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WORKING IN DANGEROUS CONTEXTS: ADVANCING THE CONCEPTUAL AND EMPIRICAL APPROACH TO WORK IN HOSTILE ENVIRONMENTS

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is based on my own original work except for quotations and citations which I have duly acknowledged. I also declare that this thesis has not been previously or concurrently submitted, either in whole or in part, for any other qualification at the University of Stirling or other institutions. I am responsible for any errors and omissions present in the thesis.

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Abstract

Recent international political and economic developments have led to an increased number of expatriates being assigned to environments characterised as hostile. While expatriation itself already has a long-standing reputation of being a stressful event, the still very limited literature on expatriation in hostile environments (HEs) shows consensus that assignments in hostile regions pose additional stressors that go beyond the need to adjust to a new culture, leading to increased stress for the individual. Increased stress is a phenomenon that is often associated with severe health outcomes such as burnout – a topic that is also relatively new on the expatriate research agenda.

This thesis discusses whether expatriates working in hostile, arguably highly stressful, environments are particularly at risk for the development of burnout. It further aims to identify context-relevant factors potentially responsible for the development of burnout and conversely work engagement as its conceptual opposite. Insights are based on a systematic literature review and two empirical studies applying the Job Demands-Resource (JD-R) model (Demerouti et al., 2001) to expatriation in HEs. In-depth interviews with 42 expatriates assigned to HEs, revealed a set of general and HE-specific job and personal demands and resources that form the basis of a context-specific application of the JD-R model for HEs. The proposed model was tested in the subsequent quantitative study, drawing on survey data from 178 expatriates assigned to HEs.

Findings imply that particularly high workload, work-life conflicts, cultural novelty, perceived organisational support, job satisfaction and support networks are critical predictors of work related outcomes. Results also suggest that the fear of crime or victimisation seems to be absent, and that expatriates are challenged by and seek support from similar sources as their counterparts in low-risk countries. The studies contribute to the young debate on hostile environments and global mobility, as well as disclosing interesting avenues for future research. This thesis also offers valuable insights for international HR-practitioners discussing HE assignment policies and practices, as well as stress management interventions.

Dissemination

Preliminary results from the current thesis and related research projects were presented as papers in the competitive stream in the following international conferences and accepted for publication or currently under review in the following peer-reviewed journals and books.

Conference/ journal	Paper title
Scottish Graduate School for Social Science **Business and Management PhD Colloquium 2017** **"Doing excellent social science", University of St Andrews, UK, March 2017**	Poster presentation "Expatriate management in risky environments"
17th European Academy of Management (EURAM) Conference, Glasgow, UK, June 2017	"Terror, Crime and Expatriates' Fears: Insights from Africa."
77th Academy of Management (AoM) Conference , Atlanta, USA, August 2017	"How do you fear? Examining expatriates' perception of danger and its consequences."
Journal of Global Mobility: The Home of Expatriate Management Research	"How do you fear? Examining expatriates' perception of danger and its consequences." **JGM Emerald Highly Commended Paper Award 2018**
18th European Academy of Management (EURAM) Conference, Reykjavik, Iceland, June 2018	"Working in the presence of danger: a systematic review of expatriate management in hostile environments."
32nd British Academy of Management (BAM) Conference, Bristol, UK, September 2018; accepted for presentation	"Expatriates and hostile work environments: Towards a synthesis."
Journal of Global Mobility: The Home of Expatriate Management Research	"Expatriate management in hostile environments from a multi-stakeholder perspective – a systematic review."
External Guest Speaker for the HRMWE Research Community Seminar Series on behalf of Steve Vincent and Benjamin Bader, Newcastle University, UK, May 2019	"Where the danger lies: Investigating expatriate wellbeing in hostile environments."

45th European International Business Academy (EIBA) Conference, Leeds, UK, December 2019	"Hostile environments and expatriation: Contextualising demands and resources."
International Journal of Human Resource Management (currently under review)	"Where the danger lies: Contextualising demands and resources for expatriates in hostile environments."
19th European Academy of Management (EURAM) Conference, Lisbon, Portugal, June 2019	"Is it worth the adventure? Sorrows of expatriates in hostile environments – a qualitative study."
ZfP - German Journal of Research in Human Resource Management (currently under review)	"Is it worth the adventure? Sorrows of expatriates in hostile environments – a qualitative study."
Research Handbook of Global Families: Perspectives for Expatriation and Migration *Editors: McNulty, Y.; Collins, H.; Mutter, J.* (invitation to submit a chapter)	"Culprit or outsider? Expatriates, family and hostile environments: Overview and research directions."
Symposium submission to the 16th International Human Resource Management (IHRM) Conference, Paris, June 2020 together with: M. Lazarova; H. De Cieri; B. Bader; T. Schuster; A.K. Bader; O. Wurtz; M. Dimitrova; H. Ren; D.G. Yunlu; M. Shaffer; K.M. Fodchuck; T. Pettit; G. Caillard	"Exploring employee health and safety in multinational settings:" "Where the danger lies: Investigating expatriate well-being in hostile environments – a mixed-method study."

Overview of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Appendices

List of Abbreviations

AE	Assigned expatriate
CN	Cultural novelty
CoR	Conservation of resource
HC	Host country
HCN	Host country national
HE	Hostile environment
HQ	Headquarters
HR(M)	Human resource (management)
ICA	Internal career advancement
JD-R	Job demands - resources
JS	Job satisfaction
LCS	Leisure coping strategies
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MNC	Multinational corporation
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NWC	Non-work constraints
POS	Perceived organisational support
RnR	Rest and recuperation
SI	Special issue
SIE	Self-initiated expatriate

SN	Support network
SD	Standard deviation
TCN	Third country national
WC	Work constraints
WL	Workload
WLC	Work-life conflicts

1. Introduction

This chapter sets the scene, providing justification for the studies conducted within this thesis. It does so by discussing the context and research problem and outlining the relevance of the problem from a theoretical and practical perspective. The chapter finishes with the research aims and objectives as well as the overview of the thesis structure.

1.1 Context and research problem

In 2017, the number of expatriates across the world has reached a record high with a total of 66.2 million expatriates and this trend is expected to continue with estimates of 87.5 million expatriates by 2021 (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2016; Finaccord, 2018). Increasingly, organisations assign staff to hardship locations or hostile environments (HEs), as the Western market is stagnating, and growth opportunities are predominantly found in emerging markets. Globalisation is pushing organisations to make their workforce more mobile, with expatriate managers (see chapter 2.1.1 and 3.4.1 for the definition) needed to oversee and manage the operations abroad (Bader, 2015; Claus, 2011). Despite great business opportunities, a lot of emerging economies are characterised by violent and unstable country conditions (Hounta and Lehmann, 2015; Schulz and Camp, 2018). Dealing with increased risk and its consequences of terrorism and other forms of violence has become the "new reality" for many organisations (AXA's World of Work Report, 2017; Fee and McGrath-Champ, 2017). Increasingly, international companies and their staff are being targeted for attacks, creating huge challenges for personal safety and wellbeing and a great barrier to corporate success (Czincota et al., 2010; AXA's World of Work Report, 2017).

Terrorism and the experience of crime and violence have shown to be serious stressors for individuals exposed to these phenomena and are further associated with consequences. These include reduced wellbeing and severe health conditions such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and depression (Baca et al., 2005; Galea et al.,

2002). Experiencing a traumatic event or exposure to violence in the private life can further spill over to other areas of life, such as the work domain. Research carried out after the 9/11 terrorist attacks suggests that the exposure to terrorist attacks had a negative impact on employees' wellbeing and the relationship to their job. A decline in work concentration (Mainiero and Gibson, 2003), work motivation (Howie, 2007), work productivity (Alexander, 2004) and job satisfaction (Alexander, 2004; Howie, 2007; Mainiero and Gibson, 2003) were common observations for employees who were working in New York when the 9/11 incident took place. But also, more recent studies confirm a negative effect for the overall work environment (Birkeland et al., 2017) with, for instance, a decline in the engagement of organisational networking (Kastenmüller et al., 2011).

While most studies have been carried out after singular attacks, there is further evidence on the severe impact of chronic terrorism or crime in countries such as Sri Lanka, Israel, Pakistan and Mexico. In her study, Reade (2009) detected a negative relationship between employee sensitivity to terrorism and employee attitudes toward the organisation, team, and the job itself, with terrorism-sensitive employees showing less organisational commitment, greater frustration with the organisation, and lower trust in the management, further leading to general tensions among the workforce (Lee and Reade, 2015). Anxiety, fear and stress experienced in such working contexts also resulted in absenteeism, high turnover, decrease in concentration and productivity (Ramirez et al., 2016), job burnout (Toker et al., 2015), and lower job performance (De Clercq et al., 2017).

However, most research has been carried out in the domestic work context (Beutell et al., 2017). Far less is known about the consequences of the hostility of international work settings, where employees are additionally confronted with a liability of foreignness, often reflected in the need of adjusting to their new (working) environments. Expatriation per se is considered to be a stressful event with many expatriates reported to return from abroad prematurely, perform poorly, or leave the company after the assignment (Black et al., 1991; Harrison et al., 2004; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998; Takeuchi et al., 2005). In HEs (see chapter 2.2.1 and 3.4.1 for the definition), the expatriates' stress levels are expected to be even higher due to increased threat, lower working and living standards, and potential exposure to trauma and human suffering (Bader et al., 2016; Cardozo et al.,

2005; Eriksson et al., 2009; Musa and Hamid, 2008). In fact, prior work on expatriate management in HEs has shown that such stressors can lead to negative work-related outcomes such as declining job performance (Bader and Berg, 2013) and withdrawal cognitions (Bader et al., 2016). While such outcomes usually constitute undesirable consequences for the organisation, they also induce negative effects on expatriate wellbeing (Faeth and Kittler, 2017; McNulty and De Cieri, 2011; Reade and Lee, 2012).

Increased stress is a phenomenon that is often associated with severe health outcomes such as burnout (Cherniss, 1980; Schaufeli and Buunk, 2003). Does this mean that expatriates working in HEs, which is argued to be highly stressful, are particularly at risk? And what are the context-relevant factors that can contribute to expatriate burnout? The thesis aims to address these questions by applying the Job Demands- Resources (JD-R) model to expatriation in HEs. Despite its practical relevance, the issue of expatriation burnout has so far found little attention in the expatriate literature (Eriksson et al., 2009; Silbiger et al., 2017). Further, most expatriation research has focused on negative work-related outcomes, largely ignoring the factors that facilitate successful expatriation (Lämsä et al., 2017). Thus, the thesis does not only intend to investigate the potential contributors of burnout but also of work engagement, which is argued to be the conceptual opposite of burnout (Maslach and Leiter, 1997; see also chapter 2.1.3.2 and 3.5.2).

Originating in Europe, the JD-R model has received increasing attention over the past decade and has been demonstrated as a valuable framework for identifying various work-related outcomes (Bakker et al., 2010b). While it has found empirical support in a variety of domestic studies of different countries, little effort has been made to apply the model to the international context (Rattrie and Kittler, 2014). Another aspect that has received little attention so far, is the role of personal demands. While personal resources have previously been incorporated in the model, the potential influence of personal demands has not yet been investigated in great depth (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). In the expatriate context, where the work and private domains are often strongly intertwined (Shortland, 2016), the researcher expects personal resources but also demands to play an influential role for the wellbeing of the expatriate (see also Shaffer et al., 2012).

The thesis intends to address the outlined gaps in the literature and to make the following contributions. First and foremost, it adds valuable insights to the important, still in its infancy, discussion on expatriate burnout and expatriation in HEs by identifying context-relevant demands and resources, potentially responsible for negative and positive work-related outcomes. It is also a direct response to a recently published special issue (SI) shedding light on the "dark side of expatriation" (Bader et al., 2019a). In doing so, it shifts the attention away from outcomes mostly relevant for the assigning organisation to more individual-focused outcomes concerning the expatriate's wellbeing. It further makes some theoretical contributions by the investigation of work in HEs through a rather novel theoretical lens (Faeth and Kittler, 2020). Extensions of the JD-R model are made not only by applying the established framework in a new context but also by incorporating the most recent amendments of personal resources and demands.

1.2 Relevance of the problem

Chapter 1.1 highlighted the increasing number of assignments to HE and the issues associated with it. It also identified a gap in the literature, namely the investigation of burnout among expatriates being assigned to highly stressful and hostile countries. The following chapters will outline the need for future research by focusing on the topic's practical and theoretical relevance.

1.2.1 Practical relevance

The Labour Force Survey published by the Health and Safety Executive (2019) estimates that about 602,000 employees in the UK suffer from work-related stress, depression or anxiety, resulting in 12.8 million lost working days each year. An employee survey in the US reports that 77% of the polled professionals have experienced burnout at their current job as a result of increased stress due to a lack of support or recognition, unmanageable deadlines and expectations, and long working hours (Deloitte, 2018). Individuals experiencing symptoms of burnout often endure increased fatigue, reduced

cognitive functioning and interpersonal abilities, as well as low self-efficacy and negative work attitudes that therefore make them more likely to be absent from work (Demerouti et al., 2003; Maslach et al., 2001). In contrast, employees who are found to be engaged at work often possess a positive attitude and higher willingness to invest effort into the job (Bakker et al., 2011) and thus contribute to key organisational outcomes such as creativity, innovation and client satisfaction (Bakker, 2017). Therefore, there is a growing recognition that employee health and wellbeing is strongly associated to the financial situation of organisations (Bakker, 2017; Goetzel et al., 1998, 2001). This makes a focus on the prevention of burnout and stimulation of work engagement essential for optimal employee functioning and the organisation's financial success.

Given the fact that burnout and other stress-related issues seem to be a common problem in domestic contexts, it seems likely that expatriates are just as prone to this. Indeed, expatriation is considered to be a stressful experience and many expatriates are reported to perform poorly or return from the assignment prematurely (Black et al., 1991; Harrison et al., 2004; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998; Takeuchi et al., 2005). While an accurate and up-to-date number of expatriate failure rates (premature return) is hard to establish and the origins of statistics are often ambiguous (Brewster, 1991; Harzing, 2016), older sources estimate that failure rates are between 25% and 40% in developed countries and jump up to 70% for assignments in underdeveloped regions (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Tung, 1981). As a result of this, the Forum for Expatriate Management evaluated the direct costs of failed assignments to be between $ 250,000 to $ 1 million (Burgess, 2016), whereas Tungli and Peiperl (2009) propose a slightly lower number and rate an average cost of $ 198,000 per expatriate. However, failure should not only be measured in terms of premature return as failed assignments can also mean decreased expatriate performance or deter other colleagues from taking on an assignment, "shrinking the talent pool even further" (Harzing, 1995, p. 458).

This appears particularly alarming for assignments in HEs, where local skills are limited and expatriates are confronted with stressors that go beyond adjusting to a new culture (potentially increasing the risk of stress and burnout) and potential expatriates seem to refuse relocations in countries they perceived as hostile (Bhanugopan and Fish, 2006; Wagner and Westaby, 2009; Wang and Bu, 2004). Taking further into account that expatriation is a costly endeavour (Nowak and Linder, 2016), especially when operations

do not run as planned, and the securing of the employee's health and safety is the employer's moral and legal obligation from a duty of care perspective (Claus, 2009, 2011), more research is needed to identify the factors that could contribute to expatriate failure in HEs, which in this thesis is understood as expatriate burnout. Additionally, the number of high-risk countries across the world is increasing with terrorism becoming an issue in previously low-risk countries (Paulus and Muehfeld, 2017; Suder and Czinkota, 2005). Thus, effectively managing risk in regard to expatriation but also local staff, will affect more businesses in future (Posthuma et al., 2017). A better understanding of the environmental and personal risks such assignments can have could contribute to both organisational and personal planning and preparation (Silbiger and Pines, 2014).

1.2.2 Theoretical relevance

The JD-R model has been considered a valuable framework for organising and managing the antecedents to burnout and work engagement and is one of the most widely cited theoretical models of work engagement (Albrecht et al., 2015). As a result, it has not only inspired hundreds of studies but has also been successfully applied by and to a large number of organisations to inform HR practices and policies as well as to stimulate stress management interventions (Bakker, 2017; Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). While many lessons can be learned from the model's successful applications in domestic working contexts, the job design theory suggests that each work context is subject to unique characteristics and processes, which influence an employee's expectations and accomplishments at work (Grant and Parker, 2009). Thus, it seems necessary to test the model's relevance for international and hostile work settings. While the model has slowly found its way into the global mobility literature (see chapter 2.3.5), no study has tested a set of demands and resources to predict burnout and work engagement among internationally working employees. This will be of benefit for the JD-R theory as new insights and hypotheses can help to guarantee the validity of the model (Bakker, 2017). For instance, the incorporation of personal demands, which is a rather novel extension of the traditional model, might be particularly relevant for expatriates but not necessarily for domestic employees (Shaffer et al., 2012).

Further, most research carried out concerning the management of expatriates in HEs does so by applying a stress-strain perspective, with the majority of studies explaining findings with the cognitive appraisal theory by Lazarus and Folkman (1986) (see chapter 2.2.5). While applying the stress-strain perspective has provided some great evidence on the challenges experienced, it has also mostly focused on negative work-related outcomes such as country leave intentions and declined performance. One of the strengths of the JD-R model is that it considers both negative and positive outcomes (see chapter 2.3.2). By also focusing on the factors that can contribute to work engagement, a more holistic view of expatriation in HEs is provided. Thus, the theoretical relevance is twofold, as the thesis does not only advance the knowledge on the JD-R model by applying and expanding it in a novel context but also by investigating expatriation in HEs through a new theoretical lens.

1.3 Research questions, aims and objectives

The previous sections outlined a distinct gap in the global mobility literature with a high practical and theoretical relevance. This gap highlights the lack of the application of the JD-R model in international/hostile contexts and the investigation of burnout and work engagement among expatriates assigned to HEs. The JD-R model therefore helps define these important questions:

1. Are expatriates working in a HE, which is argued to be highly stressful, particularly at risk for the development of burnout?

2. What are the context-relevant factors that can contribute to expatriate burnout and what factors can prevent this, ideally leading to work engagement?

To address these questions, the overall objective of the thesis is to apply the JD-R model to expatriates working in HEs. This is achieved by providing a narrative literature review on the challenges of expatriation in general and the issue of expatriate burnout, as well as introducing the theoretical framework and its applications in international work

settings. In addition, one review study and two empirical studies were conducted. The aims and objectives of each study are highlighted below.

The systematic literature review aims to provide an overview of the extant literature carried out in the research context of the thesis. More specifically, the systematic literature review aims to:

- Capture the scholarly debates and findings as well as the theoretical perspectives of expatriation in HEs

- Identify all relevant stakeholders involved in the assignment process and describe how these can affect or be affected by the assignment

- Structure the disparate literature in a logical manner to point out directions for future research

Building on the findings of the systematic literature review, which confirms the absence of the application of the JD-R framework and the investigation of burnout and work engagement in HEs, a qualitative study is conducted to:

- Identify context-relevant job and personal demands and resources as potential predictors of burnout and work engagement

- Make theoretical extensions to the existing JD-R model

Using the findings of the qualitative study as a foundation, a quantitative study is conducted to statistically test the assumptions of the proposed model. The research objectives are to:

- Identify the demands and resources responsible for the development of burnout and work engagement

- Investigate a potential moderating effect of the proposed demands and resources

1.4 Thesis structure and development

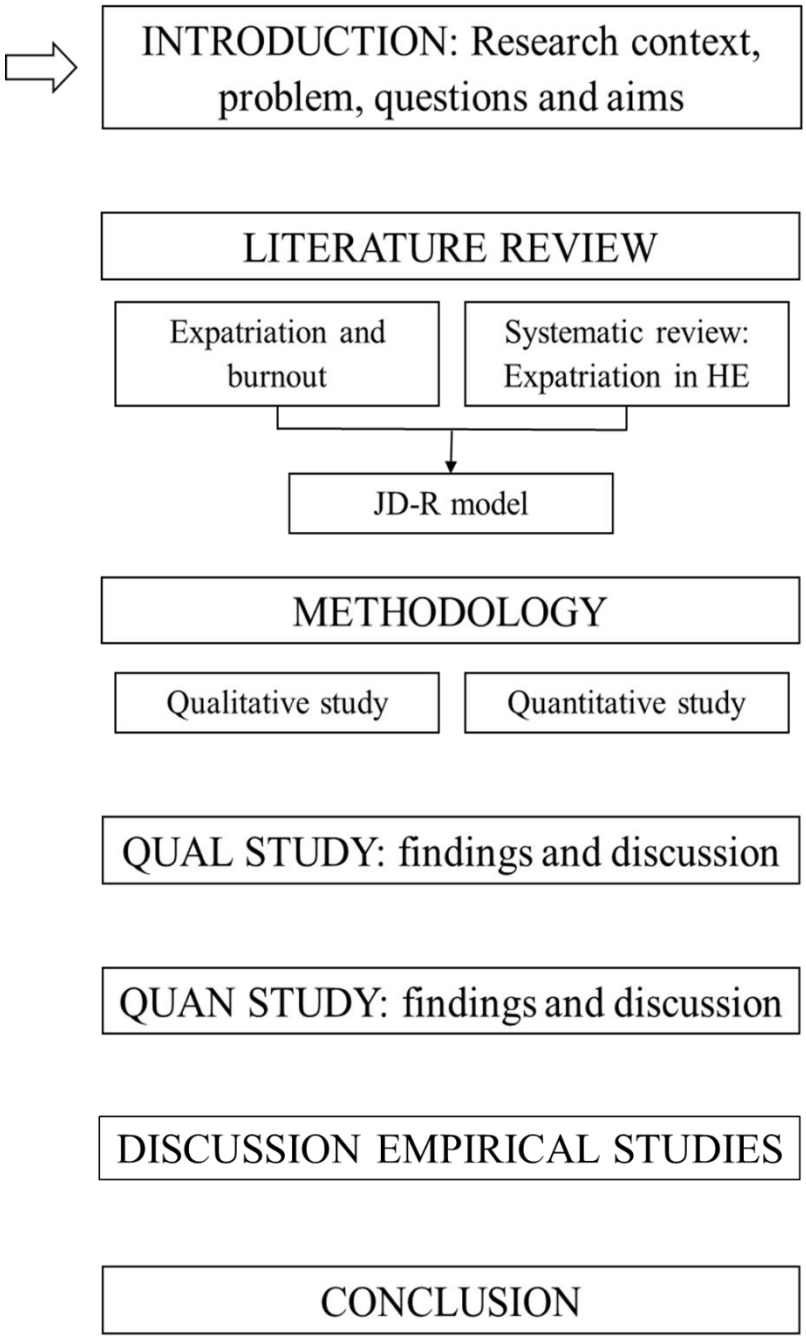
The thesis is structured across seven chapters. Following on from chapter one, the introduction, chapter two presents a comprehensive literature review broaching all the relevant issues concerning expatriation and the studies' theoretical framework. This chapter starts by outlining the stressors and associated outcomes in traditional expatriation and then focuses on the specific problem of expatriate burnout. In this context, the definitions of burnout and work engagement are provided. The literature review then continues with a systematic review of studies investigating the management of expatriates in HEs, the research context of this study. Definitions for HEs and the term expatriate are presented. The final section of the literature review introduces the theoretical framework of the thesis and provides evidence for the model's suitability to fulfil the aims of the present studies. Chapter three provides details of the methodological approaches taken for the two empirical studies. This chapter also encompasses philosophical and ethical considerations. Chapter four presents and discusses the findings of the qualitative study investigating context-relevant demands and resources, finishing with a JD-R model for expatriation in HEs. Chapter five details the results and discussion of the quantitative study conducted to test the proposed model. Findings of both empirical studies are discussed and related back to the literature jointly in chapter six. Chapter seven concludes the thesis and features an overall discussion on the thesis' findings, contributions and limitations as well as highlighting implications for future research and management.

The initial plan of the author was to write three separate research papers and obtain the PhD via publication to be able to receive early and ongoing feedback from peer academics in the field and to publish research outputs before the award of the PhD. As such, the systematic literature review represents the first paper (which was accepted in the *Journal of Global Mobility*; see Faeth and Kittler, 2020), the qualitative study the second paper (currently under review in the *International Journal of Human Resource Management*), and the quantitative study the third paper (to be presented as part of a symposium at the *International Human Resource Management Conference*). As can be seen under 'Dissemination' (p. vi), pursuing this route has been very successful for the author as she was able to establish a network of leading researchers in the field, to publish

two papers, and to present at numerous prestigious conferences such as the *European Academy of Management* and *Academy of Management*.

However, due to a change of supervision and upon the advice of the author's new supervisor, the author decided in the final months of the PhD to submit a traditional thesis instead to comply with the preferences and usual procedures of the University of Stirling. These changes at some points affect the structural flow of the argument, leading to some structural limitations (see chapter 7.2). For instance, chapter two now consists of a systematic and narrative literature review, not only reporting and discussing the findings of the first research paper (Faeth and Kittler, 2020), but also introducing important definitions, concepts, and the theoretical framework. The contents of the narrative literature review would normally not be combined but would instead appear in the introduction and literature review of the respective papers and would not be discussed in such great depth. However, for the thesis this was deemed necessary to provide readers, especially those not familiar with expatriate research, with a comprehensive understanding of the research context needed to follow the arguments and be able to interpret the findings. The 'last minute' restructuring of the document also becomes evident in the separate findings and discussion chapters of the qualitative and quantitative study (see chapter 4 and chapter 5). Whereas in the quantitative research paper the resulting hypotheses are derived from the literature review including the qualitative study's findings, in this thesis, the author avoids developing propositions at the end of chapter 4, but rather abruptly introduces the hypotheses early in the chapter of the quantitative study (see chapter 5.1). This structural unevenness was seen necessary, not to interfere with the research assumptions, common language and terminologies used in qualitative and quantitative research (e.g. proposition vs. hypothesis). To aid the interrelation of both studies and to provide a stronger connection to the relevant literature review, chapter six presents a joint discussion of the two empirical studies.

Figure 1.1: Thesis structure



2. Literature Review

This chapter summarises and discusses the relevant literature on the stress of expatriation in general, the context-relevant stressors of a HE, and the study's theoretical framework – the JD-R model. The chapter contains a narrative and systematic literature review (see chapter 1.4) for explanations, with the latter one building the centre piece of the literature review. The systematic review was developed initially to not only demonstrate the need for future research in the context of expatriation in HEs but also to provide the basis and justifications for the research questions introduced in chapter 1.3. The narrative review was developed in retrospect to provide crucial definitions and concepts that would have not fitted within the systematic review but are essential to enhance the reader's understanding of the research context.

To give a brief introduction to expatriate management research and the common issues discussed, chapter 2.1 starts by defining the term expatriate and then briefly discusses expatriate adjustment, a phenomenon that is often associated with expatriation stress. This was considered important to provide the scholarly evidence for the claim made in the abstract and introduction that expatriation per se is a stressful experience. The chapter then continues by providing key definitions of subjective wellbeing, burnout and work engagement to make the reader familiar with terminology used within the thesis. The chapter finishes by summarising studies of the, so far, neglected problem of expatriate burnout, which again serves to demonstrate the need for future research.

Chapter 2.2 reports a systematic literature review which was developed to systematically present all relevant studies in the context of expatriate management in HEs. It begins with the definition of the research context, HEs, which intends to aid the tractability of the selection criteria of host countries outlined in chapters 3.4.1 and 3.5.1. The subchapter then continues by presenting and discussing the findings of the articles included in the review by applying a multi-stakeholder perspective. The findings are additionally summarised in a comprehensive model. The resulting recommendations for future research are then directly linked to the JD-R model which is introduced in chapter 2.3. It does so by outlining the model's propositions, advantages and unresolved issues, extensions made, and scholarly evidence for its ability to predict work-related outcomes. It also provides a brief overview of all expatriate studies that have used the JD-R model until date and elaborates on the suitability of the JD-R model for the present study. The

literature review finishes by summarising the key issues identified and how those are addressed in the following empirical studies.

2.1 Expatriation, stress and work-related wellbeing

Expatriation is considered to be a stressful experience as it is characterised by a lot of uncertainties (Church, 1982; Torbjörn, 1982). Entering an unfamiliar environment in which the new work role and responsibilities are ambiguous, the culture and language spoken are different, and initially no support network exists, creates stress and it is argued that the success of the assignment will depend on how well the expatriate and their family cope with the new situation (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985). Evidence suggests that, by far, not all individuals successfully cope, and scholars have found that it is not uncommon for expatriates to return prematurely or to perform poorly, creating serious costs for the assigning organisation but also the wellbeing of the assignee (Black, 1988; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998). The expatriate literature assumes that stress and assignment failure is a result from maladjustment and much research has been carried to identify the antecedents and outcomes of adjustment (Caligiuri, 1997; Shaffer et al., 1999).

2.1.1 The definition of expatriate

There are various understandings of the term expatriate, and precise boundaries are difficult to establish (see Andresen and Biemann, 2013; Cerdin and Selmer, 2014; Shaffer et al., 2012). Not contesting other approaches to define expatriates, this review applies McNulty and Brewster's (2017) understanding of a 'business expatriate' based on a set of decisive criteria for international staff to be included in their definition. Firstly, the emphasis should be on business employment, with the relocation motivation being job- or career-driven. Thus, to be considered a business expatriate, the individual needs to be organisationally employed. This allows the inclusion of assigned expatriates (AEs) as well as self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) (see Suutari and Brewster, 2000), but excludes those individuals who are travelling for an overseas experience and are employed casually. The second inclusion criterion is the intended time to stay abroad. According

to this criterion, a business expatriate must not have the intention to settle abroad permanently. However, this definition still covers professionals who spent the majority of their career abroad such as “glopatriates” or “propatriots” (McPhail et al., 2012). Additionally, individuals are not supposed to be native to the country they are assigned to. While an expatriate could be considered a migrant, which is defined as any person who changes their country of usual residence, not every migrant is an expatriate and the criterion of executing legal work abroad must be fulfilled (Andresen et al., 2014).

2.1.2 The stress of expatriate adjustment

Adjustment has been understood traditionally as overcoming ‘culture shock’ (Oberg, 1960), but newer definitions are not phrased as negatively and describe adjustment as the “degree of a person’s psychological comfort with various aspects of the new setting” (Black and Gregersen, 1991, p. 498), the “general satisfaction with one’s life in the new environment” (Hippler, 2000, p. 492), or the “fit between the expatriate manager and the new environment, both work and sociocultural” (Aycan, 1997, p. 434). Whereas human interactions in cross-cultural settings has been of scholarly interest for some time, Thomas and Lazarova (2006) assert that the initial interest in studying overseas adjustment was triggered by the advent of the Peace Corps in the US in 1961. The authors argue that this was the first time human resources were actively managed in a foreign location and in a non-military setting, and social scientists were investigating how cross-cultural effectiveness could be achieved among Peace Corps members. Since then, adjustment has been seen as necessary for the assignment’s success, building the basis for selection and training procedures.

The comprehensive model of adjustment by Black and colleagues has prevailed as the most widely applied framework in expatriate research (Thomas and Lazarova, 2006). Their model proposes three facets of adjustment: general adjustment, work adjustment and interaction adjustment (Black, 1988). General adjustment describes the degree of comfort in regard to the new living conditions and refers to the satisfaction with local amenities such as the climate, food, or health facilities. Work adjustment is concerned with the acclimatisation on the job and specific job responsibilities and expectations.

Interaction adjustment refers to the extent and the frequency the expatriate enjoys interacting with host country nationals (HCNs) (Black et al., 1991; Black and Gregersen, 1991).

Until today, two meta-analyses have been carried out which summarise studies that applied the aforementioned adjustment model and identified critical antecedents and outcomes of adjustment. While they show many similarities, they differ in the number of included studies, with Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) including a larger number of studies (n=42 vs n=66), and the way they categorise the antecedent variables (Takeuchi, 2010). While Hechanona et al. (2003) organise the findings of antecedents into the four categories individual, work-related, environmental, and family-related, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) have five categories: anticipatory (e.g. general skills and experiences), individual, job, organisation, and non-work. However, to report findings of both meta-analyses simultaneously, the three facets of adjustment are used as a categorisation scheme.

In both studies, self-efficacy (the belief in one's competencies), frequency of interaction with HCNs, relational skills (tools and techniques that facilitate the formation of interpersonal ties), and spouse/family adjustment were associated with at least two of the three adjustment facets. In terms of general adjustment, Hechanova et al. (2003) identified a weak relationship with cross-cultural training, and a strong relationship with language skills. In contrast, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) found language skills to facilitate adjustment on all three levels. According to Hechanova et al. (2003), interaction adjustment was hindered by cultural novelty and role ambiguity and eased by role discretion and longer time spend on the assignment, with female expatriates showing better interaction adjustment in general. However, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) found cultural novelty to be negatively associated with all adjustment facets and further identified previous international experience and logistical support as important antecedents of interaction adjustment, with the latter one also facilitating general adjustment. Finally, work adjustment was best achieved through role discretion, frequent interaction with co-nationals and jeopardised through role ambiguity and role conflict (Hechanova et al., 2003). Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) further found, again, previous international experience, role clarity, and co-worker support to aid work adjustment. Additional associations between outcome expectancy, months spent on assignment, job

level and work adjustment were detected (Hechanova et al., 2003). To name a few, single studies have shown that perceived organisational support (POS) (Kraimer et al., 2001), language difficulty (Selmer and Lauring, 2015), and social support (Caligiuri, 2000a) impact adjustment. The most common outcomes that have been linked to failed adjustment are low performance, turnover intentions, and job strain, whereas successful adjustment has shown to lead to organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Guzzo et al., 1994; Hechanova et al., 2003; Kraimer et al., 2001; Tung, 1988).

Despite its popularity, the model has been criticised in the literature for its limited theoretical clarity on the construct definition and the attendant instrumentation (Hippler et al., 2014; Thomas and Lazarova, 2006). While it is not the intention of this literature review to elaborate on this discussion and present alternative constructs, one framework seems worth mentioning as it shows similarities to the logic of the JD-R model. The 3D model of expatriate adjustment (see Haslberger et al., 2013; Hippler et al., 2017) conceives adjustment as a person-environment correspondence and how well the characteristics of the person and the properties of the environment fit. The authors distinguish between two different types of fit: the needs-supplies fit, which refers to the degree to which the expatriate's needs can be satisfied by the resources available in the environment, and the demands-ability fit, which addresses the expatriate's ability to meet the demands posed by the environment (Hippler et al., 2017).

The authors further assert that adjustment takes place on three different dimensions: cognitive, affective and behavioural. The cognitive dimension reflects the expatriate's knowledge and understanding of the environment, whereas the affective dimension refers to all the emotions the expatriate may feel. The behavioural dimension is characterised by all physical actions of the expatriate (Haslberger and Brewster, 2007). Adjustment also takes place across different domains to which the expatriate needs to adjust. These are, for example, the political and governmental system, work, social as well as family relations. Adjustment to the individual domains will not progress at the same pace and will depend on various influential factors (Hippler et al., 2015). Finally, adjustment is unlikely to be smooth and continuous and will only improve with time (Haslberger et al., 2013).

Thus, according to the 3D model of adjustment which respects the multidimensionality of adjustment, adjustment is achieved when both correspondence paths are satisfactorily balanced. Transferring this framework to the JD-R logic, similarities can be seen between environmental demands and job demands, environmental supplies and job resources, individual needs and personal demands, and individual abilities and personal resources.

2.1.3 Specific types of subjective work-related wellbeing

Subjective wellbeing (SWB) can be understood as how people evaluate their lives and is based on cognitive judgements and affective reactions (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2010; Diener 1984). According to Diener et al., (1991) a person with high SWB is satisfied with their life, experiences regularly positive emotions such as joy and happiness, and rarely negative emotions such as sadness and anger. Applying this definition to the workplace, an employee with high work-related SWB does not experience negative emotions such as workaholism or burnout, but instead feels positive emotions such as work engagement and happiness at work, and is satisfied with their job, which is essential for optimal employee functioning and therefore organisational success.

2.1.3.1 Burnout

Burnout was first defined by Freudenberger, (1974) who observed people volunteering for aid organisations in New York. According to him, burnout is gradual emotional depletion and loss of motivation, and a state of mental and physical exhaustion caused by someone's professional life. Burned out people struggle to produce the desired results, and often experience loss of dedication to work as their energetic resources are depleted. A couple of years later, Maslach and colleagues questioned human-service workers about their ways of coping with client-related stressors. After their investigations, Maslach and Jackson (1981) concluded that burnout is a syndrome that is characterised by emotional exhaustion, which describes the feeling of being emotionally drained when among people, depersonalisation, which is seen as a negative or detached attitude towards

recipients of one's service, and decreased personal accomplishment, which refers to declined feelings of competence and successful achievements at work.

Based on these three aspects, they then developed the Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) to measure burnout. With slight variations, this measure is still used in a lot of today's studies. Schaufeli et al. (1996), for example, replaced the depersonalisation component with cynicism, which refers to a distant attitude toward work in general, and the personal accomplishment component with professional efficacy, which refers to social and non-social aspects of occupational accomplishment. Alternative measures are the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti et al., 2003), which assesses the dimensions of exhaustion and disengagement, and the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM; Shirom and Melamed, 2006), which measures the dimensions of fatigue and cognitive weariness.

Several situational and individual factors have been found to be antecedents of burnout. In terms of situational factors, Lee and Ashforth (1996) found in their meta-analysis that mostly job demands but also lack of resources, were important predictors of burnout. Most important were demands such as role ambiguity, role conflict, stressful events, workload, and work pressure. A more recent meta-analysis confirms these results (Alarcon, 2011). Although job resources are less strongly related to burnout, they still have a negative relationship with burnout, especially the cynicism component. Bakker et al. (2005) found that the risk of burnout is particularly high when job demands are high and resources are low. Although situational factors have a stronger influence on burnout, some individual factors also play a role in the development of burnout. One's personality for instance can influence how the work environment and the job itself are perceived, and there is evidence that emotionally stable people cope better with challenging (work) situations (Alarcon et al., 2009; Judge et al., 2000).

Often burnout has health-related outcomes, with chronically tired and cynical employees reporting more psychological and physical health problems (Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998). Specifically, an increased prevalence of depression and anxiety, alcohol dependence (Ahola, 2007), mood disturbance (Hillhouse et al., 2000), life dissatisfaction (Hakanen and Schaufeli, 2012), sleep disturbance, memory impairment, neck pain (Peterson et al., 2008), headaches, respiratory and gastrointestinal infections, which

eventually lead to more sickness absence (Kim et al., 2011). Further, burnout can have job-related outcomes which in many cases leads to decreased in-role (outcomes and behaviours which directly serve the goals of the organisation) and extra-role (outcomes and behaviours which are not part of formal job requirements) performance (Bakker et al., 2008; Wright and Bonett, 1997) and increased absenteeism (Borritz et al., 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2009).

"Workaholics" in contrast have the enforcement to constantly work, dedicate exceptional resources (e.g. time, effort) to work, and often work beyond what is needed to meet organisational or economic targets (Taris et al., 2010). This leaves fewer resources for family and other non-work commitments, which has the consequence that workaholics do not have a well-adjusted work-life balance. Hence, evidence suggests that workaholism leads to poorer psychological and physical wellbeing, which eventually will deplete employees' energy resources and result in negative work-related outcomes (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2010).

2.1.3.2 Work engagement

As per Kahn, (1990, 1992) *engagement* exists when employees are committed to their work roles, employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances, and put in an extra effort into their work because they identify themselves with it. Hence, engaged employees are less likely to suffer from burnout, as they see their work as challenging but not demanding or stressful. Maslach and Leiter (1997) further add that engagement is characterised by energy, involvement, and efficiency, which are believed to be the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions (exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy). Schaufeli et al. (2002) define work engagement as a work-related state of mind that is positive and fulfilling and is characterised by *vigour*, *dedication*, and *absorption*.

Again, situational and individual factors can influence engagement. While job demands are the most important predictors of burnout, job resources are antecedents of engagement. Task variety, autonomy, feedback, social support, a high-quality relationship with the supervisor, and transformational leadership have been found to be

the most important job resources (Christian et al., 2011). Although, job demands have a negative relationship to engagement, job resources have a much stronger influence (Halbesleben, 2010). Individual factors, such as certain personality traits, can influence how easily people can mobilise their resources (Albrecht, 2010; Macey and Schneider, 2008) and emotional stability, extraversion, conscientiousness, optimism, and self-efficacy have been found to be related to higher work engagement (Halbesleben, 2010; Mäkikangas et al., 2013). The point is that individuals with more optimism, emotional stability, and a proactive approach are better able to deal with reality and craft their jobs to increase the job resources (Bakker et al., 2012b; Mäkikangas et al., 2013).

Engagement has been found to lead to several motivational outcomes and improved health. Evidence suggests that engaged employees feel more inspired, energetic, cheerful and enthusiastic (Schaufeli and van Rhenen, 2006), and are more open to new experiences which makes them more creative and willing to learn new things (Bakker et al., 2012a; Bakker and Xanthopoulou, 2013). In terms of job-related outcomes, engagement has shown to lead to improved in-role and extra-role performance (Demerouti and Cropanzano, 2010; Christian et al., 2011), and increased organisational performance by improving financial returns (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009b), profitability, and customer satisfaction and loyalty (Harter et al., 2002).

2.1.4 Expatriation and burnout

Although expatriation is known to be stressful and it is acknowledged that burnout may also be an issue among expatriates, most stress-related research in the expatriate context is linked to maladjustment (Selmer and Fenner, 2009; Silbiger and Pines, 2014) focusing on other work-related outcome variables (see chapter 2.1.2). Yet, very few studies exist that investigated the issue of burnout among expatriates, and findings on how affected this particular group of employees really is are mixed.

In a study by Silbiger and Pines (2014) among 233 Israeli expatriates, findings indicate that the individuals' stress levels are in fact high, but actual symptoms of burnout low. The authors explain this by perceived work importance with expatriates viewing their stress as a positive indicator for the importance and significance of their work. In a later

study, Silbiger et al. (2017) found that work and interaction adjustment reduced the risk of burnout. They also revealed that burnout has a mediating effect by being responsible for withdrawal cognitions and job dissatisfaction. Further, the strength of the relationship between burnout and job dissatisfaction was stronger for problem-focused than prevention-focused expatriates.

Contrarily, a study by Bhanugopan and Fish (2006) suggests that expatriates are affected by burnout. The survey results of their investigation of 189 expatriate managers in Papua New Guinea (PNG) show that in particular role conflict but also role ambiguity and overload are associated with burnout. At that point, the authors already suspected that expatriates assigned to particular stressful environments, e.g. high-crime regions, might be particularly at risk of burnout due to the additional stressors posed by the environment. Indeed, they found that the experience of crime negatively impacted the work-life quality of 153 expatriates in PNG, amongst other outcomes leading to increased burnout levels (Bhanugopan and Fish, 2008). Thus, it might be the case that expatriates in stressful environments, but also in demanding professions, are particularly prone to burnout. For instance, expatriate teachers (Aydogan et al., 2009), expatriate lecturers (Kumar, 2015), expatriate nurses (Al-Turki et al., 2010; Karkar et al., 2015) and expatriate aid workers (Cardozo et al., 2012; Eriksson et al., 2009; Musa and Hamid, 2008) show moderate to high levels of burnout.

Especially, humanitarian aid expatriates seem impeded to experience increased stress as their profession, but also the environment they perform in, is considered to be though with a high exposure to traumatic and life-threatening events and under-resourced working and living conditions. 16% of the national and international aid workers in Darfur reported high levels of burnout (Musa and Hamid, 2008), whereas 17.2% of the expatriates assigned to Kosovo experienced depression (Cardozo et al., 2005). A longitudinal study yielded that even after the assignment, expatriates still showed symptoms of burnout and lower life satisfaction (Cardozo et al., 2012). In summary, individuals experiencing sociocultural adaptation difficulties, increased exposure to trauma, heavy workload, security concerns, a lack of organisational communication, as well as having a history of mental illnesses, being female and young, and being on a first assignment seem to promote burnout, whereas a strong motivation for the job, social and organisational support can buffer the negative effects (Cardozo et al., 2005, 2012; DePaul and Bikos, 2015; Erikkson et al., 2009). Only one study in the aid context cannot confirm

any burnout intensity, with only 3.6% of the expatriates reporting symptoms on all three burnout dimensions (Eriksson et al., 2009). However, the authors conclude the possibility of burned out expatriates not being among their sample due to premature return, and they emphasise the need to investigate expatriate burnout in more HEs.

2.2 Expatriate management in hostile environments from a multi-stakeholder perspective – a systematic review.

As outlined in chapter 1.1, more and more expatriates are assigned to locations considered to be hostile, which pose additional challenges to the individual and have shown to lead to a number of negative, work-related outcomes (Bader and Berg, 2013; Bader et al., 2016). Understanding the factors and stakeholders involved that can contribute or hinder the expatriation success in HEs appears critical for organisations, as it is their responsibility to ensure the safety and wellbeing of their employees. Better managing expatriation into HEs could additionally be seen as an important prerequisite in attracting, deploying and retaining internationally mobile staff (AXA's World of Work Report, 2017; Claus, 2011). Being a timely issue of practical relevance might explain the recent increase in empirical studies focused at the nexus of HEs and international work.

Expatriation, regardless of the context, is a professional endeavour which involves more stakeholders than the expatriate and the assigning organisation. Stakeholders who play a major role not only in the success but also failure of the assignment (Takeuchi, 2010). While many studies have identified relevant stakeholders, a systematic mapping of important stakeholders and their stake in the expatriate management process is still missing for traditional expatriation (Hippler and Morley, 2017) and also in HEs. As an overview of important stakeholders is still outstanding and the research carried out in hostile contexts does so on multiple levels (Bader et al., 2019a), the review applies a multi-stakeholder perspective (see Takeuchi, 2010 for a similar approach) and develops a framework that captures key stakeholders that have been investigated in 28 publications identified and analysed in the review. The stakeholder lens is also used as a structure to report the findings.

By applying a multi-stakeholder perspective, the review not only responds to calls for the incorporation of greater stakeholder perspectives and accounts in the wider expatriation literature (see Hippler and Morely, 2017), but also structures the still disparate literature in a logical manner. In doing so, the review highlights all relevant stakeholders and describes how these can affect or be affected by the assignment. While expatriate literature often focuses on negative outcomes (Lämsä et al., 2017), the review also unravels how stakeholders can positively influence assignments in HEs. For practitioners, this review provides insights into the challenges experienced by expatriate staff and aids in developing practices and policies based on synthesised evidence.

The remainder of the review is as follows: the next section will contextualise the research setting and outline the review's understanding of HEs. Based on the development of a working definition of HEs, approaches to and insights from extant research will be systematically collected and synthesised, providing a stakeholder perspective and the ways stakeholders can contribute and hinder successful expatriation. The review concludes with key contributions, limitations and implications for future research.

2.2.1 The definition of hostile environments

Until now, no established definition of HE exists, but the scholarly and practitioner literature frequently relates it with terms such as 'dangerous', 'high-risk', 'hardship', 'fragile' or 'extreme' (Fee, 2017). This becomes evident when looking at the research of Bader and colleagues who were some of the first researchers in the field. In their first paper, they referred to their research context as 'high-risk countries' and, while not providing a clear definition, they described those environments as countries with increased occurrence of terrorism, using cross-checking of three risk and safety indices to identify them (Bader and Berg, 2013). In their 2015 paper they still did not provide a workable definition but became a bit more precise by using the terminology of 'terrorism-endangered countries' using similar approaches for identification (Bader and Schuster, 2015). In 2019, Bader, Schuster and Dickmann adopt the term 'hostile' as the one unifying all the above used adjectives. While still not explicitly providing a definition within the main text of the article, the authors include a footnote stating that "We define

'hostile environment' as a country, region, or specified location, which is subject to war, terrorism, insurgency, civil unrest, or extreme levels of crime, banditry, lawlessness, or public disorder" (Bader et al., 2009, p. 2825). As such, the literature suggests a potential presence of severe physical threats such as war, civil insurrection, terrorism, or uncontrolled violence and crime in HEs (Bader et al., 2016; Faeth and Kittler, 2017; Villa da Costa, 2009).

Particularly, developing regions where expatriates are further confronted with under-resourced living and working conditions are prone to such forms of threat (Eriksson et al., 2009; Paulus and Muehfeld, 2017). Further challenges that could be associated with HEs are an absence or lack of governmental core functions such as infrastructure, health and family support services, or security (Dickmann and Watson, 2017). Additionally, scholars relate phenomena such as corruption, ambiguity, rapid and violent changes, remoteness, extreme climates, and substantial cultural differences to a wider list characterising HEs (Gannon and Paraskevas, 2017; Greppin et al., 2017; Suder et al., 2017). At this point, this illustration suggests human-made as well as natural sources of hostility, which requires additional clarification heading towards a working definition of HEs for the purposes of this thesis.

Similar to human-made threats, natural disaster can cause substantial physical harm. However, as hostility definitions tend to be linked to social relations and typically refer to generalised negative feelings about or towards others (e.g. Hakulinen et al., 2013), natural threats will not be included in the thesis' conceptualisation. Additionally, both dimensions of threats tend to be perceived differently. One possible line of argument is that human-made elements in HEs, such as terrorism or crime, offer a target for blame and anger, which are then often linked to a failure of a system (Baum et al., 1983; Sprang, 1999). For instance, terrorism is not just threatening via the physical attack itself but can have extended psychological consequences due to the amplification of fear among society (Oh and Oetzel, 2011; Paulus and Muehfeld, 2017). This observation implies that perceptions of hostility are highly subjective and often vary depending on individual circumstances (see for instance McPhail and McNulty, 2015). Conceptually, the author hence suggests distinguishing 'perceived hostility', where the degree of hostility is measured at the individual level, and 'hostile environments', where the degree of hostility assessed refers to a spatial entity, such as a country, other regional or industry context.

