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THE IMPACT OF CONTEMPORARY GLOBAL MOBILITY ON THE FAMILY WHO STAYS BEHIND

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Human Resource Management
at Massey University, Albany, New Zealand

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Abstract

This thesis considers the impact of contemporary global mobility on the lives of the stay-behind family. Organisations are increasingly utilising flexible modes of global mobility to meet their international obligations, including frequent international business travel, commuting, and short-term assignments. However, research has continued to lag practice. The aim of this study is to understand the work and non-work implications of living with contemporary global mobility. Specifically, the research is guided by two questions: i) how have the home lives of the stay-behind family members been affected by the contemporary global mobility of their partner or parent? and ii) how has the career of the stay-behind partner been impacted by the global mobility undertaken by their partner?

Through a lens of social constructionism, this study uses qualitative semi-structured interviews to give voice to the families of international sailors, who are employed across the continuum of contemporary global mobility. The limitations of the context-specific sample are considered justifiable in exchange for access to the often ignored voice of the child.

The findings make theoretical, methodological and practical contributions to contemporary global mobility, work-family, and career scholarship. They enhance understanding of the demands borne by those who stay behind, and the resources they utilise to manage their ever-evolving situation. The development of the Work Family Mobility Framework, as viewed through the lens of contemporary global mobility, is the overarching contribution of the thesis. The applicability of the Kaleidoscope Career to contemporary global mobility is the primary career contribution. Incorporating children makes a methodological contribution, while the practical suggestions emerging from the findings provide focus for improving the lives of those who stay behind.

Future research is required to test the Work-Family Mobility Framework in other contemporary global mobility communities, and with a sample including both male and female travellers. Longitudinal studies are recommended to investigate the impacts of this global mobility over time. Finally, it is recommended that the Kaleidoscope Career Model be further explored within the global mobility context.

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Publications

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Chapter 1 Introduction

In 2009 my children and I travelled non-stop from St. Petersburg, Russia, to Auckland New Zealand, timed so my son would not miss the first day of the new school term. We had been trailing my husband, the children's father, around the world while he sailed the 2008/2009 Volvo Ocean Race. But now it was time to head back home. My husband was on a different flight, as he was heading to the United States to compete in yet another yacht race. His international sailing career was flourishing, but it was time for some stability for the children, and for me to prioritise my career. There were so many questions that went through my head on that very long flight. How often, and for how long, would my husband be away for? Would I cope with being solely responsible for the children each time he was away? How could I make sure the children were best prepared to cope with the comings and goings of their father? How was I going to reinvigorate my career? And in terms of work-family balance, what was that going to look like? The following thesis goes some way to answering these questions - for me, and hopefully for all those others who are living a life just like mine.

For the 21st century worker, global mobility is increasingly common (Tung, 2016; Urry, 2012). The contemporary definition of global mobility incorporates a range of alternatives to the traditional long-term expatriate assignment, where the normative assumption is the family will *not* accompany the employee. For the purpose of this study, the modes of contemporary global mobility includes those who engage in short-

term international assignments, commuter employees, and frequent international business travellers. These forms of international work are not entirely new (Bonache, Brewster, & Suutari, 2007), but as their adoption escalates (Brookfield, 2016) there are a growing number of calls to increase our understanding of the phenomenon (e.g. Collings, Scullion, & Morley, 2007; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Kraimer, Bolino, & Mead, 2016; Suutari, Tornikoski, & Mäkelä, 2012). Whilst the nature of the work and the accompanying commitments may differ between the various modes of global mobility, the one consistent contextual factor is the family. This study enhances our understanding of the impact of contemporary global mobility, from the perspective of the family, as reported by the family, across each of the modes of mobility.

1.1 Locating the Research

The ever-increasing organisational shift away from traditional long term expatriation, to the more flexible contemporary modes of global mobility, is attributed to a number of factors. It is becoming increasingly difficult to find staff willing to undertake traditional expatriate postings (Brookfield, 2014; Tharenou, 2008), with many citing family concerns, particularly around their children's education (Cho, Hutchings, & Marchant, 2013; Dupuis, Haines, & Saba, 2008; Gupta, Banerjee, & Gaur, 2012) and their partner's career (Cole, 2012; Konopaske, Robie, & Ivancevich, 2009; Roos, 2013).

These issues are compounded by the growing number of roles that are centred in emerging market economies, which can prove challenging for any accompanying family in terms of security, and their general quality of life (Brookfield, 2016).

Despite the growing organisational preference for contemporary modes of global mobility, research appears to be lagging practice, and continues to focus on the traditional long-term expatriate (Caligiuri & Bonache, 2016; Collings, 2013; Shaffer,

Kraimer, Chen, & Bolino, 2012). Whilst this reticence may be attributed to a lack of consensus regarding the definition of contemporary global mobility (Andresen, Bergdolt, Margenfeld, & Dickmann, 2014), an absence attended to in the current study, there is a small body of research that does consider the impact of contemporary global mobility. Existing studies indicate that contemporary global employees may be required to work long hours, both while away (Brewster, Sparrow, Vernon, & Houldsworth, 2011; Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010), and when attending to the dual responsibilities they retain at home (Tahvanainen, Welch, & Worm, 2005). The substantial work load, combined with an intensive work-living environment, can manifest in health related issues for the globally mobile (Gustafson, 2014; Tahvanainen et al., 2005). Despite this, it appears there is a dearth of formal organisational support for these employees (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013; Mayerhofer, Schmidt, Hartmann, & Bendl, 2011), and it is the stay-behind partner who is often responsible for providing the traveller with support (Konopaske, Robie, & Ivancevich, 2005; Torkington, Larkins, & Gupta, 2011). However, the partner may themselves be experiencing role overload (Sandow, 2014; Starr & Currie, 2009; Wu, 2013). This, in turn, may have an impact on their general well-being (Andres, Moelker, & Soeters, 2012; Dimiceli, Steinhardt, & Smith, 2010), and their employment choices (Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012; Stewart & Donald, 2006). There are a number of family-related issues that warrant further investigation, and it is these gaps in the knowledge that form the foundations on which this study is built.

