

Choices, Challenges, and Career Consequences of Global Work Experiences: A Review and Future Agenda

Margaret A. Shaffer

University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee

Maria L. Kraimer

University of Iowa

Yu-Ping Chen

University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee

Mark C. Bolino

University of Oklahoma

Over the past 20 years, there has been increased interest in global forms of employment. Researchers have identified and investigated a number of global work experiences, including corporate and self-initiated expatriates as well as more novel forms of corporate global employees (flexpatriates, short-term assignees, and international business travelers). In this article, the authors review the empirical research that has investigated individual choices, challenges, and career consequences associated with the various types of global work. They summarize and synthesize this growing body of literature and then develop a taxonomy of global work experiences. Based on their review of this literature and their taxonomy, the authors outline an agenda for future research on global work experiences.

Keywords: *global work experiences; global employees; global careers; global work taxonomy; expatriate*

Acknowledgments: This article was accepted under the editorship of Talya N. Bauer. We would like to thank Deidra Schleicher and two anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments on an earlier version of this article.

Corresponding author: Margaret A. Shaffer, University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee, Sheldon B. Lubar School of Business, Milwaukee, WI 53201, USA

E-mail: shafferm@uwm.edu

As organizations are increasingly affected by the forces of globalization, employees are often called on to take part in global work experiences (Chen, Kirkman, Kim, Farh, & Tangirala, 2010; Stahl, Miller, & Tung, 2002; Thomas, Lazarova, & Inkson, 2005). Work experiences that transcend national boundaries are important for the development of employees' global skills and necessary for carrying out critical business activities (Stroh, Black, Mendenhall, & Gregersen, 2005). By and large, research investigating global work has focused on understanding the experiences of employees who are sent on extended work assignments (i.e., expatriates) and the experiences of those individuals when they return home (i.e., repatriates) (e.g., Bolino, 2007; Kraimer, Shaffer, & Bolino, 2009; Takeuchi, 2010). This line of research indicates that effectively managing expatriation and repatriation is a significant challenge for organizations. Indeed, employees are often unwilling to accept an international assignment, and those who do often face significant personal and professional challenges, with many employees either leaving their international assignments early or quitting their organizations after they repatriate (Bolino, 2007; Konopaske & Werner, 2005; Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, & Ren, in press; Reiche, Kraimer, & Harzing, 2011; Takeuchi, 2010).

Given the difficulties of managing expatriation and repatriation, many organizations have sought to find other ways of developing global skills or conducting global business, thereby creating new types of global work experiences. For instance, although the expatriate population is expected to continue growing (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2011), organizations also plan to increase their use of technology as a substitute for extended international assignments. Furthermore, many multinational corporations (MNCs) are supplementing their use of traditional expatriate assignments with more short-term assignments, as well as frequent international business travel (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2011). At the same time, as employment relationships have become less organizationally directed and more individually directed (Sullivan, 1999; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), individuals looking for global experience are taking the initiative to pursue foreign work assignments on their own terms (Suutari & Brewster, 2000). In line with corporations' and individuals' interests in pursuing these global work alternatives, more academic research has been conducted on these forms of employment.

In the academic literature, researchers (e.g., Cerdin & Bird, 2008; Peiperl & Jonsen, 2007) have tended to label these global work alternatives as "global careers." However, consistent with the work experience literature (Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998), we contend that most global work experiences represent events or activities that occur as part of an employee's career; that is, they are not careers per se. We therefore refer to these international work arrangements as *global work experiences*. Such work experiences may include, but are not limited to, traditional corporate expatriation (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005), self-initiated expatriation (Suutari & Brewster, 2000), and nontraditional corporate global alternatives, including short-term assignments (Tahvanainen, Welch, & Worm, 2005), flexpatriation (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004), and international business travel (Welch, Welch, & Worm, 2007).

Interest and research in all of these global work experiences have been escalating over the past decade. Yet we are not aware of any published efforts to summarize and review this body of research. Thus, the purpose of this article is to review the literature on global work experiences and to encourage researchers to broaden the scope of global work to go beyond expatriation. In doing so, we use a careers perspective. Consistent with previous research that

examines careers from the individual's perspective (e.g., Coupland, 2004; Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godshalk, 2010; Hall, 2002), we define a career as "the patterns of work-related experiences that span the course of a person's life" (Greenhaus et al., 2010: 9). As noted by Tesluk and Jacobs (1998), individuals accumulate a number of different work experiences over the course of their careers. The nature and type of work experiences, or opportunities for certain experiences, affect individuals' subsequent career decisions and outcomes (Hall, 2002). Given that international experience is thought to be increasingly important for a successful business career (Chura, 2006; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005), it is both timely and important to focus on the career implications of global work experiences.

In adopting a career lens for reviewing the global work experience literature, we provide an overarching framework to understand the factors individuals take into consideration when choosing global work, the challenges associated with such experiences, and how global work experiences relate to individuals' career and life success. In short, we focus on the choices, challenges, and career consequences associated with global work experiences. In reviewing the research that examines the choices individuals face when considering international work, we identify the factors they take into consideration when making this career choice and the characteristics of individuals who are more likely to make this choice. For the challenges that individuals experience in enacting and managing global work, we focus on the hurdles they face and how they respond to them to more effectively manage this work experience as a part of their career. Finally, we review research that investigates the career consequences of the international experience by examining the intrinsic and extrinsic career outcomes associated with international work experiences. Taken together, the choices, challenges, and consequences reviewed in this article capture a variety of issues related to career decisions and trajectories.

By examining the choices, challenges, and consequences associated with global work, our article makes three noteworthy contributions to the literature. First, we go beyond previous reviews of international assignments that have either focused on the antecedents and consequences of expatriate adjustment from a stress perspective (Aycan, 1997; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004; Takeuchi, 2010; Thomas & Lazarova, 2006) or reviewed human resource (HR) management practices and policies such as expatriate selection, training, compensation, and so on (e.g., Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley, & Riedel, 2006; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2008). In contrast, we examine a much broader array of choices, challenges, and consequences associated with international assignments. In addition, we expand the scope of international assignments to include all forms of global work experiences, and not just the expatriate experience that was the focus of previous reviews (e.g., Takeuchi, 2010). By comparing and contrasting the different forms of global work experiences (e.g., short-term assignees, international business travelers, and expatriates) through a career lens, our review looks beyond the expatriate literature that has primarily focused on adjustment or HR-related issues. Consequently, of the 114 articles in our review, only 2 (i.e., Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Selmer, 2001) were included in Takeuchi's review of the expatriate adjustment literature.

Second, our careers perspective departs from previous reviews of the careers literature that focused on specific career theories (e.g., Sullivan, 1999; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009) by considering how a specific type of work experience (i.e., global work) represents a sequence

in an individual's career. For example, Sullivan (1999) reviewed research on developmental stage theories and the boundaryless career concept. Sullivan and Baruch's (2009) recent review critically examined new career concepts, including protean, boundaryless, hybrid, and kaleidoscope careers. The theoretical perspectives outlined in these previous review articles provided important insights for understanding how the changing work environment affects individuals' career attitudes and outcomes. In contrast, our organizing framework is not bounded by any particular career theory but rather views a global work experience as a specific work and life event that leads to deliberate career choices, provides opportunities for learning from meaningful challenges, and influences the career outcomes of the individual. As such, our review also contributes to the careers literature by providing a lens for understanding how other types of work/life events (e.g., returning to graduate school or a domestic job transfer) fit into individuals' career trajectories. Furthermore, we hope our approach will encourage more researchers to recognize that work choice decisions (e.g., job choice), challenges (e.g., work–family conflict), and personal and professional consequences (e.g., quitting a job) are essentially career-related issues that can also be understood using the career theories that have already been reviewed in prior work.

Third, and finally, because research on alternative (i.e., non-expatriate) forms of global work is still nascent, our review culminates in a taxonomy for defining and understanding the various global work experiences that have recently emerged. In particular, we develop a taxonomy of global work experiences that is based on the degree to which the experiences involve physical mobility, demand cognitive flexibility, and cause disruptions to nonwork routines. Using this taxonomy as a basic framework for conceptualizing different forms of global work experiences, we propose new theoretical insights that may explain the findings revealed in our literature review and highlight underresearched topics within the global work experience literature. Overall, we hope to encourage researchers to develop a broader and more theoretical view of global work experiences that goes beyond the current focus on expatriation.

A Review of the Empirical Global Work Experience Literature

In this section, we provide an integrated review of the empirical literature on global work experiences. After a brief overview of our methodology, including how we selected articles and classified different forms of global work experiences, we then review the major findings in terms of the individual choices, challenges, and career consequences associated with the various types of global work experiences. A summary of all reviewed articles is provided in the appendix.

Method

Article Selection

To identify as many articles as possible to be included in our review, we first searched various databases (e.g., ABI-INFORM and PsycARTICLES) using general terms (e.g., *global careers*, *international careers*). Next, we searched for articles involving expatriates. However,

Table 1
Comparison of Expatriates

	Corporate Expatriates	Self-Initiated Expatriates
Definition	Employees working for business organizations, who are sent overseas on a temporary basis to complete a time-based task or accomplish an organizational goal	Individuals who initiate and usually finance their own expatriation and are not transferred by organizations. They relocate to a country of their choice to pursue cultural, personal, and career development experiences, often with no definite time frame in mind
Purpose	Managerial control Skill/technology transfer Management development	Personal development Career development
Duration	12 months or more	Varies (short term to permanent stay)
Location	1 country	1 country
Relocation	Usually with family	Usually with family
Compensation	Expatriate packages with numerous benefits Tax equalization Comparable lifestyles	Host country base No relocation/housing benefits
Repatriation	Problematic	Individual decisions and responsibilities
IHRM involvement	Responsible for all aspects of assignment	None
Advantages	Professional and personal development Relationship building and integration with host country nationals Global boundary spanner	Professional and personal development Relationship building with host country nationals
Disadvantages	Expensive Lack of flexibility Family adjustment problems Separation from extended family	Personal risk/expense Contractual obligation Separation from extended family

because Takeuchi (2010) recently provided a critical review of expatriate studies that focused on the adjustment of traditional expatriates, we limited our search of expatriate studies to those that included the keywords *expatriate* and *career*. Finally, we searched for articles containing specific terms associated with new global work forms (e.g., *self-initiated expatriates*, *international business travelers*, *short-term assignees*). In selecting these articles, we focused on those that included career-related issues, in the broad sense of the term. In total, we reviewed 114 relevant empirical (quantitative and qualitative) articles.

Classification of Global Work Experiences

To clarify the different types of global work experiences, we first reviewed all 114 articles for descriptive information about each type of global employee. Based on this information, we provide a general profile of how they have been differentiated in the literature in terms of various contextual categories and highlight the advantages and disadvantages associated with each type (see Tables 1 and 2). In Table 1, we compare and contrast the two forms of expatriates: corporate and self-initiated. *Corporate expatriates* have been defined as

Table 2
Comparison of Global Travelers

	Short-Term Assignees	Flexpatriates	International Business Travelers
Definition	Employees on international assignments that are longer than business trips yet shorter than typical corporate expatriate assignments; usually less than one year	Employees who travel for brief assignments, away from their home base and across cultural or national borders, leaving their family and personal life behind	Employees who take multiple short international business trips to various locations without accompanying family members
Purpose	Skill/technology transfer Problem solving Management control Management development	Project based Problem solving Skill/technical transfer	Knowledge transfer Negotiations Discussions Meetings or conferences
Duration	Usually 3–12 months	Usually 1–2 months	Usually 1–3 weeks
Location	1 or a few countries	Multiple countries	Multiple countries
Relocation	Usually without family	Without family	Without family
Compensation	Depends on company's travel policy Home country responsibility	Depends on company's travel policy Home country responsibility	Depends on company's travel policy Home country responsibility
	Taxation may be an issue—depending on duration	No tax implications	No tax implications
Repatriation	Usually not a problem	Not a problem	Not relevant
IHRM involvement	Little involvement Line manager responsibility	Little involvement Line manager responsibility	Negligible Line manager responsibility
Advantages	Flexibility and simplicity Cost-effectiveness Global boundary spanner	Flexibility and simplicity Cost-effectiveness Global boundary spanner Global perspective	Flexibility and simplicity Most cost-effective Global boundary spanner Relationship maintenance with home-country colleagues
Disadvantages	Separation stress—alcoholism, divorce, health issues Lack of integration with host country nationals	Separation/travel stress—alcoholism, divorce, health issues Time zone differences Lack of social integration at home and host locations	Separation/travel stress—alcoholism, divorce, health issues Time zone differences Host country relationships limited to work colleagues locations

employees who are temporarily relocated by their organization to another country, usually for several years, to complete a specific task or accomplish an organizational goal (Harrison et al., 2004). *Self-initiated expatriates* (SIEs) are individuals who instigate and usually finance their own expatriation. Rather than being transferred by organizations, they relocate to a country of their choice to pursue cultural, personal, and career development experiences (Harrison et al., 2004; Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari, 2008; Myers & Pringle, 2005), often with no definite time frame in mind (Tharenou, 2010).

In Table 2, we describe various forms of what we refer to as global travelers, which includes short-term assignees, flexpatriates, and international business travelers. A *short-term assignment* has been defined as a type of international assignment longer than a

business trip yet shorter than a typical corporate expatriate assignment, usually less than one year (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, & Kollinger, 2004). The other forms of global travelers differ from short-term assignees in that they typically engage in consecutive multiple country assignments. *Flexpatriates* are defined as individuals “who travel for brief assignments, away from their home base and across cultural or national borders, leaving their family and personal life behind” (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004: 1371). Finally, *international business travelers* (IBTs) are employees who make frequent international business visits to foreign markets, units, projects, and the like, usually for periods of a week or so (Welch et al., 2007; Westman, 2004).