Thus, the definition of HEs the author posits in this thesis suggests environments in which individuals are exposed to an above-average presence of human-made threats in the form of intentional violence (particularly reflected in acts of terror or other criminal activities) or the lack of provision of essential resources (potentially fostering criminal activities). This definition allows classifying a HE based on data provided in sources such as the Global Terror Index annually published by the Institute for Economics and Peace, the United Nations' Homicide Rate, or the United Nations' Human Development Index (see also chapter 3.4.1).

A potential shortcoming of this definition and selection approach is that risk levels can vary within a country (for example in Brazil), potentially resulting in differing country risk perceptions of the people living in it and leading to some limitations of this study (see chapter 7.2). However, as outlined above, perceived hostility is almost impossible to incorporate in a workable definition as it always leaves room for subjectivity. Further, referring to regions or environments instead would have made the use of official statistics rather difficult as these usually work on a country basis. In addition, working with two large regions (e.g. sub-Sahara region) would have evoked similar issues as country risk levels within regions might vary as well and wrongfully designate countries as hostile. This might explain why other authors used similar approaches to identify and select HEs (Bader and Berg, 2013; Bader and Schuster, 2015) and should serve as a justification for the methods used in this thesis.

2.2.2 Search method

For a rigorous review, the review followed a three-stage approach suggested by Tranfield et al. (2003). In the planning stage the researcher carried out an iterative process of scoping the literature. Thereby, the research objectives, the research question (see chapter 1.3) and the inclusion and exclusion criteria were established, as well as the subsequent review protocol. A comprehensive search was done aimed at identifying all relevant studies, within the boundaries of the inclusion criteria that investigated the impact of a) terrorism or b) crime or c) any other physical threat on d) the management of expatriates.

In order to conduct the review, appropriate keywords and search strings were derived from the scoping search, resulting in 23 keywords in total. Clustered into two subgroups, these keywords yielded 132 possible keyword combinations from which titles, abstracts and subject terms of documents were searched (Table 2.1). In September 2017, the libraries of the three online data-bases Web of Science (core collection), EBSCO (Business Source Complete, Political Science Complete, PsycARTICLES, PsycINFO), and SCOPUS were systematically searched for relevant documents. Titles, abstracts and subject terms that met the inclusion criteria were transferred to the reference management software Endnotes for further analysis. To be considered for further analysis, the studies had to meet another set of inclusion criteria. They had to be (1) peer-reviewed articles, (2) in the English language, (3) with full text available (including requested articles), (4) published/accessible as of September 2017, (5) focusing on assigned or potential expatriates, and (6) investigating the impact of either terrorism, crime or any other physical threat on expatriate management.

The programmed search resulted in 1,037 records of which 963 records had to be instantly dismissed. Reasons for excluding papers were that they were (1) non peer-reviewed articles, (2) not in English, (3) not investigating the impact of physical crime (e.g. instead cyber terrorism/crime, employee crime, corruption), or (4) generally had no relation to the impact of physical threat and the management of expatriates. A further reason for exclusion was a focus on certain professional groups (e.g. soldiers, police, criminal justice officers) where potential exposure to or experience of physical threat is part of the job profile. This resulted in the eligibility of 46 records, after also removing duplicates. As suggested by Thorpe et al. (2005), the author set up a relevance assessment in endnotes to organise further analysis and separated all transferred records into an A, B and C list. The A list compromised of all clearly relevant records, whereas for the B list the relevance was not clear a priori and required the full text analysis of records. The C list included all records that were less relevant or where a full-text version was not available (even after requesting the article). Following, all records in the A and B list were retrieved for more detailed evaluation (full text), resulting in some records moving into the A list and vice versa. The manual analysis ended up with 23 relevant articles in the A list.

Table 2.1: Keywords used in the systematic search

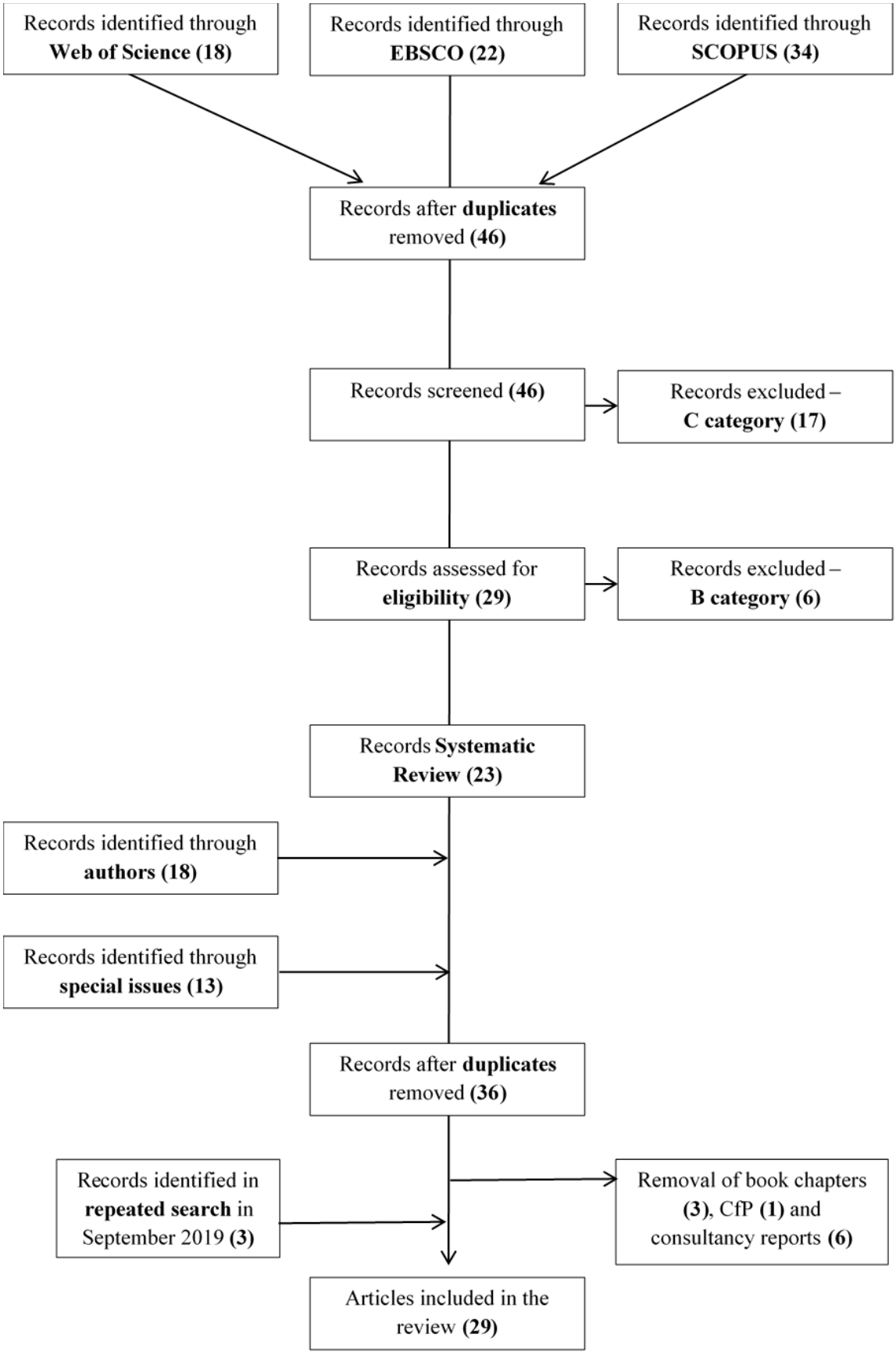
Form of threat	***Specificity of sample***
Terror[a]	Expat[a]
9/11	Global profession[a]
Fear of terror	Global worker
Perceived threats	Overseas assign[a]
Crime	International assign[a]
Fear of crime	Global assign[a]
High crime	Global employee
High-risk environment	Sojourn[a]
Danger[a]	Inpat[a]
Dangerous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

Note: [a] Keyword has been truncated, which means that extended versions of the keyword have been also included; 132 keyword combinations used (12 x 11).

To provide a more rigorous result of the literature review, target journals were manually searched for Special Issues (SI) within the topic area, resulting in 13 further records, of which one was dismissed (Greppin et al., 2017) due to the inclusion/exclusion criteria and understanding of HEs. After removing the duplicates, 30 records were identified as relevant articles. Out of the 30 identified records, seven records were excluded. One book chapter was excluded as the reviewing procedures are less strict than for journal articles, and another five consultancy reports were taken out due to their limited scholarly contribution. Thus, the total number of records that qualified for further review was 23. To present an up-to-date overview of relevant literature at the time of submission of this thesis, the systematic search was repeated in September 2019, applying an additional filter which limited the output to articles published between 2017 and 2019. The repeated search resulted in five further records, including one SI editorial (Bader et al., 2019a), one conceptual paper (Harvey et al., 2019) and three empirical papers (Dickmann et al., 2017; Gannon and Paraskevas, 2017; Leder, 2019).

The process of inclusion and exclusion was documented in a PRISMA Flow Chart throughout the stages (Figure 2.1) and all eligible records were added to a data-extraction-form, yielding all general information as well as study features, stakeholders investigated and findings (Appendix I).

Figure 2.1: PRISMA Flow Chart



In order to synthesise the data and to report the findings, the researcher manually coded the remaining 28 articles. This was done with the intention to identify all important stakeholders involved in an assignment in HEs and how these can either (a) affect the success of the assignment or (b) can be affected so that the success of the assignment is jeopardised. This approach is based on the broad definition of a stakeholder, which is "any group that can affect or be affected" by the organisation (Freeman, 1984). Whereas normally when applying the multi-stakeholder perspective, the organisational success is in focus (Greenwood and DiCieri, 2005), in the expatriate context, the researcher submits that expatriation success should be the focal point and the organisation a stakeholder whose performance makes significant contributions to this success.

Analysing all 28 articles, the researcher identified three major stakeholders that are involved in the expatriation process and a similar role attributed to the human-influenced environment. The major stakeholders are the expatriates themselves and the assigning organisations, but also the expatriate's social network made up of two sub-stakeholders, the expatriate's family as well as HCNs and the local community. A similar review also clusters the latter group, referring to this group of stakeholders as the microsystem (Knocke and Schuster, 2017). According to the ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1977), the microsystem "is the complex of relations between the developing person and environment in an immediate setting containing that person" (p. 514), which, in the expatriate context, could be understood as the expatriate's direct social network containing actors such as the family, peers, and supervisors. As a fourth stakeholder, the researcher included the environment, relying on Mitchell et al.'s (1997) statement that the environment can also be understood as a stakeholder. The researcher argues that in the given context, the novel characteristics of the environment (particularly increased hostility) are of great importance for the outcome of the assignment and thus an important stakeholder. However, unlike the other three stakeholders identified, the environment is in the unique position of only affecting assignment success but not being directly affected by the other stakeholders.

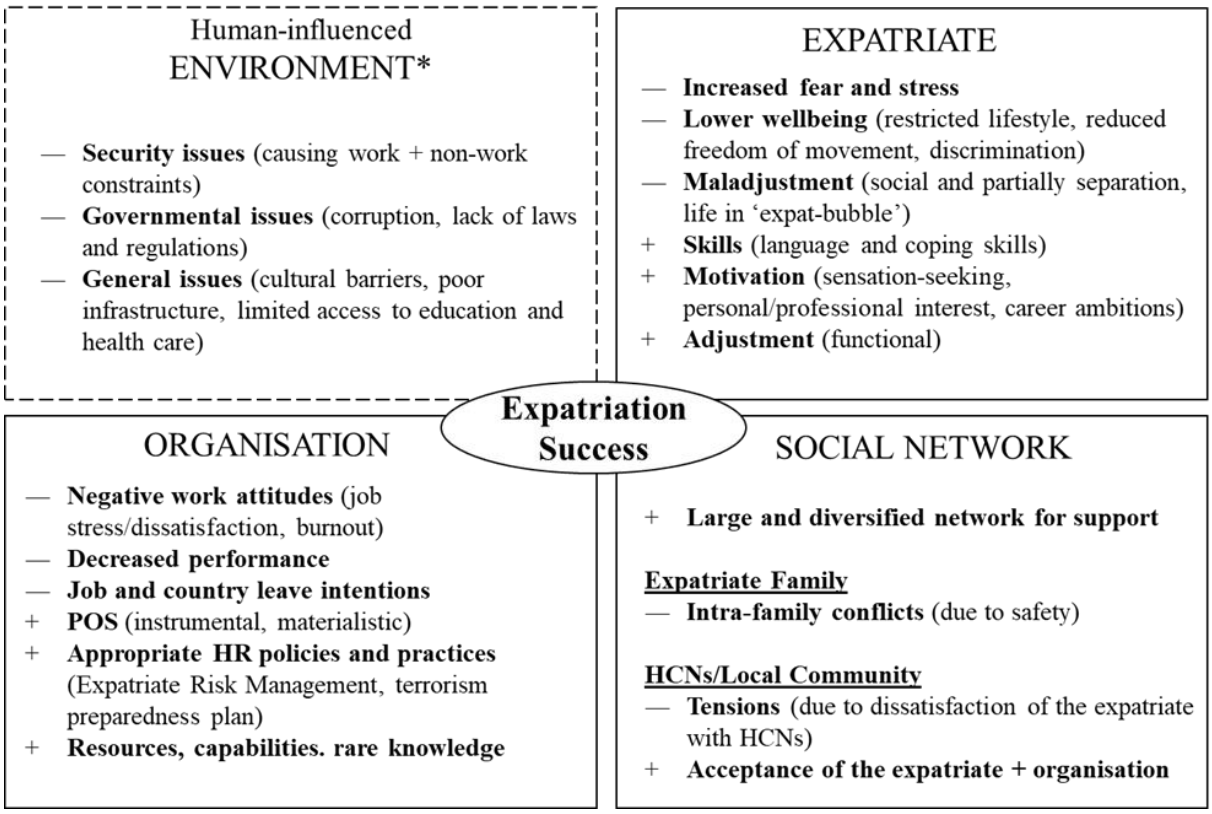
2.2.3 General observations of records identified

The systematic searches carried out in September 2017 and September 2019 identified 28 relevant articles (see Appendix I for more details), suggesting that the number of research carried out is still limited. However, the timeliness of the topic, with the majority of studies identified for this review dating 2015, and later suggests an emerging area of research. Identified records consisted of 20 empirical studies (71.4%), 4 conceptual papers (14.3%), and 4 SI editorials (14.3%). The empirical studies were composed of 9 quantitative studies (31%) with an average of 159 respondents, 10 qualitative studies (34.5%) with an average of 17 interviewees, and one mixed-methods study (3.4%). The geographic context in all studies was widely spread, but mostly concentrated on HEs in the Middle East, Asia and Africa. The sectors in which expatriates operated were also wide ranging, including the oil and gas industry, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), mining and resource industry, telecommunications, service and administrative sectors, news media, engineering and construction, as well as the educational sector.

2.2.4 A multi-stakeholder perspective: Findings of the systematic review

For taking a multi-stakeholder perspective, the researcher adopted Takeuchi's (2010) perspective on primary stakeholders during expatriation as the aims and context of the studies are similar, namely to outline the previously identified stakeholders and their associated roles in the expatriation context. As outlined previously, multiple stakeholders are involved in the assignment process and can either be a problem or a resource for the expatriation success (Hippler and Morley, 2017). Based on this, the researcher slightly deviated from Takeuchi's (2010) framework by not only outlining the stakeholders' impact but by also differentiating between the detrimental effect (indicated by a "-" symbol) and the beneficial effect (indicated by a "+" symbol) on expatriation success associated with the respective stakeholder group. Figure 2.2 provides an overview of key stakeholders identified in the 28 articles and illustrates the roles they are reported to play in relation to the success of assignments. The unique situation of the environment, being the only stakeholder that can affect but not be affected, is accentuated by the dotted line. The findings chapter will follow the structural logic of Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: Framework of the multiple stakeholder view of expatriation success



2.2.4.1 The human-influenced environment

While not being directly affected by (individual) expatriation and its level of success, the environment itself is seen to directly pose several work and non-work constraints that could lead to disruptions of business and also increased stress and reduced wellbeing of the expatriate. Attacks on businesses can hinder operations by restricting transportation and cutting access to energy, goods, equipment, and communication systems (Bader et al., 2016). Constraints are also noticeable outside work and safety concerns are reported to force expatriates and their families to live a very restricted life with a change in their daily routines and safety measures having to be implemented (Bader et al., 2016; Faeth and Kittler, 2017). Already the presence of latent threat itself can be enough to prompt fear of victimisation (Bader et al., 2015; Bader and Berg, 2013) which often is further amplified by excessive media coverage after a violent incident but not necessarily reflecting an accurate picture of the actual threat (Coyne and Bell, 2011; Smiley, 2016).

Research in the analysis suggests that the perception of fear is likely to depend on the type of threat. For instance, Gannon and Paraskeva (2017) show that crime seems to be

the major concern. Faeth and Kittler (2017) report similar observations. Their interviewees perceived fear more strongly in a high-crime environment than in a terror-endangered environment as the likelihood of victimisation was much higher. Also, host country (HC) laws and regulations as well as societal perception of foreigners and their cultural artefacts has shown to further affect expatriates' feeling of safety (McPhail and McNulty, 2015).

Additionally, next to a lack of security and economic and political development expressed in poor infrastructure and undersupply of goods and services, corruption and a lack of laws and regulations often make work itself in HEs more difficult (Bader et al., 2016; Suder et al., 2017). In consequence, such a perception among staff is likely to influence the candidates' decision-making against acceptance of assignments to destinations perceived as hostile (Stoermer et al., 2017). In a similar vein, Dickmann and Watson (2017) show that the actual threat level of the host country (HC) or the experience of some form of violence strongly affects the decision of expatriates to accept or continue an assignment. Language and cultural factors as well as the overall reputation of the HC and climate conditions are found of further importance for assignment decisions (Dickmann and Watson, 2017; Shortland, 2016).

2.2.4.2 The expatriate

Empirical evidence suggests that contextual stressors affect expatriates, yet with individual variation in increased fear and stress, low wellbeing and maladjustment. Particularly, expatriates with pre-existing health issues seem to be affected and there is evidence that this can further initiate fear of expatriation, characterised by a fear of violence/terrorism and a fear of working and living conditions (Giorgi et al., 2016). The actual experience of a safety incident or merely the latent threat can increase expatriates' stress and fear levels (Bader and Berg, 2013; Bader, 2015). This can result in expatriates limiting their freedom of movement, leading to separation from HCNs and social isolation (Smiley, 2016). The diminished quality of life and personal freedom negatively affects expatriates' overall wellbeing (Faeth and Kittler, 2017) and is shown to support maladjustment (Bader and Berg, 2014; Bhanugopan and Fish, 2008; Paulus and Muehfeld, 2017), a common cause of failure in traditional expatriation (Caligiuri, 1997). Individual lifestyle choices and sexual orientations are also reported to affect expatriates

and their performance in HEs. As McPhail and McNulty report, LGBT expatriates might face additional challenges when being threatened with death penalties for homosexual acts, resulting in religious, political, and legal intolerance, stigmatisation and discrimination.

The review also identified individual factors that can enable successful expatriation such as skills, motivation to work in a HE, and adjustment. For example, resilience in coping and appropriate coping skills have been found helpful (e.g. applying avoidance versus problem-orientated coping strategies depending on the type of threat, Faeth and Kittler, 2017). Beutell et al. (2017) suggest that the focus of coping strategies needs to be aligned to the different assignment stages to show effect. HC language skills foster better understanding (Holtbrügge and Kittler, 2007; Kittler, 2008) and could also be seen as supportive, however findings remaining ambiguous. Whereas studies often support the intuitive argument that HC communication skills, functioning communication abroad, are supportive in managing stressful health and security issues effectively (e.g. Shortland, 2016), the findings of Paulus and Muehfeld (2017) draw a more complex picture. They argue with social identity theory that views language as one of the most salient characteristics of social identity and as a key separator of in- and out-groups. Better language skills of expatriates increase their shared social identity with HCNs. Attacks on people with a shared social identity, generally seems to affect individuals more and thus is likely to increase the fear of terror (Davies et al., 2008). They further suspect that the ability to understand local media and news may contribute to amplified fear.

Individual differences in intrinsic and extrinsic preferences are also attributed a role for assignment success in HEs. In a study investigating the motivational drivers of working in a HE, Dickmann and Watson (2017) reveal that many expatriates were willing to face risk because of personal/professional interest in the job rendering it meaningful, the development of career capital or a strong desire for seeking adventure and thrills. Building on the expectancy-value theory, Stoermer et al. (2017) explain that some (mainly male) expatriates believe that they simply possess the necessary traits (e.g. low anxiety, willingness to face risk) to succeed despite hostility. More recently, the potential of functional adjustment of expatriates for reducing fear and stress in HEs and thus enabling expatriation success was highlighted (Leder, 2019).

2.2.4.3 The assigning organisation

From an organisational perspective, expatriation success is at risk when stressors and constraints might lead to negative work-related outcomes (Pinto et al., 2017; Scullion et al., 2007). Studies in our review suggest that stress experienced in HEs has a negative impact on expatriates' work attitudes, causing disaffection with HCNs which in turn affects performance (Bader and Berg, 2013). Bader et al. (2015, 2016) apply a rather similar logic when discussing spill-over effects from the non-work domain and work related outcomes. The study of Bhanugopan and Fish (2008) further reveals that experience of crime can decrease work-life quality, fostering job burnout, job dissatisfaction, job stress, and job turnover intentions. Reasoning for those behaviour and attitude changes are mostly drawn from the theory of cognitive appraisal (Lazarus and Folkman, 1986), but alternative explanations can be found in the conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 1989), and the breach of the psychological contract (Guzzo et al., 1994) underlining the role of organisations. In order to reduce negative assignment-related outcomes, organisations are advised to invest in (perceived) organisational support (POS), design and maintain appropriate human resource (HR) policies and practices and acquire and activate adequate resources and capabilities (Pinto et al., 2017).

Grounded in the social exchange theory and concepts of psychological contract and duty of care, studies suggest that organisations providing POS are likely to employ obligated expatriates who respond with positive work attitudes and are less worried about exposing themselves to potential dangers of a HE (Bader, 2015; Claus, 2011; Claus and McNulty, 2015; Fee and McGrath-Champ, 2017; Harvey et al., 2019). Bader et al. (2015) further found that POS moderates the impact of perceived general stress on expatriate job performance, with those individuals who are receiving higher levels of POS experiencing stress less severely. Harvey et al. (2019) advocate HR policies and practices that prepare organisations for potential threats, contemplate the organisations' ability to respond to identified threats and, based on that, implement global mobility programmes that are monitored and modified on a regular basis. In a similar vein, Posthuma et al. (2017) propose a conceptual expatriate risk management (ERM) framework that suggests human resource management (HRM) practices that foster expatriate adjustment in HEs including layers of risk identification (collection of information about the environment and all possible dangers and threats) and risk analysis (estimate the probability of the risk occurring and its severity) as a basis for crisis planning. In addition to planning and

monitoring the safety situation, it is important to consider the implementation of adequate safety measures. Fee et al. (2017) unveil different security approaches across three industries. While some core practices (information intensity, customisation of HR practices, and collaboration) are similar across industries, others were shown as industry-specific (regulatory, informal and empowering approaches).

Taking the above points together, Fee and McGrath-Champ (2017) propose an organisational culture that promotes safety and security and contains an appropriate philosophy and strategy with three interrelated areas of operational priority: people services (selection, training and employee wellbeing), information services (data collection, monitoring, evaluation and organisational learning), and communication services (communicating with internal and external stakeholders). Gannon and Paraskevas (2017) expand the idea of the three types of services by adding the HRM activity of policy and standard development and compliance. Similar to Beutell et al. (2017), they further link these services to the different stages of expatriation and crisis (see also Bader et al., 2019a). In the pre-crisis phase, the organisation should try to reduce its vulnerability and prepare for fast and effective responses in case of a crisis. During a possible crisis, the focus is on decision-making, communication and constant dialogue with all stakeholders. In the post-crisis phase leading also into repatriation, the focus is suggested to be supporting the affected individuals and learning for future policies and practices.

Tying in with the last point, Suder et al. (2017) emphasise the importance of organisational learning which can be understood as the process of creating, retaining and transferring knowledge within an organisation aimed improving their performance (Drejer, 2000). This need is closely aligned with resource and knowledge-based views of the firm (Barney, 1991) and the importance of resources for acquiring and maintaining competitive advantages. There seems a consensus that knowledge, skills and other workforce attributes and attitudes will determine an organisation's success abroad (Colbert, 2004; Wright et al., 1994). Hence, an organisation's capability to deploy their expatriate resources effectively will determine the success of the expatriation (Dickmann et al., 2017). Suder et al. (2017) argue that in a HE it is particularly important to identify the knowledge gaps and respond to unique challenges with new and innovative solutions ('compensational learning'). Additionally, it is crucial for organisations to leverage and internalise the rare knowledge gained during a crisis. Individual learning needs to be

transferred into organisational learning also available to other members of the organisation.

2.2.4.4 The social network

Studies suggest that a social network can positively influence expatriation as a valuable resource of support. For example, Bader and Schuster (2015) found that a large, diverse, and weakly tied social network leads to greater psychological wellbeing of the expatriate. Building on social network theory, they argue that a larger network was expected to increase possibilities for receiving emotional, informational, instrumental, and appraisal support. Bader and Schuster (2015) suggest that in a HE where danger might be present and insider information crucial, this would increase the chances of obtaining them. They found that weak ties within the social network had a greater impact on psychological wellbeing than strong ties, explaining this with a potential "contagion effect", strain and stress are usually transmitted more across close ties. Drawing on social exchange theory, Bader (2015) makes similar observations as he detected a positive change in work attitudes when the expatriate possessed a large network and was satisfied with the social support received by co-workers. He assumed that in HEs where support is generally limited, the importance of such forms of social support increases.

Safety-related conflicts in the expatriate family were found to have a detrimental effect on expatriation success. Exposure to risk requires accompanying family members to apply adequate coping strategies and behaviours and change their set of demands (Bader et al., 2015). Safety issues become part of everyday family life and discrepancies and relationship strain can arise when family members differ in their perception about safety or question the necessity of exposing the entire family to such danger and living situation (Bader and Berg, 2013). Potential dissatisfaction of the spouse and children with the overall situation but also a bad consciousness of the expatriate about putting the family in this situation in the first place can raise doubts about the assignment, making it difficult to concentrate on the job (Bader et al., 2015; Faeth and Kittler, 2017). Bader and Berg (2013) detected that intra-family conflicts increased expatriates' stress levels and eventually decreased performance. In Dickmann and Watson's (2017) study, expatriates assigned to a HE are reported to state that their decision to relocate was influenced by their partner/family situation. In a complex family system, the partner's career

aspirations, the quality of education in the HC, and child-care and wellbeing were considered important factors. The literature analysed suggests that in order for the assignment to be successful, family is a stakeholder to be considered.

Relationships with HCNs and local communities are expected to be more difficult than in a low-risk environment. When exposed to risk and experiencing fear, people have the tendency to avoid strangers and surround themselves with those who are or appear similar to them (Bader et al., 2016). Expatriates may perceive HCNs as culturally similar to local violent agitators, leading to little trust and afflicted relationships that in turn can be stressful and lead to strain and this has shown to worsen the expatriate's performance (Bader and Berg, 2013, 2014). To feel more comfortable, expatriates often prefer to live in enclosed compounds among other expatriates (Shortland, 2016) reducing contact with individuals from the wider local community. While in some destinations such a coping mechanism might appear advisable and does provide additional security, it could have a negative side effect with opportunities for contact with HCNs becoming more limited and adjustment being hindered (Smiley, 2016). In addition, the fear of victimisation is often passed on and unnecessarily amplified within the expatriate community (Coyne and Bell, 2011). On the other hand, if expatriates manage to gain trust and legitimacy among locals, this can add another layer of security and comfort as HCNs are then more likely to accept and integrate them (Bader and Schuster, 2015; Fee et al., 2017).

2.2.5 Discussion, future research and contribution

This review systematically captured the scholarly debate focusing on expatriate management and success in HEs. The findings suggest that current research is still in a pre-paradigm phase, discussing the same phenomenon through different theoretic lenses and with different methods, yet aligned in aiming to understand what contributes to or hinders successful expatriation. While theoretical foundations differ, there seems to be implicit consensus across the reviewed studies that expatriates are less affected by HEs when harm can be prevented and their stress levels kept low. Individual expatriate wellbeing is also of interest to other stakeholders, for instance their organisation. The consequences of ignoring the challenges expatriates face in HEs are reported to be undesirable assignment outcomes reflected in decreased performance, premature return,

and other additional costs for the organisation. In a HE, specific contextual challenges add additional complexity to understanding the prerequisites of expatriate wellbeing and performance. The review captured the current state of our knowledge reflected in the results above. Findings indicate attempts to explore the subject under study from differing perspectives and suggest that cross-pollination from the occupational psychology literature might offer additional insights, also suggesting a more positive perspective, focusing on wellbeing rather than stress.

Focusing on contributions, this study systematically synthesised which stakeholders can affect expatriation success and how these can, at the same time, be affected in a way that jeopardises this success capturing previous research in the field. Adding to extant literature, the researcher has developed a working definition of HEs as environments in which individuals are exposed to an above-average presence of human-made threats in the form of intentional violence or lack of provision of essential resources. The definition excludes hostility or threats stemming from natural conditions or job designs and allows classifying HEs based on available data. The researcher sees the exclusion of non-human-made threats as a helpful working definition but acknowledges the merit and increasing relevance of the impact that natural threat and disaster may play in the future of internationally mobile work, inviting systematic attempts to overview and contrast the findings to research efforts in this area. The review illustrated four major stakeholders identified in extant literature on expatriates in HEs: the expatriate, the assigning organisation and the expatriate's social network (expatriate family and HCNs/local communities). The researcher also included the environment as a stakeholder as characteristics of the environment differentiate this strand of literature from the traditional expatriation context and add unique factors that can influence the overall assignment outcome. The identified stakeholders are similarly reflected in other expatriate studies applying stakeholder perspectives (Rua, 2014; Takeuchi, 2010).

Looking at the expatriate, adjustment, comfort with the HEs and wellbeing seem harder to achieve than in less HEs. General adjustment poses additional difficulties to expatriates due to additional non-work constraints (restricted and limited lifestyle, latent threat to deal with). While the studies analysed suggest that comfort with the general environment can be increased (e.g. through secure housing, expat communities), full mastery and adjustment are less likely to be achieved as the contextual constraints of HEs

could contribute to a perceived inability to adjust (Selmer, 2004). The observation that expatriates often retreat into expat bubbles suggests reduced contact to HCNs, impeding interaction adjustment (Brewster and Pickard, 1994). For instance, a study among Danish expatriates in Saudi Arabia found that living in compounds hindered the adjustment to the local culture by the creation of in-groups (Lauring and Selmer, 2009). Burdened relationships to HCNs could further decrease expatriates' interests in and efforts to build up and maintain relationships with HCNs. Work adjustment seems more feasible but still challenging due to work constraints (disruptions of business operations) observed in HEs. However, the synthesis of the literature suggests that if expatriates apply appropriate coping skills, are intrinsically motivated to live and work in the HE (complemented by adequate extrinsic rewards) and manage to functionally adjust, the stress can be reduced and assignment success supported. Better understanding the expatriate will allow better informed decisions within organisations yielding adequate HR policies and practices for assignments in HEs.

The assigning organisation as key stakeholder has a vital interest in assignment outcomes and hence the insights from the review on context-relevant guidance organisations can draw from extant literature and be of high practical relevance. For instance, literature emphasises the role of the provision secure housing or attractive relocation packages as typical forms of materialistic support mechanisms. Organisations will find the literature to also suggest various forms of instrumental support, for instance, in the form of security training, coping mechanisms and other safety measures (Faeth and Kittler, 2017), which are shown to influence outcomes at the organisational as well as the individual level. Appropriate HR policies and practices (pooled with understanding the roles of other stakeholders) further aid this process and, for instance, emphasise the importance of understanding potential expatriates' motives to go abroad or identifying reservations towards a HE assignment in the selection process. Insights from work and organisational psychology in future research might help to develop practical guidance in combining mechanisms of harm prevention and enhanced wellbeing via reducing stressors identified above. Focusing on situation-related stressors, organisations could attempt to make (or keep) threat needs manageable (security training, secure housing, leisure facilities) and avoid crises (crisis planning, expatriate risk management). In the case that crises cannot be avoided or persist, mechanisms that allow for organisational learning should be in

place. However, success of support measures depends on how well specific challenges of the environment as well as the personal circumstances of the expatriate are considered.

While the review suggests that most extant research attention has mainly focused on expatriate and assigning organisations as key stakeholders within HE assignments, other stakeholders such as the social network of the expatriate (the family and HCNs) were not entirely omitted. The observation that the family is identified as a stakeholder is not different from general expatriate research (Kittler et al., 2006; Lazarova et al., 2015; Mäkelä and Suutari, 2011; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998). However, the impact on the family life is more profound in HEs where the entire family might have to change their lifestyle substantially. Appropriate training, guidance in the process of relocation, or assignment models that avoid unnecessary risk to the family while keeping the family system in good order (e.g. rotational assignments with regular home visits, frequent business flyers, virtual assignments) are reported as helpful. The role of the social networks of expatriates and HCNs from the local community are also discussed in the literature. Increased social interaction provides stakeholders with more information and, while this is reported to be a less straightforward association, could improve comfort with the assignment among stakeholders. Hence, facilitating and engaging in such social interaction seems particularly important in HEs where social interaction outside of work is reported to be reduced. Thus, organisations might initiate or intensify interaction in the work sphere early on (e.g. via networking events and team building among locals and expatriates, see Van Bakel et al., 2017; Selmer, 1999).

Based on the synthesis of extant research, the review revealed a number of avenues for future research. A first recommendation would be a stronger inclusion of previously neglected stakeholders and themes. With family being identified among the most critical factors for expatriate success in HEs, yet remaining a rather neglected stakeholder, future research could follow family systems theory more intensely, paying closer empirical attention to other family members and their experience with the (foreign) location. For instance, studies involving expatriate children are still rare, even in the traditional expatriate context, but could add valuable insight into the perception of HE assignments. Interviews with expatriates' partners could give voice fostering our understanding of intra-family conflict and investigate factors that could contribute to more satisfaction and adjustment within family systems. It could also be worthwhile to investigate more

systematically different models of partnership and family expatriation and their role for expatriate performance with a particular focus on HEs. In the light of difficulties to find global talent and potential candidates increasingly refusing assignments in risky areas (McPhail and McNulty, 2015; Wagner and Westaby, 2009; Wang and Bu, 2004), more attention should also be paid to LGBT and single expatriates. More research on expatriates' social networks could shed light on the role of local colleagues and friends in HE assignments. How these stakeholders cope with context specific stressors could be investigated, as it could impact the assignment in a negative way if fears and sorrows are passed on to the expatriate. Since it is possible that expatriates are seen as treated superior to local employees (often expressed in higher salaries and access to more organisational support), it would be interesting to investigate the impact of expatriate on HCNs as potential anger and frustration about this could create further tensions (Ljubica et al., 2019). As existing literature has exclusively focused on the assigning organisation, research involving the local subsidiaries and local supervisors, two further condoned stakeholders, could add viewpoints to the HE-expatriation-debate. Also, expatriation success is rather evaluated from an organisational (e.g. performance, continuance of assignment) and individual perspective (e.g. wellbeing and adjustment of the expatriate) but may mean different things for different stakeholders (Hippler and Morley, 2017). More research should be carried out aiming to define expatriation success for a variety of stakeholders.

A second recommendation would be to respond to method-related observations found in prior limitations of extant research. Looking at the study designs of the articles under review (see Appendix I), it also stands out that only one study has followed through a mixed-method approach and suggests that more integrated designs could help to produce insightful and practitioner-orientated findings (Creswell, 2014). Following the stakeholder perspective, stakeholder identification might also point at previously ignored informants. For instance, in order to gain more insights at the expatriate level, research designs could pay closer attention to previously ignored informants (exploring reasons why assignments to HEs are refused) or monitor the development of stress and its consequences in longitudinal designs. It might also be worthwhile to more strongly include repatriates and their HE-experiences. In one of the few studies linking HE experiences with repatriation, Beutell et al. (2017) suggests that coping with repatriation might accompany repatriates over months or years in the post-assignment stage, also

rendering considerations of time relevancy when identifying informants for future studies including repatriates. More attention should also be paid to other neglected groups of expatriates (e.g. “low-status expatriates”) as it is likely that they experience additional or other forms of hostility in their HC (see Haak-Saheem et al., 2019) and other forms of internationally mobile work.

A third recommendation would be to revisit the definitional boundaries of the HE domain and invite further work on other forms of threat and danger. In the face of environmental degradation, exploring different types of threat and their impact on wellbeing could further inform effective assignment preparations and trainings. Other forms of hostility and expatriate crises have recently received more scholarly attention (see Bader et al., 2019b; McNulty et al., 2019). Following the working definition of a HE, the researcher sees scope for future research to investigate the impact of natural disasters, which seem to play an increasing role in public perception and might become more prominent as reasons to refuse assignments abroad. In a similar vein, other non-physical threats should be looked at such as the political risks faced by expatriate academics and high-profile executives in their battle for free research and freedom of speech (Huett, 2018).

A fourth recommendation is a stronger engagement with possible theoretical foundations and developments. Existing theoretical lenses that hitherto have found less attention might contribute additional insights. As this research area has been identified as pre-paradigmatic, the discussion within this review allows suggesting theories that have not yet been substantially applied to explain expatriate success, wellbeing or failure in HEs. A first and in the researcher’s view still underexplored theoretical lens that might be helpful in explaining work-related outcomes is the Job demands resources (JD-R) theory (Demerouti et al., 2001) which has found acceptance in the domestic work and occupational psychology literature but not yet much attention within the expatriate context (Rattrie and Kittler, 2014). While a few studies have applied the JD-R theory in the migration (Qin et al., 2014), repatriation (Ren et al., 2014) and expatriation context (Cole and Nesbeth, 2014; Lazarova et al., 2010), no study has yet empirically developed and tested a set of demands and resources and their impact on work-related outcomes relevant to expatriates working in HEs. A focus on not only positive work-related outcomes (wellbeing, engagement) but also the darker side (in JD-R research often represented as burnout) would be relatively new in the scholarly debate on expatriates

(Bader et al., 2019b) and reflect the in the review followed logic of detrimental effects (demand side) and beneficial effects (resource side) on successful expatriation outcomes. A second lens that might lend itself to increased scholarly attention in the context of expatriates in HEs is person-environment fit (Edwards et al., 1998). Such a perspective could systematically identify and include the influential factors of the environment and the expatriates themselves and investigate their role for organisational outcomes. This approach could expand the idea of certain personality traits being particularly relevant for a hostile context (Stoermer et al., 2017) as well as certain environments requiring different coping tactics (Faeth and Kittler, 2017).

Despite the effort of conducting a rigorous review, this review is subject to some limitations it shares with a plethora of systematic reviews conducted in the wider field of business and management studies. The focus of studies published in the English language could be seen to establish a "Westerner bias" but is argued to be acceptable with English seen as common language in social sciences and widely used in international business practice (Nickerson, 2005). The selection of a limited array of databases could be considered as points of criticism but this potential shortcoming was anticipated and responded to by manual search. Due to the high number of duplicates (see Figure 1), saturation or at least marginal utility can be assumed (Kittler et al., 2011). Moreover, the focus of this literature review was to identify relevant articles that dealt with the management of expatriates in HEs, articles looking at the impact on local employees have not been subject to this review but might provide additional insights. While local employees might feel equally threatened by the environment, expatriates are exposed to additional stressors such as intra- family conflicts and difficulties to adjust as described in the review.

2.2.6 Conclusion

This review was the first to systematically identify and report the literature concerning expatriation in HEs. In doing so, the researcher applied a multi-stakeholder perspective to outline the stakeholders (identified through the 28 articles) and their detrimental and beneficial effects on the expatriation success, demonstrating that the involvement of

various stakeholders can be a demand as well as a resource. Stakeholders investigated in the extant literature were the environment itself, the expatriate, the assigning organisation and the expatriate's social network (family and HCNs), with the latter group receiving far less research attention.

As hostility and risk appear increasingly mobile, more expatriates might find themselves in HEs in the future, which adds to the timeliness of this research issue. Besides its high relevance for practitioners, the review is also of relevance for scholars (e.g. Kittler, 2018; 2020) and has demonstrated that the respective literature is still in its infancy. More research is needed, especially in regard to important, yet neglected, stakeholders such as local subsidiaries, peers and supervisors. Synthesising the study's findings, the researcher shed light on the different approaches and how they are interrelated, and suggested additional theoretical perspectives (JD-R, PE-fit) to enhance our understanding of expatriates in HEs, possibly shifting the debate more towards expatriate wellbeing.

2.3 The Job Demands-Resources model

In today's fast-paced and competitive environment companies need engaged and committed employees to maintain innovation, competitiveness, and organisational performance and success. To attract and retain high profile employees, companies need to create working conditions that not only sustain but also promote their motivation and wellbeing (Fernet et al., 2014; Ployhart, 2006). This approach has been labelled in the literature as the management of *Human Capital*, an approach which is contrary to most of the traditional approaches that mainly focus on management control and economic principles such as cost reduction, efficiency, and cash flow (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008). As Ulrich (1997) framed it nicely, companies do not only need to engage the employees' body but also their mind and soul.

Several studies in the past have shown that unfavourable working conditions and job characteristics can lead to undesirable and severe outcomes, and often job stress, burnout, and disengagement are the consequences of demanding jobs that do not offer enough resources to meet these demands (Bakker et al., 2005). For a long time, it was believed that burnout and other health issues were exclusively found in the human services such

as social work, health care, and teaching. However, it seems that burnout is far-reaching, striking employees in various occupations and in various job positions (Demerouti et al., 2001). As burnout and work (dis)engagement can have profound consequences (e.g. absenteeism, turnover intensions, and decreased performance) not only for the individual employee but also for the organisation as a whole, the core question is: Which working conditions can prevent negative work-related outcomes and foster employee wellbeing and engagement (Bakker et al., 2014)? The JD-R model by Demerouti et al. (2001) is a theoretical framework which investigates this question and has been successfully applied within various working contexts.

2.3.1 Propositions of the model and its development over the years

The JD-R model is a theoretical framework which integrates the two distinct research traditions of stress research and motivation research (Demerouti and Bakker, 2011). In the first ten years (2001-2011) six major propositions of the model have been developed. Firstly, it proposes that all working conditions, specifically job characteristics, can be categorised into two broad categories: job demands and job resources. *Job demands* refer to all physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that constantly require physical and mental effort, which eventually lead to psychological or physical costs. Typical job demands are work overload, time pressure, or an unfavourable working environment. Per se job demands are not negative, but they can turn into job stressors when meeting those demands require surpassing effort from which the employee cannot recover (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Meijman and Mulder, 1998). In fact, there are studies that confirm a positive relationship between job demands and engagement (e.g. Cavanaugh et al., 2000). Based on the transactional theory of stress by Lazarus and Folkman, (1986) which implies that people judge stressful situations according to their potential to threaten or challenge their wellbeing, it can be suggested to distinguish job demands into challenge demands and hindrance demands. As the perception of demands influence subsequent emotions and cognitions which can later on influence how a person copes with these demands, challenge demands have the potential to promote mastery, personal growths, or future gains, whereas hindrance demands are usually perceived as demands that are threatening for personal growth, learning and goal attainment. Examples of challenge demands are high workload, time pressure, and high levels of job

responsibility, and they are often beheld as opportunities to learn and demonstrate the competence to be rewarded and hence can improve the engagement. Role conflict, role ambiguity, or organisational politics can be seen as examples of hindrance demands and are often perceived as constraints and barriers to achieve goals and rewards (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005).

Job resources in contrast refer to all aspects of the job that support achieving work goals, reduce the job demands, or promote personal growth and development. These resources are of an external nature, and can be differentiated between organisational resources, which include job control, potential for qualification, participation in decision-making, and task variety, and social resources, which could be support from colleagues, family, or peers (Demerouti et al., 2001). Therefore, job resources are not only important to balance the job demands, but also have their own mastery. This agrees with the job characteristics model by Hackman and Oldham, (1980) which outlines the motivational potential of job resources at the task level. Moreover, it ties in with the general idea of the Conservation of Resource (CoR) theory (Hobfoll, 2001), which states that human's main motivation lays in the preservation and amassing of resources. Therefore, resources play a key role on their own as they are needed to achieve and protect other valued resources (Demerouti and Bakker, 2011). While there are job demands and resources that can be found in almost every profession, such as work pressure and autonomy, other job demands and resources are particular. Hence, the model is flexible and applicable in various work contexts, as it can be customised to a specific occupation (Bakker et al., 2014; Llorens et al., 2006).

The second proposition of the model is that job demands and resources evoke two different, independent processes, the health-impairment process and motivational process. Whereas job demands are primarily responsible for negative outcomes such as exhaustion and strain, job resources are predicted to lead to positive outcomes such as motivation and work engagement. Results of Hakanen et al. (2005) confirm the dual process, and further indicate that the health-impairment path is more prominent than the motivational path. A possible explanation can, again, be found in the CoR theory (Hobfoll, 2001), which states that the resource loss is assumed to be more impactful than gaining resources. Accordingly, poorly designed jobs or chronic demands cause exhaustion as they use up the employee's mental and physical resources and deplete their energy. Eventually, this will lead to health problems. The availability of job resources on

the contrary has motivational potential and is predicted to lead to high work engagement, organisational commitment, better performance, and lower turnover intension (Bakker et al., 2003a).

Thirdly, the model suggests an interaction between job demands and resources, which plays a key role in the development of strain. It is proposed that job resources have the ability to buffer the impact of job demands on job strain and burnout. For example, the study of Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) in the home caring sector found that several job resources (autonomy, social support, performance feedback, and opportunities for professional development) were able to buffer the negative impact of job demands (emotional demands, patient harassment, workload, and physical demands). Respondents of their sample did therefore not experience high levels of exhaustion and cynicism when appropriate resource were made available to them. This assumption corresponds with the Demand-Control-Model (DCM; Karasek, 1979) and the Effort-Reward-Imbalance Model (ERIM; Siegrist, 1996). While the DCM proposes that task control (autonomy) may buffer the effect of high demands (work overload) on job stress, the ERIM states that rewards can diminish the impact of effort exploitation. The JD-R model extends these views by proposing that different types of job resources can buffer the effects of different job demands (Bakker et al., 2005). Further, employees with access to more resources can cope better with their job demands (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017).

The fourth proposition of the model is that job resources become particularly influential for the development of motivation and work engagement when job demands are high (Bakker et al., 2007). In other words, the greater the demands, the greater the transition of job resources to work engagement. Again, this is in line with the CoR theory (Hobfoll, 2001), which argues that resource gain on its own has only a modest effect, but in case of resource loss it becomes more salient. This means that resources unfold the full motivational potential when employees suffer from high job demands (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014). Karasek (1979) refers to such working situations as ‘active jobs’, jobs that combine high demands with high resources, and challenge and motivate the employee to engaging behaviours at work.

A fifth proposition of the model, but not quite developed yet, is the assumption that personal resources such as optimism and self-efficacy play a similar role as job resources. Personal resources could be defined as “psychological characteristics or aspects of the

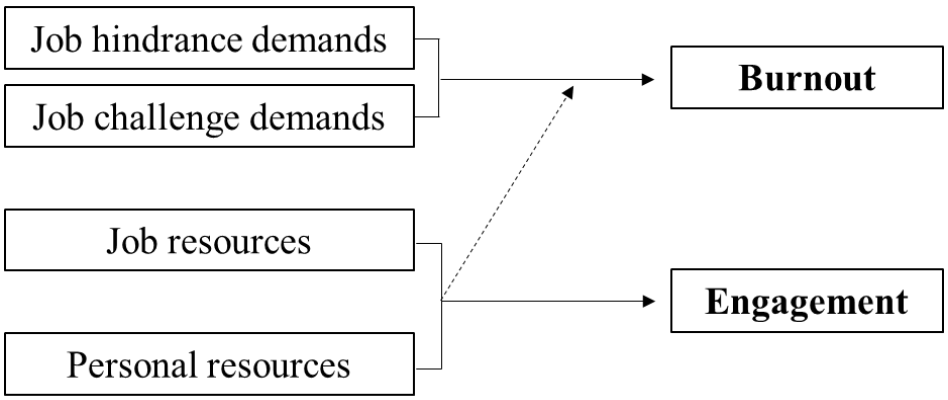
self that are generally associated with resiliency and that refer to the ability to control and impact one's environment successfully" (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014, p. 49). It is assumed that people with many personal resources are better able to cope with unexpected, negative events. Bakker and Demerouti (2017) propose that personal resources not only have a direct positive effect on work engagement, but can also buffer the negative impact of hindrance demands, and boost the motivational impact of challenge demands.

