Expatriate management in hostile environments from a multi-stakeholder perspective: a systematic review

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"Applying a multi-stakeholder perspective of expatriate management in hostile environments– a systematic review."

Purpose: The successful management of business expatriates and their families in hostile environments (HEs) is a current concern for academics and HR practitioners alike. Terrorism and other forms of crime and violence have become salient topics on the public agenda, and organisations are increasingly affected. Hence, scholarly interest in the HR implications for organisations sending staff in regions considered hostile has recently grown and a nascent research area has emerged. This paper is the first systematic review synthesizing the emerging literature in the field of expatriate management in HEs and its theoretical foundations, applying a multi-stakeholder perspective.

Design/Method: Following accepted review procedures systematic searches were conducted across three major databases. Manual search in target journals and the tapping of expert networks provided additional scrutiny.

Findings: Analysing all 29 articles, four main stakeholders have been identified: the environment, the expatriate, the assigning organisation and other social actors. Findings reveal the ways of how all stakeholders can affect expatiation success or be affected so that the success of the assignment is jeopardised.

Originality/value: Our paper illustrates how these diverse articles can be linked within a comprehensive multi-stakeholder framework and shows avenues for future research. We also shift attention to previously still neglected theoretical perspectives that might further improve our understanding of expatriates in HEs and which could be used to offer actionable guidance for managerial and organisational practice.

Keywords: expatriate management, HEs, systematic review

Competing in global international often requires organisations to assign expatriate managers to oversee their operations abroad. The destinations of such assignments are increasingly characterised by violent and unstable country conditions (Hounta and Lehmann, 2015; Schulz and Camp, 2018) as the number of high-risk countries across the world is growing. Exposure to phenomena such as terrorism and other forms of violence has become a "new reality" for many organisations (Fee and McGrath-Champ, 2017). Increasingly, international companies and their staff become targets of attacks, creating challenges for personal safety and wellbeing and a barrier to corporate success (Czinkota et al., 2010; AXA's World of Work Report, 2017). Evidence that internationally mobile employees seem show reservation towards assignments in countries they perceive as high-risk or environments they perceive as hostile (Wagner and Westaby, 2009; Wang and Bu, 2004) renders the above development an issue of high practical relevance. Additionally, the proximity to terrorist threats or the experience of other crime and violence have shown to be serious stressors associated with negative work-related outcomes (see Howie, 2007; Mainiero and Gibson, 2003; Ramirez et al., 2016; Reade 2009).

With a plethora of studies on the consequences of hostile environments (HEs) focussing on domestic work contexts (Beutell et al., 2017), far less is known about international work settings. However, understanding the factors and stakeholders involved that can contribute or hinder the expatriation success appears critical for organisations, as it is not only their responsibility to ensure the safety and wellbeing of their employees. Better managing expatriation into HEs could additionally be seen as an important prerequisite in attracting, deploying and retaining internationally mobile staff (AXA's World of Work Report, 2017; Claus, 2011). Being a timely issue of practical relevance might explain the more recent increase in empirical studies focussed at the nexus of HEs and international work. As with other nascent or emerging areas of scholarly interest, it is also not surprising that we see a lack of conceptual

consensus and plurality in theoretical approaches. Hence, our aim is to systematically capture the current scholarly debates and synthesize evidence and theoretical perspectives in the emerging research area of expatriate management in HEs.

As the research carried out in hostile contexts does so on multiple levels (Bader et al., 2019a), in this review we apply a multi-stakeholder perspective (see Takeuchi, 2010 for a similar approach) and develop a framework that captures key stakeholders that have been investigated in 29 publications identified and analysed in our review. We also use the stakeholder lens as a structure to report our findings. In doing so, we not only highlight all relevant groups or individuals but also describe how these can affect or be affected by the assignment. While expatriate literature often focuses on negative outcomes (Lämsä et al., 2017), the review also unravels how stakeholders can positively influence HE-assignments. Our systematic literature review will form the basis for the framework that captures previous research and highlights areas for future research. For practitioners, this review provides insights into the challenges experienced by expatriate staff and aid in developing practices and polices based on synthesized evidence. Pursuing the above aim, the next section will contextualise the research setting and outline our understanding of HEs and expatriates working in them. Based on the development of a working definition of HE, approaches to and insights from extant research will be systematically collected and synthesised, providing a stakeholder perspective and the ways they can contribute and hinder successful expatriation. The paper concludes with key contributions, limitations and implications for future research.

Towards key definitions: "HEs" and "Expatriates"

The scholarly and practitioner literature remains unclear about a definition of HEs but frequently relates it with terms such 'dangerous', 'high-risk', 'hardship', 'fragile' or 'extreme'

(Fee, 2017), and suggests a potential presence of severe physical threats such as war, civil insurrection, terrorism, or uncontrolled violence and crime (Bader et al., 2016; Faeth and Kittler, 2017; Villa da Costa, 2009). Particularly developing regions where expatriates are confronted with under-resourced living and working conditions are prone to such forms of threat (Eriksson et al., 2009; Paulus and Muehfeld, 2017). Further challenges that could be associated with HEs are an absence or lack of governmental core functions such as infrastructure, health and family support services, or security (Dickmann and Watson, 2017). Additionally, scholars relate phenomena such as corruption, ambiguity, rapid and violent changes, remoteness, extreme climates, and substantial cultural differences to a wider list characterizing HEs (Gannon and Paraskevas, 2017; Greppin et al., 2017; Suder et al., 2017). Consequently, a wider understanding of HE suggests human-made as well as natural sources of hostility, which requires additional clarification heading towards a working definition of HEs.

The definition of HEs we posit in this study focusses on human-made sources of hostility. A wider definitional boundary might be tempting, as it would yield way for further understanding on how responses to different types of dangerous environments might vary. Indeed, similar to human-made threats, natural disaster can cause substantial physical harm. However, within this paper on hostile environments, our focus leans towards hostility definitions, which tend to be linked to social relations and typically refer to generalized negative feelings about or towards others (e.g. Hakulinen et al., 2013), natural threats will not be included in our conceptualisation. Natural disasters might fit with future work, suggesting a wider perspective looking beyond HE and discussing the wider context of dangerous locations. After clarifying the boundaries, we define HEs as locations in which individuals are seen exposed to an above-average presence of human-made threats in form of intentional violence (particularly reflected in acts of terror or other criminal activities) or the lack of

provision of essential resources (potentially fostering criminal activities). This definition allows classifying a HE based on data provided in sources such as the Global Terror Index annually published by the Institute for Economics and Peace, the United Nations' Homicide Rate, or the United Nations' Human Development Index.