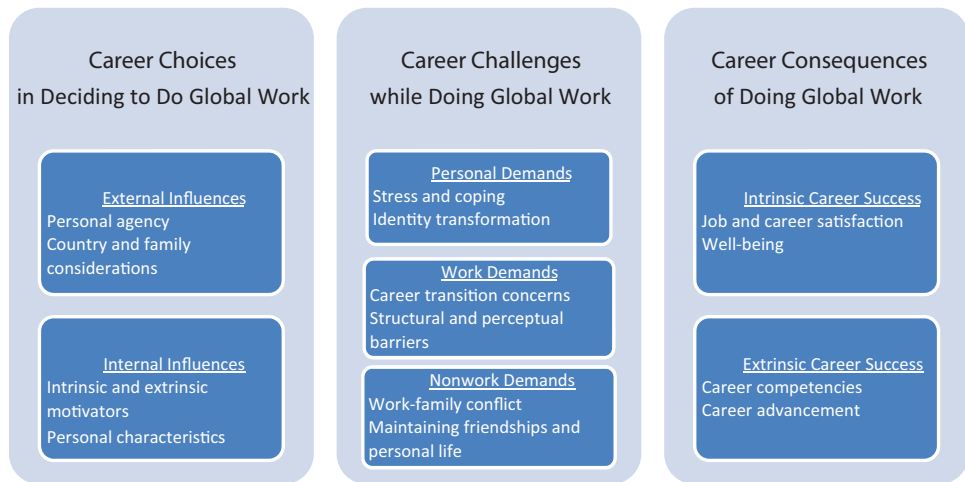
Although we believe it is important to differentiate among these various types of global employees, we found that the extant research has often failed to do so. For example, expatriate studies, especially those based on samples from business or social organizations such as chambers of commerce, may include both corporate and self-initiated expatriates. Furthermore, although we attempted to do so, there is little consensus in the literature about how to define the various alternative global work experiences that have recently emerged. Consequently, terms are often used interchangeably and/or different forms are combined. For example, some researchers (e.g., Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004) have combined international commuters and IBTs and referred to them as *flexpatriates*. By defining and differentiating the various types of global work experiences, we provide an important initial step in establishing a theoretical framework for understanding the experiences included in this review.

An Organizing Framework for the Review

Before beginning our review, we examined the theoretical and methodological approaches used in the reviewed articles as a way to summarize the current state of this research. Typical of most nascent streams of research, studies of global travelers have been primarily descriptive and exploratory rather than theoretically driven. Exceptions to this are a few studies that have adopted a stress perspective or used the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) to examine the experiences of IBTs (Welch et al., 2007; Westman, Etzion, & Chen, 2009). In comparison, studies of expatriates tend to be theoretically grounded, with the boundaryless career paradigm (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006) and theories of stress management (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004) most prevalent. Methodologically, of the 16 global traveler articles we reviewed, 56% ($n = 9$) adopted a qualitative approach consistent with the exploratory nature of these studies. The majority of studies (62% of the 74 studies) on corporate expatriates used quantitative methods, and both quantitative and qualitative studies were equally represented in the studies on SIEs (15 qualitative studies and 16 quantitative studies). Almost all of the research across all streams has used cross-sectional designs (an exception is Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

Given the disparate theoretical and methodological approaches used by researchers in this area, on the surface at least, there seems to be very little commonality across studies in terms of constructs and relationships among constructs. Consequently, to bring some order to this literature, we organized various constructs into meaningful and theoretically based themes

Figure 1
A Framework for Relating Global Work Experiences to Careers



(coded by the four of us and discussed until consensus was reached) that we felt were especially germane to the choices, challenges, and career consequences associated with global work experiences (see Figure 1). The themes associated with the choices of global employees are consistent with a social cognitive career theory perspective of occupational choice (Pryor & Bright, 2006), which recognizes that occupational choices (or career choices) are a function of external influences and internal influences. Our identification of themes that represent the various challenges of global work experience is based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001), which contends that jobs may create personal, work, and nonwork demands. In organizing the career consequences reported in the literature, we chose the two major categories most frequently used in the careers literature: intrinsic and extrinsic career success outcomes (e.g., Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005). In the sections below, we provide an integrated review of the themes we identified within each broad category of choices, challenges, and career consequences, making comparisons across different forms of global employees when applicable.

Choices for Global Work

In this section, we review research that examines the reasons why individuals choose to include an international component into their career trajectories and which types of individuals are more likely to make this career choice. Drawing on the social cognitive career theory perspective of occupational choice (Pryor & Bright, 2006), we content analyzed the empirical literature in terms of four major themes associated with global employees' choices. These

include external influences (personal agency and country and family considerations) and internal influences (intrinsic and extrinsic motivators and personal characteristics).

External Influences

Personal agency. A key difference across the different types of work experiences is the degree to which the individual has free choice in the matter. Clearly, personal agency is high for SIEs (Richardson & Mallon, 2005), whereas it varies for organization-initiated global work. Candidates for corporate expatriate assignments are often reluctant to take such assignments because of concerns about family and work–life balance (Dickmann, Doherty, Mills, & Brewster, 2008). Although one study found that the degree to which expatriates felt a lack of free choice in accepting their assignments did not relate to performance, adjustment, or satisfaction during the expatriate assignment (Feldman & Thomas, 1992), organizations are hesitant to “force” candidates to accept such assignments (Dowling, Welch, & Schuler, 1999). Thus, corporate expatriates generally have a certain degree of personal agency in choosing this type of global work experience.

Global travelers, however, are usually chosen by line managers because they have a requisite skill or expertise that is needed to solve a particular problem or assist with a project (Tahvanainen et al., 2005). Based on interviews with international HR and line managers in a European multinational firm, Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al. (2004) noted that, for flexpatriates, travel is an expectation of the job; it is not an option that can be negotiated or rejected without the risk of jeopardizing career opportunities. According to these researchers, decisions about when to travel are also at the mercy of the line manager. Although research has not addressed the extent to which short-term assignees and IBTs have personal agency in choosing international work, we would expect that they are in a similar situation as flexpatriates. Thus, for flexpatriates, short-term assignees, and IBTs, the decision point is not about accepting specific project/role assignments that require global travel, but rather it is about accepting a job position in which global travel is clearly a job requirement.

Country and family considerations. When making the decision to pursue global work experience, expatriates (corporate and SIEs) consider the location, including cultural similarity and dissimilarity, and security (Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1996; Dickmann et al., 2008; Hippler, 2009), as well as city-specific factors such as an attractive standard of living (Carr, Inkson, & Thorn, 2005), the reputation of the global location (Dickmann & Mills, 2010; Fitzgerald & Howe-Walsh, 2008), the prestige of working in a particular city (Doherty, Dickmann, & Mills, 2011), and the attitudes and behaviors of the host country citizens (Dickmann & Mills, 2010). Personal and familial relationships, as well as work–family balance concerns, are also important considerations for corporate expatriates, SIEs, and global travelers. Those who have stronger familial ties and responsibilities are less likely to accept or self-initiate global work (Carr et al., 2005; Konopaske & Werner, 2005; Richardson, 2006; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Tharenou, 2003). However, Dickmann and colleagues (2008) found that spousal career considerations were less important to corporate expatriates than were their own career considerations when deciding to accept a global employment

opportunity. While those with strong kinship responsibilities are less willing to accept an assignment, those with supportive spouses are more willing to do so (Aryee et al., 1996; Richardson & Mallon, 2005).

Internal Influences

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. Researchers have generally found that intrinsic motivators, such as personal challenges and development derived from international exploration (Crowley-Henry, 2007; Hippler, 2009; Inkson & Myers, 2003; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Selmer & Leung, 2003; Stahl et al., 2002) and international work or nonwork experiences (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Boies & Rothstein, 2002; Cerdin & Le Pargneux, 2009; Suutari & Taka, 2004; Tung, 1998), and the associated enjoyment (Chew & Zhu, 2002), are important considerations in corporate expatriates' and SIEs' choices for global work. Though global travelers generally lack volition with respect to specific job assignments, they also expect both personal challenges and enjoyment from their global work experiences (Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010; Konopaske, Robie, & Ivancevich, 2005). In addition, both corporate expatriates' and SIEs' choices are driven by the perceived opportunity to develop global career competencies (Cappellen & Janssens, 2008; Dickmann & Mills, 2010; Doherty et al., 2011; Fish & Wood, 1997; Fitzgerald & Howe-Walsh, 2008; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Suutari, 2003; Tharenou, 2008; Thorn, 2009).

Extrinsic rewards may also be important motivators. Research has found that corporate expatriates, SIEs, and global travelers' choices are influenced by monetary incentives such as financial rewards, compensation packages, and fringe benefits (Boies & Rothstein, 2002; Chew & Zhu, 2002; Richardson & McKenna, 2002; Warneke & Schneider, 2011). Thus, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are important factors that motivate employees to choose global work experiences.

Personal characteristics. This section reviews the characteristics of employees who are more likely to be interested in global work experience. Selmer (2001) surveyed 343 corporate expatriates in Hong Kong and found those who are older, are from Europe, and have more experiences working abroad are more likely to want an expatriate career involving multiple foreign assignments. Chew and Zhu (2002) found entrepreneurial personality to be positively related to corporate expatriates' choices to go abroad. In addition, employees' career commitment has also been found to be associated with individuals' choices to accept global employment. For instance, Boies and Rothstein (2002) found that employees who were more satisfied with their career and identified with their current occupation were more likely to accept an international assignment to further their career advancement opportunities. As for SIEs, Selmer and Lauring (2010) found that younger SIEs are more motivated by adventure, career, and money, and tend to be less risk averse, than older SIEs. In the same study, Selmer and Lauring also found that male SIEs are more motivated by money and opportunities to change their life than female SIEs. In terms of global travelers, Konopaske et al. (2005) report that individuals' adventurous personality is associated with their willingness to accept short-term and long-term global assignments. In a recent study, Tharenou

(2010) also found that female professionals self-initiate their own expatriation more often than their male counterparts, which may reflect the disadvantage females face in managerial career development.

Challenges of Global Work

In this section, we review the challenges that individuals experience in enacting and managing global work, focusing on the hurdles they face and how they respond to them to more effectively manage this work experience as a part of their career. Our classification of the various challenges is based on categories derived from the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). According to this model, jobs may create personal (e.g., stress, identity transformation), work (e.g., career transition concerns, structural and perceptual barriers), and nonwork demands.

Personal Demands

Stress and coping strategies. Paralleling the expatriate adjustment literature (e.g., Takeuchi, 2010), a stress perspective has been adopted by the majority of researchers targeting all forms of global employees. Expatriates must contend with a variety of work role stressors and situational stressors emanating from both the organization and the foreign culture (Fischlmayr & Kollinger, 2010; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Mathur-Helm, 2002), as well as strained interactions with host country nationals (Tung, 1998). Expatriates who deal most effectively with these stressors tend to be more determined in their pursuit of an expatriate career (Selmer & Leung, 2003) and to adopt a variety of coping strategies, especially active problem-solving tactics (Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Mäkelä & Suutari, 2011). Please see Takeuchi (2010) for a full review of challenges related to expatriates' stress and adjustment issues.

Similar to corporate expatriates, SIEs also face stress; however, the responsibility to overcome these difficulties is their own because they do not have a "home" corporation supporting them. Even though they often encounter tougher conditions than corporate expatriates (e.g., Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Fitzgerald & Howe-Walsh, 2008), SIEs tend to have greater levels of general and interaction adjustment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009), perhaps because they are more motivated to pursue global work experiences and more likely to immerse themselves in the host country culture and interact with host country nationals more frequently (Selmer, 1999). However, when shocks (specific positive or negative events that cause individuals to think about leaving; Lee, Mitchell, Wise, & Fireman, 1996) are experienced in the foreign culture or emanate from the home country, SIEs may be motivated to return home (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

In the global traveler literature, a recurring theme is that the scope of global travel assignments creates physical, emotional, and intellectual stress (e.g., Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Westman & Etzion, 2002). IBTs, in particular, are more likely to experience role conflict (Welch et al., 2007) because of frequent transitions between domestic and

(multiple) international offices and between home and work. Frequent travel also makes it difficult for employees to successfully integrate in either the domestic or foreign location, and they make it virtually impossible to maintain stable relationships with family and friends (Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Welch et al., 2007). Being proactive and developing cultural intelligence can help global travelers cope more effectively with the demands of travel (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004; Ramsey, Leonel, Gomes, & Monteiro, 2011).

Identity transformation. Recent work suggests that another personal demand facing employees in global work roles is identity transformations. While much of this work is anecdotal, several authors have noted that such transformations are challenging for employees because they affect their sense of self and their subsequent attitudes and behaviors toward their organization (Andreason & Kinner, 2005; Boies & Rothstein, 2002; Kraimer et al., in press; Näsholm, 2009; Starr, 2009). Based on interviews with expatriates, Kohonen (2008) reported that expatriates do experience changes in identity and these are associated with career aspirations and new personal challenges. In a survey of 112 recent repatriates, Kraimer and colleagues (in press) found that repatriates who were more embedded in the host country community during the expatriate assignment were more likely to identify with an international employee role, which in turn led to greater identity strain and turnover in repatriation. Starr and Currie (2009) interviewed short-term assignees, many of whom also indicated that they experienced changes in their identity, and these transformations affected their desire for new work roles when they repatriated.

Work Demands

Career transition concerns. For corporate expatriates, managing the transition from expatriate to repatriate assignments represents one of the greatest concerns. In particular, expatriates are especially concerned with responsibility and autonomy on the job, opportunities for using new knowledge and skills, career advancement, compensation, and career opportunities for their spouse/partner upon repatriation (Benson & Pattie, 2009; Cappellen & Janssens, 2010; De Cieri, Sheehan, Costa, Fenwick, & Cooper, 2009; Jassawalla & Sashittal, 2009; Linehan & Scullion, 2002; Mayerhofer, Müller, & Schmidt, 2010; Selmer & Leung, 2002; Stahl & Cerdin, 2004; Stahl, Chua, Caligiuri, Cerdin, & Taniguchi, 2009; Suutari & Brewster, 2003; Wong, 2001). For those with multiple assignment experience, time and geographical distance weaken internal organizational network ties, resulting in a lack of opportunities for getting a good position upon repatriation (Mäkelä & Suutari, 2009).