However, support for this proposition is still limited and so far the role of personal resources has been integrated into the JD-R model in five different ways (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). First, to test the direct impact of personal resources on wellbeing. For example, Xanthopoulou et al. (2009a) found that next to job resources, personal resources such as self-efficacy, optimism, and organisation-based self-esteem, were able to predict later work engagement. Second, to test the moderating role of personal resources between job characteristics and wellbeing. The study of Van den Broeck et al. (2011) supported the assumption that personal resources can buffer the negative effects of job demands on burnout and further strengthen the effect of job resources on engagement. They found that intrinsic work motivation intensified the negative relationship between learning opportunities and exhaustion and increased the positive effect of job autonomy on work engagement. Third, to test the mediating role of personal resources between job characteristics and wellbeing. To do so, Huang et al. (2016) uncovered that self-esteem and optimism were significant mediators for the health-impairment process, whereas optimism was for the motivation process. Similarly, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) found that self-efficacy, optimism, and organisation-based self-esteem mediated the positive relation between job resources and work engagement. These findings are consistent with the assumptions of the CoR theory (Hobfoll, 2001), which proposes that resources tend to accumulate. Two longitudinal studies further confirmed these results (Llorens et al., 2007; Simbula et al., 2011). Fourth, to test the influence of personal resources on the perception of job characteristics. For instance, Judge et al. (2000) argue that employee self-evaluations can determine how employees perceive characteristics of their job which in the later run would impact their job satisfaction and performance. This study reflects the proposition of the cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) which states that personal resources shape the way people understand their environment and react to it. Finally, to test personal resources as a third variable. As personal resources may affect both, the

perception of job characteristics and employee wellbeing, they maybe act as a third variable by explaining the relationship between them. Bakker et al. (2010a) investigated this and found that among their sample of Australian academics, extraversion was positively related to job resources and to organisational commitment, therefore partially explaining their relation (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017).

The sixth proposition of the JD-R model is that motivation has a positive and job strain a negative impact on job performance. It is assumed that motivation helps employees to be more task- and goal-orientated and they have the energy to perform well, whereas a lack of motivation and energetic resources leads to health-impairment and exhaustion (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). Taris (2006) showed in a meta-analysis that burnout was negatively related to job performance, while Xanthopoulou et al. (2009b) found out, in their study, that employees with more access to job resources were more motivated and had a better financial turnover. An overview of the six major propositions can be seen in Figure 2.3 below.

Figure 2.3: General propositions of the JD-R model



Whereas the first six propositions of the model have been backed up with evidence in hundreds of studies (see Bakker and Demerouti, 2014; Bakker et al., 2014), two further propositions have evolved in the past six years, with evidence not being as multitudinous yet. The studies of Hakanen et al. (2008a) and Xanthopoulou et al. (2009a) were among the first to suspect a reversed effect in the motivational process. The results of their studies presume that engaged employees keep their motivation and engagement, and over time develop even more resources. Again, this is consistent with the CoR theory (Hobfoll,

2001) which suggests that motivated individuals like to conserve their resources, and even try to expand them. One way of doing this is the idea of job crafting, where employees proactively change their work tasks and attitudes to make their work more meaningful (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001), and try to increase job resources and decrease job demands (Tims et al., 2012). In this way, employees can optimise their working conditions and enter the gain spiral of resources. Hence, the seventh proposition of the JD-R model is that employees who are motivated by their work are more likely to use job crafting behaviours, which in the long run, will lead to more job and personal resources, and higher level of motivation (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). A few studies already confirmed this proposition. For example, Tims et al. (2013) detected that job crafting (seeking challenges and creating more resources) led to beneficial changes in the work environment, which indirectly resulted in higher work engagement and job satisfaction, and decreased the risk of burnout. Vogt et al. (2016) came to similar conclusions and found that by proactively creating a challenging and resourceful work environment, employees were able to increase their own psychological capital and work engagement.

Reciprocal effects have also been found in the health-impairment process, suggesting that employees who experience high levels of stress and job demands, also perceive and create more job demands over time (see Demerouti et al., 2004; Bakker et al., 2000; Ten Brummelhuis et al., 2011). Bakker and Costa (2014) refer to this phenomenon as self-undermining behaviour in which employees create additional obstacles that decreases their performance. In their point of view, employees who show self-undermining behaviours will also experience high levels of job strain and are more likely to communicate poorly, make more mistakes, and create more conflicts which will add up to the already high job demands. It will therefore create a vicious cycle of job demands and strain, creating a loss spiral. Further, Bakker and Wang (2016) found that self-undermining behaviours was positively related to work pressure, emotional demands, and exhaustion (as cited in Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). This concludes an eighth proposition of the JD-R model which suggests that strained employees are likely to engage in self-undermining behaviours, which will lead to increased job demands, and higher levels of job strain (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017).

2.3.2 Advantages of the model and its unresolved issues with it

Together with Karasek's (1979) DCM and Siegrist's (1996) ERIM, the JD-R model is one of the leading stress models (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). Although their core assumptions partly overlap, the JD-R model has several advantages to the other two models. Bakker and Demerouti (2014) identified four major points of critique: one-sidedness, simplicity, static character of the models, and the changing nature of jobs. Often the research on motivation ignores the research on stress and vice versa. However, there is evidence that job stress is significantly related to motivation (Leiter, 1993). By only focusing on negative outcome variables, the DCM and ERIM emphasise this one-sidedness. The JD-R model, however, includes both, positive and negative indicators of wellbeing, and integrates an occupational health approach (reducing job stress and burnout) with an HR approach (increasing work motivation and engagement). This makes the model very comprehensive and attractive for practitioners and further facilitates communication about work and wellbeing, and helps to identify future actions (Schaufeli, 2017).

The simplistic assumption of both the DCM and ERIM that job demands often result in job stress when certain job resources are lacking is a major weakness of both models. Their assumptions are unrealistic as the reality of working organisations is much more complex and cannot be reduced to a handful of variables. In fact, research on stress and burnout has produced a long list of job demands and (lack of) job resources that are responsible for the development of negative work-related outcomes. The restricted and limited set of predictor variables may not be relevant for all job positions and occupations, hence bringing in question the models' universal applicability (Hakanen et al., 2005). The JD-R model in contrast is not restricted to specific job demands and resources, and can, through its flexibility, be tailored to many different work settings, which increases the attractiveness of the model for practitioners (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014).

It is also unclear why autonomy is the most important resource for employees in the DCM, and work pressure or effort are the most important job demands in the ERIM, while other aspects get completely neglected. It would be possible that in certain work environments totally different job demands and resources prevail. The static character of

both models does not leave room to integrate other work-related variables, which again makes them less universally applicable (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007).

And finally, the nature of jobs is changing rapidly with, for example, technology reshaping jobs, and employees negotiating their own work content and conditions. In other words, working conditions may prevail that did not exist when both models were developed, perhaps making the models outdated. The aforementioned flexibility of the JD-R model and its positive psychology approach may explain the popularity of the model which can be demonstrated by the numerous Google Scholar citations of the model's core papers (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017; Schaufeli and Taris, 2014).

Apart from its many advantages, the model is still facing some unresolved issues that should not be withheld. The critical review of Schaufeli and Taris (2014) identified six critical comments and unresolved issues of the model. The first issue is the descriptive nature of the model. While the model is helpful in identifying the relevant job demands and resources, it does not explain the underlying psychological processes, and other psychological resources are needed to explain why particular job demands interact with specific job resources. In other words, the model can provide answers for the 'what' but not the 'why'. A second issue is that the conceptual difference between job demands and resources is not as clear as it first seems. The flexibility of the model creates ambiguity whether a job characteristic is a demand or a resource (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017). For example, a certain type of demand or resource can be threatening for one employee, but motivating for another one, suggesting that people's perception and valuation is decisive. Therefore, Schaufeli and Taris (2014) suggest a redefinition of job demands and resources, claiming that job demands are those aspects of the job that are negatively valued, whereas job resources are all aspects that are positively valued. An attempt to solve this issue was the aforementioned distinction between challenge demands and hindrance demands (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005).

The third issue is the already mentioned unclear role of personal resources. While it is clear that personal resources do play an important role, it is not clear in which way they should be integrated into the model. Although there is evidence that personal resources can be conceptualised as a mediator or outcome in the model, they might even have a more complex role of modifying the impact of the work environment into positive or negative outcomes (Demerouti and Bakker, 2011). Also, the role of personal

vulnerability factors should but have not been considered yet. The fourth issue lays in the distinction between the health-impairment process and the motivational process. Whereas the model suggests that these are two independent processes, there are studies that detected direct links between the two. For instance, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found a direct relationship between job resources and burnout, and between burnout and the motivational process. Hence, the two processes should be studied jointly.

The fifth issue is that the initial model assumes straightforward unidirectional causal relations among demands, resources, and outcomes. However, longitudinal studies revealed that there is a reciprocal causation, especially in the motivational process (e.g. Hakanen et al., 2008a; Llorens et al., 2007). Results of these studies suggest the existence of gain cycles, meaning that resources (personal or job) and work engagement mutually influence each other. So far, research has not focused enough on systematically investigating dynamic relations among the concepts in the model (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). The final identified issue is the multilevel issue. Most studies of the JD-R model have focused on the individual level but should instead also have focused on the team and organisational level of analysis to, for example, explain the social-psychological process that captures shared perceptions and experiences. Demerouti and Bakker (2011) further point out that the JD-R model merely focuses on mental health outcomes but not on physical outcomes, and cannot answer whether specific job demands and resource are at a risk level, and require action.

2.3.3 Evidence for the model's ability to predict work-related outcomes

While for researchers the model itself and its underlying psychological processes are of great interest, practitioners are mainly interested in its work-related outcomes and the consequences for businesses. At this point, some studies shall be highlighted that have used the JD-R model to predict work-related outcomes such as performance, absence, or turnover intentions.

Starting with Bakker et al. (2003a), who applied the JD-R model to predict future company registered absenteeism among a sample of 214 nutrition production employees. Their results revealed that job demands were not only predictors of burnout but also, indirectly, of absence duration, which means the total length of time an employee is

absent over a specified period regardless of the number of absent spells. Job resources in contrast were predictors of organisational commitment and, indirectly, of absence spells, which refers to the absence frequency during a particular period, regardless of the length of each spell.

Another study by Bakker et al. (2004) used the JD-R framework to investigate the relationship between job characteristics, burnout and performance. They distinguished between in-role performance, which are required outcomes and behaviours that directly serve the goals of the organisation, and extra-role performance, which refers to all behaviour of the employee that are believed to directly promote effective functioning of an organisation without directly influencing an employee's target productivity. Their results of a sample of 146 employees across different sectors showed that job demands were the most important antecedents of the exhaustion component of burnout, which in turn predicted in-role performance. However, job resources were the most important antecedents of the disengagement components, shown to be the most important predictors of extra-role performance.

Bakker et al. (2003b) examined the predictive validity of the JD-R model for self-reported absenteeism and turnover intentions among a sample of 447 call centre employees. In this study, job demands were the most important predictors of health problems which in turn were related to sickness absence (duration and long-term absence), whereas job resources were the most important predictors of involvement, which in turn was associated with turnover intentions. Additionally, job resources had a weak negative relationship with health problems, which positively influenced turnover intentions.

Task enjoyment and organisational commitment was inquired in a study by Bakker et al. (2010b) among a sample of 12,369 employees from 148 different organisations. Results provided evidence for the assumption that employees engage in those favourable attitudes when both job demands and job resources are high. In particular, job resources (skill utilisation, learning opportunities, autonomy, colleague support, leader support, performance feedback, participation in decision making, and career opportunities) predicted task enjoyment and organisational commitment especially when job demands (workload and emotional demands) were high. Similar results on organisational commitment were found in the longitudinal study by Hakanen et al. (2008b) within a

sample of 2555 dentists, which suggest that job resources influence future work engagement, which in turn can predict organisational commitment.

A more recent study by Fernet et al. (2012) investigated the role of motivation in relation to job resources, occupational commitment, and emotional exhaustion. In doing so, they differentiated between autonomous motivation, in which employees act with volition, and controlled motivation, in which they act under internal or external pressure. They used data from 586 school principals and their results suggest that job resources had a positive effect on autonomous motivation but a negative effect on controlled motivation. Further, autonomous motivation had a negative effect on exhaustion but positive effect on commitment, while controlled motivation had a positive effect on exhaustion.

Results of the aforementioned studies show the high practical relevance of the JD-R model for meaningful work-related outcomes. Therefore, the authors of the JD-R model have developed an online survey tool ('Energy Compass') which helps organisations to identify relevant job demands and resources, to communicate current issues and problems, and to establish and control future interventions for the improvement of employee wellbeing (Schaufeli, 2017). Bakker and Demerouti (2014) divided interventions based on the intervention level (organisational vs individual), and the intervention target (work environment vs personal environment). For instance, job redesign is an intervention at the organisational level, aimed to increase job resources and decrease job demands by forming job conditions and tasks in a beneficial way. Job crafting in contrast is an individual-level intervention in which employees change the designs of their jobs by negotiating different job contents and tasks. Training is an organisational-level intervention that intends to provide employees with new skills that expand their technical knowledge and problem-solving abilities, thus an investment in their personal resources. Strength-based interventions are the counterpart of training at the individual-based level and can be achieved by employees using their personal strengths at work. Organisations can support this intervention by providing employees with regular feedback on their strengths and how to make use of them at the workplace.

2.3.4 Newest extension of the model: personal demands

While personal resources have previously been incorporated in the model, the potential influence of personal demands has not yet been investigated in great depth but is argued to be a valuable extension of the existing model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017; Lorente et al., 2008). The term "personal demands" shows differing interpretations and can be understood as either personality traits or characteristics that are associated with excessive effort investment in one's own performance (e.g. workaholism (Guglielmi et al., 2012), perfectionism (Kool et al., 2019)), or as some kind of impact or interference on one's personal life (Moloney et al., 2018; Salmela-Aro and Upadyaya, 2018).

More precisely, the study conducted by Guglielmi et al. (2012) found that personal demands expressed through workaholism had an effect on the development of burnout among 224 school principals and thus was rated an important variable for the health-impairment and motivational process. The authors considered workaholism as working excessively hard (behavioural dimension) and being obsessed with work (cognitive dimension). In a similar vein, the qualitative study by Kool et al. (2019) identified the personality trait of perfectionism as a personal demand relevant for the wellbeing of midwives. In contrast, Moloney et al. (2018) did not conceptualise personal demands as a personality trait but instead as some sort of interference with the employee's personal life. In their study among 2,876 nurses, they found that a greater work-life interference (defined as the inability to balance work and home responsibilities) resulted in higher chances of burnout and intentions to leave the job. Salmela-Aro and Upadyaya (2018) further revealed that personal demands in the form of economic problems and caregiving demands were associated with burnout and a decrease in work engagement in their sample of 1,415 health professionals.

Both perspectives on personal demands thus suggest an association with work-related outcomes, making personal demands a valuable extension of the JD-R model and predictor of employee wellbeing. In the expatriate context where the work and private domain are strongly intertwined (Bader and Manke, 2018; Shortland, 2016), the author expects personal demands to play an influential role on the wellbeing of the expatriate (see also Shaffer et al., 2012). The present study adopts the latter understanding of personal demands (some sort of interference with the expatriate's personal life) and thus investigates which interferences or personal demands expatriates experience in a HE.

2.3.5 The JD-R model in the international working context

Only few studies exist that have applied the JD-R framework to international work settings. However, a limited number of expatriate studies have used the model to categorise the working conditions of international assignments (Lazarova et al., 2010) but also as an underlying framework to explain assignment-related outcomes such as premature return (Cole and Nesbeth, 2014), adjustment (Dimitrova et al., 2019; Lazarova et al., 2010; Mahajan and De Silva, 2012), organisational and community embeddedness (Chen and Shaffer, 2016; Yunlu et al., 2018), career satisfaction (Dimitrova et al., 2019; Ren et al., 2013), performance (Lazarova et al., 2010) and the willingness to accept an assignment (Lee et al., 2019).

Starting with Lazarova et al. (2010) as the first expatriate study to recognise the value of the JD-R theory to investigate expatriation issues, the authors proposed a conceptual model to clarify the process by which expatriates perform as employees and partners. The process contains four stages: cognition (describing the circumstances of the assignment, represented by demands and resources), affect (the emotional response to cognition, in this study represented by adjustment), conation (the striving element of motivation, connecting cognition and affect to behaviour, in this study represented by engagement) and the resulting behaviour (represented by the expatriate's role performance in the work and family domain). In regards to the logic of the JD-R model, they argued that expatriation is characterised by several general, personal, work and family demands and resources such as cultural novelty (general demand), frequent business travel (work demand), pre-departure knowledge (personal resource), and spouse adjustment (family resource). Based on this, the authors propose that demands are negatively related to adjustment and resources are positively related to adjustment and engagement. Resources are further believed to buffer the negative impact of demands and adjustment, which in turn enhances the expatriate's work and family role performance.

The conceptual study by Mahajan and De Silva (2012) also relied on the assumptions of the JD-R model and proposed that support from HCNs (informational and social support) could be a valuable resource to buffer the negative impact of unmet assignment expectations on expatriate adjustment. In a similar vein, Dimitrova et al. (2019) found that the availability of job resources (job decision latitude, supervisor support) enabled

expatriates to recap the benefits of international business travel (which is neither a demand nor a resource as it can bring both) and achieve better adjustment, which in turn had a positive effect on their career satisfaction. The authors also found that job resources play a role in the relationship between international business travel and career satisfaction, primarily when the HC culture is similar to the home country culture.

In regards to career satisfaction, Ren et al. (2013) used the JD-R theory and relative deprivation theory (to guide the selection of demands and resources) to investigate repatriates' satisfaction with their career and found that the job demands of psychological contract breech associated with pay, career derailment and perceived underemployment had a negative impact on it. However, the two job resources of the repatriate's and organisation's perceived value of the assignment were able to moderate the aforementioned relationship.

A few more studies applied the JD-R theory and, for instance, found that the imbalance of demands and resources lead to assignment failure (premature return) for 64 expatriate families (Cole and Nesbeth, 2014). In particular, the lack of POS (e.g. inadequate and inflexible assignment policies and insufficient preparation and assistance with the relocation) was the most frequent cause of failure, followed by family issues, job and work environment factors (e.g. poor interaction with HCNs, excessive business travel) and contextual factors (e.g. great cultural differences, safety and security issues) (Cole and Nesbeth, 2014). Chen and Shaffer (2016) revealed that POS was perceived as a valuable resource among 147 SIEs, which stimulated autonomous and controlled motivation, which in turn led to organisational and community embeddedness. Similarly, Yunlu et al. (2018) drew on the motivational pathway proposition of the JD-R model and found that community relationship building (as a personal resource) was positively related to community embeddedness, which in turn was positively associated with expatriate retention cognitions. Lastly, the study by Lee et al. (2019) explained students' willingness to expatriate with the JD-R framework. They found that the personal resources of cultural intelligence mediated the relationship between intercultural experiences and expatriation willingness among 370 hospitality students.

Although the interest in the model's applicability in the international and expatriation context has certainly increased in the last years, an investigation of the demands and resources that can serve as predictors of expatriate burnout and work engagement is still

missing and should serve as an additional justification for the studies' aims. The following chapter further outlines the model's suitability.

2.3.6 Suitability for the present study

The JD-R model is a popular and well-cited framework to investigate working conditions and their impact on employee wellbeing (Schaufeli and Taris, 2014). Since its establishment (Demerouti et al., 2001) the model has constantly evolved and, according to a recent review by Bakker and Demerouti (2017), has generated eight major propositions regarding the role of job demands and resources. The flexibility and broadness of the JD-R model brings along many advantages to other prominent models in the stress and motivation literature, for instance the DCM and ERIM, which makes the model more applicable in a variety of work contexts and occupations, and increases its attractiveness for practitioners (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014). Underlining the practicality, the JD-R logic has been applied to predict work-related outcomes that are highly relevant for organisations, such as absence duration and frequency (Bakker et al., 2003a), in-role and extra-role performance (Bakker et al., 2004), organisational commitment and task enjoyment (Hakanen et al., 2008b; Bakker et al., 2010b), turnover intentions (Bakker et al., 2003b), and autonomous and controlled motivation (Fernet et al., 2012).

The systematic review by Rattrie and Kittler (2014) confirms the wide acceptance of the JD-R model in a domestic work context but alludes to the neglect of the model's application in an international work setting. The authors therefore suggest a stronger outlook on the job demands and resources for expatriates, with the specific recommendation to focus on under-researched regions, such as countries that bear high political and social risks, which have been found to trigger significantly higher stress levels for international staff (see Bader et al., 2015; Bader and Berg, 2013). Hence, the applicability of the JD-R model in various work settings and the lack of its international consideration provide justification for the theoretical framework for this research project.

2.4 Summary and key issues identified

Next to some key definitions concerning work-related wellbeing (see chapter 2.1.3) and the term expatriate (see chapter 2.1.1), the literature presented in chapter 2.1 has outlined that expatriation in non-hostile environments is associated with increased stress for the expatriates and their families, which often can be attributed to the need to adjust to the new work and living situation (see chapter 2.1.2). Failed adjustment has shown to lead to a range of negative outcomes for the organisation such as pre-mature return and decreased performance, resulting in serious costs for the assigning organisation. Yet, very few studies have focused on more individual-centred outcomes such as burnout – a phenomenon that is often associated with increased stress. While scholars argue that the assignment context is often perceived as more stressful than domestic work settings and hence makes expatriates particularly prone to burnout, little research exists to this day that investigates the issue of expatriate burnout and the limited evidence remains ambiguous (see chapter 2.1.4).

Chapter 2.2 narrowed the focus to expatriation in HEs, reporting the findings of a systematic review conducted as part of this thesis. Findings illustrate that in HEs, which are often characterised by increased physical threats and lower working and living standards (see definition in chapter 2.2.1), expatriates are confronted with additional, mostly safety-related stressors. Studies conducted in these contexts confirm a similarly negative response to stress, showing that the experienced stress leads to outcomes such as job and country leave intentions, difficult relationships with HCNs as well as decreased performance (see chapter 2.2.4.2). With the exception of one study, burnout has not been investigated in the context of expatriation in HEs, which seems surprising given the reported high stress levels of expatriates. The review has also highlighted that most studies focus on negative, organisational outcomes and the factors that can buffer the stress, mostly taking on a prevention perspective, with little known about the enablers of positive work-related outcomes (see chapter 2.2.5). It also became evident that the stress-outcome relationship has been mostly studied with the cognitive appraisal theory by Lazarus and Folkman (1980).

In chapter 2.3 the theoretical framework of the thesis, the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), was introduced with an overview of its main propositions and unresolved issues

(see chapter 2.3.1), advantages to other existing models (see chapter 2.3.2), and scholarly evidence to predict work-related outcomes (see chapter 2.3.3). Albeit the model has become an established occupational stress model in the domestic HR literature, little effort has been made to apply the model into international work settings (see chapter 2.3.5). The chapter also elaborated on new extensions of the model such as personal demands (see chapter 2.3.4), which could be argued to be of high relevance for the expatriate context and thus have been incorporated in the author's investigations.

Findings of both the narrative and systematic literature review seem to suggest that expatriates in general, but particularly in HEs, are confronted with high stress but almost no effort has been made so far to link the experienced stress to burnout, which according to Eriksson et al. (2009) seems like a scenario that is "a recipe for burnout" (p.681). Based on this, research question one was derived (see also chapter 1.3):

Are expatriates working in a HE, which is argued to be highly stressful, particularly at risk for the development of burnout?

The JD-R literature implies that the JD-R model might not only be an appropriate framework to investigate the above issue but can also address the gaps in the literature. By applying the JD-R model into the context of expatriation in HEs, the author would not only transfer one of the most cited stress models into a new context but could also, thanks to its flexibility, investigate positive work-related outcomes simultaneously. In addition to that, it would also investigate the stress-outcome relationship in HEs through a new theoretical lens, providing an alternative to the cognitive appraisal theory. Lastly, it would fit in nicely with the existing literature on expatriate management in HEs and the derived model (see Figure 2.2), as the demands of the JD-R model could be understood as the barriers of expatriation success and the resources as the facilitators. These arguments led to the derivation of research question two:

What are the context-relevant factors that can contribute to expatriate burnout and what factors can prevent this, ideally leading to work engagement?

The following chapter describes the methods used to answer the two proposed research questions.

3. Methodology

This chapter specifies and discusses the empirical approaches utilised in this thesis. Starting with a holistic view of the methodology, the chapter continues with the researcher's philosophical assumptions, the ethical considerations influencing the research design and method, and finishes with elaborations on the qualitative and quantitative studies.

3.1 Methodological overview

A mixed-method approach, as suggested by Creswell (2014), was used to identify and investigate the relevant job demands and resources for HEs. Mixed-methods involves the collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data that can then be connected. The distinct design used in this thesis is exploratory sequential mixed-methods (QUAL → QUAN) with the qualitative study being carried out first, building the basis for the quantitative study (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Morse, 1991).

Recognising the general issues of mixed-methods, namely it being a very time-consuming, costly and complex research design that requires two sampling strategies and the researcher to be familiar with both approaches (Creswell, 2014), as well as its ontological and epistemological issues (see chapter 3.2), the researcher was convinced of the methodological appropriateness for the following reasons. Mixed-method approaches have the potential to eliminate some of the problems associated with mono methods. They recognise that both qualitative and quantitative research methods are important and useful, and its application helps to minimise the schism between the two. It does not aim to replace either of these approaches, rather to generate a stronger interference, and to offset the disadvantages of each (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Molina-Azorin, 2012; Sechrest and Sidani, 1995). Johnson and Turner (2003) refer to this as the 'fundamental principle of mixed-methods research', implying that the combination of both methods should result in complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses.

By allowing the researcher to mix and match research components, mix-methods are expected to produce more complex knowledge and stronger evidence for conclusions. It can answer a broader range of research questions by granting the researcher the ability to both generate and verify theory in the same study (Molina-Azorin, 2012). Moreover, it can help to explain and interpret the results of the other method, to develop better measurements in the second phase of data collection and enable the researcher to compare different perspectives drawn from both methods (Creswell, 2014). Additional insights can be gained that might be missed using mono methods, also helping to increase the generalisability of findings. These additional insights are likely to produce a superior product that is often a more workable solution, which makes mixed-methods a more practical and outcome-orientated approach with techniques that are close to the methods of practitioners (Bryman, 2015; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Sechrest and Sidani (1995) claim that the ongoing debate on qualitative and quantitative methods hinders the advancement of social science and that good science is characterised by methodological pluralism.

From a theoretical perspective, mixed-methods is a suitable approach when positioning the JD-R model in a new context, as noted by Bakker et al. (2003b, p. 413) "Ideally, research with the JD-R model starts with a qualitative analysis, including organizational document research and explorative interviews with job incumbents from different layers of the organization. Such an analysis can reveal a wide range of potentially relevant job demands and resources, which can be examined quantitatively by including those constructs in a questionnaire".

The classic mixed-methods research involves in-depth interviews in combination with online questionnaires. While the qualitative data are intended to add depth, the quantitative data increases the breadth, with both together creating more accurate interferences. Most qualitative research questions serve exploratory purposes and are concerned with generating information about the unknown aspects of a phenomenon, whereas quantitative research questions often seek confirmation by testing theoretical propositions (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Based on this, the aims and procedures of the individual studies are as outlined below:

QUAL:

- Providing accounts of the working and living situation of expatriates in HEs
- Exploring and identifying context-relevant job demands and resources using thematic analysis of 42 in-depths interviews with expatriates working in HEs
- Advancing the theoretical extensions to the JD-R model in hostile work contexts by developing a survey instrument using themes from the interviews

QUAN:

- Operationalising identified job demands and resources potentially associated with burnout or engagement in items and scales and incorporating those in a tailor-made questionnaire
- Testing the extended model and the derived hypotheses (H1-H4)
- Using the results of the quantitative study to deviate interventions in HEs, aiming to reduce the job demands and increase the most important resources, and aiding the process of expatriate preparation, support and retention

3.2 Philosophical approach

At various stages of a research project, the researcher, whether consciously or unconsciously, makes assumptions about the nature of the world and the realities encountered during research (ontology), the creation of knowledge and how it is acquired (epistemology), and the extent of their own and/or participants' values influence the research process (axiology) (Saunders et al., 2016). These assumptions, the research paradigm, shape the research questions to be investigated, the methods used to provide an answer, and the interpretations of their findings (Neuman, 2011). Research in the field of HRM, or more broadly speaking social and behavioural research, has for a long time

witnessed the ‘paradigm debate’ which comprehends two evadable contradicting philosophical positioning – positivism and constructivism (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Positivists regard the world as objective, in which the knower and the known are independent from each other. They further believe that there is a single reality which can be observed and measured in an objective and value-free manner. Constructivists, in contrast, advance the view that there is no such thing as a single, objective reality. They claim that there are multiple, constructed realities in which inquiry is value-bound, subjective and the knower and the known are inseparable (Feilzer, 2010; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

Carrying out a quantitative study in which hypotheses are tested that are based on the pre-existing, objective assumptions of the JD-R model and measuring correlations of the variables in the adjusted model, one could argue that this study takes up a positivist stance. However, acknowledging participants’ perceptions about the environment and perceived job demands and resources, the researcher follows an exploratory method that falls under the realm of constructivism. By taking a quantitative purist position, the researcher would ignore that human interactions are subjective and that employees’ attitudes (e.g. the perception of job demands and resources) and behaviours (e.g. the development of burnout or engagement) are shaped by their individual values and beliefs. Employees’ subjective interpretations are crucial to provide plausible explanations and practical solutions for HRM. Nevertheless, with a qualitative purist position that would have not endorsed the testing of the extended model, the outcome of this study might have been seen as unsatisfactory. In order to examine relationships among employee attitudes, behaviours, and outcomes, it was required to assume a reality in which concepts can be operationalised and measured in an objective and independent manner.

According to the ‘incompatibility thesis’, this approach would be seen as not desirable (Howe, 1988). However, Feilzer (2010) argues that researchers “do not have to be a prisoner of a particular [research] method or technique” (p.8), and that the two main research paradigms have the same aim: seek to find the ‘truth’ whether it is an objective one or one with multiple realities. In a similar vein, Sechrest and Sidani (1995) add to this debate that, although both methods “differ in their philosophical assumptions and, consequently, the ways in which they go about collecting data and making sense of data,

their ultimate task and aims are the same: to describe their data, construct explanatory arguments from their data, and speculate why the outcomes they observed happened as they did" (p.78). In other words, both attempt to understand human beings and the world around them; the ultimate goals are the same, but the techniques to achieve those goals differ (Dzurec and Abraham, 1993).

The paradigm war focuses too strongly on the differences between the two orientations, but in fact there are many parallels between the two approaches. In practice, the line between quantitative and qualitative research is blurred with a lot of researchers claiming to be purist but blending both methods (Gueulette et al., 1999). The notion of a fully objective and value-free research, or vice versa, is a myth. Even in quantitative research, the researcher makes subjective decisions (e.g. which tests or items to use), whereas qualitative researchers constantly aim to establish rigor to achieve trustworthiness (Morse et al., 2002; Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005).

A solution to the alleged paradigm dilemma offers the pragmatist perspective. Pragmatism is not committed to one system of philosophy or reality; the research problem is 'central' and should drive the data collection and analysis methods used (MacKenzie and Knipe, 2006). It attempts to provide a workable, practical solution and hence approaches should be mixed to best possibly answer the research questions (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Saunders et al., 2016). The pragmatism paradigm is often associated with mixed-methods and has been described as the 'third research paradigm', helping to bridge the divide (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

Based on the previous discussion, the researcher feels drawn to the pragmatist approach, giving her the flexibility to conduct a qualitative and quantitative study within one research design. A purist position would not have led to the desired outcome of extending and testing the JD-R model in a new context and providing recommendations to HRM practitioners regarding expatriate management in HEs.

3.3 Ethical considerations

Approval for this research was sought from the General University Ethic Panel of University of Stirling prior to conducting any empirical work. Due to the research context and the individual experiences participants may have had working in a HE, it was important to consider potential ethical issues when designing and executing the research. The sensitivity of this research project and the possibility of touching on very personal episodes and events in the participants' lives that could cause emotional stress or discomfort, required for certain safety measures to be set in place. Four areas of concern, mostly for the qualitative study, were identified and the researcher consulted the relevant policies and guidelines of the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) to address those challenges.

Firstly, informed consent. To ensure that all potential participants were familiar with the study's purpose and their role in the procedure of data collection, a 'Participant Information Sheet' (including information on the study's aim, research team, possible benefits of participation, participation recruitment, voluntary participation, participant's rights to withdraw from the study, confidentiality, recordings during the interview, interview schedule and questions, data storage, dissemination of results, and future participation in studies) was sent out prior to any further steps. At the start of the form, the researcher asked potential respondents to read the form carefully to be thoroughly informed in order to make a reasoned decision about their participation. Emphasis was placed on informing the respondents that their participation was completely voluntary, and they had the right, at any point, to discontinue the interview, skip certain questions without giving a reason, or withdraw their given answers. Respondents were provided with the interview guide prior to the interview which gave them the option to go through the questions beforehand, refuse participation or identify questions they may not have wanted to answer. The researcher enquired if that was the case at the beginning of each interview. Respondents were also made aware of the researcher's preference to record the interview to ease the process of data analysis by using transcripts of the recorded interviews. However, if a respondent did not agree to be recorded the researcher took detailed notes instead.

Respondents were further assured that all their information given (audio files and transcribed interviews) was totally confidential by removing all names and other details that could identify them, and that the individual results were only accessible for the researcher and the project supervisor. If a respondent wished, the interview, once transcribed, was sent to them for their approval with the option to eliminate all or parts of it. All gathered data was stored on password-protected servers at all times. At the end of the 'Participant Information Sheet', the researcher asked for the respondents' permission to keep any personal details to be contacted again for follow-up studies, and made them aware that if they do not wish to, they should not initial the box on the consent form. Respondents were provided with the researcher's and project supervisor's contact details to ask questions or discuss any further matters.

Secondly, data storage and archiving. In line with the Data Protection Act 2018 and the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) as well as the University's Data Classification and Handling Policy, all data collected was classified and handled as restricted data. This means that only the researcher and her supervisor had access to the audio files and transcribed interviews. All digital data was kept in password-secured folders, whereas paper records were never left unattended and kept in locked cabinets. When respondents required to approve the transcribed interviews, these were sent via encrypted emails. In line with the University's policy on data archiving, data will be kept for at least ten years after the award of the PhD. Respondents were made aware of this. After this period, all electronic data will be wiped clean and paper records discarded in confidential waste bags.

Thirdly, prevention of harm or distress. It was possible that respondents sensed emotional distress depending on their personal experience, particularly in relation to the threat of terrorism or crime. While it was the intention of this research project to investigate how external factors, such as terrorism and crime, influenced the working circumstances of an expatriate, it was not proposed to ask respondents about their experience of terrorism or crime per se. However, it was possible that some of the respondents had previously been exposed to terrorism and crime (either directly or indirectly) in which case the following safety measures needed to be put in place.

The participant information sheet, the notice of sensitive research topics, and the interview guide provided the potential respondents with all necessary information to make a reasoned decision whether they wanted to participate, and their rights to discontinue or take a break from the interview. In particular, the 'Notice of sensitive research topics' made respondents aware that due to the nature of the research project, it was possible that the interview might touch on periods or events in their life which are quite personal, or that unexpected emotions or discomfort could occur during or after the conversation. At this point, the researcher, once again, made the respondents aware of their right to withdraw from the interview at any time, and was prepared to provide them with contact details of 24/7 helplines. In this form, the researcher also encouraged respondents to choose a location and timing for the interview, in which they felt particularly safe and comfortable, and to contact their local health service or general practitioner if any long-term support was requested.

The interview questions gave participants an idea of what to expect and the opportunity to identify questions they wished not to answer. It should be noted that the research did not intend to ask any direct questions on sensitive issues such as the experience of violence, or feelings after a terrorist attack or crime incident. However, if the researcher got the impression that a respondent got emotionally distressed during the interview, the researcher would have offered to pause or discontinue the interview. In order to not put the respondent or the researcher at any risk, interviews were carried out via Skype. This format also allowed participants to respond from home, from a private and intimate environment, without invading their personal space and giving them the opportunity to withdraw more easily.

During the pilot study (see Faeth and Kittler, 2017), for which the University gave ethical approval, the researcher was able to gain experience in conducting interviews with expatriates working in dangerous locations, and got the impression that expatriates in those environments felt the desire and urge to discuss the challenges employees face in those contexts. This enabled her to get appropriately acquainted with sensitive research topics. Further based on her experience as an HR professional in an international consultancy firm, she felt confident to deal with an upset participant or discontinue the interview in the case that she felt uncomfortable or overwhelmed with any situation during the interview.

Lastly, internet-media research. In accordance with the guidelines of the British Psychology Society (BPS) and the Association of Internet Researchers (AoIR) further safety measures had to be implemented when using the internet for data collection. Skype has several privacy and security settings that help make internet-media research more confidential and secure. The function 'clear history' was used to irrevocably remove the entire history of messages and (video) calls from the researcher's device after every interview. Skype uses Advanced Encryption Standards, also known as Rijndael, which means that all Skype-to-Skype voice and video transfers are encrypted, and cannot be eavesdropped by malicious users. The researcher only used the safe internet connection of the University, and if the researcher was off-campus, she used a VPN connection. The personal devices of the researcher were all equipped with appropriate anti-virus software and regular safety updates of the device and relevant programmes were made. The researcher only used official Microsoft or Apple programmes to record, transcribe and analyse the data.

3.4 Study 1: Method of the qualitative study

Expatriates working in HEs were interviewed in an exploratory manner to grasp a picture of their everyday life, their perceptions about context-relevant job demands and resources, as well as other matters outside of work. A qualitative approach was considered to be appropriate to explore this sensitive research topic and gave the researcher the opportunity to gain insights into a complex research setting that the researcher has never experienced herself. An in-depth understanding was obtained by talking to participants who had the knowledge of and experience with the problem under investigation, portraying their individual perceptions and opinions. Qualitative interviews further allowed the researcher to be responsive to all changes, including embedding new themes into the interviews that occurred during the data collection (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Rubin and Rubin, 2012; see also Rubin and Rubin 1995).

To ensure rigor of the qualitative study, the concept of trustworthiness was followed, applying several verification strategies during the research process (Morse et al., 2002).

Trustworthiness consists of four aspects: Credibility which refers to the researcher's confidence in how well data and its analysis address the intended focus, dependability, being concerned with the study's consistency over time, transferability, considering the extent findings can be transferred to other settings, and confirmability ensuring findings emerge from the data and not the researcher's predispositions (Graneheim and Lundman, 2004; Shenton, 2004). Although qualitative research does not share the same intentions and assessment criteria as quantitative research, the principals of trustworthiness correspond to internal validity (vs credibility), reliability (vs dependability), generalisability (vs transferability), and objectivity (vs confirmability) in quantitative approaches (Morrow, 2005). Guidelines and strategies to achieve trustworthy research were followed, as suggested by Graneheim and Lundman (2004), Morrow (2005), and Shenton (2004).

Aspects of trustworthiness	**Steps taken to achieve trustworthiness**
Credibility	**Appropriate research design:** Mixed-methods were chosen as a suitable approach for applying the JD-R model in a new context; qualitative study provided answers to the exploratory research questions and quantitative study for confirmability/explanatory research questions, compatible with the research philosophy of pragmatism, adequate sampling strategy (purposive and random), accepted approach of data analysis (inductive and deductive, micro and macro level). **Diverse sample:** Selection of participants of each gender, of different origins, assigned to different locations, in different managerial positions, with different levels of experience, from different types of organisations, and in different life circumstances. **Rich descriptions:** Illustrative quotations were used in the findings section to describe participants' perceptions. **Pilot study:** For the development of an early familiarity with the research context and population, a pilot study was carried out and published. **Tactics to ensure participants' honesty**: An information sheet about the study and a consent form were sent out prior to the interview to give participants enough background information, leaving them the opportunity to refuse participation or withdraw at

	any point (see chapter 3.3). Participants were encouraged by the researcher to be frank and that there were no right or wrong answers. **Prolonged engagement with participants:** The researcher introduced herself to potential participants before sending out recruitment material. Social networks were also used to stay in touch with participants or to inform them about the progress of the study. **Iterative questioning:** Probes were used to clarify questions or answers given by the participants. **Debriefing sessions:** Regular meetings with the project supervisor were held to discuss future steps and progress made. The coding manual was cross-checked by the supervisor. **Participant checks:** Interview transcripts were sent back to participants, mainly for ethical reasons but also to check their accuracy. **Peer scrutiny:** Presentations were given at international conferences in front of leading authors/experts in the field to discuss research design, methods used and findings. **Researcher's reflectivity:** An audit trail and research diary were used to capture observations, initial thoughts, experiences, special details, decisions made, and pitfalls to avoid. **Concurrent data collection and analysis:** The interviews were transcribed and analysed immediately so that new themes could be included in future interviews.
Dependability	**In-depth methodological description**: The procedures of data collection and analysis were described in detail so that the steps were replicable (e.g. development of coding manual, audit trail, reflective diary). **Data collection within a short time frame**: The interviews were conducted within 6 months to avoid inconsistency over time. **Similar interview conditions**: All interviews were carried out via Skype and the interview guide ensured that all participants were questioned in the same areas.

Transferability	**In-depth details on research context and participants:** By providing clear definitions of a HE and the term expatriate (see chapter 2.2.1) as well as the participant selection criteria (see chapter 3.4.1) the researcher leaves it up to the reader whether findings could be transferred to other contexts.
Confirmability	**Acknowledging of subjectivity:** The researcher accepted that objectivity was at times impossible to guarantee (see chapter 3.2). **Data presentation**: The individual steps of the study as well as their findings were presented appropriately so that the reader can confirm the accuracy, leaving room for alternative interpretations. **Data-orientated approach:** Inductive and deductive approaches were applied, letting the data shape the theory-building and practical recommendations. **Data structure**: The steps of the theory development were represented diagrammatically. **Limitations of the study**: The shortcomings and limitations were openly discussed (see chapter 7.2).

3.4.1 Sample

To obtain interview participants, two recruitment strategies via international networking websites were pursued. At first, several announcements were placed on portals such as LinkedIn, Internations, and Xing explaining the nature of the research project and asking individuals to confidentially discuss their experiences as an expatriate in a HE. This request was also circulated in the monthly newsletter of the German Association of Expatriates (BDAE). However, this recruitment strategy did not yield any interested participants, wherefore a second, cold-calling approach was followed. The researcher used LinkedIn to hand search participants by using appropriate search settings and filters and approached individuals that publicly stated to be working in a HE directly via the private message function.

In order to be considered, potential participants had to be expatriates working in HEs. As there are various understandings of the term expatriate (see Andresen and Biemann,

2013; Cerdin and Selmer, 2014; Shaffer et al., 2012), this study applied McNulty and Brewster's (2017) definition of a 'business expatriate' (see also chapter 2.2.1). Hence, it was decisive that individuals were legally employed, not a native to the country assigned to, did not have the intention to permanently settle there, and their main motivation to relocate was the job itself or career-driven. It was not relevant whether the individual was a self-initiated or assigned expatriate (Suutari and Brewster, 2000). A HE was demarcated as a country that poses a (potential) physical threat to the expatriate in the form of terrorism, civil war, or an above-average crime situation (see also chapter 2.2.1). To identify countries, official statistics and travel warnings were consulted (e.g. Global Terrorism Index 2018, Terrorism and Political Violence Map 2018, World Bank's 2019 Homicide Rate) for countries stating a high or very high threat impact.

The recruitment of participants proved challenging overall. Private account settings and limited free communication between users made it difficult to identify and approach individuals. In total, 136 individuals were contacted on LinkedIn and invited to participate, of which 24 expatriates agreed to be interviewed resulting in a response rate of 18%. While more individuals showed interest in the research project, busy schedules or confidentiality policies of their employer made an interview impossible. To generate more interview partners, participants were kindly asked to pass on the researcher's request to colleagues or expatriate friends that might be willing to participate. After six months, the data collection was completed with a total number of 42 in-depth interviews, generated by a mixture of non-probability purposive (n=24) and snowball (n=18) sampling (Patton, 1990). The composition of the sample can be seen in the table below.

Table 3.1: Sample qualitative study

P. No.	Host country	Nationality	Gender	Age	Sector	Family status	Family's residence
1	Libya	Dutch	female	48	NGO	single	N/A
2	Kenya	Mozambican	male	46	NGO	single, children	host
3	Kenya	American	male	38	NGO	married, children	host
4	Honduras	French	female	35	NGO	single	N/A
5	Uganda	Kenyan	female	35	MNC	married, children	host
6	Kenya	Romanian	female	27	NGO	married, children	host
7	South Africa	British	male	65	MNC	married, children	host
8	Brazil	Dutch	male	29	MNC	single	N/A
9	Turkey	Bosnian	female	38	NGO	married, children	host
10	DR Congo	Burkinabé	male	50	NGO	married, children	host
11	Iraq	German	female	43	NGO	single	N/A
12	South Africa	American	female	43	NGO	partner	host
13	Somalia	Canadian	male	45	NGO	married	home
14	Uganda	Kenyan	female	34	MNC	single	N/A
15	Brazil	Dutch	male	31	MNC	partner	host
16	Colombia	British	male	45	NGO	partner	host
17	Mexico	British	male	31	MNC	single	N/A
18	Brazil	Canadian	male	37	MNC	single	N/A
19	Nigeria	German	male	37	MNC	single	N/A
20	Ethiopia	Belgian	male	32	NGO	partner	home
21	Central African Rep.	Belgian	male	28	NGO	single	N/A
22	Iraq	British	male	60	MNC	married, children	home
23	Central African Rep.	French	female	25	NGO	single	N/A
24	DR Congo	Italian	male	56	MNC	married, children	home
25	South Africa	German	male	35	NGO	partner	host
26	Nigeria	German	male	31	MNC	partner	host
27	Afghanistan	German	male	45	NGO	married, children	home
28	Syria	Lebanese	male	44	MNC	married, children	home
29	Niger	German	male	32	NGO	partner	home
30	Sudan	Australian	female	54	NGO	married	host
31	Iraq	British	male	38	MNC	partner	home
32	Haiti	French	male	37	NGO	partner	home
33	Iraq	British	male	36	MNC	single	N/A
34	Kenya	American	female	35	NGO	partner	host
35	Papua New Guinea	Australian	male	27	MNC	partner	host
36	Iraq	Swedish	male	48	NGO	single, children	home
37	Central African Rep.	American	female	27	NGO	single	N/A
38	Central African Rep.	Colombian	male	35	NGO	single	N/A
39	Somalia	British	male	53	NGO	married, children	home
40	Yemen	British	male	55	NGO	married, children	home
41	El Salvador	German	female	27	NGO	partner	host
42	Central African Rep.	French	female	27	NGO	partner	home

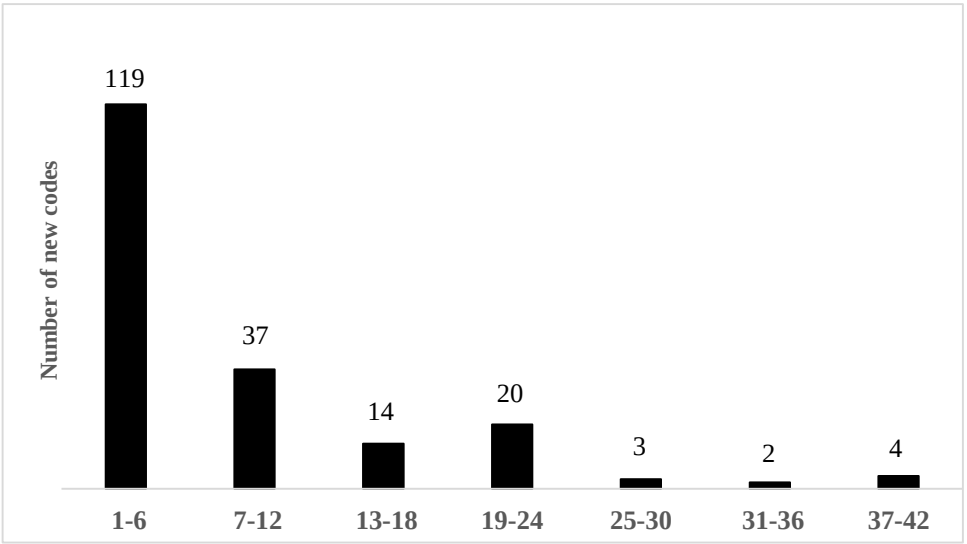
Samples for qualitative studies are generally much smaller than those in quantitative studies as more qualitative data does not necessarily lead to more information (Mason, 2010). How many interviews are required is difficult to determine prior to data collection and analysis. The simplistic answer would be, how many interviews are needed to conduct credible research, but the more methodological answer is saturation (Green and Thorogood, 2014). In the literature, saturation is often referred to as the point where collecting more data does not obtain new information and the researcher has confidence in the data's adequacy and comprehensiveness (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Morse, 1995). Saturation will be determined by a number of factors such as complexity and aims of the study (Charmaz, 2014), the quality of data and information obtained from each participant, the study's design (Morse, 2000), the expertise and experience of the researcher (Jette et al., 2003), the heterogeneity of the sample, as well as the number of selection criteria (Mason, 2010). However, in practice funded researchers or researchers with a time constraint may not have the option to continue an open-ended research until saturation has occurred. Often research proposals for funding bodies or ethics committees require to specify who and how many participants will be interviewed. Time, money, and the ease to identify and recruit participants will therefore strongly influence the point of saturation (Green and Thorogood, 2014; Ritchie et al., 2013). Recognising or proving saturation presents a challenge as there are no established methods or guidelines of when and how saturation is reached (Bowen, 2008; Francis et al., 2010). In fact, saturation has become a "routine disclaimer" in qualitative papers (Green and Thorogood, 2014, p. 122). As not the data itself is saturated, but the categories or themes of the raw data, it is suggested to referrer to "theme saturation" rather than "data saturation". Hence, when all data falls under existing categories and no new themes emerge, saturation is achieved (Constantinou et al., 2017).