The suggested concept of HEs seems relevant within the IHRM literature and hence fit for the purpose of our review. Empirical studies report that it is not uncommon for expatriates to be exposed to various discomforts and risks such as frauds and scams during purchases, break-ins, burglary, theft, hold-ups, robbery, carjacking, and at worst severe physical harm, kidnapping and assassination (Bhanugopan and Fish, 2008; Bensimon, 1998; Coyne and Bell, 2012). The presence of such human-made threats to expatriates can be assumed for specific geographic locations (e.g. Faeth and Kittler, 2017) but also for specific industries. Often being less sensitive towards local culture and potential threat, foreign staff seem to be a preferred target for such activities. While it might then appear sensible to employ more local staff, restrained availability of local knowledge and skills often make expatriates a strategic and operational necessity (Dickmann, et al., 2017; Fee, McGrath-Champ and Lui, 2013; Welch, Steen and Tahvanaien, 2009). This justifies our focus on expatriates in HEs and also requires a working definition of expatriate as used in this review.

There are various understandings of the term expatriate and precise boundaries are difficult to establish (see Andresen and Biemann, 2013; Cerdin and Selmer, 2014; Shaffer et al., 2012). Not contesting other approaches to define expatriates, our review applies McNulty and Brewster's (2017) understanding of a 'business expatriate' based on a set of decisive criteria for international staff to be included in their definition. Firstly, the emphasis should be on business employment, with the relocation motivation being job- or career-driven. Thus, to be considered a business expatriate, the individual needs to be organisationally employed. This allows the inclusion of assigned expatiates (AEs) as well as self-initiated expatriates (SIEs)

(see Suutari and Brewster, 2000) but excludes those individuals who are travelling for an overseas experience and are employed casually. The second inclusion criterion is the intended time to stay abroad. According to this criteria, a business expatriate must not have the intention to settle abroad permanently. However, this definition still entails professionals who spent the majority of their career abroad such as 'glopatriates' or 'propatriots' (McPhail et al., 2012). Additionally, individuals are not supposed to be a native to the country they are assigned to. Within this review, a working definition that is not specific to a certain sector, further allows us to encompass all studies carried out across different industries in this nascent research area.

Search method

For a rigorous review, the paper followed a three-stage approach suggested by Tranfield et al. (2003). In the planning stage a review panel was formed, which carried out an iterative process of scoping the literature. Thereby, the research objectives, the research question and the inclusion and exclusion criteria were established, as well as subsequent the review protocol. A comprehensive search aimed to identify all relevant studies, within the boundaries of the inclusion criteria that investigated the impact of a) terrorism or b) crime or c) any other physical threat on d) the management of expatriates. This objective is reflected in the overall review question: How does the presence of threat to personal safety influence the management of expatriates?

In order to conduct the review, appropriate keywords and search strings were derived from the scoping search, resulting in 23 keywords in total. Clustered into two subgroups, these keywords yielded in 132 possible keyword combinations for which titles, abstracts and subject terms of documents were searched (Table 1). In September 2017, the libraries of the three online data bases Web of Science (core collection), EBSCO (Business Source Complete,

Political Science Complete, PsycARTICLES, PsycINFO), and SCOPUS were systematically searched for relevant documents. Titles, abstracts and subject terms that met the inclusion criteria were transferred to the reference management software endnotes for further analysis. To be considered for further analysis, the studies had to meet a set of inclusion criteria. They had to be (1) peer-reviewed articles, (2) in English language, (3) with full text available (including requested articles), (4) published/accessible at September 2017, (5) focussing on assigned or potential expatriates, and (6) investigating the impact of either terrorism, crime or any other physical threat on expatriate management.

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The programmed search resulted in 1,037 records of which 963 records had to be instantly dismissed. Reasons for excluding papers were that they were (1) non peer-reviewed articles, (2) not in English, (3) not investigating the impact of physical crime (e.g. instead cyber terrorism/crime, employee crime, corruption), or (4) generally had no relation to the impact of physical threat and the management of expatriates. A further reason for exclusion was a focus on certain professional groups (e.g. soldiers, police, criminal justice officers) where potential exposure to or experience of physical threat is part of the job profile. This resulted in the eligibility of 46 records, after also removing duplicates. As suggested by Thorpe et al. (2005), the authors set up a relevance assessment in endnotes to organise further analysis and separated all transferred records into an A, B and C list. The A list compromised of all clearly relevant records, whereas for the B list the relevance was not clear a priori and required the full text analysis of records. The C list included all records that were less relevant or where a full-text version was not available (even after requesting the article). Following, all records in the A and

B list were retrieved for more detailed evaluation (full text), resulting in some records moving into the A list and vice versa. The manual analysis ended up with 23 relevant articles in the A list.

To provide a more rigorous result of the literature review, a group of academics in the field was identified through the scope search and the authors' scholarly networks. These experts were contacted and asked to provide a list of what they consider influential works in the field of expatriate management in HEs or if they knew of any recently published research. In total eleven scholars were approached, of whom seven replied, with five suggesting further literature, leading to an additional 18 records in the A list. Whereas some of the records suggested were already detected in the automated search, some records were new. However, all new articles were already excepted for publication (but not available online yet) and thus did not violated our criterion of peer-revision.

Additionally, target journals were manually searched for Special Issues (SI) within the topic area, resulting in 14 further records, of which one was dismissed (Greppin et al., 2017) due to our inclusion/exclusion criteria and understanding of HEs. After removing the duplicates, 36 records were identified as relevant articles. Out of the 36 identified records, a further ten records were excluded. Three book chapters were excluded as the reviewing procedures are less strict than for journal articles, one Call for Papers (CfP) was removed as it did not add actual content to the review, and another six consultancy reports have been taken out due to their limited scholarly contribution. Thus, the total number of records that qualified for further review was 26.

To provide an up to date overview of relevant literature at the time of publication of this article, the automated search was repeated in September 2019, applying an additional filter which limited the output to articles published between 2017 and 2019. The repeated search

resulted in three further records, including one SI editorial (Bader et al., 2019a), one conceptual paper (Harvey et al., 2019) and one empirical paper (Leder, 2019).

The process of inclusion and exclusion was documented in a PRISMA Flow Chart throughout the stages (Figure 1) and all eligible records were added to a data-extraction-form, yielding all general information as well as study features, stakeholders investigated and findings (Table 3 in the APPENDIX).

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In order to synthesize the data to report our findings, we manually coded the remaining 29 articles with the intention to identify all important stakeholders involved in an assignments in HEs and how these can either (a) affect the success of the assignment or (b) can be affected so that the success of the assignment is jeopardised. Our approach is based on the broad definition of a stakeholder, which is "any group that can affect or be affected" by the organisation (Freemann, 1984). Whereas normally when applying the multi-stakeholder perspective, the organisational success is in focus (Greenwood and DiCieri, 2005), in the expatriate context, we submit, expatriation success should be the focal point and the organisation a stakeholder, whose performance makes significant contributions to this success.

Analysing all 29 articles, we identified three major stakeholders that are involved in the expatriation process and a similar role attributed to the *environment*. The major stakeholders are the *expatriates* themselves and the assigning *organisations* but also other *social actors* such as the expatriate family, other social networks from the home country, host country nationals (HCNs) and the local community. As a fourth stakeholder, we include the environment, relying on Mitchell et al.'s (1997) statement that environment can also be understood as a stakeholder.

We argue that in the given context, the novel characteristics of the environment (particularly increased hostility) are of great importance for the outcome of the assignment and thus an important stakeholder. However, unlike the other three stakeholders identified, the environment is in the unique position of only affecting assignment success but not being directly affected by the other stakeholders.

