitments so that the best people are allocated to different projects. A new selection process for project assignees was created. In this new process, the project management initiates recruitment and candidate selection is completed together with the line manager. A need for more systematized processes, including a pre-selected pool of candidates available for transfers, was identified. Also, the development of better tools for screening people was raised.

Contract negotiations had been conducted up to now on a case-by-case basis. Contract and compensation negotiations were very time-consuming for the HRM specialists - the amount of time being dependent on the length of the assignment, the need for insurance briefing, the need to involve family issues, and the type of the assignment. The contract negotiations took place between the assignee, their supervisor/ line manager/ project manager and the HRM manager. When the assignee works for the host subsidiary, the latter covers the compensation, so the assignee's superior there will also be included in the negotiations. In a new policy, flexibility in project assignment compensation is being reduced as increasingly strict project budgets give guidelines for negotiations. Overall, HRM department saw a need to standardize the process in order to cut time spent on negotiations and to create fairness.

The new policy includes also new guidelines for training. The project managers was made responsible for organizing training, as they know the project, the location and the related training needs best. With regard to performance management (PM), assignees felt that the standard process was problematic as their supervisors had little knowledge about their performance during the project assignment. They also felt that, overall, they do not get much feedback on their performance. The whole process was seen to be too dependent on a single supervisor: it was seen that the PM process must involve additional discussions at the end of the assignment (even if informally conducted), besides the annual PM process.

For further information see Suutari, V., Brewster, C., Riusala, K. & Syrjäkari, S. (2013). Managing short-term assignments: Evidence from a Finnish company. *Journal of Global Mobility*, 1(2), 118-138.

End of chapter Questions

1. Analyse the advantages and disadvantages of flexible alternative forms of international assignments.
2. Many organisations tend to have a 'one size fits all' international mobility policy. Why do they do that? How would you manage international workers in the different categories? Would you design diverse policies?
3. What can you do as an individual and as an organization to counter the impression that expatriates to exotic locations have a 'jolly'

End of chapter Exercises

Decreasing cost, increasing well-being?

In 2013 a Finnish news and picture agency released the information that work previously done during the Finnish night time (night shifts) will be done in a future literally in the other side of the world, in Sydney, Australia. This decision was done after benchmarking other European media houses which already had relocated their night-shift employees in Sydney.

The company told they had two reasons to do that. First, company rationalized that by cost savings; night-shifts are expensive and the cost-savings of this solution will be approximately one journalist person-year salary. They also told that Sydney as a location is far from cheapest option but the infrastructure, climate and cultural environment makes it very tempting. Second, company highlighted that this arrangement will provide improvements for their personnel's well-being because due to the time difference between Australia and Finland the hours being night-shift in Finland are normal day-hours in Australia. In general, shift-work has found to have many negative consequences for employees physical and psychological well-being.

In practice, company did not provide generous benefits for their employees moving abroad –that is, they were not sent as traditionally defined expatriates and needed, for instance, to find and pay their accommodation themselves. Company representatives defined this international job as possibility for job-rotation and an opportunity to work in their office in Sydney, contracts lasting 1-2 years. Company opened four positions to be applied internally. They selected the first team of 'kangaroo-shifters' as they call their employees working in Sydney. After all practical arrangements, such as working visas, one woman and three men moved to Sydney, first ones at May 2014. Two of recruited employees were dual career couple with two children and they told that children's grandmother moved with them in order to help them with child care and daily chores. Two other men were in their 30's. New team of journalists moving to Sydney was announced at the end of 2014 and they moved to Sydney when earlier team members' contacts reached its end or new replacement people were needed for some other reason.

This kind of open-minded solution to make use of benefits provided by new technologies and people willing to work abroad seem to lead to positive outcomes. 'Kangaroo-shifters' themselves have told that doing the work at the day time is much more efficient compared to times they worked night-shifts. They also told that when there is no need to be awake during nights you also feel much better in general. It seems also that the case company has been satisfied with these arrangements as it has not been giving any signal to close their Sydney site.