This study followed the guidelines suggested by Guest et al. (2006), namely that saturation has occurred when adding new data produces little or no change to the existing codebook. In their study, they a posteriori checked how many of their 60 interviews conducted were needed to claim saturation and found that after the first 12 interviews most codes had been developed. However, as this is likely to be unique to every individual study (Creswell, 2014), it is advised to have a general yardstick prior to data collection at which point saturation is likely to occur (Guest et al., 2006). There seems to be no consensus in the literature about appropriate sample sizes in qualitative studies.

Some have suggested 15 interviews as the minimum sample size (Bertaux, 1981), with others limiting the sample size to a maximum of 50 individuals in order to not sacrifice the quality of data collection and analysis (Ritchie et al., 2003), and others appointing an ideal sample size between five and 25 interviews (Creswell, 2014). Looking at 560 qualitative PhD studies, Mason (2010) found 31 interviews to be the mean sample size. Hence, the researcher determined, prior to data collection, that a minimum of 31 interviews was needed but not to exceed the number of 50, keeping the amount of data at a manageable level (Ritchie et al., 2013).

Following the steps of Guest et al. (2006), the progression of theme identification (the development of codes) was documented after each set of six interviews for a total of seven rounds. After analysing all 42 interviews, the codebook contained 199 individual codes, all of which had been applied to at least one transcript. As can be seen in Figure 3.1, the major thematic discovery occurred during the first 24 interviews, with the very last code being developed in interview 38. Based on this, saturation can be assumed for a specific category.

Figure 3.1: Code development during analysis



3.4.2 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews were conducted in an in-depth, semi-structured manner, meaning that questions were open-ended and their use flexible, intending to gather rich and detailed information about the participants' perceptions and experiences pertaining to the research topic (McIntosh and Morse, 2015; Rubin and Rubin, 2012). In semi-structured interviews, participants are encouraged to talk freely and have the opportunity to discuss issues that are of importance to them and that the researcher perhaps did not anticipate (Blumberg et al., 2011).

For various reasons, Skype was chosen as the most appropriate interview technique. First, due to the study's research context (HEs) the General University Ethics Panel raised major safety concerns. It was agreed upon that face-to-face interviews with participants in the field would have been too dangerous for both the researcher and the participants. Second, since an effort was made to have a great variety of assignment (high-risk) countries, travelling to all destinations would have been too time-consuming and not cost-efficient. Third, Skype gave participants the opportunity to be interviewed from across the globe within their busy schedules. Last minute cancellations or time changes were also easier to manage this way.

Acknowledging the method-specific difficulties such as connectivity problems, interrupted conversations (Hay-Gibson, 2009), hindrance of rapport with and openness of participants (Bertrand and Bordeau, 2010; Oates, 2013), Skype was seen as the best compromise in the given research context. Previously, Voice over Internet Protocol (VOIP) formats have been successfully applied in studies where the research circumstances were politically or physically difficult (Bruneau and Saxe, 2012). With Skype, both researcher and participant are able to conduct the interview in a 'safe location' without imposing on each other's personal space, making it easier for participants to withdraw from the conversation at any time (Hanna, 2012; Oates, 2013; Redlich-Amirav and Higginbottom, 2014). Interviews via VOIP are considered to be less intrusive to participants than a physical visit, perhaps positively influencing their disclosure over a sensitive research topic (Hay-Gibson, 2009). Furthermore, it increases the access to and availability of a purposive sample as interviews can be arranged from anywhere in the world, at short notice (Deakin and Wakefield, 2013). Nowadays, Skype

is a widely accepted tool for business and research as the face-to-face experience remains via the camera feature, but the private space elements can also be preserved with its audio call function (Redlich-Amirav and Higginbottom, 2014).

To provide a systematic, comparable and time-efficient interview procedure, an interview guide with exemplary questions was developed (Patton, 1990). However, its use varied from participant to participant, depending on the flow of conversation and individual responses. The interview guide also helped to remain focused during the interview, ensuring that all relevant issues were being covered and avoiding answers losing their relevance (Saunders et al., 2016). Two pilot interviews with respondents in the researcher's personal network were undertaken to probe the appropriateness and clarity of interview questions. A mixture of demographic, experience/behaviour, opinion/value, and feeling questions were asked (Patton, 1990).

Each interview started with introductory questions, asking participants to give a few background information about themselves (e.g. age, family status, nationality), then moved on to experience questions aiming to capture experiences, behaviours, actions, and activities. For instance: Which country are you currently assigned to? How did the relocation happen? What does a typical working day of yours look like? How would you describe your lifestyle overseas? It is advised to start with this type of questions as they are easy to answer, allowing the participant to feel comfortable and confident, and can help to build rapport and trust between researcher and interviewee (Braun and Clark, 2013; Patton, 1990). Questions then continued in a more evaluative and judgemental fashion including questions such as: How satisfied are you with your assignment location? How satisfied were you with the relocation support? What aspects of your job/assignment do you enjoy the most? What aspects of your job/assignment do you find most demanding? What are valuable resources you draw on to respond to those demands? Is there anything your employer could do to improve your situation? Opinion/value questions have the intention to explore what people think about particular issues and to get an understanding of their goals, intentions, and desires (Patton, 1990). The researcher used these questions to allow the participants to describe and evaluate their situation, with the aim to reveal (context-) relevant job demands and resources. Another category of questions was feeling questions, helping to understand participants' emotional responses and thoughts about their experiences (Patton, 1990), getting an impression of

the potential impact the environment had on expatriates. For example: Would you say that you are happy in your current situation (private and job wise)? Do you think that the demands you just described have an impact on your wellbeing or your attitudes towards your job? In your current situation, do you sometimes feel exhausted or less engaged at work? Interviews concluded with a closing question, giving participants the opportunity to raise issues that were important to them and had not been covered in the interview. Typical closing questions were: What advice would you give to a friend thinking of taking an assignment in a similar context? What do you think are the aspects someone needs to consider before moving to a HE? After every interview, the researcher gave participants the opportunity to ask questions and informed them about the following procedures such as transcription of interviews and dissemination of results (Braun and Clark, 2013).

With the permission of respondents, interviews were audio recorded to help the researcher to fully engage with the participant and to aid the following data analysis. All participants gave their consent to be audio recorded, except for one respondent. In this case, the researcher took notes instead which got sent to the participant afterwards to check their accuracy and to add missed, important points. The 42 interviews lasted between 22 and 90 minutes, creating a total of 1690 minutes of audio material to be transcribed. Although 30 minutes were scheduled for the interview, more than half of the interviews went over the allocated time. This was not due to bad time management but to a genuine interest of the participants to contribute to the study, highlighting the topic's importance to the interviewees. Many respondents stated how important it was that "finally someone started to look at these issues", with one respondent even answering the interview guide again after the interview, helping her to reflect upon and process past events.

Organising interviews and finding a suitable time slot proved difficult as a lot of the respondents were also engaged in a high frequency of business travel. Time differences of more than 10 hours and unreliable internet connections created additional challenges. Often interviews had to take place between business meetings or while participants were on leave back home. This meant that sometimes interviews took place months after the initial contact, prolonging the phase of data collection. Overall, respondents were very open and honest, reporting and expressing a lot of personal experiences and opinions.

While no participants refused to answer any interview questions, some did not wish to be anonymously quoted directly.

3.4.3 Data analysis

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the data which is a systematic approach for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns and themes within a data set, providing rich and detailed, yet complex, accounts of it (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). In particular, theoretical thematic analysis was applied with the JD-R model guiding the analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2013). Using thematic analysis means to code the data to recognise themes relevant to the research questions for further analysis (Saunders et al., 2016). Coding condenses the data into meaningful and analysable units (Miles and Huberman, 1994). A theme, in contrast, is a broad category that contains several codes related to one another, consisting an issue important to the research question (Bryman and Bell, 2015). The importance of a theme is not determined by the frequency of its occurrence but rather its meaningfulness to answer the research question. This is probably the most obvious demarcation to the related method of content analysis, which allows to quantify the number of instances a category has been used within the text (Joffe, 2012).

The method of thematic analysis was considered to be appropriate for this study as it is a very flexible approach that is suitable for a variety of research questions, not tied to a philosophical position, and can be used in a deductive and inductive manner (Braun and Clark, 2013; Saunders et al., 2016). Furthermore, it aids in the preparation of qualitative data in order to generate hypotheses or build theoretical models, making this a suitable approach for mixed-methods (Boyatzis, 1998; Guest et al., 2012). Crabtree and Miller (1992) refer to this as “qualitative positivism”.

Braun and Clarke’s (2006) clear and precise guidelines for thematic analysis, consisting of six distinct phases, were followed to carry out the data analysis. In the first phase, all interviews were transcribed in a verbatim approach (McLellan et al., 2003). While transcribing can be a very time-consuming task, it should not be seen as wasted but rather as a useful, first stage of analysis (Riessman, 1993). By transcribing all interviews

herself, as opposed to using a transcription service, the researcher was able to familiarise herself with the data and take notes about initial observations and ideas. In the second phase, the researcher started generating initial codes by reorganising similar data units into categories. As suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990) the procedure of open, axial, and selective coding was followed and aided by the software NVivo 11. Although the study was guided by the JD-R framework, high-quality qualitative work should use a dual approach of deductive and inductive coding (Joffe, 2015). Therefore, open coding of the entire data set was carried out in an inductive manner, allowing other important, perhaps not JD-R related, themes to emerge. Coding inductively at a later stage of analysis would have probably led to a stronger bias of the researcher and perhaps a lack of engagement. When coding the interviews, appropriate segmentation was done with care by including the surrounding text that reflected the context of individual statements (Guest et al., 2012).

In the third phase, axial coding was undertaken to identify relationships between the codes and to see how different codes may be combined into an overreaching theme. When developing themes, the approach became more deductive by reviewing which of the initial codes fitted under the broad categories of the JD-R model. Codes that did not fit under one of the JD-R related themes were either formed into their own theme or clustered under the category "miscellaneous". A thematic map was drafted for the visual representation of the different levels of themes (Braun and Wilkinson, 2003). The fourth phase included the revision and refining of themes by reading all collated interview extracts for each theme and considering whether they formed a coherent pattern, and by reflecting on the validity of individual themes in relation to the entire data set. This step included re-reading the entire data, to also code any additional data within themes that had been missed at earlier stages. In the last phases of analysis selective coding was applied to identify principal themes. Themes were more closely defined, outlining their importance and relation to the research questions, and appropriate names were given by consulting existing literature (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015). Lastly, a data structure was developed as suggested by Gioia et al., (2013) to demonstrate the process of coding (see Appendix II).

3.5 Study 2: Method of the quantitative study

A cross-sectional quantitative study was conducted to test the hypotheses derived from the qualitative study and to make assumptions whether the propositions of the JD-R are also applicable in the expatriate/hostile working context. In doing so, findings of the qualitative study are projected to a larger population of expatriates, gaining a more holistic view on the research problem and increasing the confidence of the study's overall findings. To produce rigorous results, the concepts of reliability and validity were considered throughout.

Reliability refers to the consistency of instruments (i.e. the extent a measure is stable over time and leads to the same results when replicated) and was achieved by applying the internal consistency approach (Saunders et al., 2016). Acceptable Cronbach's alpha scores of the measures chosen served as a criterion for reliability as well as a necessary, yet insufficient, condition of validity, which refers to the instrument's ability to measure what is intended to be measured (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Field, 2013).

3.5.1 Sample

To recruit for the quantitative study, three different strategies were carried out. Firstly, an email was sent out to the participants of the qualitative study who had given their consent to be contacted again with the kind request to forward the survey link to colleagues and friends. Due to the difficulties of gaining access to participants, this was seen as a valuable opportunity to generate an acceptable sample size but may have led to some limitations (see chapter 7.2). Secondly, a cold calling approach was followed by contacting individuals directly via LinkedIn. Search setting, selection criteria, and ethical considerations were identical to the qualitative study (see chapter 3.4.1). Lastly, the survey link was placed in expatriate forums as well as the researcher's LinkedIn news feed, resulting in other expatriates sharing the research request. Again, a mixture of a non-probability purposive and snowball sample was generated (Patton, 1990). Due to the anonymity of the online survey, it was not possible this time to track the response rate.

The online survey consisted of four sections. Section A was to obtain information on the working and assignment conditions, covering all measures for the model's independent variables. Section B retrieved information on wellbeing and measured the dependent variables burnout and work engagement. Section C was for personal information, and Section D provided professional information (see Appendix III). Consulting with the researcher's supervisors and two statisticians of the researcher's institution, attention was paid to the relevance, order, and wording of questions. Further, a pilot study was undertaken with five expatriates to check for the appropriateness of questions and timing of the questionnaire.

The data collection took place from April until August 2019. Again, generating participants was very challenging with response rates experiencing strong peaks and lows. Often, the lack of internet connection in the host country as well as the high workload posed constraints. For instance, one participant apologised for not filling out the survey yet: *"Hi Pia! I will try to fill out your survey in the next hours. Unfortunately, the situation in Sudan got worse in the last 36 hours and the internet has been shut down"*. However, all recruitment efforts yielded 190 usable, filled out surveys, of which 12 had to be excluded due to a lack of hostility in the host country (e.g. Germany, Australia, Switzerland, Sweden), resulting in a finale sample size of 178 participants.

This sample size was considered appropriate as a common rule of thumb suggests that the researcher should have between 10-15 participants per independent variable (Field, 2013). For instance, Nunnally (1978) recommends having 10 times as many participants as variables, whereas Kass and Tinsley (1979) advise between five and 10 observations per variable and a maximum of 300 participants. More precisely, when using statistics to examine relationships between variables (e.g. regressions), Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) propose the following formula: $N > 50 + 8\ m$ (m = number of independent variables). According to this formula, the smallest acceptable sample size for this study would have been 178 participants. Harris (1975) suggests at least 10 participants per independent variable, thus requiring a minimum sample size of 160 participants for this study.

Looking at other studies of expatriates in HEs, the biggest sample size of a quantitative study was 175 participants in the study of Bader and Schuster (2015). However, due to the difficulty of gaining access to participants, the authors also included expatriates

assigned to Saudi Arabia (n=54) which the authors did not consider to be a HE, reducing the actual sample size of expatriates in HEs to 121 participants. In addition, findings of the systematic literature review reveal (see chapter 2.2) that the average sample size of quantitative studies with expatriates in HEs is 138 (see also Appendix I), which increases the author's confidence in her sample size.

3.5.2 Survey measures

All measures used have been applied in previous studies, demonstrating sufficient reliability according to their Cronbach's alpha values. When more than one measure was available in the literature, the researcher chose the measures that either had been applied in previous JD-R studies, tested among expatriates, or best represented the interview data.

Work overload was measured using 9 items from the "Job content questionnaire" by Karasek et al. (1998). Responses were made on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. A sample item is 'I am not asked to do an excessive amount of work'. The Cronbach's alpha value in this study was .810.

Measures assessing *work constraints* were taken from Bader et al. (2016), a study investigating the work conditions of expatriates in terror-endangered countries. The authors adapted eight items from Peters et al. (1980) and Spector and Jex (1998), who looked at constraints and stressors in the workplace. Participants were asked to indicate how difficult it is for them to do their job because of constraints perceived in the workplace (e.g. inadequate work environment, time availability), with answers given on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 'never' to 'several times a day'. Bader et al. (2016) verified a Cronbach's alpha value of .88, whereas the value was .821 in this sample.

Cultural novelty was measured with the 7 items on the work environment of the expatriate adjustment scale developed by Hippler et al. (2014). This measure was given priority over other well-known cultural novelty measures (e.g. Hofstede, 1980; Black and Stephens, 1989; Torbjörn, 1982) as it was developed among a diverse sample of expatriates, individual items best represented the qualitative data, and it provided a Cronbach's alpha value of .86. Participants first had to indicate whether they perceived

change (positive, neutral, negative) in regards to the work environment at home and in the host country and then how significant the change was using a 4-point Likert scale ranging from ‘change was insignificant’ to ‘change was very significant’. A sample item is to describe the change in regards to ‘the employees’ method of working, in general’. The Cronbach’s alpha value in this study was .870.

The short version of the “Perceived Organizational Support Form” by Eisenberger et al. (1986) was used to measure POS and seen as unproblematic as the original scale is unidimensional and shows high internal reliability with a Cronbach’s alpha value of .97. Bader et al. (2015) likewise confirm the high reliability (α= .869) of the short version used in their study of expatriates in terror-endangered countries. The 3-item scale included statements such as ‘The organisation really cares about my wellbeing’, requesting answers on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from ’strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’. In addition to the three items, the author developed three more items that, more specifically, assessed the quality and quantity of assignment preparation. These items were: ‘I received sufficient support from my organisation regarding the assignment’, ‘My organisation provides me with additional support when needed’, ‘My organisation ensures that I’m adequately prepared for the assignment’, which were also measured on a 7-point Likert scale. All six items together provided a Cronbach’s alpha value of .904.

Job satisfaction was assessed using the 6-item scale as used by Agho et al. (1992). Their measure was preferred over the Hackman and Oldham (1974) scale as it represented the qualitative data more accurately. Participants were asked to rank their satisfaction with their job (e.g. ‘I find real enjoyment in my job’) using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’. The Cronbach’s alpha value in this study was .794.

Internal career advancement was measured with 10 items of the “Employment Opportunities Index” by Griffeth et al. (2005). A sample item is ‘Given my qualifications and experience, getting a new job would not be very hard at all’ with responses being made on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’. Cronbach’s alpha value was .788.

Work-life conflicts were measured with 4 items of the survey on employees’ views and experiences on the changing workplace developed by O’Connell et al. (2004) and accessed through Russell et al. (2009). Participants were asked to indicate the frequency

of work-life conflicts occurring using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘never’ to ‘always’. Sample items were ‘After work I am too tired to enjoy things outside of work’ or ‘My family gets fed up with my job pressures’. Participants without family obligations were asked to treat these questions as other people they care about and spend a lot of time with. Cronbach’s alpha value was .779.

The 6-item scale recently developed by Bader et al. (2016) was used to assess the *non-work constraints*. The lack of alternative measures forced the researcher to rely on a not yet established measure. However, the fact that the scale was successfully applied among expatriates in HEs, and the high reliability of the measure (α =.88) increased the researcher’s confidence. A sample item is ‘Please indicate how often your private life is constrained in your host country in terms of mobility and travel (e.g. avoid certain places due to danger of different kinds)’ and was rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from ‘never’ to ‘several times a day’. The Cronbach’s alpha value in this study was .869.

The *support network* was measured using the “Social Provisions Scale” by Cutrona and Russell (1987). Due to the length of the survey, only 12 of the 24 items were included as carried out by Eriksson et al. (2009), who were still able to keep the reliability of the measure high (α =.79) in their study investigating burnout among expatriate aid workers. A sample item is ‘There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it’ with answers to be given on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’. The Cronbach’s alpha value in this study was .916.

Leisure coping strategies was measured by the 6-item subscale of the “Leisure Coping Strategy Scale” by Iwasaki and Mannell (1999). A sample item is ‘Escape through leisure was a way of coping with stress’ using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from ‘very strongly disagree’ to ‘very strongly agree’. The Cronbach’s alpha value was .865.

Burnout and *work engagement* were measured simultaneously, using the 16-item “Oldenburg Burnout Inventory” (OLBI) by Demerouti et al. (2010). Items were both positively and negatively phrased and included items such as ‘During my work, I often feel emotionally drained’ or ‘I always find new and interesting aspects in my work’. To assess burnout, positively framed items should be reverse-coded and negatively framed items should be recoded to assess work engagement. Cronbach’s alpha value was .857.

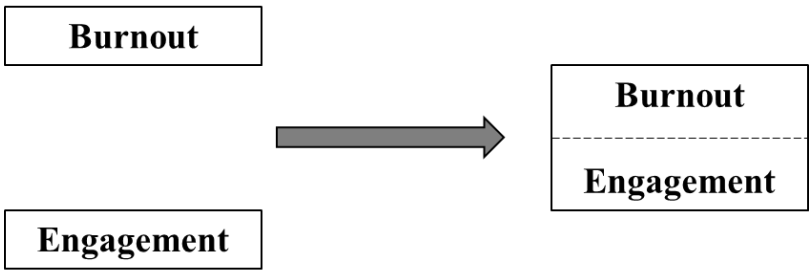
In regard to the relationship between burnout and work engagement, it is argued that the core dimensions of burnout are the conceptual opposite of the core dimensions of work

engagement (Gonzales-Roma et al., 2006). Namely, exhaustion is conceived as the opposite of vigour, and cynicism as the opposite of dedication (Maslach and Leiter, 1997). Evidence suggests that the identification dimension (cynicism and dedication) are a bipolar construct, whereas the energy dimension (exhaustion and vigour) represent two separate but highly related constructs.

Despite the aforementioned ambiguity on the dimensionality of burnout and work engagement and whether they should be measured separately, the OLBI was prioritised as a measure for the following reasons. The "Maslach Burnout Inventory" (MBI) would have provided a popular alternative. However, the disadvantage of this measure is that all items regarding exhaustion and cynicism are negatively phrased which makes it inferior from a psychometric point of view, as it can lead to artificial factor solutions in which positively and negatively worded items are likely to cluster or may show artificial relationships with other constructs (Demerouti et al., 2010). In comparison to the MBI, the OLBI is applicable to a wider range of professions and samples as it covers affective, physical and cognitive aspects of exhaustion.

Work engagement could have been measured with the "Utrecht Work Engagement Scale" (UWES), but a shortcoming of this measure is that it contains different aspects on the energy dimension. The UWES includes items that view vigour as having a surplus of energy reserves while at work, whereas the OLBI conceives vigour as having sufficient energy levels during and after work (Demerouti et al., 2010). Further, shortening instruments (e.g. by only using a section of OLBI items to measure burnout) risks a decrease in its reliability. Based on the previous arguments, burnout and work engagement are treated as the conceptual opposites and thus measured simultaneously, making the following changes to the general JD-R model presented in Figure 2.3.

Figure 3.2: Burnout and work engagement as conceptual opposites



Control Variables: The researcher controlled for a number of additional factors which have been utilised in previous studies and may affect the expatriate's wellbeing. *Gender* was included as a control variable as it seems possible that female expatriates show lower levels of wellbeing due to the still existing, unequal treatment based on gender in some of the sample countries. Research has further shown that women tend to be more fearful than men (Galea et al., 2002; Silver et al., 2002). It has also been found that male expatriates show a higher willingness to relocate to a HE (Stoermer et al., 2017) which in turn may impact the ability to cope with the context-relevant stressors and the perception of available resources.

Ethnicity was another control variable as it could increase or decrease the expatriate's vulnerability in the host country. Expatriates with a similar cultural background to HCNs may find it easier to adapt and thus cope better, whereas expatriates with a rather "Western mind-set" might struggle.

The presence of *children* was controlled for as this could pose an additional stressor for the expatriate, either because the expatriate is worried about their children's safety (Bader and Berg, 2013) or because separation triggers feelings of loneliness and guilt due to the inability to care for the family (Starr and Currie, 2009).

Age and *previous assignment experience* in a HE are also expected to be of importance. Older expatriates with more years of work experience or previous assignments in challenging countries should find it easier to adapt and cope, consequently leading to higher wellbeing.

Lastly, the author also controlled for the *feeling of safety* in the host country as it seems plausible that someone who does not feel safe might be in a constant state of discomfort or worry which could intensify the experience of demands and distract from noticing and using available resources. The feeling of safety was assessed using a 5-item scale developed by Schafer et al. (2006). A sample item is 'How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood after dark?' with answers ranging from 1= very safe to 4= very unsafe. Cronbach's alpha value in this study was .836.

3.5.3 Hypotheses testing

The statistical analysis was carried out using SPSS version 25. At first, data was prepared for inferential statistical procedures and descriptive analysis performed (see chapter 5.2.1). Following the procedures of Field (2013), a multiple regression analysis was performed to test the four hypotheses (please see chapter 5.1 for the actual hypotheses). Multiple regression was considered an appropriate technique as it assesses the relationship between a set of independent variables (in this study job/personal demands and resources) with a dependent variable (in this study burnout/engagement). It further allows to investigate the strength of the relationships and the importance of each independent variable in its predictive ability (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). It can be used with continuous variables but also dichotomous variables by dummy variable coding with 1s and 0s (Pallant, 2005).

Due to the fact that the JD-R model had not been tested widely in the expatriation context (and never in HEs, see chapter 2.2.5), a simultaneous or standard multiple regression was preferred over a hierarchical regression as there was no theoretical basis for considering any variable to be prior to any other (Cohen and Cohen, 1975). The interview data did also not indicate any hierarchical order or form of prioritisation of identified demands and resources.

4. Study 1: Qualitative study

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the qualitative study in relation to the research objectives proposed in chapter 1.3. Starting with a brief description of the research context, it is followed by outlining the identified themes from the 42 in-depth interviews with expatriates in HEs. This section then continues by relating the findings to the current literature and elaborating on surprising findings, providing possible explanations derived from the data itself and the literature. It then argues the appropriateness of the JD-R model as a framework for expatriation in hostile contexts and introduces the proposed model which builds the basis for the following quantitative study. The chapter finishes with a brief overview of the key findings.

4.1 Research context

This section serves to portray the working and living situation of expatriates in HEs and is based on the descriptions of interview participants.

4.1.1 Differences between sectors and assignment locations

Differences between the types of organisations and the countries of assignment (high crime vs terror-endangered) have been reported by the participants of this study. Not necessarily in regard to the feeling of safety or the perceived demands and resources but concerning the overall assignment conditions which can be of importance for the attraction and retention of expatriates. A general observation is that NGOs are predominantly present in terror-endangered or post- and ongoing conflict environments whereas a lot of multinational corporations (MNCs) seem to have recalled their operations in those areas but operate in high-crime contexts. The humanitarian intention of NGOs makes the organisation as a whole and their operations more accepted within the local population, but due to critical safety situation and often the inability of the state to provide sufficient security, all movements of staff require heavy safety precautions. In contrast, the rather profit-driven MNCs find less understanding among the local

population, creating tensions and potential threats to expatriates. That is not to say that kidnappings and robberies of expatriates do not happen in terror-endangered environments, but usually the staff there is more protected by the organisation while expatriates in high-crime areas mostly have to rely on their own safety measures. The subtle but important difference between types of organisations and types of threat has consequences for both the working and living situation of expatriates working in HEs and is elaborated on in the following sections.

4.1.2 Working situation in hostile environments

Within NGOs, a very high job insecurity exists as much employment is tied to a specific project which depends on external funding or donors. This results in many expatriates not having a guaranteed job with the same organisation after the assignment, or no clear conception of the overall duration of their time abroad. Many participants reported having to extend their contract on a regular basis or having to reapply for them to keep their position.

"My work is donor dependent. If the money dries up, and it does happen every now and so often, then I am sort of free in the world and don't really know where to go." (Participant 16)

"We live with earmarked funding. There is not much stability in our jobs…my stability is for 12 months. Then I don't know if we will have enough money to continue our activities at all." (Participant 6)

"There are contracts which are attached to a programme, which is not a permanent post…So I had to apply every 2 years to keep the job, doing 5-10 interviews with different people." (Participant 2)

The relocation with MNCs seems to be more embedded in the overall career path within the organisation. Not always, but often a position after repatriation is already agreed upon before departure.

"…for up to 12 months they need to provide you with an equivalent job." (Participant 19)

"It's more or less normal that there are opportunities abroad for managers." (Participant 15)

"The home county is obliged to take me back in the position I have in Brazil. And we have to discuss then how we are going to proceed in detail. But they are required to take me back in the same position I have here in Brazil." (Participant 8)

Further differences were detected between the financial allowances expatriates receive. Staff working for NGOs often receive minimal relocation support and no hardship payments. In fact, quite a large number of NGO staff are employed on a voluntary basis and are only reimbursed for the costs of living and relocation efforts. In contrast, for MNC expatriates the move abroad often comes along with a pay increase. Assignments are usually well organised and supported by professional relocation agencies. Depending on the hardship of the location, regular rest and recuperation (RnR) is provided by the employer, allowing expatriates to fly home at the company's expense.

Due to the nature of the job and the environment, there is little job routine for expatriates in NGOs. Office spaces are often in provisional and less appealing buildings (or even tents) and the structure of the working day is rather reactive to unforeseeable events occurring. The office buildings of MNCs in contrast are often in prestigious business districts of the city and the job routine is not too different from back home apart from increased responsibility and a more diverse workforce.

"I don't have a set office. It's not like that I wake up at 8 o'clock and walk into the office, work until 5 and clock out. My typical day there is very much unorthodox. I don't know what's going to happen in the next 2 hours because there is always something that comes up." (Participant 12)

"I think be prepared for the unexpected because every day when I am getting up, I never know what will happen. You never know how the day goes. Even though I have a very packed agenda, many times in the past I had to skip my entire agenda because something was happening here." (Participant 27)

4.1.3 Living situation in hostile environments

The safety situation and development of the country determines the lifestyle of the expatriates. In high-crime areas with an intact security system, a relocation generally entails an improvement of the overall lifestyle. Most expatriates live in upscale neighbourhoods and enjoy the amenities of a developing country such as being able to afford a house with a swimming pool or domestic help.

"Brazil is a developing nation and when you are an expat or when you are somebody that has a higher income and you live in a nice neighbourhood, you live a very pampered life. Where I lived was fully furnished and I had daily maid service. I lived literally right in front of the beach. I had a view of the ocean. I woke up to the sound of the waves every day. I used to tell people back home that no matter what happens to my life, I will probably never live like that again. This is just a dream." (Participant 17)

The lifestyle in terror-endangered environments is usually characterised by a life in compounds or camps. The expatriates' accommodation is far from luxurious and rather spartan with the rooms, food and other facilities in the camp being very basic. Separation from work is difficult as the office is often in the same compound and housing is usually shared with colleagues. While some participants perceived this as burdening, other enjoyed the bond it created among colleagues or other expatriates.

"The accommodation I live in is far from luxurious but its comfortable, it's fine, it's good enough. The food we have is pretty poor, but it's good enough. The conditions we're in, I guess, it can be very oppressive, but they could be a lot worse." (Participant 39)

"You know, if I am lucky I sleep on a cot but most of the time I sleep on the floor. It's not comfortable, I have to sleep on the floor. The food is not exactly the greatest. The lack of water supply, I mean I drink a lot of water. So, water and food is an issue. Don't expect, don't look for McDonalds, KFC, or Taco Bell." (Participant 12)

"It was quite easy to establish a network because like I said the more difficult the place is the more the expats will seek each other out automatically as maybe a coping mechanism to deal with the more difficult external interface, like in Ethiopia." (Participant 19)

"Otherwise you also get a lot of energy from your colleagues because they are also your friends. You spend a lot of time with your colleagues…I also live together with colleagues. So, you spend most of your time with the people you work with. So, you have very close relations with them and you start to know people very well. After a while you can really identify when someone is having difficulties." (Participant 21)

The life in compounds creates an intense environment which is very different from the lifestyle from back home and could almost be described as a parallel world. Abnormal events become normal and only people who have been in this situation can really

understand the special atmosphere in a HE. Participants report that they start to realise this when they go back home for a certain period.

"…you become a bit detached from reality. So, it's good to come back to Europe and kind of round yourself in your previous way of working and living." (Participant 20)

"This is a world within a world." (Participant 6)

"It's a very specific lifestyle. I think we have to adapt going back to some kind of normal life" (Participant 21)

"When you have 1000 people in the same situation, it creates a very particular atmosphere which I cannot describe. Only people who have lived there, or who know the conditions there, would understand what I mean. The behaviour of people, the tension that you handle is different. It's like a little community but you are forced to live with each other." (Participant 38)

4.2 Identified demands and resources of expatriates in hostile environments

In this subchapter, identified demands and resources are laid out and discussed, which have been reported in the work domain (referred to as job demands and resources), but also in the non-work domain (referred to as personal demands and resources). As argued in the introduction in chapter 1, both domains are important during expatriation due to the often blurred line between the job and the private life, especially in a HE where separation from work might not be possible. The demand side is further divided into job hindrance demands and job challenge demands (see chapter 2.3.1).

4.2.1 Job hindrance demands

Job hindrance demands are those demands that are perceived as constraints and barriers to achieve goals and rewards (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005).

4.2.1.1 Workload

Work in HEs has been described as a very fast-paced and physically and mentally demanding working environment. In particular, the high workload and the resulting long working hours have been mentioned as most demanding. Many participants reported working after usual office hours (sometimes even into the night) and regularly seven days a week, with some participants being expected to be available 24/7. This situation was often aggravated by work arrangements within different time zones or working cultures. For instance, in a lot of Middle Eastern countries the official weekend takes place on Fridays and Saturdays but participants were often expected, by their Western headquarters (HQ), to work these days or to respond to their emails. Even when on annual leave or RnR some participants found it difficult to fully switch off from work and had trouble to fully relax as often the workload was even higher when they returned to work with a lot of work built up.

"You pretty much work 24/7…There is no limit. Sometimes you will have to reply to a mail around 10pm or pick up the phone. I pretty much never stop." (Participant 23)

"In terms of job on a personal level, is the workload. The expectations and the workload…a bit of a challenge is that we work a five-day week but it's a different five-day week to the rest of the world. Sunday through to Thursday. So, the expectation from everybody else is that you are working Friday. And the reality is that we can't not work…I think everybody feels exhausted, particularly if you are working 70/80-hour weeks." (Participant 39)

"And the third is definitely the level of work and the quantity of work that you are facing. You are never really out of the job. You can never…if you are in the gym or watch TV, it can happen any time that somebody calls and says this or that happened and we need to find a solution. So, it's extremely exhausting. When I am on RnR or holiday, the first days I am sleeping all day long. It's really exhausting." (Participant 27).

"Massive build up. My deputy went for two weeks on annual leave and when he came back I think he had like 1,200 emails in his mailbox even though he was trying to keep up when he was away." (Participant 36)

On top of that, most participants had to travel for business while on their assignment. While travelling on its own was perceived as enjoyable and exciting by most participants, in combination with the generally high workload and its increased frequency, it became stressful and tiring. Very little time, or no time at all, to recover, uncomfortable travel

and trips to even less secure countries increased the stress and exhaustion level. Both the high workload and frequency of business travel resulted in interferences in the participants' private life and made it difficult to maintain a healthy work-life balance (see also chapter 4.2.5.1).

"The insane amount of travel that I do. That's quite exhausting. And in some other countries that I work in, are very challenging to be in…I will leave on a Friday night and not come back until Sunday. So, the weekends that you are travelling you never get back as leave." (Participant 12)

"I am constantly travelling. I lived out of a suitcase pretty much up until January this year. I was living out of a suitcase for six months…I fly in on a Friday night and I will be knackered, I will be tired. All I really want to do is to sleep and by the time I have slept and rejuvenated, recharged by batteries, I am off again for another 4 or 5 days." (Participant 17)

"I also think the constant international travel and the unknown that comes with that. Will I have internet in Ethiopia? Will WhatsApp be working? So, sometimes I land and I can't call my family until the next morning. I am kind of gone off the radar for 15 or 20 hours. I think that part is very stressful." (Participant 3)

Performing all of this in extreme environmental conditions made the overall situation even more challenging. The very hot climate, dust and pollution were perceived as physically demanding, exhausting participants even more. Many cities were portrayed as being loud and hectic, and a high occurrence of traffic was considered very problematic as it often added time to the long working day or made it impossible to get to meetings on time.

"It takes me a long time to get to work. For example, I live three, four kilometres from my office and if I am lucky, it takes me 40 minutes by car. It's crazy but I can only go by car." (Participant 41)

"Bogota is a very big, congested, quite a stressful city on the whole. Traffic for example is terrible." (Participant 16)

"The weather conditions, the traffic, the noise, the whole environment is not pleasant…and then the heat outside. You change from the car, in an out. Hot, cold and that's demanding. Sometimes you end up going home and just have a headache." (Participant 26)

In addition, the work pressure was perceived as extremely high with some participants even being worried about negative consequences for their career if operations did not transpire. The increased responsibility involved with the assignment gave participants no choice other than to accept the high workload and long working hours. Many participants were aware that their presence in the country was a costly endeavour for the organisation and therefore felt that there were high expectations of them which in some cases were perceived as burdening or career threatening.

"You can also kill your career…when you have some responsibility, when you are managing such a project you need to be careful because you are the only one who is authorising expenses and sometimes it is millions of dollars…if you fail you know they can fire you." (Participant 10)

"I feel that sometimes there is a fair bit of weight, like if I fuck up for two weeks that means we are going to be down on targets for the month. So, the marks and we are not going to have the right reports to send back to the HQ." (Participant 35)

These findings echo the results of a study conducted by Shortland and Cummins (2007) on expatriate work-life balance. They also detected that a high workload and long working hours seem to be a common feature of expatriation and that increased business travel further contributed to work-related stress and health concerns due to interferences with the personal life and little time to recover. Expatriates in their study as well perceived the pressure to work longer hours because of their increased responsibility. Other studies in the global mobility context further confirm these workload and business travel issues (Fenwick, 2004; Grant-Vallone and Ensher, 2001; Striker et al., 1999), reporting particularly high stress levels among female assignees or expatriates with families (DeFrank et al., 2000; Espino et al., 2002; Fischlmayr and Kollinger, 2010; Mäkelä et al., 2011).

Increased workload has been identified as an important predictor for burnout and source of stress (Leiter and Maslach, 2004; Statt, 1994). However, some individuals seem to consider increased workload as stimulating or a form of eustress, whereas others feel distressed and experience an overload of work (Joubert and Rothman, 2007; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). As yet, the impact of workload on burnout during expatriation is ambiguous. Whereas Bhanugopan and Fish (2006) found role overload to be positively associated with burnout during expatriation, Selmer and Fenner (2009) did not detect an

impact on work adjustment and thus an increased risk of burnout (Silbinger et al., 2017). According to Leiter and Maslach (2004), workload becomes health threatening when employees are unable to recover from work demands and increased workload is a chronic job condition, not an occasional exception.

In the present study, workload can be considered as a hindrance demand with participants discussing it in a somewhat negative manner. While single components of the increased workload (e.g. business travel, increased responsibility) might have the potential to be positively challenging, their interplay and experience in the specific context, made workload be perceived as negatively demanding. In line with the argument of Leiter and Maslach (2004), this might be unique to expatriation in HEs where the work and private sphere are more promiscuous than back home, and separation from work is limited, if not impossible (Shortland, 2016).

"We are constantly with one another. 24/7. So, you don't necessarily see the difference between inside the office or outside of the office. I think unconsciously you are always behaving as an employee who is supposed to do a good job. Sometimes when it gets really stressful and challenging, I miss some space to switch off." (Participant 23)

"I hate the… when you live in a small place like this and everybody is here to make money, it is a very transactional lifestyle. Every conversation you have is about business." (Participant 35)

4.2.1.2 Work constraints

Participants described several hindrances that made it difficult for them to perform their job. These can be divided into environmental and organisational constraints. The most frequently mentioned environmental difficulty was corruption which caused a lot of frustration as expatriates got stuck between their organisations with strict no corruption policies and a non-cooperative government. In some cases, participants had the feeling that the government was not working with them, not only diminishing trust among cooperation partners but making implementations of projects costlier and lengthy. Dealing with the situation of corruption required a lot of sensitivity and advertency, not to trigger a conflict or risking the organisation's reputation or project.

"In terms of what you are looking at and the difficulties of being overseas it is probably working with corruption... I think when you are on the ground you realise it is never as black and white as it can look from sitting back from a liberal democracy in the UK or something. One person's corruption is another person's normal way of life of getting things done. So handling that was always fairly difficult." (Participant 7)

"Because of the ongoing war, and all the corruption and all those sorts of things that go with conflicts, the political situation is very difficult. And it holds up a lot of the work. Although it's not really my job, I actually spend about 50% of my time dealing with the politics of it all and trying to find a way through it all." (Participant 40)

"You have governance issues. What people telling you, in particular the government officials, is not what they really think or what they really do. You sometimes can be really disappointed because you try to help them and they don't really do what they need to do to help their nationals…it is really disappointing when it feels like there is a complicity with you." (Participant 10)

Another constraint posed by the environment was the economic and political instability of countries and, in some instances, a lack of governance. Often unpredictable events occurred that required for projects to be paused or in the worst case for staff to be evacuated, not knowing if and when the job was to be continued. This situation got worsened by unreliable sources of information about the safety situation or the deliberate spread of rumours and fake news.

"In terms of the job… it is not daily unstable but it has large phases of instability. For example, the Kurdish region had an independence referendum in September and it wasn't clear against the Government in Baghdad. So, it wasn't clear what the outcome will be. And in September ISIS was still in the country. So, we got evacuated…. I was lucky because as I said my project is also in Baghdad so I could work from there but I could not meet any partner because it wasn't allowed. And a lot of other operations from other programmes were pretty much down because everybody had to leave the country. And these waves are coming back… Or now the elections are coming up and it's not clear if the tensions get too high. So, we might not be allowed to go to our projects sides any more. So, there are waves of things that can happen which make your job really annoying. And you can't do anything, you just have to wait." (Participant 11)

"There are lots of fake news about what's going on in various places. So, it's hard to know what to believe" (Participant 3)

The biggest challenge from an organisational perspective was the high bureaucracy and internal politics that made processes very complex and lengthy. Participants felt that the amount of paperwork they had to do distracted them from getting the actual job done and that faster processes were needed to respond to the demands of the local market.

Reporting to various different managers was not only time consuming but bearing a potential source of conflict as internal disagreements occurred. Lengthy processes, together with often too little budget resulted in projects only making slow progress, which eventually led to some frustration as fruits of labour were not always visible. Participants also mentioned a lack of understanding from the HQ for the situation of expatriates on the ground, setting unrealistic deadlines and expectations.

"I deal with a lot of politics. Especially a lot with personnel who are located in the US, Switzerland, Germany and they have no idea what's going on in the field. To get things done is quite a task…I report to six different superior officers…I would feel better reporting to one manager but report to six different managers and tell them the same thing every day… And reporting to six different managers it's almost the idea of too many chefs in the kitchen. It gets really confusing. So, that's another thing that I don't like is the reporting structure and the politics. And if one manager doesn't like something and the other managers like it, they can totally kill my plans…They need to do something about it. It's a red tape, the bureaucracy and the politics. They have to find a way to streamline it because it gets ridiculous…That proposal took a 1 ½ years to get approval. And it shouldn't have taken a year and a half. It should have taken, I like to think in the real world, let's say somewhere in Europe, it should have taken 30 days. Not a year and a half. That's the thing I don't like, the politics, the red tape. It's the bureaucracy that really kills me." (Participant 13)

"…there are very bureaucratic and administrative challenges that you are facing and they would get you down. We are working here, 7 days per week, 12 hours per day at least. We are spending our time in an insecure environment and then those people are coming up with those bureaucratic challenges, rules and regulations and this is not working. This really frustrates you. These are the things that really get you down." (Participant 27)

"The only thing I would say is that there is a lack of understanding from our headquarters and that's nothing new. But that would make it easier if they understood my realities versus their realities. Because their realities that they need talking points for meeting and they need it 20 minutes from now, and at the same time I've had a firefight in Mosul where my staff has been involved and maybe I have a team that needs to be deployed to another location and I have three staff issues here at the same time. But their priority is still the talking points for that meeting which they didn't tell me until 20 minutes before while they could have told me three days ago, so I could have put someone on to writing them. So that, the different cultures and sometimes a lack of understanding of what my reality is." (Participant 36)

The little research conducted with expatriates in HEs report similar experienced challenges. For instance, Greppin et al. (2017) noted that in certain regions expatriates are often confronted with corruption which is associated with certain costs for their operations (e.g. loss of business partners and employees, serious threats through retaliation) when having a zero-tolerance approach. Similarly, in a study with expatriates in Afghanistan, the lack of economic and political development, often expressed by corruption, fraud and weak infrastructure, was rated as one of the most challenging aspect of the assignment (Suder et al., 2017). The authors describe this situation as an extreme business environment in which instability, information ambiguity and rapid, violent changes are common features. Particularly, NGOs seem to be affected by those environmental and organisational obstacles. Fyvie and Ager (1999) found that NGO employees are constantly confronted with constraints that stop them from new or successful project implementation. Interviews further revealed that field staff is often under-resourced and overworked, while simultaneously facing high bureaucratic proceedings and standards set by the HQ which was perceived as burdening. Competing agendas and a shift to quantity over quality often caused internal disagreements.

Such barriers to work are stressful and therefore could be described as work constraints (Bader et al., 2016). Work constraints are considered to be all aspects of the immediate work situation that hinder employees from performing their job due to situational factors that are beyond their control (Peters and O'Connor, 1980; Spector and Jex, 1998). Individuals are not able to take advantage of their skills, knowledge and abilities and thus the task accomplishment or goal attainment is hindered, leading to increased frustration and stress (Bacharach and Bamberger, 1995; Peters and O'Connor, 1980). In particular, resource inadequacy, which in the present study could be represented by a lack of budgetary support, job-related information, and cooperation of HQ and governments, is believed to be a major contributor to stress (Villanova and Roman, 1993).

4.2.2 Job challenge demand

Job challenge demands are those demands that have the potential to promote mastery, personal growths or future gains and hence are perhaps perceived as motivational demands (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005).

4.2.2.1 Cultural novelty

Working in a new and different culture was described as being positively challenging. While cultural differences were also experienced in the non-work domain (e.g. expressed through difficulties integrating and interacting with HCNs), the impact was more profound at the workplace. Adjusting to different ways of doing business and overcoming language barriers were perceived as most demanding. Work processes often took a lot longer than back home and getting the whole team to stick to deadlines or a common way of communication was sometimes a struggle. A lot of patience and acceptance was needed, sometimes increasing the pressure and stress for the expatriates. Often it was strenuous for participants to meet the work expectations of the HQ while respecting the local culture and religion. Communicating and holding important meetings in a foreign language was especially stressful and tiring in the beginning as accents and slang tested the participants' language abilities, sometimes leading to misunderstandings.

"Working in this context …getting anything done requires a lot more follow-up and personal relations with people... So, that makes it different from Europe. You can't just write an email and expect things to happen. Here you really have to build a close relationship with the people you work with and you have to go there and talk and be prepared that things don't go the way they would normally go. When you send an email to your boss in Belgium you get an immediate reply with what you asked. Here it will be more likely that you will first go on a treasure hunt to 20 people before you arrive at the right person who can maybe help you…And then when they say "tomorrow", tomorrow will not be the day after or the week after. It's very much about learning to be patient and learning to read between the lines." (Participant 20)

"Ugandans are a bit slow. They take their time doing things and often I can't get things done on time. When I know I have to finish something it is really difficult…They don't understand why you want something to be done your way. I find that very stressful. Very stressful because we are not moving at the same pace." (Participant 5)

"We are always working with deadlines, so that's of course a challenge…for me the biggest challenge here is to make everyone aware that we need to report within the deadline…what's the rush? No problem…the first year was really difficult. Especially, working here in Brazil and reporting to Europe…We had delays of six or seven weeks and then I was the only one being chased by the group. That was really difficult in the first year. Being stressed out that we have to report. Being the only one in Brazil who was being stressed out and rest was already being OK." (Participant 15)

However, the cultural challenge was mostly noticeable at the start of the assignment. After some time, the participants got used to the different working styles of a diverse workforce and saw things with more placidity. In fact, many participants enjoyed the cultural challenge, expressing that this was a crucial part of their overall assignment and learning experience. Some even felt that working within different cultures taught them to reflect things from multiple perspectives and being able to find more innovative solutions to problems.

"That's a big part of the reason why I went. I did find it challenging at first and I find it a lot less challenging now because you just kind of know what you need to do."
(Participant 34)

Whenever a work environment is culturally diverse conflicts can arise due to differences in how individuals manage work-related activities (Darawong et al., 2016) and culture-based differences in behaviours and values are likely to increase anxiety and stress (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2010). It is not seldom that cultural differences cause resistance, friction and misunderstandings as employees evaluate work issues differently and thus respond in different ways. For instance, the sense of urgency is a common contentious point (Bresman et al., 1999; Schneider and De Meyer, 1991). However, in regard to expatriation the literature does not provide many insights on the interpersonal conflicts expatriates experience in the workplace caused by cultural differences (Jassawalla et al., 2004). In their study, Jassawalla et al. (2004) found that conflicts with co-workers seem to occur frequently during the assignment, causing high stress for the expatriates. Interpersonal conflicts due to cross-cultural issues were perceived as the most challenging aspect of the overall experience. Similar to the present study, interpersonal conflicts were often caused by differing perceptions of time, urgency and implementation. Over time, their participants learned to adapt and found flexibility, patience and language abilities to be important assets to handle the situation. Among their sample, the opportunity to gain experiences abroad was able to offset the negative aspects of interpersonal conflict.

The debate about different cultural behaviours and habits is often linked to the cross-cultural adjustment of the expatriate, which is comprised of three facets: general adjustment, interaction with HCNs, and work adjustment (Black, 1988; see chapter 2.1.2). It is believed that expatriate adjustment is a crucial factor for the success of an overall assignment as it is associated with work-related outcomes such as strain, job

satisfaction, organisational commitment, performance and turnover intentions (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003).

Although participants of this study reported to cope with different approaches to work over time, the potential of cross-cultural conflicts must not be underestimated. Cultural novelty or cultural distance has been found to perhaps not hinder but at least bedevil the adjustment process (Fisher and Hutchings, 2013; Isakovic and Forseth Whitman, 2013; Puck et al., 2017; Selmer, 2006; Shaffer et al., 1999). Cultural distance could be argued to be quite high, looking at the participants' country of origin (mostly Western countries) and country of assignment (MENA, South America). Further, social interactions with HCNs outside of work have been found to be beneficial for the cross-cultural adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991; Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002). However, the life in upper-class neighbourhoods and compounds, leaving little opportunities for interactions with HCNs, poses a great obstacle to cultural and interaction adjustment (Jackson and Manderscheid, 2015). Hence, it is questionable whether expatriates in a HE will ever be fully adjusted and it is likely that cross-cultural conflicts (at work) will always remain a challenge.

