

Willingness to Work Abroad: Students at Aalto University School of Economics

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ABSTRACT
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WILLINGNESS TO WORK ABROAD: Students at Aalto University School of Economics

This study examines the willingness of Aalto University School of Economics students to move abroad in the future, and factors affecting it. First, three types of international moves are presented based on previous literature: traditional expatriates, self-directed foreign experience (SFE) and trailing spouse. The factors found to affect the willingness to relocate internationally in literature are discussed and a theoretical framework constructed based on them. The second part of this thesis discusses the statistical analysis and the results of the study.

Altogether 158 ASE students responded to a web-based questionnaire on background factors and their willingness to move abroad in the future. Correlation analysis and t-tests were run on the data. The results indicate a high willingness among ASE students to move abroad either as an expatriate, SFE or a working spouse. However, the willingness to move abroad as a spouse if no job is available in the target location was very low. It was also apparent that the students do not consider the different move types as similar, as indicated by their changing willingness scores and different affecting factors for each move type.

Gender was not found to affect the willingness for international moves, and previous international experience only affected the willingness to move as a non-working spouse. Instead, having intrinsic motivation for international moves was correlated with all move types and international study background with all but non-working spouse move. Positivity of previous international experiences was related to willingness to accept expatriate or SFE moves.

The most influential factors when considering an international move were family-related variables and variables related to the respondent's own career. Geographical location was especially important in the cases of expatriate and SFE moves. In case the trailing spouse is not able to find a job in the host location, it is important that there are other self-development possibilities available.

KEYWORDS: Expatriates, expatriate willingness, self-directed foreign work experience, expatriate spouses.

AALTO-YLIOPISTON KAUPPAKORKEAKOULUN OPISKELIJOIDEN HALUKKUUS TYÖSKENNELLÄ ULKOMAILLA

Tutkimus käsittelee Aalto-yliopiston kauppakorkeakoulun opiskelijoiden halukkuutta muuttaa tulevaisuudessa työn vuoksi ulkomaille, sekä siihen vaikuttavia tekijöitä. Tutkimus esittelee ensin aiemman kirjallisuuden perusteella kolme ulkomaanmuuttotyyppiä; perinteiset komennustyöntekijät eli ekspatriaatit, oma-aloitteisesti ulkomaille työskentelevät ja molempien ryhmien puoliset. Kirjallisuudessa muuttohalukkuuteen vaikuttavien tekijöiden perusteella rakentuu tutkimuksen teoreettinen viitekehys. Tutkimuksen toinen osa koostuu tutkimustulosten tilastollisesta analyysistä ja tulkinnasta.

Yhteensä 158 Aalto-kauppakorkeakoulun opiskelijaa vastasi Internet-kyselyyn halukkuudestaan muuttaa ulkomaille tulevaisuudessa. Tulokset käsiteltiin käyttäen korrelaatioanalyysia ja t-testejä. Tulokset osoittavat, että kauppakorkeakoulun opiskelijat ovat yleisesti halukkaita muuttamaan ulkomaille ekspatriaatteina, oma-aloitteisesti tai työssäkäyvinä puolisoina. Halukkuus muuttaa puolisona ulkomaille oli kuitenkin hyvin alhainen, mikäli kohdemaasta ei löydy töitä vastaajalle. Tuloksista käy myös ilmi, että opiskelijat eivät pidä eri muuttotyyppistä samankaltaisina tilanteina, sillä muuttohalukkuus ja siihen vaikuttavat tekijät vaihtelivat muuttotyyppien välillä.

Sukupuoli ei vaikuttanut halukkuuteen muuttaa ulkomaille, ja aiempi kansainvälinen kokemukkin korreloi ainoastaan työssäkäymättömän puolison muuttohalukkuuden kanssa. Sen sijaan sisäinen motivaatio kansainvälistymiseen vaikutti positiivisesti muuttohalukkuuteen kaikissa muuttotyypeissä, ja kansainvälinen opiskelutausta korreloi positiivisesti kaikkien muiden paitsi työssäkäymättömän puolison muuton kanssa. Aiempien kansainvälisten kokemusten positiivisuus korreloi ulkomaankomennusten ja oma-aloitteisen muuttohalukkuuden kanssa.

Muuttopäätökseen vaikuttavista tekijöistä tärkeimpiä olivat perheeseen liittyvät, sekä vastaajan uraan vaikuttavat tekijät. Maantieteellinen sijainti oli erityisen tärkeä ekspatriaatti- ja oma-aloitteisen muuton tilanteissa. Mikäli puoliso ei löydä töitä kohdemaasta, on tärkeää myös, että hänelle on tarjolla muita mahdollisuuksia kehittää itseään.

AVAINSANAT: Komennustyö, komennustyöntekijät, ekspatriaatit, oma-aloitteinen työskentely ulkomaille, ekspatriaattipuolisot

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

In March 2009 the Finnish Minister of Education Henna Virkkunen stated in a speech held at the University of Kuopio that in the future all Finnish university degrees should include an exchange period or internship abroad. She also expressed concern on the falling exchange program participation rates. The ministry's goal is to double the amount of student exchange in Finland by the year 2015. (YLE Uutiset, 16.3.2009)

Ms. Virkkunen's statement highlights a growing emphasis on internationalization issues in Finnish educational institutes. A growing number of universities and polytechnics offer international courses and whole degrees taught in English, possibilities for student exchange and international internships. This of course stems from the needs of the working life, where, thanks to globalization, more and more people interact with foreign colleagues daily. To be able to succeed in today's working life employees need language skills and an understanding of foreign cultures.

Thus, companies need more and more internationally-oriented employees, and especially future global managers. And students today definitely are more international than ever. They travel, they have friends abroad, and they participate in exchange programs. But how eager are they really to internationalize when it comes to more than partying in Europe for half a year, or backpacking in Asia for a few months? Are they willing to commit to a new culture for years, or maybe indefinitely? After all, even today companies still struggle to find good, willing candidates for international assignments (see for example Global Relocation Trends, 2010: 16-17).

How willing are today's business students to internationalize after their studies? In a recent study of 145 Canadian undergraduate business students almost 90% wanted to experience

an international assignment at some point of their career, and 61,5% expressed at least a tentative desire for several assignments (Wang & Bu 2004: 658). The writer of this thesis is curious as to whether the willingness is as high in a prestigious Finnish business school striving for international success and offering several programs in English. Furthermore, international assignments are not the only form of personal work-related internationalization: the students may also in the future move abroad through their own initiative or as a spouse of an expatriate.

According to a study on the Finnish business students that graduated in 2002 or 2003, 5% had found their first job abroad after graduation (Sainio 2009, 8-9). For Helsinki School of Economics¹ this number was 4%. Five years after graduation 5% of the HSE graduates worked abroad (Ibid. 17-18). 36% of all Finnish business students and 45% of HSE students that graduated in 2006 had included a study abroad period lasting at least one semester to their degree (Matikka 2007, 17). Not only was the number for HSE clearly above average, it was also higher than for any other university offering business studies in Finland. Thus, although the number of HSE students working abroad after studies corresponded to the average of Finnish business schools, the students had more international experience from their studies gained through study abroad periods. In the same study 7% of the recent HSE graduates lived abroad (Ibid, 30), indicating an increasing trend from previous years.

This study aims to find out the willingness of the Aalto University School of Economics students to internationalize after their studies, either through expatriate assignments, self-initiated foreign work experience or through their partner's expatriate assignment, i.e. as a

¹ Aalto University School of Economics (ASE) was called Helsinki School of Economics (HSE) until 2010, when it was merged with Helsinki University of Technology and University of Art and Design Helsinki to create Aalto University.

trailing spouse. Traditional expatriates, expatriate spouses and self-directed foreign experience will be discussed, along with factors that may affect the willingness to move abroad. These factors can range from personal factors such as age or gender through family and job and career situation factors to the location of the assignment, and have different effects on different types of international moves.

1.2 Research Gap and Research Questions

Although there is abundant literature on expatriate assignments, and even some on the willingness to accept one, the literature on spouses and especially on self-directed foreign work experience (SFE) is much scarcer. In fact, the last topic has only entered the discussion during the last ten years. Furthermore, the studies on expatriate willingness are often committed on people already on the work force, i.e. older age groups. There are only a handful of studies done on business students, and they tend to be Northern American (for example Wang & Bu 2004, Lowe et al. 1999, Adler 1984). Thus there is a real research gap to be seen here, which consists of two different aspects. First of all, the willingness to engage in SFE or to move abroad as a spouse has been researched very little, if at all. Secondly, there are only a few studies on the willingness of business students to make a work-related move abroad in the future, and those that exist are very much concentrated on one geographical area.

This study strives to fill this research gap by studying the willingness of ASE students to expatriate in the future, and the factors affecting it. More specifically, the study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. How willing are ASE students to move abroad in the future?
 - a. As an expatriate?
 - b. As a SFE?
 - c. As a trailing spouse?

2. Which factors affect this? More specifically, what is the effect of:
 - a. Personal factors?
 - b. Spouse and family factors?
 - c. Job and career factors?
 - d. Target location factors?

The willingness of business students to internationalize is of interest because they, after all, represent the future work force. By knowing how willing students are to internationalize in general, and which factors affect the decision, companies can be more prepared when they start developing new graduates into global managers. They will also have an indication on which factors make international moves more or less desirable for the future employees, and can develop their expatriate policies and support measures accordingly.

1.3 Limitations

The main limitation of this study is that it presents a highly speculative situation: the students are asked about their willingness to move abroad in the future and factors that they now think would influence the decision in the future. This is of course very different from an actual decision of whether to move abroad as now for example the geographical situation or the actual position offered is unknown and remains for the respondent to imagine. Furthermore, most of the respondents are young students who as of yet have no family or even a partner, which can make it difficult to identify with a different family situation in the future.

This study also focuses on the students of one university, most of whom are Finnish. Whether the results can be generalized to students all over the world, or even to European students, is a question mark. Finland has a culture with a high degree of equality between the genders, and the small size of the country may encourage or even force students to be

more international. The results may even not be generalizable within Finland as it is possible that since Aalto School of Economics is one of the most prestigious universities in Finland the student body does not represent that of an average Finnish business university, and ASE students may be more internationally oriented. This is also somewhat supported by the fact that ASE (former HSE) students have more international experience from their studies than in any other Finnish faculty of economics (Matikka 2007: 17).

Because the sample size for this study was not very high (158 respondents) it was impossible to make comparisons for example between study programs. A large number of the respondents also came from the Mikkeli unit. Thus it is possible that the results acquired are not representative of the opinions of students across all study programs at ASE. However, as shown in part 4.1, the responses of the main school respondents did not differ much from the Mikkeli respondents. The sample is further discussed in part 3.2.

Since personal internationalization is nowadays often touted as a very positive thing and something that companies desire in their employees, it is possible that the respondents may be answering more positively towards moving abroad than what they actually think. This may also be true for the predicted factors affecting the decision: the respondent knows she or he should take the family into account when making the decision and thus states so, even though the real effect of the family situation would be smaller.

Although intentions to relocate have been found to predict actual relocation (Brett & Reilly 1988: 618), an important point to mention is the question of whether indicated willingness to work abroad predicts moving abroad later, and how well, especially as there could be a considerable time gap between the indicated willingness and the actual decision. Similarly, the factors the respondents now believe would affect their decision can and probably do change importance over time as the life and career situations change. For research on these aspects a more longitudinal study would be needed, with the respondents facing real willingness-to-go decisions. Furthermore, this study focuses on fairly long-term moves

abroad. Companies are increasingly using alternatives to international assignments, such as shorter term or traveling assignments. This study does not discuss these assignments, or the students' willingness to engage in them.

1.4 Definitions

This list presents the definitions of several terms used in this thesis. The terms are introduced alphabetically.

Dual-career couple: A couple where both members of the couple have a career outside the home.

(Traditional) Expatriate: An employee sent for an international assignment abroad by the company, typically for 1 to 4 years. There are studies that also include self-directed foreign work experience under the term “expatriate” (for example Jokinen et al. 2008, Biemann & Andresen 2010) but for the sake of clarity the term expatriate is in this study used to refer to only company-assigned foreign workers.

Home country: The country the expatriate, SFE or spouse is from.

Host country or Target location: The target country of the international assignment or move.

IHRM: International Human Resources Management

Non-working Spouse: A spouse that has followed an expatriate or SFE abroad, and does not work in the target location.

SFE : Self-directed foreign work experience, a phenomenon where a person of their own initiative moves abroad to work and has a local contract, as well as a person engaging in such behavior. SFEs have also been called OEs (overseas experience) or SEs (self-assigned expatriates) in literature (Inkson et al. 1997; Richardson & Mallon 2005, Jokinen et al. 2008, Biemann & Andresen 2010), but the term SFE coined by Suutari and Brewster (2000) is used in this study to clearly distinguish it both from traditional expatriates, and from the less career-oriented, typically Australian and New Zealand phenomenon of OE (Inkson et al. 1997).

Trailing spouse: A general term for the spouse of an expatriate or SFE who has followed their partner abroad. Includes both working and non-working spouses.

Working spouse: A spouse that has followed an expatriate or SFE abroad, and works in the target location.

2. INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENTS AND WILLINGNESS TO GO

This part of the thesis begins by introducing the different types of work-related international moves present in literature. After that the chapter focuses on the willingness to move abroad and the factors found to affect it in previous studies. Finally, based on the factors discussed, the profile of a likely mover is introduced. The chapter strives to summarize the discussion on the field and acts as a basis for the theoretical framework, presented at the end of the chapter.

2.1 Types of international moves

Three main types of international work-related moves are discussed in this thesis: traditional expatriates, self-directed foreign work experience, and spouses. Traditional expatriates are employees sent abroad for a temporary international assignment by the company, whereas self-directed foreign work experience means that the person moving abroad has initiated the move themselves and may or may not plan to return to the home country. Spouses are people who follow their significant other abroad and can be further categorized under working and non-working spouses depending on their job situation in the target country. All of these three groups will be next presented with a discussion on their role in literature.

2.1.1 Traditional Expatriates

Expatriates have been studied relatively widely in IHRM literature for several decades. Most of the literature focuses on the traditional expatriates: employees sent abroad by a company for a set assignment time, often ranging from 1 to 4 years. In the last decade the literature has started to expand to include less traditional assignments abroad, such as short-term or traveling assignments, or self-initiated assignments. Although there is no set definition on which assignments are short and which long-term, a general one tends to be that short-term assignments last less than a year. (Konopaske & Werner, 2005: 1160-61).

Managers also seem to be more willing to accept short-term than long-term assignments (Ibid. 1170). In this sub-chapter we will discuss the more traditional expatriate assignments, while self-initiated assignments are introduced in 2.1.2. Short-term and traveling assignments are left out of the scope of this thesis.

There are several reasons why companies use expatriates as part of their international strategy. Commonly these are divided into three categories: staffing, management development and organization development (Brewster 1990: 10). In Stahl and Cerdin's study (2004: 891-92) on 330 expatriates from French and German companies the most stated reasons were transferring know-how, improving communication between HQ and the subsidiary, ensuring that headquarter policies are carried out locally, and coordinating subsidiary activities with those of the rest of the corporation. Other reasons were for the expatriate to gain experience and acquire new skills that could later be used in the headquarters or other foreign operations, conducting transactions for subsidiary and corporation as a whole, and finding out the subsidiary's potential for expansion and profits. In the Global Relocation Trends 2010 survey report the most popular reasons for using expatriates were filling a managerial (22%) or technical (21%) skills gap, building management expertise (17%), technology transfer (16%) and launching new endeavors (13%) (Global Relocation Trends, 2010: 16). Especially at the more senior management expatriate level reasons can also include national representation, as sometimes governmental or other local expectations essentially require the use of expatriate staff (Brewster, 1990: 11).

Expatriate assignments tend to be costly to the company. Preparing the assignment takes time and resources, the expatriate needs to be selected and some kind of training is often used, visits to the target location arranged etc. The expatriate and the family need company support also during the assignment. In addition, expatriates are usually offered a special compensation and benefits package to offset the requirement to move and live in a foreign

environment. In fact, expatriates can cost three to five times the expatriate's host-country pay per year (Krell 2005: 61).

In addition, expatriate assignments sometimes fail, resulting in a premature return to the home country. A failure is costly to a company, not only because all the resources invested into the expatriate have not resulted in the expected outcome, but also because it can adversely affect the company's reputation both in the home location and the target country. Such failures are often claimed to be common, although the exact number is likely to vary depending on the home and target country, type of assignment, and many other variables. Yet such failures may not in fact be as usual as often predicted, because also low failure rates from less than 1 to under 10% have been reported (Brewster, 1990: 15, *Global Relocation Trends*, 2010: 17).

When expatriates are so costly and failures so detrimental to the company, it could be assumed that companies would be interested in helping the expatriates adjust and keeping them as satisfied with their situation as possible throughout the assignment. Yet, company support is often not as good as it could be. Stahl and Cerdin (2004: 894) found expatriates to be especially dissatisfied regarding pre-departure preparations for the new job, pre-departure cross-cultural training, and long-range planning of the repatriation. Around 40% were also dissatisfied with support during the assignment. Such lack of support is very short-sighted from the company: even though it might save costs in the short run, in the long run it can result in more expatriate failures and less people willing to accept international assignments. Another possible explanation for the dissatisfaction is that companies in fact are offering support, but somehow this support does not meet the actual demands of the expatriates. Such companies may be essentially throwing away money and resources by offering the wrong kind of support.

Although international relocations offer the employee the possibility to experience foreign cultures first-hand and learn more about the company, they may also have negative aspects

concerning the expatriate's personal life. First of all, despite often being satisfied with their compensation package (Stahl & Cerdin 2004: 894), a relocating family can end up being financially no better off than prior to the assignment (Pinder, 1989:51). Cost of housing and living can differ, there often is a loss of the spouse's income, and short stays make it difficult to own property. Furthermore, social life at home is disrupted and creating similar social networks in the new location takes time. Friends, family, relatives and even older children are left behind, and the expatriate family may feel like they do not really belong anywhere anymore. Losing friends and changing schools can be especially detrimental to teenaged children, who sometimes prefer to remain in the home country. Expatriates can feel an overall loss of control, when it is the company and not them who decides where they live and for how long. Marriages can suffer; especially if there have been problems already prior to the assignment. On the other hand, relationships within the core family may also become stronger as a result of the new experience. (Ibid. 52-55)

When a lot of expatriates face problems is upon repatriating to the home country. In the Global Relocation Trends 2010 report 74% of the companies had a written repatriation policy but only 12% required a clear statement of post-assignment duties (Global Relocation Trends, 2010: 49). Common complaints from returning expatriates are that their assignment experience is not appreciated at home and that they had to use a lot of time and energy to find a new position upon return. Consequently the number of returned expatriates changing companies tends to be high: according to the Global Relocation Trends report 38% of expatriates left their company within a year of repatriation and further 23% between one and two years (Ibid. 12).

So if expatriate assignments can be so detrimental to an individual's family and even income situation, and the expatriates often feel forgotten and undervalued upon return, why do employees still accept such assignments? According to Adler (1984: 70-71), who studied 1 229 North American MBA students, possible candidates see themselves as gaining more job satisfaction, with more interesting work and a higher income. The

motivations can also include such aspects as learning and growth, adventurous and varied life with the opportunity to travel as well as a good compensation package (Wang & Bu 2004: 665). There are also people with simply a high intrinsic motivation for working abroad: they value the experience itself and everything new that it brings with it instead of just the monetary and career gains (Haines et al. 2008). Such motivation is probably even higher in individuals engaging in the so-called self-initiated foreign work experience discussed in part 2.1.2.

Even today most of the expatriates are still male. This can be also seen in the respondents of several expatriate studies: for example in Stephens and Black's study on 67 American expatriates in Japan (1991: 421) the percentage of male respondents was 100%, in Black and Stephens' study of 220 American expatriates in four Pacific Rim countries (1989: 534) 93.6%, and in Stahl and Cerdin (2004: 891) 90.3-94.2%. According to the Global Relocation Trends report (2010: 8) the number of female expatriates is currently 17%. Why the number of female expatriates is still so low remains something of a mystery although it is probably partly a self-enforcing cycle: when there are less female expatriates, women may be considered less frequently for these roles as the common mindset is that an expatriate is usually male, which of course means that the number of female expatriates does not grow etc. According to Adler (1984: 73-75) the small number of women in expatriate positions is often attributed to three causes: female managers are not interested in expatriate assignments, managers are reluctant to send women abroad, and foreigners are prejudiced against female managers. But, as also Adler mentions (Ibid. 76-77), there is a lot of anecdotal evidence on female expatriates working successfully even in countries with very traditional gender roles: it seems that often the foreign women are respected and allowed rights that the local women are denied. Whether gender in fact does have an effect on accepting international assignments will be discussed further in section 2.2.1.

The small number of female expatriates may also be partly because of their (mostly male) supervisors' opinions. In their study of 261 female expatriates and their 78 supervisors

from several industries Stroh et al. (2010: 247-49) found that the expatriates' and their male supervisors' opinions on female expatriates differed. While both groups agreed that women are interested in international assignments, the female expatriates felt that companies are hesitant to send women abroad, a view not shared by their supervisors. However, the supervisors did feel that prejudice against women in the host country could affect the female expatriates' effectiveness, while the female expatriates themselves did not see this as a problem. There was even evidence present that some supervisors were trying to discourage their female employees from accepting an international assignment (Ibid. 250).

An interesting thing to note on the literature discussing expatriates and their spouses is that it is very heteronormative and same-sex couples are generally ignored completely, as also pointed out by Tharenou (2010: 81). Not only is the possibility of homosexual expatriates and couples not mentioned, the assumptions of the writers tend to be blatantly heterosexual: male expatriates have female spouses, and even the newer studies on male spouses only talk of them as the spouses of female expatriates (for example Harvey & Wiese 1998, Selmer & Leung 2002). The sexual orientation of employees is naturally of no concern to the company usually, but the situation may be different in the case of expatriates and their spouses. After all, it is possible that same-sex couples on international assignments need more or different kinds of corporate support as in many countries they may face discrimination and find themselves in a situation where their partnership or even marriage is not recognized. Whether companies do ignore homosexual expatriate couples' needs would be an interesting topic for further study.

2.1.2 Self-Directed Foreign Work Experience

In contrast to traditional expatriate assignments, the study of overseas experience, self-directed expatriates (SE) or self-initiated foreign work experience (SFE) has risen into popularity only during the last decade, and the literature is still scarce. This is somewhat surprising considering that the phenomenon is not rare, for example Suutari and Brewster

(2000: 422) found that of the 448 Finnish graduate engineers working abroad in their study 33% had gone there on their own initiative. Similarly, Jokinen et al. (2008: 985) found that half of the 222 Finnish economics graduates working abroad in their study were self-directed. In a groundbreaking article on the subject, Inkson et al. (1997: 358) state that overseas experience, or OE, is very common in New Zealand and Australia. Indeed, over 50% of the 75 New Zealand respondents in their study had such experience (Ibid. 359).

However, what is actually meant by OE or SFE differs slightly from author to author. According to Inkson et al. (1997: 352) overseas experience is self-initiated and typically involves the individual resigning from work in the home country and then going abroad to work and travel, funding this from savings and from the income abroad. Often the person will switch jobs and countries, and may work in relatively unskilled jobs. Although such behavior may be the norm in New Zealand and Australia, overseas experience may take on different meanings in other parts of the world. Suutari and Brewster (2000: 435) renamed the concept “self-initiated foreign assignments” or SFEs as the “overseas” term does not seem to apply to Europe and other areas of the world where it is possible to move abroad without crossing a sea. Suutari and Brewster (2000), Richardson and Mallon (2005) and Biemann and Andresen (2010) discuss European SFEs and take a more career-oriented stance towards self-initiated foreign experiences than Inkson: although there is a sense of adventure in living abroad, the respondents see the foreign job as a part of their career, seem to work in more skilled jobs and stay put for longer periods of time than those described by Inkson et al. (1997). Many authors even go as far as calling them self-directed or self-initiated expatriates (for example Richardson & Mallon 2005, Jokinen et al. 2008, Biemann & Andresen 2010). To make a clear distinction between expatriates and self-initiated foreign experience this study will use the term SFE (self-directed foreign experience) to refer to both the phenomenon and the individuals engaging in it.