1.2 Research Aims

With the aim of expanding our understanding of the impact the various forms of contemporary global mobility have on the level of additional domestic demands borne

by the family, and the support they require to manage these demands, the first research question is:

How have the home lives of the stay-behind family members been affected by the contemporary global mobility of their partner or parent?

Detailed consideration has yet to be given to the work domain of the partner who stays behind. Similarly, there is little research that explains how the demands of living with contemporary global mobility affects the career of the partner who stays behind, including how they might adapt their career to maintain a sustainable work-family balance. The second research question addresses this gap:

How has the career of the stay-behind partner been impacted by the global mobility undertaken by their partner?

By asking these questions, the study responds not only to the outstanding calls to enhance our understanding of contemporary global mobility (e.g. Collings et al., 2007; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Kraimer et al., 2016; Suutari et al., 2012), but also calls to consider the work-family nexus from an international perspective (Cappellen & Janssens, 2010a; Kaczmarek & Sibbel, 2008; Takeuchi, 2010).

1.3 Research Design

The research is conducted through a lens of social constructionism where my participants and I, through our interaction, construct new knowledge together. The principal participants in my study are the partners and children of international sailors, who stay behind, while their partner, or parent, travels internationally for work. I chose to engage with the international yachting fraternity as the sailors work across the continuum of contemporary global mobility, providing the opportunity for comparison

between the various modes of mobility. I chose to integrate the perspectives of both the partners and the children, in response to enduring and endemic reliance on parental reporting. While the ethical issues that permeate research involving children require focused consideration, to exclude them denies the increasing recognition that children are competent contributors to the production of knowledge (Alanen, 2001; Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Morrow & Richards, 1996), and “experts on their own lives” (Mason & Tipper, 2013, p. 154).

As the study of contemporary global mobility, and of the work-family nexus in an international context, are both emergent (Collings et al., 2007; Shaffer et al., 2012), a qualitative approach is considered the best fit (Cappellen & Janssens, 2010a; Edmondson & McManus, 2007; Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The semi-structured interviews follow interview guides that are informed by the existing scholarship, and my experiences as a stay-behind partner. Photo elicitation, where “researchers introduce photographs into the interview context” (Clark-Ibanez, 2004, p. 1507) is used at the start of the children’s interviews facilitating rapport (Prosser, 2011), and in an effort to redress the inherent power imbalance that exists between children and adults (Kirk, 2007).

The overarching approach to the data analysis is abductive, drawing on existing theoretical lenses to inform the thematic analysis. Utilising NVivo, the data analysis fundamentally adheres to Braun and Clarke’s (2006) prescribed six phases of thematic analysis, with the addition of a second phase of data collection. The second phase interviews, with partners living with contemporary global mobility who are from outside the sailing fraternity, have the purpose of enhancing the trustworthiness of the existing data (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004).

1.4 Researcher Reflexivity

My position as a cultural insider (Ganga & Scott, 2006) must be acknowledged up front. My personal biography as the partner of an international sailor inevitably permeates the entire research process. Choosing a subject one is emotionally attached to is said to energise us to action (Elmhirst, 2012), and to positively enhance our rapport with our participants (Hatfield, 2010). However, over-identification with one's participants can also lead to an overly empathetic approach with an unwillingness to depict interviewees unfavourably (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). I believe awareness is a precursor to reflexivity, and remain conscious of the need to constantly reflect on how I could be influencing the research process.

1.5 Research Contribution

This research makes theoretical, methodological, and practical contributions. This thesis contributes to the existing scholarship, by enhancing our understanding of the demands placed on those who stay behind, and the support they require if they are to adjust to living with contemporary global mobility. It also offers unique insight into the impact of contemporary global mobility on the career of the partner who stays behind. This new knowledge culminates in the Work-Family Mobility Framework, viewed through the lens of contemporary global mobility.

Methodologically, the findings reinforce the importance of giving children their own voice, both in terms of being able to tell their own story, and in providing a sometimes disparate perspective to that provided by their parent. Finally, the research makes a number of practical contributions, in the form of strategies to assist families who are learning to adjust to staying behind, and suggestions of the formal support organisations could be providing those families.

1.6 Overview of the Thesis

The thesis is organised as follows. Chapter Two reviews the existing global mobility, family and career literature. Consistent with expectancy of construct development in any emergent field (Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013), the chapter reviews and synthesises the available taxonomies and typologies, before offering clarified definitions of the relevant modes of mobility. The chapter proceeds to use the relevant modes to structure the review of the existing literature in terms of the globally mobile individual, the stay-behind partners and children, and finally the partner's career. From this point forward, the stay-behind partner and child will be identified simply as the 'partner' or 'child' respectively, while the globally mobile individual will be identified as the 'traveller'. Chapter Three details the research design, including my philosophical position, and the choices that were made with respect to the participants, the data collection, and the data analysis. The chapter also provides a comprehensive analysis of the ethical considerations that must be attended to when interviewing children. Chapters Four and Five discuss the findings of the research, telling integrated thematic stories, combining the voices of the partners and the children, as well as the second phase interviewees from the greater global mobility community. More specifically, Chapter Four addresses the first research question, discussing the impact of contemporary global mobility on the home domain, while Chapter Five focuses on the second research question, and the impact on the partners' careers. Chapter Six is an implications chapter, and presents the Work-Family Mobility Framework, as viewed through the lens of contemporary global mobility. Finally Chapter Seven concludes the thesis, providing an overview of the contributions, acknowledging the limitations and identifying directions for future research.