4.2.3 Job resources

This section outlines the job resources provided in the work sphere that participants valued in order to be able to respond to experienced demands.

4.2.3.1 Perceived organisational support

While not every single resource was either available or valuable to each individual, the kind of support received or requested by participants can be summarised by support in regard to assignment conditions, assignment preparation and instrumental support. For many participants, satisfaction with the overall assignment conditions was important. In particular, components of the relocation package that allowed the expatriates to maintain a certain standard of living was a valuable resource. Receiving benefits such as housing allowances, appropriate wages, and substantial health insurance diminished worries about financial insecurity or health concerns. The nature and duration of the assignment

were significant factors. Rotational assignments with regular RnR or frequent trips back home were an effective way to de-stress and switch off from work.

"I am privileged in terms of the salary that I get, so I can afford all these luxuries." (Participant 34)

"When you go abroad you look for a nice spot and it is usually paid for by the company. That's also something valuable." (Participant 19)

"But luckily you have this rest and recuperation, these holidays. I think these are very useful when you are stressed. You are looking forward to leave this place to get out of the whole context for a while and forget about it. I think that is very helpful and useful…I de-stress a lot on these RnR holidays." (Participant 21)

Assignment preparation was also a precious form of support that helped to reduce stress associated with the relocation. Pre-departure training on cultural and security aspects, pre-assignment visits, and a relocation service that took care of administrative activities and housing arrangements helped participants to reduce feelings of uncertainty. Participants further appreciated that their partners/families were included in trainings and services offered.

"…as an employer is really good in terms of relocation support. They covered the costs of sending my things…They sent me out for a visit before I actually moved to check it out…They got engaged with a relocation agency to help me find apartments. Explained certain things to me…They had somebody there helping arrange my residence pass, driving license and those sorts of things. That actually made life a lot easier…more or less the same level of support that was given to me, was given to her. And there was a slight extra financial part of a package for my partner to be able to come…I am pretty lucky in terms of the resources I had when I came. Especially when it comes to the security and safety issues. They send out security briefings and all the rest. I had a lot of help to move over" (Participant 16)

"Abundance of advice about potential dangers, which types of transportation to use, which types of people to trust. We knew which service providers to access right away. It definitely made our transition much easier than other people have had." (Participant 3)

Finally, instrumental support that made working and living in a HE easier was a crucial resource. Flexibility at work, regular contact with the HQ, organisation of travel arrangements and having a substitute or translator were frequently mentioned. Two further resources were reported to be particularly important, namely security support and

psychological support as they increased the feeling of safety and comfort. Organisations for instance checked the appropriateness of security standards of participants' houses or kept them informed with regular safety updates. While not many participants reported to have taken advantage of psychological services provided, for many it was a relief to know they had a point of contact in case they needed psychological assistance. However, some participants raised the concern that requesting a therapy session could jeopardise their stay on the assignment as the organisation may perceive them as 'too weak' to remain.

"The fact that I am flexible. I am basically my own boss…I have responsibility while being flexible, that's good. I don't have a boss looking over my shoulder all the time. It allows me to plan my work schedule the way I want. Of course, I am constrained with deadlines and things I need to do but I also have flexibility. That is really something I enjoy." (Participant 23)

"Our security referral who is in charge for security management at our base. And so, he makes decisions, he guides us, if anything happens that we need to be concerned about he sends us an email immediately or he comes and talks to us face-to-face. So, yeah, I rely on this." (Participant 37)

"I do have a deputy which I am fully trusting. She takes over when I am out of the country and then I can fully trust that she is running the business completely on my behalf." (Participant 27)

"If you went to them and said 'I have got this problem. I need to talk to someone about it' then they would probably supply. But nobody would really, I don't think, because then they would think [organisation's name] now sees me as a problem. So, don't give him the job again." (Participant 22)

The above listed forms of support can be described as POS, more specifically as financial and adjustment POS (Kraimer and Wayne, 2004). Pre-departure and security training, provision of safety and health, monetary allowances, and regular trips back home are common features of POS (Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Elango et al., 2008; Guzzo et al., 1994). POS depicts the employer's appreciation of the employees' contributions and shows concern in their wellbeing (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In return, POS has been found to lead to numerous positive work attitudes and expatriate success in the domestic and international work context (Kraimer et al., 2001; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Shaffer et al., 2001). Especially during assignments where expatriates are confronted with a change in their routines and fewer social support structures than back home, POS

has been found to be a valuable resource when addressing, both on- and off –the-job issues (Guzzo et al., 1994; Takeuchi et al., 2009).

POS is likely to be even more important in a hostile context, not only because a lack of support could jeopardise the expatriates' safety but also because the employer is responsible for the sojourn in an endangered environment (Bader and Berg, 2013). Shortland (2016) describes certain aspects of POS as 'knock-out' factors that have to be provided in a HE for expatriates to be even willing to undertake the assignment. POS and satisfaction with the relocation package has shown to be associated with a positive effect on work attitudes and performances (Bader, 2015; Bader et al., 2015). Furthermore, POS has been found to have the ability to reduce stress and the chance of burnout (Armstrong-Stassen, 2004; Cropanzano et al., 1997; George et al., 1993; Jawahar et al., 2007) as individuals feel that they are valued and cared about and have material and emotional aid in times of need. POS also creates a more predictable environment and can reduce uncertainty which increases the individual's confidence in coping with stressors and thus should lower perceived stress levels (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Jawahar et al., 2007).

4.2.3.2 Job satisfaction

Participants reported to be very satisfied with their jobs and expressed this mostly through the notion of having an impactful and meaningful job. Participants enjoyed seeing projects and teams develop and found it rewarding to see that their work improved the situation of the local population and that they were part of something important and exciting. This feeling was often enhanced through their strong personal interest in the country or a specific project and their perceived job fit. Many participants felt that their previous experiences, educational background or personality traits equipped them with the required skills to master the demands of their job roles, further increasing their overall job satisfaction.

"I don't think that you wanted to go to that dangerous environment. It's you wanted to do a dangerous job because you could see that it would help people." (Participant 30)

"*I used to enjoy that the job that I do stops people getting killed…you are doing a good thing for the right reason."* (Participant 22)

"I am going back to work just because I feel myself in this job. I know why this job should be done." (Participant 28)

"The main aspect is to have an impact. I feel like that in my daily work, I see that the impact is much higher than in Europe. You can really see the influence of your work." (Participant 29)

"This is the position I was trained for. I know what I am doing. I am very good at what I do. So, I am not going to sit here and pretend that I shouldn't do fieldwork…make me sit in Toronto in a cubical and have a beer and worry about the weather. No, that's not me." (Participant 13)

"I think the job is very exciting and I get to work on projects that have a really large impact… So as supposed to working on the same sort of projects from DC or London, I think being on the ground you can definitely see a difference." (Participant 3)

"I really enjoy seeing implementations working and I am very good at coordination. So, I think it was just a very good fit for the type of work that I am enjoying." (Participant 6)

Job satisfaction expresses the way individuals feel about their job and its various aspects (Spector, 1997) and is thus an affective reflection of their work (Locke, 1969). Participants seemed to have experienced high task significance which is defined as the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of others (Loher et al., 1985). According to the job characteristic model by Hackman and Oldham (1975), task significance is one of the five identified characteristics leading to increased job satisfaction, by triggering a psychological state of meaningfulness of work and resulting from a high intrinsic motivation.

Several studies in the domestic working context confirm the importance of task significance as an important job characteristic and its associations with increased job satisfaction (Berg et al., 2013; Grant, 2007; Rosso et al., 1997; Wrzesniewski et al., 1997). In the expatriate working context, the job characteristics that are associated with high expatriate job satisfaction have received little attention so far (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2010). Generally, expatriates report that the most enjoyable part of their assignment was related to their job (Guzzo et al., 1993) and that high task significance and the application of their knowledge increased their job satisfaction (Bonache, 2005; Naumann, 1993).

Job satisfaction has been linked to employees' wellbeing, and a negative relationship between job satisfaction and burnout has been found, making job dissatisfaction a significant predictor for impeded health (Dolan, 1987; Maslach and Jackson, 1981;

Rouleau et al., 2012). Conducting a meta-analysis of almost 500 studies, Faragher et al. (2005) concluded that employees that are dissatisfied with their job are more likely to experience burnout. They argued that people spent so much time at work that if they are dissatisfied, they are likely to feel unhappy or unfulfilled for most of their working day, an initial symptom of burnout. Dissatisfaction is often a result of occupational stress which is known to increase the chance of burnout (Piko, 2006). Hence, in stressful work situations, the positive work attitude that is reflected in job satisfaction may prevent employees from experiencing strain or burnout (Kalliath and Morris, 2002), potentially making it a valuable job resource.

4.2.3.3 Internal career advancement

Participants appreciated the learning experience and career opportunities the assignment enabled them to have. On one hand, they thought that the assignment was good for their personal development as by being exposed to different cultures and speaking another language, their confidence in handling difficult situations in the future was enhanced. On the other hand, they were convinced that their stay in a hardship location was beneficial for their professional development. Participants mentioned the opportunity to gain useful business contacts during the assignment and stressed the impact of the location on their CV. Especially, younger participants felt that the experience in a HE was a chance to stand out on the job market or to boost their career progression. Participants with more experience confirmed this notion and were convinced that assignments in hardship locations have led to a satisfying career. Noticeably was that only very few participants had a concrete career plan for after the assignment, with most participants being open to new opportunities that may arise.

"There's a big amount of opportunities here for people because it's a very HE, so very few people are willing to do the job…and living in a developing environment can catapult your career…to be in that role at 27, I hopscotched 15 years of my career. So, my competitor in my role at the company is about 15 years older than me. Lots more experience…Sometimes I wake up in the morning and start smiling to myself because I came up here 26 years old and I think the average age for somebody who goes and works as an expat is, they are in that 40 to 50 range where they are at the point in their career…Some days I wake up and I can't believe it. I feel like I am living somebody else's life." (Participant 35)

"That was particularly important for me, and for my professional career. Because in hardship you meet people whether they are drivers or high level leaders or whatever. We sit at the same table and share our experiences. So you find yourself next to a driver that used to work in South Sudan or Afghanistan, or a leader with huge experience, and valuable advice." (Participant 6)

"It was a good decision to do that because I learned a lot of things. I have seen a lot of countries, people and personalities. I learned a lot about myself in specific situations. That enriched my life. I made good experiences and have seen a lot of things I would have missed out if I had stayed at home." (Participant 19)

"This was an amazing opportunity for me to also have Somalia in my CV…I will probably never have this opportunity again…Now I have connections in 16-20 countries in Africa." (Participant 2)

"My very personal goal is probably to stay here for the next year more or less. And then go to another context. I don't know if that's going to be with [name of the organisation], or with another organisation." (Participant 41)

The impact of an international assignment on career progression still seems equivocal in the expatriate literature (Bonache et al., 2001; Dickmann and Doherty, 2008). Many expatriates have high expectations that their international experience will pay off but many studies report that repatriates often experience difficulties applying their gained knowledge or finding an appropriate position afterwards, often being stuck in a "career wobble" (Black and Gregersen, 1992; Brewster and Suutari, 2005, Dickmann and Harris, 2005). While expatriates found that the assignment helped to extend their international network, potentially beneficial for their career (Caligiuri and Di Santo, 2001; Dickmann and Harris, 2005), the reduction of contacts at home led to repatriates getting fewer recruitment calls, and no significant pay rises and promotions compared to domestic employees (Benson and Pattie, 2008; Hamori and Koyuncu, 2011; Dickmann and Doherty, 2008).

This paints a rather pessimistic picture, but it might be possible that the career impact takes effect at a later stage. For instance, a longitudinal study by Suutari and Brewster (2003) with Finnish expatriates found that they were generally satisfied with the outcome of their assignment, although many changed employer to increase the impact. Further, it is likely that the positive career outlook is unique to expatriates in HEs. Often an assignment in a hostile country is necessary either because the organisation lacks the needed skills abroad or field experience is required due to the nature of the job (e.g. in

an NGO or humanitarian aid). Potentially the exposure to increased risk and threat is honoured by employers with greater career chances. This notion is confirmed by expatriates in the study of Dickmann and Watson (2017) who found that their assignment in a HE would more likely lead to promotions as their learning experience was much more intense and much faster than back home.

Looking at the emphasised personal development and seemingly little attachment to their current employer, it seems that expatriates in this study concentrate on internal rather than external career advancement. This trend, often also referred to as "boundaryless careers", focuses on the personal challenge, professional development, and acquisition of skills not available at home as opposed to the advancement within the organisational hierarchy, willing to apply gained skills elsewhere (Caliguri and Lazarova, 2001; Stahl et al., 2002; Tung, 1998). Hence, it is plausible that expatriates rate the impact of their assignment rather from an intrinsic, self-development perspective and not from an intra-organisational perspective.

Similar to the discussion on job satisfaction (see chapter 4.2.3.2) one could argue that career satisfaction should lead to lower chances of burnout due to greater feelings of accomplishment (Becker et al., 2006). Individuals often have great expectations of their career, wanting to make contributions to their employer and to society. If these expectations are not fulfilled or individuals realise their goals cannot be achieved, feelings of low personal accomplishment and depersonalisation, two out of three components of burnout, are often the consequences (Inandi, 2009; Schwab et al., 1986). Thus, it is verisimilar that career advancement and the feeling that the assignment experience will be rewarded (by any employer) can prevent employees from developing a sense of depersonalisation or low accomplishment.

4.2.4 Personal resources

This section reports on the identified personal resources, thus resources in the private domain of the participants and not necessarily those provided by the employer.

4.2.4.1 Support network

The majority of participants relied on their personal social network as a source of support when situations became difficult. This social network was a mix of colleagues or other expatriates, family members and friends from back home, and local acquaintances, all seemingly having different functions. Colleagues and other expatriates, often also referred to as friends, were a valuable contact to talk about issues and challenges at work or in the host country. Participants did so because this group of people could understand their difficulties or specific situation the best as they often experienced similar conflicts. Together it was possible to let some steam off. With family members or friends, many participants tried not to talk about their problems as they would not understand the specific situation or, in the worst case, would get worried. Thus, most participants kept their problems aside when talking to people from back home. They rather wanted to hear their news and stories, with many participants mentioning that this was a good way to forget about the stressful day at work. Local people, while not mentioned as frequently, were an important source for information and help to adjust to the local lifestyle. This suggests that a diverse network, consisting of a mix of colleagues and other expats, people from back home, and locals is an important personal resource to cope with the demands.

"It's the friendships. A lot of the people that I work with are my friends outside of work…The best friends that I have made here are actually colleagues of mine because we understand each other's lifestyles. And we can talk about things almost in shorthand. There are three of us in particular that are very tight and all three of us have gone through issues. You know life outside of work issues. And we all turned up and have been there for each other and helped each other out…its incredible friendships you can make with people here." (Participant 12)

"*We've got each other here, so if you are going through a bad time, the chances are someone else is. You bounce off each other all the time*." (Participant 33)

"A lot of my colleagues that are from Europe or North America, you form a close bond with them because we are in it together. We are a team. So, they have been very very resourceful." (Participant 13)

"I don't tell them details of my life. I don't tell them when we are in hibernation. I don't tell them when we are woken up in the middle of the night to go into the safe room. I don't tell them that, because it would just worry them. And there is absolutely nothing they could do for me or for us. And because my parents tend to be anxious to begin with, so I don't want to make that worse for them. So, I don't tend to rely on my family too much for support. However, chatting with them, hearing about what's going on here, what the family's up to, it's definitely a form of support." (Participant 37)

"And with my other close friends from home, I like to talk to them about just general stuff and that's a stress reliever. I just don't feel like it's somewhere I like going for 'being foreign related stress'. Because also those guys don't get it." (Participant 34)

Social support has been identified as an important resource to deal with stress as individuals can rely on the support of others to deal with stressful situations (House, 1981). Research has shown that individuals with a high level of social support are generally in better physical and mental health with stress not having such a severe effect on their wellbeing (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Russell et al., 1987). Especially during international assignments, a social network has been found to help expatriates cope better with stressful situations and the increased uncertainty of a new environment (Wang and Nayir, 2006). In HEs, where stress is expected to be even higher and formal and institutional support rather limited, interpersonal networks were an alternative source of support, helping expatriates to stay calm and retain their positive work attitudes (Bader, 2015). In particular, a large and diverse network has been shown to lead to higher psychological wellbeing among expatriates in HEs (Bader and Schuster, 2015). A study among expatriate humanitarian aid workers found that the experience of supportive relationships can contribute to lower burnout (Eriksson et al., 2009).

Apart from the sole existence of a social network, its composition is also of great importance as different groups of people can provide different types of support. Considering the three identified groups of support by the participants of this study, it is possible that family members and friends from back home are predominantly responsible for emotional support by providing love, trust, and caring. Colleagues and other expatriates in contrast are beneficial for instrumental support by giving tangible aid in specific situations. As this group is expected to have similar problems, they promote a sense of belonging and togetherness in solving problems. Lastly, local people can supply informational support and give advice and suggestions (Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002;

Wang and Kanungo, 2006). Therefore, a social network consisting of different kinds of people and support can be considered as a valuable personal resource with the potential to decrease the chances of burnout.

4.2.4.2 Leisure coping strategies

A good way to overcome a stressful day was for participants to distance themselves from work by applying coping strategies that could be described as mental and physical distraction through pursuing a hobby. Some participants preferred doing activities with other people, while others favoured being on their own. Frequently named coping strategies were exploring the host country, socialising with others, reading, cooking, watching TV series or engaging in education. Sport or some form of physical exercise was particularly often mentioned with participants highlighting the importance of adequate sports facilities nearby. Participants referred to this as healthy coping strategies but admitted that either they or colleagues occasionally resorted to rather inapt ways of coping such as partying or drinking alcohol, which for some participants raised concerns.

"*If I have a really bad day then I usually try to clear my mind with sports. I think that's a very useful way to cope with stress or if you have some difficulties."* (Participant 21)

"I'm pretty calculated in if I feel I am overstressed, like I'm not afraid to leave the office and go to the gym in the middle of the day, just to make sure that I get some endorphins running through my body and I feel good again. I know that's an important part of being productive." (Participant 35)

"I go to the gym. That really helps me to get my head free and cool down and see things a bit more distantly…So, the gym is a healthy way to cope…Not so healthy ways to cope, but what I am also doing, is to have a beer or a cigarette. That's already less. I had one context before where I worked in Liberia and that was a very common coping strategy." (Participant 41)

"I am lucky because I am quite knowledgeable about managing stress and dealing with stress. There were other people that weren't like that. There were other people who clearly had issues with their anger management, their choice of lifestyle. Drinking and partying which are all ways of not coping but coping…I have been on the same mission where people are having 'Whiskey, Tango, Foxtrot' and others are doing yoga under the mango tree" (Participant 30)

Shortland (2016) reports similar coping strategies among female expatriates assigned to extreme locations with her participants engaging in available activities such as exercising in the gym, socialising and cooking with other expatriates, and undertaking further studies. These coping strategies could be described as leisure activities which in turn have been shown to help individuals cope with stress (Caltabianco, 1995; Wheeler and Frank, 1988). Leisure activities are believed to contribute to an improvement of life quality by experiencing feelings of freedom and intrinsic motivation (self-determination) and thus have the potential to positively affect mental and physical health (Coleman and Iso-Ahola, 1993; Neulinger, 1982). Although evidence remains limited, there are some studies that promote the notion that leisure can serve as a stress-reduction strategy.

For instance, Caltabianco (1994) found that three particular activities, namely outdoor-active sport, socialising, and cultural hobbies, had the ability to reduce stress. Physical activities have previously been valued for their positive impact on people's wellbeing (Pretty et al., 2005; Ulrich et al., 1991). Social contacts during leisure have been found beneficial as they provide an alternative way for informal disclosure of problems and finding solutions (Bolger and Eckenrode, 1991; Coleman and Iso-Ahola, 1993). Cultural hobbies such as listening to music have been perceived as stress-reducing because of their opportunity for distraction and mood changing (Caltabianco, 1994). This is in line with Kleiber et al. (2002) who propose that leisure, among other things, has the function to distract and generate optimism through positive emotions. Distraction through pleasurable diversionary activities enables individuals to distance themselves from the stress and to keep the mind off a problem at least for some time with the hope of being able to reinterpret the actual situation again later with a clearer mind. Lazarus et al. (1980) refer to this as "breathers from stress" or some form of escapism (Ulrich et al., 1991). Engaging in pleasurable activities is further expected to lead to positive-toned emotions (e.g. amusement) which can restore hope and optimism and help sustain coping efforts (Folkman and Moskowitz, 2000; Lazarus et al., 1980).

Iwasaki and Mannell (1999) distinguished between leisure coping beliefs (LCB) (people's belief that their leisure provides them with opportunities for effectively coping with stress) and leisure coping strategies (LCS) (actual coping behaviours and cognitions available through leisure) in explaining the underlying mechanisms of leisure and wellbeing. If situational influences are strong, as they are in a HE with limited options of leisure, individuals are more likely to engage in LCS in response to the situation (Iwasaki

and Mannell, 1999). LCS, which consists of the three components leisure companionship, leisure palliative coping through escapism, and leisure mood enhancement, has been demonstrated in the discussion above but also in other studies to lead to stress-reduction through immediate adaptive behaviour (Iwasaki, 2003; Iwasaki et al., 2002).

4.2.5 Personal demands

In this section demands experienced in the private sphere of the participants are being described and discussed.

4.2.5.1 Work-life conflicts

Work-life conflicts experienced in the form of relationship challenges was one of the most frequently mentioned demand in the personal sphere of the participants. For those expatriates in a relationship or with family duties, separation from the family was described as the hardest challenge. Many participants had the feeling that they left their partner alone with all the responsibilities back home by not being able to attend important family events (e.g. Christmas, graduations, funerals) or being absent when more presence was needed. Especially, separating again after being home for a few weeks was considered to be extremely tough. Separation from the loved ones also resulted in feelings of loneliness for the expatriate. Participants reported that divorce was not uncommon, with many asking themselves how long their relationship would be able to withstand the burden of long-distance. Even when the family was accompanying the expatriate, intra-family conflicts still arose. Concerns about the family's safety and feelings of guilt for making the family relocate and live a restricted lifestyle while having little time for them often triggered arguments.

> *"My partner was held up at gun point at school…and you know, me being up here is in some ways selfish. I tried to send her back to Australia, but she wanted to stay with me here, so that's been a point of contention between us. It's put some strain on my relationship."* (Participant 35)

"Let's say 80% of the people that work in that industry have family problems. More than 50% are already divorced. I don't know anyone that is still with their wife…I have problems with my wife because of this job. And I think I came back at the right time to deal with this. Otherwise I would lose my family." (Participant 28)

"You have private problems because you are far from your family…You go abroad to earn more, but you are not there when you are needed. This is an argument I had with all women I had a relationship with…Sometimes they need your presence and you are not there. By phone you cannot solve everything…Especially when the children are growing up or your wife is feeling blue and you are thousands of kilometres away. This is the biggest difficulty to deal with." (Participant 24)

However, single expatriates also experienced work-life conflicts and relationships challenges as they found it difficult to build up relationships in the first place. Respondents perceived it as challenging to settle into the new environment and participants were often too busy or exhausted to make the effort to go out and meet new people. If they met someone, they found that there was a lack of understanding for the expatriate lifestyle that often consists of long working hours and frequent business trips. Mostly other expatriates complied with those routines, but relationships were often constrained by time with many individuals not wanting to engage in a serious relationship while on an assignment. Starting a relationship back home was also considered problematic as the breaks between the rotations were not long enough to establish profound links with someone. Even if it did work out, couples eventually had to tackle the challenge of separation, creating a vicious cycle for relationships.

"That's the downside of this kind of work. It is very difficult to even keep a relationship because you are always on the plane or in different hotels." (Participant 2)

"What bothers me more is the repercussions of being tired and therefore not being able to really have a life in the city that I live in…It's also not great for relationships. Women don't love the idea of somebody that is not on the lock. As much as they say they love the idea of somebody that travels but in practice it doesn't always work out. Travelling around so much, it is just difficult to maintain the relationship." (Participant 17)

"One month is not long enough to meet a woman, woo her, and then make something. The woman is just getting to start to want you and you are like 'See you later. I have got to go; I will see you again in two months'…Once you start breaking that barrier then you also need to tell her that you work away. It is very hard. Women want their boyfriend to be there. That's a massive downfall to working out here." (Participant 33)

The influence of the family on the assignment's success has been acknowledged for a long time in the expatriate literature (see Mäkelä and Suutari, 2011; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998; Tung, 1988). In fact, family issues are the main reason for expatriates to refuse or leave the assignment prematurely (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2016). Changing the entire lifestyle and routines makes expatriation stressful for a family, and stress experienced in the private sphere can spill over to the work sphere and vice versa (Lazarova et al., 2010; De Cieri et al., 1991). Studies on international business travellers and "flexpatriates" (frequent flyers), which have a similar working patterns to the expatriates on rotational assignments in this study, identified separation from family as one of the major challenges for the expatriate and the partner left behind (Mayerhofer et al., 2004a; Shaffer et al., 2012).

While expatriates usually have to leave (some) family and social ties in the home country behind, they often get little chance (time) to build new ties in the host country, adding additional stress and feelings of loneliness (Mayerhofer et al., 2004b). In line with the findings of this study, the little research carried out on martial stress during expatriation further confirms that assignments can put strain on a relationship and lead to separation or divorce (McNulty, 2015). A common source of tension was the lack of time spent together and the absence of the working partner due to long working hours or frequent business travel which resulted in trailing spouses to feel lonely and left alone (Lazarova et al., 2015; McNulty, 2012).

Literature in the domestic working context suggests that work-family conflicts are associated with health-impairing conditions such as burnout, somatic complaints and depression (Burke, 1988; Thomas and Gauster, 1995). This is because the individual experiences inter-role conflicts, which arise when the compliance with one role (the one at work) is incompatible with the full compliance with another role (the one at home) (Kahn et al., 1964). Performing incompatible roles eventually leads to increased stress and strain and thus lower wellbeing (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). In the expatriate context, work-family or some sort of work-life conflict is likely to happen due to the increased responsibility and excessive work demands (Lazarova et al., 2010), making work-life conflicts a potential predictor of burnout among expatriates in HEs.

4.2.5.2 Non-work constraints

Surprisingly, the majority of respondents did not experience any fear of crime or victimisation but rather found the consequences of the host country's safety situation as demanding. While during work, safety was well taken care of by the employer with participants having trust in their ability, safety issues were perceived as a non-work constraint with restrictions in the private sphere. The host country's safety situation required for certain lifestyle changes to be made by having to implement several safety measures and often limiting leisure activities and socialisation to the camp or compound, drastically restricting the freedom of movement. Movements outside the compound were only possible in designated areas and under strict safeguards such as only travelling by private taxis or following the organisational curfews. While this certainly increased the feeling of safety, it also resulted in participants feeling somehow controlled and monitored by their organisation, blurring the line between work and private domains even more. Besides, leisure activities or any other form of cultural entertainment after work were limited, resulting in participants feeling restrained and bored. Although participants reported getting used to the safety restrictions and implementations necessary, most of them found it tiresome to always have it on the back of their minds.

> *"We are in an open sky jail. There is absolutely no going out. It's not like in the capital city where you have restaurants and bars that you can go to. Here we are inside of a camp and you can never get out… I think the hardest aspect is actually that we have nowhere to go to unwind or think about something else. Whether it's going to a bar or take a walk in the woods. We are stuck. It's an open sky jail. We really call it this way. At times it gets really challenging."* (Participant 23)

> *"I have always been under military protection. We lived in facilities with military police. We moved with an escort. But from another point of view you are very strictly under control. Somebody can feel a little bit oppressed possibly. You don't really have a possibility to have a personal life. You cannot go out of the housing facility on your own, especially in the evening."* (Participant 24)

> *"In the jobs in Iraq, Somalia and Syria you don't have any freedom. Freedom to move. In Somalia, I used to sit doing nothing for one month. Just watching TV, gathering with friends. And every day I am thinking about my family. So, this is the stress."* (Participant 28)

"There are a few restaurants and bars in town that we are allowed to go. Some bars are off limits because there are in a dangerous zone. We have specific locations in the city that we can go to. And at 10 o'clock in the evening we have to be home."
(Participant 21)

Very little research exists on the impact of compound life and non-work constraints during expatriation (Harvey and Kiessling, 2004). Expatriates in the study of Shortland (2016) perceived the restricted freedom of movement outside the compound and the limited private space as particularly burdening. While it provided them with security and shelter, it was difficult to develop a sense of space as the compounds did not offer any intimate or sentimental attachment. Safety-related constraints similar to the ones described above, have been found to trigger country leave intentions and their experience to be more profound in the non-work domain (Bader et al., 2016). In addition, life in compounds has shown to lead to expatriate in-group behaviour with little contact to the outside environment creating an "expat bubble" or enclave, perhaps intensifying the feeling of confinement (Lauring and Selmer, 2009; Smiley, 2010). Faeth and Kittler (2017) found that curtailment on mobility and travel had a negative impact on the physical wellbeing but also the overall perceived life quality which in turn has shown to increase the expatriate's stress level (Bader et al., 2015; Bader and Berg, 2013).

Satisfaction with one's neighbourhood and community, the presence of valued escape facilities, and social integration have been shown to promote wellbeing and overall life satisfaction (Fried, 1984; Guite et al., 2006). However, safety restrictions reduce the perceived quality of the aforementioned factors and diminish people's control over their life and their social interactions. This in turn can lead to a lower sense of mastery, perceived life quality and, ultimately, lower physical and mental wellbeing (Adams and Serpe, 2000; Michalos and Zumbo, 2000; Powdthavee, 2005). In fact, evidence exists that there is an association between life satisfaction and burnout (Hakanen and Schaufeli, 2012). Thus, in this study, the risk of impeded wellbeing might not be triggered by the actual fear of victimisation (Møller, 2005; Sulemana, 2015) but lower perceived life quality due to non-work constraints.

4.3 The proposed JD-R model for expatriation in hostile environments

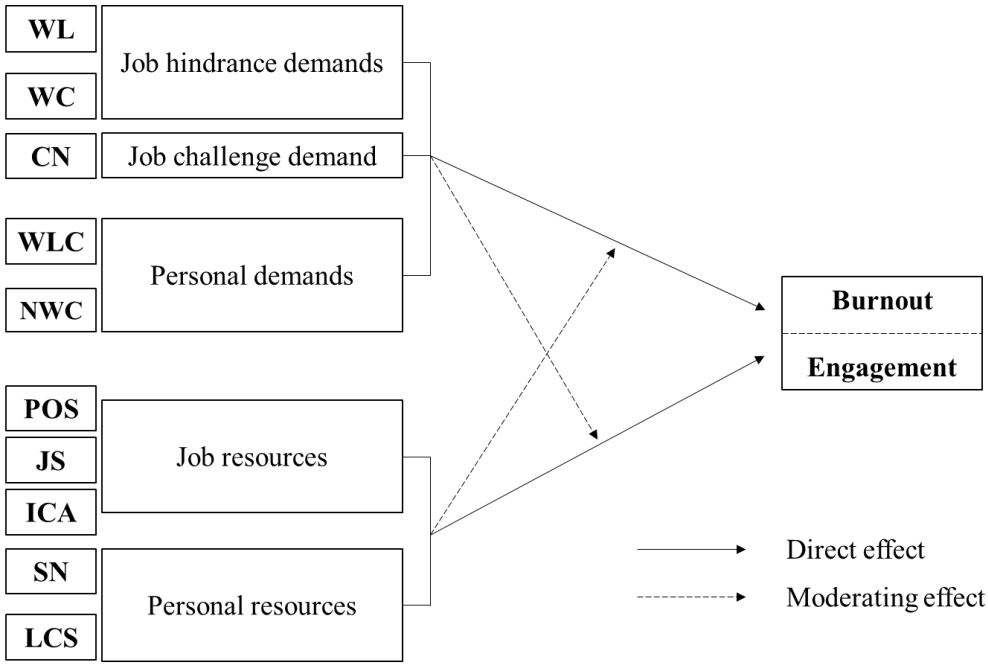
The qualitative data suggests that the JD-R framework has potential to explain work-related outcomes in global mobility contexts. The participants' experiences seem to match well with the assumptions and categorisations of the JD-R and stress literature. The JD-R model's pathways explaining the role of job (and personal) characteristics leading to burnout and engagement seem to particularly aid the understanding of expatriate wellbeing in hostile contexts. As the ensuing quote from an expatriate assigned to the Central African Republic implies, some participants perceived their current situation as close to being 'burned out'.

> *"Actually, I think that I am getting burned out because of that situation. I think that the conditions of my job are very demanding and very stressful. And if I add these [...] to the country and the living conditions, that's another reason to be stressed."* (Participant 38)

Based on the interview material and the existing empirical insights from the global mobility and JD-R literature (see chapter 2), the following JD-R model for expatriation in HEs is proposed. It advances the general JD-R model (see Figure 2.3) by context-relevant demands and resources as well as the incorporation of personal demands and a moderating effect of job and personal demands on the relationship between job and personal resources and work engagement (see also chapter 5.1).

At a first glance, the model appears to reflect the traditional version of the JD-R model. However, while some of the issues that emerged in the interviews are applicable to the wider expatriate context, irrespective of the assignment location (see chapter 7.3.1), other demands seem more specific or even exclusive to the context of HEs, such as the described work and non-work constraints. In contrast, demands and resources such as workload, POS, support network, and internal career advancement are expected to also be of high relevance in the traditional expatriate context. However, the extent to which they are experienced may be more pronounced in HEs, potentially amplifying their impact on the proposed outcome.

Figure 4.1: JD-R model for expatriation in HEs



WL = workload; **WC** = work constraints; **CN** = cultural novelty; **POS** = perceived organisational support; **JS** = job satisfaction; **ICA** = internal career advancement; **WLC** = work-life conflicts; **NWC** = non-work constraints; **SN** = support network; **LCS** = leisure coping strategies

For instance, as per the definition, the described work and non-work constraints are unique features of a HE as they are a consequence of the host country's lack of security, development and rules and regulations (see chapter 2.2.1). The workload might be even more profound as many jobs require 24/7 availability and full separation from work might not always be possible due to enclosed working and living arrangements. Also, rotational assignments exact a 7-day working week so that enough working time has built up to go on RnR. Cultural novelty could be seen as particularly great as many countries considered to be hostile still possess cultural values that are oppositional to those of Western societies and can potentially be life-threatening if expatriates do not comply with those. For example, a lot of countries still do not consider women as fully-fledged members of society and expect them to cover large part of their bodies or impose the death sentence for homosexuality (see McPhail and McNulty, 2015). Such substantially differing cultural values may create tensions and issues between expatriates and local colleagues. Work-life conflicts could be expected to be also more impactful as separation from the family is usually forced, not leaving the family with any choice. Partners remaining in the home country do not get the chance to visit and thus do not have real

accounts of what the situation is like in the host country, often leading to a lack of understanding for the partner's situation or constant worry about their safety. Even when the family/partner is accompanying, they not only face the challenge of adapting to a new culture but also to adopt safety measures into their daily routines, and to cope with a fundamentally different lifestyle and perhaps lower standard of living. Both scenarios are expected to put an additional burden on the relationship and offer potential for conflict and challenges expatriates in low-risk countries do not necessarily have to deal with. For single expatriates, the lifestyle in HEs leaves little time to meet and establish profound links with someone and even if they do, couples eventually have to tackle the challenge of separation, creating a vicious cycle for relationships. Individuals willing to incur such great demands are probably more likely to ascribe even more importance to job satisfaction as a valuable resource.

4.4 Further discussion: Does safety not matter?

As outlined previously, safety concerns were not explicitly named as a job or personal demand. This seems surprising, given the definition of a HE (see chapter 2.2.1) and the resulting country selection of assignment destinations (chapter 3.4.1). To find possible explanations, the author conducted another interview with an expatriate who had more than 25 years of work experience in HEs. He was convinced that most expatriates are probably concerned about their safety situation but did not mention it in the interview. He further believes that those expatriates who are not able to handle the increased hostility leave the assignment prematurely, suggesting that expatriates need to possess certain skills or personality traits to be able to cope.

"It [safety situation] is a concern all of the time and anyone who says it's not is lying or stupid and dangerous to themselves and others. Managers are always watching out for these types and getting rid of them. However, the types of people who agree to work in HEs are generally able to cope with the security routines that keep them safe - if not, they leave." (Expert Interview)

In his point of view, the biggest danger for expatriates working in HEs is complacency, becoming too 'familiar' with the security conditions, and not following routine procedures that are designed to keep them safe. The familiarisation with the safety

situation was indeed an observation that was made among the expatriates of this study (see chapter 4.2.5.2).

Similarly, possible explanations might also be found in the literature. In line with the argumentation of the interview participant, the study by Stoermer et al. (2017) found that sensation-seeking, more prevalent in male expatriates, increased the willingness to relocate to a HE due to increased desire for adventure and thrills (see chapter 2.2.4.2). In a similar vein, many participants expressed that they found they held the skill set needed to succeed in their jobs in HEs (see chapter 4.2.3.2). Thus, another explanation might be borrowed from the person-environment fit theory (Edwards et al., 1998), implying that participants' characteristics (e.g. needs, values, goals, abilities, personalities) matched the demands of the environment. A good person-environment fit as well as appropriate pre-departure training and preparations (see chapter 4.2.3.1) might have further helped to convey the right expectations about the assignment and thus may have eased the adjustment process and acclimatisation to the safety situation (Caligiuri et al., 2001).

It might also be possible that the described encapsulation in secure compounds and upper-class neighbourhoods (see chapter 4.1.3) prevented the expatriates from being confronted with the more severe dangers of the host country, increasing their feeling of safety (Smiley, 2010). Lastly, a further explanation might be that the denial of the severity of the safety situation was a way of coping with the stress (Scheier et al., 1986), which would explain why participants did not mention their concerns in the interviews.

4.5 Overview of key findings

The aim of the qualitative study was to identify relevant job as well as personal demands and resources for expatriates working in HEs. In total, 10 potential predictors for burnout and work engagement have been identified. Findings indicate that work overload and work constraints were the main job hindrance demands identified, whereas cultural novelty was perceived as a job challenge demand. Valuable job resources in contrast were POS, job satisfaction, and internal career advancement. The experienced demands in the personal sphere were work-life interference and non-work constraints, and the important personal resources were a support network and leisure coping strategies.

While distinct aspects of the model, such as the role of cultural novelty on adjustment (Selmer, 2006), intra-family conflicts (Mäkelä and Suutari, 2011), effectiveness of support (Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002), are well-known points of discussion in the expatriate stress literature, or have been identified as significant predictors in domestic JD-R studies (workload, peer support, career opportunities; Bakker et al., 2010b; work-home interference; Peeters et al., 2005), they have not been combined yet in a single model to predict burnout and engagement among expatriates. Thus, the proposed model does not only make new extensions to the existing model, but also unifies demands and resources that are relevant for domestic work settings, the expatriate context in general, and assignments in HEs.

5. Study 2: Quantitative study

This chapter describes the statistical procedures of the quantitative study in relation to the research objectives proposed in chapter 1.3. It first outlines the steps taken for data preparation and the descriptive analysis, before moving to the analysis of the hypotheses. Next, findings of the inferential statistics are discussed in relation to existing literature and explanations provided. The chapter finishes with a brief overview of key findings.

5.1 Hypotheses of the quantitative study

In the following quantitative study, the researcher will test which of the identified demands and resources are of statistical significance for the development of burnout or engagement (H1, H2). The researcher will also assess which of the identified demands can have a negative effect on the development of engagement (H3) and which identified resources can have a positive effect on the development of burnout (H4). While H1, H2 and H4 (also known as "buffer hypothesis") are established assumptions in the JD-R literature (Demerouti and Bakker, 2011), the association between demands and work engagement (H3) is less clear yet (Bakker et al., 2005; Sawang, 2012). These are the concrete hypotheses to be tested:

$H1_{(a)}$: Workload has a positive relationship with burnout

$H1_{(b)}$: Work constraints have a positive relationship with burnout

$H1_{(c)}$: Cultural novelty has a positive relationship with burnout

$H1_{(d)}$: Work-life conflicts have a positive relationship with burnout

$H1_{(e)}$: Non-work constraints have a positive relationship with burnout

$H2_{(a)}$: Perceived organisational support has a positive relationship with engagement

$H2_{(b)}$: Job satisfaction has a positive relationship with engagement

$H2_{(c)}$: Internal career advancement has a positive relationship with engagement

$H2_{(d)}$: A support network has a positive relationship with engagement

$H2_{(e)}$: Leisure coping strategies have a positive relationship with engagement

H3: Job and personal demands have a moderating effect on the relationship between job and personal resources and work engagement

H4: Job and personal resources have a moderating effect on the relationship between job and personal demands and burnout

Whereas challenge demands might act as an intrinsic motivator leading to more work engagement (see chapter 2.3.1), it is likely that excessive demands turn into a stressor as they require high mental or physical effort to cope with (Nahrgang et al., 2011). Employees may feel fatigued or exhausted and that their resources are drained (also referred to as "loss spiral"; Hobfoll, 2001) which makes it difficult to engage at work (Sawang, 2012; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009b). Further, work engagement is perceived as a positive indicator for work-related wellbeing, contradicting the positive association of job demands and lower wellbeing (Sonnentag et al., 2010). Thus, it seems plausible to assume that demands can have a negative impact on work engagement, leading to the derivation of H3.

All hypotheses assume that both, job and personal, demands and resources have a potential effect on the development of burnout or work engagement. This can be explained by the spill-over theory which states that negative as well as positive attitudes, emotions, and feelings in one domain of life can spill over to another domain of life (Bolger et al., 1989). Thus, stress or enthusiasm experienced at work can spill over into the individual's private life and vice versa (Ford et al., 2007). In addition, stress or enthusiasm can also cross over to and from other individuals, for instance the spouse (Westman, 2001).

Evidence exists that also home demands and resources are predictors of burnout and work engagement, suggesting that both work and home factors affect employee wellbeing and health (Hanaken et al., 2008; Bakker et al., 2005). For instance, home demands have shown to have a direct effect on burnout through the experience of work-home interference (WHI) and home-work interference (HWI) (Peeters et al., 2005) and can lead to a loss of vigour, thus negatively impacting the motivational process (Mauno et al., 2007). In contrast, home resources such as a supportive and understanding family have been identified as predictors for work engagement (Bakker et al., 2005).

5.2 Results

This section entails the results of the data analysis, using descriptive and inferential statistics.

5.2.1 Descriptive analysis

All statistical procedures were carried in SPSS version 25. A detailed overview of the survey measures used can be found in chapter 3.5.2.

5.2.1.1 Data preparation

In preparation for all statistical procedures, certain items were reversed coded due to positive and negative worded content. This was necessary for the instruments measuring workload, support network and burnout/engagement. For the instrument of cultural novelty, a more complex procedure was necessary and new variables had to be calculated. Following the advice of the instrument's authors (Hippler et al., 2014), this was done by multiplying the binary 'change y/n' (1,0) data with the significance rating of the change (from 1 to 4) and the direction of the change (-1,0,+1) (see chapter 3.5.2 for details). Thus, a value between -4 and +4 was obtained for each of the 7 items. For categorical data, dummy variables were created.

Following this, reliability analysis of the instruments was conducted using Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Clark and Watson, 1995). All Cronbach α values were above .70 (see chapter 3.5.2) which is generally the recommended minimum value for sufficient reliability, with a score around .90 being seen as ideal (George and Mallery, 2016). Due to the good Cronbach α values, no items had to be removed.

5.2.1.2 Description of the sample

The majority of the respondents came from Europe (67.4%) and North America (12.9%) and held a Manager (33.7%) or Specialist (29.8%) position. Most participants were employed in the NGO sector (69.7%), followed by the public (15.7%) and private (14.6%) sectors. In total, participants were assigned to 49 different countries, with the majority working and living in Afghanistan (11.7%), followed by Iraq (11.1%), the

Democratic Republic of Congo (7.8%), Chad (6.1%), Yemen (5.6%), Sudan (5.6%), the Central African Republic (3.9%), South Africa (3.9%) and Somalia (3.9%). The average time spent on the current assignment was 19.18 months and participants had on average 11.28 years of experience as an expatriate.

In Table 5.1, the frequencies and percentages of the control variables were calculated. The most frequently observed category of gender was female (n=90; 50.6%) and the most frequent age group was below 35 (n=71; 39.9%). White/Caucasian was the most common ethnicity group (n=142; 79.9%), the majority of respondents had no children (n=116; 65.2%) and had previous assignment experience in a HE (n=116; 68%). In other words, the average respondent of this study was female, below 35, white/Caucasian, had no children and did have previous assignment experience in hostile contexts.

Table 5.1: Descriptive statistics of participants' demographics

Variable	n	%
Gender		
- Male	85	47.8
- Female	90	50.6
- Prefer not to say	3	1.7
Age		
- Below 35 years	71	39.9
- 35-44 years	46	25.8
- 45-54 years	31	17.4
- 55 and above	30	16.9
Ethnicity		
- White/Caucasian	142	79.8
- Mixed/Multiple	4	2.2
- Asian	10	5.6
- Black/African/Caribbean	4	2.2
- Arab	3	1.7
- Hispanic	3	1.7
- Prefer not to say	9	5.1
- Other	3	1.7
Children		
- Yes	61	34.3
- No	116	65.2
- Prefer not to say	1	.6
Assignment experience		
- Yes, in a HE	121	68
- Yes, in a low-risk environment	76	42.7
- No	11	6.2

5.2.1.3 Data quality

Before beginning with the inferential statistics, the final step of data preparation involved checks for violations of normality and multicollinearity. Data was interpreted using visual indicators (e.g. histograms and Q-Q plots; see Appendix IV) and numerical indicators (e.g. skewness/ kurtosis, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Pearson's r). In regard to skewness and kurtosis, the rule of thumb is that the skewness should not be greater/less or equal to 2 and -2 as otherwise the distribution is markedly different from a normal distribution in its asymmetry. When the kurtosis is greater or equal to 3 then the distribution is markedly different from a normal distribution in its propensity to produce outliers (Westfall and Henning, 2013). Skewness and kurtosis values were calculated in SPSS and compared with zero using the z-distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Another indicator for normal distribution can be the associated standard error. Namely, if the skewness and kurtosis statistic is roughly less than twice the associated standard error, the data is normally distributed (McQueen and Knussen, 2006). Please refer to Table 5.2 for skewness and kurtosis statistics.

Table 5.2: Skewness and kurtosis statistics

Variable	**Skewness**	**$SE_{Skewness}$**	**$Z_{Skewness}$**	**Kurtosis**	**$SE_{Kurtosis}$**	**$Z_{Kurtosis}$**
workload	-.414	.182	**-2.275**	-.182	.362	-.503
work constraints	.422	.182	**2.319**	-.248	.362	-.685
cultural novelty	.074	.182	.407	-.214	.362	-.591
perceived organisational support	-.240	.182	-1.319	-.628	.362	-1.735
job satisfaction	-.735	.182	**-4.038**	1.032	.362	2.851
internal career advancement	-.059	.182	-.324	.142	.362	.0392
work-life conflicts	-.514	.182	**-2.824**	-.077	.362	-.213
non-work constraints	.022	.182	.121	-.913	.362	-2.522
support network	-.504	.182	**-2.769**	.095	.362	.262
leisure coping strategies	-.754	.182	**-4.143**	1.732	.362	**4.785**
burnout/ engagement	.129	.182	.709	.316	.362	.871

For all variables, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test provided significant results, suggesting that none of the variables are normally distributed. However, in large sample (>100), the test shows a significance, even when the scores are only slightly different from a normal distribution (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2005). Therefore, the researcher relied on the skewness and kurtosis values to ascertain normality of data. According to the Z-scores of skewness and kurtosis, the variables of *workload*, *work constraints*, *job satisfaction*, *work-life conflicts*, *support network* and *leisure coping strategies* are not normally distributed, with the first two being just slightly over the threshold of 2/-2. However, the bigger the sample the less impact the skewness will have on the analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Also, according to the central limit theorem, large samples (>30) tend to be normally distributed which served as justification to use the Pearson's correlation coefficient (Field, 2013). It should also be noted that in order to perform a multiple regression analysis, predictors do not have to be normally distributed but their residuals do, which is the case (see chapter 5.2.2.4; Field, 2013). As in social science data is seldom normally distributed and visually the data did not show major conspicuousness, the researcher decided against a data transformation (Pallant, 2005).

Table 5.3 shows the descriptive analysis (mean values, standard deviations (SDs), and intercorrelations using Pearson's r) of the study variables. As concerns existed regarding the normality of some variables, the researcher also performed a non-parametric test using Spearman's correlation coefficients which can be seen in Table 5.4. However, in the following, the researcher focuses on the results of Pearson's r as both tests' coefficients (r vs rho) more or less came to the same conclusion.

The strength of the Pearson correlation values was checked to avoid multicollinearity between the variables by scanning the table for high r values. Values across all variables were below .9 implying that common method bias, which is an inflated correlation caused by the measurement method rather than the constructs the measure represent, was not an issue (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Except for the correlations between workload and work-life conflicts (r = .520) and job satisfaction and burnout/engagement (r = -.593), all values were even below .5. However, the two higher correlations do not seem surprising as someone who experiences high workload (and perhaps does lots of over hours) will find that work gets in the way of their private life. Also, someone who feels very satisfied with their job is less likely to suffer from burnout.