The main difference between traditional expatriates and SFEs that all authors agree on is that while traditional expatriate assignments are initiated by the company, self-directed

expatriates have initiated working abroad by themselves (Inkson et al.1997, Suutari & Brewster, 2000, Biemann & Andresen 2010). They are not sent by the company, and have local (not expatriate) contracts. There is also middle-ground to be found as also some traditional expatriates have been interested in working abroad and basically initiated their own expatriate assignments by actively informing the company of their willingness to go. On the other hand, the self-directed expatriates may not in all cases be actively seeking an opportunity to work abroad either. Richardson and Mallon (2005: 412) found that for many of their 30 British academic respondents working in New Zealand, Singapore, Turkey or the United Arab Emirates, the opportunity to work abroad had just “somehow” presented itself, without previous planning. It seems that SFEs and traditional expatriates are in reality not so much two different categories, but rather the two ends of a spectrum when it comes to self-initiation.

According to Suutari and Brewster (2000: 422-29) traditional expatriates and SFEs differ from each other in many aspects. SFEs tend to be younger, seem to be more often female and their spouses are more likely to work in the foreign country. The last two variables are probably to some extent explained by the fact that the SFEs studied were from Finland, where dual-career couples are the norm: part of the SFE sample consisted of the spouses of traditional expatriates who had been able to find work abroad. When it comes to career-related aspects, the traditional expatriates work more often in more internationalized companies and their positions are higher. The first finding seems common-sensical since using expatriates as a HR strategy requires a certain degree of internationalization from the company. The latter, along with the younger age, reflects the fact that the SFEs have gone abroad at an earlier stage of their careers. (Ibid.) Accordingly, Biemann and Andresen (2010: 441) found in their study of 159 German-speaking managers with international experience that SFEs have started their international careers younger than company-sent expatriates, and SFEs were found to be younger than traditional expatriates also in the study by Jokinen et al. (2008: 986).

Tharenou (2010: 75-77) points out that there are more female SFEs than female assigned expatriates. In fact, there seem to be as many female SFEs as male. She hypothesizes that this may partly be because of unfair expatriate selection processes and greater gender inequality in the home country. When companies do not give women the same international possibilities as men, the women may seek these international experiences through self-directed expatriation. They may be also looking abroad for career opportunities that they would not be able to get at home. (Ibid.)

The motives for working abroad seem to differ somewhat between traditional expatriates and SFEs: in the Suutari and Brewster (2000) study employer initiative played a greater role for the traditional expatriates, whereas for SFEs personal interest in developing international experience was more important. SFEs were also more likely to accept a further foreign assignment in the future. An additional motive for going abroad for the SFEs was the employment situation in the home country, reflecting the recession Finland went through in the 90s. (Suutari and Brewster, 2000: 426-28) In the Richardson and Mallon (2005: 412-13) study of British academic self-directed expatriates the main motivators for working abroad were a search for adventure and travel, a life change, and family reasons, all of which seem quite different from the traditionally more career-oriented motives of expatriates. There were also differences found in repatriation and compensation packages by Suutari and Brewster. As could be expected, the traditional expatriates had better overseas premiums, housing and education allowances and more promises of a similar level job upon returning, whereas the SFEs were often treated as domestic employees while abroad (Ibid. 426-27).

Both the traditional expatriates and SFEs in the Suutari and Brewster (2000: 428) study seemed to be quite optimistic that their international experience is valued within their companies; although the writers point out that they may be too optimistic as in reality the expatriate experience is often not as valued at the HQ. A similar optimism was found by Richardson and Mallon (2005: 415), all interviewees in their study believed the

international experience to have positive effects on their career, giving them an “edge” on the academic job market, although many also seemed to believe in some kind of a hierarchy of countries where work experience in certain places is valued more highly in the career market. On the other hand especially the younger interviewees also voiced concerns that their international experience may not be valued after all (Ibid. 416). This might be explained by the growing number of people having international experience in today’s globalizing world: especially the younger employees may feel that “everyone else” also has international experience and so it is not a way to differentiate oneself anymore.

Suutari and Brewster did not find differences between traditional expatriates and SFEs regarding previous international experience (2000: 423) However, they only measured previous international experience as the number of earlier international assignments of one year or longer. It could be argued that also shorter-term previous international experience, such as a student exchange period or internship, would have an effect, as well as other types of international experience: the respondent may have lived abroad for a considerable amount of time during childhood or studies but seems to have no previous international experience in a study that only asks for previous international work assignments. Jokinen et al. (2008: 985-86) did find that SFEs had more previous foreign work experience than the company-assigned expatriates. The role of previous international experience on accepting international moves in literature is further discussed in section 2.2.1. Differences were also not found by Suutari and Brewster (2000: 425-28) regarding some motives for working abroad like search for new experiences, career progress, economic benefits or professional development, or on average salaries, although the standard deviation was greater for SFEs.

Biemann and Andresen (2010: 438-441) found that SFEs are more mobile in their careers and more likely to change organizations than traditional expatriates. In addition, while the career orientation of traditional expatriates decreases as they age, for the SFEs it remains relatively stable over time with only a slight decline. Biemann and Andersen point out that this might be problematic for companies looking for truly global managers. Traditional

expatriates may be reluctant to change locations frequently. The SFEs are more willing to do this, but they are also much more likely to leave the organization for another one. (Ibid. 442)

Suutari and Brewster (2000: 429-34) state that SFEs are not a homogeneous group but can be divided into several subgroups. These include the young opportunists in the early stages of their careers, job seekers who have not been satisfied with the job opportunities in their home country, officials working in international organizations like the EU or UN, localized professionals who have decided to stay abroad for longer periods of time and may even not be planning to return, international professionals with long experience on working internationally, and dual career couples where the expatriate assignment of the spouse has been the main motivation to find work abroad. Thus it seems that those on a self-initiated assignment are a less homogenous group than traditional expatriates. Table 1 summarizes the differences between traditional expatriates and SFEs.

Table 1: Traditional expatriates vs. SFEs

	Expatriate	SFE
Initiated by	Company	Self
Length of stay	Pre-determined	Any
Company	International	International or local
Age		Tend to be younger than traditional expatriates
Gender	Mostly male	More females than in traditional expatriates
Motives	More career-related	More personal
Compensation	Expatriate agreement, compensation package	Local agreement, often treated as domestic employees
Mobility	Tied to the organization, but often leave after the assignment	Very mobile, willing to change organizations
Literature	Abundant	Scarce, only from the last decades

Next we will discuss the third type of international move presented in this thesis, the spouses. The spouses can be further categorized into non-working and working ones. An important point to note here is that working spouses in fact also fall under the category of SFEs, because they have not personally been sent abroad by a company, as can also be seen in the SFE subgroups by Suutari and Brewster (2000: 429-34).

2.1.3 Spouses

When a future expatriate accepts an international assignment they are often in the stage of their life where they have family –the number of married expatriates has in recent times

been around 85%, with 56% having accompanying children (Global Relocation Trends, 2010: 8). As the expatriates tend to be predominantly male, expatriate spouses tend to be predominantly female. However, as the number of female expatriates grows, so does the number of male spouses. Punnett (1997: 247) divides expatriate spouses into three categories: female spouses not expecting to work in the target location, female spouses expecting to work, and male spouses, most of whom expect to work. Female spouses not expecting to work could also be called the traditional spouses, and this group is also the most researched of the three. Because of the increasing number of women in the workforce, and especially of women with career aspirations, the numbers of both female spouses expecting to work and male spouses are growing. Research on both of them, and especially on male spouses is still scarce, though. (Punnett, 1997: 247-48).

An interesting thing to note on Punnett's categorization is that it is based on the fact that most of the male spouses seem to expect to work during their spouse's assignment, but it could be imagined that as the number of male spouses grows, there will also be more male spouses who choose to stay home during the assignment (for example because they want to take a break from their own career or spend more time with their family or getting to know the new culture). In this case Punnett's categorization will become outdated and needs to be changed either to include only two groups (non-working and working spouses) or four groups (non-working and working female and non-working and working male spouses).

Moving abroad is a decision that will affect the whole family in numerous ways, and thus also needs the approval of the spouse. In fact, in her study of 30 British academic SFEs Richardson (2004: 474) found that the family was so much involved in the decision to move abroad that it was more of a family decision than an individual's decision. Still very few firms take into account the spouse's opinion. In the study by Black and Stephens (1989: 541) only 30% of the companies had asked for the spouse's opinion before the assignment. Yet in the same study it was found that if the spouse has a favorable opinion of the assignment, the spouse will adjust better to the new culture. Spouse adjustment is in turn

positively related to the expatriate's adjustment and their intention to stay in the location until the end of the assignment. (Ibid. 536)

In their study of 405 managers and their spouses from twenty American Fortune 500 companies, Brett and Stroh (1995: 414-15) found that spouses were more likely to have a positive attitude towards an international relocation if they were older, had better education, were positive about domestic relocations and moving in general, had no children living at home, and if the company had a well regarded international relocation policy. However, although spouses appreciate a good company relocation policy so much that it affects their willingness to move abroad, the companies seem to ignore spouses in every stage of the expatriate assignment. In Black & Stephens' study over 90% of the companies had provided no pre-departure training to the spouse (1989: 541). Selmer and Leung (2003: 15-17) found in their study of 46 female business expatriates in Hong Kong that spousal support during the assignment was provided only to a very low level and deemed insufficient by the expatriates. In Harvey's study of 258 US expatriates and spouses (1998: 321-23) both expatriates and spouses that had already returned from their assignment found company support to the spouse during the assignment to be more important than those couples who had not started their assignment yet; an indication of inadequate spousal support while abroad.

The lack of spousal support from the company can be detrimental to the couples' adjustment, as in the end the spouse is often the person who has more contact to the local culture. While the expatriate has the new work role and organization to support him or her, the spouse either stays at home and takes care of everyday tasks like grocery shopping, or as a working spouse has to search for a job and then work in a completely new environment. In both cases it is in fact the spouse who needs more cultural knowledge and preparation.

Both spouses and expatriates have reported especially needing help regarding spousal career issues (Selmer & Leung, 2003; Harvey, 1998). As the number of women with career aspirations grows, so grows the number of working spouses, both female and male. An international assignment lasting years means that the spouse will need to leave his or her job in the home country and either stay at home, which means an interruption in the career, or find a job abroad. There may be government restrictions on the spouse's work permit, and even if the spouse manages to find a job in the new culture, this job may offer fewer benefits. Indeed, Eby (2001: 357) found in her study of 998 spouses of relocated North American employees that even in relocations happening within a country the spouse's new job is often at the same level as before, but there are downward moves in salary, other benefits and advancement opportunities. According to the Global Relocation Trends 2010 report (2010: 16) only 34% of companies sponsor work permits for the spouses. Because of the lack of career-support offered to the spouses by the companies, those spouses that value such support are less willing to move overseas (Konopaske et al. 2005: 420).

In Black and Stephens' study (1989) 50% of the spouses worked prior to the assignment. As the study is already twenty years old, the number of working spouses has certainly grown since. Suutari and Brewster (2000: 433) give the number as 66% in their study of Finnish SFEs. Only a small number of these spouses are able to find work in the new location, though. Stephens and Black (1991: 422) report that only 36% of those who worked prior to the assignment were able to find work in the new location, although this new location was Japan where, according to the authors, there are few governmental restrictions on spouses working (Ibid. 419). In their study 47% of the spouses worked in the home country (Ibid. 421) meaning that of all the spouses only 17% worked during the assignment. According to the Global Relocation Trends report in 2010 only 9% of spouses worked both before and during the assignment, while historically this number has been 14% in the same report (Global Relocation Trends, 2010:8). In Suutari and Brewster's study (2000: 433), the amount was 33% which is probably because Suutari and Brewster's respondents come from a Nordic country where dual-career couples are the norm. However, a third of the spouses

is still a very low number and points to the difficulties of finding a job in the foreign location. On the other hand, some of the spouses that worked prior to the assignment prefer to stay at home during the assignment and are not even trying to find a job in the target location so the numbers do not correspond with how many spouses tried to find a job and failed.

The spouse's career orientation can have a significant effect on whether he or she will find a job in the target, though: 62% of the spouses whose income in the home country was higher than the median for the spouses were able to find a job in the Stephens and Black study (1991: 422), while only 9% of the lower income spouses found one. There was also a negative correlation between the spouse's income in the home country and the expatriate's commitment to stay in the assignment. (Ibid. 422-23)

It seems like companies tend to ignore spousal issues overall in expatriate selection and support. This can easily lead to more refusals to accept international assignments as the number of working spouses grows. Those spouses who have a career in the home country are likely to have more negative feelings towards following their partner on an international assignment, and especially so if the company offers no support in career-related issues. Accordingly, the partner's career was among the top three reasons for turning down an assignment in the Global Relocation Trends 2010 report, which is particularly worrying because 32% of the companies in the same report had had problems in finding suitable candidates for international assignments (Global Relocation Trends, 2010: 12-16). In addition the spouse plays an important role on how well the expatriate adjusts and even on the success of the assignment: the most common reason for a failed expatriate assignment is spouse dissatisfaction, which is a contributing factor in 65% of the cases (Global Relocation Trends, 2010: 17). Thus, companies should in general pay more attention to the expatriate spouses and their support, or risk many of the best potential candidates turning down international assignments.

2.2 Willingness to Relocate

We will now shift our focus to the discussion on willingness to move abroad in literature and factors affecting it. Instead of discussing this topic right after traditional expatriates, the topic has been given an entire sub-chapter as it is one of the main focuses of this study and directly related to the second research question of which factors affect the willingness to move abroad among ASE students.

When a company offers an international assignment to an employee, the key question naturally is whether the employee is willing to relocate. And although Adler (1984:70) found already more than two decades ago that 84% of MBAs wanted at least one international assignment during their career, companies struggle to find suitable and willing candidates even today: almost a third of the companies had problems in identifying candidates for international assignments in 2010 and poor candidate selection was a contributing factor in almost 40% of failed assignments (Global Relocation Trends, 2010: 16-17). In Bielby and Bielby's study of 359 US workers living in dual-earner families (1992: 1253) 57% of the male respondents and 89% of the female respondents were at least somewhat reluctant to relocate for a better job "in another community, at least 100 miles away" and Landau et al. (1992: 672) reported that in the large American corporation they studied the refusal rate of relocation was 26% and rising. In their study of 227 Canadian MBA graduates Dupuis et al. (2008: 284-86) found that 44% of their respondents were in general willing to accept international assignments, with 69% willing to accept an assignment in a low cultural distance destination and 41% in a high cultural distance destination (the numbers for male respondents were 48%, 73% and 46% and for female respondents 37%, 61% and 32% respectively). Reluctance to relocate has been found to be especially significant when the destination is different from the home community of the employee also by other authors (see for example Noe and Barber 1993, Aryee et al. 1996).

Willingness to relocate domestically or in general, without regard to whether the move is done across borders has been studied more widely (for example Noe and Barber 1993, Brett et al. 1993, Landau et al. 1992, Bielby and Bielby 1992, Baldrige et al. 2006) than the willingness to relocate internationally, where the focus has mainly been on the willingness to accept an expatriate assignment (for example Adler 1984, Brett & Stroh 1995, Harvey 1997, Aryee et al. 1996, Konopaske et al. 2009) rather than self-initiated international relocation or spousal moves. A lot of the literature on relocation focuses on corporate relocation, a situation where the whole company or unit moves and employees need to decide whether to move with it. For example according to Landau et al. (1992: 677) the willingness to relocate and factors affecting it differ depending on whether the relocation is done for career enhancement or company needs (as is the case in SFE and expatriate assignments, respectively), or to remain employed (as in corporate relocations). If the relocation is done for career enhancement or company needs, family and community factors like number of children, elderly relatives who live in the area and current community ties are more important, whereas if the relocation is done to remain employed job-related factors such as organizational tenure have more effect. (Ibid.: 677-78). This may be because when relocating for career enhancement or company needs the employee will feel that there is much more possibility for choice, and will let the family variables affect. If the relocation is done to remain employed, the choices are probably more limited: the need to relocate is more dire, so in a sense the employee does not have the luxury to consider family factors, in which case organizational factors will become more important.

Nevertheless, although international relocation tends to be more complicated for the individual because of longer distances and larger cultural differences involved, the factors that have been found to affect willingness to relocate have often been similar in studies focusing on domestic (corporate) relocation and those focusing on international relocation. In addition, Brett and Stroh (1995: 415) found that the managers' willingness to relocate domestically strongly predicts their willingness to relocate internationally. Thus factors that predict willingness to relocate domestically also predict willingness to relocate

internationally at least indirectly. Also, most of the domestic relocation studies are from the US where a domestic relocation can mean an interstate relocation with a considerable geographical distance and even some cultural differences. A domestic, interstate relocation in the US can even be somewhat similar to an international relocation for example within Europe. For these reasons both literature on domestic and international relocations has been included in this study, although the main focus still lies with the international relocation literature.

For the purposes of this thesis the factors affecting willingness to relocate that emerge from literature have been divided into four categories. This summation of the factors also acts as a basis for the sub-questions in research question 2. The categories are: Personal factors, Spouse and family factors, Job and career factors, and Location factors. Each of the categories includes several factors that can be seen in tables 2 to 5 in the following sections 2.2.1-2.2.4. Next we will turn into these factor categories one at a time and introduce each of the factors and the studies where they have been found to affect or to not affect the decision to relocate.

2.2.1 Personal Factors

Table 2. Personal Factors Affecting Willingness to Go Based on Previous Research

Factor	Had an Effect	No Effect	Mixed Results
Age	Brett et al. 1993*, Noe and Barber 1993*, Gould and Penley 1985*, Feldman and Bolino 1998*	Brett & Stroh 1995, Wan et al. 2003, van der Velde et al. 2005, Baldrige et al. 2006*	
Personality	Aryee et al. 1996, Schruijer and Hendriks 1996, Konopaske et al. 2005, Zhu et al. 2006, Konopaske et al. 2009		Wan et al. 2003
Intrinsic motivation	Haines et al. 2008		
Perceptions about intl assignments	Dupuis et al. 2008, Wang and Bu 2004, Zhu et al. 2006		
Gender	Landau et al. 1992*, Lowe et al. 1999, Wan et al. 2003, van der Velde et al. 2005, Baldrige et al. 2006*	Adler 1984, Brett et al. 1993*, Brett & Stroh 1995, Feldman and Bolino 1998*, Wang & Bu 2004	
Willingness to relocate domestically	Brett & Stroh 1995		
Number of previous relocations	Landau et al. 1992*, Baldrige et al. 2006*	Brett et al. 1993*, Fisher and Shaw 1994, Wang and Bu 2004	van der Velde et al. 2005
Previous relocation experiences	Landau et al. 1992*, Fisher and Shaw 1994		
Other previous international experience	Wang and Bu 2004		

*=Study on domestic relocation, or not defined whether target location domestic or foreign

Age

Brett et al. (1993: 55) found in their study of 670 US relocated employees that age was a significant variable that predicts the willingness to relocate domestically for career advancement: younger managers were more willing to relocate than older managers, partly because younger managers perceived their career opportunities to be brighter than the older managers. The findings by Noe and Barber (1993: 170) in their study of 326 employees of a US state agency were similar: younger employees were more willing to relocate, particularly when it came to moving to a similar location. Older employees were less likely to relocate also in the study of 192 male employees of a large municipal agency by Gould and Penley (1985: 474) and in the study of 380 employees of a relocating US defense agency by Feldman and Bolino (1998: 283). However, Baldrige et al. (2006: 141) failed to find a relationship between age and willingness to relocate in their study of 666 US professionals and managers from several industries

All of the studies mentioned above mainly concern domestic relocation, although it could be assumed that results for international relocation are similar: younger employees are more likely to accept an international assignment for career enhancement purposes. Age also tends to correlate with spouse and family factors and those with a spouse and small children may be more reluctant to relocate than single employees. On the other hand, older employees with adult children may again be more likely to relocate. Wan et al. (2003: 722) studied 200 Singaporeans and did not find age to have an effect on the respondents' willingness to accept international assignments. Neither did van der Velde et al. (2005: 95) in their study of 300 Dutch multinational employees, nor Brett & Stroh (1995: 415).

Personality and Intrinsic Motivation

Although personality could be thought to be an important factor affecting the willingness to relocate, this factor has been studied surprisingly little. This may be due to the difficulties related with measuring personality. Aryee et al. (1996: 274) measured the locus of control and extraversion of their 228 respondents working in Singaporean government-linked

companies by including a 12-item personality questionnaire in the study. The result was that extraversion was positively related to the willingness to accept an expatriate assignment both in a culturally similar and dissimilar location (Ibid. 278). On the other hand, in a later study on Singaporeans Wan et al. (2003: 724) did not find extraversion to affect the willingness to accept international assignments, but found that neuroticism decreased willingness, especially so for culturally dissimilar destinations.

Zhu et al. (2006: 767-68) surveyed 112 Singaporean engineers and managers at international firms and found that the respondents' need for achievement and perseverance were positively correlated with their willingness to accept international assignments. In a similar vein Schrujjer and Hendriks (1996: 549) found in their study of 109 British managers that managers who wanted to be independent or for whom self-realization was important were more likely to accept international assignments. Managers for whom a secure and stable position at work and financially was important were less likely to accept international assignments (Ibid.).

In their study of 427 Masters in International Business Studies program alumni and their 167 spouses Konopaske et al. (2009: 373-75) found that adventurousness of the managers correlated with the willingness to accept long-term international assignments and traveling assignments, but not short-term (less than one year) assignments. Adventurousness was defined as predisposition towards traveling, new foods and variety over routine (Ibid. 363). Also spouse adventurousness had a positive correlation with the spouses' willingness to accept short- and long-term assignments abroad (Konopaske et al. 2005: 419).

Something of a personality trait is also the desire to live abroad presented as a factor in the Dickmann et al. (2008) study of 310 expatriates and 49 HR managers from 15 multinationals. This factor was ranked as being of medium importance when deciding whether to accept an expatriate assignment by the respondents, as its ranking was 13th out of 28 (Ibid. 738). This may reflect the fact that traditional expatriate assignments are often

not self-initiated, and the importance of this factor for SFEs would probably be much higher. The desire to live abroad is also a reflection of intrinsic motivation to accept an international assignment, introduced in the study of 331 alumni of a Canadian MBA program by Haines et al. (2008). Intrinsic motivation comes from within the person and rises from the satisfaction of being involved in the activity, from new experiences and challenges, while extrinsic motivation to accept an assignment is based on factors such as the pay and benefits offered or career enhancement (Ibid. 444-45). In the study those with higher intrinsic motivation were indeed more willing to accept an assignment and expected less difficulties while on the assignment (Ibid. 454). Haines et al. suggest that companies should consequently pay more attention to intrinsic motivation when choosing expatriates.

Perceptions about International Assignments

In addition to personality and intrinsic motivation, the perceptions that a person has regarding international assignments or relocation also affect their willingness to move abroad. For example Dupuis et al. (2008: 288) studied 227 Canadian MBA alumni living in a dual-earner partnership, and found that if the potential expatriate thinks that people should be willing to relocate for their partners' career or that frequent relocations do not strain the couple's relationship, he or she is more willing to accept an international assignment. Similarly, if the potential expatriate perceives international assignments to have a negative impact on the family, he or she is less willing to accept an assignment (Zhu et al. 2006: 768).

In their study of 145 Canadian undergraduate business students Wang and Bu (2004: 662) found that if the student thought that a global career would offer an equally or more exciting professional life than a domestic career, he or she was more likely to be considering an international career with one or several foreign assignments. The result was similar for those students who believed a global career to lead to faster career success (Ibid. 664).

Gender

In today's business life the majority of expatriates are still male, and consequently the majority of trailing spouses are female. But are there differences in willingness to move abroad between the genders? Adler (1984: 70) studied 1129 North American MBA students already over 25 years ago and found no gender differences in their willingness to work abroad in the future. Neither did Wang & Bu (2004: 658) in a similar study conducted on 145 Canadian business students twenty years later. Brett & Stroh (1995: 415) also found gender to have no effect on willingness to relocate internationally in their study of 405 managers and their spouses from twenty American Fortune 500 companies. Similarly, in the case of a corporate relocation, Feldman and Bolino (1998: 283) did not find a difference between genders on willingness to relocate with the company. Brett et al. (1993: 55) found that gender did not predict employees' willingness to relocate domestically either among those employees that had already relocated earlier: if the women had been offered a relocation possibility before, and they had accepted it, they were as willing to relocate again as their male counterparts. Brett et al. conclude that, as most of the relocated employees tend to be male, either females must be refusing at higher rates, or they are not receiving as many relocation opportunities as males.