Chapter 2 Contemporary Global Mobility

2.1 Introduction

The overall objective of this chapter is to position my research within the existing global mobility, family, and career literature. In reviewing the literature, it became apparent that these three areas were linked, and in fact overlapped in part. For this reason, Figure 1 symbolises how these three areas are viewed in this chapter.



Figure 1: Symbolic Representation of the Overlap between Relevant Literature Streams

Initially, the chapter considers the escalating adoption of a range of contemporary forms of global mobility, clarifying definitions of the modes of mobility at the core of my study. While contemporary global mobility spans a broad range of international work experiences, ranging from those who continue to engage in traditional, long, accompanied, assignments (Kraimer et al., 2016; McNulty & Brewster, 2017), to the self-initiated (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014), to those whose mobility is more virtual (Kraimer, Takeuchi, & Frese, 2014), it is those modes

where the family stays behind that are the focus of the current study. Within the academic conversation, there is a growing interest in understanding these particular forms of global mobility, predominantly from the perspective of the traveller, and an overview of this literature provides contextual background for my study. The chapter then presents a brief summary of the relevant family scholarship, followed by a more detailed review of the available literature specifically concerned with the family that stays behind. The relevant career literature is then reviewed. This includes an overview of the contemporary career conversation, as well as discussing the notion of sailing as a career, and the career of a partner who stays behind. Finally, consideration is given to the potential theoretical underpinnings for my study, the existing gaps in knowledge are recognised, and the resulting research questions identified. At the outset, it is necessary to detail the literature search process, so as to draw the boundaries of the scholarly foundation the thesis has been built upon.

2.1.1 Literature Identification

Initial database searches revealed a paucity of studies grounded specifically in unaccompanied contemporary global mobility, necessitating a broadening of the search into various related literature streams. Searches based around the seemingly germane *traditional* expatriate lexicon pinpointed a number of key authors starting to engage in contemporary global mobility conversations. Author-based searches were then conducted for each of the identified scholars. Further searches uncovered a key review of the global work experience literature by seminal mobility researchers Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen and Bolino (2012). This proved an invaluable source of both ancestry (from the biography), and decedent (where cited) articles. The scarcity of traditional management literature examining the familial impact of contemporary global mobility meant an increasingly interdisciplinary approach was required. Searches across

disparate literature streams, including the military, and the oil and mining resource sectors, identified further relevant scholarship.

With reference to the specific sailing context, literature regarding the careers of professional sailors appears to be restricted to performance related studies (Henriksen, Stambulova, & Roessler, 2010; Pearson, Hume, Cronin, & Slyfield, 2009). While the migration of athletes, football players in particular, has been the foci of a growing body of research (Dolles & Egilsson, 2017), the primary focus remains the institutional structures, such as the relevant sporting federations, and the athlete continues to be considered a commodity (Carter, 2011) rather than a member of the globally mobile workforce. Two notable exceptions were identified where consideration had been given to the familial impact of international sport - the first is a study by Roderick (2012) into the routine labour market migration faced by football players incorporating insight into how spouses experience the repetitive expatriations, and/or separations, and the second considered the coping mechanisms of the partners of mountaineers (Wu, 2013).

Finally a focused review of work-family research was undertaken, in order to position my study within the broader context, and to provide an assurance of the completeness of the search process. Database searches for work by the prolific and influential family scholars Greenhaus and Powell, and a subsequent review of ascendant and descendant articles, formed the basis of the inquiry. Approaching the question of familial impact from the work-family perspective failed to identify any research undertaken through the lens of contemporary global mobility, further highlighting the nascent nature of the literature. Overall the literature review process confirmed a small, yet perceptible shift, away from the focus on traditional long-term expatriation (Shaffer et al., 2012). It appears academia is starting to reflect the organisational trend towards contemporary global mobility alternatives.

2.2 Global Mobility

This section focuses on the phenomenon of global mobility. Discussion around organisations' increasing utilisation of contemporary forms of global mobility provides an underlying justification for the study as it highlights the importance of gaining an understanding of the phenomenon. The enduring academic reticence to engage in research that would contribute to this knowledge has been attributed to a lack of construct clarity. This section reviews the definitions of the relevant modes of contemporary global mobility with the aim of providing the clarity required. Finally, the section provides an overview of the global mobility research that is available from the perspective of the traveller.

2.2.1 The Rise of Contemporary Global Mobility

Prior to addressing the absence of a construct clarity permeating contemporary global mobility, it is valuable to consider to what extent, and why, these new forms of mobility have flourished in the 21st century. Whilst more flexible forms of global mobility may not be entirely 'new' or 'modern' (Bonache, Brewster, Suutari, & De Saá, 2010; Collings et al., 2007), organisations are increasingly utilising them to satisfy their international obligations (Brookfield, 2014). The following discussion confirms the increasing adoption of the various alternatives to traditional expatriation, and deliberates on the drivers behind this evolution.

Traditional long-term placements to fill positions and facilitate organisational and managerial development endure (Edström & Gaibraith, 1977), however, seminal research from the turn of the century highlights the escalating utilization of short-term, frequent flyer and international commuter assignments (Harris, 1999; Petrovic, 2000). Increasingly, organisations are hard-pressed to find staff willing to expatriate

(Tharenou, 2008), a trend recently ratified by practitioners. Brookfield's (2014) survey of over 900 multi-national corporations indicates that whilst only 1% of the global workforce is currently engaged in traditional long-term expatriate assignments of greater than 12 months, almost 8% identify as non-traditional international workers. The continued evolution of the portfolio of the globally mobile is further evidenced by the growth in assignments of less than one year from 10% in 2002 to 20% in 2012 (PwC, 2012). The participants in the survey emanate from around the world, including the Asia-Pacific region. Nonetheless, it is prudent to further consider the changing portfolio of global mobility from a more New Zealand focused perspective.