Several studies have found that expatriates who see a strong connection between their international assignment and future career and who work in organizations that are supportive throughout the expatriation and repatriation process tend to be more satisfied and more likely to stay with their organizations (Dunbar & Ehrlich, 1993; Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Kreng & Huang, 2009; Lazarova & Cerdin, 2007; Pattie, White, & Tansky, 2010; Reiche et al., 2011; Selmer, 1999; van der Heijden, van Engen, & Paauwe, 2009). Of the various resources that organizations can provide expatriates, organizational career support and supervisor

support are especially important (Benson & Pattie, 2008; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; van der Heijden et al., 2009). Despite this evidence, other studies (e.g., Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Stahl & Cerdin, 2004) indicate that expatriates are generally dissatisfied with predeparture preparation, cross-cultural training, corporate support during the international assignment, and predeparture plans for career development. According to Dickmann and colleagues (2008), organizations tend to overestimate the impact of prior experience with assignments and the financial and family considerations, and they underestimate the importance of cultural adaptability, work/life considerations, and career development issues.

SIEs also face challenges in managing their global employment and careers. The transience and risks (e.g., being downskilled or underemployed) associated with initiating their own international employment (Felker, 2011; Richardson & Zikic, 2007) as well as the lack of peer support and mentors (Bozionelos, 2009) make it more difficult for SIEs to feel satisfied with their global work experience. Consequently, SIEs must be proactive in managing that experience and their future careers by maintaining their motivation, developing local know-how and a local social network, and keeping an eye open for future career opportunities (Vance, 2005; Zikic, Bonache, & Cerdin, 2010). The transition from expatriate to repatriate is not relevant to global travelers; therefore, it is not surprising that this issue did not surface as a challenge for these types of workers in the empirical literature.

Structural and perceptual barriers. Another work-related demand uncovered by our review is structural and perceptual barriers to obtaining global work experience and/or succeeding in global work. Although corporate expatriates can rely on their organizations to run interference when many structural barriers (e.g., obtaining visas and work permits) are encountered, they still face some perceptual barriers. In particular, female expatriates often report concerns about gender bias that affects selection and promotion decisions (Linehan & Walsh, 2001; Vance & Paik, 2001).

In contrast with corporate expatriates, SIEs face more structural barriers in obtaining visas and work permits, and this often leads to greater career constraints (Al Ariss & Özbilgin, 2010) such as working in underqualified jobs (Inkson & Myers, 2003) and receiving lower salaries, fewer promotions, and less career satisfaction when compared to host-country nationals (Fang, Zickic, & Novicevic, 2009). Furthermore, host country organizations often discredit SIEs' previous education and professional experiences in their home countries (Carr et al., 2005) or do not value their international experience (Begley, Collings, & Scullion, 2008), leading to an underutilization of SIEs' skills and perceptions of underemployment (Lee, 2005) and organizational injustice (Ang, Van Dyne, & Begley, 2003). Our literature search did not reveal any studies on structural or perceived barriers to work for any of the global travelers.

Nonwork Demands

In this category, the extant research has focused primarily on family issues. Despite the stabilizing effect of families on expatriate success (Tung, 1998), managing family problems that arise during the international assignment is still a challenge for expatriates. For

dual-career expatriate couples, spouse job/career considerations are a concern (Handler & Lane, 1997; Harvey, 1997; Riusala & Suutari, 2000). Another family issue that is also problematic for many expatriates is work–family conflict (Mäkelä & Suutari, 2011). Spouse support offsets much of the strain associated with work–family conflict (Mäkelä, Käsälä, & Suutari, 2011); however, for female expatriates, work–family conflict keeps many from progressing to senior positions (Linehan & Walsh, 2000, 2001).

Family concerns are also a critical issue for global travelers. Because the family usually remains in the home country (Starr & Currie, 2009), they avoid problems associated with family relocation, but both the traveler and the spouse experience strains that result from separation (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004). Indeed, a major concern of global travelers is the long-term costs associated with fractured family and friendship bonds, which may ultimately have an adverse effect on performance (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004). Although business travel may benefit employees by freeing them of daily household routines and responsibilities (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004) and by reducing their stress and work–family conflict (Westman & Etzion, 2002; Westman, Etzion, & Gattenio, 2008), family members left behind have to pick up the slack (Espino, Sundstrom, Frick, Jacobs, & Peters, 2002), thereby increasing their stress at all stages of the travel process (Starr & Currie, 2009). The strain on families may be exacerbated by the lack of support from the organization (Tahvanainen et al., 2005).

Career Consequences of Global Work

In this final section of the literature review, we include research that examines how global work experience affects individuals personally and professionally. In light of our career lens, we classified the various outcomes into two major categories: intrinsic career outcomes (i.e., satisfaction and subjective well-being) and extrinsic career outcomes (i.e., career competencies and career advancement).

Intrinsic Career Outcomes

Intrinsic career outcomes refer to individuals' subjective reactions to their career progress (Ng et al., 2005) such as job and career satisfaction and overall well-being (Judge et al., 1995). International experience affects employees personally in terms of their attitudes as well as their health. With respect to satisfaction, Peltonen (1998) found that expatriates had positive reactions to their assignments, while Bonache (2005) did not find any differences in the job satisfaction of expatriates, repatriates, and domestic employees. However, in terms of career and pay satisfaction, Bonache found that expatriates were more satisfied with their career prospects than were repatriates, although the two groups did not differ in terms of satisfaction with salary. With respect to SIEs, Lee (2005) reported that underemployed SIEs exhibited more negative work attitudes. In a recent study by Tharenou and Caulfield (2010), career and community embeddedness of SIEs were positively related to host country satisfaction and negatively related to repatriation intention.

Relative to the expatriate literature, more research has looked at the intrinsic career outcomes of global travelers. Positive outcomes include personal growth (Starr & Currie, 2009), enhanced well-being (Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010), escape from routine, stimulation of new environments, and more focused family activities (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004). Negative outcomes are disruptions of health and strained social relationships (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004), jet lag and poor health (DeFrank, Konopaske, & Ivancevich, 2000), as well as the more severe outcomes of alcoholism, stress, fatigue, and burnout (e.g., Tahvanainen et al., 2005). In contrast, however, Westman et al. (2009) found a positive relationship between international business travel and vigor (a dimension of engagement); furthermore, they found that vigor crossed over to the travelers' spouses. However, if personal growth and change occur separately from the individual's spouse, then this may lead to marital problems (Starr & Currie, 2009).

Extrinsic Career Outcomes

Extrinsic career success includes the more observable indicators of career advancement, which is typically defined in terms of salary and promotions (Ng et al., 2005). In addition to these outcomes, our content analysis of the literature identified several studies that examined the development of career competencies as a career outcome. Although competency development is not typically included as an indicator of extrinsic career success, we felt that it is an observable indicator of success given others can evaluate one's skills/competencies.

Career competencies. The research has found that many expatriates perceive career benefits in terms of the development of career capital competencies (Dickmann & Doherty, 2008, 2010; Doherty & Dickmann, 2009; Jokinen, 2010). To specifically identify such benefits, research has expanded DeFillippi and Arthur's (1996) career competencies framework to define their "knowing how, knowing whom, and knowing why" competencies to include global attributes. The *knowing how* career competencies include personal benefits such as a global mind-set, enhanced intercultural and interpersonal skills, foreign language fluency, and increased self-confidence (Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Stahl et al., 2002). Based on interviews with 20 global managers, Suutari and Mäkelä (2007), suggested that *knowing how* competencies are influenced by having a broad spectrum of responsibilities, the challenging nature of the international environment, a high level of autonomy, and cross-cultural differences.

Knowing whom career competencies stem from the development of a worldwide network of associates, including intra- and interfirm professional and social relationships (Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Stahl et al., 2002). Expatriates tend to distinguish between local and international networks, using international networks for their own personal and career aims rather than for attaining organizational goals (Dickmann & Harris, 2005). In a sample of 20 expatriates with multiple international assignments, those who had a large number of weak ties within the company reported having better and quicker access to information, but these networks were also more fragmented as a result of time and geographical distances (Mäkelä & Suutari, 2009).

Knowing why competencies include a crystallized view of values and identity, an understanding of personal strengths and weaknesses, clearer career interests and aims, and enhanced self-awareness (Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Suutari & Mäkelä, 2007). Although multiple international assignments provide more opportunities for the development of these competencies (Suutari & Mäkelä, 2007), organizations run the risk that these competencies provide expatriates with greater external career options and interests (Dickmann & Harris, 2005; Kohonen, 2008).

Research on the career competencies that accrue to SIEs and global travelers is very limited. Yet research has found that self-initiated foreign experiences provide opportunities to develop *knowing how* competencies for both male and female SIEs (Myers & Pringle, 2005). In addition, the early-career employees who had global travel experience developed global social networks (i.e., *knowing whom*) and acquired skills (i.e., *knowing how*) required for operating effectively across multiple cultures (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Starr & Currie, 2009). Studies that compared corporate expatriates, SIEs, and global travelers (e.g., Bozkurt & Mohr, 2011; Jokinen et al., 2008) found that corporate expatriates acquire more *knowing whom* competencies and more confidence in their abilities (*knowing how*) than SIEs.

Career advancement. As noted earlier, extrinsic career success is often conceptualized in terms of advancement (Ng et al., 2005). Early research by Gomez-Mejia and Balkin (1987) highlighted how important it is for expatriate experiences to culminate in career progress upon repatriation. Subsequent research has confirmed that concerns about career progression continue to plague expatriates (e.g., Lazarova & Cerdin, 2007; Stahl & Cerdin, 2004; Stahl et al., 2002; Tung, 1998). But only recently have researchers begun to more systematically examine how expatriate assignments affect employees' career progression. Carraher, Sullivan, and Crocitto (2008) found that expatriates who had a mentor, either in the host or home country, were more likely to be promoted. Other studies have found that expatriates and repatriates have expressed concerns about returning home to a job that leaves them feeling underemployed (Kraimer, et al., 2009), that does not capitalize on their international experience (Lazarova & Cerdin, 2007), that does not match their skill levels (Riusala & Suutari, 2000), and that is not as challenging as the international assignment (Kohonen, 2008; Osman-Gani & Hyder, 2008).

Comparing current expatriates, recent repatriates, and employees without any international experience, Benson and Pattie (2008) found that both expatriates and repatriates perceived greater future employment opportunities, but repatriates were significantly less likely to have been promoted in the past four years than either of the other two groups of employees. However, gender may play a role here. Advancement opportunities for women may be curtailed because of gender disparities and their limited access to key social networks within organizations (Linehan & Walsh, 2001). However, women can overcome these liabilities with greater investments in human capital such as education (Traavik & Richardson, 2010).

Researchers have only recently begun to explore how SIEs' international experiences may affect their careers. Although Begley et al. (2008) found that the return home and required job search are stressful for SIEs, Richardson and Mallon (2005) reported that international experience increases SIEs' employability in the job market as well as the promotion opportunities in their employed organizations after expatriation. However, Fang et al. (2009)

reported that only domestic employees, and not SIEs, obtained wage increases and promotions (during SIEs' expatriation) as a result of the organizations' investment in training and development. Nevertheless, SIEs believe that their international experiences are beneficial to their future career and personal development (Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, & Barry, 1997; Inkson & Myers, 2003), but further research is clearly needed.

Research on the career advancement of other types of global employees is limited. Demel and Mayerhofer (2010) identified both negative (e.g., increased workloads and time lost while traveling) and positive (e.g., optimistic career expectations) consequences for flexpatriates' future career options. In particular, flexpatriates anticipated that their experience in and knowledge of international markets as well as their participation in global social networks would provide them with career opportunities.

Summary and Conclusions

Our content analysis of the 114 empirical articles included in our review identified categories of external and internal influences on the decision to choose global work, the challenges associated with doing global work, and the intrinsic and extrinsic career consequences of this type of work (see Figure 1 for a summary of these categories). However, we note two caveats about our review. First, we recognize that our categories may not include all of the choice issues, challenges, and consequences that have been examined in the literature. Although our review did not include studies on expatriate adjustment that have addressed these issues (see Takeuchi, 2010, for a review of that literature), we did make every effort to include all empirical studies that specifically focused on career issues of traditional expatriates, and all studies on the other types of global workers (SIEs, flexpatriates, short-term assignees, and IBTs).

A second caveat is that even though we present the choices, challenges, and consequences as if they are separate issues within the literature, we recognize that these three aspects of the work experience may be interrelated. For example, from the expatriate adjustment literature we know that perceived cultural novelty negatively, and spouse adjustment positively, relate to expatriates' work and cultural adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Thus, the reason country and family considerations are important factors in choosing global work is because these choice factors partly affect the personal and family demands experienced while engaged in the work. Similarly, we know that expatriate adjustment positively relates to expatriates' satisfaction and job performance (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005); thus, the degree to which global employees experience challenges may certainly affect their career consequences.

Our review led to two general conclusions about the state of this research. First, the focus has continued to be on traditional corporate expatriates (66% of the articles), in spite of the trend for corporations to increasingly rely on alternative staffing options to conduct business globally and provide employees with global work experience (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2011). One reason we believe researchers continue to focus on traditional expatriates is because there is not any shared consensus within the academic or practitioner literatures on how to define and differentiate other types of global work experiences. A solution to

differentiating the different types of assignments may come from a second insight we concluded from the review. In particular, the extant research has focused on the global employee rather than the global work itself. That is, understanding the individual's characteristics, personal experiences, and attitudes and behaviors has been the focus of exploratory description and theoretical testing. Researchers have not carefully considered the quantitative and qualitative components that give global work the potential to provide the employee with rich, developmental experiences, or what Tesluk and Jacobs (1998: 329) defined as "high-density experiences."