Following the style of Takeuchi's (2010) illustration of primary stakeholders during expatriation, figure 2 provides an overview of all stakeholders included in the 29 articles and the ways of how the can either affect the success of the assignment, or be affected so that the success of the assignment is jeopardised. Our presentation of research findings will also follow the structural logic introduced in this figure.

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General observations of records identified

The systematic searches carried out in September 2017 and September 2019 identified 29 relevant articles (see Table 2 in the APPENDIX for more details), suggesting that the number of research carried out is still limited. However, the timeliness of the topic with the majority of studies identified for this review dating 2015 and later suggests an emerging area of research. Identified records consisted of 20 empirical studies (69%) and 5 conceptual papers (17.2%), and 4 SI editorial (13.8%). The empirical studies were composed of 9 quantitative studies (31%) with an average of 159 respondents, 10 qualitative studies (34.5%) with an average of 17 interviewees, and one mixed-methods study (3.4%). The geographic context in

all studies was widely spread, but mostly concentrated on HEs in the Middle East, Asia and Africa. The sectors in which expatriates operated were also wide ranging, including the oil and gas industry, NGOs, mining and resource industry, telecommunication, service and administrative sectors, news media, engineering and construction, as well as the educational sector.

A multi-stakeholder perspective: Findings of the systematic review

The environment

As per our definition, HEs are characterised by (serious) security issues, creating several work and non-work constraints that lead to disruptions of business but also increased stress and lower wellbeing of the expatriate. Attacks on businesses can hinder operations by restricting transportation and cutting of access to energy, goods, equipment, and communication systems (Bader et al., 2016). Constraints are also noticeable outside of work and safety concerns force expatriates and their families to live a very restricted life with a change in their daily routines and safety measures having to be implemented (Bader et al., 2016). Just the presence of latent threat can be enough to prompt fear of victimisation (Bader et al., 2015; Bader and Berg, 2013) which often is further amplified by excessive media coverage after an incident but not necessarily reflecting an accurate picture of the actual threat (Coyne and Bell, 2011; Smiley, 2016).

Interestingly, it has been found that the perceived fear is likely to depend on the type of threat and the empirical findings of Grannon and Paraskeva (2017) show that crime seems to be the major concern. Faeth and Kittler (2017) report similar observations. Their interviewees perceived fear more strongly in a high-crime environment than in a terror-endangered environment as the likelihood of victimisation was much higher. Also, the host countries (HCs)

laws and regulations as well as the HCs society's acceptance of foreigners and their differing viewpoints and lifestyles has shown to further affect expatriates' feeling of safety (McPhail and McNulty, 2015).

In addition to security issues, governmental and other, more general issues exist in HEs, posing even more constraints. Next to a lack of security and economic and political development, expressed in poor infrastructure and undersupply of goods and services, corruption and a lack of laws and regulations make the work situation more difficult (Bader et al., 2016; Suder et al., 2017) and are likely to influence the decision-making for the acceptance of the assignment (Stoermer et al., 2017). Dickmann and Watson (2017) found that the actual threat level of the HC or the experience of some form of violence strongly affects the decision of expatriates to accept or continue an assignment. Language and cultural factors as well as the overall reputation of the HC and climatic conditions are also of importance for the expatriate's decisions (Dickmann and Watson, 2017; Shortland, 2016).

The expatriate

Empirical evidence suggests that the aforementioned stressors often affect the expatriate by increased fear and stress, lower wellbeing and maladjustment which all jeopardise the expatriation success. In particular expatriates with pre-existing health issues seem to be affected as there is evidence that this can further initiate fear of expatriation, characterised by the fear of violence/terrorism and fear of working and living conditions (Giorgi et al., 2016). As mentioned previously, the actual experience of a safety incident but also the constant possibility of it happening, rise the expatriate's stress and fear level (Bader and Berg, 2013; Bader, 2015). This results in expatriates living a very restricted lifestyle with limited freedom of movement, often resulting in social and partially separation from HCNs (Smiley, 2016). Not

surprisingly, the diminished quality of life and personal freedom negatively affects the overall wellbeing, especially the physical one (Faeth and Kittler, 2017). Perceiving one's life (quality) as impeded through the presence of a physical threat can further lead to maladjustment (Bader and Berg, 2014; Bhanugopan and Fish, 2008; Paulus and Muehfeld, 2017), a common cause of failure in traditional expatriation (Caligiuri, 1997). Next to this, LGBT expatriates face additional serious challenges as some countries that are considered hostile, still give the death sentence to those convicted of homosexual acts, resulting in religious, political, and legal intolerance, stigmatisation and discrimination (McPhail and McNulty, 2015).

However, studies in the review also identified factors that enable successful expatriation such as certain skills, the right motivation to work in a HE, and adjustment. For example, appropriate coping skills have been found to be necessary to reduce the negative impact a HE can have. Ideally, the coping strategies are aligned with the type of threat as well as the stage of crisis and expatriation as coping is a dynamic process which develops over time, and requires different strategies at each stage. In their qualitative study, Faeth and Kittler (2017) found that expatriates in the terror-endangered Nairobi expatriates relied mostly on avoidance-orientated coping strategies (e.g. avoiding crowds or public place that have previously been attacked at busy times), on problem-orientated coping strategies (e.g. taking different routes to work, keeping valuables in the boot of the car) in contrast in the high-crime environment of Johannesburg. In addition, Beutell et al. (2017) suggest that in the pre-departure stage, the focus should be on proactive coping to avoid any kind of fear or uncertainty and stress the importance of the development of skills that enable the expatriate to identify potential dangers and prepare for their occurrence. During the assignment, expatriates should still engage in proactive strategies but psychological and social support (emotional coping) is needed to reduce the negative effects caused by terrorism or other stressor experienced abroad and might be necessary to reinforce coping efforts. In the repatriation stage, desensitisation and an

assessment of the expatriate's health could be required to deal with any form of anxiety that has manifest during the expatriation.

Findings referring to the advantage of HC language skills are unusual. Whereas other studies rate them as important to be able to manage stressful health and security issues effectively (see Shortland, 2016), findings of Paulus and Muehfeld (2017) suggest otherwise. They found that HC language proficiency is positively related with cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) but also negatively associated with fear of terror, which in turn is negatively related to CCA. This implies that the effect of language skills can be reduced in countries where expatriates experience fear of terror. Paulus and Muehfeld (2017) ascribe their findings to the social identity theory that views language as one of the most salient characteristics of social identity and as a key separator of in- and out-groups. This means that the more language skills the expatriate has, the more will he or she consider HCNs to be in their 'in-group' of a shared social identity. Attacks on people with a shared social identity, generally seems to affect individuals more and thus is likely to increase the fear of terror (Davies et al., 2008). As a second reason, also tying in with previous discussion on amplified fear, they suspect that the ability to understand local media and news may contribute to the negative affect on CCA.