On the other hand, Landau et al. (1992: 674) studied 1648 professional and managerial employees of a large US company, and found that women were less willing to relocate for career enhancement or company needs than men. It needs to be noted, though, that only 24% of their respondents were female, and the study is already over 15 years old: today willingness to relocate may differ less between genders. In a much more recent study on 217 business students from two US universities Lowe et al. (1999: 228-9) however found a gender difference on which countries female and male respondents were willing to consider as a target for an international assignment. For most of the countries included in the study men were more willing to accept an expatriate assignment, which indicates men being in general more likely to accept international assignments. Similarly, Wan et al. (2003: 723) found Singaporean women to be especially less willing to accept international assignments

in culturally dissimilar locations. Also van der Velde et al. (2005: 95) found that men were in general more willing to accept international assignments than women in their study of 300 dual-career employees of an Anglo-Dutch multinational, and Baldrige et al. (2006: 141) had a similar finding concerning domestic relocations. Overall it seems that the evidence from literature is mixed: some have found gender to have no effect on the willingness to relocate, while others conclude that it does have an effect.

Where gender does seem to have an effect, though, is on which other factors affect the willingness to relocate, as demonstrated by the Lowe et al. (1999) study where gender had an effect on the geographical location preferences. Bielby and Bielby (1992: 1253) studied 359 US individuals in dual-earner couples and found that 56% of the women interviewed were reluctant to relocate because of family concerns, whereas for men the same number was only 16%. Even when both the employee's and the spouse's job- and firm-specific investments, general skills and family investments were taken into account, men were still much less likely to consider family aspects before a relocation. Bielby and Bielby also studied whether the situation would differ depending on the kind of gender-role beliefs held in the family, and although the difference was smaller than in families with more traditional values, also in those families where gender-roles were nontraditional (i.e. where the family did not believe that the husband should be the sole provider and that a working mother is harmful for the relationship with children) the females were more likely to be reluctant to move to improve their own career opportunities if that meant that their spouses must give up a well-earning job (Ibid. 1259).

Concern for family matters could be one explanation for the smaller number of female expatriates, but it must be noted that Bielby and Bielby (1992) made their study based on a Quality of Employment Survey from 1977, which means that the views expressed by the respondents are likely to be more conservative than would be the case today. However, also Landau et al. (1992: 674) found that there was a stronger negative relationship between willingness to relocate and the importance of spouse's career for women than for men, even

though their study was made almost 15 years later. In addition, Dupuis et al. (2008: 291) found in their fairly recent study of 331 Canadian MBA alumni that home-domain variables such as spousal willingness and presence of children had a stronger effect on the willingness to accept international assignments for women than for men. Also according to Baldrige et al. (2006: 142-43) family variables such as the presence of preschool-aged children affect women's willingness to relocate more strongly than men's. On the other hand, in the Adler study (1984: 70-73) there was no difference in the reasons for rejecting international assignments between the genders, not even in the spouse and family factors.

Harvey (1997) studied the differences between dual-career couples where the expatriate manager was male and where the expatriate manager was female. The 332 expatriates were from nine multinationals, and the spouses of the expatriates were also included. According to the male expatriate managers the most important issues affecting the willingness to accept an expatriate assignment were the stage of the career life-cycle and the level of corporate support, whereas their spouses reported their own careers and the duration of the assignment as the most important issues. Female expatriate managers and their spouses differed much less in which issues they found important: the stage of the career life-cycle and the attractiveness of the international position were the only aspects that female expatriates thought more important than their spouses. (Harvey, 1997: 639-41) Harvey also compared current expatriate couples and couples that had already returned from a successful assignment. This comparison showed that for returned male expatriates the spouse's career orientation and corporate support were more important than for the current male expatriates. Female expatriates in turn felt only the host culture to be of more importance after they had returned from the assignment. (Ibid.: 641-42) Thus not only did the female expatriates have somewhat more realistic expectations of the assignment, as highlighted by the similar opinions on important factors held by both the current female expatriates and those who had already returned, they were also more likely to agree with their spouses on which aspects were the most important in affecting the willingness to go. Male expatriates, on the other hand, did not initially see their spouse's career as being an

important factor, even though this was the most important issue for their spouses, but changed their opinion after the assignment!

Based on these studies it would seem that men are perhaps more willing to accept international assignments because they do not pay as much attention to how that assignment affects the rest of their family. Women are in general as willing to work abroad as men, but they are simultaneously more likely to worry about their spouse's career and their family's well-being, and thus may be declining assignments more or not taking as much initiative on getting an assignment abroad. Women also seem to be pickier on the geographical location, which probably stems from cultural differences: there are still countries for example in the Middle East where working as a female expatriate is at least perceived to be more difficult than as a male expatriate. Furthermore, when women turn down assignments or do not actively seek them because of family concerns, companies may have the idea that women just do not want to work abroad and are thus not even offering these possibilities to them. However, it seems that women may have slightly more realistic expectations of the assignment and more similar ideas as their spouses concerning which aspects are important when deciding on an international assignment. The more realistic expectations and less conflict in these families could easily be seen as translating to more successful assignments.

Previous International Relocations and Experience

It could be assumed that the more often the person has relocated earlier, or the more international experience the person has, the more likely that person would be to have a positive attitude towards future relocations and further international experience. The situation would already be familiar and thus the relocation would perhaps present fewer complications. Indeed, Landau et al. (1992: 676-77) found that number of previous relocations and positive relocation experiences were both positively related to willingness to relocate for career enhancement or company needs. Also Baldrige et al. (2006: 141)

found the number of previous relocations to predict the manager's willingness to relocate domestically.

The relationship between previous experience and willingness to relocate does not seem to be that simple, though. Brett et al. (1993: 56) did not find a significant relationship with the number of moves and the willingness to relocate domestically, but all the respondents in this study had already relocated in recent years. It could be assumed that for those employees that have relocated earlier, the number of earlier moves is not a factor affecting their willingness to relocate again, whereas those individuals with no earlier relocation experience may be less willing to relocate in the future. Fisher and Shaw (1994: 216) also failed to find a relationship between previous moves, either domestically or abroad, and attitudes towards a new move, but also their respondents had previous relocations: the 143 members of military personnel studied had on average moved 5.7 times since joining the military (Ibid. 215). However, if the last move had been difficult, attitudes towards a new move were less positive (Ibid. 218).

The role of previous international experience on the decision to accept international assignments can be debated, though. In the Dickmann et al. (2008: 741) study successful previous assignments was ranked as the 18th important factor by the employees, and it was also one of the main factors whose importance the corporate respondents overestimated: previous positive experiences were not as important a factor for the prospective expatriates as they thought. In the study by Wang and Bu (2004: 660) the number of years studied abroad had no effect on the willingness of business students to work abroad in the future.

Curiously, the effect of previous international experience can also differ by gender. Van der Velde et al. (2005: 95-96) found that previous international relocations had a positive effect for men on both accepting an international assignment and following their spouse on an assignment. However, for the female respondents previous relocations only predicted following their spouse but had no effect on accepting international assignments themselves.

However, previous international experience is not limited to living abroad. It can also come in the form of previous international exposure through travelling, parents that work internationally, friends or relatives that live abroad or even learning new languages. In the Richardson study (2004: 478-79) on British academic SFEs some of the interviewees mentioned family role-models such as a brother or an aunt that has lived abroad as a motivation to move abroad. According to Wang and Bu (2004: 660) those students who had at least one parent who travelled internationally for work were more receptive towards their first job being overseas. Having foreign friends also increased the likelihood of interest in an international career, as did speaking several languages (Ibid.). Regarding language skills it should be noted that the respondents came from Canada, a country that is known for being bilingual but is still predominantly English-speaking. In such a country speaking several languages is surely more of an indication of international interests than in a country like Finland where everyone is required to study at least two foreign languages at school.

2.2.2 Spouse and Family Factors

Table 3. Spouse and Family Factors Affecting Willingness to Go Based on Previous Research

Factors	Had an Effect	No Effect	Mixed Results
Spousal support and willingness to relocate	Brett et al.1993*, Brett & Stroh 1995, Aryee et al. 1996, Konopaske et al. 2005, Dupuis et al. 2008, Konopaske et al. 2009	Wan et al. 2003	
Spouse's job and career orientation	Gould and Penley 1985*, Landau et al. 1992*, Bielby and Bielby 1992*, Harvey 1997	Aryee et al. 1996, Brett & Stroh 1995, Wan et al. 2003, Dupuis et al. 2008	Duncan & Cummings Perrucci 1976*, Konopaske et al. 2005
Children and Extended Family	Landau et al. 1992*, Noe and Barber 1993*, Brett & Stroh 1995, Aryee et al. 1996, Wan et al. 2003, Richardson and Mallon 2005, van der Velde et al. 2005, Dickmann et al. 2008, Dupuis et al. 2008	Brett et al. 1993*, Fisher and Shaw 1994, Konopaske et al. 2005	Feldman and Bolino 1998*, Baldrige et al. 2006,* Konopaske et al. 2009

*=Study on domestic relocation, or not defined whether target location domestic or foreign

Spousal Support and Willingness to Relocate

Companies rank partner resistance among the top three family concerns when finding suitable applicants for foreign assignments (Global Relocation Trends 2010: 12). Spousal support and the spouse's willingness to relocate are naturally factors that affect the decision to relocate, which is also reflected in studies on the subject. Brett et al. (1993: 54) found spouse's willingness to relocate domestically to be strongly related to the manager's willingness to relocate domestically. Aryee et al. (1996: 278), Konopaske et al. (2005: 420

and 2009: 376) and Dupuis et al. (2008: 283) had similar findings regarding international moves: spousal support and willingness were significantly positively related to the willingness to accept an expatriate assignment. In the Aryee et al. study on Singaporeans this was especially true when the expatriate assignment was situated in a culturally similar location, although Dupuis et al. (2008: 283) found no differences in the effect of spousal willingness between low cultural distance and high cultural distance locations. Brett and Stroh (1995: 414) found in their study of 405 Fortune 500 managers and their spouses that the managers' views on relocating internationally were highly dependent on their spouse's views on it, but the spouses' views did not depend on the managers' views, i.e. even if the manager had a positive attitude towards an international move the spouse did not necessarily have a positive attitude, but if the spouse was willing to move internationally so was the manager. In the Dickmann et al. (2008) study expatriates ranked spouse's willingness to move as the second most important factor to consider while relocating, while the corporate respondents believed it to be the most influential factor (738-39).

Surprisingly, Wan et al. (2003: 724) found no significant relationship between spousal support and willingness to accept an international assignment. However, their sample was mainly young and single (58%) (Ibid, 720). When most of the respondents had no spouse, spousal support for them would have been inconsequential, and they may find it difficult to relate to a situation where a spouse is involved in the decision.

Spouse's Job and Career Orientation

When considering a career-related move abroad it often is the case that there is also another person in the family with a career, the spouse. As already discussed in part 2.1.3 a large number of spouses are not able to find work in the target location. Partner's career is one of the most cited reasons for turning down an international assignment (Global Relocation Trends 2010: 12). Surprisingly, interruption in spouse's career and the loss of spouse's income were the factors whose importance the corporate respondents largely over-estimated in the study by Dickmann et al.: they ranked them as being the 6th and 7th most

important factors influencing the decision to go while the expatriates ranked them as low as 24th and 26th. According to the writers this may be mediated by the type of the spouse's career, as evidenced by the high standard deviations these rankings have (Dickmann et al. 2008: 743). Two other possible explanations may also be found for the low rankings, the first concerning a working spouse and the second the gender representations of the survey. Although trailing spouses tend to be non-working, some of them are able to find work, or at least the respondents may assume that their spouses will find work, in which case the two factors are not as important for the decision anymore. Also, only 11.5% of the survey respondents were female, and in some previous studies male expatriates have been found to be less concerned about their spouse's career than female expatriates (Landau et al. 1992: 674, Bielby & Bielby 1992: 1259).

According to Landau et al. (1992: 677), the finding that women were less willing to relocate than men in their study of 1648 employees of a US corporation was partially explained by the importance of spouse's career: in their study 26% of men stated that their spouses had important careers (as measured by both the respondent's own assessment of the spouse's career compared to their own, and by salary level), while the same number for women was 89%. The importance of spouse's career had a negative effect on both relocating for career enhancement or company needs and relocating to remain employed. Women whose spouse's career was of equal or larger importance than their own were less willing to relocate than men whose spouse's career was important – similar to the findings of Bielby and Bielby (1992) that women put more emphasis on the spouse's career. However, there may be differences on how men and women assess an important career, and in this case the importance of the spouse's career was only assessed by the respondent: results could be different if the spouses were asked about the importance of their own career.

Duncan and Cummings Perrucci (1976: 257-59) studied US college graduates and found that dual-occupation families are less likely to migrate than single-occupation families, but

the prestige of the wife's occupation or her contribution to the family income do not have an effect. Duncan and Cummings Perrucci's data stems from the 60's, which explains the somewhat traditional results. However, also Aryee et al. (1996: 274-80) found that the spouse's job vs. career orientation (measured by the question "If your spouse works, does he/she consider his/her recent position as a job or a career?") did not have a significant effect on the willingness to relocate. Again, only 19.7% of the respondents were female (Ibid. 273) which may affect the results, but also the spouses (91% female) in the Brett & Stroh (1995: 415) study did not indicate a relationship between their type of work and career ambitions and willingness to move internationally. A relationship was also not found in the Dupuis et al. study (2008: 289), nor in the study by Wan et al. (2003: 724). Wan et al. claim that their result indicates that even the "modern woman" is happy to accept a more traditional role at home (Ibid. 727) but forget that their sample was 58.5% female and mostly single (Ibid. 720) meaning that a more likely reason is that the young, single respondents are unfamiliar with a situation that involves a spouse.

In the Konopaske et al. study (2005: 419) the spouse's job involvement was found to decrease the willingness of the spouse to relocate internationally for a short-term assignment (less than 1 year) but not for a long-term assignment (1 to 4 years). The writers assume this is because it is more difficult to leave one's job for a shorter period of time, whereas a long-term assignment may bring with it benefits such as learning the language and getting to know a new culture. Interestingly, in the all-male study by Gould and Penley (1985: 476) having an employed spouse actually had a positive correlation with willingness to relocate for a better job within a state, suggesting that the relationship between the spouse's career and willingness to relocate may be more complicated than assumed.

Children and Extended Family

In addition to a spouse there are often other members of the family involved: around half of expatriates tend to have children that accompany them on the assignment (Global Relocation Trends 2010: 8). Many expatriates also have elderly parents living in the home

country. Companies are aware of these challenges and cite for example children's education as one of the top three concerns critical when finding expatriates. Family concerns are also the main reason for returning from an assignment early. (Global Relocation Trends 2010: 12) Companies are beginning to realize that having elderly family members can complicate moving abroad and around 8% of companies nowadays offer assistance for example by relocating them to the target location or supporting expatriate visits to the home country (Ibid. 16).

In the study by Dickmann et al. (2008: 737-41) family considerations were highly important for expatriates: children's educational needs was ranked as the fifth most important factor in the decision to accept an expatriate assignment. Surprisingly, many of the interviewees in the study gave family matters as a motivation, rather than a barrier, to go abroad, highlighting the fact that family matters may not only work as an inhibiting factor in the decision to go. This is in line with the finding of Richardson and Mallon (2005: 412-14) who studied British academic self-directed expatriates and found that family matters acted as a motivation to move abroad, as the expatriates for example viewed moving to another country as offering the children a better environment to grow up in and giving them the chance to travel and experience different cultures. Yet, the opposite viewpoint was also visible: some respondents felt that if they had children or living parents they would not be able to work abroad (Ibid. 414). On the other hand, children were mainly seen as an inhibiting factor by those respondents who had no children (Richardson 2004: 475).

Landau et al. (1992: 674-76) found that both children living at home and elderly relatives living in the area had a negative effect on wanting to relocate, and the number of relatives living nearby was negatively related to accepting a move also according to Noe and Barber (1993: 168). A similar result was obtained by Aryee et al. (1996: 275-78) who found that kinship responsibility, as measured by a composite index of marital status, number of children under 17 and relatives living with the family or within 10 km, was negatively

related to the willingness to accept an expatriate assignment. Also in the Dupuis et al. study (2008: 289) presence of children in the household decreased the willingness to accept international assignments, and especially so for high cultural distance destinations. According to Wan et al. (2003: 722) the presence of school-aged children in the family had a negative effect on accepting an assignment both in high cultural distance and low cultural distance destinations, but this may be partly explained with the respondents being Singaporeans who tend to be very particular about their children's schooling (Ibid. 715).

Feldman and Bolino (1998: 283) found that if the employee had parents living in the same community, relocation with the company was less likely. On the other hand, in the same study having minor children did not have an effect on willingness to relocate. A similar phenomenon can be seen in Konopaske et al. (2009: 376): living near elderly relatives decreased the willingness to accept any type of international assignments (traveling, short-term or long-term) whereas children living at home decreased the willingness only for traveling and short-term assignments but had no effect on long-term assignments. This can probably be explained by the fact that especially in the case of a long-term assignment, children will move with the family, whereas the distance to elderly relatives will grow, making having contact and taking care of them more problematic.

Children's age can also have an effect on the willingness of the family to relocate internationally. According to van der Velde et al. (2005: 95) having children between ages 4 and 12 reduced the willingness of women to accept international assignments or to move abroad as a spouse. The presence of teenagers in the family in turn reduced the male participants' willingness to accept assignments or to follow their spouse. Interestingly, if the family had children under 4 years old the men were in fact more receptive towards an international relocation, both as an expatriate and as a spouse. (Ibid.) That the presence of teen-aged children is seen as an impediment to international assignments is understandable in that teenagers tend to be very much tied to their current community through their schooling and friends and are thus more difficult to relocate than younger children.

However, Baldrige et al. (2006: 141) had a complete opposite result in that according to their study the presence of school-aged children did not affect the willingness to relocate domestically but the presence of preschool-aged children had a negative effect on it.

In the study by Brett et al. (1993: 55) the number of children living at home did not predict willingness to relocate domestically. However, the employees in this study had already relocated earlier (Ibid. 53), so the result rather implies that for employees with previous relocation experience, the number of children at home does not affect the willingness to relocate again. Furthermore, as the previous relocations had been done within two years of the study, these families were likely to have already relocated once with children, and were thus familiar with the situation and what it entails. The same could be said for the study by Fisher and Shaw (1994: 216) who also found that the number of dependents at home did not affect pre-move attitudes towards the relocation, but their sample consisted of US military personnel who had also done numerous previous moves.

Brett and Stroh (1995: 415) found that the number of children living at home did not significantly reduce the managers' willingness for international relocation but it did reduce the willingness of the spouses. As the spouses' willingness strongly predicted the managers' willingness to move internationally, the number of children indirectly influences also the manager's willingness. Consequently Brett and Stroh suggest companies to provide more support for families with children on international assignments to convince the parents that an international move is viable also with children (Ibid. 417-18). Interestingly, Konopaske et al. (2005: 419-420) had a completely opposite result: neither elderly family members living nearby nor children living at home affected the spouses' willingness for international moves. However, many of the spouses in the study had an international background and they were all married to people with already some international experience (Masters in International Business program alumni), which perhaps makes them see international moves with children more viable and even as beneficial for the children.

Thus, along with the effects of gender, the effect the presence of children and elderly family members have on the willingness to relocate seems of the most debated in expatriate willingness literature. In studies the effect of children has varied from encouraging people to take up international assignments to impeding them, and to having no effect. Children's age also seems to have varying consequences: while others feel it is easier to relocate younger children than those who are already at school, there are also studies that suggest the opposite because rearing young children and finding daycare for them is time-consuming while the older children basically 'simply' change schools. The answer probably is that there are as many effects of children as there are families: while one family thinks it is wrong to tear the children out of their usual social and cultural surroundings, another sees moving abroad as a great possibility for the children to gain new experiences and learn new languages and cultures. The presence of elderly relatives living nearby, on the other hand, is more often seen as a barrier to an international move.

2.2.3 Job and Career Factors

Table 4. Job and Career Factors Affecting Willingness to Go Based on Previous Research

Factor	Had an Effect	No Effect	Mixed Results
Income	Brett et al. 1993*	Baldrige et al. 2006*	
Functional area of the career	Brett et al. 1993*		
Career/job satisfaction, stage and expectations	Aryee et al. 1996, Harvey 1997, Feldman and Bolino 1998*, van der Velde et al. 2005	Fisher and Shaw 1994	Landau et al. 1992*, Brett et al. 1993*, Noe and Barber 1993*
Organisational and job tenure	Gould and Penley 1985*, Landau et al. 1992*	Wan et al. 2003	van der Velde et al. 2005
Attractiveness of the new position	Harvey 1997, Dickmann et al. 2008, Konopaske et al. 2009		
Company relocation policy and corporate support	Brett & Stroh 1995, Aryee et al. 1996, Harvey 1997, Wan et al. 2003, Konopaske and Werner 2005, Wagner and Westaby 2009		Dickmann et al. 2008, Konopaske et al. 2009

*=Study on domestic relocation, or not defined whether target location domestic or foreign

Income and Career Satisfaction

Brett et al. (1993: 56) found that both the income of the employee and the family predicted the willingness of employees to relocate domestically: those earning less were more willing to relocate. This may be because the family perceived there to be more career opportunities and possibilities for a larger income if they relocated, whereas those with a larger income did not feel the need to relocate to be as pressing. On the other hand, Baldrige et al. (2006: 141) did not find a relationship between income and willingness to relocate domestically. In literature on expatriate willingness income as such has not really been discussed, although

Dupuis et al. (2008) took up the concept of relative income in the family. According to them, if the potential expatriate had a larger income than the spouse, the potential expatriate was more willing to accept an international assignment (Ibid. 288). Also van der Velde et al. (2005: 96) found that men were more willing to accept international assignments the more they earned compared to their partner, but the same was not true for the women in the study.

Brett et al. (1993: 55-57) also found that career attitudes and expectations predicted willingness to relocate well, and that managers in sales and marketing were more willing to relocate than managers working in other fields. According to Noe and Barber (1993: 172) the further away the employees felt they were from their career goal, the more likely they were to accept any mobility opportunities, whereas career insight only predicted willingness to move to a dissimilar community. Aryee et al. (1996: 278) similarly found that both distance from career goal and career insight had a significant positive effect on accepting an expatriate assignment, although career insight was in this study found to be a better predictor when the destination was culturally similar, contradictory to the findings of Noe and Barber (1993: 172). The stage of the career life-cycle, which essentially measures the same thing as distance from career goal, was identified as one of the most important issues considered before an expatriate assignment also by the respondents of the Harvey study (1997: 639).

Satisfaction with career development opportunities did not have an effect on willingness to relocate for career enhancement or company needs in the study by Landau et al. (1992: 676). The writers state that this might be because those satisfied with their career development opportunities believe such opportunities will also arise in the future even if the employee does not accept the current offer to relocate, whereas those dissatisfied will accept any opportunity, even if it involves a relocation (Ibid. 678). The initial hypothesis of the writers was that if the employees are satisfied with their career development opportunities, they are more likely to invest in their career and trust that relocation will be

beneficial for their careers, which would lead to enhanced willingness to relocate (Ibid. 671). Such an effect can perhaps be seen in the study by Noe and Barber (1993: 172) who found career satisfaction to be positively related to willingness to move to a community that is dissimilar to the one they currently live in, but not to a similar community: career satisfaction may have increased the respondents' trust in the fact that moving to a dissimilar community will be good for their careers.

Yet, employees can be completely satisfied with their career development opportunities but unwilling to relocate, simply because they feel that there is no need to relocate to improve their careers, or because of other factors that make them unwilling to relocate, which may explain the lack of a relationship in the Landau et al. study (1992). Accordingly, Brett et al. (1993: 57) state that attitudes towards work, like job satisfaction, do not predict willingness to relocate because the object of the attitude is the job or the company, not relocation. Neither Brett et al. (Ibid.) nor Fisher and Shaw (1994: 218) found a relationship between job satisfaction and willingness to relocate. Feldman and Bolino (1998: 283) did find a positive relationship between job satisfaction, attachment to the current organization and willingness to relocate, but they studied corporate relocation, where the situation is quite different: the employees declining relocation lose their jobs. It is natural that in such a situation employees who feel strongly attached to the company and who are highly satisfied with their jobs are more likely to follow the relocating company. Similarly, Landau et al. (1992: 676) found a positive relationship between satisfaction on career development opportunities and willingness to relocate when the relocation was done to remain employed.

Van der Velde et al. (2005: 97) in fact found a negative relationship for men between job satisfaction and willingness to accept international assignments, and for women between career satisfaction and willingness to accept international assignments. Perhaps a person that is satisfied with their job or stage of career does not want to in a sense interrupt the

current job or career with an international assignment. Interestingly, job satisfaction was positively related to willingness to follow their partner abroad for men (Ibid.).