Table 5.3: Means, SDs and Pearson's correlation coefficients

	Mean	SD	WL	WC	CN	POS	JS	ICA	WLC	NWC	SN	LCS	BE
WL	70.0999	15.9145	1										
WC	38.7640	18.0799	.255**	1									
CN	-8.6677	40.0204	-.102	-.197**	1								
POS	49.3820	21.8379	-.079	-.367**	.098	1							
JS	65.5899	17.4715	.144	-.151*	.159*	.454**	1						
ICA	51.0674	15.0816	.073	-.061	-.003	.123	.107	1					
WLC	65.2388	19.3342	.520**	.355**	-.077	-.226**	-.140	-.036	1				
NWC	52.0911	26.9664	.073	.278**	-.034	-.169*	.000	-.004	.286**	1			
SN	73.7047	17.2556	-.033	-.338**	.177	.276**	.194**	.280**	-.370**	-.080	1		
LCS	61.5793	18.1839	-.110	.013	.054	.006	.092	.161*	-.078	.180*	.163*	1	
BE	46.4771	14.1247	.277**	.325**	-.280**	-.435**	-.593**	-.085	.286**	.180*	-.335**	-.158*	1

WL = workload; **WC** = work constraints; **CN** = cultural novelty; **POS** = perceived organisational support; **JS** = job satisfaction; **ICA** = internal career advancement; **WLC** = work-life conflicts; **NWC** = non-work constraints; **SN** = support network; **LCS** = leisure coping strategies; **BE** = burnout/ engagement; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{*}p < .05$; (2-tailed)

Table 5.4: Means, SDs and Spearman's correlation coefficients

	Mean	SD	WL	WC	CN	POS	JS	ICA	WLC	NWC	SN	LCS	BE
WL	70.0999	15.9145	1										
WC	38.7640	18.0799	.253**	1									
CN	-8.6677	40.0204	-.092	-.211**	1								
POS	49.3820	21.8379	-.119	-.375**	.104	1							
JS	65.5899	17.4715	.099	-.146	.194*	.412**	1						
ICA	51.0674	15.0816	.086	-.071	.024	.124	.148*	1					
WLC	65.2388	19.3342	.514**	.346**	-.064	-.214**	-.151	-.034	1				
NWC	52.0911	26.9664	.101	.293**	-.041	-.157*	.004	-.005	.279**	1			
SN	73.7047	17.2556	-.072	-.268**	.106	.253**	.167*	.227**	-.376**	-.037	1		
LCS	61.5793	18.1839	-.103	-.026	.039	-.012	.034	.188*	-.033	.182*	.106	1	
BE	46.4771	14.1247	.279**	.342**	-.284**	-.419**	-.558**	-.095	.441**	.207**	-.291**	-.096	1

WL = workload; **WC** = work constraints; **CN** = cultural novelty; **POS** = perceived organisational support; **JS** = job satisfaction; **ICA** = internal career advancement; **WLC** = work-life conflicts; **NWC** = non-work constraints; **SN** = support network; **LCS** = leisure coping strategies; **BE** = burnout/ engagement; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{*}p < .05$; (2-tailed)

Significant r values were also found for the relationships between: workload and work constraints ($r = .255$, $p < .01$); work constraints and cultural novelty ($r = -.197$, $p < .01$); work constraints and perceived organisational support ($r = -.367$, $p < .01$); work constraints and job satisfaction ($r = -.151$, $p < .05$); work constraints and work-life conflicts ($r = .355$, $p < .01$); work constraints and non-work constraints ($r = .278$, $p <$,01); work constraints and support network ($r = -.388$, $p < .01$); cultural novelty and job satisfaction ($r = .159$, $p < .05$); POS and job satisfaction ($r = .454$, $p < .01$); POS and work-life conflicts ($r = -.226$, $p < .01$); POS and non-work constraints ($r = -.169$, $p < .05$); perceived organisational support and support network ($r = .276$, $p < .01$); job satisfaction and support network ($r = .194$, $p < .01$); internal career advancement and support network ($r = .280$, $p < .01$); internal career advancement and leisure coping strategies ($r = .161$, $p < .05$); work-life conflicts and non-work constraints ($r = .286$, $p < .01$); work-life conflicts and support network ($r = -.370$, $p < .01$); non-work constraints and leisure coping strategies ($r = .180$, $p < .05$); and support network and leisure coping strategies ($r = .163$, $p < .05$). In addition, all independent variables had a significant relationship with the dependent variable (burnout/engagement), except for internal career advancement, which is a good precondition for multiple regression (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The job and personal demands (WL, WC, WLC, NWC) have a positive correlation, suggesting that when they increase, burnout increases as well. The job and personal resources (POS, JS, ICA, SN, LCS) have a negative correlation, suggesting that when they increase, burnout decreases and thus engagement increases. Against expectations, the relationship between cultural novelty and burnout/engagement was not positive but negative which requires further investigation (see chapter 5.3).

Performing collinearity diagnostics in SPSS confirmed the non-existence of multicollinearity as all variance inflation factor (VIF) scores were below 10 and the VIF tolerance statistic values were above .1.

5.2.2 Analysis of the hypotheses

This section describes the analysis of each hypothesis beginning with an overview of preliminary considerations (exploring the assumptions to perform multiple regression analysis), followed by an outline of the multiple regression analysis and associated results. Guidelines provided by Field (2013) were used when conducting and interpreting the analysis. Procedural limitations are discussed in a separate section in chapter 7.2.

5.2.2.1 Preliminary considerations

Multiple regression analysis was used to assess the predictive value of job/personal demands and resources in the development of burnout/engagement (H1, H2) and their moderating effects (H3, H4). For each analysis, tables are presented including the *standardised beta coefficients (β)* to compare the strength of the effect of each independent variable to the dependent variable; *multiple R* to display the correlation between the observed values and the predicted values of the outcome (a gauge of how well the model predicts the data); *R square* (R^2) to show the amount of variation in the outcome variable that is accounted for by the model (a gauge of the size of the relationship), and *adjusted R square* as a measure of the loss/shrinkage of predictive power.

To test hypotheses $1_{(a-e)}$ and $2_{(a-e)}$, all independent and control variables were entered simultaneously using the forced entry function in SPSS. This method is considered particularly appropriate when testing a theory (Studenmund and Cassidy, 1987; see also chapter 3.5.3). Results can be seen in Table 6 under model 1. A new regression analysis (model 2) was run only with the significant variables ($p > 0.1$) to see how the adjusted R^2 would change. Comparing values of R^2 and adjusted R^2 in both models showed that expectedly in model 2 the value of R^2 decreased but that the value of adjusted R^2 actually increased, meaning that model 2 represents the more accurate model. To test the moderating hypotheses (H3 and H4), a third regression analysis (model 3) was performed that included the moderation variables. Moderation variables were calculated using the independent variables from model 2.

To determine the statistical power of the regression model, a post-hoc power analysis was performed using the software G*Power, as recommended by Field (2013). *Cohen's* f^2 was used to measure the effect size (the magnitude of an effect) as it is considered to be appropriate for multiple regression models in which the independent and dependent variables are continuous (Selya et al., 2012). Following the guidelines of Cohen (1992), the standard α-level of .05 was chosen as well as a small (f^2 = .02), medium (f^2 = .15) and large effect size (f^2 = .35). In G*Power 'F-test' along with 'Linear multiple regression: Fixed model, R^2 deviation from zero' was selected to calculate the statistical power using the aforementioned effect sizes. The statistical power results for both models are as follows: model 1 (dependent variables = 16, n = 178), small = .147, medium = .908, and large = .999, model 2 (dependent variables = 8, n = 178), small = .204, medium = .971, and large = .999. In both models, the statistical power is met with a large and medium effect size, using .8 as the benchmark of minimum achieved power (Field, 2013).

5.2.2.2 Demands and resources as predictors of burnout/engagement

Two separate multiple regression analyses were conducted to estimate whether job/personal demands predict burnout (H1) and job/personal resources predict engagement (H2). Summaries of both regression models can be found in Table 5.5.

In model 1, all variables (independent and control) were entered into the model simultaneously. Looking at the model summary, the predictors and the outcome have a medium to high correlation (R = .774) and the predictors included in model 1 account for 60% (R^2 = .600) of the variability in burnout/engagement. In other words, 60% of burnout/engagement can be explained by the variables in the model. This appears satisfactory when considering that a similar study, investigating the relationship between job demands and resources and burnout and engagement among nurses, reported an R^2 value of .500 (see Garcia-Sierra et al., 2016). The value of adjusted R^2 is .532 and specifies how well the model generalises and ideally, this value should be close to the value of R^2 (Field, 2013). In model 1, there is a shrinkage between R^2 and adjusted R^2 of .068, meaning that if the model was derived from the population rather than the sample it would account for approximately 6.8% less variance in the outcome.

Examining the standardised β values, it is conspicuous that only workload ($p > .05$), cultural novelty ($p > .01$), perceived organisational support ($p > .1$), job satisfaction ($p > .01$), work-life conflicts ($p > .1$), support network ($p > .1$), age ($p > .1$), ethnicity Arab ($p > .1$) and ethnicity Hispanic ($p > .1$) make a statistical significant contribution in affecting burnout/engagement. For all other variables in the model, a significant effect could not be detected. To see whether the predictive character of the model would increase, a second regression analysis was carried out, excluding all non-significant variables in model 1.

Results of the second analysis show that the values of R and R^2 only decreased slightly ($R = .750$, $R^2 = .563$), while the adjusted R^2 actually increased, suggesting that the predictive power of the model has improved. Some significance values of the β coefficients also improved, implying that workload ($p > .05$), work-life conflicts ($p > .05$), ethnicity Arab ($p > .1$) and ethnicity Hispanic ($p > .1$) have a positive relationship with burnout/engagement (an increase in either will result in an increase in burnout/decrease in engagement), while cultural novelty ($p > .01$), perceived organisational support ($p > .05$), job satisfaction ($p > .01$), support network ($p > .01$) and age ($p > .01$) have a negative relationship with burnout/engagement (an increase in either will result in a decrease of burnout/increase in engagement).

Based on the β values in model 2, job satisfaction (-.383) is the most significant predictor of engagement, followed by a support network (-.176), cultural novelty (-.160) and perceived organisational support (-.135). In regard to job/personal demands, results indicate that work-life conflicts (.177) is the most significant predictor of burnout, followed by workload (.167). The β coefficients of the control variables suggest that age (-.213) has a negative relationship with burnout, meaning that older expatriates are less likely to suffer from burnout. In contrast, ethnicity Arab (.097) and ethnicity Hispanic (.104) have a positive relationship with burnout, implying that the affiliation with one of these ethnic groups increases the chances of burnout minimally.

To conclude, hypothesis 1 that job/personal demands predict burnout can be supported (for workload and work-life conflicts) and hypothesis 2 that job/personal resources predict engagement as well (for job satisfaction, perceived organisational support and support network). While the direction of the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable was expected and predicted in the hypotheses (see

chapter 4.3), the negative relationship between cultural novelty and burnout/engagement seems surprising. Possible explanations are provided in chapter 5.3.

5.2.2.3 Demands and resources as moderators of burnout/engagement

A third regression analysis was performed to see whether identified demands had a moderating effect on the relationship between resources and engagement (H3) and whether resources had a moderating effect on the relationship between demands and burnout (H4). To avoid over-complexity and overfitting of the model (Bryman and Bell, 2015), moderation variables were only created of the independent variables in model 2 (WL*POS, WL*JS, WL*SN, CN*POS, CN*JS, CN*SN, WLC*POS, WLC*JS, WLC*SN).

Results of the third analysis show an expected but only marginal increase of the R and R^2 values in comparison to model 2, and a slight decrease in comparison to model 1 (R = .767; R^2 = .588). While the adjusted R^2 value is higher than in model 1, it has almost not increased in comparison to model 2 (adj. R^2 = .540), suggesting that the model's overall ability to predict the outcome did not necessarily improve. It should also be noted that none of the independent variables show significant β values.

To conclude, the hypotheses 3 and 4 have to be rejected as a moderating effect could not be detected. Based on the significance levels and the adjusted R^2 value, model 2 appears to be the best fit for the present data.

Table 5.5: Demands and resources as predictors/moderators of burnout/engagement

	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
Variables Model Summary:	**β**	**R** .774	**R^2** .600	**Adj. R^2** .532	**β**	**R** .750	**R^2** .563	**Adj. R^2** .539	**β**	**R** .767	**R^2** .588	**Adj. R^2** .540
Independent												
WL	.172**				.167**				.220			
WC	.010											
CN	-.166***				-.160***				-.129			
POS	-.111*				-.135**				-.042			
JS	-.403***				-.383***				-.086			
ICA	-.013											
WLC	.130*				.177**				.170			
NWC	.064											
SN	-.122*				-.176***				-.423			
LCS	-.083											
Control												
Age	-.148*				-.213***				-.220***			
Feeling of safety	-.003											
GenderMale (vs GenderFemale)	-.109											
GenderDiverse (vs GenderFemale)	.059											
EthnicityMixed (vs EthicityWhite)	.027											
EthnicityAsian (vs EthnicityWhite)	.048											
EthnicityBlack (vs EthnicityWhite)	.064											
EthnicityArab (vs EthnicityWhite)	.104*				.097*				.104*			
EthnicityHisp (vs EthnicityWhite)	.133*				.104*				.099*			
EthnicityPNS (vs EthnicityWhite)	-.006											
EthnicityOther (vs EthnicityWhite)	.057											
ChildrenYes (vs ChildrenNo)	-.002											
ChildrenPNS (vs ChildrenNo)	-.031											
ExperienceYesHE (vs ExperienceNo)	.092											
ExperienceYesLR (vs ExperienceNo)	.050											
Moderators												
WL*POS									-.187			
WL*JS									-.495			
WL*SN									.476			
CN*POS									.051			
CN*JS									.266			
CN*SN									-.347			
WLC*POS									.099			
WLC*JS									.105			
WLC*SN									-.186			

WL = workload;
WC = work constraints;
CN = cultural novelty;
POS = perceived organisational support;
JS = job satisfaction;
ICA = internal career advancement;
WLC = work-life conflicts;
NWC = non-work constraints;
SN = support network;
LCS = leisure coping strategies;
BE = burnout/ engagement;
PNS = prefer not to say;
***p < .01; **p < .05; *p < .1

5.2.2.4 Assessing the regression model

To assess how well the model fits the observed data (referring to model 2), it was checked for outliers and influential cases visually and numerical (please see scatterplot and P-P plot in the Appendix V). Screening for outliers can be performed prior to a regression run or through a residual analysis after the regression. The researcher decided to do this after the regression as otherwise the temptation exists to make screening decisions based on the desired outcome (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Casewise diagnostics were conducted in SPSS to detect outliers outside the critical value for standard deviations (SDs). According to Field (2013), concerns exist when (1) standardised residuals have an absolute value greater than 3.29, (2) more than 1% of the sample cases have standardised residuals with an absolute value greater than 2.58 and (3) more than 5% of the sample cases have standardised residuals with an absolute value greater than 1.96.

Results of the casewise diagnostics showed that conditions (2) and (3) were not violated but that two cases had standardised residuals above +/- 3.29 (case 1 = -3.636; case 2 = -3.318). However, before considering the exclusion of these cases from the analysis, the researcher looked at their *Cook's distance* values to see if the two cases exerted undue influence over the parameters of the model. Both values of the respective cases did not exceed the critical value of 1, suggesting that the two outliers did not overly influence the parameters of the model (Cook and Weisberg, 1982). In fact, for all sample cases the *Cook's distance* value was well below 1 (max. value = .29194), implying that influential cases were not an issue. Based on this, the researcher decided against the exclusion of the two multivariate outlier cases as they did not have a large effect on the regression analysis and values were just slightly outside the threshold (Pallant, 2005; Stevens, 2012).

Lastly, the assumptions of the model were checked. As seen in chapter 5.2.1.3, multicollinearity was not an issue as there was no perfect linear relationship between two or more predictor variables. The *Durbin-Watson* test was performed to check if the residuals in the model are independent. The rule of thumb is that values between 1 and 3 are of concern, whereas a value of 2 indicates that residuals are uncorrelated (Field, 2013). Results of the test show a value of 1.784, suggesting that there is a slight positive correlation. The scatterplot (please see Appendix V) of standardised residuals against

standardised predicted values shows that the majority of data points are evenly dispersed around zero, thus heteroscedasticity was not an issue. The P-P plot and the histogram of the residuals (please see Appendix V) further suggest normality of the residuals. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test additionally confirms this assumption by being not significant.

5.3 Discussion of results

The quantitative study aimed to assess some of the propositions of the JD-R model (see chapter 2.3.1) among a sample (n = 178) of expatriates working in HEs. The research objectives were to investigate whether the demands and resources identified in the qualitative study can predict burnout/engagement and whether these have a moderating effect on the motivational and health impairment pathway. The associated hypotheses and their support can be seen in Table 5.6 and are based on the best fitting model, model 2.

Table 5.6: Overview of hypotheses and support

Hypothesis	**Hypothesis statement**	**Supported**
H1: Job and personal demands have a positive relationship with burnout		
$H1_{(a)}$	Workload has a positive relationship with burnout	Yes
$H1_{(b)}$	Work constraints have a positive relationship with burnout	No
$H1_{(c)}$	Cultural novelty has a positive relationship with burnout	No
$H1_{(d)}$	Work-life conflicts has a positive relationship with burnout	Yes
$H1_{(e)}$	Non-work constraints have a positive relationship with burnout	No
*H2: Job and personal resources have a positive relationship with burnout**		
$H2_{(a)}$	Perceived organisational support has a positive relationship with engagement	Yes
$H2_{(b)}$	Job satisfaction has a positive relationship with engagement	Yes
$H2_{(c)}$	Internal career advancement has a positive relationship with engagement	No
$H2_{(d)}$	A support network has a positive relationship with engagement	Yes

$H2_{(e)}$	Leisure coping strategies have a positive relationship with engagement	No
H3: Job and personal demands have a moderating effect on the relationship between job and personal resources and work engagement		No
H4: Job and personal resources have a moderating effect on the relationship between job and personal demands and burnout		No

*In previous tables described as having a negative relationship with the burnout/engagement measure

Regarding demands and resources as predictors of burnout/engagement, results showed that six of the 10 identified demands/resources were significant predictors of the outcome but none of them showed a moderating effect by buffering or intensifying the respective outcome. It must be noted that the statistical significance of a demand/resource and the ascribed importance of that demand/resource should be seen as two different assumptions. The non-significance of the other identified demands and resources might be due to procedural limitations (see chapter 7.2) and were clearly evaluated as relevant in the qualitative study. Thus, the following discussion does not aim to provide reasoning why certain demands and resources were not important, but rather why results were not as significant as perhaps expected.

Looking at the demands first, workload and work-life conflicts were the two significant predictors of burnout, which is in line with previous domestic work literature and appears to be particularly relevant in the expatriate context. In the domestic work context, workload is one of the most acknowledged predictors of burnout as an unmanageable workload often leads to exhaustion, one of the core dimensions of burnout (Karasek, 1998; Leiter and Maslach, 2009). Existing evidence suggests that many expatriates are confronted with excessive demands at work, having to do many over hours and business travel, while facing increased job responsibility and thus increased pressure to perform (Harvey, 1985; Lazarova et al., 2010, 2015; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998). As described by the participants of the qualitative study, the workload might perhaps be even higher when working in a HE because a physical and emotional separation from work is often impossible and operations are extremely costly and elaborate, posing high expectations to deliver on the expatriate (see chapter 4.2.1.1). In that regard, the study's result, that

with increased workload the chance of burnout increases as well, does not seem surprising as expatriates in HEs are arguably confronted with an excessive workload. Yet, very little empirical research exists investigating the association between workload and burnout among expatriates, and findings on the influence of workload remains ambiguous (Selmer and Lauring, 2011).

Instead, workload and other job demands have more often been assessed in regard to the resulting work-home interferences (Lazarova et al., 2010), which was also experienced by the participants of this study, with work-life conflicts being the second predictor of burnout. In previous studies, expatriates have described their work environment as hectic and stressful, leaving little time outside of work to meet the demands in the private domain (Fischlmayr and Kollinger, 2010; Zhang and Harzing, 2016). Confirmatory with this study's results which suggest that increased work-life conflicts result in higher burnout levels, Van der Zee et al. (2005) found that work-home interference was negatively related to the expatriate's subjective wellbeing. The study by Grant-Vallone et al. (2001) further detected that work-life conflicts had a negative impact on the expatriate's mental health (increased depression and anxiety). The authors further concluded that work-life conflicts are not exclusive to expatriates with families and can be experienced by single expatriates as well, echoing the findings of the present qualitative study (see chapter 4.2.5.1). While there is consensus in the literature that work-life conflicts are not beneficial for the expatriate's health and wellbeing, no study has previously examined the impact of this stressor or demand on burnout. Again, the occurrence of work-life conflict might be particularly strong in HEs where many participants are either separated from their family/partner or the family cohesion is tested even more as the fundamental life changes and safety concerns offer more potential for conflict. In addition, the aforementioned literature suggests that the two identified predictors of burnout are linked in the sense that increased workload can trigger work-life issues. This could explain the slightly higher correlation of the two variables detected in chapter 5.2.1.3.

Work and non-work constraints were not found to be significant predictors of burnout which seems astonishing as these were the most context-relevant demands in the model (see discussion chapter 4.3). As this is a relatively new research area with the focus on differing phenomena (see chapter 2.2.5), it remains rather difficult to compare the present

findings to existing literature, and explanations must be mostly drawn from the sample. However, the study that the two measures of work and non-work constraints were taken from (Bader et al., 2016) found the respective constraints to be significant for the prediction of job turnover and country leave intentions. Thus, it might be possible that expatriates escape the situation before constraints actually become health impairing and lead to burnout.

Looking at the sample's frequency distributions (see chapter 5.2.1.2), it stands out that the majority of participants had previous assignment experience, even in HEs, with only 11 out of 178 participants (6.8%) having no previous international work experience. This implies that most expatriates probably had a realistic perception of the expected constraints and might even have developed appropriate coping skills during previous assignments. It is also noticeable that a great proportion of the sample is employed in the NGO sector, in which work constraints (e.g. inadequate budget, equipment and work environments) seem to be a common feature of a lot of field positions. As described by the participants of the qualitative study in chapter 4.1.2, most projects in the NGO sector depend on external funding and working spaces are often 'in the field' in provisional buildings and tents. Expatriates that pursue a career in the NGO sector in less developed countries must be aware of the expected work constraints and thus willing to put up with them.

In regard to the non-work constraints, results of both studies showed that most participants lived in a compound setting or upper-class neighbourhood amongst international expatriate colleagues. Hence, it is possible that constraints in the private sphere (e.g. clothing restrictions, difficult male-female relationships) were less noticeable or not relevant due to the safe haven the enclosed living situation provided. Also, the high workload and rotational nature of many assignments perhaps left little time to be worried about the limited leisure facilities and elicited a kind of 'get the job done' attitude where the private life takes place on RnR back home. Therefore, it could be possible that participants did not feel the urge to do much besides work and they did not engage much in the host country as they had little leisure time to begin with and rather awaited the leisure activities with the family and friends back home. Reflected in the importance of a support network, the lack of leisure facilities created great

companionship among colleagues (see chapter 4.2.4.1) and might have provided alternative distractions, making non-work constraints more tolerable.

Surprisingly, the one challenge demand (cultural novelty) did not show a relationship with burnout/engagement in the expected direction. Classified as a demand, the researcher expected cultural novelty to have a positive relationship with burnout, assuming that great cultural novelty in the workplace would lead to more complicated and deferred working processes and thus potential conflict (see quotes in chapter 4.2.2.1), eventually leading to increased stress and burnout for the individual. Instead, cultural novelty had a negative relationship with burnout, implying that great cultural novelty would lead to a decrease in the outcome (see Table 5.5). The following explanations possibly account for the observed phenomenon.

First of all, the unexpected relationship between cultural novelty and burnout might be due to the type of demand. As outlined in chapter 2.3.1, a job demand is not necessarily something negative and studies have actually detected a positive relationship between job demands and engagement (e.g. Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Crawford et al., 2010). In fact, challenge demands have the potential to promote mastery, personal growth or future gains and thus tend to trigger positive emotions and active problem-orientated coping. Individuals may feel that they can derive benefits from meeting those demands and invest more effort to address them (Crawford et al., 2010). This seems to have been the case in this sample as participants described working in a different culture as positively challenging and a beneficial learning experience (see chapter 4.2.2.1). Participants in the qualitative study repeatedly emphasised the importance of personal development and, albeit not significant in the quantitative study, this was also reflected in internal career advancement which was one of the identified job resources and motivational drivers to take on the assignment (see chapter 4.2.3.3). Perhaps great cultural novelty and the experience of a 'culture clash' was perceived as necessary (and wanted) to gain that valuable experience and to develop a career enhancing skill set. Thus, it might be impossible to strictly classify the phenomenon of cultural novelty as a demand or a resource as it seems to entail aspects of both. This ambiguity whether a job characteristic is a demand or a resource was also identified as one of the model's weaknesses (see chapter 2.3.2) and will always be subject to the individual's perception and valuation.

Secondly, literature suggests that the effect of cultural novelty, often also referred to as cultural distance or cultural toughness, on the expatriate's wellbeing is controversial (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2010). In fact, the notion exists that adjusting to a similar culture can be just as difficult as adjusting to a dissimilar one (Selmer and Lauring, 2009; Vromans et al., 2013). Based on this, explanations for the negative relationship between cultural novelty and burnout might be borrowed from the cultural distance paradox (Hemmasi and Downes, 2013), which proposes that great cultural novelty is associated with more desirable outcomes and not as oftentimes suggested with negative outcomes.

In their study, Hemmasi and Downes (2013) first put forward and then found empirical support for the cultural distance paradox. While their cultural distance hypothesis claims that great cultural novelty is associated with less desirable outcomes, such as failed adjustment, the cultural distance paradox concludes the opposite, arguing that cultural similarity often sets the expectation that things are going to be the same as in the home country thus causing frustrations if adjustment is not easy and quick (Brewster, 1993; Selmer, 2002; Selmer and Shiu, 1999). In other words, when an expatriate moves to a similar culture, they might be less aware of the pertinent cultural differences and attributes experienced difficulties to the other individual or their own inability, and not to the existing cultural differences (Brewster, 1995). On the other hand, expatriates that are assigned to an entirely different culture are consciously always aware of the dissimilarities, leading to met (or even over met) expectations and possibly triggering the expatriates and locals facing each other with more respect and understanding (Selmer et al., 2007; Vromans et al., 2013). Hence, it might be possible that participants of this study expected cultural differences in their host country to be great and prepared themselves accordingly, leading to more met expectations and reduced uncertainty and stress, which in turn had a positive impact on burnout (Hemmasi and Downes, 2012).

In a similar vein, cultural novelty was mostly perceived as demanding in the beginning and, with some time, became less noticeable (see chapter 4.2.2.1). Thus, it seems plausible that with advanced adjustment and more expectations to be met or even over met, a transition took place that converted a demand more into a resource. In this sample, some adjustment process must have taken place already, given the fact that the average time spent on the current assignment was quite long with one and a half year (see chapter 5.2.1.2).

Lastly, this unexpected finding might have been caused by two sample characteristics: previous assignment experience and job positions. As noted earlier, the vast majority of participants had previous assignment experience, meaning that most participants were an expatriate for at least the second time. This suggests that most participants also had some form of experience with cultural differences, helping them to foster more accurate estimates of future stressors (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2010). Although, the control variable of previous assignment experience was not identified as a significant predictor of the outcome, it may have still indirectly influenced the way cultural novelty was perceived. Someone that was deterred by great cultural novelty in previous assignments would be less likely to work abroad again, especially in a HE where cultural differences are expected to be high. Also, in environments with great cultural novelty, the ratio of expatriates in the workforce tends to be higher (Colakoglu and Caligiuri, 2008) and it may have been the case that the participants' working teams did not actually consist of that many local employees, reducing the possibility for conflicts caused by great cultural novelty.

Further, a great proportion of the sample was in rather senior positions which potentially influenced their ability to cope with cultural novelty. Expatriates in senior positions can respond to work-related challenges with a greater variety of resources and their status and power provide them with more respect, resulting in HCNs being more accommodating towards them (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2010; Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005). Thus, it might be possible that the participants of the quantitative study were either not as confronted with cultural novelty due to their seniority and the standing it gave them among local employees or had more support mechanisms at hand that allowed them to react to certain issues with more placidity.

In regard to resources, POS, job satisfaction and a support network were significant predictors of engagement (decrease of burnout). These findings accord with the extant expatriation literature in which POS and social support are claimed to be important facilitators of adjustment and other work-related outcomes in the low-risk (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2005; Takeuchi, 2010) but also hostile context (Bader, 2015). The positive effects of both resources can be explained with the social exchange theory which proposes that in interactions between individuals, valuable socio-emotional and economic resources can be exchanged (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). These

interactions are highly interdependent and ideally lead to high-quality relationships (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Establishing reciprocal social relationships is essential for individual's health and wellbeing and, as burnout is often a result of some sort of imbalance between investments and outcomes, inequitable relationships cause distress and can lead to a variety of negative outcomes (Buunk and Schaufeli, 1993).

Social exchange does not only take place on an interpersonal level but also on an organisational level, with the ambition of reciprocity also being reflected in the psychological contract (Schaufeli, 2006). Corroded reciprocity leads to the breach of the psychological contract which in turn causes psychological distress and negative work-related outcomes (Rousseau, 1989). On the other hand, if the organisation fulfils their part of the contract through the provision of support (POS), the expatriate will fulfil their part of the contact by responding with positive attitudes (Guzzo et al., 1994). The great value of POS can further be explained from a stress perspective (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980). POS can make essential resources available and assures the expatriate that help is available from the organisation. This positively influences how the expatriate appraises environmental stressors and thus can help reduce experienced stress (Kraimer and Wayne, 2004). As outlined previously, work in HEs is often associated with a great range of potential stressors (see chapter 2.2), making POS perhaps even more important than in a low-risk environment (Bader et al., 2015).

Many studies applying a social network perspective provide similar findings, concluding that the existence of a personal social network promotes wellbeing by buffering stress and reducing burnout (Anderson, 1991; Russell et al., 1987). This also applies to the expatriate context where family and friends as well as co-workers have been found to provide valuable support in times of increased uncertainty and stress (Bader and Schuster, 2015; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002, Shaffer et al., 1999; Wang, 2002). Social networks supply individuals with regular positive experiences and transmit a sense of predictability and stability (Cohen and Wills, 1985), which, in this study, seems to have balanced out the uncertain and unpredictable working situation in HEs.

Lastly, job satisfaction was the strongest predictor of engagement/ decreased burnout. While often job satisfaction is considered to be an outcome, with burnout being

responsible for job dissatisfaction (Wolpin et al., 1991), evidence exists that the relationship between the two is reciprocal and that job satisfaction can decrease burnout levels (Dolan, 1987; Faragher et al., 2005). Emphasising the fulfilment of an impactful job, participants of the qualitative study felt that their great job satisfaction was mostly a result of their high task significance (see chapter 4.2.3.2), a job characteristic that shows strong associations with job satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Wright and Kim, 2004). The positive impact of job satisfaction on burnout might therefore arise from experienced task significance, and supporting explanations can be provided by the existential theory which asserts that people strive for a meaningful life that contains actions that are of importance and have an impact on others (Frankl, 1985). Rattrie et al. (2020) emphasise a potentially moderating role of culture. For instance, in Western cultures, most people nowadays derive this need for existential significance from their professions and careers (Silbiger and Pines, 2014). The existential theory then suggests that even in stressful situations, employees do not burnout as long as they perceive their job as important and meaningful (Pines and Keinan, 2005). Indeed, there is empirical evidence that the sense of significance at work negatively correlates with burnout (Pines, 2000, 2002), with similar results among a sample of expatriates (Silbiger and Pines, 2014).

However, it must be noted that the satisfaction resulting from job meaningfulness might be a particular feature of certain working cultures (Pines and Keinan, 2005), and perhaps more distinctive among expatriates in the NGO/ humanitarian aid sector, who made up a large proportion of the samples in the qualitative and quantitative study. While this group of expatriates is seemingly driven by rather intrinsic motivations and job characteristics (Warr et al., 1979), this might not apply to the entire sample. Other expatriates possibly base their job satisfaction upon other, more extrinsic factors such as hardship payments or higher status, which are also common features of work in HEs (Bader, 2015). The interview with one of the participants of the qualitative study actually revealed that the expatriate community in HEs refers to people with differing job motivations as *missionaries* (those intrinsically motivated), *mercenaries* (those extrinsically motivated) and *misfits* (those who are not satisfied with their jobs and leave the assignment), interesting stereotypes that deserves more research attention (see chapter 7.3.1).

In contrast to the other resources, leisure coping strategies and internal career advancement have not been found to be significant predictors of engagement. Although engagement in leisure is recognised as an important contributor to a healthy work-life balance for expatriates (Wurtz and Suutari, 2014), the application of leisure coping strategies as a means of stress reduction remains mostly unexplored in expatriation research. However, the exceptions concur with the researcher's initial assumption, reporting that expatriates appreciate the stress-relieving and distracting qualities of leisure (Chao et al., 2019; Shortland, 2016). Albeit not significant, results of the correlation and regression analysis and the existing literature (see chapter 4.2.4.2) do suggest a negative relationship between leisure coping strategies and burnout, making explanations for the missing significance rather speculative.

Leisure can be defined as "free and unoccupied time" (Dewe and Trenberth, 2005), so a very simple explanation could be that participants, who demonstrably were confronted with high workload, did not have the time to engage in leisure and thus did not experience its stress-relieving effect. This assumption is supported by a participant of the qualitative study who stated "*If you are in the gym or watch TV, it can happen any time that somebody calls and says this or that happened and we need to find a solution"* (see chapter 4.2.1.1) and is probably reinforced in compound settings. Further research with expatriates in less demanding working environments would be helpful to get down to the essence of this relationship.

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1986) coping strategies can be clustered into two broad categories, problem-orientated and emotion-orientated coping. Problem-focused coping includes all actions aimed to regulate and eliminate the source of stress, whereas emotion-focused coping intends to manage and regulate the emotional consequences of the stressful event (Stanton and Franz, 1999). Latack (1992) differentiates between control- and escape-orientated coping, with the latter strategy emphasising the exercise of avoidance. Also referred to as avoidance-orientated coping, this strategy focuses on actions that draw the attention away from the source of stress with the intention to avoid confrontation with the problem and to get some distance from it (Endler and Parker, 1990; Stanton and Franz, 1999). Problem-focused coping has been argued to be the most effective way of coping as the individual is an active part of the problem-solving process (Folkman, 1997), whereas escapism is considered the least effective (Aldwin et al.,

1996). In fact, research shows that escapist coping strategies were associated with increased burnout (Leiter, 1991) and were mostly applied by individuals with poorer mental health and those under great stress (Aldwin and Revenson, 1987). The wording of the measure suggests that leisure coping strategies are seen as a rather temporary and supressing, escape-orientated way of dealing with stress (see Appendix III). While engagement in leisure might be a useful approach to overcome a stressful day or event, it seems only effective in the short-term but not for the prevention of ongoing stress and burnout, as nothing is undertaken to address the actual problem. This would explain why there is a non-significant, negative relationship between leisure coping strategies and burnout.

In regard to internal career advancement, findings of the qualitative study as well as the existing literature suggest that promising careers prospects are one of the key motivators to work in a HE (Dickmann and Watson, 2017), indicating that if the expatriate incurs the faced challenges, they are likely to be rewarded with a promotion or great employment opportunities. As outlined in chapter 4.2.3.3, pursuing and succeeding in a career goal should contribute to feelings of personal accomplishment, leading to a decrease of burnout and thus increase of engagement (Inandi, 2009; Schwab et al., 1986). However, the findings of the quantitative study do not provide significant evidence for the beneficial influence of internal career advancement. This might most likely be a result of issues associated with the construct measure. Feedback from participants who had filled out the survey evaluated the items 3, 4, 5 and 10 as problematic due to their ambiguity. Statements of the respective items propose that due to the unique experiences gained, participants would be able to find an alternative job that is superior to the current one (see Appendix III). Thus, item statements were most likely interpreted as dissatisfaction with the current job and not as a reflection of the increased career and employment opportunities. This then contradicts the high job satisfaction expressed by the participants of this study and, although scale reliability was high ($\alpha = .788$), may have led to a bias in the answers given and some limitations of the study (see also chapter 7.2).

However, it could also be possible that due to the young age of the majority of the sample (see chapter 5.2.1.2), many had not yet vastly progressed in their career and thus not achieved their desired amount of personal accomplishment and internal career advancement. In fact, age was among the few control variables that were of statistical

significance, showing that with increased age, the chance of burnout decreased (see Table 5.5). It is possible that for older expatriates, amongst other things, the career benefits of being assigned to a HE had already paid off whereas for younger ones it had not.

5.4 Further discussion: Does burnout not matter?

Against the initial assumption, burnout levels were rather low to moderate (see Appendix V), suggesting that expatriates in HEs are not heavily impacted. Again, this seems surprising given the reported stress levels in the qualitative study (see chapter 4.2.1.1) and the general notion that expatriation is considered a stressful event, but seems to be in line with the ambiguous evidence on expatriate burnout (see chapter 2.1.4).

Possible explanations might be that those expatriates who cannot cope with the increased stress leave the assignment prematurely since there is evidence that this can cause country leave intentions (Bader et al., 2016). This would fit with the assumption of the stereotypes of expatriates mentioned in chapter 5.3 and represent the misfits. It may also be possible that those who do suffer from burnout decided not to take part in the survey (Eriksson et al., 2009).

Another possibility is that expatriates build up some resilience with increased assignments and time spent in HEs. This seems likely given the observation that 68% of the sample had previous assignment experience in HEs (see Table 5.1). Evidence from the qualitative study seem to support this assumption with a participant stating that she is "quite knowledgeable about managing stress and dealing with stress" (see chapter 4.2.4.2) and the expert from the additionally conducted interview highlighting that experience is the most valuable resource:

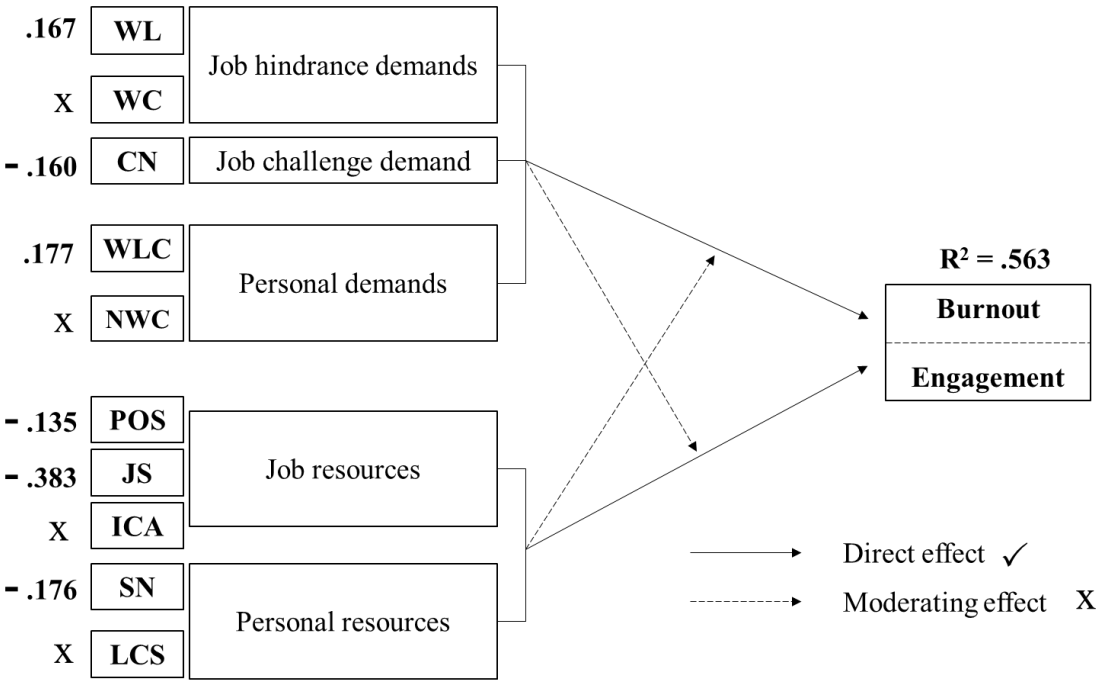
"Experience! Most 'issues' related to stress are caused by lack of experience. If organisations have sufficient numbers of experienced staff, particularly in leadership roles, then this goes a long way towards buffering stress" (Expert Interview)

The great cohesion and solidarity among expatriates in HEs (also experienced by the author and demonstrated by the expatriates' helpfulness and willingness to share the research request) reflects the importance of a support network. As also mentioned by participants of the qualitative study, expatriates must feel that they are 'in it together', possibly helping each other cope with the stress (Eriksson et al., 2009). This is also echoed by the findings of the present study as a support network was a significant predictor of work engagement, thus leading to increased burnout. However, future research is needed to get to the bottom of the apparent absence of burnout and the developed resilience (see chapter 7.3.1).

5.5 Overview of key findings

The aim of the quantitative study was to investigate which of the job/personal demands and resources identified in the previous qualitative study were significant predictors of burnout/engagement among expatriates working in HEs. In total, 10 demand and resource variables were entered into the multiple regression model and results of statistical procedures show that six variables were of statistical significance. As seen in Figure 5.1, these were workload and work-life conflicts, showing a positive relationship with burnout, and cultural novelty, perceived organisational support, job satisfaction and support network each having a negative relationship with burnout and positive relationship with engagement.

Figure 5.1: Significant predictors of burnout/engagement



WL = workload; **WC** = work constraints; **CN** = cultural novelty; **POS** = perceived organisational support; **JS** = job satisfaction; **ICA** = internal career advancement; **WLC** = work-life conflicts; **NWC** = non-work constraints; **SN** = support network; **LCS** = leisure coping strategies

Surprisingly, the two context-relevant demands of work and non-work constraints were not found to be significant, possibly making the above model applicable in a variety of expatriation settings and providing avenues for future research (see chapter 7.3.1). Further, the direction of the relationship between cultural novelty and burnout went against expectations. While it was predicted that the relationship between cultural novelty and burnout would be positive, it was in fact negative, suggesting that the presence of cultural novelty decreases burnout levels. Explanations for the significance and insignificance of individual variables are drawn from the extant (expatriate) literature as well as from the data and analytical procedures (see chapter 5.3).

6. Synopsis of empirical studies

With the findings of both empirical studies having been discussed separately in chapters 4 and 5, this chapter aims to briefly integrate findings of both empirical studies and relate their core findings to the existing literature. Findings of the qualitative and quantitative studies are broadly aligned and are also in line with the existing literature on demands and resources specifically. However, the findings of both studies seem to differ slightly from previous research in HEs in regard to the overall stress outcomes.

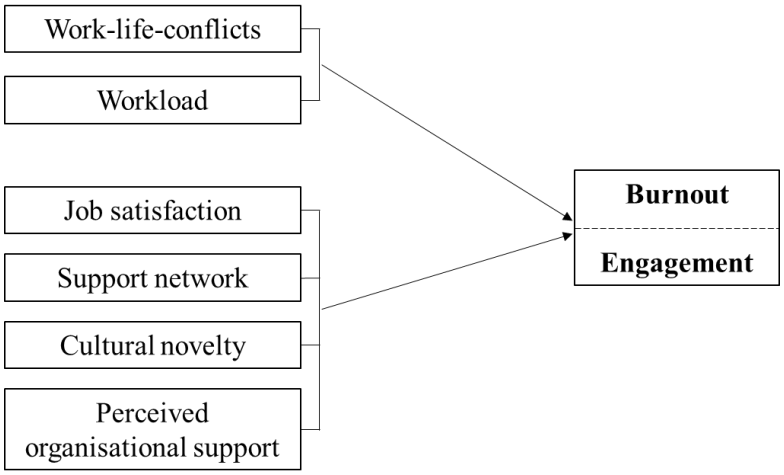
Both empirical studies agree with the literature that expatriation in HEs is stressful (Bhanugopan and Fish, 2008; Shortland, 2016), particularly reflected in the high workload as a significant predictor of burnout. The existing literature further suggests that safety concerns and increased stress levels (also resulting from the expatriate's increased feelings of guilt for making the family live a restricted lifestyle or being separated from them) can result in intra-family conflicts (Bader and Berg, 2014) – a statistically significant demand that was represented by work-life-conflicts in this study.

Identified resources in the qualitative and quantitative studies to balance the stress (e.g. POS, a support network, job satisfaction) have also been deemed important in global mobility studies in both hostile and non-hostile assignment destinations (Bader and Schuster, 2015; Dickmann and Watson, 2017; Silbiger and Pines, 2014). Cultural novelty was the only context-relevant factor where the perception differed between the qualitative (perceived as a challenge demand) and the quantitative study (perceived as a resource), possibly due to some limitations (see chapter 7.2). While in traditional expatriate research the role of cultural novelty and its impact on stress and other assignment outcomes has been investigated to a great extent (Brewster, 1993; Froese and Peltokorpi, 2010; Selmer, 2002), its role has not yet been discussed in HEs, requiring further research (see chapter 7.3.1).

Integrating the findings of both empirical studies, it also becomes apparent that the demands and resources identified and found to be significant for the development of burnout and work engagement are context-relevant but not context-specific, narrowing the proposed models in chapter 4 (see Figure 4.1) and 5 (see Figure 5.1). While those demands and resources have been previously identified in existing literature and deemed important, they have not yet been unified in a single model to predict burnout and work

engagement. The integrated findings of both empirical studies suggest the following adjusted JD-R model illustrated in figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Predictors of burnout/engagement in HEs



The adjusted, context-relevant model suggests that work-life conflicts and work load are identified as key demands affecting work-related outcomes in HEs. Job satisfaction, support networks, cultural novelty and perceived organisational support are seen as key resources. Findings of both empirical studies hence seem to deviate from the existing stress-outcome findings, also questioning how justified the heightened concern over assignments in HEs really is. Whereas, Bader and colleagues (Bader and Berg, 2013; Bader et al., 2015; Bader et al., 2016) conclude that expatriation in HEs is potentially associated with more severe consequences for individuals, rather than assignments into non-hostile contexts, and explain this as a result of the countries' safety situations, findings of this thesis do not add to this consensus. This already becomes evident in the qualitative study, where one of the unexpected, if not surprising findings, was that the fear of victimisation was not perceived as a demand (see chapter 4.4). The differing results received additional empirical support in the quantitative study, which found work and non-work constraints not to be significant predictors of burnout. While, this might be due to some study limitations and fundamental differences in the sample characteristics (e.g. Bader samples being less diverse, mostly looking at German-speaking expatriates assigned to Middle Eastern countries), it also strongly calls for

additional empirical research efforts on HE expatriation, and suggests additional scrutiny and possibly an extension of the definition or demarcation of HEs (see chapter 7.3.1).

Findings of this thesis also acknowledge positive assignment outcomes more strongly than extant research by investigating work engagement, which so far has received less attention in the existing HE literature than negative work- and context-related outcomes. Assessing prior literature of expatriate management in HEs (see chapter 2.2), readers will conclude that assignments in HEs are perceived as more stressful and run a greater risk of negative assignment outcomes than those in non-hostile environments, and thus researchers were eager to identify those aspects that are able to buffer the stress. As a result, most studies have taken rather a prevention perspective and have neglected the possibility that the experiences of expatriates in HEs can also generate positive outcomes such as work engagement. While this is not seen as a critique towards existing research and should not lessen its contribution to our understanding of expatriate challenges in HEs, it does highlight the contribution within this thesis and stimulates additional research.

In regard to the focus on challenging outcomes, this study has also discussed the role of demands and resources in relation to burnout. Findings of both empirical studies can confirm traces and individual cases but conclude that the majority of expatriates seems to cope well thanks to a developed resilience. This mirrors the findings of Eriksson et al. (2009), who initially expected high burnout levels among humanitarian aid workers assigned to hardship locations but found that colleagues and friends, as well as an organisation that creates a culture of support, can provide the network of resources required to maintain the expatriates' energy levels and passion for their job. Therefore, the evidence on expatriate burnout remains ambiguous and strongly recommends further investigations, also among more diverse assignment stakeholder groups and in different research settings (see chapter 7.3.1).

7. Conclusions

This chapter outlines the overall conclusions from the thesis. It first summarises and discusses aims and findings of the thesis as a whole (chapter 7.1). It then provides the limitations of the systematic review as well as the qualitative and quantitative studies (chapter 7.2). Based on this, recommendations for future research are provided (chapter 7.3.1) and practical implications for management are discussed (chapter 7.3.2). The thesis finishes with its overall contributions (chapter 7.3.3).

7.1 Essence of findings

The overall aim of this thesis was to investigate burnout and work engagement (which is seen as the conceptual opposite of burnout) among expatriates in HEs by applying the JD-R model to a new context. More specifically, the thesis intended to answer two distinct research questions (see chapters 1.3 and 2.4):

1. Are expatriates working in a HE, which is argued to be highly stressful, particularly at risk for the development of burnout?

2. What are the context-relevant factors that can contribute to expatriate burnout and what factors can prevent this, ideally leading to work engagement?

These two research questions were derived in response to the findings of the systematic literature review (see chapter 2.2) concerned with the management of expatriates in HEs. Two empirical studies, a qualitative and a quantitative one, were conducted (see chapters 4 and 5) to provide the evidence for answering them.