The fulfilment of motivational aspects can further positively influence the assignment outcome, when reflected in the organisation's reward, development, career, and retention approaches. A study investigating the motivational drivers of working in a HE revealed that many expatriates were willing to face risk because of personal/professional interest in the job (having a meaningful job), better career prospects after the overseas experience, and the development of career capital (learning experience, acquisition of valuable skills and an expanded network) (Dickmann and Watson, 2017). Expatriates with a strong desire for sensation seeking (desire to experience adventure and thrills) are also more likely to cope better with described hostilities. Building on the expectancy-value theory, Stoermer et al. (2017)

detected that, especially men, believe that they possess the necessary traits (e.g. low anxiety, willingness to face risk) to succeed in a HE.

Lastly, functional adjustment can reduce the fear and stress experienced and thus enable expatriation success. The study by Leder (2019) showed that although interviewed expatriates perceived high risk in their HC, their concern about their own wellbeing was low. Data suggest that this resilience is a result of functional adjustment which is achieved by the activation of accommodation (employing of risk defusing operators) and assimilation (flexible adjustment of behaviours, emotions and goals) strategies.

The organisation

From an organisational perspective, the expatriation success is at risk, when the previously described stressors and constraints lead to negative work-related outcomes in the expatriate (Pinto et al., 2017; Scullion et al., 2007). Studies have shown that the stress experienced in a HE had a negative impact on their work attitude and caused a disaffection with HCNs which in turn lead to worse performance (Bader and Berg, 2013). Bader et al. (2015) discovered that stress experienced in the non-work domain (in this study characterised by intra-family conflicts) spilled over to the work domain, likewise impeding the expatriate's work performance. Bader et al. (2016) came to similar conclusions in that constraints in the work and non-work domain could elicit job turnover intentions and country leave intentions. Finally, Bhanugopan and Fish (2008) revealed that the experience of certain crimes decreased the work-life quality expatriates, embodied by job burnout, job dissatisfaction, job stress, and job turnover intentions. Reasoning for the behaviour and attitude changes are mostly drawn from the theory of cognitive appraisal (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), but alternative

explanations can be found in the conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989), and the breach of the psychological contract (Guzzo et al., 1994).

To avoid these negative consequences, organisations should invest in (perceived) organisational support (POS), design appropriate HR policies and practices and activate their resources and capabilities as well as creating rare knowledge (Pinto et al., 2017). Bader's (2015) study showed that POS as well as satisfaction with the compensation package had a positive effect on expatriates' work attitudes. Grounded in the social exchange theory and concepts of psychological contract and duty of care, POS is not only a legal and moral responsibility but a company that shows its appreciation by providing POS, is likely to employ obligated expatriates who respond with positive work attitudes (Claus, 2011; Claus and McNulty, 2015; Fee et al., 2013; Fee and McGrath-Champ, 2017; Harvey et al., 2019). POS appears to be even more important in a HE as the company's success is the only reason for the expatriate to expose him- or herself to the potential danger. Bader's (2015) study also revealed that for employees who are particularly sensitive to terrorism, the influence of a satisfactory compensation package is weaker but the social support more important. Bader et al. (2015) further found that POS moderates the impact of perceived general stress on expatriate job performance, with those individuals who are receiving higher levels of POS experiencing stress less severe.

In regards to appropriate HR strategies and policies, Harvey et al. (2019) urge the need of a terrorism preparedness plan which should assess past and present situations and the likelihood of threats occurring, contemplate the organisation's ability to respond to identified threats and based on that implement global mobility programmes that are monitored and modified on a regular basis. In a similar vein, Posthuma et al. (2017) developed a conceptual expatriate risk management (ERM) framework that proposes HRM practices that can contribute to the expatriate's adjustment in a hostile context. They suggest that all practices

should be based on a thorough risk identification (collection of information about the environment and all possible dangers and threats) and risk analysis (estimate the probability of the risk occurring and its severity). Building on this foundation, crisis planning could include context specific and necessary safety measures such as secure housing, armoured vehicles, bodyguards, registering with an international travel hotline to receive regular security updates.

Not only the planning and monitoring of the safety situation is important but also its execution in from of safety measures. Fee et al. (2017) unveil different security approaches across three industries. While some core practices (information intensity, customisation of HR practices, and collaboration) were similar among all three types, some practices were industry specific. For instance, in the mining and resources industry security practices were heavily regulated, highly structured, formalised, and license-driven ('regulatory' approaches). In the media sector practices were person-based and relied on informal mentoring and knowledge of individuals, and were shaped by occupational identity and community ('informal mentoring'). In the international aid and development sector an empowering approach was used, focusing on building an organisational culture in which staff is trained and encouraged to take on responsibility and be pro-active ('empowering approach').

Taken the above points together, Fee and McGrath-Champ (2017) propose a bundle of major features that HR practices and policies should consist of. Organisations are advised to establish an organisational culture that promotes safety and security and contains an appropriate philosophy and strategy. This culture should then be further supported by three inter-related areas of operational priority: people services (selection, training and employee wellbeing), information services (data collection, monitoring, evaluation, organisational learning), and communication services (communicating with internal and external stakeholders). Gannon and Paraskevas (2017) resume the idea of the three types of services and expand their model by adding the HRM activity of policy and standard development and

compliance. Similar to Beutell et al. (2017), they further link these services to the different stages of expatriation and crisis (see also Bader et al., 2019a; Fee et al., 2013). In the pre-crisis phase and pre-expatriation phase, the organisation should try to reduce its vulnerability and prepare for fast and effective responses in case of a crisis. Carrying out a risk assessment, screening expatriates' physical and psychological health, crisis preparedness training, and taking care of secure housing are necessary steps in this phase. During the crisis and expatriation, the focus is on decision-making and communication. A crisis management team should be managing the process and logistics, and be in constant dialogue with all stakeholders. In the post-crisis phase (repatriation phase), it is important to provide support to affected individuals and to learn from the crisis and revise the policies and practices accordingly.

Tying in with the last point, Suder et al. (2017) the importance of organisational learning which can be understood as the process of creating, retaining and transferring knowledge within an organisation aimed to improve their performance (Drejer, 2000). Suder et al. (2017) argue that in a HE it is particularly important to identify the knowledge gaps and respond to unique challenges with new and innovate solutions ('compensational learning'). Additionally, it is crucial for organisations to leverage and internalise the rare knowledge gained during a crisis. As crisis practices are best informed by the first-hand experience of expatriates operating in HEs, companies must ensure that managerial learning is transferred into organisational learning and that personal knowledge gained becomes available to others. They suggest HR interventions such as debriefing (opportunities to discuss and reflect expatriates' experience); journaling (keeping a diary and reflect, write and share emotions and thoughts), and exit interviews (interview expatriates before the leave a post or the company) to help to facilitate this process (Suder et al., 2017).

In order to gain sustainable competitive advantage, organisations need to acquire resources that are valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable, and non-substitutable (VRIN) (Barney,

1991; Wernerfelt, 1984). From a resources-based view, expatriates' (or local staff's) knowledge, skills, and activities in the workforce are these VRIN resources and their availability will determine the organisation's success abroad (Colbert, 2004; Wright, McMahan, and McWilliams, 1994). The organisation's capability to deploy their expatriate resources effectively, will thus determine the success of the expatriation (capability-based view) (Dickmann et al., 2017).