Organizational tenure

Organizational tenure was found by Landau et al. (1992: 676) to be positively related to the willingness to relocate to remain employed, but both organizational and job tenure were negatively related to the willingness to relocate for career enhancement or company needs. Employees that have worked in one company for a longer time may feel that finding a job in another organization is too difficult or is not even an option, and are thus more likely to move with the company if the job is relocated (Ibid. 678). Organizational tenure also correlates with age, which is often found to be negatively related to the willingness to relocate. Landau et al. (Ibid.) also point out that the relationship between job tenure and unwillingness to relocate may not be causal, and may reflect the fact that employees who are not willing to relocate for career enhancement may stay in the same job for a longer time because of less opportunities for promotion. In the study by Gould and Penley (1985: 476) it was found that employees that had stayed in the same job for a long time were more likely to relocate if offered a better job opportunity in another city, possibly because their career in the organization had plateaued prematurely.

Wan et al. (2003: 724) did not find a relationship between job tenure and the willingness to accept international assignments. This may be because most of their respondents were young (aged 21-30, Ibid. 720) and thus did not have long tenure in their jobs anyway. Van der Velde et al. (2005: 95-96) found professional tenure to correlate with willingness to accept international assignments for men, but not for women. Somewhat surprisingly professional tenure was positively related to following a spouse abroad for women in the same study (Ibid.).

Attractiveness of the Position and Level of Corporate Support

It is surprising how few studies have taken into account the aspect of the position offered on the assignment, which commonsensically would seem to be one of the most important factors considered. Indeed, in the study by Dickmann et al. (2008: 742) the position offered on assignment was the single most important factor for the expatriates to consider when making the expatriation decision, while potential for leadership skills development, career progression, potential for job skills development, professional challenge of working abroad, personal financial impact and potential role available at the completion of assignment were all in top 10. The perceived career fit of the assignment was also found to be an important factor when accepting international assignments by Konopaske et al. (2009: 376). Fisher and Shaw (1994: 218) who studied US military personnel relocations, found that if the relocation was perceived by the employee to be an advancement in their career, the employee's attitude towards the move both prior to and after the relocation was more positive, and in the study by Adler (1984: 70) over a third of the business student respondents stated that job and career factors such as a boring, unchallenging or uninteresting position would be a reason to reject an international assignment.

Instead, a factor that the expatriate literature does seem to take up somewhat is the company policy regarding relocation and the level of corporate support. Aryee et al. (1996: 278) found that company relocation policy is positively related to the willingness to accept an assignment in a culturally dissimilar location, but did not predict willingness to accept an assignment in general. In the study by Harvey (1997: 639) expatriates found the level of corporate support to be one of the most important issues affecting willingness to relocate, and the male respondents of the study that had already returned from an assignment felt even more strongly that corporate support is important. Similarly, Konopaske & Werner (2005: 1167-70) found that managers are more likely to accept global assignments when offered corporate support for example in the forms of language and cross-cultural training, overseas healthcare benefits, hardship premiums, tax equalization, living and housing allowances and assistance, and child education allowance. Company financial, career,

adjustment and family support were also the strongest predictor of willingness to accept international assignments in the Wan et al. (2003: 725) study. Financial incentives in the form of a bonus were positively related to willingness to relocate internationally in the study of 196 US graduate students by Wagner and Westaby (2009: 264), and especially so when relocating to a culturally dissimilar location. Brett & Stroh (1995: 415) found that although employer policies did not have a significant effect on the managers' willingness to accept international relocations, it did have an effect on the spouses' willingness.

However, corporate support is not only limited to support during the assignment, but is also needed when the expatriate returns as expatriates often upon returning face problems concerning their job: the previous position has been filled or even outsourced and the expatriate needs to find a new position inside the company. Thus it is not surprising that the potential role available after the completion of the assignment was on the top 10 factors considered by the expatriates in the Dickmann et al. (2008: 742) study. On the other hand, pre-departure support in the form of pre-departure preparation was the second lowest ranked factor in the same study, highlighting the fact that although pre-departure training can be desired and beneficial, the lack or existence of it does not affect the actual decision to go. Konopaske et al. (2009: 376) found partial support for repatriation planning increasing willingness to accept both short and long-term international assignments.

2.2.4 Location Factors

Table 5. Location Factors Affecting Willingness to Go Based on Previous Research

Factors	Had an Effect	No Effect	Mixed Results
Similarity to home location	Noe and Barber 1993*, Aryee et al. 1996, Harvey 1997, Lowe et al. 1999, Wan et al. 2003, Dickmann et al. 2008	Feldman and Bolino 1998*, Wagner and Westaby 2009	
Location security and risk	Adler 1984, Lowe et al. 1999, Dickmann et al. 2008, Wagner and Westaby 2009		
Geographical location	Schruijer and Hendriks 1996, Lowe et al. 1999, Konopaske et al. 2009	Dickmann et al. 2008	
Current community involvement and satisfaction	Landau et al. 1992*, Noe and Barber 1993*, Fisher and Shaw 1994, Feldman and Bolino 1998*, Konopaske et al. 2009		Baldrige et al. 2006*
Existing ties to target location	Fisher and Shaw 1994, Lowe et al. 1999		

*=Study on domestic relocation, or not defined whether target location domestic or foreign

Similarity to Home and Geographical Location

Almost 60% of the respondents listed location as a major reason for turning down an international assignment in the 1984 study by Adler (1984: 70). Location-specific factors seem to indeed play a role when accepting a relocation, as also according to Dickmann et al. (2008: 738-42) many of their expatriate interviewees stated that they would not accept an assignment in any location. Both Noe and Barber (1993: 170) and Aryee et al. (1996: 275) found that in general employees are less willing to relocate to a location that is

dissimilar to the one they are currently living in than to one that is similar (in terms of rural/urban, and in terms of cultural similarity). Somewhat surprisingly in the study by Feldman and Bolino (1998: 279) satisfaction with the new location and its similarity (in terms of rural or urban) to the employee's and the spouse's background did not have an effect on willingness to relocate but their study focused on corporate relocation which as a situation differs somewhat of that faced by possible future expatriates. In corporate relocation the employee needs to relocate with the company or lose the job, whereas the decision to accept an expatriate assignment is not quite as pressing an issue for the individual.

Location affects the willingness to move abroad often through culture: the more familiar the culture in the target location, the easier the whole process of moving and getting used to the new location. Cultural distance was negatively correlated with the willingness to move abroad in the Lowe et al. (1999: 229-30) study, and according to Wan et al. (2003: 722) the respondents were more likely to accept an assignment in a culturally similar than dissimilar location. However, Wagner and Westaby (2009: 263) failed to find an effect between cultural location similarity and willingness to relocate, but their respondents were fairly young and thus possibly more open to new experiences than potential expatriates overall (Ibid. 263-64). In the Harvey study (1997: 641) similarity of the host culture was found to be more important by those (female) expatriates that had already returned from their assignment than by those who had yet to start their assignment, which suggests that even though expatriates seem to consider location as one of the deciding factors, they may still underestimate its effect. Yet the male expatriates in the same study did not seem to share this feeling. One possible explanation for this is that there still are several locations in the world where working as a female expatriate may pose problems because of the local culture. Perhaps these female expatriates, who mostly come from Western cultures, underestimated the effect of such a culture on their work.

Geographical distance from the home location was ranked as the least important of the factors according to Dickmann et al (2008: 738-42), reflecting the fact that differences in culture may be regarded more significant than actual distance between the home and host locations. In the study by Konopaske et al (2009: 377) the managers that found the destination country to be important were in fact less likely to accept international assignments and vice versa: managers less concerned about the destination were more likely to accept international assignments. The basis for this can be that the importance the manager places on the destination country mirrors his or her concerns of living in a foreign country.

Lowe et al. (1999) studied gender differences on willingness to accept an international assignment in a specific geographical location. They found that for 36 of the 41 countries included in the study there was a significant difference between the genders: in all but one of these cases the male respondents were more likely to accept an international assignment in the country. The greatest differences were recorded for Vietnam, Saudi Arabia and Indonesia. (Lowe et al. 1999: 229) In addition to these countries being culturally dissimilar to the US, the unpopularity of the latter two among women can surely be explained by the fact that they are countries where women's role in the society is traditionally different and for this reason women may feel less comfortable accepting an assignment there. Overall the most popular destinations in the (US based) study were Canada (79.9%), Great Britain (75.8%) and France (68.5%), and the least popular Vietnam (7.3%), Tanzania (11%) and Jordan and India (11.9%) (Ibid.228). Vietnam's unpopularity may be partly explained by the very complex relationship it historically has with the US. Far East, Africa and Middle East were also the least popular destinations for an international assignment in the study by Schruijer and Hendriks (1996: 548) while the most popular target locations among the British respondents were North West Europe, North America and Australia.

Location safety and Security

Another location-related aspect that factors in to the international move decision is location safety. In the Dickmann et al. study (2008: 738-42) location security was the 9th most important factor in the survey results, and political risk was negatively related to the willingness to move abroad also in the Lowe et al. (1999: 229-30) study. Location-related factors for turning down an international assignment in the Adler (1984: 70) study also focused around the target location being too unstable, dangerous, hostile or politically risky. In the study by Wagner and Westaby (2009: 263) the respondents were more likely to accept an international assignment in a safe location than in a dangerous location.

According to Wang and Bu (2004: 664) over half of their respondents would turn down an assignment in an unstable or dangerous location, or location that lacked sufficient infrastructure. Also almost 20% of them reported declining interest in an international career after the 9-11 terrorist attacks (Ibid. 660). Thus not only the political stability and safety in a specific target location but also the overall political climate and stability worldwide can affect the willingness to relocate internationally.

Current Community Involvement and Existing Ties

One location related factor that can affect willingness to relocate is how satisfied and involved in the current community the employee is. Attachment and satisfaction on the community lived in was negatively related to willingness to relocate, especially when moving to a dissimilar community, according to Noe and Barber (1993: 170). Community satisfaction and the time lived in the current community predicted a more negative attitude towards a relocation also in the study by Fisher and Shaw (1994: 218). Also Feldman and Bolino (1998: 283) and Konopaske et al. (2009: 376) concluded that the longer the employees had lived in the current community and the more affective attachment towards the community they had, the less likely they were to relocate. Landau et al. (1992: 676) found that existing important community ties meant that employees were less willing to relocate in general. Interestingly, Baldrige et al. (2006: 141) found that managers with

stronger community ties were more likely to relocate. The spouse's or the children's community ties had no effect in either direction in the same study (Ibid.).

Existing ties in the new community seem to make relocation there more desirable: according to Fisher and Shaw (1994: 218) having friends at the new location meant that the employee had a more positive attitude towards the move. However, existing ties in the target location can also work in the opposite direction. Lowe et al. (1999: 229) analyzed their country attractiveness findings in the light of lineage, i.e. they excluded those responses where the respondent or his/her parents were born in the target country. The change in the results was very small but surprisingly for 28 of the 41 countries the willingness to go increased. It seems that for some reason the respondents were somewhat less willing to work abroad in the country where their family was from.

2.2.5 Profile of a Likely Mover

Based on expatriation literature there seem to be several factors that affect a person's willingness to go abroad. It has to be kept in mind that these factors are not constant or universal: people value different aspects of their life differently, and a factor that for someone would mean a definite refusal of moving abroad may have no effect in another person's decision. The factors may also change over time as life situations change: a person with no children may find cultural similarity or security of the location less important than later when the same person has small children. Thus how much each factor affects the decision to go is always situational and individual.

Based on the literature discussed in parts 2.2.1-2.2.4 we can derive the profile of a person generally more likely to accept an international move, as presented in Table 6. Personality-wise such a person has a high need for achievement, and strives for self-realization and independence. He or she is also adventurous and has intrinsic motivation for an international assignment, i.e. is not only motivated by the benefits the assignment offers but

the experience itself. The person also has positive beliefs on international assignments and their effects on family and career in general. Previous international exposure through parents that work internationally, role models in the family that have lived abroad, or friends living abroad, has a positive effect on the willingness to go.

When it comes to family, the likely mover has a spouse who is supportive and willing to move, but has no elderly relatives living nearby. The person may work in sales or marketing, and has a higher income than the spouse. The distance to career goal is still large and the position offered on assignment is attractive both in terms of career progress and self-development. The company supports the expatriate during the assignment and upon repatriation. In addition, the target location is culturally similar to home, and considered safe and politically secure.

Table 6. The profile of a likely mover

High need for achievement, self-realization and independence
Adventurous
High intrinsic motivation
Positive beliefs on international assignments and their effect on family and career
Previous international exposure (travelling parents, role models, friends abroad)
Spouse supportive and willing to relocate
No elderly relatives living in the same community
Income higher than the spouse's
Works in sales or marketing
Distance from career-goal large
Position offered is attractive in terms of self-development and career progression
Company support during the assignment and upon repatriation exists
Target location is culturally similar to home
Target location is considered safe and politically secure

The most disputed factors in literature in terms of their effect on the likelihood to move are gender and spouse and family related variables, along with the effects of previous international experience. The discussion on whether gender has an effect on the willingness to go abroad has been going on already for decades but with no conclusive evidence: to

every study that concludes gender has no effect there seems to be a study that concludes the opposite. The effect of the spouse and family seem to also differ, but it has been found that in general female expatriates consider the effects to their spouse's career more carefully. The amount of previous international experience and whether it was regarded as positive has been found both to affect and not affect the decision to move abroad. It seems that previous international experience should not be thought of only in terms of previous expatriate assignments, but also other (shorter term) stays abroad as well as international exposure through internationally working parents or friends living abroad can have an effect as well.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

Having discussed the types of international moves in IHRM literature as well as the willingness to move abroad, we now move on to the theoretical framework of this study. The goal of this sub-chapter is to summarize the discussion into a framework that guides the empirical study.

This study strives to find out about the general willingness of Aalto School of Economics students to move abroad as an expatriate, SFE or spouse and the factors affecting it, and thus belongs to the field of international human resource management, more specifically expatriotism. It is closely related to other studies on expatriate motivations, trailing spouses and SFE. The study also has connections to literature on general willingness to relocate, female managers, dual-career couples and the new global career. While primarily a business study it may also have some sociological implications especially regarding gender and careers.

Although the literature on expatriate motivations has been presented in the preceding sub-chapters, there is scarce literature on which factors affect the willingness to go abroad for SFEs and spouses. This study assumes that these factors are similar to those for traditional

expatriates, although how much each factor has an effect may differ: for example location-related factors may be more important for SFE as the person may have no plans to return to the home country in the near future whereas an expatriate knows the assignment is only temporary. Naturally the factors affecting the spouse's willingness to go differ also in that some of the factors for them are in practice the opposite of those of traditional expatriates. For the spouses it is not about whether their spouses will find jobs but whether they will find jobs, and not about the attractiveness of their position but that of the expatriate. On the other hand for example many of the personal or target location factors remain the same as for the expatriates.

As the current study has been conducted with business students rather than in a corporate context like many of the studies discussed, there are naturally some adjustments that need to be made concerning the factors affecting the willingness to go abroad. First of all, most of the career and job related variables cannot be measured. The income, career stage and satisfaction, and job and organizational tenure at the time of a possible future international move are not known, and the functional area of the career can be only somewhat derived from the students' current study programs. The same goes for spouse and family factors: although many of the students may already have partners and children, and their parents are getting older, the current family situation is not the same as it will be some years into the future. Furthermore, there can be no concrete examples for factors such as attractiveness of the new position or corporate support. Some of these factors can be dealt with by asking the respondents to simply imagine their situation, but some must also be left out.

Figure 1 below represents a summary of the factors on the willingness to move abroad as discussed in relocation literature. On the left side of the figure are the factors discussed in part 2.2, divided under the factor categories of Personal, Spouse and Family, Job and Career, and Target Location. On the right side is the main type of international work-related move discussed in the literature, the expatriate. The arrows denote the effect the factors have on the willingness to go.

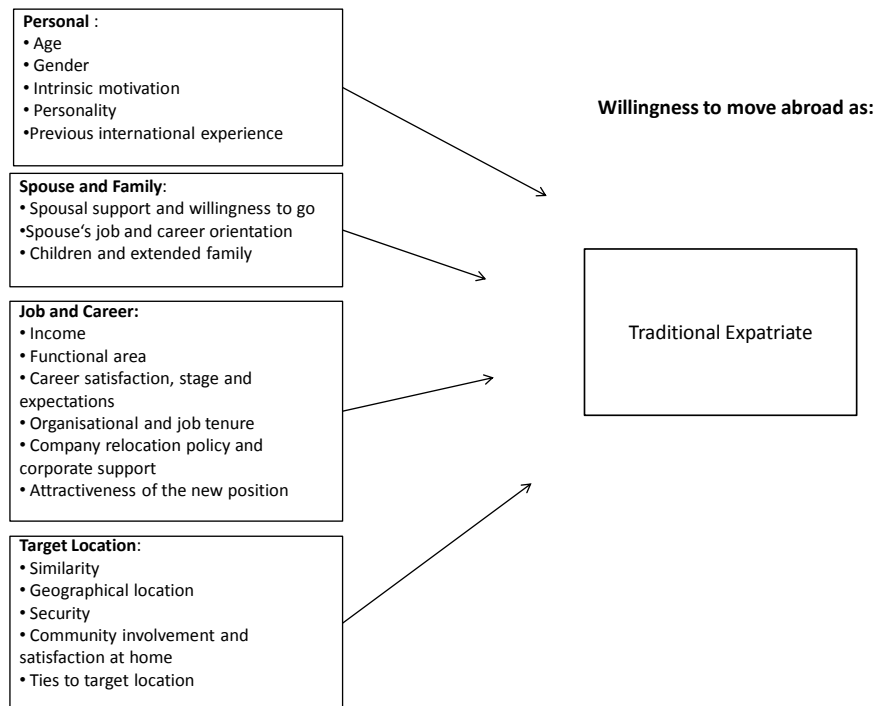


Figure 1. Factors Affecting the Willingness to Move Abroad in Literature

However, this framework cannot be directly applied to this study. First of all, this study includes also two other types of moves abroad less prevalent in the willingness to go literature: the SFE and the spouse. Secondly, as discussed earlier in this chapter, the framework cannot be directly applied to students because of the several factors that simply do not apply to them and are impossible to measure at the current time. Thus, Figure 2 is a modification of Figure 1 and presents the factors studied in this thesis. On the right side of the figure, the two other types of moves have been added. Note the arrow going from spouse to both SFE and expatriate: this represents the effect the willingness of the spouse to go has on the willingness of the expatriate/SFE. For this reason spousal willingness has been removed from the Spouse and Family factors category on the left. There are several other changes to the factors as well. Under Personal Factors personality has been removed due to difficulties of measurement. Instead, a factor called International study program has been added after Previous international experience. An international study program is a type of previous international exposure that can make a student more receptive towards

international moves. Under Spouse and Family no large changes have been made. Only the spouse's career orientation has been left out as it is impossible to measure what it is going to be in the future. The largest changes have been done under Job and Career where only two factors have been left, Company relocation policy and corporate support, as well as Attractiveness of the new position. Under Target Location Community involvement and satisfaction has been omitted, and Similarity and Ties to target location have been combined under Target location familiarity. Figure 2 works as a basis for the current study and more particularly the survey presented in the following chapter, Methodology.

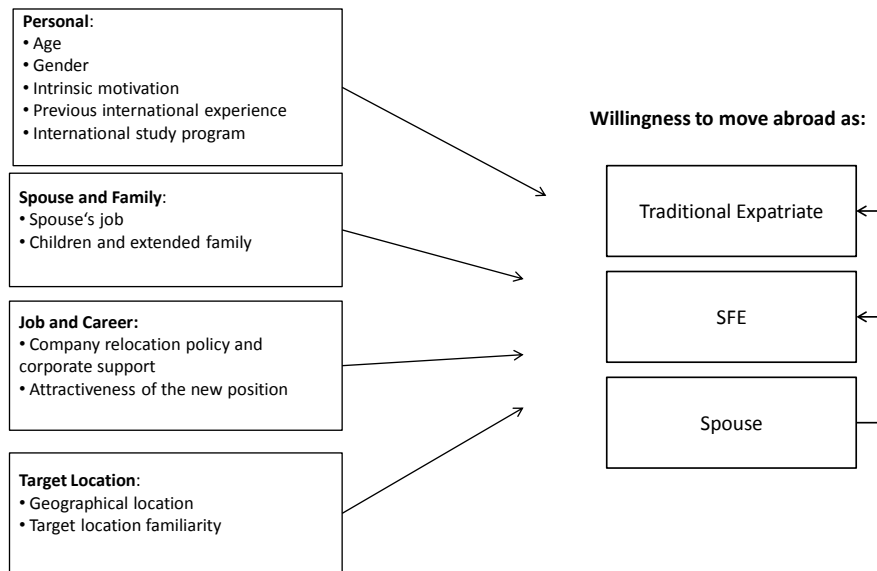


Figure 2. Factors Affecting the Willingness to Move Abroad Modified for the Present Study

3. METHODOLOGY

Because this study aims to give a glimpse into what the current ASE students think about international assignments in the future, and the factors affecting their future decisions, the quantitative method was chosen. More specifically, a survey was created where the students were asked about their willingness to move abroad in the future in different scenarios, and which factors would affect that decision, along with several background questions.

According to Brett and Reilly (1988: 618) the willingness to accept a job-related transfer in the future predicts the actual future relocation decision well.

This chapter will first discuss the sampling procedure used in the study. After that the survey is introduced, and the operationalization of the variables discussed. The statistical analysis methods will also be presented. The final part of the chapter will focus on the research data and its relation to current statistical data on ASE students.

3.1 Sampling

The survey was executed as an internet survey because of the ease of collecting answers and because of geographical constraints: at the time of the study the writer of the thesis lived some 600 km away from the main school in Helsinki. Altogether 166 Aalto School of Economics students answered the survey, of which 8 were omitted because of incomplete answers. The preferred method of contacting prospective respondents would have been through email; however, after discussions with several entities at the university it became clear that email lists that would reach the majority of students were simply not available. Instead, the students were reached in three ways: through email, through the school's career web site and through social media. As incentives for participating in the survey the first 100 respondents were promised a free coffee and pastry ticket to the campus restaurants in Helsinki and Mikkeli, and 10 movie tickets were raffled among all participants.

All the second and third-year students studying in the Mikkeli unit were sent an email asking them to participate in a thesis survey by a fellow student who has also studied in Mikkeli. The first year students could not be contacted due to email list problems related to the school being in process of changing the old HSE emails to Aalto University ones. This email reached 169 students, of whom 50 answered, resulting in a response rate of 29.6%. As stated, email would have been also the preferred way to contact the students in Helsinki but there were no suitable email lists available. Instead, a link to the survey was placed on the school's career services web site that advertises jobs and the school's own career related events. This website is popular among students, but unfortunately there was no data available as to how many views per day or visitors it gets. However, the career services estimated that during semesters around 70-80% of the students visit the website regularly. The number of visitors may have been different due to the timing of the study, though: the link was available on the website for two weeks in the beginning of the fall semester.

The writer of this thesis also advertised the survey on a popular social media website to all her acquaintances at ASE. Furthermore, the students were asked to spread the link forward to any ASE students they might know, resulting in snowball sampling. This advertisement reached 110 students, of whom 32 indicated that they would participate. Although such indication may not lead to actual participation, and some people may have participated without indicating it, these numbers would result in a response rate of 29.1% through social media.

3.2 Survey

The survey consisted of 20 to 23 questions depending on whether the respondent had previous international experience. The survey was first tested on a group of 14 Aalto School of Economics students, who completed it and gave their comments. Based on these comments some new questions were added and the last part of the survey modified. The

final survey can be found as Appendix 1 of this thesis. Next, the survey questions and their linkages to the theoretical framework are explained.

Background information

In the first part of the survey the respondents were asked about their background information. As discussed in part 2.2.1 the effects of gender and age have been widely discussed in the expatriate willingness literature, and were therefore included in the questions. Marital status and the presence of children were asked to see whether the family status of the students would affect their opinion towards international relocations. Although most of the respondents were assumed to have no family of their own yet, those who already have children may have more realistic expectations on their family's effect on international relocations.

The respondents were also asked for some information on their study backgrounds. They were asked to indicate their study year and study program. In addition they were asked whether they had International Business as a minor, whether they were CEMS students or were studying/had studied at the Mikkeli unit. The basis for these questions was the idea that students studying in more international study programs such as International Business or CEMS, or students that study in the very internationally oriented International Business program in Mikkeli would perhaps be more receptive towards international moves.

The last part of the background information was concerning previous international experiences. The students were asked whether they have ever lived outside their home country for longer than two months, and if not, how likely they would see themselves as doing so during their studies. Home country was here defined as the country where the respondent has lived most of their life, or which the respondent feels most familiar with. Abroad was defined as meaning outside the home country. The respondents were also told to think of the country they feel closest to in case they consider themselves as having several home countries. To measure the respondents' intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation for

international moves, as discussed in part 2.2.1, a final question was added where they were asked to rate their motivation for a possible future international move on a scale from 1 to 5 where 1 indicated moving for the monetary and career benefits (extrinsic motivation) and 5 moving for the experience itself (intrinsic motivation).