Scholarship with a specifically New Zealand context is limited to a relatively small number of studies that consider either the traditional expatriate (Jenkins & Mockaitis, 2010; Podsiadlowski, Vauclair, Spiess, & Stroppa, 2013; Seak & Enderwick, 2008) or the self-initiated expatriate (Ellis, 2012; Thorn, 2009; Thorn, Inkson, & Carr, 2013). To date, there have been no studies of the contemporary international work experience in a New Zealand context. Australian research, potentially the best available facsimile in the absence of New Zealand-specific studies, has still to reach a consensus regarding the impact of geographic isolation on the adoption of contemporary forms of global mobility. Early exploratory research confirms a move away from the traditional long-term posting, despite the challenges posed by geographic isolation (Fenwick, 2004). However, subsequent work queries whether the alternative shorter-term assignments are feasible given the constraints imposed by geography (McDonnell & Boyle, 2012). Nevertheless, at the Asia-Pacific level, statistics indicate new patterns of global mobility incorporating short-term assignees and various permutations of commuting (McNulty, De Cieri, & Hutchings, 2013). Recognising the face of global mobility *is* changing, the next step is to understand the factors shaping the change.

The sustained utility and viability of traditional long-term expatriate assignments is the subject of continuing debate around various issues of supply and demand, in conjunction with the omnipresent question of cost (Collings et al., 2007; Shaffer et al., 2012). The decline in global competitiveness experienced by organisations unable to attract candidates willing to relocate (Konopaske et al., 2009), alongside the potential negative impact when the initially reticent are *persuaded* to accept international assignments (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Pinto, Cabral-Cardoso, & Werther, 2012), highlights the significance of supply-side issues. Recent research suggests that family concerns, particularly around the education of accompanying children (Cho et al., 2013; Dupuis et al., 2008; Gupta et al., 2012) and dual-careers (Cole, 2012; Konopaske et al., 2009; Roos, 2013), dominate workers' reticence to accept traditional international assignments. Moreover, whilst career development in an international context is no longer envisaged as restricted to traditional expatriation (Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010; Mayerhofer, Müller, & Schmidt, 2010), the comparative effectiveness of contemporary forms of global mobility in promoting career advancement continues to be questioned (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Oddou, Mendenhall, & Ritchie, 2000). The academic assertions resonate with recent practitioner statistics (Brookfield, 2014), as presented in Figure 2. These supply-side issues are often compounded by the following peculiarities of contemporary expatriate demand.

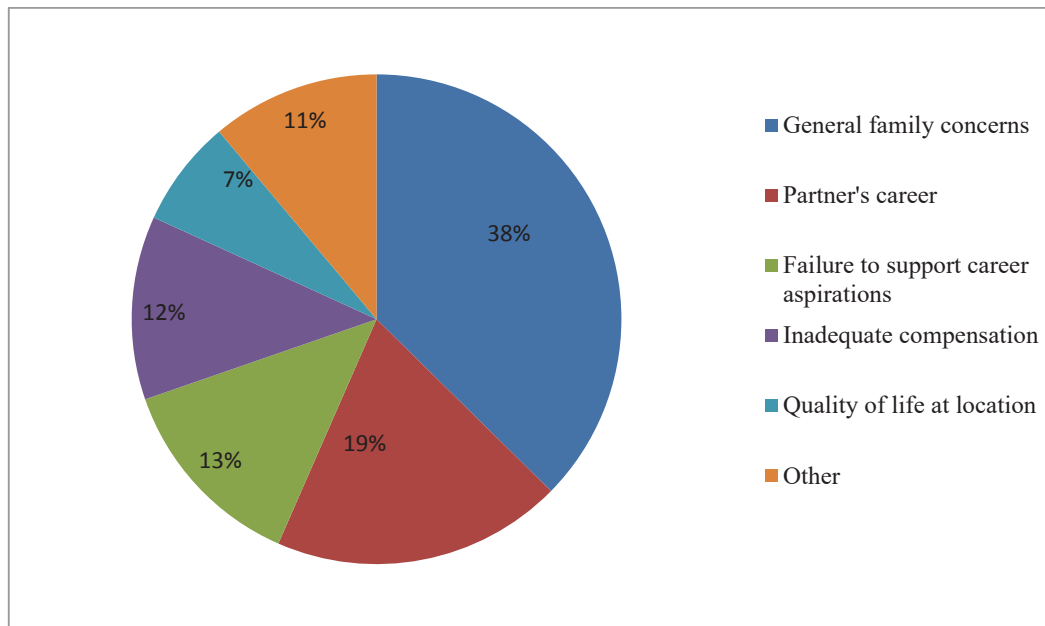


Figure 2: Reasons for Declining Traditional Expatriation.

Source: Brookfield. (2014) *Global Relocation Trends Survey*.

In today's globally competitive market place, the demand for globally mobile individuals continues to expand, not only within the current emerging market economies (BRIC - Brazil, Russia, India and China) but also within those deemed the emerging markets of the future (MINT - Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria and Turkey). However, it is these countries that also represent the greatest challenge to supply. Quality of life issues in China, security issues in Brazil, and cultural and housing challenges in India, all contribute to reservations towards undertaking long-term assignments where the family also expatriates. Consequentially, there has been an increase in the adoption of unaccompanied alternatives (Brookfield, 2016). This increase has occurred despite an anticipated downturn in overall mobility resulting from technological advances in video-mediated communication that has yet to materialise. People continue to value face-to-face encounters for fulfilling different needs, including networking and the maintenance of trusting relationships (Beaverstock, Derudder, Faulconbridge, & Witlox, 2009; Denstadli, Julsrud, & Hjorthol, 2012; Mokhtarian,

2009). The final key issue driving the move towards contemporary global mobility revolves around the financial generosity of the traditional expatriate package.