We propose that a way forward for this research is to define global work experiences in terms of the quantitative and qualitative components that make this experience different from "domestic" work experience. Researchers could then use these global work experience dimensions to better understand which types of individuals are better suited for different types of global work, why some types of global work are more challenging than others, and why some global employees are more likely to have positive career consequences. Thus, we now turn our attention to developing a taxonomy of global work experiences to inform future research.

Future Research Agenda

In this section, we first develop a theoretical framework in the form of a three-dimensional taxonomy that describes key components of global work experiences. We then use this taxonomy to further interpret the literature we reviewed. We conclude by offering specific suggestions for future research.

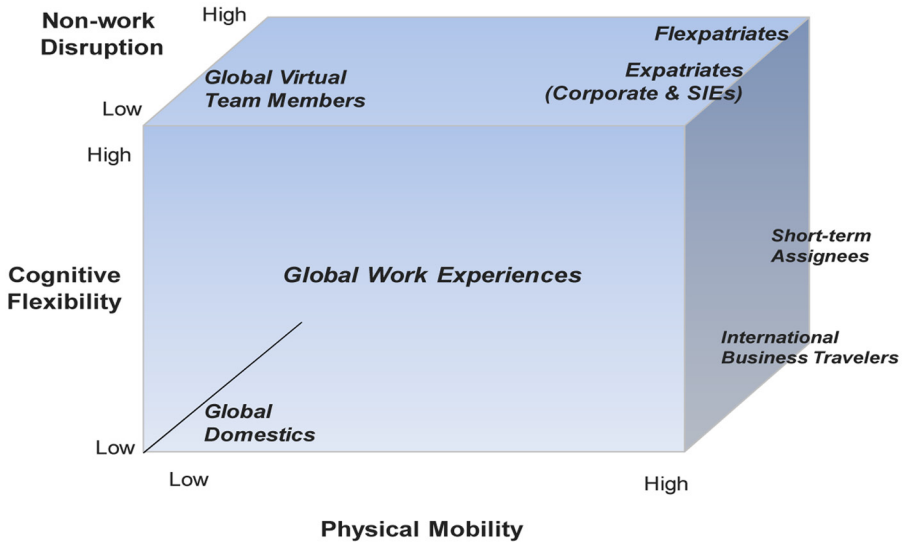
A Taxonomy of Global Work Experiences

Our intent in developing a taxonomy of global work experiences is to identify theoretical dimensions that quantitatively and qualitatively describe why global work can be a "high density" work experience that has dramatic effects on employees' learning, motivation, and/or career trajectories (Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998). Peiperl and Jonsen (2007) attempted a similar type of taxonomy to describe global careers. They identified two dimensions that describe global careers in terms of the degree to which the job requires one to (a) physically travel to foreign markets and (b) interact with culturally different people. These two dimensions hark back to the boundaryless career perspective. A boundaryless career is one with "sequences of job opportunities that go beyond the boundaries of single employment settings" (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996: 116). Research on the boundaryless career identified two dimensions describing how individuals may enact boundaryless careers: physical mobility (i.e., making actual physical transitions across boundaries such as jobs, firms, occupations, and countries) and psychological mobility (i.e., individual's perception of his/her capacity to make transitions) (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). However, an important difference is that Peiperl and Jonsen (2007) defined the two dimensions of global careers in terms of the *work activities* required for the job, whereas the boundaryless career framework describes the physical mobility and psychological mobility of the *career actor* (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006).

Building on Peiperl and Jonsen's (2007) framework, we also focus on the work itself and elaborate on the ways the different types of global work experiences differ from one another by defining global work along three dimensions: physical mobility, cognitive flexibility, and nonwork disruptions. First, similar to their taxonomy, we define *physical mobility* as the degree to which the work role requires that the employee travel, or relocate, internationally (Peiperl & Jonsen, 2007). The physical mobility requirements of the job may be measured quantitatively in terms of time spent working internationally but also captures the qualitative aspect of being exposed to foreign cultures and travel-related stress. Our second dimension, cognitive flexibility, goes beyond Peiperl and Jonsen's (2007) dimension of cross-cultural interactions by capturing the degree to which global work experiences involve adjusting one's thought patterns to interact with people of different cultures and adapt to uncertain situational demands that are complex and challenging. Thus, *cognitive flexibility* is the degree to which the global work requires role incumbents to adjust their thought patterns and scripts to effectively interact with people and adapt to situational demands across cultures.¹ Our third dimension, nonwork disruption, extends Peiperl and Jonsen's typology by incorporating a dimension that differentiates most global work experiences from "domestic" work experiences and is a particularly salient element to many international employees (Lazarova, Westman, & Shaffer, 2010; Mäkelä & Suutari, 2011; Starr & Currie, 2009). We define *nonwork disruption* as the degree to which the work role requirements disrupt or interfere with the employee's normal activities and routines outside of work. While most of the global employment literature primarily focuses on one such disruption—family separation—we recognize that other aspects of an individual's life are often disrupted because of global work responsibilities. For example, global work may require separation from extended family and friends, require the maintenance of two residences (i.e., short-term assignees or international commuters may have two homes), or interfere with normal sleeping hours to take international phone calls. Both cognitive flexibility and nonwork disruptions are qualitative elements of global work that contribute to the richness of the experience (Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998).

By classifying global work experiences in terms of these three dimensions of physical mobility, cognitive flexibility, and nonwork disruption, we identified a matrix of experiences (see Figure 2). Due to the fact that both corporate and self-initiated expatriates are required to relocate to a foreign country to live and work, these types of assignments are high on physical mobility and cognitive flexibility. However, it is common for family members to accompany expatriates to the foreign country, so nonwork disruption requirements are moderate. Short-term assignees are required to physically travel to a foreign country for months at a time, often maintaining a temporary residence in that country, but due to the short-term and often project-specific nature of the work, they typically require less adaptability to the foreign culture and do not take their families with them. Therefore, cognitive flexibility is relatively low, but physical mobility and nonwork disruptions are relatively high. Flexpatriates and IBTs are similar in that they both describe itinerant workers who frequently cross national boundaries; thus, both types of experiences are high on physical mobility. They differ in the amount of time spent visiting each country, with flexpatriates normally spending months and IBTs spending weeks. Compared to IBTs, then, flexpatriate work requires greater cognitive flexibility to adapt to foreign cultures, and because they experience more time separated from family and friends and may maintain a second residence, they are more prone to nonwork disruptions. Accordingly, we position flexpatriate work as high on all three

Figure 2
Taxonomy of Global Work Experiences



dimensions and IBT work as high on physical mobility, moderately low on cognitive flexibility, and moderately high on nonwork disruptions.

Although global employees who are high on physical mobility have dominated the literature, we have identified another category comprised of employees with global job responsibilities that require very little, if any, global travel. This includes global domestics and global virtual team members. Global domestics are employees who remain in their home country but have responsibilities and/or interactions with individuals in or from other countries. For example, some local employees interact with suppliers and customers around the world, often relying on technology to conduct business. Even though they may take some business trips to interact face-to-face, such trips are infrequent. Other local employees may be in a situation in which they work directly with those from another country, such as inpatriates. Relative to other global employees, global domestics would be low on all three dimensions of our taxonomy. However, in comparison with nonglobal domestics, their jobs would require greater cognitive flexibility and potentially more nonwork disruptions.

Global virtual team members are individuals working in geographically dispersed teams who carry out interdependent tasks and communicate mainly through information and communication technologies (Maznevski, Davison, & Jonsen, 2006). Such team members typically remain in their home country (thus low on physical mobility), but they may sometimes be required to participate in conference calls during nonwork hours (thus such experience is moderately low on nonwork disruptions). In addition, the high level of interdependence with

foreign-country colleagues requires virtual team members to be cognitively flexible. Because research on global domestics is limited to one study (i.e., Tharenou, 2005) and research on global virtual teams has mainly been conducted through an information technology lens rather than a careers lens, we omitted these forms of global employees from our earlier review. However, to encourage more investigations of these nonmobile forms of global work experiences, we consider them in our suggestions for future research.

Integration of the Taxonomy of Global Work Experiences and the Reviewed Empirical Research

In this section, we apply our taxonomy of global work experiences to summarize and interpret the major findings from our review of the empirical literature. This integration demonstrates the usefulness of our taxonomy as a theoretical framework for interpreting past studies, thereby providing a solid foundation for guiding future research on a broad array of global work experiences.

Choices

When making choices to pursue global work, our review suggests that both external (personal agency and country and family considerations) and internal (intrinsic and extrinsic motivators and personal characteristics) influences play important roles. Where there is free agency, individuals generally take into consideration the location and their family members, as well as intrinsic and extrinsic motivators. Integrating our three-dimensional taxonomy of global work experiences to these research findings, three observations can be made. First, we argue that differences in the degree of cognitive flexibility, nested within the different types of global work experiences that require physical mobility, can influence individuals' choices in a specific manner. For instance, location concerns are especially salient for expatriates. We believe this is because expatriate work requires a high degree of cognitive flexibility to adapt to living and working in the foreign country for several years. Some locations would be perceived as less demanding (i.e., be easier to cognitively adapt to) by individuals. Thus, we argue that it is the cognitive flexibility requirement of the global work experience that partly explains why location matters to expatriates when deciding to pursue the global work opportunity.

A second observation stems from the fact that both expatriates' and global travelers' family concerns affect their decisions to pursue global work. This common finding suggests that it is the physical mobility dimension that disturbs the balance of their work–family interface, as all of these types of work experiences require the individual to physically travel to foreign countries. As we will discuss further in the challenges section, the fact that global travelers typically do not take their families with them, whereas expatriates relocate with their families, means that the work–family interface is affected in different ways across these two broad types of global workers. But in terms of affecting choices, the physical mobility requirement of the job means that individuals take their families into consideration. Third, and finally, our review found that people who have adventurous and entrepreneurial

personalities and who have more global experiences are more willing to pursue expatriate experiences. Given that expatriate work requires higher levels of cognitive flexibility, it may be that adventurous and entrepreneurial people are more attracted to jobs that challenge them to adjust their thought patterns and scripts to successfully complete their job responsibilities.

Challenges

Overall, our review revealed that all of the global work experiences were associated with various personal and nonwork demands, including stress induced by the work role and travel requirements as well as concerns with work–family issues. However, the exact nature of the specific stress and nonwork demands varied across the types of global work experience. For example, IBTs experienced role conflict, physical fatigue from jet lag, difficulty developing relationships at domestic and foreign locations (DeFrank et al., 2000; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004), and family separation anxiety (Westman & Etzion, 2002). In comparison, expatriates have challenges related to the development of effective working relationships with host country nationals (Tung, 1998); adjustment to the foreign facility, the foreign culture, and interacting with host nationals (Takeuchi, 2010); and family adjustment and spousal employment opportunities in the foreign country (Riusala & Suutari, 2000).

Theoretically, we believe the differences in the nature of challenges experienced by the different types of workers can be attributed to the degree to which the global work experience requires physical mobility, cognitive flexibility, and disruption in their nonwork life. In particular, the combination of frequent international travel and separation from the family is likely to create time-based strains on the work–family interface for IBTs as such employees do not have enough time to devote to their families. In comparison, corporate and self-initiated expatriates relocate with their families to foreign countries; as such, they are more likely to experience time-, strain-, and behavior-based forms of work–family conflict (Mäkelä & Suutari, 2011) due to the high degree of cognitive flexibility all family members are expected to demonstrate (as all family members are adjusting to the foreign culture). That is, it is the combination of physically moving to a foreign country with the family and learning to adapt to a new culture that creates the unique family demands associated with expatriate assignments.

Career Consequences

With regard to satisfaction and well-being, more research has examined these intrinsic career outcomes among global travelers than among expatriates. We believe this may be due to the fact that global travelers have a high degree of nonwork disruption and physical mobility components. Consequently, work–family stress is greater for these workers, and subjective well-being, including affective and health outcomes, tends to be more prominent in the work–family literature.

Our review also suggests that all forms of global employees expect their global work experiences to translate into positive extrinsic career outcomes. In terms of career competencies, research evidence suggests that global work experiences, especially expatriate assignments, do lead to the development of such competencies. We think it is likely that the combination of being in a foreign country (physical mobility) and adapting to the cognitive flexibility demands

provides individuals with opportunities to develop such global career competencies (Bell & Harrison, 1996). As for career advancement, the results for corporate expatriates are quite mixed, with many studies finding that expatriates often experience underemployment (Lazarova & Cerdin, 2007) or even demotions (Kraimer et al., 2009) upon repatriation. We speculate that these mixed findings are due to the degree to which the employees' skills and abilities match the cognitive flexibility and nonwork disruption requirements of their global experience. Perhaps those who were able to meet the challenges of these work requirements were more likely to be promoted. The physical mobility dimension may also partly explain who gets promoted and who does not; those who spend more time away from the home office lose valuable contacts who might help them get promoted.

Future Research Directions

In this section, we offer several research questions to stimulate investigations of how the dimensions of our taxonomy (physical mobility, cognitive flexibility, and nonwork disruptions) may influence the various choices, challenges, and career consequences associated with global work experiences.