Further reading and web resources:

Akram, A. (ed), 2015, *Global Talent Management - Challenges, Strategies, and Opportunities*. Springer.

Collings, D., P. Caligiuri, & G. Wood (eds), 2015, *Routledge Companion to International HRM*. Routledge.

Dickmann, M. & Y. Baruch (2011). *Global Careers*. Routledge.

Global Business Travel Association: <http://www.gbta.org>

Haslberger, B., Brewster, C. and Hippler, T. (2014) *Managing Performance Abroad: A New Model for Understanding Expatriate Adjustment*, London, Routledge

Work and family, book: Mäkelä, L. & Suutari, V. (Eds) *Work and Family Interface in the International Career Context*. Springer.

Vaiman V. & Haslberger A. (eds), 2013, *Managing Talent of Self-initiated Expatriates: A Neglected Source of the Global Talent Flow*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Defined glossary of terms

- **Assigned expatriates** Employees who are supported by their employers to legally work in a country outside their country-of-origin generally for a duration of more than one year and usually less than five years.
- **Career capital** The knowing how, knowing whom and knowing why built up over a succession of jobs and available for the next one.
- **Global careerists** Internationally oriented professionals with a long-term global career involving different types of international work during their careers
- **Intelligent careers** Consciously using the value of knowledge, skills, contacts and understanding built up during the course of a career to get closer to the position wanted
- **International business travellers** People travelling frequently to different parts of their company or to clients or prospective clients for visits ranging from days to weeks depending on the task required of them
- **International commuters** People living in one country and working in another – usually for a limited period of time.
- **Expatriates** People working outside their own country for what they anticipate will be a limited period of time.
- **Migrants** People moving from their original home country to another country in the expectation that they will spend the rest of their lives in the new country
- **Multinational Enterprises** Organizations (usually, but not only, multinational corporations) that have operations in, and employ people in, more than one country.
- **Self-initiated expatriates** People working abroad for what they intend to be a limited, even if quite long in some cases, period, who have made their own way to the country on their own initiative.
- **Short-term assignments** Assignments for a period of less than a year (usually less than six months) where the expatriate, even if they have a family, leaves them behind and goes on their own.
- **Work-life balance** The process of ensuring a relationship between work and non-work aspects of life that satisfies the individual, their family and their employer.

References

- Al Ariss, A., & Crowley-Henry, M. (2013). Self-initiated expatriation and migration in the management literature: present theorizations and future research directions. *Career Development International*, 18 (1), 78-96.
- Al Ariss, A., Koall, I Özbilgin, M. and Suutari, V. (2012) Careers of skilled migrants: towards a theoretical and methodological expansion, *Journal of Management Development*, 31 (2), 92 - 101
- Al Ariss, A. and Özbilgin, M. (2010). Understanding self-initiated expatriates: Career experiences of Lebanese self-initiated expatriates in France. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 52 (4), 275-285
- Al Ariss, A. and Syed, J. (2011) Capital Mobilization of Skilled Migrants: A Relational Perspective. *British Journal of Management*. 22 (2): 286–304
- Andresen, M., Bergdolt, F., Margenfeld, J. and Dickmann, M. (2014). Addressing international mobility confusion – Developing definitions and differentiations for self-initiated and assigned expatriates as well as migrants. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*. Vol 25 (16): 2295-2318.
- Adler, N J. (1984). Women do not want international careers: and other myths about international management. *Organizational Dynamics* 13.2 (1984): 66-79.
- Andresen, M., Al Ariss, A. and Walther, M. (Eds.). 2012 *Self-Initiated Expatriation. Individual, Organizational, and National Perspectives*. London, New York: Routledge
- Badera, B. and Berg, N. (2014) The influence of terrorism on expatriate performance: a conceptual approach, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25, 539-557.
- Bartlett, C. A. and Ghoshal, S. (1999). *Managing across Borders: the transnational solution* (Vol. 2). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A. and Luk, D. M. (2005). Input-based and time-based models of international adjustment: Meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(2), 257-281.
- Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M. and Oddou, G. (1991). Toward a comprehensive model of international adjustment: An integration of multiple theoretical perspectives. *Academy of Management Review*, 16(2), 291-317.
- Brewster, C., Harris, H. and Petrovic, J. (2001), Globally mobile employees: managing the mix, *Journal of Professional HRM*, 25: 11-15
- Brewster, C. and Scullion, H. (1997). A review and agenda for expatriate HRM. *Human Resource Management Journal* 7.3: 32-41.
- Briscoe, D. R. and Schuler, R. S. (2004). *International human resource management: policy and practice for the global enterprise* (Vol. 5). Psychology Press.
- Brookfield Global Relocation Survey (2014). *Global Relocation Trends: 2014 Survey Report*, Woodridge, Illinois, USA.
- Burkholder, J., Joines, R., Cunningham-Hill, M. and Xu, B. (2010), Health and well-being factors, associated with international business travel, *Journal of Travel Medicine*, 17, 329-333.
- Caligiuri, P. (2013). *Cultural Agility: Building a Pipeline of Successful Global Professionals*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Cappellen, T. and Janssens, M. (2005). Career paths of global managers: Towards future research. *Journal of World Business*, 40, 348-360.