The research idea and questions emerged as the saturation of Western markets and the need for organisations to remain globally competitive require more operations in HEs (see chapters 1.1 and 1.2). Despite promising business opportunities, these regions are often characterised by violent and unstable country conditions. When expatriates are assigned to those environments this exposes them to additional stressors such as lower working and living standards and impeded personal safety. The few studies carried out

in this research area found that the additional stress experienced can lead to various negative outcomes for the expatriate (and their family) and the assigning organisation. However, burnout, a phenomenon that is often associated with increased stress, has so far not received much attention in expatriate and the wider global mobility research and has not yet been looked at closely in the specific context of HEs, where expatriation is considered to be particularly stressful. This is not entirely surprising considering that the JD-R model, an established occupational stress model used to predict outcomes such as burnout and work engagement, has found substantial interest in domestic work settings across different national contexts, but has also sparsely been used in international work settings.

The systematic review was carried out to capture all relevant literature concerning expatriates in HEs with a rigorous and methodical approach. It applied a multi-stakeholder perspective to structure the still diverse literature and used a stakeholder framework to report findings and to point out directions for future research. Findings of the review confirmed the author's initial assumption and revealed that the respective literature is still in its infancy and that extant studies are more or less concerned with the factors that contribute to or hinder successful expatriation. Taking together the 28 studies included in the review, success or failure of the assignment is mostly influenced by four stakeholder groups, namely the human-influenced environment, the expatriate, the assigning organisation and the expatriate's social network. Studies suggest that expatriate adjustment, comfort and wellbeing are harder to achieve due to the additional stressors of the environment.

In addition, the literature review detected that a great proportion of the studies relied on the stress theory by Lazarus and Folkman (1986) and thus suggested that other theoretical lenses could contribute additional insights. The review argued that the JD-R model would be a suitable, novel theoretical framework as it reflects the assumption of a number of detrimental (demand side) and beneficial effects (resource side) on expatriation outcomes and success. It further represented a validated model, allowing the author to investigate expatriate burnout. As recommended by the authors of the JD-R model (see chapter 3.1), the author then started the empirical research by an exploratory, qualitative study, followed by an explanatory quantitative study.

Findings of the two studies suggest that expatriates working in HEs are not particularly at risk for developing burnout as burnout levels were only found to be low to moderate (see Appendix XXI). However, it needs to be noted that some individual scores are concerningly high, meaning that some respondents did report suffering from burnout. As such, research question one needs to be answered with caution as it might be too premature to resoundingly answer this question with yes or no. The pioneering character of this work, the samples and the studies' limitations (see chapter 7.2) must be taken into consideration. For instance, it must be acknowledged that most participants of both studies belong to a Western, rather privileged group of expatriates, possibly with sufficient resources on hand. Yet, there might be other types of expatriates or assignment stakeholders who do not cope as well and who might suffer from burnout more strongly. Thus, emphasis must be added, saying that the expatriates of this study did not seem more or less at risk than their counterparts in low-risk countries and seem to have developed some form of resilience. To conclude, more research is needed to answer this question with more confidence and future research should focus on burnout and its antecedents among different groups of expatriates, other assignment stakeholders and within different research contexts (see chapter 7.3.1). Results of the empirical studies and the resulting JD-R model also suggest that expatriates in HEs seem concerned with similar issues than their counterparts working abroad in low-risk countries. Most demands were context-relevant but not context-specific, implying that the model may also be applicable in the traditional expatriation context (see chapter 7.3.1).

Revisiting the application of the JD-R model in a new context (see chapter 3.1), the author first carried out a qualitative analysis and collected 42 in-depth interviews, questioning expatriates currently or previously assigned to HEs on the most demanding aspects of their assignments and the valuable resources needed to respond to those demands. Thematic analysis identified a number of important demands and resources, many of which had been common points of discussion in the (hostile) expatriation context, but had not yet been examined as a potential predictor of burnout or work engagement, or been unified in a single model (see chapter 4.5). These were high workload, work and non-work constraints, cultural novelty and work-life conflicts on the demand side and POS, job satisfaction, internal career advancement, a support network and leisure coping strategies on the resources side. Only two demands (work and non-work constraints) were specific to the context, but the author argues that the impact of all

the other demands and resources might be more pronounced in HEs (see chapter 4.3). A surprising finding of the qualitative study was that the fear of crime or victimisation was not perceived as particularly demanding. To investigate this further, the researcher conducted an additional interview with a long-term expatriate as well as consulted the literature. Potential explanations are provided in chapter 4.4.

To test the demands and resources identified in the qualitative study and their relationship with burnout and work engagement, all demands and resources were incorporated in an online survey using validated and theme-related measures (see chapter 3.5.2). The survey was circulated to expatriates in HEs via online recruitment and snowball sampling. The total sample consisted of 178 expatriates, representing 38 nationalities and being assigned to 49 different, hostile assignment locations (see chapter 5.2.1.2). Multiple regression analysis was used to investigate the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. Findings show that six out of 10 demands/resources are of statistical significance for the development of burnout/work engagement. To respond to research question two, only high workload and work-life conflicts were found to be predictors of burnout, whereas POS, job satisfaction, a support network and, against the author's initial assumption, cultural novelty have shown to decrease burnout and thus increase work engagement (see chapter 5.2.2).

7.2 Limitations

Despite substantial effort invested in adhering to standards of good research practice, this research project, as most if not all research, is subject to some limitations, which should not be omitted. As publications are an essential ingredient in academic careers, this thesis is based on contributions that have been or are intended to be presented in journal publications. This might first and foremost impede the flow of this thesis in certain parts. However, for getting this research distributed to a wider audience, it was seen as a worthy compromise. Beyond some structural unevenness, the following section will try to highlight some limitations the different parts of this thesis might be subject to. This is not meant to narrow the contribution of this research but to allow the reader a fair assessment of key findings.

A first major component towards the overall contribution of this thesis is the systematic literature review. While common guidelines on conducting and reporting systematic reviews were strictly adhered to, there are still some persistent limitations, which most systematic literature reviews are subject to. As discussed in more detail in chapter 2.2.5, limitations of the systematic review might be a selection bias (due to criteria such as 'peer-reviewed' and 'English language'), limited search output (due to the use of a small number of search engines) and the dismissal of topic-related articles (due to strict inclusion and exclusion criteria).

The two empirical studies have to face the difficulty to provide an ultimate definition of a HE, which this work shares with other publications associated with HE contexts. While a reasonable working definition was developed (see chapter 2.2.1) and assignment countries were selected on the basis of reliable statistics (see chapter 3.4.1), a substantial number of participants actually responded to the research request by stating that they would not consider their assignment location as hostile. However, it must be noted that fear is a rather intimate feeling which some people may perceive as a weakness and thus do not feel comfortable to share their emotions. This may explain the unexpected finding that safety concerns were not perceived as demanding and possible explanations for this are provided in chapter 4.4. On the other hand, it is possible that the participants of the 12 deselected surveys (see chapter 3.5.1) did sense hostility in their host country and thus their experiences were ignored. However, due to the high subjectivity of feelings such as fear and comfort, it appears impossible to address this problem sufficiently.

The qualitative study might also be confronted with some method and sampling related issues. Although data saturation can be assumed (see Figure 3.1), it cannot be robustly expected that further interviews in additional HE settings would not have provided additional insights. While the open coding process allowed themes to emerge organically (see chapter 3.4.3), topic areas not directly linked to the research aim were not reported in this thesis. However, as can be seen in the preface of the thesis under "Dissemination", the researcher did not ignore this data and assimilated it in separate publications. For instance, a book chapter was written on the challenges of expatriate families and assignments in HEs, giving more voice to the experienced work-life conflicts.

A critical eye should also be put at the sample where readers will observe that two thirds in the sample were men, introducing a possible gender bias in the insights (despite also reflecting current assignment demographics). Furthermore, many participants were employed in the NGO sector (see chapter 3.4.1). The latter sample imbalance might have influenced the perspective on valuable resources, based on the stereotypes of expatriates in HEs broached in chapter 5.3. For instance, it is possible that expatriates working in the NGO or humanitarian aid sectors are more likely to reflect the missionary stereotype and thus evaluate resources more from an intrinsically motivated perspective. This seems plausible given the fact that a number of participants in the NGO sector were actually assigned to HEs on a voluntary basis (see chapter 4.1.3) and thus appear to be less extrinsically motivated. This issue of stereotyping deserves more research attention (see chapter 7.3.1). However, the sample may still be considered representative as in general there are more male than female expatriates (RES Forum, 2016) and, as outlined by the participants, the majority of jobs in HE are within the NGO sector (see chapter 4.1.1).

Regarding the sampling technique, snowballing also needs to be mentioned here due to the researcher's loss of control about the participants' characteristics and the tendency of participants to refer people that they know well and share similar traits and characteristics with, risking that only a subgroup of the entire population is captured. The use of online methodologies might be discriminative and neglect older expatriates or those who choose not to have a social media presence (Baltar and Brunet, 2012). To minimise this problem, the researcher consciously focused on professional social media platforms such as LinkedIn and avoided online networks such as Facebook to reach a greater variety of potential participants. However, it could also be assumed that, in the expatriate context, the affinity for social media and online communication tools to be greater as it is the only way for expatriates to stay in touch with people from home. Despite opening up for potential criticism, the use of snowballing and online recruitment techniques was agreed to as necessary condition for the feasibility of this research and identified as an acceptable way to get access to a population that is particularly hard to reach.

Findings of the quantitative study similarly show limitations also found in other empirical work in the field of global mobility an expatriate research. Due to the cross-sectional design and the statistical method of multiple regression analysis, propositions about the relationships among the variables can be made, but causality not be determined

(Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). However, more sophisticate data collection procedures could not be realised within the time and resource constraints of a PhD project. Even beyond the context of a PhD project (and expatriate research), the study's design was deemed acceptable as most JD-R studies are based on cross-sectional data (even including the original study by Demerouti et al., 2001), still making valuable contributions. Nevertheless, research designs that allow making more robust assumptions about causality would additionally enhance HE-research.

The use of self-reported data could have increased the chance of common method bias (variance in results is attributed to the measurement method and not the constructs it represents). Yet, this is difficult to avoid, especially in timed research projects, which explains why it is one of the most commonly used methods to study employee behaviours and attitudes. However, dyadic data sets would help to minimise common method bias (see chapter 7.3.1).

The method related decisions may have increased the risk of a type I error (detecting a significant effect when in fact there is none) by allowing significance levels of .1 (see chapter 5.2.2.2) and the Durbin-Watson value indicating a slightly positive autocorrelation (see chapter 5.2.2.4), which means that the estimate of error variance is too small (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). However, all significance levels improved with fewer variables in the model (model 2). Moreover, significance levels of .05 and .01 are rather conservative approaches and it remains unclear in the literature what justifies these cut-off points. Researchers argue that the widely acknowledge significance level of .05 was established somewhat arbitrarily by Ronald Fisher (Cowles and Davis, 1982) and is rather a "matter of personal taste" (Yule and Kendall, 1950, p.425).

The greatest challenge of the quantitative study was to find suitable scales as this is such a novel research area and many scales still need to be developed (see chapter 7.3.1). For instance, the measurement of cultural novelty was rather complex (see Appendix III) and might have led to participants not fully understanding how to respond to the statements provided, potentially creating less meaningful results. Since it was a new measure (developed in 2014), issues with its practicality may have not been reported yet and is potentially a downside of applying not quite established measures. However, also with a thrive to further develop and advance the research approaches in the field, which might

also give room to more novel approaches, conceptualisations and measures, the researcher accepted this risk and preferred it over more established scales as it best represented the qualitative data (see chapter 3.5.2). In addition, the scales of work and non-work constraints, which both showed not to be significant for the development of burnout, were perhaps too broad and with hindsight would have benefited from additional study-specific adjustments. While work constraints such as inadequate equipment and budget may have been realistic in humanitarian field positions, it is probably less relevant for corporate expatriates working in a high-crime area of Brazil or South Africa. On the other hand, the items representing the non-work constraints (e.g. clothing restrictions, non-work interactions with locals, restricted mobility and travel) may have been less relevant for expatriates living in compound or camp settings sorely amongst other expatriates and with no distance to travel. However, an alternative measurement was not available and scale development was outwith the remaining timeframe and scope of this PhD. Thus, future research should focus on the development of new scales, which can be used to investigate the challenges of expatriates working in HEs (see chapter 7.3.1).

Lastly, the sample characteristics of the quantitative study were oppositional to the sample of the qualitative study as the average respondent was below 35 and female. This may challenge generalisability to the wider population of expatriates in HEs, but the researcher did control for gender and did not find significant statistical differences in how demands and resources were evaluated. Yet, as discussed in depth above, gender might not simply be dismissed from further debate. For instance, it is often suggested that men tend to be more career centric than women (Sweet et al., 2016), which may explain why internal career advancement was not found to be a significant resource in this research. The age might have also contributed to this, as expatriates possibly had not experienced the career enhancing effect of the assignment yet (see also chapter 5.3). Additionally, due to differing sources of job motivation (intrinsic vs. extrinsic) and the aforementioned ambiguity of the instrument items, it would have been perhaps more insightful to measure the importance of work instead of job satisfaction (Silbiger and Pines, 2014).

7.3 Future research, implications for practice and overall contributions

The findings of this thesis recommend some avenues for future research along with theoretical and practical implications, which will be discussed in the following.

7.3.1 Avenues for future research

The thesis suggests a number of directions for future research, some of which have been outlined already in the discussion of the systematic review (see chapter 2.2.5). Therefore, this chapter focuses on recommendations directly resulting from the two empirical studies. Although most of the initial research assumptions were confirmed by the empirical studies, a few findings were not anticipated and could be further investigated in future research projects.

A first and initially unexpected finding of the qualitative study was that the fear of crime or victimisation was not perceived as demanding and thus was not incorporated in the JD-R model as a demand. While possible explanations for this were outlined in chapter 4.4, it would still be interesting to provide more thorough reasoning for this. For instance, researching suitable personality traits to work in HEs could not only shed light on why, for most participants, fear seems to have been absent but would also be useful for the recruitment and selection of future expatriates. For example, sensation seeking has shown to increase the willingness to accept an assignment in HEs (Stoermer et al., 2017) and individuals possessing intercultural traits (e.g. emotional stability, flexibility) have been found to be associated with perceived safety (van der Zee et al., 2004). Potential theoretical frameworks guiding this research are the Person-Environment (P-E) fit theory (Edwards et al., 1998), Terror-Management-Theory (TMT) (Greenberg et al., 1997) or the big five framework of personality traits (Costa and McCrae, 1992), which has previously been applied to the expatriate context to predict assignment outcomes (see Caligiuri, 2000b).

A second remarkable observation was that, although all participants considered their work environment to be highly stressful and some participants in the qualitative study

raised concerns about burnout (see chapter 4.3), findings of the quantitative study revealed that burnout levels were low to moderate. This suggests that participants have built resilience and seem to cope with experienced stressors. It appears worth investigating where this resilience comes from. While the proposed model of this study can explain a great amount (60%) of the variance in burnout/work engagement, it also means that other demands and resources are accountable and future research should focus on revealing those. This could be done by interviewing expatriates in a more open way with interview questions being more obviously related to the demands and resources triggering or buffering burnout. Another option would be to interview the people who teach expatriates resilience such as security training personnel or psychologists. Again, investigating specific personality traits that could account for the resilience would look at these issues from a different angle.

Thirdly, it was interesting to learn from the data that many of the identified demands and resources were not exclusive to the hostile context, implying that expatriates working in those environments share similar concerns and draw support from similar sources as expatriates working in less risky locations (see Figure 6.1). While expatriates in hostile regions most likely experience the demands in a more pronounced way and thus rely more heavily on the resources, it perhaps shows that the risk of burnout might be just as high in traditional expatriation contexts. Therefore, it would be worthwhile to apply the proposed model to low-risk contexts by circulating the survey to expatriates currently assigned to non-HEs. In a similar vein, expanding the definition of a HE (see chapter 2.2.1) by including other forms of non-physical hostilities could be a valuable extension of the JD-R model. For instance, the increased risk of natural disasters (e.g. earthquakes or hurricanes), the constant exposure to extreme pollution and climates, the outbreak of life-threatening diseases (e.g. Ebola virus), or political threats (e.g. suppression of freedom of speech) could raise the stress levels of expatriates working in affected regions and would require a different set of resources to respond.

Finally, the unexpected, negative relationship between cultural novelty and burnout should be further examined, especially since evidence on the role of cultural novelty in the literature remains controversial (Hemmasi and Downes, 2013). A first idea could be to test whether results were due to the complexity of the relatively new instrument by Hippler et al. (2014). Thus, a study could use the respective instrument and a more

established one and then compare the results. Alternative measures for cultural novelty could be the scales developed by Black and Stephens (1989), Torbjörn (1982) or Hofstede (1980). Secondly, the possibility of expatriates deliberately wanting to experience great cultural novelty for the purposes of novel skill development and rare learning opportunities should be explored.

Tying in with the last point, more research is also recommended to understand the motivational drivers of expatriates working in HEs. More precisely, probing the stereotypes of missionaries, mercenaries and misfits mentioned in chapter 5.3 could be insightful. In particular, it would be interesting to investigate whether one stereotype is more dominant in certain sectors (e.g. more missionaries in the NGO/ humanitarian aid sector and more mercenaries in the MNC sector). This could offer valuable clues to career and incentive schemes and ideally reduce the number of misfits. In fact, interviewing misfits on the reasons why they left would help to identify more, not yet detected, demands and needed resources. It could also probe the assumption that those expatriates bothered by work and non-work constraints have left the assignment or were perhaps those who did experience unbearable fear of crime or victimisation. However, this postulates that the difficulty of identifying and recruiting misfits for the study can be overcome. A possibility could be to use snowballing and ask expatriates within the researcher's network or psychologists (those who know of colleagues who have discontinued the assignment) to circulate the research request without breaching their anonymity.

Lastly, a couple of methodological suggestions shall be made. First, more longitudinal research designs would allow for a better understanding of causalities. This requires for the common challenges of time, budget and participant drop-outs to be overcome. While this would enhance the understanding, it will remain a particularly tricky endeavour in HE contexts where participants are difficult to recruit in the first place and many expatriates seem to change assignment location and employer more frequently and thus do not fit well with the requirements of longitudinal research and stable assignment conditions. A possible solution could be to approach assigning organisation for research collaborations as this could ease the access to participants and help to identify those expatriates on more permanent assignment posts. Secondly, more research should be dedicated to the development of scales that capture the working conditions in non-

traditional expatriation settings. Additionally, it might be useful to expand the understanding of HEs and develop an instrument that measures various forms of hostility, ranging from human-made physical threats to natural disasters and political threats.

7.3.2 Implications for management

The findings of the two empirical studies offer a plethora of suggestions for the development of appropriate HR policies and practices concerning expatriates in HEs. While not all of the identified demands and resources were of statistical significance, they should not be disregarded as they still provide useful ideas for how to improve the situations of affected expatriates. However, it must be noted that not all issues can be sufficiently addressed. Expatriates should be aware that the decision to work abroad or in a HE requires for some sacrifices to be made. Yet, to better prevent expatriates from burnout and to ensure the best possible work engagement, demands should be kept low or reduced and resources kept at adequately high levels or be extended.

Beginning with the two significant demands, workload and work-life conflicts should be kept as at a minimum. While the work pressure and the 24/7 availability cannot always be avoided as operations in HEs are irregular and crises can happen at any time, a concrete recommendation would be to do shorter RnR cycles so that stress does not become unbearable. To ensure that the time spent at home is as relaxing as possible, expatriates could benefit from having a substitute while away or, alternatively, a system of job sharing could be implemented or, depending on role and responsibilities, a personal assistant who can take care of delegable but time-consuming tasks (e.g. writing reports to managers) should be considered. It would be worth trying to (further) reduce business travel and use modern technologies instead (e.g. Skype meetings) as much as possible. If trips are necessary, comfortable methods of travelling should be assured (e.g. flights in business class, especially on long-haul flights) and enough recovery time granted upon return as recently discussed for international business travellers (IBTs) in a qualitative study by Rattrie and Kittler, (2020).

For a reduction in work-life conflicts, business meetings and other work obligations should consider individual leisure timeframes where possible to give expatriates the chance to spend time with their families. For expatriates who are not accompanied by their families, organisations could allow regular trips back home and grant them adequate time off to be spent with their families, possibly by putting a substitute system in place. Shorter RnR cycles could help here as well. An investment in reliable network facilities is important so that the expatriates stay connected with their families and friends back home. Flexible working hours should be allowed so that, for instance, phone or Skype calls can be made at important times of the day (e.g. in the evening to say good night to the children). Organising joint activities for partners and families can help to develop a support network for the expatriates' families abroad and back home. Organisations should also consider assisting with family matters such as child-care, especially when the other partner is abroad. In times of personal crisis, organisations could provide access to family counselling and therapy sessions.

Cultural novelty, while not perceived as particularly demanding in the sample of the quantitative study, bears potential for conflict. Hence, to ensure that cultural novelty is experienced as something valuable, the expatriate should be aware of potential cultural differences. This could be done by allowing the expatriate to go on a pre-assignment visit. However, this may not always be possible as some regions are simply too dangerous for a brief pre-departure 'sightseer' and require lengthy and expensive pre-security trainings and visa applications. In these cases, meetings or phone conversations with current expatriates and the local office could help to seek clarification on open questions and allow expatriates to familiarise with their future HE-destination. Pre-assignment language training and the provision of a local 'buddy' could help to overcome first barriers. During the assignment, organisations could organise regular culture evenings (e.g. pot lucks where locals bring food and the expatriates cook something from their home country). This would not only give an understanding of different cultures in a rather informal way but could also help expatriates to casually mingle with locals (which is often difficult outside of work). Regarding potentially different working styles, regular feedback meetings with a neutral moderator or an office handbook that incorporates regular work processes and deadlines could help to bridge cultural differences.

Whereas many environmental constraints are beyond the control of the assigning organisations (e.g. corruption, unstable country and security conditions), they can work on minimising the organisational constraints and might consider a need for change, also having repercussions for leader in transforming the organisation (Burnes, 2004; Burnes et al., 2018). For instance, bureaucracy could be decreased by reducing the number of managers to report to or by using softer means of coordination. Additionally, organisations should ensure that the departments of the HQ have a better understanding of the situation of the expatriates abroad. This could be facilitated by regular (field) visits abroad of responsible home office staff or an employee survey that welcomes the expatriates' ideas and potential solutions for the corporate policy-making. Consideration should be given where the HE-context might require transactional leadership elements and where there is room to allow for transformational perspectives (see Burnes et al., 2018).

Providing a safe space where expatriates do not have to think about safety, creating leisure facilities and assisting with travel arrangements could help to lower the perceived non-work constraints. This could be done by the monetary allowance for a private car or the use of regular taxi services such as Uber. Such an approach could be a good alternative to organisational driving services as these decrease the feeling of privacy for the expatriates. To tackle the problem of minimal freedom of movement, regular social events and day trips to local attractions should be offered. Further, enabling to receive letters and parcels from back home (as it is usual in the military service) could help expatriates to overcome acute phases of home-sickness by being able to receive personal notes or small goodies (e.g. favourite chocolate bar) from back home.

Organisations could also see whether investments might be required to increase the identified resources. The findings suggest that POS should be provided in any case and not be made dependent on the type of contract or position the expatriate holds. Assisting expatriates with all the matters concerning the relocation should be considered best practice. This should start with an appropriate relocation package that also considers the expatriates' family situation. Specific examples of POS are monetary recognitions if spouses cannot work, secure housing and regular security updates via an app or SMS, pre-departure training that includes the entire family if necessary, sufficient health

insurance with important elements such as the repatriation cover, and assistance with travel arrangements when on rotational assignments to name a few.

The provision of leisure facilities and entertainment are of great importance in countries where access otherwise is limited as this has been reported to be a good way to distract the mind. As such, organisations could provide gyms, a cinema or other social venues in the compound and organise sport and social events (e.g. cooking nights, book clubs) or could consider a cooperation with universities or other virtual learning formats for expatriates to be able to study for another degree in their private time. Where possible, local employees should be involved as this could further help with the adjustment process. Regular networking events and the aforementioned 'buddy' system could also help to establish or extend expatriates' social networks. Involving expatriates in the decision-making process and leaving them a certain flexibility in their approaches to work should foster their job satisfaction. Adequate opportunities for career development (e.g. regular skill enhancement and a clear career path) within the organisation could help retain staff while promoting the aspired internal career advancement of expatriates.

7.3.3 Overall contributions

The thesis makes a number of contributions, which have been outlined above in the form of implications for management (see chapter 7.3.2) and interesting avenues for future research (see chapter 7.3.1). This section focuses on the essence of this study and the overreaching contributions of the three studies conducted.

The systematic review was the first attempt to gather, analyse and report the still very dispersive literature in the emerging research area of expatriation in HEs. By developing a multi-stakeholder framework, it has not only organised the literature in a logical manner, but also highlighted important stakeholders (and those still neglected) and their detrimental and beneficial effects on expatriation success. Numerous recommendations for future research have been derived, also providing the basis and justification for the two following empirical studies.

Through the qualitative study, in-depth insights of the challenging but also rewarding aspects of work in HEs were gained, providing a more holistic understanding of the

experiences of expatriates. Findings revealed that the fear of crime and victimisation as well as a decreased feeling of personal safety was absent for most participants. As this contradicts many previous studies (e.g. Bader and Berg, 2013), it has opened up an interesting debate on the 'real danger' of work in HEs and suggests future research on this issue. The subsequent quantitative study has avoided a laundry list approach by specifically focusing on the resources' and demands' role in the development of burnout and work engagement. Conducting two coherent empirical studies has also made some methodological contributions, as mixed-method designs are still sparse in business and management studies (Cameron and Molina-Azorin, 2011), especially in HEs (see Appendix I).

All three studies, especially the two empirical ones, delivered valuable insights to three important, yet under-researched, streams of literature: expatriate management in HEs, expatriation and burnout, and the JD-R model in international work settings. The thesis has hence responded to several calls requesting more research on expatriates in HEs (Bader and Berg, 2014; Faeth and Kittler, 2017), the application of the JD-R model in more expatriate and hostile contexts (Lazarova et al., 2010; Qin et al., 2014; Rattrie and Kittler, 2014), and the greater investigation of burnout among expatriates (Bhanugopan and Fish, 2006) in stressful hardship locations (Eriksson et al., 2009), with a particular focus on qualitative methods (Silbiger and Pines, 2014). Two SIs in target journals on expatriation in HEs and the potential dark sides of expatriation (Bader et al., 2019a; Bader et al., 2019b) further highlight the topic's timeliness and relevance for HR academics and practitioners alike.

With the majority of existing studies relying on the theory of cognitive appraisal (Lazarus and Folkman, 1986), the thesis uses an alternative and rather unique theoretical framework to investigate the challenges of expatriates in HEs (see chapter 2.2.5). In doing so, it further applies the JD-R model, considered an established domestic occupational stress model, and enhances its empirical reach to a new and international context. While a handful of expatriates studies have regarded the model's suitability for IHRM purposes (see chapter 2.3.5), no other empirical study has yet used the model to predict burnout and work engagement among expatriates working in HEs.

For that matter, the thesis made some theoretical extensions to the existing model by including context-relevant and personal demands. While personal resources have

previously been incorporated in the model, the potential influence of personal demands has not yet been investigated in great depth (Bakker and Demerouti, 2017), but they are believed to be of great importance for the expatriate context where the work and private spheres are argued to be more strongly intertwined (Bader and Manke, 2018). Results of previous studies (see chapter 2.3.4) and the findings of the qualitative and quantitative studies in this thesis, see personal demands as an important extension to extant theory. Thus, the insights and findings developed in the studies reported within this thesis have not only advanced the understanding of HE-expatriation and provided room for practical guidance, but also contributed to advance the scholarly debate and the development of the theoretical foundations underpinning extant and further research on work in dangerous contexts.

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Appendix I. **Overview of articles in the systematic review**

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

8	Beutell et al., (2017)	IJERPH	Theory of cognitive appraisal	Conceptual	Assigned expatriates	Countries with a high risk of terrorism	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriate (coping strategies accustomed to the expatriate life cycle)
9	Bhanugopan and Fish, (2008)	APJHR	Not clear	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=153)	Countries with a high risk of terrorism and crime (Papua New Guinea)	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriate (lower quality of work-life) (5)
10	Claus and McNulty (2015)	EJIM	N/A	SI editorial	Assigned expatriates	Threats that are man-made	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (duty of care) → Expatriate
11	Coyne and Bell, (2011)	HJ	Not clear; draw on the fear of crime literature	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned expatriates (n=6)	Countries with a high risk of crime (Vietnam)	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriate (fear of crime)
12	Dickmann and Watson, (2017)	JGM	Intelligent careers perspective	Empirical: qualitative "deviant" case study	Assigned and potential expatriates (n=25)	HEs	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Expatriate + Organisation + Environment → Motivation to relocate to a HE
13	Dickmann et al., (2017)	IJHRM	Resource-based view, institutional theory	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned expatriates and HR managers (n=18)	HEs: Afghanistan	Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (resource-based, capability-based, institutional influences) → decision to localise
14	Faeth and Kittler, (2017)	JGM	Theory of cognitive appraisal	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned expatriates (n=12)	Countries with a high risk of terrorism and crime (Kenya, South Africa)	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriate (lower physical wellbeing)
15	Fee and McGrath-Champ, (2017)	IJHRM	Resource-based view, psychological contract, duty of care, stakeholder perspective	Empirical: qualitative	13 expert interviews 126 internal policy documents	High-risk context (Africa, Asia-Pacific, Europe, North America, South America)	Expatriate, Organisation, Local Community Environment	Environment → Organisation (HR policies and practices)/ Local community → Expatriate (safety and wellbeing)
16	Fee et al., (2017)	IJHRM	Institutional theory	Empirical: qualitative	27 expert interviews 172 internal policy documents	HEs (Africa, Asia-Pacific, Europe, North America, South America	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (HR practices) → Expatriate (safety and wellbeing)

17	Gannon and Paraskevas, (2017)	IJHRM	The expatriate cycle, risk management model	Empirical: qualitative	18 expert interviews	HEs or hardship locations	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (HR practices)→ Expatriate (safety and wellbeing)
18	Giorgi et al., (2016)	FP	Concept of fear of expatriation; in dependence on theory of cognitive appraisal	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=265)	Europe, Middle East, Asia, Africa, Australia	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate (mental health problems) → Organisation (fear of expatriation/further workplace fears)
19	Harvey et al., (2019)	IJHRM	Organisational legitimacy theory	Conceptual	Assigned/potential expatriates	Terror-endangered countries	Organisation Environment	Environment → ← Organisation
20	Leder (2019)	RA	Theory of cognitive appraisal	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned expatriates (n=24)	Sudan	Expatriate Environment	Environment → ← Expatriate
21	McPhail and McNulty, (2015)	EJIM	Duty of care	Empirical: qualitative	Assigned LGBT expatriates (n=13)	Dangerous locations for LGBT expatriates	Expatriate, Organisation Environment (6)	Environment → Expatriate (perception of hostility/coping strategies) → Organisation (duty of care obligation)
22	Paulus and Muehfeld, (2017)	JGM	Expatriate adjustment framework, social identity theory	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=116)	Countries with different terrorism threat levels	Expatriate Environment	Expatriate (HC language proficiency) → Environment (improved CCA) → Expatriate (fear of terror) → Environment (hindered CCA) Environment (actual threat level) → Expatriate (fear of terror)
23	Pinto et al., (2017)	JGM	N/A	SI editorial	Assigned expatriates	Dangerous settings and risky assignments	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment, Organisation, Expatriate
24	Posthuma et al., (2017)	IHRM	Psychological contract theory	Conceptual	Assigned expatriates	HE	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Organisation (ERM/ HR practices) → Expatriate (adjustment)
25	Scullion et al. (2007)	HRMJ	N/A	SI editorial	Assigned expatriates	Global terrorism	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate → Organisation (willingness to accept assignments)
26	Smiley, (2010)	AT	Geographies of exclusion	Empirical: mixed-methods (survey and interviews)	Assigned expatriates (n=50)	Crime environment (Tanzania)	Expatriate Environment	Environment → Expatriation (fear of crime, social and spatially separation)
27	Stoermer et al., (2017)	JGM	Expectancy value theory	Empirical: quantitative	Assigned expatriates (n=148)	Low-risk countries	Expatriate, Organisation	Expatriate (sensation seeking/money orientation) → Organisation (willingness to relocate to a HE)

28	Suder et al., (2017)	IJHRM	Organisational learning theory	Empirical: qualitative In-depth case study	Assigned expatriates (n=6), Afghan managers (n=3), direct observation, company documents	HE (Afghanistan)	Expatriate, Organisation Environment	Environment → Expatriate (perceived security + development challenges) → Organisation (creation of rare knowledge)

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

Appendix II. **Data structure qualitative analysis**

Codes	Themes	(JD-R) Relevance
Environmental: instability of the country, underdevelopment of the country, political difficulties of the country, corruption, nepotism, contradictory information *Organisational:* lack of understanding from HQ, conflicts of interest, lack of feedback, too little budget, bureaucracy, little progress, lengthy processes	Environmental and organisational work constraints	Job demands (hindrance)
High workload, long working hours, no separation from work, extreme environmental conditions, different time zones, work pressure, business trips, increased responsibility[1]	Intense work environment (workload)	
Different ways of doing business, diverse workplace, first experiences in the country, difficulties integrating, cultural differences, becoming part of a community, similarities to local culture, language difficulties, expat's adjustment	A new and different culture (cultural novelty)	Job demands (challenge)
Assignment preparation, instrumental support, peer support, assignment conditions, features of the organisation, informal advice	Organisational support (POS)	Job resources
Fulfilling job, having an impact, commitment to the job, corporate identity, interest in the country/project	Job satisfaction	
Career advancement, career opportunities, learning experience, career perspective, useful business contacts	Internal career advancement	
Support network, importance of people from back home, expat community, importance of contact to locals, family support	Support network	Personal resources
Finding peace, acceptance, solitude, space to switch off, activities, social life, being disciplined, alcohol consumption, amenities of the location, sport	Leisure coping strategies	
Dependency on other, no freedom of movement, restricted lifestyle, loss of privacy and adaption to the safety situation	Consequences of the safety situation (non-work constraints)	Personal demands
Lack of time for family, feeling of guilt, separation from family, unequal work-life-balance, concerns about family's safety, family's adjustment, being a long-term expatriate, limited time, difficulties keeping up relationships, future outlook	Work-life conflict	

[1] Initially perceived as interesting and rewarding but in increased intensity and in combination with environmental and organisational obstacles burdening and tiring

Appendix III. **Questionnaire quantitative study**

WELCOME PAGE

Welcome and thank you very much for taking the time to participate in the survey on "expatriate wellbeing in HEs". This research project aims to identify the working and living conditions which can contribute to the development of burnout and conversely successful employee engagement among expatriates assigned to particularly stressful environments. Results of this survey will be used to give recommendations on how assignments should be designed and managed for expatriates to be less prone to the risk of burnout and keep their wellbeing. Therefore, your input is of great importance, highly valued and can help improve the working conditions for you and your peers.

The completion of the questionnaire takes about 15-20 minutes. Next to information about your personal and job situation, you will be asked to give your view on a number of statements using a Likert-scale (e.g. "strongly agree", "strongly disagree"). Questions are worded in a positive and negative manner, so please read the questions carefully. I kindly ask you to answer all questions. If you wish not to answer particular questions, you can indicate this by choosing the "prefer not to say" option or in some instances will have the option to skip the question.

Please only take part in the questionnaire if you are currently or have been previously assigned to a HE (an area with increased risk of terrorism, crime, civil war and other forms of violence). All your answers will be treated as confidential and anonymous. In accordance with the University's policy on data archiving, the survey answers will be treated as restricted information, which means that they will only be accessible by my supervisor and me, and stored on password protected servers for ten years after the award of the PhD. After this period, all personal data will be subsequently destroyed with appropriate software. By continuing with this survey, you are providing your consent.

The more people fill out the survey, the more robust the results will be. Thus, I would appreciate if you could pass on the survey link to any colleagues or friends who are in a similar situation to yours. Thank you once again for your contribution to my research. If you have any questions or would like to get informed about the outcome of the study, please get in touch via email: pcf1@stir.ac.uk.

SECTION A: INFORMATION ABOUT THE WORKING AND ASSIGNMENT CONDITIONS

A1. The following statements deal with your workload. Please respond by choosing the option that best represents your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = disagree
4 = strongly disagree

	Please select.
	1 2 3 4
My job requires working very fast.	
My job requires working very hard.	
I am **not** asked to do an excessive amount of work.	
I have enough time to get the job done.	
I am free from conflicting demands that others make.	
My job requires long periods of intense concentration on the task.	
My tasks are often interrupted before they can be completed, requiring attention at a later time.	
My job is very hectic.	
Waiting on work from other people or departments often slows me down on my job.	

A2. The following section deals with potential work constraints. Please indicate, how difficult (or even impossible) is it for you to do your job because of…

1 = never*
2 = rarely
3 = occasionally
4 = sometimes
5 = frequently
6 = often
7 = several times a day

Please select.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The lack of job related information from e.g. supervisors, peers, or customers.							
Inadequate or insufficient equipment.							
Inadequate or insufficient supplies.							
Inadequate budget.							
Refusal of services and help from others.							
Inadequate task preparation (e.g. formal company training, personal preparation).							
Time availability (e.g. interruptions, non-job-related distractions).							
Inadequate work environment (heat, dirt, safety …).							

A3. The following section deals with perceived cultural novelty. Please consider your work in your home country (or last assignment) as compared to your current work now that you are on assignment. With respect to each of the items below, please indicate in which you have **experienced a change or difference and how similar or different** the following is compared to your home country.

Change was:
(+) = positive
(0) = neutral
(-) = negative

Significance of change:
1 = this change was insignificant in my life
2 = this change was not too significant in my life
3 = this change was significant in my life
4 = this change was very significant in my life

	Please select.						
	(+)	(0)	(-)	1	2	3	4
The work attitudes of the employees							
The corporate culture of the organisation where I work							
The qualifications and skill level of my colleagues (co-workers, direct reports, etc.)							
The work climate (i.e. the environment affecting my daily experience on-the-job)							
The employees' method of working, in general							
The way in which people communicate (e.g. discuss issues or debate)							
The reliability of the people							

A4. The following statements deal with your perceived organisational support. Please respond by choosing the option that best represents your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = somewhat agree
5 = agree
6 = strongly agree

	Please select.
	1 2 3 4 5 6
The organisation values my contribution to its performance.	
The organisation strongly considers my personal goals.	
The organisation really cares about my wellbeing.	
I receive sufficient support from my organisation regarding the assignment.	
My organisation provides me with additional support when needed.	
My organisation ensures that I'm adequately prepared for the assignment.	

A5. The following statements deal with your job satisfaction. Please respond by choosing the option that best represents your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1 = strongly disagree*
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

	Please select.
	1 2 3 4 5
I find real enjoyment in my job.	
I like my job better than the average person.	
I am seldom bored with my job.	
I would **not** consider taking another kind of job.	
Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	
I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.	

A6. The following statements deal with your internal career advancement. Please respond by choosing the option that best represents your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1 = strongly disagree*
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

	Please select.
	1 2 3 4 5
Given my qualifications and experience, getting a new job would **not** be very hard at all.	
I can think of a number of organizations that would probably offer me a job if I was looking.	
If I looked for a job, I would probably wind up with a better job than the one I have now.	
By and large, the jobs I could get if I left here are superior to the job I have now.	
Most of the jobs I could get would be an improvement over my present circumstances.	
I have a far-reaching "network" of contacts which could help me find out about other job opportunities.	
I have contacts in other companies who might help me line up a new job.	
My work and/or social activities tend to bring me in contact with a number of people who might help me line up a new job.	
Right now, I have a job offer "on the table" from another employer, if I choose to take it.	
I have found a better alternative than my present job.	

A7. The following statements deal with your work-life conflict. Please respond by choosing the option that best represents the frequency of the statements occurring. If you don't have a family treat that questions as other people that you care about and spend a lot of time with.

0 = never
1 = hardly ever
2 = sometimes
3 = often
4 = always

	Please select.				
	0	1	2	3	4
I come home from work and feel exhausted.					
My job takes away family time.					
After work I am too tired to enjoy things outside of work.					
My family gets fed up with my job pressures.					

A8. The following statements deal with potential non-work constraints. Please indicate, how often your private life is constrained in your host country in terms of…

1 = never*
2 = rarely
3 = occasionally
4 = sometimes
5 = frequently
6 = often
7 = several times a day

	Please select.
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Clothing restrictions.	
Religious or cultural food and drink constraints.	
Male-female relationships (e.g. having to be married to live together, or not being allowed to talk to males as a female).	
Non-work interactions with locals.	
Mobility and travel (e.g. avoid certain places due to danger of different kinds).	
Leisure time activities.	

A9. The following statements deal with your support network. In answering the following questions, think about your current relationships with friends, family members, co-workers, community members, and so on. Please indicate to what extent each statement describes your current relationships with other people. Use the following scale to indicate your opinion.

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = agree
4 = strongly agree

	Please select.
	1 2 3 4
There are people I can depend on to help me if I really need it.	
There is **no one** I can turn to for guidance in times of stress.	
There are people who enjoy the same social activities I do.	
I feel part of a group of people who share my attitudes and beliefs.	
I have close relationships that provide me with a sense of emotional security and well-being.	
There is someone I could talk to about important decisions in my life.	
There is **no one** who shares my interests and concerns.	
There is a trustworthy person I could turn to for advice if I were having problems.	
I feel a strong emotional bond with at least one other person.	
There is **no one** I can depend on for aid if I really need it.	
There is **no one** I feel comfortable talking about problems with.	
There are people who I can count on in an emergency.	

A10. The following statements deal with your leisure coping strategies. Please respond by choosing the option that best represents your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1 = very strongly disagree
2 = strongly disagree
3 = disagree
4 = neither agree nor disagree
5 = agree
6 = strongly agree
7 = very strongly agree

	Please select.						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I engaged in a leisure activity to temporarily get away from the problem.							
Escape through leisure was a way of coping with stress.							
Leisure was an important means of keeping myself busy.							
Engagement in leisure allowed me to gain a fresh perspective on my problems(s).							
By escaping from the problem through leisure, I was able to tackle my problem(s) with renewed energy.							
I took a brief break through leisure to deal with the stress.							

SECTION B: INFORMATION ON YOUR WELLBEING

B1. The following statements deal with how you feel at work/ on the assignment. Please respond by choosing the option that best represents your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = disagree
4 = strongly disagree

	Please select.
	1 2 3 4
I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.	
There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.	
It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.	
After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.	
I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.	
Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically.	
I find my work to be a positive challenge.	
During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.	
Over time, one can become disconnected from this type of work.	
After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.	
Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.	

After my work, I usually feel worn out and weary.

This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.

Usually, I can manage the amount of my work well.

I feel more and more engaged in my work.

When I work, I usually feel energized.

SECTION C: PERSONAL INFORMATION

C1. Which country and city are you/ have you been recently assigned to? _____

C2. What is your gender? Male ☐ Female ☐ Prefer not to say ☐ Other: _____

C3. How old are you? _____ Prefer not to say ☐

C4. What is your current marital status? Single ☐ Married/in a relationship ☐ Divorced/separated ☐ Widowed ☐ Prefer not to say ☐

C5. Do you have any children? Yes ☐ No ☐ (skip to A7) Prefer not to say ☐

C6. If yes, how many? _____ Prefer not to say ☐

C7. Do your children live in the same household as you? Yes ☐ No ☐ I am on a rotational assignment ☐ Prefer not to say ☐

C8. What is your country of birth? _____ Prefer not to say ☐

C9. In which country did you grow up or spent most of your time? _____ Prefer not to say ☐

C10. What is your ethnic background? White/Caucasian ☐ Mixed ☐ Asian ☐ Black ☐ Arab ☐ Hispanic ☐ Other: _____

SECTION D: JOB AND ASSIGNMENT INFORMATION

D1. In which sector are you employed? Private/MNC ☐ NGO/IGO/humanitarian aid ☐ Public/governmental ☐ Other: _____

D2. What is the category of your position? Consultant ☐ Specialist ☐ Manager ☐ Director ☐ Other: _____

D3. How many years of experience do you have as an expatriate? _____

D4. How long have you been on your current assignment? _____

D5. Have you been on an assignment before? Yes, in a HE ☐ Yes, in a low-risk environment ☐ No ☐

D6. How do you live in the host country? Secure compound/camp ☐ House/ flat in an upper-class neighbourhood ☐ local community ☐

SECTION E: FEELING OF SAFETY

E1. In your host country, how safe do you feel walking alone in your neighborhood after dark?

Very safe ☐ Somewhat safe ☐ Somewhat unsafe ☐ Very unsafe ☐

E2. In your host country, how often does your worry about crime prevent you from doing things you would like to do in your neighborhood?

Never ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often ☐ Very often ☐

E3. In your host country, how worried are you that:

… someone will try to attack you while you are outside your neighbourhood?

Not worried ☐ Somewhat worried ☐ Very worried ☐

…you will be a victim of a violent crime in your neighbourhood?

Not worried ☐ Somewhat worried ☐ Very worried ☐

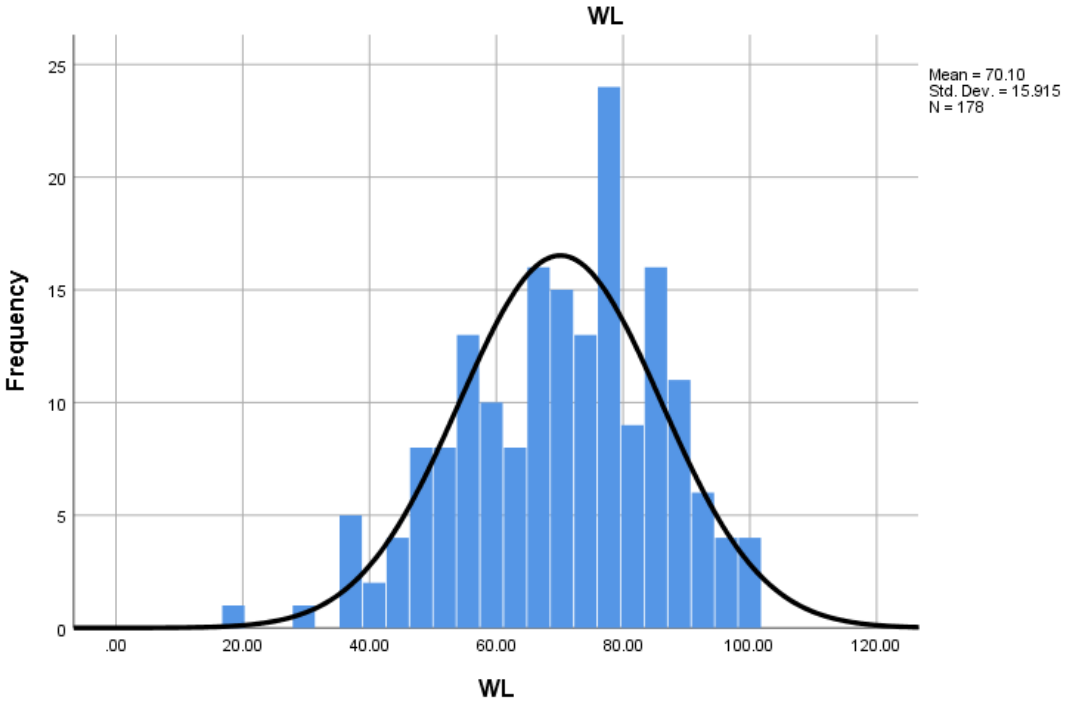
… you will be a victim of a violent crime in your home?