Controlling the tangible costs of traditional expatriate assignments is an ever-present challenge for organisations (Collings et al., 2007; Tahvanainen et al., 2005; Welch, Welch, & Worm, 2007). Moreover, there is ongoing debate as to whether the costs are justified. The positive motivational impact of traditional expatriate compensation packages finds some support (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Wagner & Westaby, 2009; Warneke & Schneider, 2011), particularly for male expatriates (Lauring & Selmer, 2010). However, others query whether expatriates are in fact motivated by financial incentives (Dickmann, Doherty, Mills, & Brewster, 2008). Contributing to the debate is the assertion that once *per diem* rates, travel, and accommodation have been accounted, it appears the contemporary forms of global mobility may be equally expensive (PwC, 2012; Tahvanainen et al., 2005). Whether costs should even be factored into an organisation's decision-making when choosing between traditional and contemporary forms of global mobility remains a contentious issue (Salleh & Koh, 2013), as some would argue that strategic objective and purpose, not cost, should drive the organisational choice between international assignment types (McKenna & Richardson, 2007). Notwithstanding these divergent arguments, the pressure of cost control remains undeniable (Tahvanainen et al., 2005; Vance & Paik, 2011).

With regard to the New Zealand-specific context of my study, it is notable that Asian economic growth (McNulty et al., 2013), compounded by the relocation of cost-conscious multi-national corporations (Schaaper, Amann, Jaussaud, Nakamura, & Mizoguchi, 2013), is fuelling an increased regional demand for both the traditionally and contemporarily globally mobile. Whether the proximity of New Zealand to Asia further accelerates the move towards alternative forms of global mobility for New

Zealanders, is a question yet to be addressed. What is clear is that for organisations and their IHRM professionals, the demand for globally mobile individuals is expanding (Brookfield, 2016) and, therefore, to address the ongoing issues of supply and cost, a reworking of international assignment portfolios appears inevitable.

2.2.2 Contemporary Global Mobility – Construct Clarity

The need to differentiate the expatriate construct based on the volume and tenure of mobility has long been identified (Torrington, 1994). However, a universally accepted classification is yet to be established, and the definition continues to be hampered by those adhering to the simplistic dichotomy of short-term versus long-term (Collings, 2013). This absence of clear demarcation and definition can lead to comparability issues (Andresen et al., 2014; Tahvanainen et al., 2005) and a reticence to advance research beyond the traditional expatriate domain (Caligiuri & Bonache, 2016; Shaffer et al., 2012). The need for construct clarity extends beyond the requirements of academic rigour to the needs of end-users as Tharenou (2015) argues, consistent definitions are needed if practical applications are going to be of value to the business community.

The following section considers how the relevant contemporary global mobility options, have been defined across a multitude of recently proffered taxonomies and typologies. This process is in line with the expectation that, in any emergent field of study, there is a certain expectancy of construct and definition development (Doherty et al., 2013).

2.2.2.1 Analysis of the Extant Taxonomies and Typologies

Over the last two decades, international mobility scholars have tendered a number of taxonomies and typologies of global mobility, respectively adopting various empirically and theoretically supported dimensions, presumably aimed at establishing a clear,

coherent, and logically consistent construct (Suddaby, 2010). Appendix A shows a summary of the various published taxonomies and typologies. Expanding beyond the two by two dichotomy of time and frequency engenders an array of classifications (Peiperl & Jonsen, 2007). Baruch, Dickmann, Altman, and Bournois (2013) identify seven dimensions (length, intensity of contact, legal environment, the initiator of the work, cross-cultural skill requirements, cultural distance, and breadth of interaction) giving rise to 20 key forms of global mobility. Other scholars choose to integrate the initiating party (Doherty et al., 2013), and migrant or non-migrant status (Andresen et al., 2014) into their definitions. Purpose is a further dimension repeatedly incorporated into a number of the taxonomies (Collings et al., 2007; Meyskens, Von Glinow, Werther, & Clarke, 2009; Millar & Salt, 2008), whilst the non-work impact is also recognised as a valid point of differentiation (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, & Kollinger, 2004; Shaffer et al., 2012). Many of these taxonomies and typologies encompass modes of global mobility that are beyond the scope of the current study, for example the self-initiated expatriate and the traditional long-term accompanied expatriate (e.g. Andresen et al., 2014; Doherty et al., 2013). However, even when considering only those modes relevant to the current study, there are still only certain classifications that are repeatedly recognised and adopted for empirical research, and it is these classifications that have been adopted in this study.

Short-term assignments are consistently defined as those assignments undertaken for periods ranging between three and nine months, with a variety of goals and objectives (Collings et al., 2007; Millar & Salt, 2008; Shaffer et al., 2012). It has been argued that whether the traveller is accompanied or not may be irrelevant for the purpose of definition (Collings et al., 2007), however, the majority of scholars concur that such assignments are usually unaccompanied with a consequential impact on both the

unaccompanied traveller and any family left behind (Meyskens et al., 2009; Shaffer et al., 2012). The rationale attributed to short-term assignments, as identified by Tahvanainen and colleagues (2005), includes specific projects, skill transfer, problem solving, managerial control, and management development. Whilst Vance and Paik (2011) forefront the management development aspect, in particular the potentially rejuvenating impact of any release from domestic routine, and Salleh and Koh (2013) extend the potential purpose of short-term assignments to explicitly include the building and maintenance of internal and external relationships, on the whole they echo the earlier findings of Tahvanainen and colleagues (2005). It would therefore appear that short-term assignments are a consistently defined contemporary global work experience, around incidence, purpose and the work-family interface, and it is these definitions that will be used to inform the current study.