- Cerdin, J.-L., Abdeljalil-Diné, M & Brewster, C. (2014) Qualified Immigrants' Success: Exploring the motivation to migrate and to adjust *Journal of International Business Studies* 45(2): 151–168
- Cerdin, J.-L. and Brewster. (2014). Talent management and expatriation: Bridging two streams of research and practice. *Journal of World Business*, 49(2), 245-252.
- Cerdin, J.-L. and Sharma, K. (2014). Inpatriation as a key component of global talent management. In A. Al Ariss (Ed.), *Global Talent Management: challenges, strategies and opportunities*. Heidelberg: Springer.
- Collings, D. G. (2014). Integrating global mobility and global talent management: Exploring the challenges and strategic opportunities. *Journal of World Business*, 49(2): 253-261
- Collings, D.G., Scullion, H. and Morley, M. J. (2007), Changing patterns of global staffing in the multinational enterprise: challenges to the conventional expatriate assignments and emerging alternatives, *Journal of World Business* 42: 198-213
- DeFillippi, R. J. and Arthur, M. B. (1994). The boundaryless career: A competency-based perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(4), 307-324.
- DeFrank, R. S., Konopaske, R. and Ivancevich, J. M. (2000). Executive travel stress : Perils of the road warrior. *Academy of Management Executive*, 14(2), 58–71.
- Demel, B. and Mayrhofer, W. (2010). Frequent business travelers across Europe: Career aspirations and implications. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 52(4), 301–311
- Dickmann, M. (2013). Why do they come to London? Exploring the Motivations of Expatriates to Work in the British Capital, *Journal of Management Development*, 31(8): 783-800.
- Dickmann, M. and Doherty, N. (2008). Exploring the career capital impact of international assignments within distinct organizational contexts. *British Journal of Management*, 19(2), 145-161.
- Dickmann, M., Doherty, N., Mills, T. and Brewster, C. (2008). Why do they Go? Individual and Corporate Perspectives on the Factors influencing the Decision to Accept an International Assignment, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 19 (4): 731-751.
- Dickmann, M. and Harris, H. (2005). Developing career capital for global careers: The role of international assignments. *Journal of World Business*, 40, 399–408.
- Dickmann, M. and Müller-Camen, M. (2006) A Typology of International Human Resource Management Strategies and Processes, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17 (4): 580-601
- Dickmann, M., Müller-Camen, M. and Kelliher, C. (2009). Exploring standardisation and knowledge networking processes in transnational human resource management. *Personnel Review*, 38 (1): 5-25.
- Dietz, G. (2010). Introduction to the special issue on employment discrimination against immigrants. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25 (2), 148-158.
- Doherty, N. and Dickmann, M. (2012). Measuring the return on investment in international assignments: an action research approach. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(16): 3434-3454.
- Doherty, N., Dickmann, M. and Mills, T. (2011). Exploring the Motives of Company-Backed and Self-Initiated Expatriates, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(3): 595-611
- Doherty, N. and Dickmann, M. (2009). Exposing the symbolic capital of international assignments. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(2), 301-320.