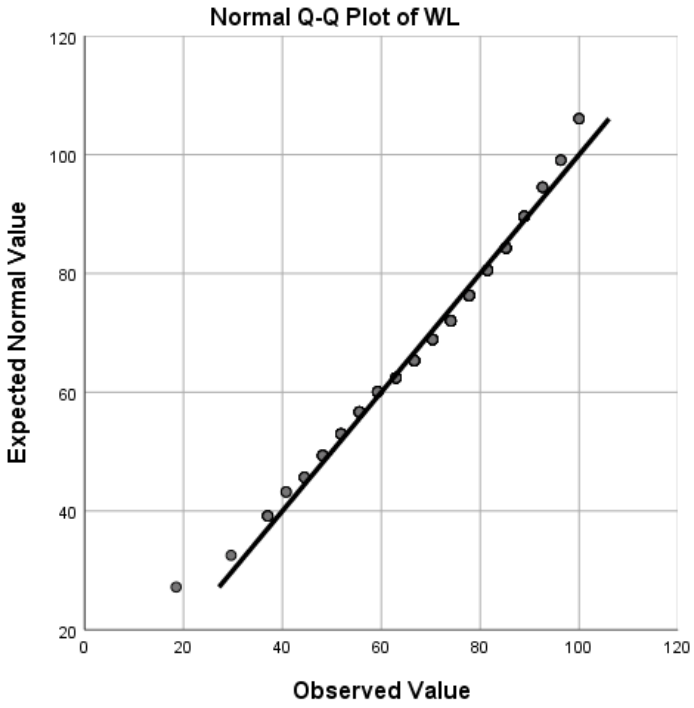
Not worried ☐ Somewhat worried ☐ Very worried ☐

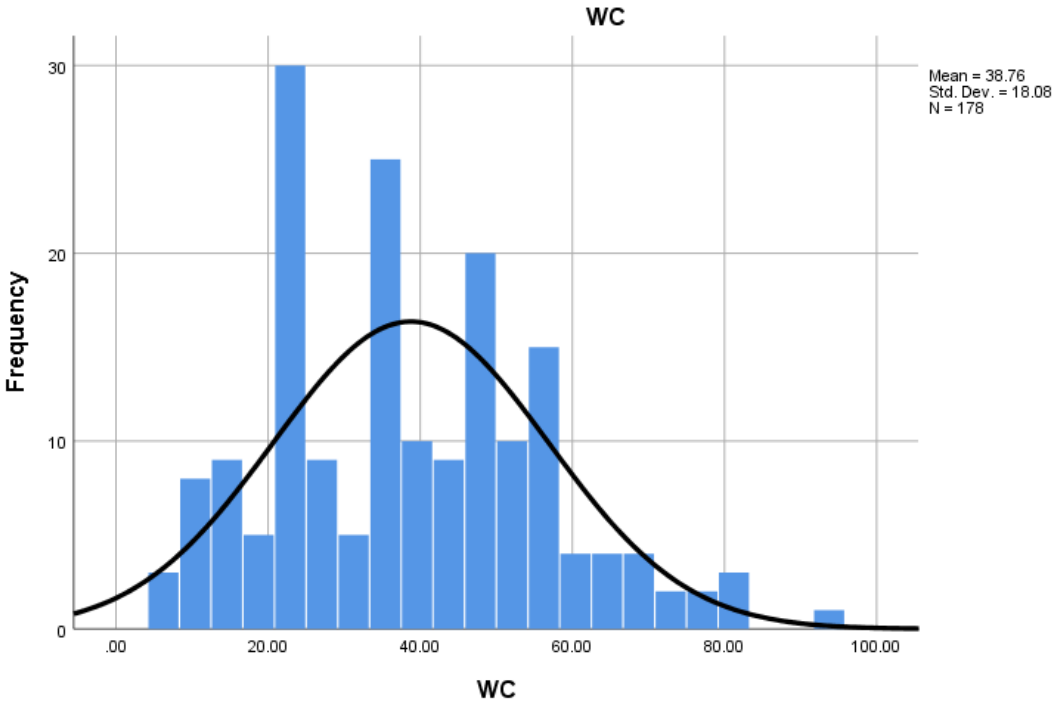
SECTION F: CONTACT DETAILS

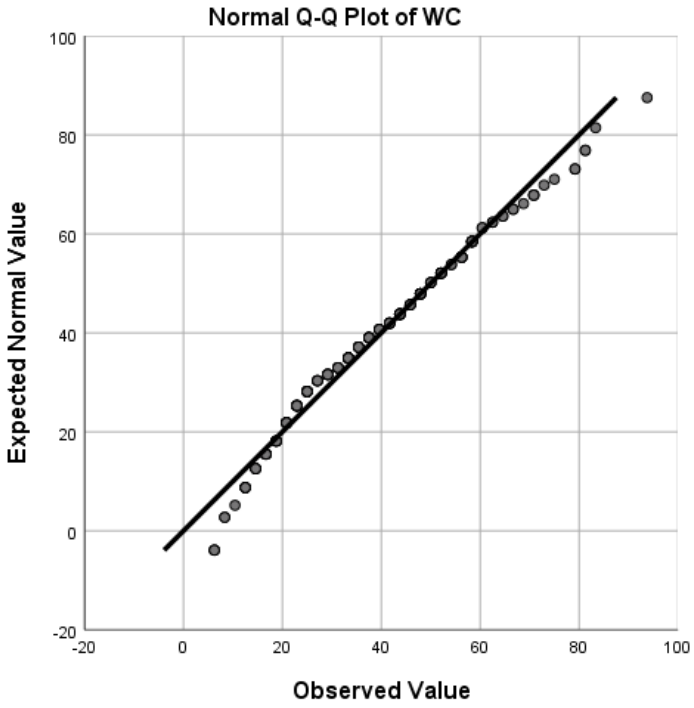
If you would like to be informed about the outcome of the study, please enter your email address below. Please note that answers given cannot be associated with the entered email address. _____

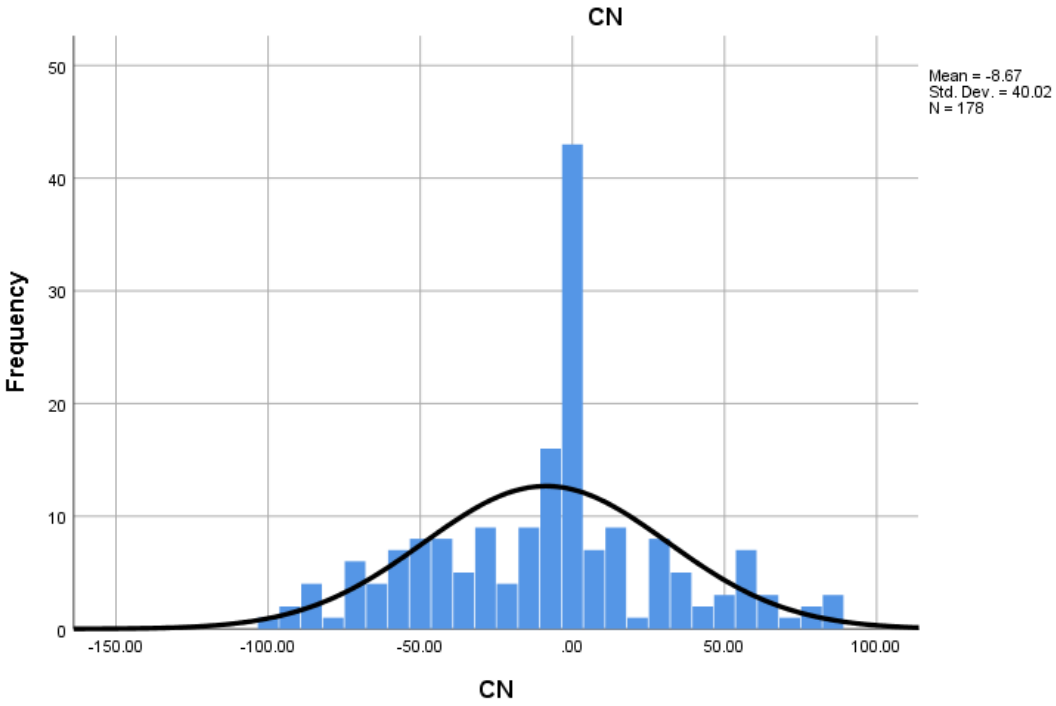
Appendix IV. **Histograms and Q-Q plots of model variables**

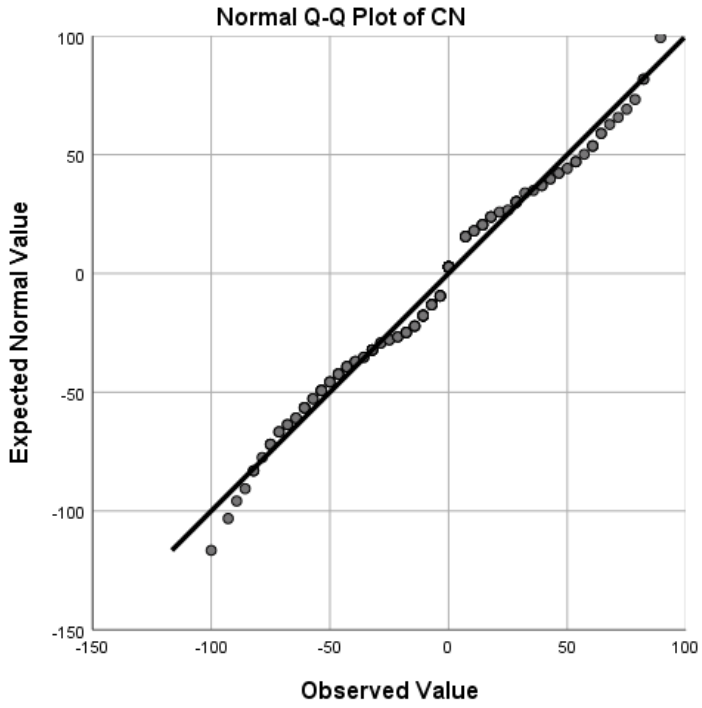


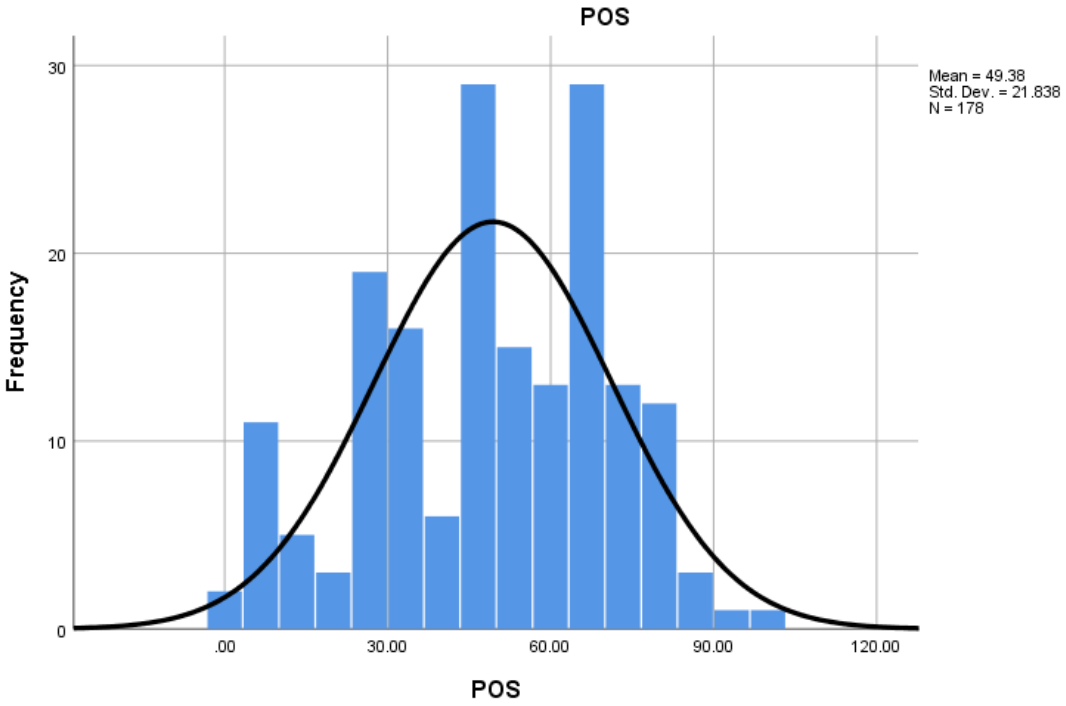


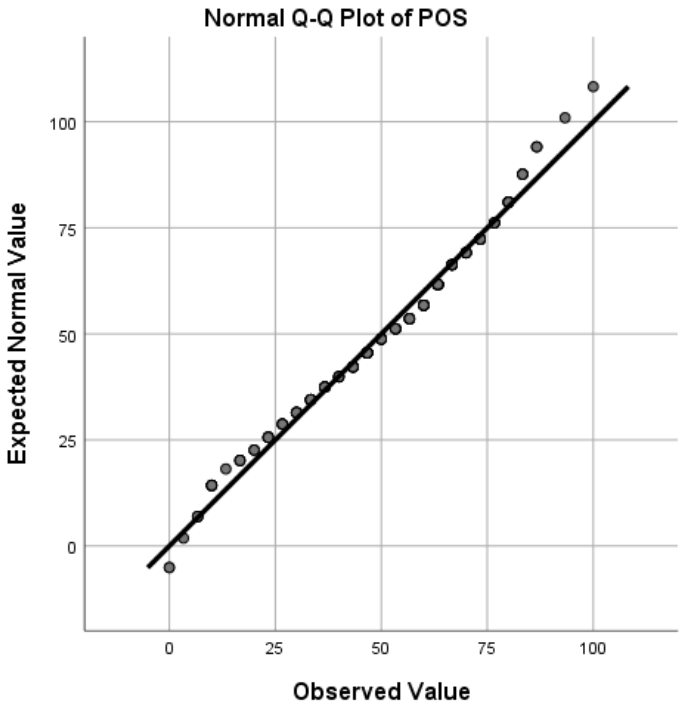

WC
Mean = 38.76
Std. Dev. = 18.08
N = 178
Frequency
30
20
10
0
.00
20.00
40.00
60.00
80.00
100.00
WC

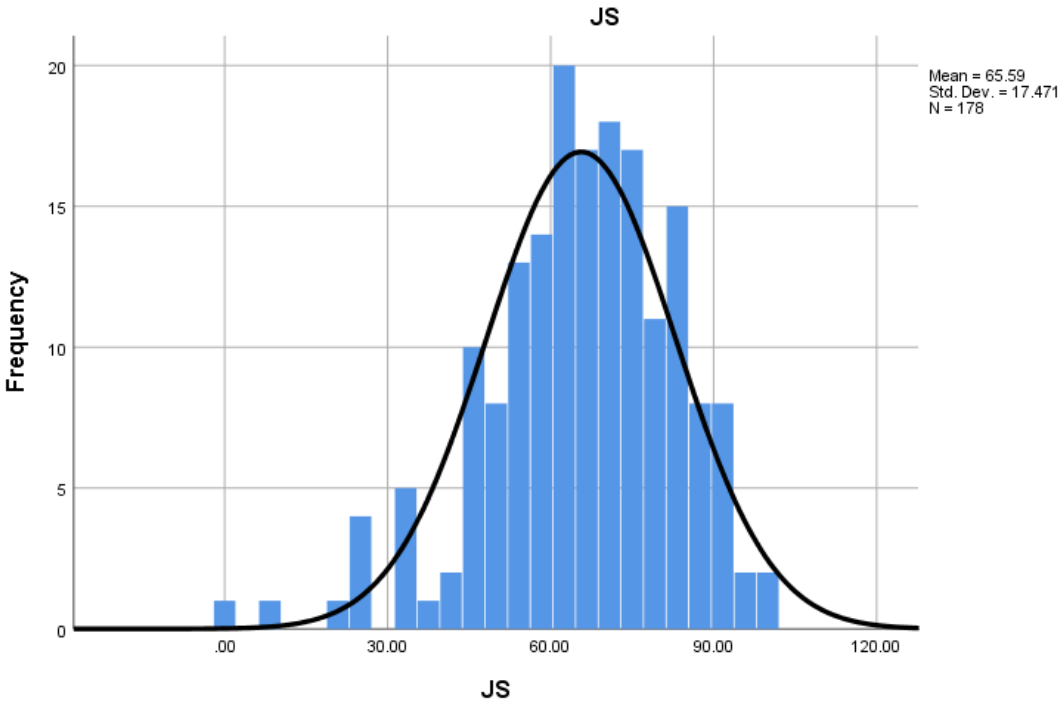

Normal Q-Q Plot of WC
Expected Normal Value
100
80
60
40
20
0
-20
-20
0
20
40
60
80
100
Observed Value

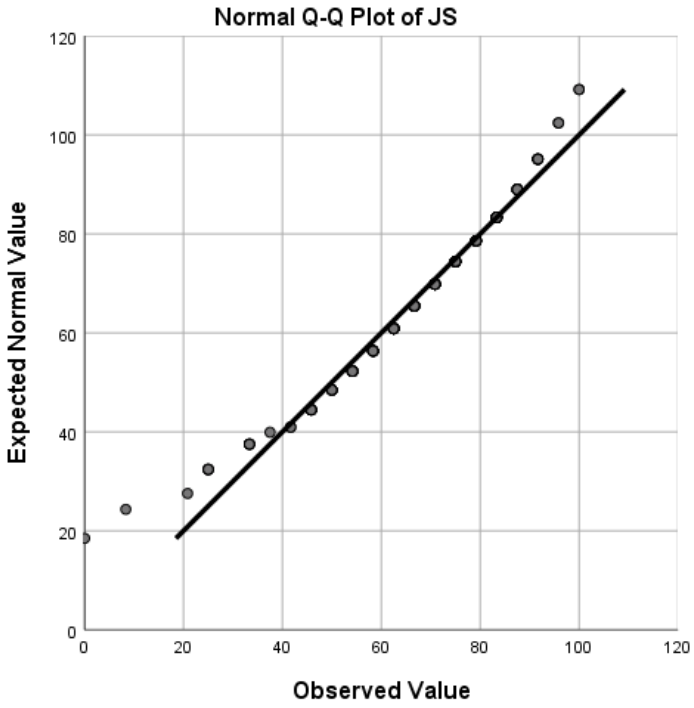

CN
Mean = -8.67
Std. Dev. = 40.02
N = 178
Frequency
50
40
30
20
10
0
-150.00
-100.00
-50.00
.00
50.00
100.00
CN

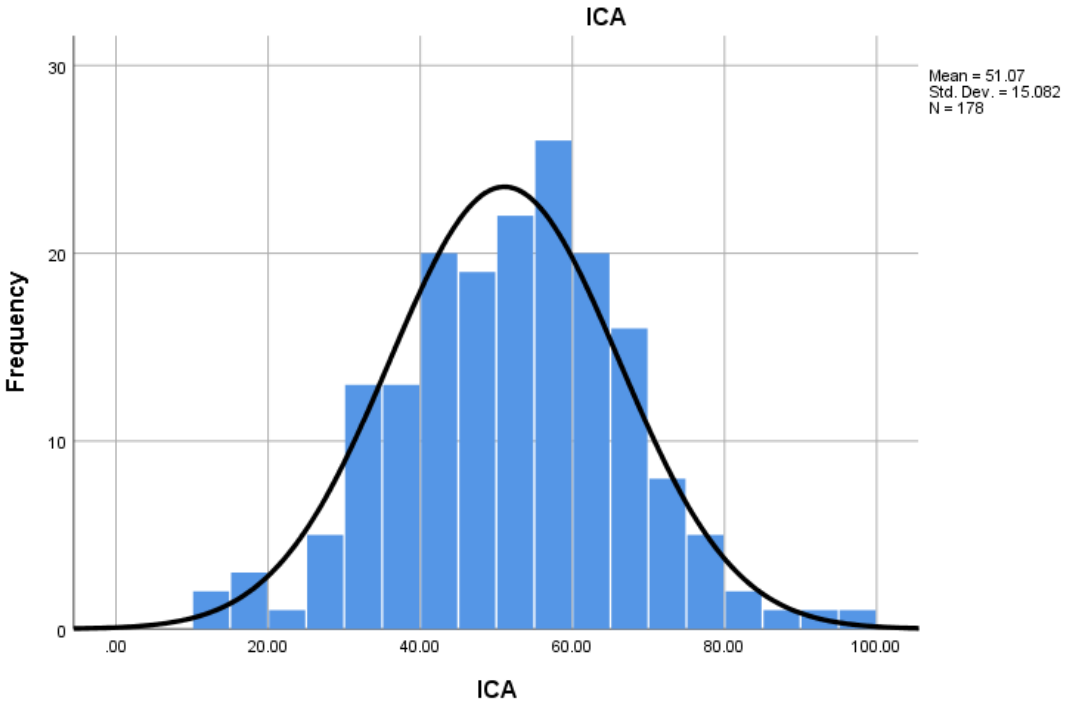

Normal Q-Q Plot of CN
Expected Normal Value
100
50
0
-50
-100
-150
-150
-100
-50
0
50
100
Observed Value


POS
Mean = 49.38
Std. Dev. = 21.838
N = 178
Frequency
30
20
10
0
.00
30.00
60.00
90.00
120.00
POS


Normal Q-Q Plot of POS
Expected Normal Value
100
75
50
25
0
0
25
50
75
100
Observed Value


JS
Mean = 65.59
Std. Dev. = 17.471
N = 178
Frequency
20
15
10
5
0
.00
30.00
60.00
90.00
120.00
JS


Normal Q-Q Plot of JS
Expected Normal Value
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
0
20
40
60
80
100
120
Observed Value


ICA
Mean = 51.07
Std. Dev. = 15.082
N = 178
Frequency
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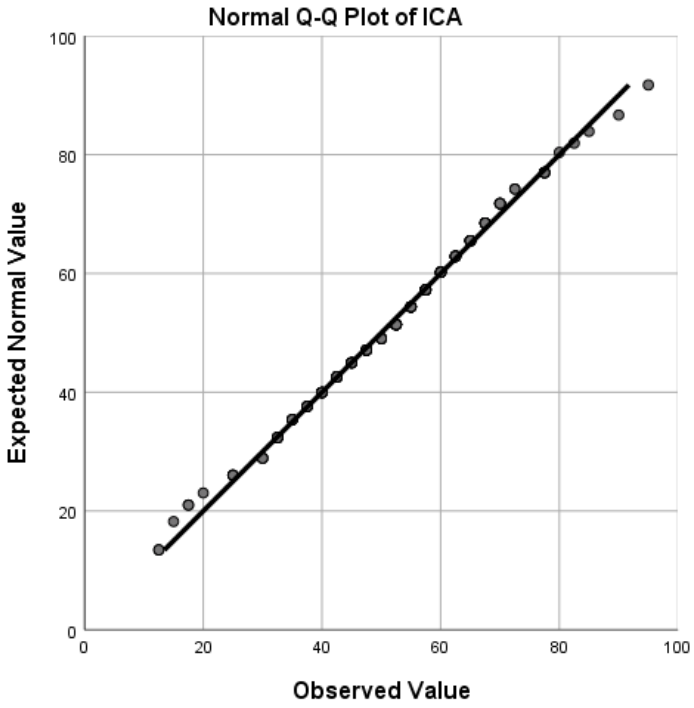
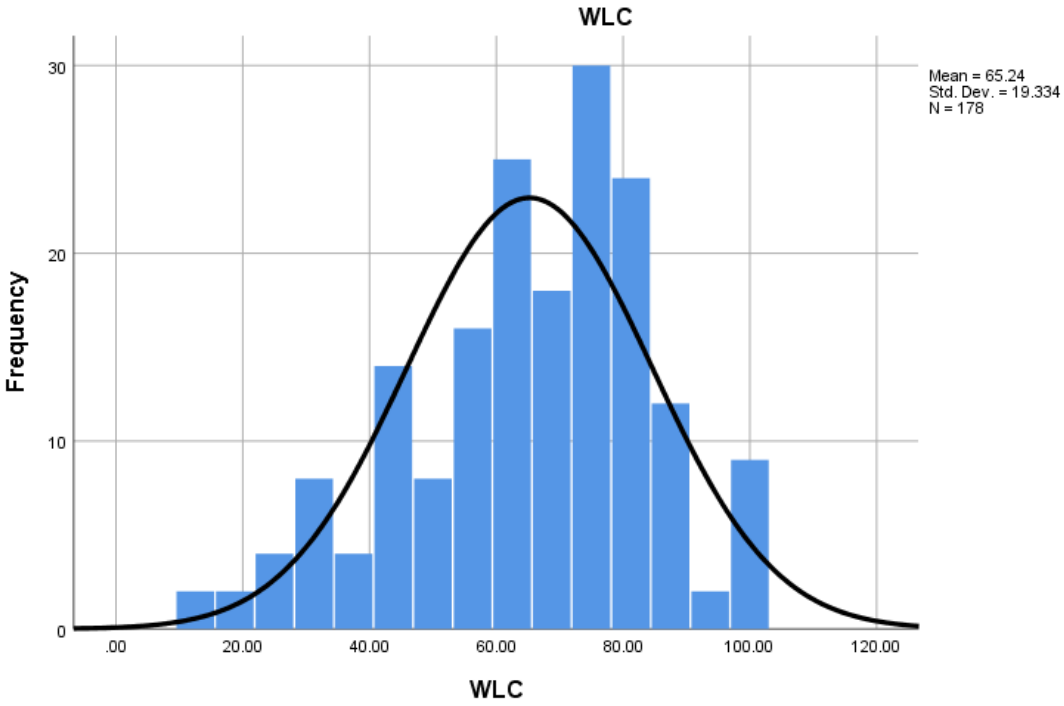
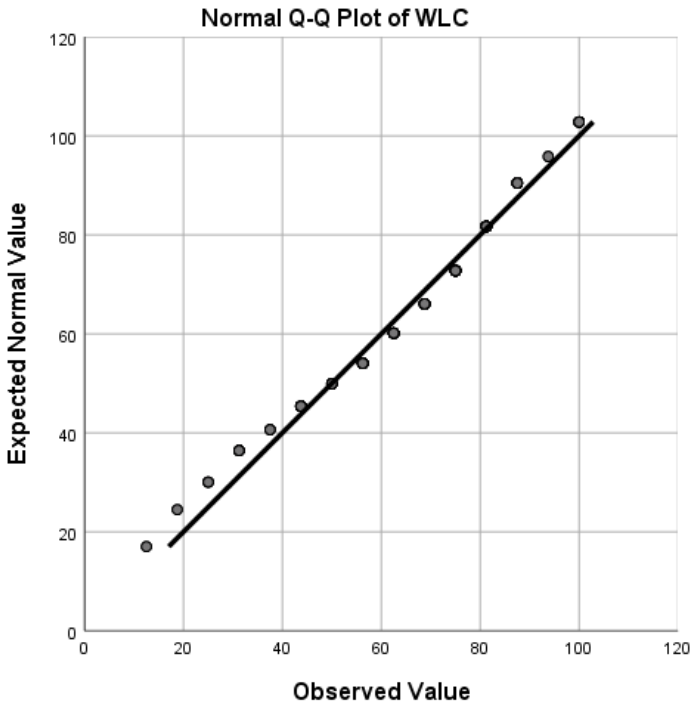
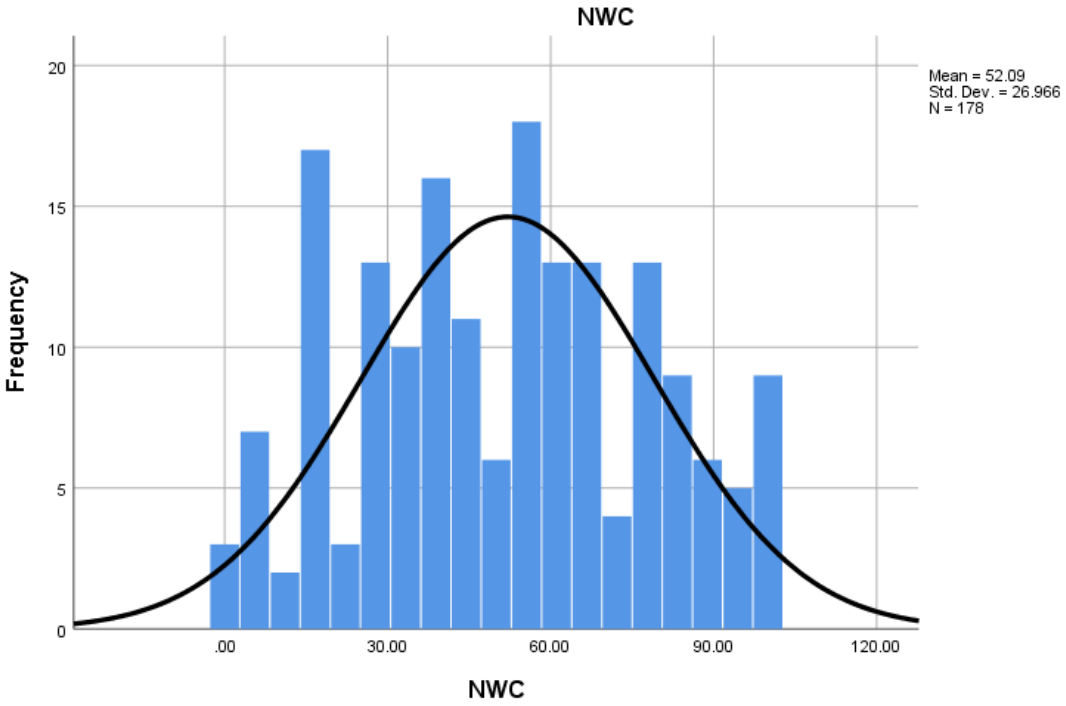
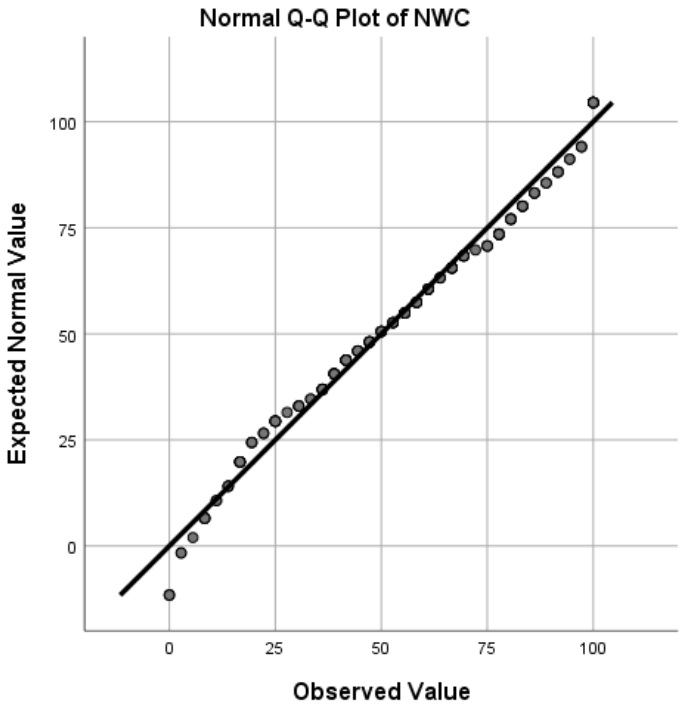
20
10
0
.00
20.00
40.00
60.00
80.00
100.00
ICA

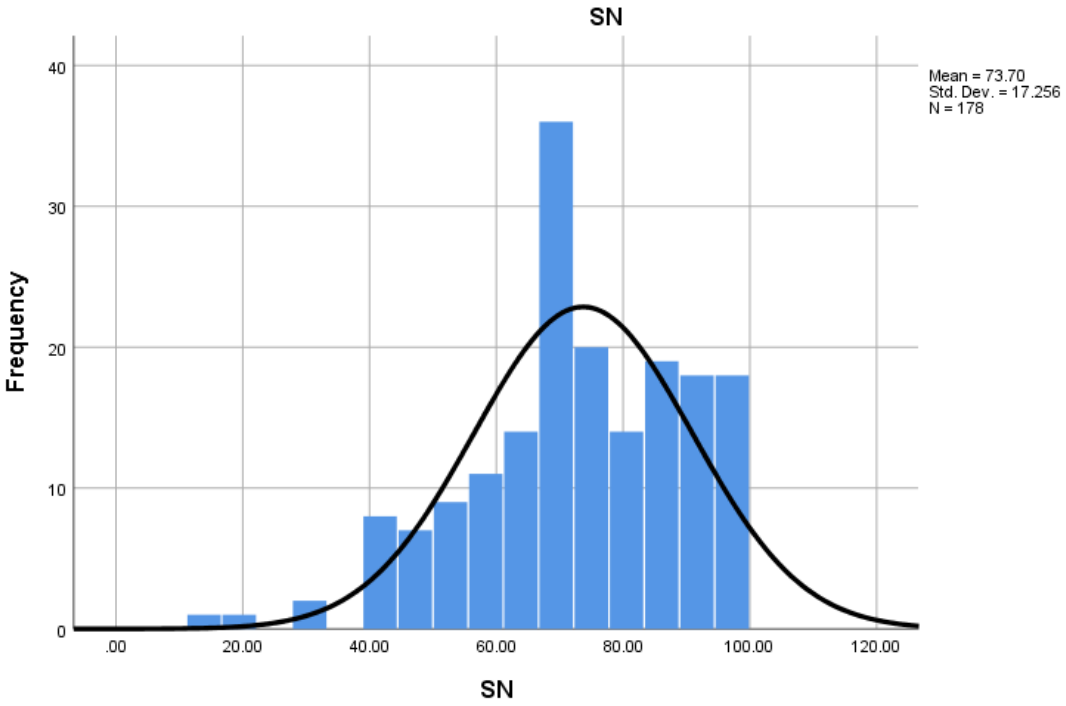

Normal Q-Q Plot of ICA
Expected Normal Value
100
80
60
40
20
0
0
20
40
60
80
100
Observed Value

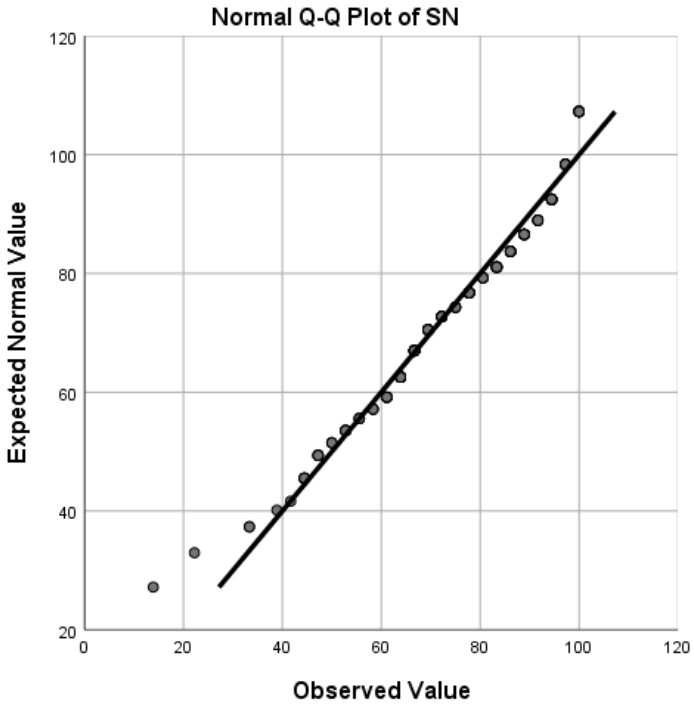

WLC
Mean = 65.24
Std. Dev. = 19.334
N = 178
Frequency
30
20
10
0
.00
20.00
40.00
60.00
80.00
100.00
120.00
WLC

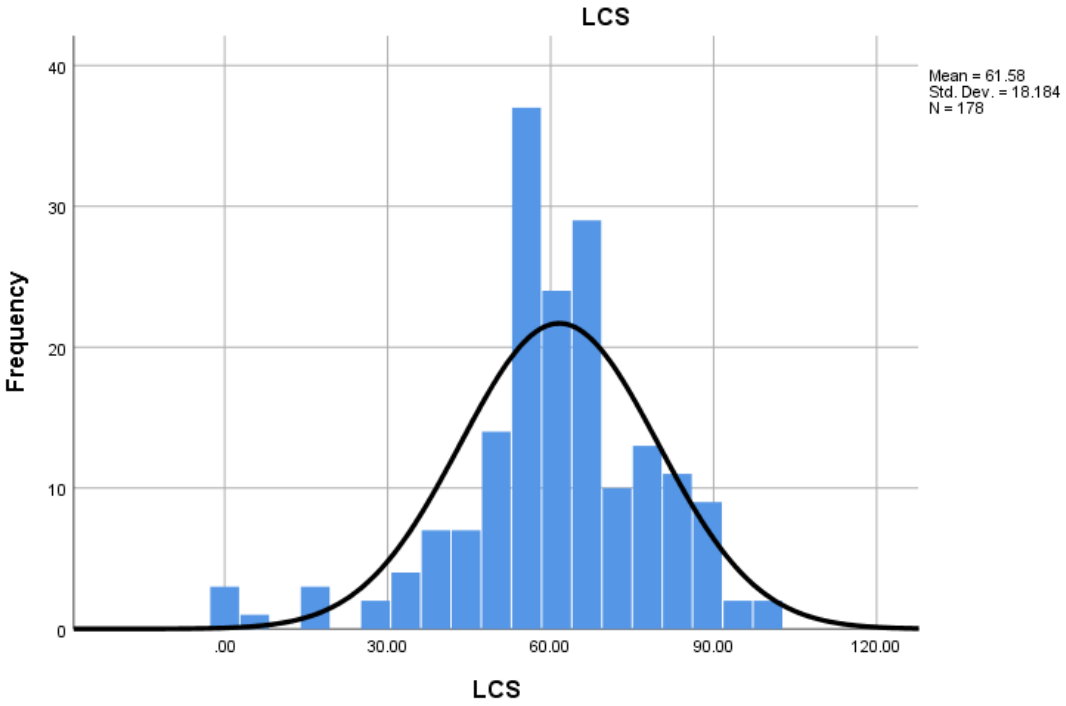

Normal Q-Q Plot of WLC
Expected Normal Value
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
0
20
40
60
80
100
120
Observed Value

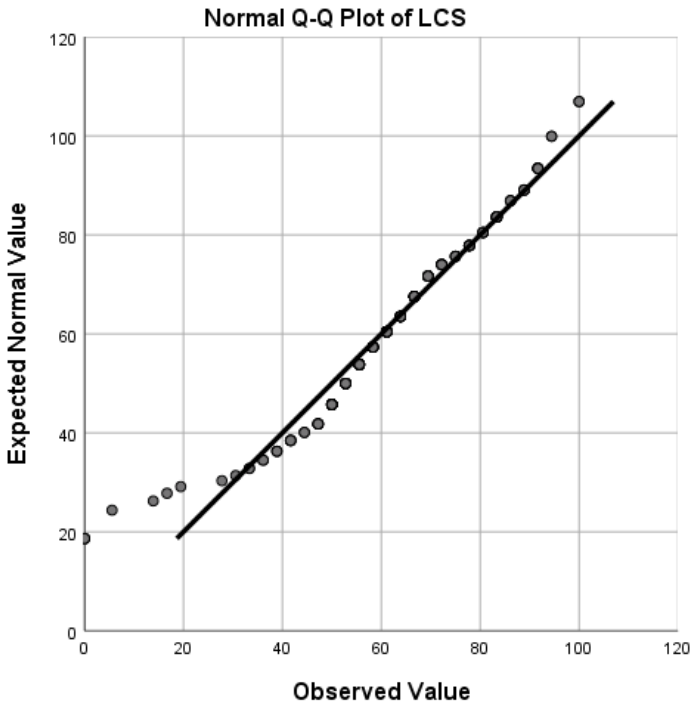

NWC
Mean = 52.09
Std. Dev. = 26.966
N = 178
Frequency
20
15
10
5
0
.00
30.00
60.00
90.00
120.00
NWC

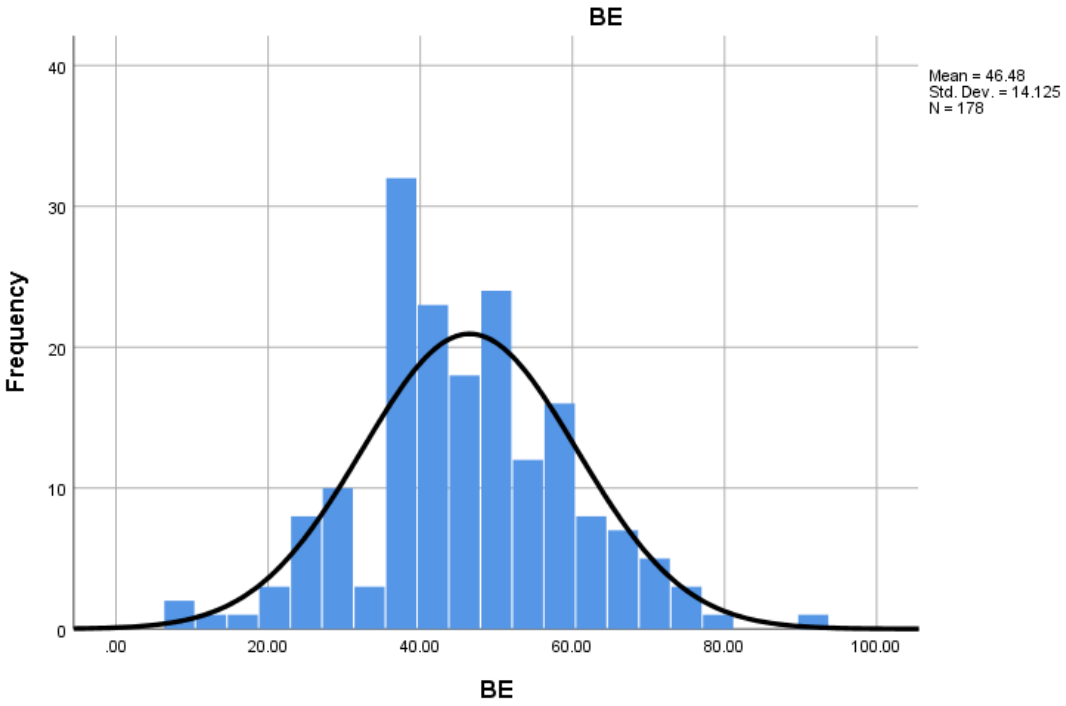

Normal Q-Q Plot of NWC
Expected Normal Value
100
75
50
25
0
0
25
50
75
100
Observed Value

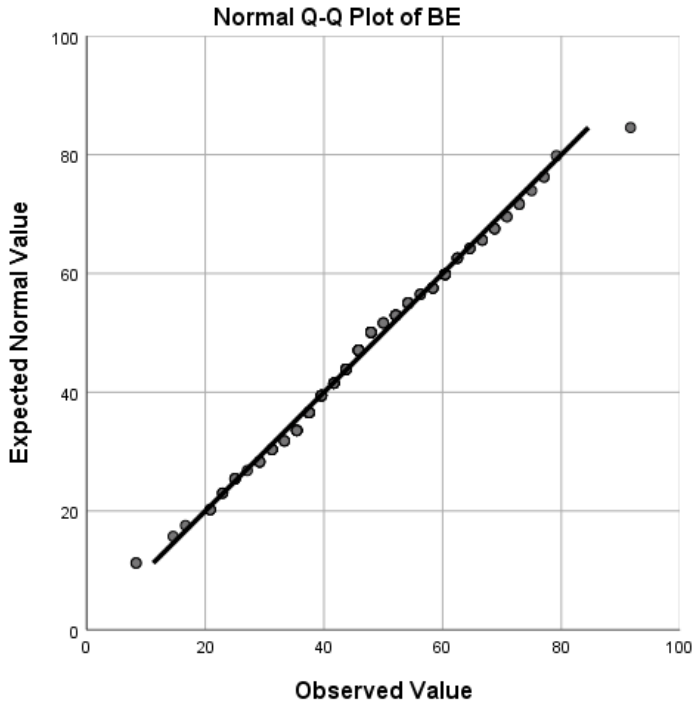

SN
Mean = 73.70
Std. Dev. = 17.256
N = 178
Frequency
0
10
20
30
40
.00
20.00
40.00
60.00
80.00
100.00
120.00
SN


Normal Q-Q Plot of SN
Expected Normal Value
20
40
60
80
100
120
0
20
40
60
80
100
120
Observed Value

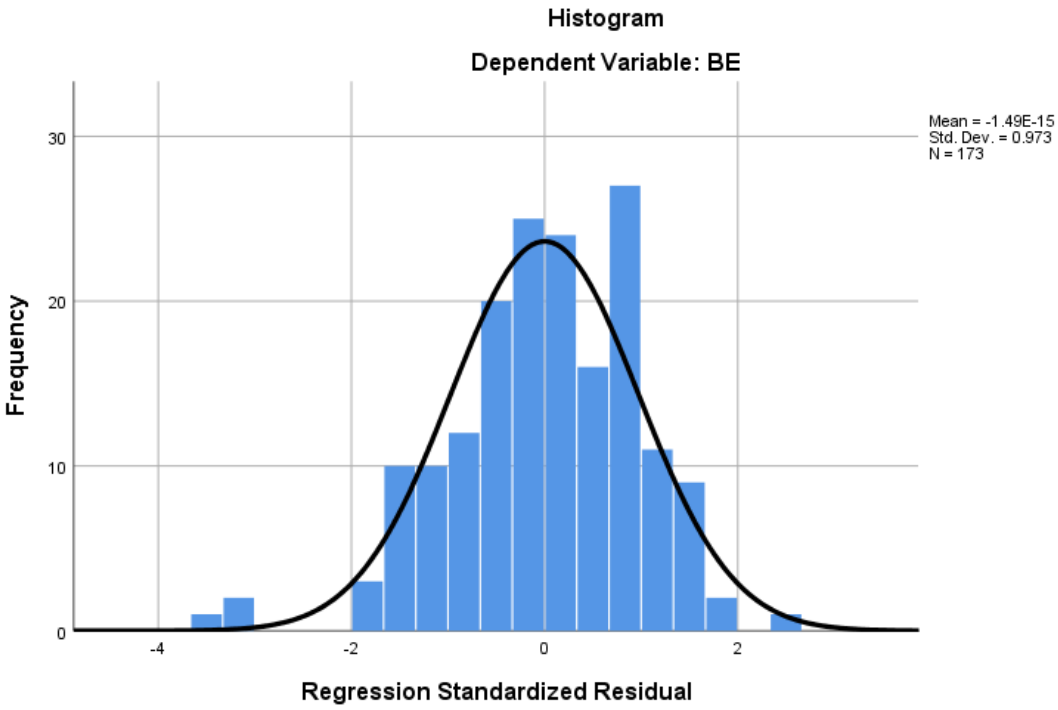

LCS
Mean = 61.58
Std. Dev. = 18.184
N = 178
Frequency
40
30
20
10
0
.00
30.00
60.00
90.00
120.00
LCS

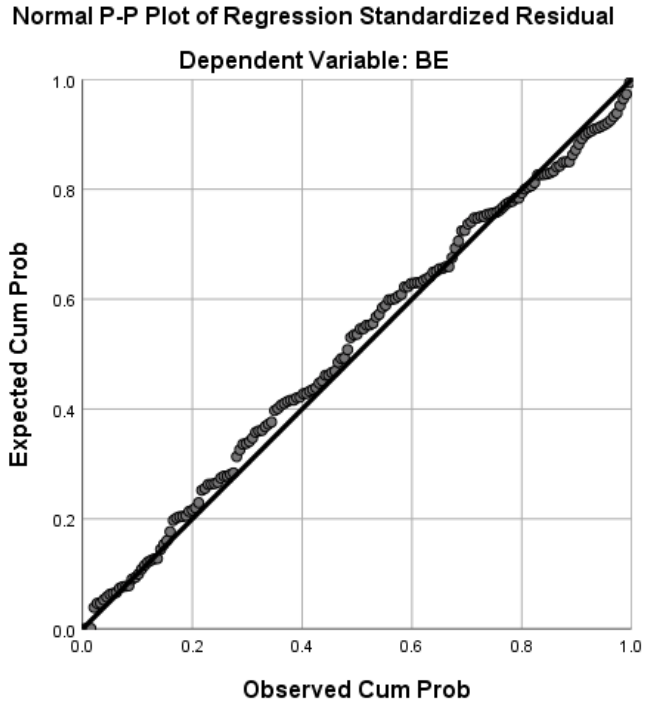

Normal Q-Q Plot of LCS
Expected Normal Value
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
0
20
40
60
80
100
120
Observed Value

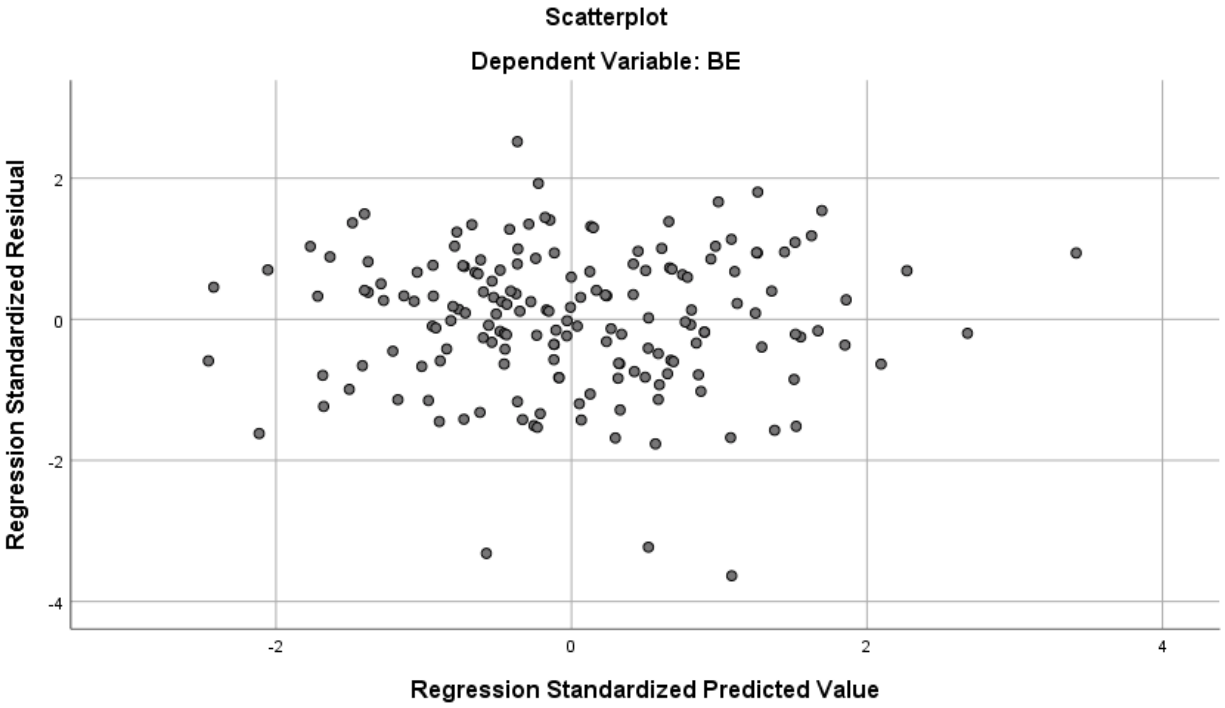

BE
Mean = 46.48
Std. Dev. = 14.125
N = 178
Frequency
40
30
20
10
0
.00
20.00
40.00
60.00
80.00
100.00
BE


Normal Q-Q Plot of BE
Expected Normal Value
100
80
60
40
20
0
0
20
40
60
80
100
Observed Value

Appendix V. **Scatterplot, histogram and P-P plot of residuals**






Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: BE
Regression Standardized Residual
2
0
-2
-4
-2
0
2
4
Regression Standardized Predicted Value