Previous International Experience

To find out how previous international experience affects willingness to move abroad, those respondents who had indicated having lived outside their home country for longer than two months were asked three questions on their experiences. The respondents were asked for the reasons for any international experiences (exchange during university or previous studies, completing a whole degree abroad, whole family lived abroad, travelling, volunteering, following a spouse, working etc.) and how many such experiences they have (1 to 5+). They were also asked to indicate how positive they felt about their international experiences overall, on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 = not at all positive and 5 = very positive.

International Relocation

In the final part of the survey the respondents were presented with four international relocation scenarios. These scenarios happened “some years after your graduation” and were: 1. the respondent is offered a two-year international assignment by his/her company, 2. the respondent is looking for new challenges and finds an interesting job offer abroad, 3. the respondent’s spouse is offered a two-year international assignment in a country where the respondent probably would be able to find a job, and 4. the respondent’s spouse is offered a two-year international assignment in a country where the respondent probably would not be able to find a job “which would mean an interruption in your career”. The respondent was then asked in each case to indicate how willing or likely in general they would be to move abroad in this scenario on a 5-point scale where 1=not at all likely/willing and 5=very likely/willing.

After the scenario the respondent was presented with a list of factors and was asked to indicate how much they think the factors would affect their decision in this scenario on a 5-point scale where 1=not at all and 5=very much. For the expatriation scenario these factors were: geographical location, familiarity of the target location (lived there before, knows the language etc.), the position offered on the assignment, career possibilities upon return, family situation at the time (children or elderly parents), spouse's willingness to move, spouse's career situation in the home country, spouse's career possibilities in the target location, pay and other benefits offered during the assignment, and level of corporate support. The factors for the other scenarios were modified from these factors. The factors for the self-initiated international move omitted clearly expatriate factors like the level of corporate support. The factors for the spouse's expatriate assignment scenarios were modified so that in effect the roles of the expatriate and the spouse were reversed, i.e. the position offered on assignment became the position offered to your spouse on assignment, the spouse's career situation in the home country became the respondent's career situation in the home country etc. In addition the last (non-working spouse) scenario substituted the respondent's career possibilities in the target with the respondent's possibilities for self-development during the assignment (further education, training etc.).

At the end of the survey the respondents were able to leave any additional comments. They were also asked for their contact details in case they want to receive incentives or participate in the raffle. They were also assured that the contact details would in no way be associated with their answers.

3.3 Operationalization of Dependent and Independent Variables

The background factors asked in the first part of the survey largely corresponded to the personal factors presented in the theoretical framework in Figure 2 in part 2.3. These

factors became the independent variables for the analysis. The rest of the factors, i.e. those asked in the international move scenarios, became the dependent variables.

For the purposes of the statistical analysis some summary variables were created from the independent variables. Marital status was replaced with a variable called Committed relationship, where those respondents who were married or living with someone were coded as being in a committed relationship, and others single. A summary variable called International study background was created from the Study program, IB Minor, Mikkeli and CEMS variables: if the student studied either International Business or International Business Communication, or had International Business as a minor, or had studied in Mikkeli, or was a CEMS student, the student was considered to have an international study background. To allow for a t-test on intrinsic motivation, this item that was originally on a scale from 1 to 5 was recoded so that a response of 1 or 2 indicated extrinsic motivation and 4 or 5 intrinsic motivation for an international move.

3.4 Statistical Analysis Methods

The results were analyzed with two main statistical analysis methods: correlations to see which factors affect the willingness to move abroad, as well as t-tests to see whether there are differences in the dependent factors and willingness between student groups that differ from each other in the independent factors. Also basic statistical analysis like means and standard deviations were used, especially when analyzing the importance of the dependent variables to the respondents.

Correlation analysis is used to measure relationships between variables. The correlation coefficient can vary from -1 to 1, with -1 meaning a perfect negative linear relationship, 0 denoting no relationship between the variables, and 1 denoting a perfect linear relationship. The most used correlation is the Pearson correlation (r) used also in this study. Although

correlation shows the relationship between two variables, it does not show which variable affects which, as the correlations are symmetrical. (Garson, G.D. 24.3.2008)

The t-test is used to make statements on the means of parent populations. It is based on the Student's t statistic, which assumes the variable to be normally distributed and the mean to be known. As in this study, it is often used to test whether the means of two samples differ, but can also measure a single variable against a given standard. The null hypothesis is that the means are equal. If the null hypothesis is rejected, the samples differ from each other. Using the t test requires the distribution be close to normal distribution, and the variances of the two samples to be roughly the same size. If they are unequal, the exact t cannot be computed, but an approximation is used. (Malhotra & Birks 2003, 469-72)

3.5 Research Data

The survey respondents included students from two Aalto School of Economics locations: the main school situated in Helsinki and the International Business Bachelor's program situated in Mikkeli, Eastern Finland. The Mikkeli unit differs considerably from the main school in that only around 80 students are selected each year to study in the 2.5-year Bachelor's program taught in English. The study year consists of 3-week long course modules taught by visiting professors from around the world. The unit very much emphasizes internationality, and a foreign exchange term is mandatory for the students.

The final sample size was 154, of whom 50 were currently studying at the Mikkeli unit and the rest at the main school in Helsinki. 38% of the respondents were male and 62% female. Respondents' age varied from 18 to 32, with the medium age being 23.5. Because of the large number of students from the Mikkeli unit, 41.8% of the respondents had International Business as their study program. Table 7 compares the survey respondents with statistical data on ASE students from September 2009.

Table 7. Survey respondents compared to ASE student data

	Survey (n=158)	Survey without Mikkeli (n=108)	ASE 2009 (n=3253)
Male	38,0 %	36,1 %	56,4 %
Female	62,0 %	63,9 %	43,6 %
Study program			
Accounting	7,0 %	10,2 %	15,4 %
Business Law	1,3 %	1,9 %	4,1 %
Business Technology	1,3 %	1,9 %	6,2 %
Economics	5,1 %	7,4 %	9,3 %
Entrepreneurship	1,9 %	2,8 %	0,8 %
Finance	6,3 %	9,3 %	9,6 %
Finnish Business Communication	3,2 %	4,6 %	0,4 %
Information and Service Management	3,2 %	4,6 %	3,6 %
International Business	41,8 %	15,7 %	13,4 %
International Business Communication	5,1 %	7,4 %	1,6 %
Logistics	1,9 %	2,8 %	1,0 %
Management	8,9 %	12,0 %	9,2 %
Marketing	8,2 %	12,0 %	11,1 %
Retail	1,3 %	1,9 %	0,9 %
Strategy	0,6 %	0,9 %	New*
No program yet	3,2 %	4,6 %	13,3 %

* The strategy program was started 2010.

Table 7 includes a column where the respondents that currently study in Mikkeli have been ignored (since they all have International Business as their study program) to give an idea of the study program distribution among those respondents that study at the main school in Helsinki. As can be seen from the table, the gender distribution in this study differs from that of the school: while 56% of the ASE students are men, their amount in this study was only 38%. This may be partly because the study's IHRM subject traditionally interests women more than men, and thus they have been more willing to answer the survey. Looking at the study programs we can also see that some study programs that are male-

dominated in ASE, like Accounting, Economics or Business Technology, have a smaller percentage of respondents than actual students at the school. Similarly female-dominated programs like Business Communication (both Finnish and International) or Management have more respondents.

In general the survey respondents' study programs seem to mirror those of all ASE students fairly well if the current Mikkeli students are ignored. The disproportionately small number of those who have not chosen their program yet can be explained with the small number of first year students that responded to the survey. The survey was conducted in the first few weeks of the semester and the new students, having just started their studies, were probably not familiar or interested in the school's career web site. They also probably had few contacts among older students in their social networks, and so did not receive the link through the social media site either. In addition, as already stated, there were problems in Mikkeli regarding email lists which is why the first year students in Mikkeli did not receive the email.

The lack of first year students can also be seen in Table 8 which presents the study year distribution of the respondents. As can be seen from this table, there is a similar percentage of students from study years 2 to 5, but a third of the respondents were in their 6th or more study year! For this there are three possible explanations, all of which probably have a role in the result. First of all, the invitation in the social media site mainly reached older students, since the social network of the writer of this thesis and her friends mainly consists of students in their last study years. Second, students nearing their graduation are more likely to visit the school's CareerWeb site in general, and especially in early autumn, a time period when summer jobs for the younger students are not yet being advertised. Third, students planning or currently working on their own thesis are likely to be more sympathetic and helpful towards a fellow student's thesis, and consequently more likely to answer the survey.

Table 8. Study year distribution of the respondents

Study year (n=158)	
1	3,2 %
2	17,1 %
3	19,6 %
4	13,3 %
5	13,9 %
6	22,2 %
7+	10,8 %

In summary, the sample was more female, more in their last study years and more oriented towards international study programs than the students at ASE in general. This may mean that generalizing the results to all students at ASE and especially all study programs should be done with caution. However, as discussed next in part 4.1., the responses of the main school respondents and the Mikkeli respondents do not differ as much as could be expected. As Table 7 has already showed, the distribution of the main school students in different study programs is relatively similar among the main school respondents of this study and the actual school. The small number of respondents from some study programs does not allow for comparisons between them, though. It should be also noted that although the students in their last study years may not accurately represent the opinions of all students, their willingness to accept international assignments in the future may be more indicative of willingness when graduated than that of the students in their first study years.

4. RESULTS

4.1 General Willingness to Relocate

In general, the ASE students were very interested in working abroad in the future. Table 9 presents the means and standard deviations for general willingness to move abroad as an expatriate, SFE, working spouse and non-working spouse.

Table 9. General willingness to move abroad, means and standard deviations.

n=158	Expatriate		SFE		Working Spouse		Non-Working Spouse	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
General willingness	4,0	0,92	3,8	1,04	4,2	0,81	2,6	0,98

From the table we can see that ASE students are in fact most willing to move abroad in the future as a working spouse. This can be because even students who would otherwise not seek out opportunities to internationalize, and even might decline and expatriate assignment, are willing to compromise for their spouses provided they would be likely to find a job in the target location. 79.8% of the respondents would be generally willing to move abroad as a working spouse, as indicated by them answering 4 or 5 on the scale of 1=not at all willing to 5=very willing. On the other hand, the willingness to move abroad as a non-working spouse is very low, the mean is 2.6, and only 19.6% answered 4 or 5 on this question. It would seem that for business students, career is so important that they are not willing to sacrifice even a few years for their partner's career. This is an important finding, since working and non-working spouses are often just labeled under "spouses" both in IHRM literature and in companies and not really distinguished from each other. The result indicates that the respondents see the situations of a working and a non-working spouse as completely different.

When it comes to expatriate willingness, the mean (4.0) is again quite high, indicating that the students are quite willing to accept expatriate assignments in the future. 72.2% of the respondents answered 4 or above for this question. For a self-directed foreign assignment this number was also fairly high, 67.1%. Thus, two thirds of the students would be willing to apply for an interesting job abroad in the future. The mean for this item was 3.8.

However, the standard deviation for SFE willingness is greater than for any of the other three methods of internationalization (1.04 vs. 0.92 for expatriate, 0.81 for working spouse and 0.98 for non-working spouse), indicating larger differences in individual answers than for the three other items.

Because such a large number of the respondents were studying at the Mikkeli unit at the time of the survey, and because this unit is very international, it is possible that this has affected the general willingness results. For this reason Table 10 presents the general willingness means and standard deviations for the respondents when the respondents currently studying in Mikkeli are ignored.

Table 10. General willingness to move abroad without current Mikkeli students, means and standard deviations.

n=109	Expatriate		SFE		Working Spouse		Non-Working Spouse	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
General willingness	3,9	0,96	3,7	1,07	4,3	0,77	2,8	1,06

Table 10 shows that the general willingness to go among the main school students is very close to the one of all respondents (see Table 9). The expatriate and SFE willingness means are only 0.1 points smaller and the working spouse mean 0.1 points higher. The non-working spouse mean is 0.2 points higher for the main school students. These differences are so small that they are not likely to be statistically significant. For this reason in the rest of the analysis the whole respondent group is used, as including the current Mikkeli students does not seem to bias the results significantly.

Table 11 presents the means and standard deviations of the dependent factors affecting the willingness to go. The three factors having the highest means for each type of international moves have been bolded in the table. The factors that are not relevant for the type of move have been marked with “na” in place of the mean and standard deviation. Also note that the spouse factors always refer to the spouse and never to the expatriate, for example Spouse’s career situation in the home country could for working and non-working spouse columns also be called “Your career situation in the home country”.

Table 11. Factors affecting the willingness to go, means and standard deviations.

n=158 Factors	Expatriate		SFE		Working Spouse		Non-Working Spouse	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Geographical location	4,1	0,94	4,3	0,87	3,8	1,13	3,9	1,27
Familiarity of the location	2,9	1,11	3,3	1,07	3,1	1,13	3,3	1,31
The position offered to the expatriate	4,1	0,76	4,6	0,59	3,6	1,09	4,0	1,24
Expatriate's career possibilities upon return	3,9	0,94	3,8	0,97	3,4	1,10	3,7	1,26
Family situation	4,2	0,96	4,1	0,97	4,1	0,93	4,1	1,12
Spouse’s willingness	4,0	1,02	4,1	0,98	na	na	na	na
Spouse’s career situation in the home country	3,6	1,02	3,7	1,02	4,1	0,87	4,4	0,91
Spouse’s career possibilities in the target location	3,7	0,98	3,8	0,93	4,2	0,83	na	na
The pay and other benefits offered during the assignment	3,9	0,85	4,2	0,71	3,6	1,10	4,3	1,04
Corporate support	3,1	0,97	na	na	3,0	1,03	3,0	1,13
Non-working spouse's possibilities for self-development	na	na	na	na	na	na	4,4	1,00

From Table 11 we can see that in general the respondents would consider several factors when making a decision to move abroad, as indicated by the relatively high means of most of the factors. We can also see that the most important factors considered while making a decision differ from type of international move to another. For the decision to move abroad as an expatriate the most important factors are Family situation, Geographical location and Position offered to expatriate, which all have a mean of 4.1 or above. In the case of SFE the factors include again Position offered and Geographical location, but also Pay and other benefits. In this case especially the position seems important, as the mean is 4.6 and standard deviation only 0.59. Also note that in the case of the SFE five of the nine factors have means over 4.0, indicating that in a SFE situation more factors are considered carefully before making the decision.

In the case of a working spouse, the factors with the highest means are Spouse's (i.e. the respondent's) career possibilities in the target, Spouse's career situation in the home country and Family situation. For the non-working spouse situation the three factors are Spouse's career situation in the home country, Pay and benefits offered to the expatriate, and Non-working spouse's (respondent's) possibilities for self-development, which all have means over 4.3. The different factors and their means will be discussed further in sections 4.2 to 4.5.

Overall the results show that the factors considered when making an international move decision are different depending on the type of the move. This is especially true when the expatriate and SFE situations are compared to the spousal move situations. It seems that even though working spouses could be considered a subset of SFEs (as discussed in part 2.1.2) the students that responded in this survey see these two situations as distinctly different, as highlighted by the very different factors considered important when making the move decision.

Table 12 presents the correlations of the general willingness items in this study. The general willingness of different types of international moves tends to correlate. The strongest correlation ($r=0.59$, $p<0.0001$) is between expatriate and SFE willingness. Expatriate willingness is also correlated with working spouse willingness ($r=0.44$, $p<0.0001$) and slightly with non-working spouse willingness ($r=0.16$, $p=0.043$). SFE willingness is also correlated with working-spouse willingness, though not very strongly ($r=0.21$, $p=0.008$), but is not correlated with non-working spouse willingness. However, there is a fairly strong correlation between working and non-working spouse willingness ($r=0.54$, $p<0.001$).

Table 12. Correlations of the general willingness items (r and p)

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Expatriate willingness	1,00	0,59 <0,0001*	0,44 <0,0001*	0,16 0,0432*
SFE willingness		1,00	0,21 0,0083*	0,14 0,085
Working-spouse willingness			1,00	0,54 <0,0001*
Non-working spouse willingness				1,00

4.2 Effects of Personal Factors

4.2.1 Age

The respondents' ages varied from 18 to 32 years, the mean being 23.5, median 24 and mode 21. Table 13 presents the correlation of age with several other variables. The correlations of age with study year and committed relationship are common-sensical: the older students are likely to be in a higher study year and more likely to be in a committed relationship. Of the types of international moves, age seems to be correlated with non-

working spouse willingness. However, this most likely derives from age being correlated with committed relationship, as being in a committed relationship was found to correlate with non-working spouse willingness (see Table 30).

Table 13. Correlations of age (r and p).

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
Age	0,08 0,348	1,00	0,16 0,0474*	0,68 <0,0001*	0,03 0,737	0,11 0,164	-0,15 0,054

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
Age	0,04 0,606	-0,33 <0,0001*	-0,22 0,091	0,03 0,696	0,20 0,035	0,10 0,277

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Age	-0,03 0,682	-0,10 0,210	0,12 0,122	0,25 0,0015*

The correlation of age and previous international experience can be explained with the younger students having not had as many opportunities for living abroad yet as their older colleagues. The correlation shows as negative because of the coding of the Previous international experience factor in the survey. Table 14 shows the correlations of age with the different types of previous international experience. Here we can see that the older students are more likely to have been on university exchange, done an internship or worked abroad.

Table 14. Correlations of age with types of previous international experience (r and p).

	Family lived abroad	High school exchange	University exchange	Degree abroad	Internship abroad	Worked abroad	Spouse	Travelled abroad	Other
Age	0,01 0,913	0,05 0,560	0,40 <0,0001*	0,08 0,324	0,21 0,0078*	0,24 0,0027*	0,13 0,108	0,15 0,061	0,07 0,356

Although it seems that students' age has no effect on the general willingness to move abroad (except through being in a committed relationship), this result does not provide conclusive evidence on the effects of age in general. The respondents were all students and their ages were all within 14 years of each other. Thus the sample is not comparable to potential expatriates, who are usually older and come from a larger variety of age groups.

4.2.2 Gender

Table 15 shows the correlations of gender with several other variables. Gender was not found to correlate with any of the types of international moves. The only correlation seems to be with intrinsic motivation: women are more likely to have intrinsic motivation for an international move. Also this correlation is fairly small, though ($r^2=-0.18$, $p=0.024$). From Table 16 we can see that gender does not correlate with any of the types of previous international moves either.

Table 15. Correlations of gender (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
Gender	1,00	0,08	-0,01	-0,11	-0,04	-0,05	0,13
		0,348	0,9043	0,154	0,594	0,543	0,112

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
Gender	0,08	0,15	-0,08	-0,18	-0,11	0,14
	0,307	0,062	0,562	0,0238*	0,251	0,128

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Gender	0,04	0,11	-0,10	-0,12
	0,596	0,166	0,226	0,146

Table 16. Correlations of gender and types of previous international moves (r and p).

	Family lived abroad	High school exchange	University exchange	Degree abroad	Internship abroad	Worked abroad	Spouse	Travelled abroad	Other
Gender	-0,15	0,02	-0,12	0,02	-0,03	-0,09	0,03	0,01	-0,11
	0,061	0,843	0,147	0,786	0,669	0,262	0,726	0,902	0,189

To see whether the female and male respondents differ in which factors affect their willingness to move internationally a t-test was run on the variables. Appendix 2 presents the results of this analysis with the means and standard deviations for both groups, and the significances. Again, the analysis shows no differences between the genders on the willingness to move abroad. Although the willingness for expatriate and SFE assignments seems to be higher among male respondents (means of 4.1 and 4.0 compared to 4.0 and 3.7 for female respondents), and the willingness for spousal moves higher among female participants (means of 4.2 and 2.7 compared to 4.1 and 2.5), these differences are not statistically significant at the 95% level.

As can be seen from Appendix 2, although gender has no effect on the general willingness to move abroad, it does have an effect on some of the factors that are considered when making the decision. There are no differences on the factors when it comes to traditional expatriation. In the case of SFE, there is one difference, namely the SFE position offered which women rate as more important than men (mean of 4.7 vs. 4.4, $p=0.004$). Under working spouse willingness there is again only one difference: expatriate pay and benefits, which again has a higher mean for female than male respondents (3.8 vs. 3.4, $p=0.01$). Contrary to earlier findings by Landau et al. (1992: 674) and Bielby & Bielby (1992: 1259), there are no differences in the spouse's career factors between the genders in any of the situations: both female and male respondents rate them equally important.

Where the main differences between women and men can be found is under non-working spouse willingness. Although both female and male respondents are as unwilling to move abroad in the role of a non-working spouse, there are differences in the factors affecting this decision. In fact, there are significant differences in all of the factors except Geographical location and Expatriate position offered, with women having higher means throughout. A possible explanation for this is that since men are so unwilling to move abroad as a non-working spouse, they feel that the factors presented are not going to influence their decision very much and thus rate them lower. Women on the other hand are also unwilling to go, but see this decision as being more conditional to other factors: they would consider the factors and let them influence the decision. This viewpoint was present in some of the open comments left by the female respondents. For example one of them stated that although she would be otherwise unwilling to go as a non-working spouse, she would be willing to do this for a year or two as a part of, or an extension to, a maternity leave.

Even though Lowe et al. (1999: 228-9) found differences in which countries female and male students were willing to move to, there were no differences between genders found in the t-test on how likely the geographical location would be to influence the international move decision. On the other hand, both genders rated geography consistently fairly high so

it is considered an important factor when making the decision. It seems neither gender is willing to accept a move to any destination.

In summary, it seems that gender does not affect the willingness to move abroad among ASE students, similar to the findings of Adler (1984: 70) and Wang and Bu (2004: 658) on Canadian business students. There are some gender differences on the factors that would influence the decision, although none in the case of a traditional expatriate assignment. The differences are the largest in the case of moving abroad as a non-working spouse, where women would consider almost all of the factors as having a higher influence.

4.2.3 Intrinsic Motivation

In general the respondents rated quite highly on the scale of intrinsic motivation vs. extrinsic motivation. On a scale where 5=intrinsic motivation and 1=extrinsic motivation the mean was 3.6 with both median and mode being 4. When divided into groups of extrinsic motivation (answered 1 or 2 in the survey) and intrinsic motivation (4 or 5), we find that only 15.44% of the respondents fall into the extrinsic motivation group and 59.73% have intrinsic motivation for international moves. It could be thought that this is the result of the large number of respondents with an international study background in this study, but as can be seen in Table 17 discussed below, intrinsic motivation does not correlate with any of the international study programs, nor with previous international experience.

Table 17 presents the correlations of intrinsic motivation with other variables. As already stated, intrinsic motivation seems to have a slight correlation with gender. Interestingly there is also a small negative correlation with committed relationship. Perhaps those in a committed relationship would be more likely to state money and benefits as their primary motivation for going abroad, and less likely to go abroad just because of the experience itself since they also have a spouse to consider. Intrinsic motivation is also positively

correlated with future international experience, i.e. those students with intrinsic motivation for international moves are more likely to plan an exchange period or a foreign internship during the rest of their studies. Somewhat surprising is that intrinsic motivation is not correlated with any of the types of international study background. Table 18 shows that there are also no correlations between intrinsic motivation and types of previous international experience.

Table 17. Correlations of intrinsic motivation (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
Intr. Motivation	-0,18 0,0238*	0,03 0,696	-0,16 0,0459*	0,06 0,500	0,10 0,213	0,08 0,319	0,01 0,939

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
Intr. Motivation	0,04 0,647	-0,01 0,949	0,38 0,0027*	1,00	0,17 0,079	0,00 0,978

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Intr. Motivation	0,28 0,0005*	0,30 0,0003*	0,23 0,0043*	0,21 0,0116*

Table 18. Correlations of intrinsic motivation with types of previous international experience (r and p)

	Family lived abroad	High school exchange	University exchange	Degree abroad	Internship abroad	Worked abroad	Spouse	Travelled abroad	Other
Intr. Motivation	0,04 0,647	-0,04 0,652	0,01 0,371	0,00 0,990	0,12 0,156	0,10 0,221	0,04 0,589	0,06 0,499	-0,13 0,115

As can also be seen from Table 17, intrinsic motivation is correlated with the willingness of every type of international move. The correlation is the strongest with SFE willingness ($r=0.30$, $p=0.0003$), and almost as strong with expatriate willingness ($r=0.28$, $p=0.0005$).