The commuter is a globally mobile person who travels on either a weekly, or some alternate, cyclical basis (Collings et al., 2007). Usually, the travel forms an essential component of a commuter's role and may entail short trips to nearby countries, or travel to developing nations where third world conditions manifest in a reticence towards more traditional relocation. Whilst there are semantic differences (commuter versus rotational versus rotators) across taxonomies, there is a consistency in the premise that individuals undertake these commuter-type roles unaccompanied (Collings et al., 2007; Meyskens et al., 2009; Millar & Salt, 2008). The adoption of this type of global mobility is a fairly recent phenomenon in the corporate sector (Brookfield, 2014). The exception is the 'Fly-In-Fly-Out' (FIFO) assignment that has been the chosen mode of mobility for offshore oil workers since the 1940s and in Australian mining since the 1980s (Storey & Shrimpton, 1991). Beyond the extractive industries, FIFO has also facilitated the supply of essential human services to the Australian rural outback

(Margolis, 2012; Sibbel, 2009), and teaching staff to the international higher education sector (McDonnell & Boyle, 2012). The historic definition of the FIFO, those who “work on remote locations where food and lodging accommodation is provided for workers at the work site but not for their families” (Storey, 2001, p.135) clearly articulates the unaccompanied nature of the mobility type that resonates with the contemporary corporate definitions of the commuter. Regardless of the semantics, there appears a consensus around the definition of the commuter along the dimensions of incidence, purpose and non-work impact, and it is these definitions that will be used to inform the current study.

Frequent International Business Travellers (FIBTs) are defined as those who undertake multiple unaccompanied trips of between one and three weeks, usually for the purpose of negotiations, conferences, or project based initiatives (Shaffer et al., 2012). This definition stems from empirical support in the seminal research of Welch, Welch and Worm (2007) who identify frequent travellers as those where overseas “business travel is an essential component of their work” (p. 174), reflecting the omnipresence of international work-related travel in today’s global economy (Collings et al., 2007; Nicholas & McDowall, 2012). The rationale underpinning the assumption of FIBT includes the facilitation of face-to-face meetings (Aguilera, 2008; Millar & Salt, 2008) to support irregular or specialised tasks (Collings et al., 2007). This mode of global mobility is one which might be adopted when there is a reticence to relocate the family to developing countries (Paganus, 2006). Similarly dual-career issues have been identified by Millar and Salt (2008) as drivers that promote FIBT. Whilst there is a potential heterogeneity of business travellers between those regular repetitive commuters, the more strategy-focused explorers, and trouble-shooting nomads (Wickham & Vecchi, 2009) across the dimensions of incidence, purpose, and non-work

impact, there appears to be academic consensus regarding the definition of FIBT, and it is these definitions that will be used to inform the current study.

The flexpatriate has been defined as an individual who may “travel for brief assignments away from their home base and across cultural or national borders, leaving their family and personal life behind” (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004, p. 648). This effectively combines commuting assignments and frequent international business travel into a single categorisation. Whilst some recent studies have adhered to Mayerhofer and colleagues’ original definition of a flexpatriate (Baruch et al., 2013; Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010), there appears to be a lack of uniform adoption. McPhail, Fisher, Harvey and Moeller’s (2012) definition of the flexpatriate combines short-term assignments, commuter and virtual assignments, whilst Crowley-Henry and Heaslip (2014) contend that a flexpatriate is one who undertakes frequent business trips where the period spent in any one country at a time did not exceed one month. Shaffer et al. (2012) explicitly purport to adopt Mayerhofer et al.’s (2004) definition and yet also specifically identify frequent international business travellers in their continuum of global work experiences. Some choose to adopt the term flexpatriate into their lexis without explicating the definition (McKenna & Richardson, 2007), whilst others elect to unravel the combination and continue to differentiate between frequent international business travel and commuter type assignments (Collings et al., 2007; Meyskens et al., 2009; Millar & Salt, 2008; Peiperl & Jonsen, 2007). This absence of uniformity of application of the term flexpatriate has the potential to impact the validity of new research (Andresen et al., 2014; Tahvanainen et al., 2005). Consequently, for my study, the Mayerhofer et al. (2004) consolidation has been unwound into commuter assignments and frequent international business travel and the term flexpatriate explicitly omitted.

2.2.2.2 Contemporary Global Mobility – Relevant Modes Defined

My review of the various taxonomies and typologies of contemporary global mobility proffered by scholars over recent decades resulted in the identification of four potential relevant classifications of the global work experience (Refer Appendix A). A subsequent detailed analysis confirmed that three of the four are consistently defined across identifiable dimensions (Suddaby, 2010), and frequently applied by academic researchers. These modes of global working are the short-term assignment, commuter assignment, and FIBT. They are delineated across the dimensions of incidence, purpose and non-work impact, and provide the definitions underpinning my research, as summarised in Table 1. The absence of detail with regard to the dimension of non-work impact is a reflection of the remaining gaps in the extant knowledge and highlights one of the potential empirical contributions of the current study.

The objective of this section was to identify and clearly define the relevant modes of global mobility adopted by researchers within the academic community. The next step is to gain an understanding of the phenomenon from the perspective of the globally mobile.