Our review of the global work experience literature led us to develop a taxonomy based on three work requirements: physical mobility, cognitive flexibility, and nonwork disruptions (see Figure 2). Interpreting the main findings of the studies we reviewed, we proposed that many of the similarities and differences across the types of global workers may be explained by the degree to which the work experience varies on these three dimensions. Thus, one important avenue for future research is to develop measures of these three dimensions and test our taxonomy. In terms of scale development for the dimensions, we would suggest that physical mobility be measured in terms of both the *duration of the stay* in foreign countries (weeks, months, years) and the *frequency* with which the individual has to physically cross national borders (i.e., engage in international travel) to fulfill the expectations of the job role. A measure for cognitive flexibility would need to be developed following our conceptual definition. Two items might be "To what extent does your global work role require you to seek additional information to understand why people from other countries behave as they do?" and "To what extent does your global work role require you to reconsider what you think of as ethical or unethical?" A measure for nonwork disruption should assess the degree to which the job role interferes with an individual's normal activities and routines. For example, measures could include the length of time that individuals are separated from their family, significant others, or friends (days, weeks, or months per year) as well as the degree to which the job requirements disrupt the incumbent's daily routines (e.g., maintaining the household, spending time with family and friends, and maintaining a normal diet or exercise routine). Developing scales to measure these three dimensions would then allow researchers to determine whether global work experiences can be differentiated along these three dimensions and, more importantly, to test theoretical explanations for the types of choices, challenges, and consequences various global workers face.

Research Question 1: Can the various types of global work experiences be reliably differentiated on the basis of physical mobility, cognitive flexibility, and nonwork disruption?

In terms of choices, our review uncovered personal characteristics such as adventurous personalities and age that are related to individuals' decisions to pursue expatriate experiences. We propose that this may be because such personality traits and experiences that accumulate with age are related to individuals' abilities to adjust their thought patterns and scripts to successfully complete their job responsibilities. Future research is needed not only to test our proposition but also to examine other personality traits or attitudes that influence one's attraction to jobs that require cognitive flexibility and disruptions to nonwork life, as well as one's comfort with physical mobility. A particularly interesting individual difference might be one's boundaryless career attitude. According to Briscoe, Hall, and Frautschy DeMuth (2006: 31), people with a boundaryless career mind-set are more likely to initiate and pursue work across organizational boundaries; they are "enthusiastic about creating and sustaining active relationships beyond organizational boundaries." Such individuals may be more attracted to jobs that require international travel and working with culturally different people since they are more psychologically flexible and energized by such experiences. Individuals with a boundaryless career attitude may also be more comfortable with disruptions in their nonwork life. Other career attitudes such as a protean career orientation (Briscoe et al., 2006) and global mind-set or cosmopolitanism (Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, & Ferzandi, 2006) might also be related to individuals choosing to pursue global work. Besides personality or career attitudes, characteristics such as one's health, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status may also affect individuals' interest in pursuing jobs that require extensive physical travel and interacting with culturally diverse people.

Similarly, research is needed to identify spousal characteristics (e.g., personality, career orientation) and family characteristics (e.g., age of children, family functioning) that affect global workers' comfort with being physically separated from their family for weeks or months at a time. As more companies engage in global business and national borders become more permeable throughout the world, more employees will be needed to pursue global work experiences. From both an organizational selection perspective and a career self-management perspective, it is important to understand the personal characteristics, past experiences, and family characteristics that allow individuals to feel more comfortable interacting with culturally different people and moving or travelling internationally.

Research Question 2: What are the personal characteristics (e.g., personality traits, career attitudes, past experiences, health, socioeconomic background) that positively relate to individuals' interest to engage in global work that requires physical mobility, cognitive flexibility, and nonwork disruptions? What spousal and family characteristics enable individuals to be comfortable with family separation?

In terms of challenges, one direction for future research is to examine the interrelations among the three dimensions of global work and the various challenges identified in our literature review. For example, the boundaryless career perspective (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006) and role theories within the work–family conflict literature (e.g., Powell & Greenhaus, 2010) could provide insights into why physical mobility and nonwork disruptions such as family separation interact in predicting work–family conflict and other family-related outcomes. Theories of task complexity and social cognition (e.g., Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Haerem & Rau, 2007) might suggest that cognitive flexibility interacts with physical mobility requirements

to predict assignment and career management challenges for expatriates (e.g., managing the transition from expatriate to repatriate). For example, high degrees of physical separation from one's home country and complex tasks (such as those that involve cognitive flexibility) might result in greater uncertainty for the expatriate employee; uncertainty, in turn, may lead to ambiguous interpretations of the assignment purpose and reduced expectations of assignment success. Another potential direction is to apply theories and research on individual differences such as psychological flexibility (Bond, Flaxman, & Bunce, 2008), the boundaryless mind-set (Briscoe et al., 2006), and cultural intelligence/motivation (Chen et al., 2010; Earley & Ang, 2003) to identify potential moderators of the effects of the cognitive flexibility requirements of global work on the individual's adjustment to the foreign culture (e.g., stress-related challenges).

Another challenge that has received very little research attention has to do with the structural or perceived barriers that may inhibit the successful job performance of expatriates and/or global travelers (IBTs, short-term assignees, and flexpatriates). Further examination of perceived barriers, in particular, seems to be worthy of future research. For example, research could examine whether expatriates (self-initiated or corporate) face a "glass ceiling" within the foreign country due to their immigrant/foreign status. The study by Fang and colleagues (2009) suggests that SIEs do experience a glass ceiling, as only domestic employees, and not SIEs, obtained salary increases and promotions even though both types of workers were provided with organizational training. We offer two potential explanations for why a glass ceiling or discrimination exists. First, based on moral exclusion theory, expatriates (and other global workers) may be subject to social undermining by peers or abusive supervision because of coworkers' or supervisors' perceived deep-level dissimilarity with expatriates (e.g., Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). Second, integrating social capital theories (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001) with the cultural intelligence/motivation perspective (Chen et al., 2010), expatriates who are less motivated to culturally adapt to the foreign culture might be less effective at building strong ties with important people who provide access to information and resources that are useful for job performance and career advancement.

Research Question 3: To what extent, and why, do the independent and interactive effects of physical mobility, cognitive flexibility, and nonwork disruptions explain the various challenges experienced by global workers?

Research Question 4: Are there individual differences that moderate the effects of any of the global work dimensions on the degree to which the individual reports experiencing challenges (e.g., stress, lack of adjustment, work-family conflict, perceived discrimination or underemployment, identity strain)?

Based on our review of career consequences, we suggest three additional research questions that should be answered. First, we were surprised to find that very few studies have examined health-related outcomes associated with global work experiences. Given the demanding schedules and work-family issues inherent in almost all global work experiences, we encourage research to examine how such experiences affect the psychological and physical health of these workers. Based on the mixed research findings to date (e.g., DeFrank et al., 2000; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Westman et al., 2009), both positive and negative health outcomes should be investigated, including subjective well-being, vigor,

alcoholism, burnout, and fatigue. As health outcomes have been shown to affect job performance and turnover (e.g., Shirom, 2011; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010), it behooves organizations to better understand the link between global work experiences and employee health and, importantly, to determine which types of support mechanisms can mitigate any harmful effects associated with global work.

Research Question 5: How do the dimensions of global work experiences affect employees' health outcomes, and what types of support systems help reduce these harmful effects?

Second, research is sorely needed to identify why some corporate expatriates are promoted upon repatriation, and others are not. Although it is certainly possible some of the variability is due to organizational constraints in terms of the positions that are available when expatriates are ready to return home, research evidence suggests that it is also due to assignment- and individual-specific factors (Kraimer et al., 2009). In terms of assignment-specific factors, besides whether the assignment was specifically for developmental purposes, we suggest that the degree to which the assignment required the expatriate to be a boundary spanner between home- and host-country units (e.g., Reiche, 2011) positively affects promotions and salary advancement upon repatriation. Such boundary-spanning roles allow expatriates to be more central "actors" in the organizational network, providing them with unique social capital to advance their careers (Seibert et al., 2001). Boundary-spanning roles might also compensate for the "out-of-sight, out-of-mind" problem that occurs when expatriates are physically absent for years from the home country organization (Feldman & Thomas, 1992). That is, a boundary-spanning role might buffer the negative effect of physical mobility on career progression upon repatriation by providing expatriates with "knowing whom" career competencies.

In terms of individual factors, we would expect that the ability of the expatriate to master the cognitive flexibility requirements of the position would moderate the effects of cognitive flexibility on career progression indirectly through increased performance in the expatriate job. Individuals may also experience greater postassignment success when they possess certain personality traits and abilities, such as cultural intelligence and psychological flexibility.

Research Question 6: What assignment-related factors (e.g., purpose of assignment, boundary-spanning role) and individual differences (e.g., development of career competencies, personality traits and abilities) explain why some corporate expatriates are promoted upon repatriation and others are not? Do these factors interact with the three dimensions of global work experiences in predicting career advancement?

Third, our review of the career consequences research revealed only two studies that specifically examined the effects of international experience on career advancement among SIEs (Fang et al., 2009; Richardson & Mallon, 2005), and we did not find any studies that examined this relationship for the various types of global travelers. We therefore encourage future investigations of the career consequence of all types of global work experiences. In doing so, we suggest that researchers define global work experiences in terms of the degree of physical

mobility, cognitive flexibility, and nonwork disruptions, so that comparisons across the different types of work experiences are theoretically meaningful. We also encourage researchers to define career advancement in terms of multiple indicators, such as promotions, salary, and career satisfaction. Mediating models explaining why the specific types of international work requirements relate to career advancement should also be incorporated in such studies.

In exploring this issue, researchers can incorporate findings from the career success literature to build theoretical models that explain how the different dimensions of global work experience might influence career advancement. For instance, research has found that managers are less willing to promote women who are perceived to experience family–work conflict because they consider such women to have poorer person–organization/person–job fit and lower job performance (Hoobler, Wayne, & Lemmon, 2009). This suggests that employees who frequently travel internationally or are willing to “put up” with nonwork disruptions may be perceived as a better fit and perhaps more committed to the organization and, thus, more promotable. It might also be the case that employees who frequently travel miss out on the daily work activities and politics that influence career success (Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997). Likewise, prior research suggests that individuals are more likely to get ahead when they are able to be involved in the areas and activities within the organization that are most central to its overall performance (e.g., O’Hara, Beehr, & Colarelli, 1994). It may be important, then, for individuals to consider if their global work experiences will help them gain visibility and expose them to areas that are more central to the organization (e.g., develop “knowing whom” competencies) or if such experiences make them less visible and move them into areas that are less critical to the organization’s strategy or mission. Thus, there are additional career complexities that should be explored in future studies.

Research Question 7: Are the global work experience dimensions associated with individuals’ career success? If so, why?

Finally, after conducting our literature search, we found there were very few career-related studies on global domestics and virtual team members; we did not even find studies on general work-related experiences or attitudes for these types of workers. What these two types of workers have in common is that their global work experience does not require physical travel to foreign countries. Although it is understandable that research on global work experiences has initially focused exclusively on those workers who do engage in international travel, we believe the study of global domestics and global virtual team members is also worth pursuing.

Given that these work assignments are low on physical mobility, these workers may have more in common with domestic workers. Therefore, it might be helpful to look at these careers using traditional career theories (cf. Sullivan, 1999) and/or more recent hybrid career models relevant for domestic and global workers (cf. Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). As noted earlier, relative to other global work assignments, employees who have roles in which they work frequently with inpatriates and visitors from foreign countries should need less cognitive flexibility and experience fewer nonwork disruptions. Relative to domestic work

assignments without global responsibilities, though, these assignments may also be more challenging because they involve cross-cultural interactions. It would be worthwhile, then, to understand the career implications—both positive and negative—that are associated with these roles. For instance, interacting with people from other cultures can be both challenging and personally rewarding (e.g., Adler & Graham, 1989; Stening & Everett, 1979). Thus, through such interactions, employees may enhance their interpersonal skills and feel their careers are more intrinsically rewarding.

Similarly, it may be helpful to draw on research on virtual team work to understand the career implications of working on a global virtual team. These teams are typically geographically dispersed, and prior research indicates that being a member of a virtual team is challenging and that virtual teams often fail (Furst, Reeves, Rosen, & Blackburn, 2004; Malhotra, Majchrzak, & Rosen, 2007). Moreover, it has been noted that when virtual team members struggle, it can adversely affect their careers (Furst et al., 2004). At the same time, this line of work suggests that virtual team members often develop unique communication and problem-solving skills (Malhotra et al., 2007). Although members of global virtual teams should have similar experiences, it is likely that their experiences may also differ due to the cross-cultural dynamics also imposed on the virtual team context. For example, compared to domestic teams, global virtual team members may have greater cognitive flexibility demands on them to solve problems with culturally different team members. Global virtual team members may also experience more nonwork disruption by being required to work outside of normal work hours to accommodate virtual team meetings with globally dispersed colleagues. Additional work, then, is needed to identify and understand the challenges and consequences for those who work as global domestics or global virtual team members.

Research Question 8: What are the unique challenges and career consequences associated with global work experiences that do not require physical mobility (e.g., global virtual team members or global domestics)?

Conclusion

We have summarized and integrated the empirical research on the major types of global work experiences, focusing on this type of work as a career choice that comes with certain challenges and career consequences. Although our review revealed more than 100 empirical articles on the topic, the exploratory nature of almost half of these studies suggests that this research stream is still in its infancy. We hope that our integrated review, the taxonomy of global work experiences we developed, and the research questions that we offered will encourage researchers to broaden the scope of international work experience studies to include all forms of global work, not just expatriation, and to provide more rigorous empirical research on the choices, challenges, and career consequences of these global work experiences.