The correlations with spousal moves are smaller but nevertheless exist and are significant ($r=0.23, p=0.004$ and $r=0.21, p=0.0116$). This is especially interesting in the case of non-working spouse willingness: even though the students are generally unwilling to move abroad as a non-working spouse, those with a higher intrinsic motivation for international moves are more likely to accept such a situation.

To see the differences on the factors affecting an international move decision between the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation students a t-test was run. Appendix 3 presents the results of this t-test. Note that $n=112$ because the intrinsic motivation variable excludes students who answered 3 on the original survey question (see part 3.1 for an explanation on the creation of new variables). As the correlations already showed, students with intrinsic motivation are more likely to engage in all of the types of international moves in the future.

As can be seen in the t-test results, intrinsic motivation does seem to have an effect on which factors affect the move decision, but these factors are somewhat different depending on the type of international move. When it comes to traditional expatriation, the expatriate position offered (mean 4.5 vs. 4.0, $p=0.014$) and the career possibilities upon return (4.3 vs. 3.6, $p=0.001$) are both less important to students with intrinsic motivation. The same result can be seen in the SFE move, where in addition also the SFE pay and benefits (4.4 vs. 4.0, $p=0.013$) are found to be more important by those with extrinsic motivation. It seems that the students who are the most motivated to go abroad base their motivation on other factors than the position or benefits, and are less concerned of their career situation upon return.

In the case of working spouse willingness, the extrinsic motivation students find their own career at home and their partner's (the expatriate's) career possibilities upon return to be significantly more important than the intrinsic motivation group (4.6 vs. 4.0, $p=0.001$, and 3.7 vs. 3.1, $p=0.01$ respectively). However, when we look at the t-test results for non-working spouse, the factors are quite different. In this case the intrinsic motivation students place much more emphasis on the geographical location of the assignment (3.1 vs. 4.0,

p=0.005). Since their main motivation for moving abroad is the experience itself, perhaps they would be more willing to move as a non-working spouse to a location that is “exciting” enough. Somewhat surprisingly there was also a significant difference in corporate support, with those with intrinsic motivation finding this factor more important.

4.2.4 Previous International Experience

Altogether 116 respondents (73.4%) indicated having lived abroad previously for a minimum of two months at a time. Among those who had lived abroad the average number of such experiences was 2, with 44.8% having only one such experience and 85.3% having 1 to 3. The experiences were rated very positively, with a mean of 4.53 on a scale from 1 to 5. Table 19 shows the types of previous international moves and their popularity.

Table 19. Types of previous international moves and their popularity

n=116	no.	% of prev. experience	% of all respondents
Family lived abroad	24	20,7 %	15,2 %
High school exchange	20	17,2 %	12,7 %
University exchange	88	75,9 %	55,7 %
Degree abroad	12	10,3 %	7,6 %
Internship abroad	18	15,5 %	11,4 %
Worked abroad	16	13,8 %	10,1 %
Volunteer	0	0,0 %	0,0 %
Spouse	2	1,7 %	1,3 %
Travelled abroad	23	19,8 %	14,6 %
Other	7	6,0 %	4,4 %

The most popular type of previous international experience was by far university exchange, completed by 75.9% of those with previous international experience (55.7% of all respondents), followed by whole family living abroad and travelling. There were no respondents who had done volunteer work so volunteering was left out of further analyses. The most popular answers to Other were having started (but not finished) university abroad and sports.

Table 20 shows how previous international experience correlates with other variables. Because in the survey the question was coded as 1=yes and 2=no, the existing correlations are negative in the table. Note also that Number of international experiences and Positivity of experience have been left blank since they were only answered by respondents who had indicated having previous international experience.

Table 20. Correlations of Previous international experience (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
Intl. experience	0,15 0,062	-0,33 <0,0001*	0,02 0,819	-0,36 <0,0001*	-0,04 0,629	-0,18 0,0249*	-0,25 0,0014*

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
Intl. experience	-0,37 <0,0001*	1,00	-0,23 0,084	-0,01 0,949	n/a	n/a

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Intl. experience	-0,14 0,079	-0,07 0,410	-0,15 0,053	-0,24 0,0029*

The correlations between previous international experience with age and study year are explained by the fact that the older students have had more possibilities for international experience for example through university exchange. Previous international experience also seems to be related to CEMS, Mikkeli and international study experience. There are two explanations for this: first, CEMS and Mikkeli are programs that require the participant to have an international experience during the program (university exchange for Mikkeli, university exchange and internship for CEMS). Second, students with previous international experience may be more interested in international studies and have for this reason decided for these programs.

Previous international experience does not correlate with most of the types of international moves. The only correlation is for non-working spouse willingness: it seems that those with previous international experience are more willing to go abroad as a non-working spouse. This can also be seen in Appendix 4, which presents the t-test results for previous international experience with the factors affecting the decision.

The t-test results show that there are not many differences between the students with previous international experience and those with no previous international experience. In addition to non-working spouse willingness, also the difference in working spouse willingness is almost significant (4.3 vs. 4.0, $p=0.053$), with students with previous international experience more willing to go. Otherwise the only difference is in Corporate support: in the case of an expatriate move the students with international experience do not feel that the factor is as important as those with no international experience (means 3.0 vs. 3.4, $p=0.01$). The difference in Corporate support is also almost significant in the case of a working spouse move (2.9 vs. 3.3, $p=0.053$).

Table 21 shows the correlations of the types of previous international experience and types of international moves. Expatriate and SFE willingness do not correlate with most of the types of previous international experience. There is only one exception, travelling, which is linked to SFE willingness. Perhaps students who have travelled abroad for longer than two months are more independent or adventurous and therefore are also more willing to move abroad of their own initiative. More correlations can be found in the cases of working spouse willingness and non-working spouse willingness. Having lived abroad with the whole family is positively correlated with both. Students who have lived abroad with their family have had an example of a working or a non-working spouse in their own family and are perhaps for this reason more acceptable towards such a situation. However, also university exchange has similar positive correlations with both types of spousal moves. Having worked or travelled abroad correlates positively with non-working spouse willingness. Finally, having lived abroad as a trailing spouse before has a small positive

correlation with non-working spouse willingness. Surprisingly, high school exchange, degree abroad and internship abroad do not correlate with any of the types of international moves.

Table 21. Correlations of types of previous international experience and types of international moves (r and p)

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Family lived abroad	0,15	0,01	0,19	0,17
	0,055	0,880	0,0186*	0,0319*
High school exchange	0,06	0,02	0,05	0,04
	0,439	0,832	0,495	0,613
University exchange	0,11	0,08	0,19	0,17
	0,166	0,335	0,0191*	0,0314*
Degree abroad	-0,13	0,10	-0,06	0,10
	0,104	0,208	0,417	0,195
Internship abroad	-0,02	0,09	0,09	0,05
	0,787	0,275	0,256	0,547
Worked abroad	-0,02	0,02	0,11	0,19
	0,776	0,773	0,188	0,0197*
As a spouse	0,06	0,08	0,04	0,16
	0,443	0,341	0,581	0,0499*
Travelled abroad	0,12	0,18	0,08	0,19
	0,144	0,0218*	0,296	0,0195*
Other	-0,13	-0,14	-0,01	-0,05
	0,094	0,085	0,893	0,553

Table 22 presents the correlations of the number of international experiences with other variables. The table shows that the variable is correlated with CEMS and also with working spouse willingness. The latter is perhaps due to the correlations of family having lived abroad with willingness for spousal moves presented above, as those students who have lived abroad with their family are likely to also have a larger number of previous international experiences. The amount of previous international experience is not correlated with the other types of international moves. Table 23 presents the correlations of the positivity of previous international experiences with other variables. This analysis shows us

that positive previous experiences are linked to expatriate and SFE willingness, but not to spousal moves. Furthermore, Table 24 shows us that positive previous international experiences correlates with having done a university exchange, and has a negative correlation with the “Other” type of previous international experience. Thus it seems that the students find their university exchange experiences very positive, and that the positivity of previous international experiences affects the willingness to move abroad in the future more than the number of such experiences.

Table 22. Correlations of number of international experiences (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
No. of experiences	-0,11 0,251	0,20 0,035	0,80 0,393	0,17 0,063	-0,09 0,311	0,28 0,0020*	-0,14 0,126

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
No. of experiences	0,00 0,975	n/a	-0,10 0,697	0,17 0,079	1,00	-0,02 0,847

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
No. of experiences	0,16 0,089	0,17 0,064	0,21 0,0207*	0,16 0,089

Table 23. Correlations of positivity of international experiences (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
Positivity of experiences	0,14 0,128	0,10 0,277	-0,16 0,079	0,22 0,0186*	-0,07 0,485	-0,02 0,812	-0,10 0,272

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
Positivity of experiences	0,00 0,991	n/a	-0,10 0,694	0,00 0,978	-0,02 0,847	1,00

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Positivity of experiences	0,25 0,0066*	0,22 0,0203*	0,06 0,497	-0,08 0,368

Table 24. Correlations of positivity of international experiences with types of previous international experience (r and p)

	Family lived abroad	High school exchange	University exchange	Degree abroad	Internship abroad	Worked abroad	Spouse	Travelled abroad	Other
Positivity of experiences	-0,06 0,531	-0,02 0,800	0,24 0,0088*	-0,19 0,043	0,12 0,194	-0,06 0,532	-0,01 0,941	0,06 0,552	-0,37 <0,0001*

Future International Experience During Studies

Because a part of the survey respondents were in their first study years and had perhaps not had the possibility to go for example on a university exchange yet, the students with no previous international experience were asked how likely they would be to move abroad for over two months during the rest of their studies. The mean score for this item was 4.25, indicating a very high willingness to acquire international experience during studies among those with no previous international experience. Table 25 shows the correlations of future international experience with other variables.

Table 25. Correlations of future international experience (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
Future intl. experience	-0,08 0,562	-0,22 0,091	-0,17 0,207	-0,34 0,0075*	0,11 0,420	0,13 0,318	0,46 0,0002*

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
Future intl. experience	0,50 <0,0001*	-0,23 0,084	1,00	0,38 0,0027*	-0,10 0,697	-0,10 0,694

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Future intl. experience	0,37 0,0038*	0,45 0,0003*	0,41 0,0012*	0,32 0,0135*

The negative correlation of future international experience and study year is understandable in that the respondents in their last study years have less time to engage in international experience during the rest of their studies. The correlations with Mikkeli and international study experience are also fairly self-explanatory, especially as an international exchange is a requirement for those studying in Mikkeli and recommended for international business students. Planning an international experience during the studies also correlates with intrinsic motivation.

The intent to move abroad during studies for two months or more is also correlated with all of the types of international moves. The correlation is the strongest with SFE ($r^2=0.45$, $p=0.0003$) and almost as strong with working spouse ($r^2=0.41$, $p=0.0012$). Even the unpopular non-working spouse move is correlated with planning a near-future international experience ($r^2=0.32$, $p=0.0135$). Interestingly, these correlations are stronger than intrinsic motivation, previous international experience or any of the types of previous international experience had with the types of international moves. Perhaps this reflects some kind of an

idealistic image of moving abroad shared by those with no previous international experience but high willingness to acquire some.

4.2.5 International Study Program

As described in 3.1 a new variable was created to see the effect of international study background on international move willingness. The variable was called International study experience. This variable includes students that had either international business or international business communication as their major, or had international business as a minor, or had studied in Mikkeli or were CEMS. Table 26 shows the correlations of this variable with other variables. Note that correlations with IB minor, CEMS and Mikkeli are not included because they have been a part of creating the variable.

Table 26. Correlations of international study experience (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
Intl study exp.	0,08 0,307	0,04 0,606	-0,18 0,0211*	-0,11 0,184	n/a	n/a	n/a

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
Intl study exp.	1,00	-0,37 <0,0001*	0,50 <0,0001*	0,04 0,647	0,00 0,975	0,00 0,991

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Intl study exp.	0,19 0,0197*	0,22 0,0047*	0,17 0,0301*	0,09 0,282

International study experience is correlated both with previous international experience and planned future international experience during studies. It is also slightly correlated with

three of the four types of future international moves: expatriate, SFE and working spouse. However, it has no correlation with non-working spouse willingness. This implies that although students who have an international study background are more willing to move abroad in the future to work, they are just as unwilling to move as a non-working spouse as other students. Table 27 shows that international study experience correlates with having completed a high school exchange, a university exchange or a whole degree abroad.

Table 27. Correlations of international study experience with types of previous international experience (r and p)

	Family lived abroad	High school exchange	University exchange	Degree abroad	Internship abroad	Worked abroad	Spouse	Travelled abroad	Other
Intl study exp.	-0,04 0,587	0,21 0,0078*	0,30 0,0001*	0,17 0,034*	0,07 0,407	0,08 0,308	0,09 0,281	0,09 0,256	-0,03 0,732

Appendix 5 presents the results of a t-test on international study background and the factors affecting an international move decision. Interestingly, there are no differences in factors considered important when it comes to a SFE, working spouse or non-working spouse situation, but there are some in the case of an expatriate move. The expatriate's career possibilities upon return are more important to those students who have studied in international study programs (means of 3.6 vs. 4.0, $p=0.01$). The two spousal factors, spouse's career at home (3.8 vs. 3.5, $p=0.02$) and spouse's career possibilities at target (3.9 vs.. 3.6, $p=0.03$), are thought more important by the students with no international study background. This seems to indicate that the students participating in international study programs are more focused on their career and thus perhaps place less emphasis on family issues. On the other hand, the differences are only significant in the expatriate situation and not to be found in other international move situations.

Mikkeli

Because of the very international nature of the BScBA program in Mikkeli it could be thought that those students who study or have studied in the Mikkeli unit are more willing

to move abroad in the future, and that there are differences in the factors affecting this decision. However, the correlations in Table 28 show that although having studied in Mikkeli correlates with expatriate and SFE willingness, it does not correlate with either type of spousal willingness. Furthermore, the t-test results in Appendix 6 show that, as was the case with any international study background, the Mikkeli students place more emphasis on their own career situation and less on the spousal factors when it comes to expatriation. There is also a similar significant difference in the effect of spousal willingness in the SFE situation (mean 4.2 vs. 3.9, $p=0.048$). The results indicate that although Mikkeli students and alumni are very international, they are also very conscious of their own career, and thus not as willing to follow their spouses, or indeed take their spouse's situation as much into consideration when making an international move decision.

Table 28. Correlations of Mikkeli (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
Mikkeli	0,13 0,112	-0,15 0,054	-0,18 0,0238*	-0,29 0,0002*	-0,01 0,902	-0,03 0,676	1,00

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
Mikkeli	n/a	-0,25 0,0014*	0,46 0,0002*	0,01 0,939	-0,14 0,126	-0,10 0,272

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Mikkeli	0,17 0,0382*	0,23 0,0031*	0,09 0,245	0,07 0,415

CEMS

CEMS is a program that prides on the internationality of its students. However, as can be seen from Table 29, being a CEMS student does not correlate with any of the types of

future international moves, although CEMS students do seem to be international in the sense that they have a larger number of previous international experiences. Appendix 7 presents the t-test run on CEMS and the dependent factors. This analysis shows that CEMS students seem to find corporate support less important in the case of an expatriate (mean 3.1 vs. 2.6, $p=0.03$) or working spouse (3.1 vs. 2.6, $p=0.044$) move. Perhaps the greater number of previous international experiences makes the CEMS students more assured that they will be successful abroad without the company's support. In the case of non-working spouse willingness the CEMS students seem to find the expatriate position offered to influence their decision less than other students (4.1 vs. 3.4, $p=0.015$).

Table 29. Correlations of CEMS (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
CEMS	-0,05 0,543	0,11 0,164	-0,09 0,236	0,16 0,0391*	0,14 0,072	1,00	-0,03 0,676

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
CEMS	n/a	-0,18 0,0249*	0,13 0,318	0,08 0,319	0,28 0,0020*	-0,02 0,812

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
CEMS	0,04 0,598	0,07 0,381	-0,01 0,884	-0,08 0,291

4.3 Effects of Spouse and Family Factors

4.3.1 Marital Status and Spousal Willingness

As mentioned in part 3.1, marital status was recoded into a factor called committed relationship, where everyone living with a partner or married was considered to be in a committed relationship. Altogether 43 respondents, or 27.2 percent, indicated being in a committed relationship.

Table 30 shows the correlations of committed relationship with other variables. The positive correlations with age and study year, as well as the negative correlations with Mikkeli and international study experience can probably be attributed to the effects of age: younger students are less likely to be in a committed relationship. The correlation with intrinsic motivation has been discussed in part 4.2.3. Looking at the different types of international moves we can see that being in a committed relationship has a negative correlation with expatriate and SFE willingness, and a small positive correlation with non-working spouse willingness. This implies that single students are more mobile and willing to move abroad than their committed colleagues who have the spouse to think about. On the other hand the committed students see it as more likely that they would make a career sacrifice for their partner and move abroad as a trailing non-working spouse.

Table 30. Correlations of Committed relationship (r and p)

	Gender	Age	Committed relationship	Study year	IB Minor	CEMS	Mikkeli
Committed relationship	-0,01 0,9043	0,16 0,0474*	1,00	0,23 0,0038*	-0,04 0,599	-0,09 0,236	-0,18 0,0238*

	Intl study experience	Previous intl experience	Future intl experience	Intr. motivation	Number of international experiences	Positivity of experience
Committed relationship	-0,18 0,0211*	0,02 0,819	-0,17 0,207	-0,16 0,0459*	0,80 0,393	-0,16 0,079

	Expat willingness	SFE willingness	Working spouse willingness	Non-working spouse willingness
Committed relationship	-0,25 0,0018*	-0,28 0,0003*	0,11 0,180	0,18 0,0258*

Appendix 8 presents the results of a t-test on committed relationship and the factors influencing an international move decision. It is apparent in the table that there are differences especially in the spouse and family factors, which is largely due to the nature of this study. Those students who are currently not in a committed relationship may have difficulties in imagining such a situation in the future, and consequently rate the spouse and family factors as less important than their committed counterparts. The committed students also find the expatriate career possibilities upon return more important than the single students. However, none of these are true for the case of a non-working spouse, where the committed students are more willing to accept such assignments (mean 2.9 vs. 2.5, $p=0.03$), but there are no differences in factors affecting the decision.

Overall, as can be seen in Table 11 in part 4.1, spousal willingness was given a fairly high importance by the respondents (mean of 4.0 for expatriate and 4.1 for SFE move). In the case of an expatriate move 73.4% of the respondents felt that spousal willingness would affect their decision much or very much (4 or 5 on the scale of 1 to 5), for SFE this number was 76%. In both scenarios spousal willingness was the fourth highest rated factor.

Although spousal willingness was not among the top three factors affecting an international move decision overall, the result changes if we look at the ratings of the students in a committed relationship (Appendix 8). Here spousal willingness ranks much higher with a mean of 4.4 in both expatriate and SFE situations. In fact, it now rises to the top three in both. Thus if the future expatriate has a spouse, the spouse's willingness is among the top considerations when making an international move decision.

4.3.2 Spouse's Job

As can be seen in Table 11 spouse's career situation in the home country and career possibilities in the target are in general not very highly rated among the factors, with means of 3.6 and 3.7 respectively for an expatriate move, and 3.7 and 3.8 for SFE. Again we can see a difference when looking at the ratings of those students who are in a committed relationship (Appendix 8), who rate the factors between 4.1 and 4.3 depending on the type of international move. However, the factors are still not among the three most important ones considered.

The situation changes somewhat when we look at the spousal moves. Here the spouse's (i.e. the respondent's) career becomes the most important factor considered. For the working spouse situation the respondent's career possibilities in the target is the most highly rated influencer on the move decision with a mean of 4.2, and the career situation in the home country is the second with a mean of 4.1. For a non-working spouse move the respondent's career situation in the home country is among the top two factors with a mean of 4.4. Thus, although the respondents do not see the spouse's career related factors as the most important ones when considering a move as an expatriate or SFE, these factors influence their decision the most when they themselves are the spouses in question.

Another factor related to the spouse's career is the non-working spouse's possibilities for self-development in the target. This factor was rated as the most influential (along with career situation in the home country) when making the decision to move abroad as a non-working spouse, with a mean of 4.4. It seems that if the spouse is not able to find work in the target location, it is important that he or she can do something else meaningful instead, for example study further.

4.3.3 Children and Extended Family

Of the 158 respondents on this survey only one had children. For this reason it was impossible to analyze whether currently having children had an effect on the willingness to move abroad in the future. However, the effects of children and elderly parents were also measured with the Family situation factor. Overall, as can be seen in Table 11, the means for this factor ranged from 4.1 to 4.2 depending on the type of international move. The factor was among the top three in the expatriate and working spouse situations. Again, looking at the answers of the students in a committed relationship changed this (Appendix 8). Among them the factor was the top factor in the expatriate and working spouse situations (with means of 4.5 and 4.4), and on shared second place in the SFE situation after the position offered. Surprisingly, in the non-working spouse situation its mean was the same 4.1 for both single and committed students.

As discussed in 4.2.2 and shown in Appendix 2, there were several differences between genders in the importance of factors in the non-working spouse situation, and family status was the factor with the biggest difference of these (mean of 4.4 for women and 3.7 for men, $p=0.001$). It seems that especially women are more willing to accept a move to a location where they would probably not be able to find work if the family situation is suitable, i.e. if the family has very small children to be taken care of at home.

4.4 Effects of Job Factors

4.4.1 Corporate Support

Corporate support was overall ranked as the least influential factor when making an international move decision with a mean of 3.0 for expatriate and 3.1 for spousal moves (see Table 11). Only around third of the respondents felt corporate support to have much or very much influence on the decision. This was probably partly because the respondents were unsure of what kind of support the company could give in addition to the pre-departure training mentioned in the survey. A comment by one respondent was that pre-departure information and for example help in finding suitable housing would be helpful only to an extent, but help regarding paperwork or spousal work issues would be much more important. Interestingly, the respondents with previous international experience felt corporate support to be less important than those with no previous international experience (Appendix 4). The same was true for CEMS students (Appendix 7).

Another aspect related to corporate support is the company relocation policy. Although the respondents were not asked about this directly in the survey, its importance was measured with the factor Expatriate career possibilities upon return. Although this factor was not one of the most influential ones overall, it was above the middle in the expatriate move situation with a mean of 3.9. For other international moves the factor was in the middle: not one of the most important ones but nevertheless considered. The means were 3.8 for SFE, 3.4 for working spouse and 3.7 for non-working spouse. The career possibilities upon return were found relatively more important by students with low intrinsic motivation (Appendix 3), students with international study experience (Appendix 5) and students in a committed relationship (Appendix 8).

Although the students claim that corporate support would not affect their decision very much, it is clear that it is nevertheless needed especially regarding family and spousal issues. As only a small number of the respondents are willing to accept a move as a non-

working spouse, support in finding a job for the trailing spouse would definitely be important. The same goes for family factors such as children and elderly parents as the influence of the family situation was rated very high. Support is also needed in the form of a relocation policy since especially in the traditional expatriate situation the career possibilities upon return are considered an important influence on the decision to relocate.

4.4.2 Attractiveness of Position

As could be expected the position offered to the expatriate was the most influential factor in the SFE situation (mean 4.6) and the second most influential in the traditional expatriate situation (mean 4.1). For the working spouse move it lost some of its importance and had a mean of 3.6, but was again near the top three in the non-working spouse move with a mean of 4.0. It was considered especially important by the respondents with extrinsic motivation for international moves, who rated it as having a mean of 4.5 in the expatriate situation and 4.8 in SFE (see Appendix 3).

The pay and other benefits offered to the expatriate while on assignment was among the top three most important factors considered in the SFE and non-working spouse situations, with means of 4.2 and 4.3 respectively. For the expatriate situation this number was near the upper end with 3.9. In the working spouse situation it was in the middle with 3.6. Thus the monetary benefits are more important in a situation of a self-initiated move abroad (with no company support). They are also especially important in a non-working spouse situation where the expatriate's pay has to provide for the whole family. In three of the four move types the position offered was considered more important than the pay and benefits; in the working spouse situation the means for these two were identical.

4.5 Effects of Target Location Factors

4.5.1 Geographical Location

The geographical location of the target country was rated among the top three influences in the expatriate and SFE situations with means of 4.1 and 4.3 respectively. In the spousal move situations it received a mean of 3.8 for the working spouse situation and 3.9 for the non-working spouse. This means that if the respondent is the one offered the assignment, she or he places more importance on the geographical location than if the respondent's spouse is the one offered the assignment. This is interesting because in the working spouse situation the respondent would be working in the target country as is the case in the expatriate and SFE situations, yet the geographical location has much less influence on the decision.

The results show that geographical location is indeed an important factor considered when making an international move decision. However, there were no differences for example between genders or between students with high and low intrinsic motivation, or those with previous international experience and those without: all subgroups studied rated geographical location fairly consistently.