Table 1: Overview of the Relevant Modes of Contemporary Global Mobility

	Short-term Assignment	Commuter Assignment	Frequent International Business Travel
Definition	Assignments longer than business trips but typically shorter than traditional corporate expatriation, undertaken for various purposes.	Periodic travel from home base to another country for a variety of purposes. Personal circumstances often motivate this as a substitute for traditional expatriation.	Frequent travel that forms an essential element of one's role.
Incidence	Greater than 3 months but less than a year on an ad hoc basis.	Weekly, or otherwise, periodic cycles.	Multiple ad hoc trips for periods of between 1 and 3 weeks.
Purpose	Projects, skill transfer, problem solving, managerial control, management development, internal and external relationship building.	Historically confined to the extractive industries, or for the provision of rural services however now extending to incorporate career development within geographic constraints. Often the overarching purpose is to accommodate work life balance.	Projects, negotiations, and conferences. Face-to-face meetings facilitating knowledge transfer internally and to external stakeholders Often driven by work life balance issues.
Non-Work Impact	Usually unaccompanied.	Unaccompanied.	Unaccompanied.

2.2.3 The Globally Mobile

Recognising that the mode of global mobility has the potential to influence the family's experience underscores the need for the following review of the existing literature from the perspective of the globally mobile. It should be noted that the historical absence of construct clarity permeates the extant literature. Where global mobility research has limited itself to the dichotomous classification of either traditional long-term expatriation or 'business travel' (e.g. Ornoy, Levi-Nishri, & Uziel, 2014; Stewart & Donald, 2006), I have endeavoured to classify the findings according to the defined relevant modes of mobility (Refer Table 1), based on the available information. The following sections provide context for my study by considering the work domain of the globally mobile.

2.2.3.1 *The Globally Mobile at Work*

Scholarship concerning the work experiences of the globally mobile emphasises how each of the various forms of contemporary global mobility has a different impact on the traveller. The following section will consider the impact of each of the following factors: endemic long working hours, dual workplace responsibilities, health related issues, the potential positives, and sources of work based support.

Long work hours are a consistent demand, caused by different factors, including tight project deadlines placed on short-term assignees (Brewster et al., 2011), the opportunity for unaccompanied commuters to be singularly focused on work (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010), and the drive of frequent international business travellers to reduce their time away (Nicholas & McDowall, 2012). Loneliness appears a universal motivator for working long hours (Shortland, 2015) as all travellers are without the support of a traditional trailing spouse (Lauring & Selmer, 2010). For the FIBT, the long hours may

start while physically travelling, particularly during the outbound journeys, in preparation for arrival at their destination (Mayerhofer et al., 2010). Although there is no formal obligation to work whilst travelling, workload expectations often make this inevitable (Gustafson, 2012). This practice is arguably entrenched within the emerging trend of the virtual organisation (Wickham & Vecchi, 2009), facilitated by mobile technologies, where the traveller remains contactable (Ramsey, 2013). Across the contemporary continuum, the pressures of work-related travel do not always disappear once they have landed back home.

Indications are that for short-term assignees, the dual responsibilities sustained in both home and host country represent their greatest work challenge (Tahvanainen et al., 2005). Striker and colleagues' (1999) seminal study of World Bank employees, reports not only long hours while travelling, but also substantial workloads awaiting FIBT's attention upon their return. Subsequent research confirms these earlier findings, highlighting the conundrum that whilst restorative time off may be required by the short-term assignee or the FIBT, it is rarely feasible post-travel due to outstanding local work commitments (Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010; Gustafson, 2012; Mayerhofer et al., 2011). There is also the endemic preparatory work required prior to trips, including administrative tasks such as organising travel and accommodation (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013; Mayerhofer et al., 2011), but can also feature role-specific responsibilities. For example academics undertaking short-term assignments face the additional requirement of tailoring their courses to the local context (Jais, Smyrnios, & Hoare, 2015).

For commuters such as those in the mining industry who travel to their work, there are no dual work responsibilities. Their challenges however, may stem from the intensive working-living environment where colleagues not only work long hours together, but

also are housed together. This intensity can cause negative tensions to arise (Carter & Kaczmarek, 2009; Torkington et al., 2011). Further tensions can exist within the work locale if the community feels the workers' presence to be temporary, taking, but contributing little (Brewster et al., 2011). Clearly the nature of challenges varies across the modes of mobility, but a general deterioration in the travellers' health appears a universal consequence.

Omnipresent insomnia, exacerbated by an unbalanced diet, excessive alcohol consumption and a lack of exercise, may negatively impact on the temporary and ongoing overall health of the FIBT (Collings et al., 2007; Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010; Espino, Sundstrom, Frick, Jacobs, & Peters, 2002; Gustafson, 2014; Rogers & Reilly, 2002). Although an isolated study appears to refute the negative health impact of FIBT (Mayerhofer et al., 2011), the authors acknowledge it may be that the health problems have yet to manifest. Adverse health impacts seem to be exacerbated by the frequency, as opposed to the duration, of business travel (Burkholder, Joines, Cunningham-Hill, & Xu, 2010; Richards & Rundle, 2011), potentially placing the FIBT at greater risk. However, the often extreme and insecure environments where short-term assignees undertake international projects are argued to increase the chance of health-related issues, such as alcoholism (Tahvanainen et al., 2005). Equally, recent research indicates that despite the down-time, it is commuters who may be the most prone to ill-health as the repetitive nature of their travel results in greater emotional exhaustion and strain on their personal resources (Jensen & Rundmo, 2015). Therefore, it appears the health of anyone who engages in global mobility may be at risk. The next question is whether, despite the excessive demands and consequent health risks, the globally mobile perceive that the benefits outweigh the challenges of travel.