Appendix

Research Approach and Key Themes of Articles Reviewed

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Corporate expatriates				
Aryee, Chay, & Chew (1996)	Surveys—228 managerial employees with Singapore government-linked company	Country considerations		
Benson & Pattie (2008)	Surveys—365 employees in U.S. international professional services companies (96 expatriates, 82 repatriates, and 187 domestic employees)			Career advancement
Benson & Pattie (2009)	Surveys—206 employees in U.S. international professional services companies (115 recent expatriates and 91 current repatriates)		Career transition concerns	
Boies & Rothstein (2002)	Surveys—350 Canadian managers	Intrinsic motivators; extrinsic motivators	Identity transformation	
Cappellen & Janssens (2008)	Interviews—45 global managers in three Belgian multinational corporations (MNCs)	Intrinsic motivators		Career competencies
Cappellen & Janssens (2010)	Interviews—63 global managers in three Belgian MNCs		Career transition concerns	
Carr, Inkson, & Thorn (2005)	Case study—large sample of expatriates in New Zealand	Extrinsic motivators; country considerations; family considerations		
Carraher, Sullivan, & Crocitto (2008)	Surveys—299 expatriates in 10 countries (163 men; 136 women)			Career advancement
Chew & Zhu (2002)	Surveys—357 Singaporean expatriate managers	Intrinsic motivators; extrinsic motivators; country considerations; personal characteristics		
Crowley-Henry (2007)	Interviews—20 British international assignees (IAs)	Intrinsic motivators; extrinsic motivators		

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
De Cieri, Sheehan, Costa, Fenwick, & Cooper (2009)	Surveys—563 Australian professionals currently working overseas		Career transition concerns	
Dickmann & Doherty (2008)	Interviews—26 British IAs			Career competencies
Dickmann & Doherty (2010)	Interviews—18 expatriates in Europe, Asia, and Australia			Career competencies; satisfaction and well-being
Dickmann, Doherty, Mills, & Brewster (2008)	Interviews—30 responses from 2 senior managers and 28 repatriates of international assignments; and surveys—310 IAs and 49 HR managers with U.K. financial services company	Personal agency; country considerations		
Dickmann & Harris (2005)	Interviews—9 IAs and 5 domestic employees with the finance and sales and marketing HQ divisions of a U.K. MNC			Career advancement; satisfaction and well-being
Dickmann & Mills (2010)	Interviews—11 expatriates (5 Americans, 4 Asians, 2 Europeans)	Country considerations; intrinsic motivators		
Doherty & Dickmann (2009)	Interviews—13 repatriates who had returned from expatriate assignment between 1998 and 2004			Career competencies; career advancement
Dunbar & Ehrlich (1993)	Surveys—92 senior staff of a U.S. MNC		Career transition concerns	
Feldman & Thomas (1992)	Surveys—118 expatriates in Saudi Arabia, Europe, South America, and Japan		Career transition concerns; stress and coping strategies	Career competencies; satisfaction and well-being

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Fischlmayr & Kollinger (2010)	Interviews—10 Australian female expatriates		Nonwork demands; stress and coping strategies	
Fish & Wood (1997)	Surveys—122 expatriates from 20 Australian business enterprises	Intrinsic motivators		
Handler & Lane (1997)	Surveys—46 responses from HR personnel in U.S. MNCs		Nonwork demands	
Harvey (1997)	Surveys—650 expatriates who had repatriated with trailing spouses		Nonwork demands; career transition concerns	
Herman & Tetrick (2009)	Surveys—282 repatriates from previous employment in Japan		Stress and coping strategies	
Hippler (2009)	Surveys—454 German expatriates employed with 1 German MNC	Intrinsic motivators; country considerations		
Jassawalla & Sashittal (2009)	Interviews—4 foreign nationals who had spent their expatriate assignments in the United States and 46 American citizens assigned overseas		Career transition concerns	
Jokinen (2010)	Interviews—16 Finnish expatriates			Career competencies
Kohonen (2008)	Interviews—21 expatriates in 14 companies; 2 females and 19 males		Identity transformation	
Konopaske, Robie, & Ivancevich (2005)	Surveys—427 expatriates and 167 spouses	Family considerations		
Konopaske & Werner (2005)	Surveys—418 globally oriented graduates of international business master's program	Intrinsic motivators; extrinsic motivators		
Kraimer, Shaffer, & Bolino (2009)	Surveys—88 repatriates employed by 5 U.S. MNCs			Career advancement

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison & Ren (in press)	Surveys—112 repatriates		Identity transformation	
Kraimer & Wayne (2004)	Surveys—230 expatriate-supervisor dyads		Career transition concerns	
Kreng & Huang (2009)	Case Study—Citibank Corp.		Career transition concerns	
Lazarova & Cerdin (2007)	Surveys—133 repatriates in 14 MNCs		Career transition concerns	
Linehan & Scullion (2002)	Interviews—50 European female repatriates		Career transition concerns	
Linehan & Walsh (2000)	Interviews—50 European female repatriates		Nonwork demands	Career advancement
Linehan & Walsh (2001)	Interviews—50 European female repatriates		Structural and perceptual barriers; nonwork concerns	Career advancement
Mäkelä, Känsälä, & Suutari (2011)	Interviews—39 Finnish dual-career expatriates		Nonwork demands; stress and coping strategies	
Mäkelä & Suutari (2009)	Interviews—20 Finnish expatriates with 3+ IAs		Career transition concerns	
Mäkelä & Suutari (2011)	Interviews—20 Finnish expatriates with 3+ IAs		Stress and coping strategies; nonwork demands	
Mathur-Helm (2002)	Interviews—25 female expatriates in South Africa MNCs		Stress and coping strategies; career transition concerns	
Osman-Gani & Hyder (2008)	Interviews—15 Singaporean repatriates and surveys—323 Singaporean managers with repatriation experience		Career transition concerns	
Pattie, White, & Tansky (2010)	Surveys—3,234 expatriates in 42 firms		Career transition concerns	Career advancement

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Peltonen (1998)	Interviews—31 Finnish engineers and managers in two multinational firms			Career advancement; satisfaction and well-being
Reiche, Kraimer, & Harzing (2011)	Surveys—143 inpatriates in 10 German multinationals		Career transition concerns	Career advancement
Riusala & Suutari (2000)	Surveys—201 Finnish expatriates		Career transition concerns; nonwork demands	
Selmer (1999)	Surveys—343 Western business expatriates working and living in Hong Kong		Career transition concerns	
Selmer (2000)	Surveys—343 Western business expatriates assigned to Hong Kong		Career transition concerns	
Selmer (2001)	Surveys—343 Western business expatriates assigned to Hong Kong	Personal characteristics		
Selmer & Leung (2002)	Surveys—46 women expatriates in Hong Kong		Career transition concerns	
Selmer & Leung (2003)	Surveys—46 women expatriates in Hong Kong	Personal characteristics		
Stahl & Cerdin (2004)	Surveys—330 French expatriates and 494 German expatriates in 50 MNCs		Career transition concerns	
Stahl, Chua, Caligiuri, Cerdin, & Taniguchi (2009)	Surveys—1,779 German, French, American, Singaporean, and Japanese expatriates in 93 countries and employed with 141 MNCs		Career transition concerns	Career advancement
Stahl, Miller, & Tung (2002)	Surveys—494 German expatriates on assignment to 59 countries	Intrinsic motivators	Career transition concerns	Career advancement; satisfaction and well-being
Suutari (2003)	Interviews—24 global managers	Intrinsic motivators		

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Suutari & Brewster (2003)	Surveys—67 Finnish repatriates		Career transition concerns	Career advancement
Suutari & Mäkelä (2007)	Interviews—20 Finnish expatriates with 3+ IAs			Career competencies; career advancement; satisfaction and well-being
Suutari & Taka (2004)	Interviews—22 Finnish expatriate managers	Intrinsic motivators		
Traavik & Richardson (2010)	Surveys—125 Norwegian women and 168 international, expatriate women		Career transition concerns	Career advancement
Tung (1998)	Surveys—409 expatriates on assignment to 51 countries	Intrinsic motivators	Stress and coping strategies	
Vance & Paik (2001)	Surveys—323 American female expatriates		Structural and perceptual barriers	
van der Heijden, van Engen, & Paauwe (2009)	Surveys—100 Dutch-based inpatriates/expatriates		Career transition concerns	Career advancement
Warneke & Schneider (2011)	Surveys—84 German and Spanish employees	Extrinsic motivators		
Wong, 2001	Interviews—40 Japanese expatriate managers assigned to Hong Kong		Career transition concerns	
Self-initiated expatriates				
Agullo & Egawa (2009)	Interviews—26 Indian self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) working in Japan		Structural and perceptual barriers	
Al Ariss & Özbilgin (2010)	Interviews—43 Lebanese SIEs in France		Structural and perceptual barriers	
Al Ariss (2010)	Interviews—43 Lebanese SIEs in France		Structural and perceptual barriers	
Ang, Van Dyne, & Begley (2003)	Surveys—213 SIEs and 253 domestic employees working in Singapore		Structural and perceptual barriers	

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Begley, Collings, & Scullion (2008)	Surveys—27 repatriated Irish SIEs (follow-up interviews with 11)			Career advancement
Bozionelos (2009)	Surveys—206 SIE nurses in Saudi Arabia		Career transition concerns	Career advancement; satisfaction and well-being
Fang, Zikic, & Novicevic (2009)	Surveys—1,004 professional SIEs and 3,101 domestic professionals in Canada			Career advancement
Felker (2011)	Interviews—22 in-depth interviews with workers living in Ireland, England, the Netherlands, Poland, and the Czech Republic		Career transition concerns	Career advancement
Fitzgerald & Howe-Walsh (2008)	Interviews—10 self-initiated expatriate female managers currently living and working in the Cayman Islands	Intrinsic motivators; country considerations	Stress and coping strategies; structural and perceptual barriers	
Inkson & Myers (2003)	Interviews—50 New Zealand SIEs	Intrinsic motivators; family considerations	Structural and perceptual barriers	Career advancement
Lee (2005)	Surveys—302 SIEs working in Singapore		Structural and perceptual barriers	Satisfaction and well-being
Myers & Pringle (2005)	Interviews—50 New Zealand SIEs			Career advancement
Näsholm (2009)	Interviews—4 Swedish itinerants		Identity transformation	
Richardson (2006)	Interviews—30 British faculty working in universities in Singapore, New Zealand, Turkey, and the United Arab Emirates	Family considerations		
Richardson & Mallon (2005)	Interviews—30 British faculty working in universities in Singapore, New Zealand, Turkey, and the United Arab Emirates	Personal agency; intrinsic motivators; family considerations		

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Richardson & McKenna (2002)	Interviews—30 British faculty working in universities in Singapore, New Zealand, Turkey, and the United Arab Emirates	Intrinsic motivators; extrinsic motivators		
Richardson & McKenna (2006)	Interviews—30 British faculty working in universities in Singapore, New Zealand, Turkey, and the United Arab Emirates	Country considerations		
Richardson & Zikic (2007)	Interviews—30 British faculty working in universities in Singapore, New Zealand, Turkey, and the United Arab Emirates		Career transition concerns	
Selmer & Lauring (2010)	Surveys—428 SIE academics from 60 countries employed with 35 universities in 5 Northern European countries	Personal characteristics		
Tharenou (2003)	Surveys—213 Australian full-time employees	Country considerations; personal characteristics		
Tharenou & Caulfield (2010)	Surveys—546 Australian SIEs		Stress and coping strategies	Career advancement
Thorn (2009)	Surveys—2,608 SIEs from New Zealand working in 93 countries	Intrinsic motivators		
Vance (2005)	Interviews—48 American SIEs in 38 companies in East Asia		Career transition concerns	
Zikic, Bonache, & Cerdin (2010)	Interviews—45 SIEs in Canada, Spain, and France		Career transition concerns	
Corporate expatriates and others (comparison)				
Biemann & Andresen (2010)	Surveys—119 IAs and 40 SIEs from Germany	Intrinsic motivators	Stress and coping strategies	

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Bonache (2005)	Surveys—101 expats, 117 repatriates, and 1,616 domestic employees in a Spanish construction company			Satisfaction and well-being
Cerdin & Le Pargneux (2009)	Surveys—138 SIEs and 165 IAs from France working in 57 countries	Intrinsic motivators		
Doherty, Dickmann, & Mills (2011)	Surveys—522 expatriates (65% SIEs, 35% corporate expatriates)	Country considerations; intrinsic motivators		
Inkson, Arthur, Pringle, & Barry (1997)	Interviews—75 New Zealand employees who have overseas experience (i.e., corporate expatriates & SIEs)			Career advancement
Jokinen, Brewster, & Suutari (2008)	Surveys—111 IAs and 111 SIEs from Finland in 42 countries			Career competencies
Peltokorpi & Froese (2009)	Surveys—124 SIEs and 55 IAs from 24 different countries working in Japan		Stress and coping strategies	
Tharenou (2008)	Surveys—Australian employees comprising 230 females and 401 males with partners and/or children and 208 female and male childless singles (sample included both corporate expatriates and SIEs)	Intrinsic motivators; family considerations		
Global travelers Bozkurt & Mohr (2011)	Surveys—72 high-skilled employees in three Finnish MNEs (involved in both traditional expatriation and short-term assignment)			Career competencies

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Demel & Mayerhofer (2010)	Interviews—20 Australian expatriates working in Eastern or Western European countries	Intrinsic motivators; extrinsic motivators	Stress and coping strategies	Career advancement; career competencies; satisfaction and well-being
Espino, Sundstrom, Frick, Jacobs, & Peters (2002)	Surveys—525 spouses of international business travelers (IBTs), 102 IBTs, and 1,335 staff likely to travel with World Bank Group		Nonwork demands; stress and coping strategies	
Konopaske et al. (2005)	Surveys—1,125 MBA alumni currently involved in business travel, short-term or long-term assignment	Intrinsic motivators; extrinsic motivators; country considerations		
Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert (2004)	Interviews—12 expatriates (commuters and IBTs) and HR staff with 2 European MNCs		Career transition concerns; stress and coping strategies	Career advancement; satisfaction and well-being
Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, & Kollinger (2004)	Interviews—2 HR, 3 line managers, and 2 nonmanagerial staff with 1 European MNC	Personal agency	Nonwork demands; stress and coping strategies	Satisfaction and well-being
Mayerhofer, Müller, & Schmidt (2010)	Interviews—99 Austrian expatriates/IBTs		Career transition concerns	
Ramsey, Leonel, Gomes, & Monteiro (2011)	Surveys—841 IBTs leaving Sao Paulo International Airport		Stress and coping strategies	
Starr (2009)	Interviews—22 short-term assignees from the United States and the United Kingdom		Identity transformation; career transition concerns	
Starr & Currie (2009)	Interviews—22 short-term assignees from the United States and the United Kingdom		Nonwork demands	Satisfaction and well-being

(continued)

Appendix (continued)

Source	Research Approach	Choices	Challenges	Consequences
Tahvanainen, Welch, & Worm (2005)	Interviews—11 HR managers of Finnish MNCs with short-term assignees	Personal agency	Nonwork demands; stress and coping strategies	Satisfaction and well-being; career advancement
Welch, Welch, & Worm (2007)	Interviews—10 Australian and Danish IBTs	Personal agency	Stress and coping strategies; nonwork demands	Career competencies
Westman (2004)	Interviews—35 IBTs		Stress and coping strategies	
Westman & Etzion (2002)	Surveys—57 IBTs		Stress and coping strategies	Satisfaction and well-being
Westman, Etzion, & Chen (2009)	Surveys—275 Israeli IBTs and their spouses			Satisfaction and well-being
Westman, Etzion, & Gattenio (2008)	Surveys—66 Israeli IBTs		Nonwork demands	Satisfaction and well-being
Global domestics				
Tharenou (2005)	Surveys—1,406 Australian global domestics	Intrinsic motivators; extrinsic motivators		

Note

1. As with all of our dimensions, *cognitive flexibility* describes a requirement of the global work itself. This is distinct from the term *psychological mobility*, which is an individual difference that describes the global business person. Individuals who are high on psychological mobility would be more likely to do well in work experiences that require high levels of cognitive flexibility.