4.5.2 Location Familiarity

Although the geographical location was considered an important influence on the international move decision, the same was not true for location familiarity. This factor was among the lowest rated ones with the following means: 2.9 for expatriate, 3.3 for SFE, 3.1 for working spouse, and 3.3 for non-working spouse. Familiarity of the location is seen as relatively more important when the move is self-initiated or when the move is undesirable, but overall it does not seem to play a very great role in the decision. As with geographical location the different subgroups rated the factor very consistently. The only significant

difference was between genders in the non-working spouse situation where the female participants rated its importance higher than the male participants with a mean of 3.5 vs. 3.1, $p=0.03$ (Appendix 2).

All in all, the target location is an important influence on the decision to move internationally, but much more so in terms of the geographical location than in terms of location familiarity. Whether the students have lived in the country before, have family or friends living there or know the language or culture does not seem to affect their decision very much.

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Having now presented and analyzed the results of the study, we next turn our attention to summarizing the results. The main findings and theoretical contributions will be discussed along with renewed frameworks for the move types. This chapter also presents the managerial implications of the study. The chapter concludes with suggestions for further research on the topic.

5.1 Main Findings and Theoretical Conclusions

The research questions discussed in this thesis were as follows:

1. How willing are ASE students to move abroad in the future?
 - a. As an expatriate?
 - b. As a SFE?
 - c. As a trailing spouse?

2. Which factors affect this? More specifically, what is the effect of:
 - a. Personal factors?
 - b. Spouse and family factors?
 - c. Job and career factors?
 - d. Target location factors?

What comes to the first research question, it seems that the students at the Aalto School of Economics are very interested in international moves in the future, with over 70% of the respondents willing to accept an expatriate assignment, almost 70% willing to move abroad of their own initiative, and almost 80% willing to follow their spouse provided they would get a job in the target location. This finding is similar to that of Wang & Bu (2004: 658) who found that almost 90% of the Canadian undergraduate business students in their study wanted to experience an international assignment at some point of their careers. Also Adler

(1984: 70) had similar numbers with 84% of the MBA students in her study wanting at least one international assignment in the future.

However, only about a fifth of the ASE students are willing to follow their spouse abroad if it means a break in their own career. That the students are so unwilling to move abroad even temporarily if they are not able to find a job in the target is perhaps an indication of the importance they place on their own careers. This is also highlighted by the factors rated as most important when making an international move decision: factors such as the position offered or the career situation in the home country were among the most influential.

Moving into research question 2, the respondents indicated a high number of factors influencing the move decision in general. This was especially true for the SFE situation, where the mean score of all factors was 4.0, and even the lowest-scored factor (Familiarity of the location) had a score of 3.3. The most important factors across all move situations were family factors like family status and spousal willingness (research question 2b), career-related factors like career situation and the position and benefits offered (research question 2c), and especially in the case of expatriate and SFE moves, the geographical location (research question 2d). In contrast corporate support and familiarity of the location were not considered very important. It should be noted that in all groups of factors mentioned in research question 2 there were in-group differences: some factors were considered more important and others less so. This is perhaps best highlighted by the target location factors: geographical location was among the highest rated factors whereas familiarity of the location was among the factors with the lowest mean score.

Spousal willingness has previously been found to be an important influencing factor by Aryee et al. (1996: 278), Konopaske et al. (2005: 420; 2009: 376) and Dupuis et al. (2008: 283), but not by Wan et al. (2003: 724), whose sample was mainly young and single. A similar effect can be seen in this study: spousal willingness was given a much higher importance by respondents who are in a committed relationship. The position offered on

assignment has been discussed surprisingly little in previous studies, but was found to be the most important factor considered in the study by Dickmann et al. (2008: 742), which is in line with the results of this study. As in this study, geographical location has been found important in the studies by Adler (1984: 70) and Lowe et al. (1999), but it was ranked as the least important factor by the expatriates in Dickmann et al (2008: 738-42).

The relatively low importance placed on corporate support and familiarity of the location was surprising, since especially corporate support has been found to be an important factor in previous studies. For example Harvey (1997: 639) and Wan et al. (2003: 725) have found corporate support to have a lot of influence on the expatriation decision, although Brett & Stroh (1995: 415) found it to be more important for the spouses than the expatriates. Such an effect was not visible in this study. What comes to location familiarity in terms of culture, several studies have found cultural similarity of the location to have a positive effect on the willingness to go (Wan et al. 2003: 722, Lowe et al. 1999: 229-30), although Wagner and Westaby (2009: 263) failed to find an effect. They theorize that this may be because their respondents were fairly young and because of that possibly more open to new experiences – an explanation that may be relevant also for the results of this study. In terms of other types of location familiarity, Lowe et al. (1999: 229) did find that their respondents were less likely to move to a country where their family was from.

Although the effects of gender on willingness to accept international assignments has been discussed widely in literature (see 4.2.2) this study found no differences between genders in willingness to move abroad in the future, not even in the spousal situations. This result is in line with the findings of Adler (1984: 70), Wang and Bu (2004: 658) and Brett & Stroh (1995: 415) who also found gender to have no effect on willingness to accept international assignments. However, gender did have an effect on which factors are considered when making a decision in the non-working spouse situation, with women perhaps more likely to accept such a move provided that certain conditions (like family status) are suitable. In other types of moves gender generally did not have an influence on the importance of the

factors. This is slightly surprising since in previous studies for example by Bielby and Bielby (1992: 1253), Dupuis et al. (2008: 291) and Baldrige et al. (2006: 142-43) women have been found to place more importance on family matters when making an international move decision.

In contrast to gender, intrinsic motivation played a part in every international move scenario. This concept is quite new in the expatriation literature, previously discussed in the Haines et al. study (2008: 454) where the respondents with intrinsic motivation were more likely to accept an international assignment and expected fewer difficulties when on one. The results of this study were similar: the students with intrinsic motivation for international moves were more likely to accept any of the types of international moves. As could be expected, the extrinsically motivated students placed more emphasis on career and benefits factors than their intrinsically motivated colleagues when making an international move decision, whereas in the non-working spouse scenario the intrinsically motivated students found the geographical location and corporate support to affect their decision more. The students with intrinsic motivation were more likely to be female and less likely to be in a committed relationship, but intrinsic motivation was not connected with any aspects of previous international experience or international study background.

Having previous international experience was common among the students but it did not affect the willingness for most of the types of international moves in this study, although it was positively correlated with willingness to move as a non-working spouse. The number of previous international experiences was positively correlated only with working spouse willingness. This finding is similar to that of van der Velde et al. (2005: 95-96) who found previous international relocations to predict spousal willingness for international moves. The number of years studied abroad was also not correlated with willingness to work abroad in the future in the study of Canadian business students by Wang and Bu (2004: 660).

The positivity of previous international experiences seemed to have more effect than the number of these experiences: it was related to both expatriate and SFE willingness. Positive relocation experiences have previously been found to affect the willingness for further relocations for example by Landau et al. (1992: 676-77). The type of previous international experience mainly had an effect on spousal move willingness, where those that had lived abroad with their family or had done a university exchange were more willing to accept both kinds of spousal moves. Having travelled abroad for longer than two months had a positive correlation with SFE and non-working spouse moves. None of the types of previous international experience were related to expatriate willingness.

Having studied in an international study program had a small positive correlation with all other types of international moves except non-working spouse willingness. Studies at the Mikkeli unit made the students slightly more receptive towards expatriate and SFE moves but had no effect on the spousal moves. Being a CEMS student had no influence on the willingness of any of the types of international moves. Generally, students with an international study background tended to place more emphasis on the career factors and less on the spousal factors in the expatriate and SFE situations, perhaps indicating that these students are more career-oriented.

An interesting contribution to the expatriate theory is that the students consider the different international move types as clearly distinct, with different willingness scores and different factors affecting the move decision in each scenario presented. This goes even for the SFE and working spouse situations, even though a working spouse has been labeled a type of SFE by Suutari and Brewster (2000: 429-34). In previous research and literature spouses are often discussed as one entity, but the results of this study show that they should be considered two different cases, with many students having a very negative attitude towards moving abroad as a non-working spouse.

Because the students consider the move situations and the factors affecting them so different, the original framework presented in Figure 2 in part 2.3 had to be modified quite largely. A separate framework was created for each move type to be able to summarize the direct and indirect effects of the different factors. Figures 3 to 6 present the new summary frameworks for each move type. The figures present both the indirect and direct effects of the factors. In the middle of the figure are the dependent factors that have a direct effect on the willingness to move abroad in the scenario in question. This includes all factors that had a score of 3.5 or above in that scenario. On the left side of the figure are the independent factors that had either a direct effect on the willingness to move abroad, or an indirect effect through the factors presented in the middle, or both. Note that even though the independent factors had an effect on which factors affect the willingness to move abroad, they did not have an effect on all of them. The effects have been discussed in detail in parts 4.2 to 4.5.

Figure 3 presents the situation for the expatriate move. In this case the affecting independent factors include International study program, Mikkeli, Intrinsic motivation and Committed relationship, and all of them had both an indirect and a direct effect on the willingness. For example, the respondents who had studied in an international study program were as such more willing to accept an expatriate assignment, and found their own career possibilities upon return to be more important and the spouse's career factors to be less important than other respondents, thus affecting the decision to move also indirectly.

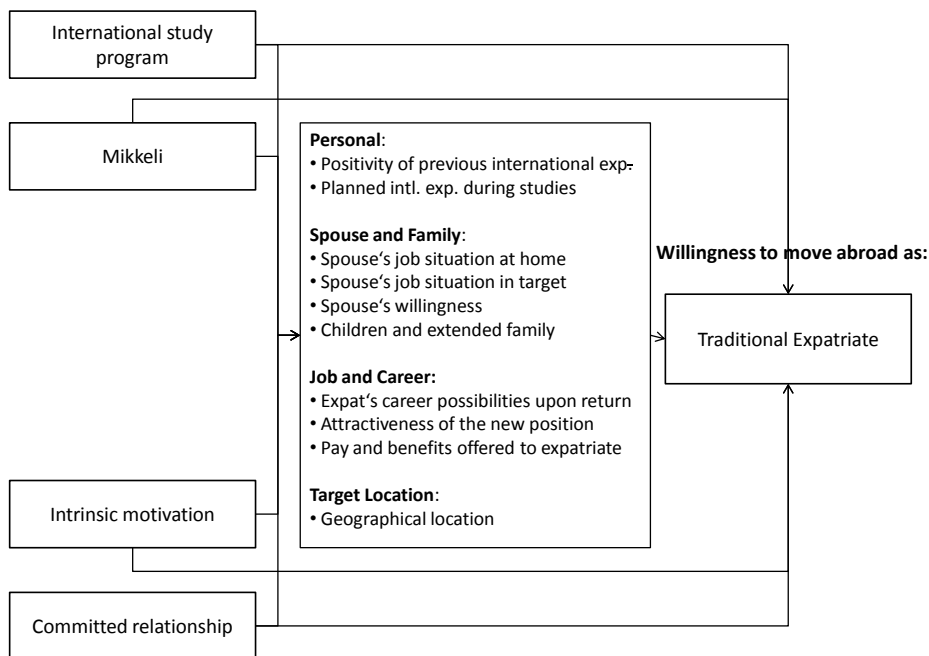


Figure 3. Indirect and direct factors affecting the willingness for a traditional expatriate move

Figure 4 presents the situation of a SFE move. In this case International study program had only a direct effect on the willingness to move, whereas Mikkeli, Committed relationship and Intrinsic motivation had both direct and indirect effects. Gender only had an indirect influence through its effect on the attractiveness of position offered, which was found more important by the female respondents.

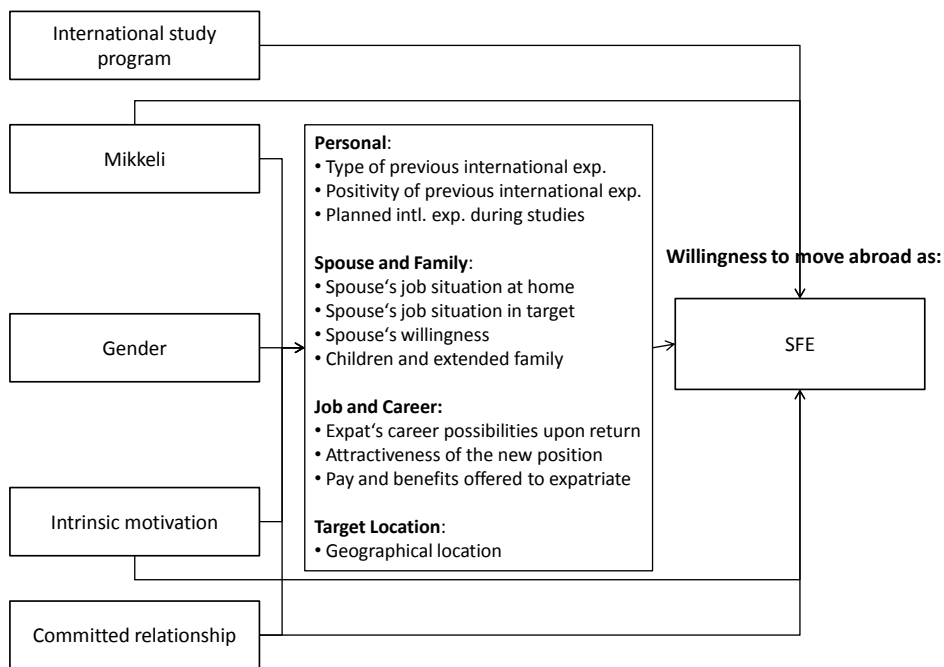


Figure 4. Indirect and direct factors affecting the willingness for a SFE move

In Figure 5 we can see the situation for the working spouse move. Here there are fewer independent variable effects than in the expatriate and SFE moves. International study program and Intrinsic motivation have a direct effect on the willingness to move, but no indirect effect, and Gender and Committed relationship only have an indirect effect, mainly through variables related to the expatriate's career.

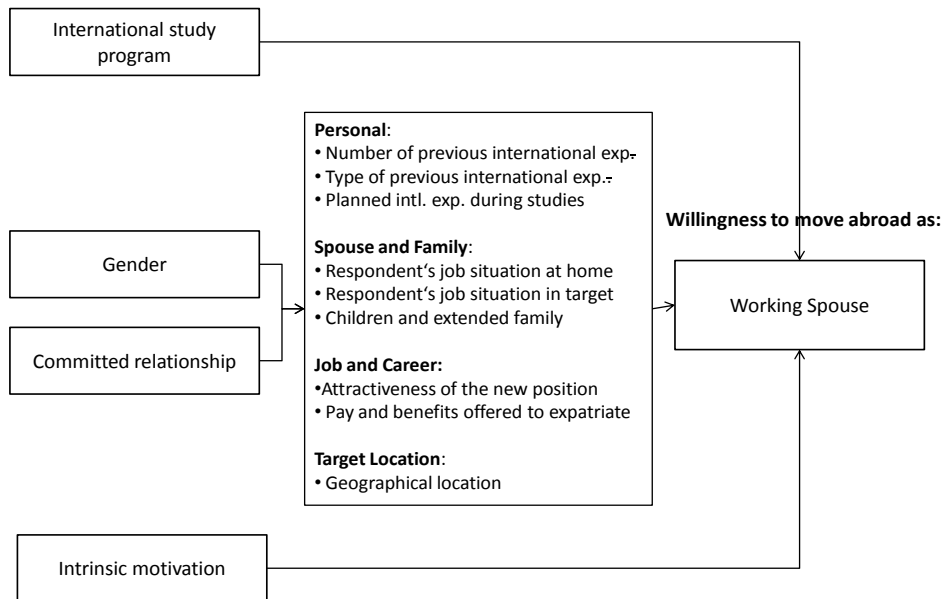


Figure 5. Indirect and direct factors affecting the willingness for a working spouse move

Finally, Figure 6 presents the non-working spouse move scenario. Here Previous international experience and Committed relationship have a direct effect on the decision, Intrinsic motivation has both an indirect and direct effect, and CEMS and Gender only have an indirect effect.

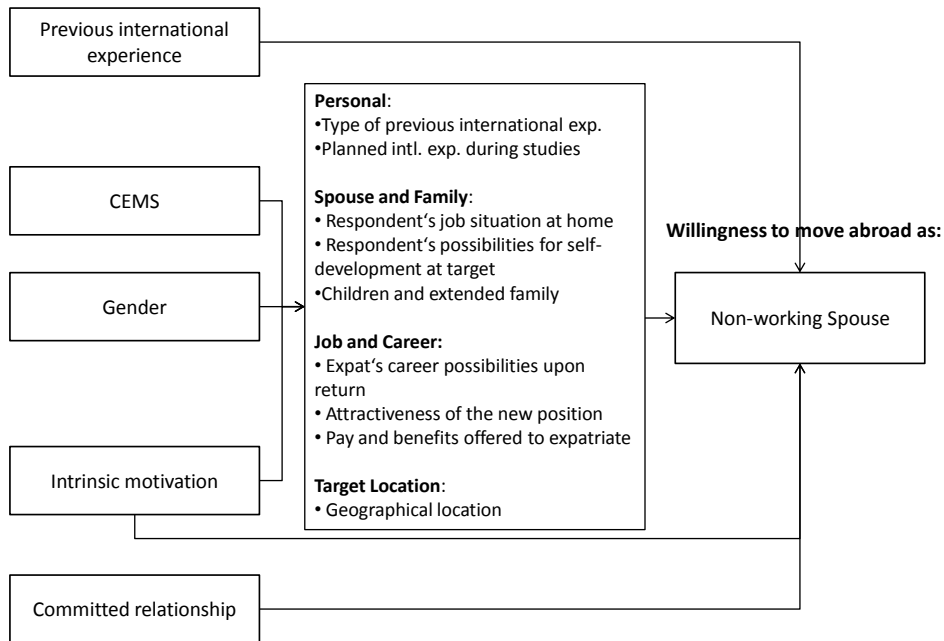


Figure 6. Indirect and direct factors affecting the willingness for a non-working spouse move

To further summarize the factors most affecting the willingness to move abroad in each scenario, Tables 31 to 34 present the profiles of a student more likely to accept each type of an international move in the future. The main differences in the profiles are that single students are more likely to accept expatriate and SFE assignments, those with previous international experience are more likely to accept spousal moves, and the students willing to accept a non-working spouse move tend to be older and have more types of previous international experiences.

Table 31. Profile of a Likely Future Expatriate

Single
Has studied in an international program
Has studied in Mikkelä
Has intrinsic motivation for international moves
Previous international experience is positive
Plans further international experience during studies
Geographical location of target is desirable
Position offered is desirable
Family situation is suitable

Table 32. Profile of a Likely Future SFE

Single
Has studied in an international program
Has studied in Mikkelä
Has intrinsic motivation for international moves
Previous international experience is positive
Plans further international experience during studies
Has travelled abroad for more than two months at a time
Geographical location of target is desirable
Position offered is desirable
Pay and benefits offered are good

Table 33. Profile of a Likely Future Working Spouse

Has studied in an international program
Has intrinsic motivation for international moves
Has several previous international experiences
Plans further international experience during studies
Has lived abroad with family
Has done a university exchange
Family situation is suitable
Career situation in the home country is suitable
Career possibilities at target are good

Table 34. Profile of a Likely Future Non-working Spouse

Older

Has intrinsic motivation for international moves

Has previous international experience

Plans further international experience during studies

Has lived abroad with family

Has done a university exchange

Has worked abroad

Has lived abroad because of the spouse

Has travelled abroad for more than two months at a time

Career situation in the home country is suitable

Pay and benefits offered to the expatriate are good

Possibilities for self-development in the target are good

5.2 Managerial Implications

This study has several important managerial implications. Perhaps the most important one is the general willingness of the students to accept international assignments. These future graduates are indeed very willing to accept international moves in the future, and this is regardless of their gender. They are even willing to accept an international move as a spouse, provided they will find a job in the target location. There is an important exception to be noted, though: the students are not willing to accept a move as a spouse if they are unlikely to find a job in the target location. Because the spouse's willingness affects the expatriate's willingness for the move, it is important for companies to note that they are losing possible expatriate candidates because of problems with the spouse's career in the target location.

Companies would do best by providing support for the spouse in finding a job in the location. If such is impossible and the spouse's job possibilities in the target seem bleak, helping the spouse find other possibilities to develop him- or herself during the assignment may help, as indicated by the importance of the Possibilities for self-development factor in

the non-working spouse scenario. In such a case the pay and benefits offered to the expatriate are also relatively more important, as they have to provide for the whole family.

The importance placed on spousal willingness and family status by the respondents of this study indicates that company support in other family issues besides the spouse's career is also needed. This is also highlighted by the fact that the single respondents were more willing to accept assignments than their counterparts in committed relationships. Companies need to make sure that expatriation is a viable decision in any life situation. Providing help in finding good daycare and schools for the children, or possibilities to visit elderly relatives in the home country may lessen the concerns of the expatriate candidates and increase their willingness to accept assignments.

Although the respondents in this study did not find corporate support to be among the most important factors considered when making an international move decision, this should not be taken as a sign that corporate support is not needed. However, it should perhaps be geared more towards supporting the whole family. Support such as pre-departure training should be a natural part of the expatriate package and not considered as an offered extra that makes the possible expatriates more likely to relocate.

Interesting for the companies to note is also that in the expatriate move situation the students considered the position offered to the expatriate to have more influence than the actual pay and benefits. Of course the situation is different if the expatriate is the only person working outside of home during the assignment, but in general it seems that the position should rather be interesting than benefit package large. However, this also depends on whether the employee has intrinsic or extrinsic motivation for international moves. Those with extrinsic motivation are likely to value the monetary benefits more.

All in all, companies may be relieved to know that among their future work force the general willingness for international assignments is there. This is also true for spouses

provided they will find a job in the target. The question is more what the company can do to make such a move a viable option regardless of the employee's family situation. Support is needed especially for the spouse's career situation, but also concerning other spousal and family issues. Unfortunately for the companies, although the future graduates seem very internationally oriented with many of them having previous international experience, the geographical location of the assignment is still one of the top factors considered: they will not accept a move to any location.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research

As this study only gives a glimpse into what the students of Aalto University School of Economics think about moving internationally in the future, more longitudinal research would be needed to find out whether the willingness to move abroad now is connected with willingness to move after graduation, when the students are in working life. Such research could also examine whether the factors affecting the decision would differ from those presented in this study, and whether changes in life and family situation would make a difference.

This study did not discuss the effects of personality further than intrinsic motivation, so the effects of personality could be looked into further. Similarly, the small number of respondents from some study programs in this thesis did not allow for comparisons between all study programs. Such comparisons could give more insights into whether there are certain study programs (other than international study programs) that make students either more or less willing to move abroad in the future.

In addition, many of the factors discussed in this study were quite general. The respondents indicated that it is important that the position offered on assignment is important, but what makes a position desirable? Similarly, what kind of corporate support would the respondents think important and what not? What kind of self-development possibilities

would the non-working spouses want? What is a suitable family or career situation, or which geographical locations are more desirable than others? These are all questions for further research.

This study has only examined the international move attitudes of business students in one Finnish school. It is questionable whether the results can be generalized to students in other schools or countries. Thus similar studies in other universities could show whether the ASE students differ from those in other schools. Also studies in other countries would be needed to be able to say anything of business students in general. For example the results on effects of gender might be different if the study were committed in a country where gender equality is still in a developmental phase. Also, not all future expatriates and spouses are business students. For this reason it might be interesting to research other study programs and whether the study background has an effect on willingness to go abroad.

Lastly, this study has only discussed four types of moves, of which one is the traditional long-term expatriate assignment. However, different types of international assignments such as short-term, traveling or commuter assignments are growing in popularity. Whether the students' receptivity towards such assignments is different and how is also an interesting topic for further research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Survey

2. Background information

* 1. Gender

Female

Male

2. Age

3. What is your marital status?

Single

Living with someone

Married

Other

4. Do you have children?

Yes

No

5. Study year (if you are a Master's student please count from the beginning of your Bachelor's studies)

* 6. Study program

7. If your study program is something else than International Business, do you have International Business as a minor?

No

Yes

* 8. Are you a CEMS student?

No

Yes

* 9. Do you study/have you studied at the Mikkeli unit?

No

Yes

In the following questions the term **home country** is used to mean the country where you have lived most of your life in, or which you feel the most familiar with. **Abroad** is used to mean outside your home country. If you consider yourself as having several home countries, think of the country you feel closest to.

* 10. Have you ever lived outside your home country for more than two months?

Yes

No

11. If you answered no, how likely do you think it is that you will move abroad for more than two months during your studies (for example for an exchange period or internship)?