- Dowling, P., Festing, M. and Engle Sr, A. D. (2008). *International human resource management: Managing people in a multinational context*. Cengage Learning.
- Edström, A. and Galbraith, J. R. (1977). Transfer of managers as a coordination and control strategy in multinational organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 248-263.
- Edwards, T., Colling, T. and Ferner, A. (2007). Conceptual approaches to the transfer of employment practices in multinational companies: an integrated approach. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 17(3), 201-217.
- Espino, C. M., Sundstrom, S. M., Frick, H. L., Jacobs, M. and Peters, M. (2002). International business travel: impact on families and travellers. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 59, 309–322.
- Evans, P., Pucik, V. and Björkman, I. (2011). *The Global Challenge: International Human Resource Management*. 2nd edition. McGraw-Hill.
- Faulconbridge, J. and Beaverstock, J. (2008). Geographies of international business travel in professional service economy. In D. Hislop (Ed.), *Mobility and technology in the Workplace* (pp. 87–102). London: Mobility and Technology in the Workplace.
- Farndale, E., Scullion, H. and Sparrow, P. R. (2010). The role of the corporate HR function in global talent management. *Journal of World Business*, 45(2): 161-168.
- Ferner, A. (1997). Country of origin effects and HRM in multinational companies. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 7(1), 19-37.
- Furusawa, M. and Brewster, C. (2014). The bi-cultural option for global talent management: the Japanese/ Brazilian *Nikkeijin* example. *Journal of World Business*, 50(1): 133-143.
- Findlay, A.M., Li, F.L.N., Jowett, A.J. and Skeldon, R. (2000). Skilled international migration and the global city: a study of expatriates in Hong Kong, *Applied Geography*, 20 (3): 277-304.
- Fenwick, M. (2004) On international assignment: is expatriation the only way to go? *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 42 (3): 365–77.
- Guo, C. and Al Ariss, A. (2015) Human Resource Management of International Migrants: current theories and future research. *International Journal of Human Resource Management* 26 (10), 1287-1297
- Gripenberg, P., Niemistö, C. and Alapeteri, C., (2013). Ask us equally if we want to go: evolving gender implications in international assignments among Finnish business graduates. *Journal of Global Mobility: The Home of Expatriate Management Research*, 1(3), pp.287–311.
- Guo, C., & Al Ariss, A. (2015). Human resource management of international migrants: current theories and future research. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(10), 1287-1297.
- Gustafson, P. (2012), ‘Travel time and working time: what business travellers do when they travel, and why. *Time and Society*, 21: 203–222.
- Harris, H., and Brewster, C. (1999). The coffee-machine system: how international selection really works. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(3), 488-500.
- Harvey, M., Mayerhofer, H., Hartmann, L. and Moeller, M. (2010). ‘Coralling the Horses’ to Staff the Global Organization of 21st Century, *Organizational Dynamics*, 39, 258-268.
- Harvey, M. (1997). The impact of the dual-career expatriate on international human resource management. *Journal of International Management*, 3, 251-290.
- Harvey, M. G. (1989). Repatriation of corporate executives: An empirical study. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 131-144.
- Haslberger, A., Brewster, C. and Hippler, T. (2013). The dimensions of expatriate adjustment. *Human Resource Management*, 52(3), 333-351.