References

- *An asterisk denotes that the study was included in the review.
- Adler, N. J., & Graham, J. L. 1989. Cross-cultural interaction: The international comparison fallacy? *Journal of International Business Studies*, 20: 515-537.
- *Agullo, B., & Egawa, M. 2009. International careers of Indian workers in Tokyo: Examination and future directions. *Career Development International*, 14: 148-168.
- *Al Ariss, A. 2010. Modes of engagement: Migration, self-initiated expatriation, and career development. *Career Development International*, 15: 338-358.
- *Al Ariss, A., & Özbilgin, M. 2010. Understanding self-initiated expatriates: Career experiences of Lebanese self-initiated expatriates in France. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 52: 275-285.
- Andreason, A. W., & Kinner, K. D. 2005. Repatriation adjustment problems and the successful reintegration of expatriates and their families. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Psychology*, 6: 109-126.
- *Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Begley, T. M. 2003. The employment relationships of foreign workers versus local employees: A field study of organizational justice, job satisfaction, performance, and OCB. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24: 561-583.

- Arthur, M. B., & Rousseau, D. M. 1996. *Boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organizational era*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- *Aryee, S., Chay, Y. W., & Chew, J. 1996. An investigation of the willingness of managerial employees to accept an expatriate assignment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17: 267-283.
- Aycan, Z. 1997. Acculturation of expatriate managers: A process model of adjustment and performance. In Z. Aycan (Ed.), *New approaches to employee management, vol. 4: Expatriate management: Theory and research*: 1-40. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. 2007. The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22: 309-328.
- *Begley, A., Collings, D. G., & Scullion, H. 2008. The cross-cultural adjustment experiences of self-initiated repatriates to the Republic of Ireland labour market. *Employee Relations*, 30: 264-282.
- Bell, M. P., & Harrison, D. A. 1996. Using intra-national diversity for international assignments: A model of bicultural competence and expatriate adjustment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 6: 47-74.
- *Benson, G. S., & Pattie, M. 2008. Is expatriation good for my career? The impact of expatriate assignments on perceived and actual career outcomes. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19: 1636-1653.
- *Benson, G. S., & Pattie, M. 2009. The comparative roles of home and host supervisors in the expatriate experiences. *Human Resource Management*, 48: 49-68.
- Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M., & Luk, D. M. 2005. Input-based and time-based models of international adjustment: Meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48: 257-281.
- *Biemann, T., & Andresen, M. 2010. Self-initiated foreign expatriates versus assigned expatriates: Two distinct types of international careers? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25: 430-448.
- Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. 1991. Toward a comprehensive model of international adjustment: An integration of multiple theoretical perspectives. *Academy of Management Review*, 16: 291-317.
- *Boies, K., & Rothstein, M. G. 2002. Managers' interest in international assignments: The role of work and career satisfaction. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 26: 233-253.
- Bolino, M. C. 2007. Expatriate assignments and intra-organizational career success: Implications for individuals and organizations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38: 819-835.
- *Bonache, J. 2005. Job satisfaction among expatriates, repatriates and domestic employees: The perceived impact of international assignments on work-related variables. *Personnel Review*, 34: 110-124.
- Bond, F. W., Flaxman, P. E., & Bunce, D. 2008. The influence of psychological flexibility on work redesign: Mediated moderation of a work reorganization intervention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93: 645-654.
- *Bozionelos, N. 2009. Expatriation outside the boundaries of the multinational corporation: A study with expatriate nurses in Saudi Arabia. *Human Resource Management*, 48: 111-134.
- *Bozkurt, Ö., & Mohr, A. T. 2011. Forms of cross-border mobility and social capital in multinational enterprises. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 21: 138-155.
- Briscoe, J. P., & Hall, D. T. 2006. Special section on boundaryless and protean careers: Next steps in conceptualizing and measuring boundaryless and protean careers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69: 1-3.
- Briscoe, J. P., Hall, D. T., & Frautschy DeMuth, R. L. 2006. Protean and boundaryless careers: An empirical exploration. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69: 30-47.
- Brookfield Global Relocation Services. 2011. *2011 Global Relocation Trends Survey*. Woodridge, IL: Brookfield Global Relocation Services.
- *Cappellen, T., & Janssens, M. 2008. Global managers' career competencies. *Career Development International*, 13: 514-537.
- *Cappellen, T., & Janssens, M. 2010. Enacting global careers: Organizational career scripts and the global economy as co-existing career referents. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31: 687-706.
- *Carr, S. C., Inkson, K., & Thorn, K. 2005. From global careers to talent flow: Reinterpreting "brain drain." *Journal of World Business*, 40: 386-398.
- *Carraher, S. M., Sullivan, S. E., & Crocitto, M. M. 2008. Mentoring across global boundaries: An empirical examination of home- and host-country mentors on expatriate career outcomes. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39: 1310-1326.
- Cerdin, J.-L., & Bird, A. 2008. Careers in a global context. In M. M. Harris (Ed.), *Handbook of research in international human resource management*: 207-227. New York: Taylor & Francis.

- *Cerdin, J.-L., & Le Pargneux, M. 2009. Career and international assignment fit: Toward an integrative model of success. *Human Resource Management*, 48: 5-25.
- Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kim, K., Farh, C. I. C., & Tangirala, S. 2010. When does cross-cultural motivation enhance expatriate effectiveness? A multilevel investigation of the moderating roles of subsidiary support and cultural distance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53: 1110-1130.
- *Chew, I. K. H., & Zhu, W. 2002. Factors influencing Singapore managers' career aspiration in international assignments. *Career Development International*, 7: 96-108.
- Chura, H. 2006. A year abroad (or 3) as a career move. *New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com/2006/02/25/business/worldbusiness/25abroad.html?pagewanted=all>
- Coupland, C. 2004. Career definition and denial: A discourse analysis of graduate trainees' accounts of career. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64: 515-532.
- *Crowley-Henry, M. 2007. The protean career: Exemplified by first world foreign residents in Western Europe? *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 37: 44-64.
- *De Cieri, H., Sheehan, C., Costa, C., Fenwick, M., & Cooper, B. K. 2009. International talent flow and intention to repatriate: An identity explanation. *Human Resource Development International*, 12: 243-261.
- DeFillippi, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. 1996. Boundaryless contexts and careers: A competency-based perspective. In M. B. Arthur & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), *The boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organizational era*: 116-131. New York: Oxford University Press.
- DeFrank, R. S., Konopaske, R., & Ivancevich, J. M. 2000. Executive travel stress: Perils of the road warrior. *Academy of Management Executive*, 14: 58-71.
- *Demel, B., & Mayerhofer, H. 2010. Frequent business travelers across Europe: Career aspirations and implications. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 52: 301-311.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. 2001. The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 499-512.
- *Dickmann, M., & Doherty, N. 2008. Exploring the career capital impact of international assignments within distinct organizational contexts. *British Journal of Management*, 19: 145-161.
- *Dickmann, M., & Doherty, N. 2010. Exploring organizational and individual career goals, interactions, and outcomes of developmental international assignments. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 52: 313-324.
- *Dickmann, M., Doherty, N., Mills, T., & 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: 731-751.
- *Dickmann, M., & Harris, H. 2005. Developing career capital for global careers: The role of international assignments. *Journal of World Business*, 40: 399-408.
- *Dickmann, M., & Mills, T. 2010. The importance of intelligent career and location considerations: Exploring the decision to go to London. *Personnel Review*, 39: 116-134.
- *Doherty, N., & Dickmann, M. 2009. Exposing the symbolic capital of international assignments. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20: 301-320.
- *Doherty, N., Dickmann, M., & Mills, T. 2011. Exploring the motives of company-backed and self-initiated expatriates. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22: 595-611.
- Dowling, P. J., Welch, D., & Schuler, R. S. 1999. *International human resource management*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.
- *Dunbar, E., & Ehrlich, M. H. 1993. Preparation of the international employee: Career and consultation needs. *Consulting Psychology Journal*, 45: 18-24.
- Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. 2003. *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- *Espino, C. M., Sundstrom, S. M., Frick, H. L., Jacobs, M., & Peters, M. 2002. International business travel: Impact on families and travelers. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 59: 309-322.
- *Fang, T., Zickic, J., & Novicevic, M. M. 2009. Career success of immigrant professionals: Stock and flow of their career capital. *International Journal of Manpower*, 30: 472-488.
- *Feldman, D. C., & Thomas, D. C. 1992. Career management issues facing expatriates. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23: 271-293.
- *Felker, J. A. 2011. Professional development through self-directed expatriation: Intentions and outcomes for young, educated Eastern Europeans. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 15: 76-86.

- *Fischlmayr, I. C., & Kollinger, I. 2010. Work–life balance—A neglected issue among Austrian female expatriates. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21: 455-487.
- *Fish, A., & Wood, J. 1997. What motivates Australian business managers to undertake expatriate appointments in east Asia? *Career Development International*, 2: 36-45.
- Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. 1991. *Social cognition* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- *Fitzgerald, C., & Howe-Walsh, L. 2008. Self-initiated expatriates: An interpretative phenomenological analysis of professional female expatriates. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 3: 156-175.
- Furst, S. A., Reeves, M., Rosen, B., & Blackburn, R. S. 2004. Managing the lifecycle of virtual teams. *Academy of Management Executive*, 18: 6-20.
- Gomez-Mejia, L., & Balkin, D. 1987. The determinants of managerial satisfaction with the expatriation and repatriation process. *Journal of Management Development*, 6: 7-17.
- Greenhaus, J. H., Callanan, G. A., & Godshalk, V. M. 2010. *Career management* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Haerem, T., & Rau, D. 2007. The influence of degree of expertise and objective task complexity on perceived task complexity and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92: 1320-1331.
- Hall, D. T. 2002. *Careers in and out of organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- *Handler, C. A., & Lane, I. M. 1997. Career planning and expatriate couples. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 7: 67-78.
- Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P. 2004. Going places: Roads more and less travelled in research on expatriate experiences. In J. J. Martocchio (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resources management*, vol. 23: 199-247. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- *Harvey, M. 1997. Dual-career expatriates: Expectations, adjustment and satisfaction with international relocation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 28: 627-658.
- *Herman, J. L., & Tetrick, L. E. 2009. Problem-focused versus emotion-focused coping strategies and repatriation adjustment. *Human Resource Management*, 48: 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: 1381-1401.
- Hoobler, J. M., Wayne, S. A., & Lemmon, G. 2009. Bosses' perceptions of family-work conflict and women's promotability: Glass ceiling effects. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52: 939-957.
- Inkson, K., Arthur, M. B., Pringle, J., & Barry, S. 1997. Expatriate assignment versus overseas experience: Contrasting models of international human resource development. *Journal of World Business*, 32: 351-368.
- *Inkson, K., & Myers, B. A. 2003. "The big OE": Self-directed travel and career development. *Career Development International*, 8: 170-181.
- *Jassawalla, A. R., & Sashittal, H. C. 2009. Thinking strategically about integrating repatriated managers in MNCs. *Human Resource Management*, 48: 769-792.
- *Jokinen, T. 2010. Development of career capital through international assignments and its transferability to new contexts. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 52: 325-336.
- *Jokinen, T., Brewster, C., & Suutari, V. 2008. Career capital during international work experiences: Contrasting self-initiated expatriate experiences and assigned expatriation. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19: 979-998.
- Judge, T. A., Cable, D. M., Boudreau, J. W., & Bretz, R. D. 1995. An empirical investigation of the predictors of executive career success. *Personnel Psychology*, 48: 485-519.
- *Kohonen, E. 2008. The impact of international assignments on expatriates' identity and career aspirations: Reflections upon re-entry. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 24: 320-329.
- *Konopaske, R., Robie, C., & Ivancevich, J. M. 2005. A preliminary model of spouse influence on managerial global assignment willingness. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16: 405-426.
- *Konopaske, R., & Werner, S. 2005. US managers' willingness to accept a global assignment: Do expatriate benefits and assignment length make a difference? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16: 1159-1175.
- *Kraimer, M. L., Shaffer, M. A., & Bolino, M. C. 2009. The influence of expatriate and repatriate experiences on career advancement and repatriate retention. *Human Resource Management*, 48: 27-47.
- *Kraimer, M. L., Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., & Ren, H. in press. No place like home? An identity strain perspective on repatriate turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*.