Other social actors

Expatriate Family

In traditional expatriation, the family is considered one of the most important stakeholders and their unhappiness or inability to adjust, is one of the most common reasons for expatriate failure (Haslsberger and Brewster, 2008; Takeuchi, 2010; Tung, 1988). The risk of this happening is particularly high in a HE where the safety situation offers more potential for intra-family conflicts to arise. The potential risk requires all family members to apply adequate coping strategies and behaviours and change their set of demands (Bader et al., 2015). Safety issues become a component of the family life and discrepancies and relationship strain can arise when family members differ in their perception about safety, or question the necessity of exposing the entire family to such danger and living situation (Bader and Berg, 2013). Potential dissatisfaction of the spouse and children with the overall situation but also a bad conscious of the expatriate about putting the family in this situation in the first place can cause doubts about the entire reasonability of the assignment and make it difficult to concentrate on the job (Bader et al., 2015; Faeth and Kittler, 2017). In fact, Bader and Berg (2013) detected that intra-family conflicts increased the expatriate's stress level which eventually could lead to worse performance. Expatriates that were currently assigned to a HE reported that their

decision to relocate was influenced by their partner/family situation (Dickmann and Watson, 2017). In particular, the partner's career aspirations, the quality of education in the HC, and the partner's ability to look after the children at home, were considered important factors. In order for expatriation to be successful, most likely the family must be satisfied with the above factors and well-adjusted in the HC.

Expatriate's Social Network

If the social network of the expatriate can be affected in a way that jeopardises the assignment does not emanate from the articles of this review and thus requires future research. However, studies did find that a social network can positively influence expatriation as a valuable resource of support. For example, Bader and Schuster (2015) found that a large, diverse, and weakly tied social network lead to greater psychological wellbeing of the expatriate. Building on the social network perspective, the authors argue that interactions with, host, and third-country nationals can be valuable for providing information and reducing uncertainty and, thus, reduce distress. A large network was expected to be beneficial because of the greater possibility to receive emotional, informational, instrumental, and appraisal support. Bader and Schuster (2015) believe that in a HE where danger might be present and insider information crucial, this would increase the chances of obtaining them. Due to different actors providing different forms of support, a diverse network was considered vital as HCNs should have a more realistic assessment of the dangers and overall situation. They found that weak ties within the social network had a greater impact on psychological wellbeing than strong ties, explaining this with a potential "contagion effect" strain and stress are usually more transmitted across close ties. Further, they assumed that actors with whom the expatriate has weaker ties (usually HCNs) would be better in providing informational and instrumental

support. Drawing on social exchange theory, Bader (2015) made similar observations as he detected a positive change in work attitudes when the expatriate possessed a large network and was satisfied with the social support received by co-workers. He assumed that in HEs where support is generally limited, social support becomes even more important as an alternative source of support.

Host Country Nationals/ Local community

Relationships with HCNs are expected to be more difficult than in a low-risk environment. When exposed to risk and experiencing fear, people have the tendency to avoid strangers and surround themselves with those who are or appear similar (Bader et al., 2016). Expatriates may perceive HCNs as culturally similar to local violent agitators, leading to little trust and afflicted relationships that in turn can be stressful and lead to strain and has shown to worsen the expatriate's performance (Bader and Berg, 2013, 2014). To feel more comfortable, expatriates prefer to live in enclosed communities and compounds among other expatriates (Shortland, 2016). While in some destinations such a coping mechanism might appear advisable and does provide more safety, it could have a negative side effect with opportunities for contact to HCNs becoming more limited and adjustment being hindered (Smiley, 2016). In addition, the fear of victimisation is often passed on within the expatriate community and does not necessary reflect the reality (Coyne and Bell, 2011). On the other hand, if the expatriate manages to gain trust and legitimacy among locals, this can add another layer of security and comfort as HCNs are more likely to accept the expatriate and the organisation's operations and provide them with valuable insider information (Bader and Schuster, 2015; Fee et al., 2017).

Discussion, future research and contribution

This review has systematically captured the scholarly debate focussing on expatriate management and success in HEs. Our findings suggest that current research is still in a pre-paradigm phase, discussing the same phenomenon through different theoretic lenses and with different methods. Yet, most (if not all) contributions identified seem to be interested in finding out what contributes to or hinders successful expatriation. While the theoretical foundations were found to differ, there seems to be implicit consensus across the reviewed papers that expatriates are less affected by HEs when harm can be prevented and their stress levels are kept low. Individual expatriate wellbeing lies also in the interest of other stakeholders, for instance their organisations. The consequences of ignoring the challenges expatriates face in HEs bears typical negative expatriation outcomes such as decreased performance, premature return, and other additional cost for the organisation. In a HE, such consequences might be even more relevant with the consequences of failed assignments or misreading the contextual challenges could be more severe than in less hostile contexts. Finding cross-pollination from the occupational psychology literature might suggest a more positive perspective, focussing on wellbeing rather than stress (as discussed further below).

Albeit the effort of conducting a rigorous review, this paper is subject to some limitations it shares with a plethora of systematic reviews conducted in the wider field of business and management studies. The focus of studies published in English language could be seen to establish a "Westerner bias" but is argued to be acceptable with English seen as common language in social sciences and widely used in international business practice (Nickerson, 2005). The selection of a limited array of databases could be considered as points of criticism but this potential shortcoming was anticipated and responded to by manual search and the additional consultation of subject experts. Due to the high number of duplicates (see Figure 1) saturation or at least marginal utility can be assumed (Kittler et al., 2011). Moreover, the focus of this literature review was to identify relevant articles that dealt with the

management of expatriates in HEs, articles looking at the impact on local employees have not been subject to this review but might provide additional insights. While local employees might feel equally threatened by the environment, expatriates are exposed to additional stressors such as intra- family conflicts and difficulties to adjust as described in the review.

Focussing on contributions, our study has systematically synthesised which stakeholders can affect expatriation success and how these can at the same time be affected in a way that jeopardizes this success looking at the extant literature in the field. Adding to extant literature, we have developed a working definition of HEs as environments in which individuals are exposed to an above-average presence of human-made threats in form of intentional violence or lack of provision of essential resources. Our definition excludes hostility or threats stemming from natural conditions or job designs and allows classifying HEs based on available data. We see the exclusion of non-human-made threats is a helpful working definition but at the same time acknowledge the merit and increasing relevance of the impact that natural threat and disaster may play in the future of internationally mobile work.

Our review has identified four major stakeholders that seem to have an influential role: the expatriate, the organisation and other stakeholders. We have also included the environment as a stakeholder as characteristics of the environment differentiate this strand of literature from the traditional expatriation context and add unique factors that can influence the overall assignment outcome. Other studies (see Rua, 2014; Takeuchi, 2010), also consider these stakeholders as important. Looking at the findings section of these review and the length of individual sections, it becomes obvious that two stakeholders (disregarding the environment) have received the most research attention, the expatriate and the assigning organisation.