- Herman, J.L. and Tetrick, L.E. (2009), Problem-Focused Versus Emotion-Focused Coping Strategies and Repatriation Adjustment, *Human Resource Management*, 48, 1, 69–88.
- Hippler, T. (2009). Why do they go? Empirical evidence of employees' motives for seeking or accepting relocation. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(6), 1381-1401.
- Hippler, T., Brewster, C. and Haslberger, A. (2015, forthcoming) The elephant in the room: the role of time in expatriate adjustment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management* 26 (15):1920–1935
- Hocking, J.B., Brown, M. and Harzing, A.-W. (2004), A knowledge transfer perspective of strategic assignment purposes and their path-dependent outcomes. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15 (3): 565-586.
- Hoyer, K. and Næss, P. (2001). Conference tourism: a problem for the environment, as well as for research? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 9(6), 451-470.
- Inkson, K. and Arthur, M. B. (2001). How to be a successful career capitalist. *Organizational Dynamics*, 30(1), 48-61.
- Ivancevich, J. M., Konopaske, R. and Defrank, R. S. (2003). Business travel stress: A model, propositions and managerial implications. *Work and Stress*, 17(2), 138–157.
- Jensen, M. (2013), Exploring business travel with work-family conflict and the emotional exhaustion component of burnout as outcome variables: the job demands-resources perspective, *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23(4), 497-510
- Jie, S. and Lang, B. (2009). Cross-cultural training and its impact on expatriate performance in Australian MNEs. *Human Resource Development International*, 12(4): 371-386.
- Larsen, H. H. (2004). Global career as dual dependency between the organization and the individual. *Journal of Management Development*, 23(9), 860-869.
- Lazarova, M. B. and Cerdin, J. L. (2007). Revisiting repatriation concerns: Organizational support versus career and contextual influences. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38(3), 404-429.
- Mayerhofer, H., Hartmann, L. C., Michelitsch-Riedl, G. and Kollinger, I. (2004). Flexpatriate assignments: a neglected issue in global staffing. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(8), 1371–1389.
- Mayrhofer, W., Sparrow, P. and Zimmermann, A (2008), Modern forms of international working. In Brewster, C. Sparrow, P. and Dickmann, M. (eds) *International Human Resource Management* Routledge, London.
- McKenna, S. and Richardson, J., 2007. The increasing complexity of the internationally mobile professional. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 14(4), 307–320.
- Millar, J. and Salt, J. (2006), *The mobility of expertise in trans-national corporations*, Migration Research Unit, Working Paper, University College London.
- Minbaeva, D. B. and S. Michailova (2004) Knowledge transfer and expatriation in multinational corporations: the role of disseminative capacity, *Employee Relations*, 26 (6), 663–79
- Mäkelä, L., Bergbom, B., Tanskanen, J. and Kinnunen, U., (2014). A Longitudinal Mediation Model on the Relationship between International Business Travel and Sleep Problems via Work-Family Conflict. *Career Development International*, 19(7), 794–812.
- Mäkelä, L., Bergbom, B., Saarenpää, K. and Suutari, V. (2015). Work–family conflict faced by international business travellers: Do gender and parental status make a difference? *Journal of Global Mobility*.3 (2), 155-168