(1=not at all likely, 5=very likely)

1

2

3

4

5

12. If you would move abroad after your studies, where would you probably place your main motivation to move on the following scale?

1=I would move because of the (monetary, career) benefits it offers, 5=I would move because of the experience itself

1

2

3

4

5

3. International experience

In the following questions the term **home country** is used to mean the country where you have lived most of your life in, or which you feel the most familiar with. **Abroad** is used to mean outside your home country. If you consider yourself as having several home countries, think of the country you feel closest to.

*** 1. What was the reason for living outside your home country? (Tick all that apply)**

- My whole family lived abroad
- I did an exchange during my high school studies
- I did an exchange during my university (or other) studies
- I have completed a whole degree abroad
- I did an internship abroad
- I was working
- I was volunteering
- I followed my spouse who was studying/working abroad
- I was travelling/on vacation.
- Other (please specify):

*** 2. How many such experiences do you have?**

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5+

*** 3. How positive would you rate your such experiences overall?
(1=not at all positive, 5=very positive)**

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

4. Expatriate assignment

* 1. Some years after your graduation the company you work for offers you an assignment abroad that lasts two years. In general, how likely do you think you would be to accept such an assignment?

1= not at all likely, 5= very likely

1
 2
 3
 4
 5

* 2. How much do you think the following factors would influence your decision?

	1 not at all	2	3	4	5 very much
Geographical location of the assignment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarity of the target location (lived there before, friends/relatives living in the location, knowledge of the culture and language etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The position offered on the assignment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your career possibilities upon return	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your family situation at the time (children living at home, elderly parents)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your spouse's willingness to move abroad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your spouse's career situation in the home country	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your spouse's career possibilities in the target location	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The pay and other benefits offered during the assignment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Level of corporate support (for example pre-departure training)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

5. Self-initiated foreign assignment

* 1. Some years after your graduation you are looking for new challenges. You notice an interesting job offer in a foreign country. In general, how likely would you be to apply for this job?

(1=not at all likely, 5=very likely)

1
 2
 3
 4
 5

* 2. How much do you think the following factors would influence your decision?

	1 not at all	2	3	4	5 very much
Geographical location of the job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarity of the target location (lived there before, friends/relatives living in the location, knowledge of the culture and language etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The job offered	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The pay and other benefits offered	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your career possibilities upon (possible) return	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your family situation at the time (children living at home, elderly parents)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your spouse's willingness to move abroad	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your spouse's career situation in the home country	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your spouse's career possibilities in the target location	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

6. Working spouse

* 1. Some years after your graduation the company your spouse works for offers him/her an assignment abroad that lasts two years. The situation is such that you probably would be able to find work in the same country. In general, how willing would you be to move abroad with your spouse? (1=not at all willing, 5=very willing)

1
 2
 3
 4
 5

* 2. How much do you think the following factors would influence your decision?

	1 not at all	2	3	4	5 very much
Geographical location of the assignment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarity of the target location (lived there before, friends/relatives living in the location, knowledge of the culture and language etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The position offered to your spouse on the assignment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The pay and other benefits offered to your spouse during the assignment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your spouse's career possibilities upon return	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your family situation at the time (children living at home, elderly parents)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your career situation in the home country	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your career possibilities in the target location	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Level of corporate support (for example pre-departure training)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. Non-working spouse

* 1. Some years after your graduation the company your spouse works for offers him/her an assignment abroad that lasts two years. The situation is such that you probably would not be able to find work in the same country, which would mean an interruption in your career. In general, how willing would you be to move abroad with your spouse? (1=not at all willing, 5=very willing)

1
 2
 3
 4
 5

* 2. How much do you think the following factors would influence your decision?

	1 not at all	2	3	4	5 very much
Geographical location of the assignment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Familiarity of the target location (lived there before, friends/relatives living in the location, knowledge of the culture and language etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The position offered to your spouse on the assignment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your spouse's career possibilities upon return	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your family situation at the time (children living at home, elderly parents)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your career situation in the home country	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your possibilities for self-development during the assignment (further education, training etc)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The pay and other benefits offered to your spouse during the assignment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Level of corporate support (for example pre-departure training)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. Additional comments

Thank you for your participation!

1. Do you have any additional comments?

2. If you would like to participate in the raffle, please leave your name and address. Your contact data will in no way be associated with your answers, and will be used solely for the purposes of the draw.

Appendix 2. Results of a t-test on gender

n=158

	Female		Male		Significance (at the 95% level)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
<u>Expatriate Willingness</u>	4,0	0,96	4,1	0,87	0,596
Geography	4,0	0,95	4,2	0,90	0,117
Familiarity	3,1	1,08	2,8	1,14	0,077
Expatriate position offered	4,2	0,77	4,0	0,75	0,097
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,8	0,83	3,9	0,88	0,397
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,8	0,99	3,9	0,86	0,577
Family Status	4,3	0,98	4,1	0,92	0,207
Spouse willingness	4,0	0,99	4,0	1,06	0,842
Spouse's career at home	3,6	1,05	3,5	0,98	0,453
Spouse's career possibilities at target	3,7	1,01	3,7	0,94	0,856
Corporate support	3,2	0,87	2,9	1,11	0,108
<u>SFE Willingness</u>	3,7	1,08	4,0	0,96	0,166
Geography	4,3	0,82	4,3	0,94	0,896
Familiarity	3,4	1,04	3,1	1,11	0,082
SFE position offered	4,7	0,55	4,4	0,62	0,004 *
SFE pay and benefits	4,2	0,70	4,2	0,74	0,737
SFE career possibilities upon (possible) return	3,9	0,91	3,6	1,04	0,087
Family Status	4,2	0,95	4,0	0,99	0,158
Spouse willingness	4,1	0,97	4,1	1,01	0,973
Spouse's career at home	3,8	1,04	3,7	0,99	0,439
Spouse's career possibilities at target	3,9	0,92	3,8	0,94	0,611
<u>Working Spouse Willingness</u>	4,2	0,83	4,1	0,79	0,226
Geography	3,9	1,07	3,8	1,22	0,564
Familiarity	3,2	1,11	3,0	1,13	0,180
Expatriate position offered	3,6	1,09	3,5	1,10	0,305
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,8	0,99	3,4	1,20	0,011 *
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,4	1,09	3,2	1,11	0,231
Family Status	4,2	0,87	3,9	1,01	0,089
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,2	0,83	4,0	0,94	0,404
Spouse's (your) career possibilities at target	4,3	0,77	4,1	0,92	0,227
Corporate support	3,1	0,97	2,8	1,11	0,066
<u>Non-Working Spouse Willingness</u>	2,7	0,91	2,5	1,08	0,146
Geography	4,0	1,18	3,7	1,39	0,168
Familiarity	3,5	1,25	3,1	1,38	0,032 *
Expatriate position offered	4,1	1,17	3,9	1,34	0,305
Expatriate pay and benefits	4,4	0,96	4,0	1,12	0,015 *
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,9	1,16	3,4	1,36	0,020 *
Family Status	4,4	0,96	3,7	1,25	0,001 *
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,5	0,76	4,2	1,09	0,035 *
Spouse's (your) self-development possibilities	4,5	0,91	4,1	1,09	0,019 *
Corporate support	3,1	1,12	2,7	1,10	0,010 *

Appendix 3. Results of a t-test on intrinsic motivation

n=112	Extrinsic		Intrinsic		Significance (at the 95% level)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Expatriate Willingness	3,5	1,08	4,2	0,81	0,001 *
Geography	4,0	0,93	4,0	0,96	0,730
Familiarity	2,8	1,17	2,9	1,06	0,679
Expatriate position offered	4,5	0,85	4,0	0,79	0,014 *
Expatriate pay and benefits	4,0	0,93	3,7	0,85	0,097
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	4,3	0,93	3,6	0,96	0,001 *
Family Status	4,5	0,95	4,1	1,00	0,088
Spouse willingness	4,1	1,08	3,9	1,06	0,374
Spouse's career at home	3,8	1,04	3,4	1,06	0,155
Spouse's career possibilities at target	3,7	0,93	3,6	1,00	0,563
Corporate support	3,2	0,95	3,0	1,01	0,307
SFE Willingness	3,5	1,12	4,0	0,90	0,012 *
Geography	4,0	0,98	4,3	0,86	0,223
Familiarity	3,0	1,02	3,2	1,08	0,555
SFE position offered	4,8	0,60	4,5	0,62	0,049 *
SFE pay and benefits	4,4	0,79	4,0	0,70	0,013 *
SFE career possibilities upon (possible) return	4,3	0,96	3,5	0,89	0,001 *
Family Status	4,3	0,97	4,0	1,00	0,267
Spouse willingness	4,3	0,96	3,9	1,02	0,116
Spouse's career at home	4,0	0,93	3,6	1,06	0,117
Spouse's career possibilities at target	3,9	0,76	3,7	0,97	0,489
Working Spouse Willingness	3,8	0,98	4,3	0,69	0,024 *
Geography	3,5	1,16	3,8	1,13	0,281
Familiarity	3,0	1,04	3,0	1,15	0,631
Expatriate position offered	3,8	0,83	3,4	1,12	0,072
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,8	1,09	3,4	1,10	0,133
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,7	1,01	3,1	1,09	0,008 *
Family Status	4,3	0,93	4,0	0,97	0,177
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,6	0,59	4,0	0,95	0,001 *
Spouse's (your) career possibilities at target	4,4	1,00	4,1	0,84	0,214
Corporate support	2,9	0,95	3,0	1,08	0,691
Non-Working Spouse Willingness	2,3	1,15	2,8	0,88	0,038 *
Geography	3,1	1,60	4,0	1,20	0,005 *
Familiarity	3,0	1,51	3,3	1,30	0,270
Expatriate position offered	3,6	1,70	4,0	1,18	0,349
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,8	1,57	4,3	0,99	0,167
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,3	1,64	3,6	1,25	0,496
Family Status	3,7	1,66	4,2	1,05	0,260
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,1	1,46	4,4	0,81	0,338
Spouse's (your) self-development possibilities	3,9	1,38	4,4	0,93	0,089
Corporate support	2,5	1,16	3,1	1,14	0,049 *

Appendix 4. Results of a t-test on previous international experience

N=158	Intl experience		No intl experience		Significance (at the 95% level)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Expatriate Willingness	4,1	0,90	3,8	0,98	0,079
Geography	4,0	0,96	4,1	0,88	0,720
Familiarity	2,9	1,13	3,0	1,06	0,984
Expatriate position offered	4,1	0,80	4,3	0,66	0,251
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,8	0,88	4,0	0,73	0,095
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,8	1,00	4,0	0,77	0,335
Family Status	4,2	0,99	4,1	0,89	0,578
Spouse willingness	4,0	0,98	4,0	1,13	0,925
Spouse*s career at home	3,6	1,02	3,6	1,03	0,724
Spouse*s career possibilities at target	3,7	0,99	3,7	0,95	0,849
Corporate support	3,0	0,98	3,4	0,89	0,010 *
<u>SFE Willingness</u>	3,8	1,01	3,7	1,12	0,410
Geography	4,2	0,89	4,4	0,77	0,278
Familiarity	3,3	1,09	3,4	1,02	0,457
SFE position offered	4,6	0,61	4,6	0,54	0,697
SFE pay and benefits	4,2	0,73	4,3	0,66	0,576
SFE career possibilities upon (possible) return	3,8	0,98	3,7	0,93	0,357
Family Status	4,2	0,89	4,0	1,15	0,336
Spouse willingness	4,1	0,94	4,1	1,09	0,950
Spouse*s career at home	3,7	0,99	3,8	1,09	0,773
Spouse*s career possibilities at target	3,8	0,90	3,9	1,01	0,645
<u>Working Spouse Willingness</u>	4,3	0,81	4,0	0,78	0,053
Geography	3,8	1,17	4,0	1,00	0,286
Familiarity	3,1	1,13	3,2	0,18	0,638
Expatriate position offered	3,6	1,17	3,6	0,86	0,861
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,7	1,11	3,5	1,06	0,214
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,4	1,15	3,3	0,94	0,470
Family Status	4,1	0,89	4,1	1,06	0,859
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,1	0,88	4,1	0,84	0,761
Spouse's (your) career possibilities at target	4,2	0,86	4,3	0,75	0,244
Corporate support	2,9	1,06	3,3	0,90	0,053
<u>Non-Working Spouse Willingness</u>	2,8	1,03	2,3	0,73	0,001 *
Geography	4,0	1,25	3,6	1,28	0,110
Familiarity	3,3	1,33	3,3	1,28	0,990
Expatriate position offered	4,1	1,19	3,8	1,36	0,274
Expatriate pay and benefits	4,4	0,96	4,0	1,23	0,118
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,8	1,23	3,5	1,33	0,238
Family Status	4,2	1,04	3,9	1,30	0,180
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,5	0,84	4,3	1,08	0,274
Spouse's (your) self-development possibilities at target	4,4	1,02	4,4	0,93	0,984
Corporate support	3,0	1,17	2,9	1,04	0,590

Appendix 5. Results of a t-test on international study experience.

N=158	No intl study background		Intl study background		Significance (at the 95% level)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Expatriate Willingness	3,8	0,94	4,1	0,90	0,020 *
Geography	4,1	0,83	4,0	0,99	0,591
Familiarity	3,0	1,08	2,9	1,13	0,664
Expatriate position offered	4,2	0,73	4,1	0,79	0,738
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,8	0,76	3,9	0,90	0,242
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,6	0,93	4,0	0,92	0,008 *
Family Status	4,2	0,90	4,2	1,00	0,733
Spouse willingness	4,1	1,03	3,9	1,01	0,210
Spouse's career at home	3,8	1,04	3,5	0,99	0,019 *
Spouse's career possibilities at target	3,9	0,93	3,6	0,99	0,034 *
Corporate support	3,2	0,92	3,0	1,00	0,146
SFE Willingness	3,5	1,59	4,0	0,92	0,008 *
Geography	4,2	0,85	4,3	0,87	0,297
Familiarity	3,4	1,01	3,3	1,11	0,615
SFE position offered	4,6	0,65	4,6	0,55	0,550
SFE pay and benefits	4,1	0,66	4,3	0,74	0,343
SFE career possibilities upon (possible) return	3,7	1,00	3,8	0,95	0,669
Family Status	4,1	1,08	4,1	0,90	0,990
Spouse willingness	4,2	0,99	4,0	0,97	0,117
Spouse's career at home	3,9	1,02	3,6	1,00	0,057
Spouse's career possibilities at target	4,0	0,91	3,8	0,93	0,080
Working Spouse Willingness	4,0	0,79	4,3	0,81	0,030 *
Geography	3,8	1,06	3,8	1,17	0,844
Familiarity	3,2	1,09	3,1	1,14	0,378
Expatriate position offered	3,6	1,05	3,6	1,12	0,725
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,7	0,93	3,6	1,19	0,837
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,3	1,01	3,4	1,15	0,520
Family Status	4,2	1,02	4,0	0,87	0,253
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,1	0,69	4,1	0,97	0,740
Spouse's (your) career possibilities at target	4,2	0,74	4,2	0,88	0,646
Corporate support	3,2	0,92	2,9	1,08	0,090
Non-Working Spouse Willingness	2,5	0,90	2,7	1,03	0,282
Geography	3,8	1,30	4,0	1,25	0,250
Familiarity	3,4	1,31	3,3	1,32	0,413
Expatriate position offered	4,0	1,34	4,0	1,18	0,716
Expatriate pay and benefits	4,3	1,13	4,3	1,00	0,861
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,6	1,35	3,7	1,20	0,566
Family Status	4,2	1,23	4,1	1,05	0,590
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,3	0,97	4,5	0,88	0,486
Spouse's (your) self-development possibilities	4,3	1,03	4,4	0,98	0,674
Corporate support	3,0	1,10	3,0	1,16	0,862

Appendix 6. Results of a t-test on Mikkeli

n=158	Has not studied in Mikkeli (n=76)		Has studied in Mikkeli (n=82)		Significance (at the 95% level)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
<u>Expatriate Willingness</u>	3,8	0,97	4,1	0,86	0,038 *
Geography	4,1	0,84	4,0	1,02	0,297
Familiarity	3,0	1,08	2,9	1,14	0,793
Expatriate position offered	4,1	0,78	4,1	0,76	0,990
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,7	0,84	4,0	0,85	0,111
<u>Expatriate career possibilities upon return</u>	3,6	0,94	4,1	0,89	0,001 *
Family Status	4,2	0,91	4,1	1,01	0,555
Spouse willingness	4,1	0,96	3,8	1,05	0,061
<u>Spouse's career at home</u>	3,8	0,99	3,4	1,02	0,014 *
<u>Spouse's career possibilities at target</u>	3,9	0,90	3,5	1,02	0,026 *
Corporate support	3,1	0,95	3,0	1,01	0,717
<u>SFE Willingness</u>	3,6	1,12	4,0	0,90	0,003 *
Geography	4,2	0,84	4,3	0,89	0,537
Familiarity	3,4	1,03	3,3	1,11	0,608
SFE position offered	4,5	0,64	4,6	0,53	0,313
SFE pay and benefits	4,1	0,69	4,3	0,74	0,279
SFE career possibilities upon (possible) return	3,8	1,00	3,8	0,94	0,954
Family Status	4,2	1,01	4,1	0,92	0,292
<u>Spouse willingness</u>	4,2	0,95	3,9	1,00	0,048 *
Spouse*s career at home	3,9	1,00	3,6	1,02	0,078
Spouse*s career possibilities at target	4,0	0,90	3,7	0,94	0,142
<u>Working Spouse Willingness</u>	4,1	0,79	4,3	0,83	0,245
Geography	3,7	1,14	3,9	1,11	0,257
Familiarity	3,1	1,14	3,1	1,12	0,873
Expatriate position offered	3,5	1,12	3,6	1,07	0,663
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,6	1,03	3,7	1,16	0,761
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,3	1,07	3,4	1,12	0,573
Family Status	4,2	0,97	4,0	0,89	0,135
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,1	0,78	4,1	0,95	0,881
Spouse's (your) career possibilities at target	4,2	0,84	4,2	0,83	0,727
Corporate support	3,0	1,01	3,0	1,05	0,989
<u>Non-Working Spouse Willingness</u>	2,6	0,98	2,7	0,99	0,415
Geography	3,8	1,29	4,0	1,24	0,199
Familiarity	3,3	1,37	3,3	1,27	0,953
Expatriate position offered	3,8	1,36	4,2	1,10	0,095
Expatriate pay and benefits	4,3	1,09	4,3	1,01	0,776
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,5	1,34	3,9	1,16	0,102
Family Status	4,2	1,18	4,1	1,06	0,444
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,4	0,94	4,4	0,89	0,826
Spouse's (your) self-development possibilities	4,4	0,97	4,3	1,03	0,743
Corporate support	2,9	1,13	3,0	1,14	0,474

Appendix 7. Results of a t-test on CEMS

N=158	Not CEMS		CEMS		Significance (at the 95% level)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
<u>Expatriate Willingness</u>	4,0	0,93	4,1	0,88	0,598
Geography	4,0	0,94	4,3	0,89	0,189
Familiarity	2,9	1,10	3,0	1,25	0,833
Expatriate position offered	4,2	0,73	4,1	0,97	0,574
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,8	0,84	3,9	0,91	0,634
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,9	0,93	4,0	1,00	0,554
Family Status	4,2	0,93	4,1	1,18	0,508
Spouse willingness	4,0	1,04	4,0	0,82	0,954
Spouse's career at home	3,6	1,00	3,4	1,17	0,431
Spouse's career possibilities at target	3,7	0,97	3,6	1,02	0,519
Corporate support	3,1	0,96	2,6	0,96	0,034 *
<u>SFE Willingness</u>	3,8	1,06	4,0	0,82	0,381
Geography	4,3	0,88	4,3	0,77	0,816
Familiarity	3,3	1,06	3,4	1,17	0,672
SFE position offered	4,6	0,60	4,7	0,48	0,452
SFE pay and benefits	4,2	0,78	4,4	0,60	0,301
SFE career possibilities upon (possible) return	3,7	0,97	4,2	0,83	0,073
Family Status	4,1	0,99	4,4	0,76	0,272
Spouse willingness	4,0	1,01	4,2	0,79	0,488
Spouse*s career at home	3,8	1,01	3,6	1,07	0,599
Spouse*s career possibilities at target	3,9	0,93	3,7	0,87	0,578
<u>Working Spouse Willingness</u>	4,2	0,81	4,2	0,83	0,884
Geography	3,8	1,12	3,7	1,20	0,587
Familiarity	3,1	1,14	3,1	1,03	0,781
Expatriate position offered	3,6	1,07	3,5	1,26	0,673
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,7	1,07	3,5	1,31	0,502
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,3	1,07	3,6	1,30	0,371
Family Status	4,1	0,91	3,7	1,05	0,074
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,2	0,82	3,8	1,18	0,211
Spouse's (your) career possibilities at target	4,2	0,78	4,1	1,18	0,539
Corporate support	3,1	1,02	2,6	1,02	0,044 *
<u>Non-Working Spouse Willingness</u>	2,7	0,98	2,4	1,02	0,291
Geography	3,9	1,28	3,7	1,16	0,407
Familiarity	3,4	1,33	3,1	1,22	0,319
Expatriate position offered	4,1	1,20	3,4	1,34	0,015 *
Expatriate pay and benefits	4,3	1,02	4,3	1,19	0,901
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,7	1,27	3,5	1,17	0,412
Family Status	4,1	1,12	4,0	1,11	0,600
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,4	0,92	4,4	0,84	0,961
Spouse's (your) self-development possibilities	4,4	1,01	4,4	0,96	0,948
Corporate support	3,0	1,42	2,9	1,10	0,784

Appendix 8. Results of a t-test on committed relationship.

n=158	No committed relationship		Committed relationship		Significance (at the 95% level)
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Expatriate Willingness	4,1	0,88	3,6	0,95	0,002 *
Geography	4,1	0,95	4,0	0,90	0,679
Familiarity	2,9	1,11	3,0	1,13	0,727
Expatriate position offered	4,1	0,79	4,2	0,68	0,383
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,8	0,79	4,0	0,99	0,292
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,8	0,94	4,0	0,95	0,327
Family Status	4,1	1,00	4,5	0,74	0,002 *
Spouse willingness	3,8	1,02	4,4	0,90	0,003 *
Spouse*s career at home	3,4	1,00	4,1	0,94	0,000 *
Spouse*s career possibilities at target	3,5	0,95	4,2	0,87	<0,0001 *
Corporate support	3,0	0,99	3,2	0,93	0,387
SFE Willingness	4,0	0,96	3,3	1,09	0,000 *
Geography	4,3	0,88	4,2	0,82	0,660
Familiarity	3,3	1,06	3,4	1,12	0,605
SFE position offered	4,6	0,54	4,6	0,70	0,933
SFE pay and benefits	4,2	0,71	4,3	0,73	0,615
SFE career possibilities upon (possible) return	3,7	0,92	4,1	1,02	0,014 *
Family Status	4,0	0,97	4,4	0,91	0,016 *
Spouse willingness	3,9	1,02	4,4	0,79	0,005 *
Spouse*s career at home	3,6	0,99	4,2	0,94	0,000 *
Spouse*s career possibilities at target	3,7	0,92	4,3	0,75	<0,0001 *
Working Spouse Willingness	4,1	0,78	4,3	0,89	0,180
Geography	3,9	1,09	3,6	1,20	0,109
Familiarity	3,1	1,09	3,1	1,22	0,731
Expatriate position offered	3,5	1,06	3,9	1,13	0,033 *
Expatriate pay and benefits	3,6	1,10	3,8	1,07	0,153
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,2	1,09	3,7	1,03	0,008 *
Family Status	4,0	0,95	4,4	0,79	0,007 *
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,1	0,88	4,1	0,86	0,779
Spouse's (your) career possibilities at target	4,2	0,86	4,2	0,76	0,765
Corporate support	3,0	1,01	3,1	1,10	0,742
Non-Working Spouse Willingness	2,5	0,92	2,9	1,10	0,026 *
Geography	4,0	1,26	3,6	1,25	0,086
Familiarity	3,4	1,32	3,2	1,30	0,384
Expatriate position offered	4,0	1,20	4,0	1,35	0,082
Expatriate pay and benefits	4,3	1,07	4,4	0,95	0,444
Expatriate career possibilities upon return	3,7	1,24	3,7	1,30	0,993
Family Status	4,1	1,08	4,1	1,23	0,818
Spouse's (your) career at home	4,5	0,90	4,2	0,92	0,132
Spouse's (your) self-development possibilities	4,4	1,00	4,3	1,00	0,966
Corporate support	3,0	1,12	2,9	1,18	0,597