Looking at the expatriate, adjustment and comfort with the HE seem harder to achieve than in less HEs. General adjustment poses additional difficulties to expatriates due to

additional non-work constraints (restricted and limited lifestyle, latent threat to deal with). While comfort with the general environment can be increased (e.g. through secure housing, expat communities), full mastery and adjustment are unlikely as constraints could contribute to a perceived inability to adjust (Selmer, 2004). The observation that expatriates often retreat into expat bubbles suggests reduced contact to HCNs, impeding interaction adjustment (Brewster and Pickard, 1994). For instance, a study among Danish expatriates in Saudi Arabia found that living in compounds hindered the adjustment to the local culture by the creation of in-groups (Lauring and Selmer, 2009). Burdened relationships to HCNs could further decrease expatriates' interests in and efforts to build up and maintain relationships with HCNs. Work adjustment seems more feasible but still challenging due to work constraints (disruptions of business operations) observed in HEs. Wellbeing in the foreign environment hence is constantly tested due to the stressors discussed above. However, the review has shown that if the expatriate applies appropriate coping skills, feels certain motivational drivers and manages to functionally adjust, the stress can be reduced. Organisations should emphasise the need of functional adjustment and teach their expatriates relevant coping strategies and reflect the expatriates' motivation in their career plans and incentive schemes.

In regards to the organisation , the literature has shown that this stakeholder is often affected by negative work-related outcomes such as declined expatriate performance, job dissatisfaction and job/country turnover intentions. Providing expatriates with secure housing or attractive relocation packages as typical forms of materialistic support mechanisms and various forms of instrumental support, for instance, in form of security training, coping mechanisms and other safety measures (Faeth and Kittler, 2017) are shown to influence outcomes at the organisational as well as the individual level. Appropriate HR policies and strategies further aid this process. Insights from work and organisational psychology in future research might help to develop practical guidance in combining mechanisms of harm

prevention and enhanced wellbeing via reducing stressors identified above. Focussing on situation-related stressors organisations could attempt to make (or keep) threat needs manageable (security training, secure housing, leisure facilities) and avoid crisis (crisis planning, expatriate risk management). In the case crises cannot be avoided or persist, mechanisms that allow for organisational learning should be in place. However, success of support measures depends on how well specific challenges of the environment as well as the personal circumstances of the expatriate are considered.

As the review has shown, far less attention has been paid to other stakeholders such as the family, the social network of the expatriate and HCNs. That the family plays are crucial role is not different from expatriate research in general (see e.g. Kittler, Holtbrügge and Ungar, 2006; Lazarova et al., 2015; Mäkelä and Suutari, 2011; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998). However, the impact on the family life is more profound in HEs where the entire family might have to change their lifestyle substantially. Organisations should do their utmost to assist the expatriate and their families by providing them with appropriate training, guiding the process of relocation, or even offering assignment models that avoid unnecessary risk to the family while keeping the family system in good order (e.g. rotational assignments with regular home visits, frequent business flyers, virtual assignments).

The social network of the expatriate and HCNs are two other group of rather neglected stakeholders. Since both stakeholder have shown to have the ability to influence the assignment in a positive way (e.g. by providing important information and comfort), organisations should help to facilitate more interactions. This seems particularly important in HEs where little interaction outside of work might take place. Thus, organisations might initiate or intensify interaction in the work sphere early on (e.g. via networking events and team building among locals and expatriates, see Van Bakel et al., 2017; Selmer, 1999).

Our review has also detected some avenues for future research. With family being identified among the most critical factors for expatriate success in hostile environments, yet being a rather neglected stakeholder, future research could follow family systems theory more intensely, paying closer empirical attention to other family members and their experience with the (foreign) location. For instance, studies involving expatriate children a still rare, even in the traditional expatriate context, but could add valuable insights (reference). Interviews with the expatriate spouse could give voice to the other party involved in mentioned intra-family conflicts and investigate the factors that could contribute to more satisfaction and adjustment. It could also be worthwhile to investigate more systematically different models of partnership and family expatriation and their role for expatriate performance with a particular focus on HEs applying theoretical lenses from family and partnership research (e.g. accompanied assignments vs rotational assignments).

More research is also needed in regards to the expatriate social network. Looking at figure 2 it stands out that nothing is known about potential ways the social network could negatively be affected. For instance, local colleagues and friends have not yet been recognised as important stakeholder in HEs. It could be investigated how they cope with context specific stressors, which could impact the assignment in a negative way if fears and sorrows are passed on to the expatriate. Since it is possible that expatriates are seen as treated superior to local employees (e.g. expressed in higher salaries and access to more organisational support), their possible anger and frustration about this could create further tensions (see Ljubica et al., 2019). Research involving the local subsidiary and local supervisors, two further condoned stakeholders, could add viewpoints to that debate.

To gain more insights at the expatriate level, research designs could pay closer attention to previously ignored informants (e.g. exploring reasons why assignments to HEs are refused) or on monitoring the development of stress and its consequences in longitudinal designs.

Looking at the study designs of the articles under review (see table 2), it also stands out that only one study has followed a mixed-method approach. More research applying mixed-method designs could help to produce more complex and practitioner-orientated research results (Creswell, 2014).

Following the previous discussion on hindered adjustment, it would be worthwhile testing to what extent expatriates are adjusted in a hostile setting and investigating the barriers to it. Since career progression was one of the key drivers identified and the career benefit of assignments, even in a low-risk context, are ambiguous (Bonache et al., 2001; Dickmann and Doherty, 2008), it would be interesting to examine repatriates and their perspective on the value of their experience in a hostile context. In one of the few studies linking HE experiences with repatriation, Beutell et al. (2017) suggest that coping with repatriation might accompany repatriates over months or years in the post assignment stage. Acknowledgement of this challenge might be missed by other stakeholders "as symptoms of anxiety disorders and PTSD may not be manifested immediately on returning to one's home country". (Beutell et al, 2017: 5). Studies with repatriates in HEs could further shed light on such challenges and develop coping mechanisms. Due to the increased stress for the entire family and likelihood to be exposed to unpleasant instances, it is possible that the stress continues even when the assignment is over, with expatriates suffering from family crisis or traumatisation. This could in turn trigger decreased performance or turnover intentions. Certainly, more attention should also be paid to particular groups of expatriates (e.g. "low-status expatriates") as it is likely that they experience additional or other forms of hostility in their HC (see Haak-Saheem et al., 2019).

In the face of the environment, exploring different types of threat and their impact on wellbeing could inform effective assignment preparations and trainings. But other forms of hostility and expatriate crises are worth investigating and have recently received more scholarly attention

(see JGM SI on "the dark side of expatriation"; McNulty et al., 2019). Following our working definition of a HE, we see scope for future research to investigate the impact of natural disasters, which seem to play an increasing role in public perception and might become more prominent as reasons to refuse assignments abroad. In a similar vein, other non-physical threats should be looked at such as the political risks faced by expatriate academics and high-profile executives in their battle for free research and freedom of speech (Huett, 2018).