- Mäkelä, L., and Suutari, V. (2011), Coping With Work-Family Conflicts in the Global Career Context, *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 53(3), 365–375.
- Mäkelä, L., Kinnunen, U. and Suutari, V., (2015). Work-to-life conflict and enrichment among international business travelers: the role of international career orientation (In press). *Human Resource Management*. 54 (3) 517–531,
- Reiche, S., Kraimer, M. L. and Harzing, A.-W. K. (2009). Inpatriates as agents of cross-unit knowledge flows in multinational corporations. In P. R. Sparrow (Ed.), *Handbook of International Human Resource Management: integrating people, process and context* (151-170). Chichester: John Wiley and Son.
- Salt, J. and Wood, P. (2012). Recession and international corporate mobility. *Global Networks* 12(4): 425–445.
- Schuler, R. and Tarique, I. (2012). Global talent management: theoretical perspectives, systems, and challenges, in I.Björkman and G. Stahl (eds), *Handbook of Research in IHRM*, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Shaffer, M. A., Kraimer, M. L., Chen, Y. P. and Bolino, M. C. (2012). Choices, Challenges, and Career Consequences of Global Work Experiences A Review and Future Agenda. *Journal of Management*, 38(4), 1282-1327.
- Sparrow, P., Brewster, C. and Harris, H. (2004). *Globalizing human resource management*. Routledge.
- Stahl, G.K. and Cerdin, J-L. (2004). Global careers in French and German multinational corporations, *Journal of Management Development*, 23(9), 885–902.
- Starr, T. L. (2009). Repatriation and short-term assignments: an exploration into expectations, change and dilemmas. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(2): 286-300.
- Starr, T. L. and Currie, G. (2009). Out of sight but still in the picture: short-term international assignments and the influential role of family *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(6): 1421-1438.
- Suutari, V. (2003). Global managers: Career orientation, career tracks, life-style implications, and career commitment. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(3), 185–207.
- Suutari, V. and Brewster, C. (2003) Repatriation: evidence from a longitudinal study of careers and empirical expectations among Finnish repatriates *International Journal of Human Resource Management* 14 (7), 1132-1151
- Suutari, V. and Brewster, C (2009) Beyond expatriation: different forms of international employment. In Sparrow, P. (ed) *Handbook of International Human Resource Management: integrating people, process and context*. Wiley, Chichester (131-150)
- Suutari, V., Brewster, C., Riusala, K. and Syrjakari, S. (2013) Managing non-standard international experience: Evidence from a Finnish company. *Journal of Global Mobility* 1 (2), 118-138
- Suutari, V. and Mäkelä, K. (2007). The career capital of managers with global careers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22, 628–648.
- Suutari, Tornikoski C. and Mäkelä, L. (2012). Career Decision Making of Global Careerists, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23-16, 3455-3478.
- Suutari, V. Wurtz, O. and Tornikoski, C. (2014) How to attract and retain global careerists: evidence from Finland. In Al Ariss (ed). *Global Talent Management*. Zurich, Springer International Publishing
- Tahvanainen, M. (2003), *Short Term International Assignments: Popular Yet Largely Unknown Way of Working Abroad*. Helsinki: HeSE Print.

- Tahvanainen, M., Welch, D. and Worm, V. (2005). Implications of short-term international assignments. *European Management Journal*, 23(6): 663-673.
- Takeuchi, R., Tesluk, P. E., Yun, S. and Lepak, D. P. (2005). An integrative view of international experience. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(1), 85-100.
- The RES-Forum (2015). The RES Forum Annual Report: Global Mobility and the Global Talent Management Conundrum, RES Forum, UniGroup Relocation Network and Equus Software, Report authored by M. Dickmann, 108 pages, London.
- The RES-Forum (2014). *Key Trends in Global Mobility*, RES Forum, UniGroup Relocation Network and Equus Software, Report authored by M. Dickmann, 102 pages, London.
- Thomas, D. C. and Inkson, K. (2004). *Cultural intelligence: People skills for global business*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.
- Toh, S. M. and DeNisi, A. S. (2005). A local perspective to expatriate success. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 19(1), 132-146.
- Turchick Hakak, L., & Al Ariss, A. (2013). Vulnerable work and international migrants: a relational human resource management perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24 (22), 4116-4131.
- UN (2013) *Population Facts* Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, New York, United Nations
- Welch, D., Welch, L. and Worm, V. (2007). The international business traveller: a neglected but strategic human resource. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(2), 173–183.
- Westman, M., Etzion, D. and Chen, S., 2008. Crossover of positive experiences from business travelers to their spouses. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24(3), pp.269–284.