- *Kraimer, M. L., & Wayne, S. J. 2004. An examination of perceived organizational support as a multidimensional construct in the context of an expatriate assignment. *Journal of Management*, 30: 209-237.
- *Kreng, V. B., & Huang, M.-Y. 2009. A discussion on international assignments performance and the constructing mechanism of career success development. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20: 1487-1502.
- *Lazarova, M. B., & Cerdin, J.-L. 2007. Revisiting repatriation concerns: Organizational support versus career and contextual influences. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38: 404-429.
- Lazarova, M., Westman, M., & Shaffer, M. A. 2010. Elucidating the positive side of the work-family interface on international assignments: A model of expatriate work and family performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 35: 93-117.
- *Lee, C. H. 2005. A study of underemployment among self-initiated expatriates. *Journal of World Business*, 40: 172-187.
- Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Wise, L., & Fireman, S. 1996. An unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39: 5-36.
- *Linehan, M., & Scullion, H. 2002. Repatriation of European female corporate executive: An empirical study. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 13: 254-267.
- *Linehan, M., & Walsh, J. S. 2000. Work-family conflict and the senior female international manager. *British Journal of Management*, 11: S49-S58.
- *Linehan, M., & Walsh, J. S. 2001. Key issues in the senior female international career move: A qualitative study in a European context. *British Journal of Management*, 12: 85-95.
- Littrell, L. N., Salas, E., Hess, K. P., Paley, M., & Riedel, S. 2006. Expatriate preparation: A critical analysis of 25 years of cross-cultural training research. *Human Resource Development Review*, 5: 355-388.
- *Mäkelä, K., & Suutari, V. 2009. Global careers: A social capital paradox. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20: 992-1008.
- *Mäkelä, L., Käsälä, M., & Suutari, V. 2011. The roles of expatriates' spouses among dual career couples. *Cross Cultural Management*, 18: 185-197.
- *Mäkelä, L., & Suutari, V. 2011. Coping with work-family conflicts in the global career context. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 53: 365-375.
- Malhotra, A., Majchrzak, A., & Rosen, B. 2007. Leading virtual teams. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 21: 60-70.
- *Mathur-Helm, B. 2002. Expatriate women managers: At the crossroads of success, challenges and career goals. *Women in Management Review*, 17: 18-28.
- *Mayerhofer, H., Hartmann, L. C., & Herbert, A. 2004. Career management issues for flexpatriate international staff. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 46: 647-666.
- *Mayerhofer, H., Hartmann, L. C., Michelitsch-Riedel, G., & Kollinger, I. 2004. Flexpatriate assignments: A neglected issue in global staffing. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15: 1371-1389.
- *Mayerhofer, H., Müller, B., & Schmidt, A. 2010. Implications of flexpatriates' lifestyles on HRM practices. *Management Revue*, 21: 155-173.
- Maznevski, M., Davison, S. C., & Jonsen, K. 2006. Global virtual team dynamics and effectiveness. In G. K. Stahl & I. Björkman (Eds.), *Handbook of research in international human resource management*: 364-384. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar.
- Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., & Viswesvaran, C. 2008. Expatriate management: A review and directions for research in expatriate selection, training, and repatriation. In M. M. Harris (Ed.), *Handbook of research in international human resource management*: 183-206. New York: Taylor & Francis.
- *Myers, B., & Pringle, J. K. 2005. Self-initiated foreign experience as accelerated development: Influences of gender. *Journal of World Business*, 40: 421-431.
- *Näsholm, M. 2009. An identity construction perspective on careers of Swedish international itinerants. *Management Revue*, 20: 53-69.
- Ng, T. W. H., Eby, L. T., Sorensen, K. L., & Feldman, D. C. 2005. Predictors of objective and subjective career success. A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 58: 367-408.
- O'Hara, K. B., Beehr, T. A., & Colarelli, S. M. 1994. Organizational centrality: A third dimension of intraorganizational career movement. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 30: 198-216.
- *Osman-Gani, A. A. M., & Hyder, A. S. 2008. Repatriation readjustment of international managers: An empirical analysis of HRD interventions. *Career Development International*, 13: 456-475.

- *Pattie, M., White, M. M., & Tansky, J. 2010. The homecoming: A review of support practices for repatriates. *Career Development International*, 15: 359-377.
- Peiperl, M. A., & Jonsen, K. 2007. Global careers. In H. P. Gunz & M. A. Peiperl (Eds.), *Handbook of career studies: 350-372*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- *Peltokorpi, V., & Froese, F. J. 2009. Organizational expatriates and self-initiated expatriates: Who adjusts better to work and life in Japan? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20: 1096-1112.
- *Peltonen, T. 1998. Narrative construction of expatriate experience and career cycle: Discursive patterns in Finnish stories of international career. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9: 875-892.
- Powell, G. N., & Greenhaus, J. H. 2010. Sex, gender, and the work-to-family interface: Exploring negative and positive interdependencies. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53: 513-534.
- Pryor, R. G. L., & Bright, J. E. H. 2006. Counseling chaos: Techniques for practitioners. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 43: 2-17.
- *Ramsey, J. R., Leonel, J. N., Gomes, G. Z., & Monteiro, P. R. R. 2011. Cultural intelligence's influence on international business travelers' stress. *Cross Cultural Management*, 18: 21-37.
- Reiche, B. S. 2011. Knowledge transfer in multinationals: The role of inpatriates' boundary spanning. *Human Resource Management*, 50: 365-389.
- *Reiche, B. S., Kraimer, M. L., & Harzing, A.-W. 2011. Why do international assignees stay? An organizational embeddedness perspective. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 42: 521-544.
- *Richardson, J. 2006. Self-directed expatriation: Family matters. *Personnel Review*, 35: 469-486.
- *Richardson, J., & Mallon, M. 2005. Career interrupted? The case of the self-directed expatriate. *Journal of World Business*, 40: 409-420.
- *Richardson, J., & McKenna, S. 2002. Leaving and experiencing: Why academics expatriate and how they experience expatriation. *Career Development International*, 7: 67-78.
- Richardson, J., & McKenna, S. 2006. Exploring relationships with home and host countries: A study of self-directed expatriates. *Cross Cultural Management*, 13: 6-22.
- *Richardson, J., & Zikic, J. 2007. The darker side of an international academic career. *Career Development International*, 12: 164-186.
- *Riusala, K., & Suutari, V. 2000. Expatriation and careers: Perspectives of expatriates and spouses. *Career Development International*, 5: 81-90.
- Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Liden, R. C. 2001. A social capital theory of career success. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44: 219-237.
- *Selmer, J. 1999. Effects of coping strategies on sociocultural and psychological adjustment of Western expatriate managers in the PRC. *Journal of World Business*, 34: 41-51.
- *Selmer, J. 2000. Usage of corporate career development activities by expatriate managers and the extent of their international adjustment. *International Journal of Commerce & Management*, 10: 1-23.
- *Selmer, J. 2001. Who wants an expatriate business career? In search of the cosmopolitan manager. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 1: 173-185.
- *Selmer, J., & Luring, J. 2010. Self-initiated academic expatriates: Inherent demographics and reasons to expatriate. *European Management Review*, 7: 169-179.
- *Selmer, J., & Leung, A. S. M. 2002. Career management issues of female business expatriates. *Career Development International*, 7: 348-358.
- *Selmer, J., & Leung, A. S. M. 2003. International adjustment of female vs. male business expatriates. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14: 1117-1131.
- Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., Gregersen, H., Black, J. S., & Ferzandi, L. A. 2006. You can take it with you: Individual differences and expatriate effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91: 109-125.
- Shirom, A. 2011. Vigor as a positive affect at work: Conceptualizing vigor, its relations with related constructs, and its antecedents and consequences. *Review of General Psychology*, 15: 50-64.
- *Stahl, G. K., & Cerdin, J.-L. 2004. Global careers in French and German multinational corporations. *Journal of Management Development*, 23: 885-902.
- *Stahl, G. K., Chua, C. H., Caligiuri, P., Cerdin, J.-L., & Taniguchi, M. 2009. Predictors of turnover intentions in learning-driven and demand-driven international assignments: The role of repatriation concerns, satisfaction with company support, and perceived career advancement opportunities. *Human Resource Management*, 48: 89-109.

- *Stahl, G. K., Miller, E. L., & Tung, R. L. 2002. Toward the boundaryless career: A closer look at the expatriate career concept and the perceived implications of an international assignment. *Journal of World Business*, 37: 216-227.
- *Starr, T. L. 2009. Repatriation and short-term assignments: An exploration into expectations, change and dilemmas. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20: 286-300.
- *Starr, T. L., & 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: 1421-1438.
- Stening, B. W., & Everett, J. E. 1979. Direct and stereotype cultural differences. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 10: 203-220.
- Stroh, L. K., Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M. E., & Gregersen, H. B. 2005. *International assignments: An integration of strategy, research, and practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Sullivan, S. E. 1999. The changing nature of careers: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 25: 457-484.
- Sullivan, S. E., & Arthur, M. B. 2006. The evolution of the boundaryless career concept: Examining physical and psychological mobility. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69: 19-29.
- Sullivan, S. E., & Baruch, Y. 2009. Advances in career theory and research: A critical review and agenda for future exploration. *Journal of Management*, 35: 1542-1571.
- *Suutari, V. 2003. Global managers: Career orientation, career tracks, life-style implications and career commitment. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18: 185-207.
- Suutari, V., & Brewster, C. 2000. Making their own way: International experience through self-initiated foreign assignments. *Journal of World Business*, 35: 417-136.
- *Suutari, V., & Brewster, C. 2003. Repatriation: Empirical evidence from a longitudinal study of careers and expectations among Finnish expatriates. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14: 1132-1151.
- *Suutari, V., & Mäkelä, K. 2007. The career capital of managers with global careers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22: 628-648.
- *Suutari, V., & Taka, M. 2004. Career anchors of managers with global careers. *Journal of Management Development*, 23: 833-847.
- Swider, B. W., & Zimmerman, R. D. 2010. Born to burnout: A meta-analytic path model of personality, job burnout, and work outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76: 487-506.
- *Tahvanainen, M., Welch, D., & Worm, V. 2005. Implications of short-term international assignments. *European Management Journal*, 23: 663-673.
- Takeuchi, R. 2010. A critical review of expatriate adjustment research through a multiple stakeholder view: Progress, emerging trends, and prospects. *Journal of Management*, 36: 1040-1064.
- Tepper, B. J., Moss, S. E., & Duffy, M. K. 2011. Predictors of abusive supervision: Supervisor perceptions of deep-level dissimilarity, relationship conflict, and subordinate performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54: 279-294.
- Tesluk, P. E., & Jacobs, R. R. 1998. Toward an integrated model of work experience. *Personnel Psychology*, 51: 321-355.
- *Tharenou, P. 2003. The initial development of receptivity to working abroad: Self-initiated international work opportunities in young graduate employees. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 76: 489-515.
- *Tharenou, P. 2005. International work in domestic jobs: An individual explanation. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16: 475-496.
- *Tharenou, P. 2008. Disruptive decisions to leave home: Gender and family differences in expatriation choices. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 105: 183-200.
- Tharenou, P. 2010. Women's self-initiated expatriation as a career option and its ethical issues. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 95: 73-88.
- *Tharenou, P., & Caulfield, N. 2010. Will I stay or will I go? Explaining repatriation by self-initiated expatriates. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53: 1009-1028.
- Thomas, D. C., & Lazarova, M. B. 2006. Expatriate adjustment and performance: A critical review. In G. K. Stahl & I. Björkman (Eds.), *Handbook of research in international human resource management*: 247-264. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar.

- Thomas, D. C., Lazarova, M. B., & Inkson, K. 2005. Global careers: New phenomenon or new perspectives? *Journal of World Business*, 40: 340-347.
- *Thorn, K. 2009. The relative importance of motives for international self-initiated mobility. *Career Development International*, 14: 441-464.
- *Traavik, L. E. M., & Richardson, A. M. 2010. Career success for international professional women in the land of the equal? Evidence from Norway. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21: 2798-2812.
- *Tung, R. L. 1998. American expatriates abroad: From neophytes to cosmopolitans. *Journal of World Business*, 33: 125-144.
- *Vance, C. M. 2005. The personal quest for building global competence: A taxonomy of self-initiating career path strategies for gaining business experience abroad. *Journal of World Business*, 40: 374-385.
- *Vance, C. M., & Paik, Y. 2001. Where do American women face their biggest obstacle to expatriate career success? Back in their own backyard. *Cross Cultural Management*, 8: 98-116.
- *van der Heijden, J. A. V., van Engen, M. L., & Paauwe, J. 2009. Expatriate career support: Predicting expatriate turnover and performance. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20: 831-845.
- *Warneke, D., & Schneider, M. 2011. Expatriate compensation packages: What do employees prefer? *Cross Cultural Management*, 18: 236-256.
- Wayne, S. J., Liden, R. C., Graf, I. K., & Ferris, G. R. 1997. The role of upward influence tactics in human resource decisions. *Personnel Psychology*, 50: 979-1006.
- *Welch, D. E., Welch, L. S., & Worm, V. 2007. The international business traveller: A neglected but strategic human resource. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18: 173-183.
- *Westman, M. 2004. Strategies for coping with business trips: A qualitative exploratory study. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 11: 167-176.
- *Westman, M., & Etzion, D. 2002. The impact of short overseas business trips on job stress and burnout. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 51: 582-592.
- *Westman, M., Etzion, D., & Chen, S. 2009. Crossover of positive experiences from business travelers to their spouses. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24: 269-284.
- *Westman, M., Etzion, D., & Gattenio, E. 2008. International business travels and the work-family interface: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 81: 459-480.
- *Wong, M. M. L. 2001. Internationalizing Japanese expatriate managers: Organizational learning through international assignment. *Management Learning*, 32: 237-251.
- *Zikic, J., Bonache, J., & Cerdin, J.-L. 2010. Crossing national boundaries: A typology of qualified immigrants' career orientations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31: 667-686.