Furthermore, existing theoretical lenses that hitherto have found less attention might be contribute additional insights. As this research area has been identified as pre-paradigmatic, the discussion within this review allows suggesting theories that have not yet been substantially applied to explain expatriate success, wellbeing or failure in HEs. A theoretical lens that might be helpful in explaining work-related outcomes is the Job demands resources (JD-R) theory (Demerouti et al., 2001) which has found acceptance in the domestic work and occupational psychology literature but not yet much attention within the expatriate context (Rattrie and Kittler, 2014). While a few studies have applied the JD-R theory in the migration (Qin et al., 2014), repatriation (Ren et al., 2014) and expatriation context (Cole and Nesbeth, 2014; Lazarova et al., 2010), no study has yet empirically tested a set of demands and resources and their impact on work-related outcomes for expatriates working in environments considered to be particularly stressful. A focus on not only positive work-related outcomes (wellbeing, engagement) but also the darker side (in JD-R research often represented as burnout) would be relatively new in the scholarly debate on expatriates (Bader et al., 2019b). Possibly the inclusion of personal demands and resources might be particularly insightful in context where the expatriates' work and private spheres are blurred and research shows that non-work constraints have a more profound impact on the expatriate's wellbeing (see Bader et al., 2016).

A second lens that might lend itself to increased scholarly attention in the context of expatriates in HEs is person-environment fit (Edwards et al., 1998). Such a perspective could

systematically identify and include the influential factors of the environment and the expatriates themselves and investigate their role for organisational outcomes. This approach could expand the idea of certain personality traits being particularly relevant for a hostile context (Stoermer et al., 2017) as well as certain environments require different coping strategies (Faeth and Kittler, 2017). Testing the Big Five personalities and see how they fit in a HE might provide additional insights that could be of particular interest to organisations as simplified constructs allow measuring personality very efficiently (e.g. Rammstedt and John, 2007). Organisations could make use of the findings not only for their assignment preparation but also for their recruitment, reward and retention strategies. In this regards, a comparative study of the motivational drivers between AEs and SIEs could provide useful insights. From an organisational perspective, it would further be valuable to investigate the barriers of engaging in expatriation in HEs for particular groups. In the light of difficulties to find global talent and potential candidates increasingly refusing assignments in risky areas (McPhail and McNulty, 2015; Wagner and Westaby, 2009; Wang and Bu, 2004), more attention needs to be paid to female, LGBT, and single expatriates and the ways to aid their access and survival on the global (hostile) job market.

Conclusion

Overall, as hostility and risk appear increasingly mobile, more expatriates might find themselves in HEs in the future which adds to the timeliness of this research issue. By synthesizing the literature in an emerging field we shed light on the different approaches and how they are interrelated and suggest additional theoretical perspectives (JD-R, PE-fit) to enhance our understanding of expatriates in HEs and possibly shift the debate more towards

expatriate wellbeing. Based on extant research themes we also provide suggestions for future

research in this nascent research area.

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APPENDIX

Table 1: Keywords used in the systematic search

Form of threat	*Specificity of sample*
Terror[a]	Expat[a]
9/11	Global profession[a]
Fear of terror	Global worker
Perceived threats	Overseas assign[a]
Crime	International assign[a]
Fear of crime	Global assign[a]
High-crime	Global employee
High-risk environment	Sojourn[a]
Danger[a]	Inpat[a]
Dangerous location	Transpat[a]
Risk[a]	IHRM
Hostile environments	

Note: [a] Keyword has been truncated, which means that extended versions of the keyword have been also included; 132 keyword combinations used (12X11)

Figure 1: PRISMA Flow Chart

| Records identified through **Web of Science (18)** | Records identified through **EBSCO (22)** | Records identified through **SCOPUS (34)** |

Records after **duplicates** removed **(46)**

Records screened **(46)** → Records excluded – **C category (17)**

Records assessed for **eligibility (29)** → Records excluded – **B category (6)**

Records **Systematic Review (23)**

Records identified through **authors (18)** →

Records identified through **special issues (13)** →

Records after **duplicates** removed **(36)**

Records identified in **repeated search** in September 2019 **(3)** → Removal of book chapters **(3)**, CfP **(1)** and consultancy reports **(6)**

Articles included in the review **(29)**

Figure 2: Framework of multiple stakeholder view of expatriation success

ENVIRONMENT*

⇒ **Security issues** (causing work + non-work constraints)
⇒ **Governmental issues** (corruption, lack of laws and regulations)
⇒ **General issues** (cultural barriers, extreme climate, poor infrastructure, limited access to education + health care)

EXPATRIATE

⇐ **Increased fear and stress**
⇐ **Lower wellbeing** (restricted lifestyle, reduced freedom of movement, discrimination)
⇐ **Maladjustment** (social and partially separation, life in 'expat-bubble')
⇒ **Skills** (language and coping skills)
⇒ **Motivation** (sensation-seeking, personal/professional interest, career ambitions)
⇒ **Adjustment** (functional)

Expatriation Success

ORGANISATION

⇐ **Negative work attitudes** (job stress/dissatisfaction, burnout)
⇐ **Decreased performance**
⇐ **Job and country leave intentions**
⇒ **POS** (instrumental, materialistic)
⇒ **Appropriate HR policies and practices** (Expatriate Risk Management, terrorism preparedness plan)
⇒ **Resources, capabilities. rare knowledge**

OTHER SOCIAL ACTORS

Expatriate Family
⇐ **Intra-family conflicts** (due to safety)
⇒ **?** (most likely adjustment)
Social Network
⇐ **?**
⇒ **Large and diversified network for support**
HCNs/Local Community
⇐ **Tensions** (due to dissatisfaction of the expatriate with HCNs)
⇒ **Acceptance of the expatriate + organisation**

⇐ how stakeholder can be affected so that success of assignment is jeopardised
⇒ how the stakeholder can affect the success of the assignment

? not clear, future research needed

Table 2: Overview of articles included in the review

	Author (year)	Journal	Theory/theoretical framework	Type of article	Population of interest/ sample size	Research context	Primary stakeholders	Causal relationships between stakeholders
1	Bader and Berg, (2013)	JIM	Theory of cognitive appraisal	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=143)	Countries with a high risk of terrorism	Expatriate, Expatriate Family, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate Family (conflicts) → Expatriate (increased stress level) → HCNs (dissatisfaction with) → organisation (worse performance)
2	Bader and Berg, (2014)	IJHRM	Theory of cognitive appraisal	Conceptual	Assigned expatriates	Countries with a high risk of terrorism	Expatriate, Expatriate Family, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate Family (conflicts) → Expatriate (increased stress level) → HCNs (dissatisfaction with) → Organisation (worse performance)
3	Bader and Schuster, (2015)	JIM	Social network perspective	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=175)	Countries with a high risk of terrorism (Afghanistan, India, Pakistan Saudi Arabia)	Expatriate, Social Network Environment	Environment → Social Network (size, diversity) → Expatriate (improved wellbeing)
4	Bader et al., (2015)	IBR	Family systems theory	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=121)	Countries with a high risk of terrorism	Expatriate, Expatriate Family, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate Family (conflicts) → Expatriate (worse performance) →/← Organisation (POS)
5	Bader et al., (2016)	IJHRM	Theory of cognitive appraisal	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=160)	Countries with a high risk of terrorism	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate (perceived threat, terrorism-induced stress) → Organisation (job turnover and country leave intentions)
6	Bader et al., (2019)	IJHRM	N/A	SI Editorial	Assigned expatriates	Hostile environments	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment, Organisation, Expatriate (different levels of analysis)
7	Bader, (2015)	IJHRM	Social exchange theory	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=143)	Countries with a high risk of terrorism	Expatriate, Social Network, Organisation Environment	Social network (support from co-workers) + Organisation (POS) → Expatriate (pos. work attitudes)
8	Beutell et al., (2017)	IJERPH	Theory of cognitive appraisal	Conceptual	Assigned expatriates	Countries with a high risk of terrorism	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriate (coping strategies accustomed to the expatriate life cycle)

JIM= Journal of International Management; IJHRM= The international Journal of Human Resource Management; IBR= International Business Review; IJERPH= International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health; APJHR= Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources; HJ= The Howard Journal; JGM= Journal of Global Mobility; FP= Frontiers in Psychology; EJIM= European Journal of International Management; AT= Africa Today; RA= Risk Analysis

9	Bhanugopan and Fish, (2008)	APJHR	Not clear	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=153)	Countries with a high risk of terrorism and crime (Papua New Guinea)	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriate (lower quality of work-life)
10	Claus and McNulty (2015)	EJIM	N/A	SI editorial	Assigned expatriates	Threats that are man-made	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (duty of care) → Expatriate
11	Coyne and Bell, (2011)	HJ	Not clear; draw on the fear of crime literature	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned expatriates (n=6)	Countries with a high risk of crime (Vietnam)	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriate (fear of crime)
12	Dickmann and Watson, (2017)	JGM	Intelligent careers perspective	Empirical: qualitative "deviant" case study	Assigned and potential expatriates (n=25)	Hostile environments	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Expatriate + Organisation + Environment → Motivation to relocate to a HE
13	Dickmann et al., (2017)	IJHRM	Resource-based view, institutional theory	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned expatriates and HR managers (n=18)	Hostile environments: Afghanistan	Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (resource-based, capability-based, institutional influences) → decision to localise
14	Faeth and Kittler, (2017)	JGM	Theory of cognitive appraisal	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned expatriates (n=12)	Countries with a high risk of terrorism and crime (Kenya, South Africa)	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriate (lower physical wellbeing)
15	Fee and McGrath-Champ, (2017)	IJHRM	Resource-based view, psychological contract, duty of care, stakeholder perspective	Empirical: qualitative	13 expert interviews 126 internal policy documents	High-risk context (Africa, Asia-Pacific, Europe, North America, South America)	Expatriate, Organisation, Local Community Environment	Environment → Organisation (HR policies and practices)/ Local community → Expatriate (safety and wellbeing)
16	Fee et al., (2013)	JGM	Resource-based view, psychological contract, duty of care	Conceptual	Assigned expatriates	Expatriate evacuation during crisis	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (evacuation management/ role of HR) → Expatriate (safety and wellbeing)
17	Fee et al., (2017)	IJHRM	Institutional theory	Empirical: qualitative	27 expert interviews 172 internal policy documents	Hostile environments (Africa, Asia-Pacific, Europe, North America, South America	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (HR practices) → Expatriate (safety and wellbeing)
18	Gannon and Paraskevas, (2017)	IJHRM	The expatriate cycle, risk management model	Empirical: qualitative	18 expert interviews	Hostile environments or	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (HR practices)→ Expatriate (safety and wellbeing)

JIM= Journal of International Management; IJHRM= The international Journal of Human Resource Management; IBR= International Business Review; IJERPH= International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health; APJHR= Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources; HJ= The Howard Journal; JGM= Journal of Global Mobility; FP= Frontiers in Psychology; EJIM= European Journal of International Management; AT= Africa Today; RA= Risk Analysis

					hardship locations		
19	Giorgi et al., (2016)	FP	Concept of fear of expatriation; in dependence on theory of cognitive appraisal	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=265)	Italy, Europe, Middle East, Asia, Africa, Australia	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate (mental health problems) → Organisation (fear of expatriation/further workplace fears)
20	Harvey et al., (2019)	IJHRM	Organisational legitimacy theory	Conceptual	Assigned/potential expatriates	Terror-endangered countries	Organisation Environment	Environment → ← Organisation
21	Leder (2019)	RA	Theory of cognitive appraisal	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned expatriates (n=24)	Sudan	Expatriate Environment	Environment → ← Expatriate
22	McPhail and McNulty, (2015)	EJIM	Duty of care	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned LGBT expatriates (n=13)	Dangerous locations for LGBT expatriates	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate (perception of hostility/coping strategies) → Organisation (duty of care obligation)
23	Paulus and Muehfeld, (2017)	JGM	Expatriate adjustment framework, social identity theory	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=116)	Countries with different terrorism threat levels	Expatriate Environment	Expatriate (HC language proficiency) → Environment (improved CCA) → Expatriate (fear of terror) → Environment (hindered CCA) Environment (actual threat level) → Expatriate (fear of terror)
24	Pinto et al., (2017)	JGM	N/A	SI editorial	Assigned expatriates	Dangerous settings and risky assignments	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment, Organisation, Expatriate
25	Posthuma et al., (2017)	IHRM	Psychological contract theory	Conceptual	Assigned expatriates	Hostile environment	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (ERM/ HR practices) → Expatriate (adjustment)
26	Scullion et al. (2007)	HRMJ	N/A	SI editorial	Assigned expatriates	Global terrorism	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate → Organisation (willingness to accept assignments)
27	Smiley, (2010)	AT	Geographies of exclusion	Empirical: mixed-methods (survey and interviews)	Assigned expatriates (n=50)	Crime environment (Tanzania)	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriation (fear of crime, social and spatially separation)
28	Stoermer et al., (2017)	JGM	Expectancy value theory	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=148)	Low-risk countries	Expatriate, Organisation	Expatriate (sensation seeking/money orientation) → Organisation (willingness to relocate to a HE)
29	Suder et al., (2017)	IJHRM	Organisational learning theory	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned expatriates (n=6), Afghan managers (n=3), direct	Hostile environment (Afghanistan)	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate (perceived security + development challenges) → Organisation (creation of rare knowledge)

JIM= Journal of International Management; IJHRM= The international Journal of Human Resource Management; IBR= International Business Review; IJERPH= International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health; APJHR= Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources; HJ= The Howard Journal; JGM= Journal of Global Mobility; FP= Frontiers in Psychology; EJIM= European Journal of International Management; AT= Africa Today; RA= Risk Analysis

				In-depth case study	observation, company documents			

JIM= Journal of International Management; IJHRM= The international Journal of Human Resource Management; IBR= International Business Review; IJERPH= International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health; APJHR= Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources; HJ= The Howard Journal; JGM= Journal of Global Mobility; FP= Frontiers in Psychology; EJIM= European Journal of International Management; AT= Africa Today; RA= Risk Analysis