The significant financial remuneration, unique work environments, and gratifying camaraderie with colleagues are the oft-cited positive factors of commuting (Carter & Kaczmarek, 2009; Misan & Rudnik, 2015; Torkington et al., 2011). For the FIBT, non-routine business travel can afford the individual respite from the day-to-day routine, which not only stimulates and enriches, but potentially offsets travel-related burnout (Gustafson, 2006; Westman & Etzion, 2002; Westman, Etzion, & Gattenio, 2008). A recent study of Portuguese FIBTs confirmed work travel as a source of self-fulfilment (Pinto & Maia, 2015), while FIBT may also be seen as an opportunity to maintain relationships with geographically dispersed friends (Bergstrom, 2010; Wickham & Vecchi, 2009). Whilst it seems reasonable to expect those on short-term assignments to report similar positive effects, there appears to be no research to date that has considered this particular issue. Overall, whether the travel experience is perceived as positive or negative may depend on the individual traits of the traveller (Mayerhofer et al., 2010). This may explain why some see the repetitive scheduling and planning as a chore (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010) whilst others see it as a potential strategy for facilitating work-life balance (Lirio, Selmer, & Mayrhofer, 2014).

Whether engaging in global mobility will result in positive career opportunities remains an under-researched relationship. For short-term assignees, any associated career progression appears limited (Starr, 2009), perhaps the results of the often straightforward roles they are assigned when at home (Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014). For the FIBT, at least for the male FIBT, there is evidence suggesting travelling may enhance their promotional opportunities (Gustafson, 2006). Whether the potentially career-enhancing 'global mind set' attributed to FIBT (Oddou et al., 2000) may in fact be the result of an already existing orientation, and not the other way round, remains open to debate (Gustafson, 2009). Notwithstanding these potentially

ameliorative effects, there are challenges across the continuum of contemporary global mobility that need to be managed, and research indicates it is the individual who takes the lead in seeking resources to buffer the omnipresent demands.

The relationship between organisational support and traditional adjustment is well documented (e.g. Collings, Doherty, Luethy, & Osborn, 2011; Takeuchi, Wang, Marinova, & Yao, 2009) and many organisations emphasise providing adequate support for the expatriate. This practice, however, does not seem to have been translated to, or adopted, by organisations employing contemporary forms of global mobility (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013; Mayerhofer et al., 2011). While the Human Resources Department may provide basic logistical support in terms of travel and accommodation (Jais et al., 2015; Welch et al., 2007), the belief that mobility is integral to the traveller's role (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004) means any further support is perceived to be the responsibility of line managers and colleagues (Hancock & Page, 2013; Welch et al., 2007). Isolated exceptions to the lack of organisational support for short-term assignees occur when there is significant cultural distance between the home country and the destination. These include organising team meetings to aid with adjustment, career planning, and financial support in the form of flights for family to visit on location (Chan, Leung, & Yu, 2012; Tahvanainen et al., 2005). However, even where organisations have specific work-life balance policies such as flexitime provisions to work from home after travel, travellers' ignorance of such policies invariably renders them underutilised, and therefore ineffectual (Mayerhofer et al., 2011). In the absence of organisational support, the globally mobile rely on informal support from trusted colleagues (Hancock & Page, 2013; Torkington et al., 2011; Welch et al., 2007) and develop personal strategies such as exercise to enhance wellbeing (Chan et al., 2012).

2.2.3.2 Global Mobility and Work Performance

The final element to be considered is the impact on work performance from the perspective of the traveller. The comparable literature in the traditional expatriate context serves to highlight the ambiguous relationship between adjustment, “the degree of comfort and absence of stress” when confronted with a new situation, (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005, p. 257), and performance. Longitudinal research appears to confirm a positive relationship between adjustment and performance (Takeuchi, Wang, & Marinova, 2005), however, Thomas and Lazarova’s (2012) meta-analytical review concludes the relationship is at best described as modest. The ambiguity may lie in the critique of adjustment as an essential antecedent of performance, an assumption so pervasive that “some authors use adjustment as a proxy for performance” without strong theoretical grounds (Lazarova, Westman, & Shaffer, 2010, p. 123), nor clear empirical support (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Although the focus of the current study is work-related travel, irrespective of the specific purpose of travel, it is grounded in a sporting context, and therefore it remains of interest that the findings of the single study into the health of sports travellers concludes that performance inhibiting illness increases in rugby players when travel is to a destination with a time difference greater than five hours (Schwellnus et al., 2012). These findings regarding the relationship between travel, health, and performance, potentially corroborate the work of Burkholder and colleagues (2010) who establish that a general deterioration in the well-being of the globally mobile may impact on their work-related self-efficacy. Whilst performance across the various forms of mobility is a key item on both the academic and practitioner agenda (McEvoy & Buller, 2013), research is yet to tackle performance within the context of contemporary global mobility. These gaps in

the extant literature fall outside the scope of my study, but nonetheless warrant acknowledgement.

The purpose of this section is to provide the reader with a broad understanding of contemporary global mobility and how it is experienced from the viewpoint of the traveller. The various convergences, divergences, and gaps in the knowledge, as summarised throughout this section, serve to substantiate the ongoing calls from scholars to gain a more nuanced understanding of the impact of global mobility across each of the relevant modes of global mobility (e.g. Collings et al., 2007; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Kraimer et al., 2016; Shaffer et al., 2012; Suutari et al., 2012). This is not, however, the focus of the current research. The emphasis of my study is the more holistic examination of the phenomenon from the perspective of the family and it is this aspect that is considered next.

2.3 Families

The following discussion situates my study within the broader work-family literature. The section then looks at how the traveller's home life is affected by their mobility. Finally it considers the demands placed on the family, and identifies where they find their support, as documented in the limited research positioned at the intersection between the family and global mobility literature streams.

2.3.1 Overview of the Work-Family Interface

The vast and wide-ranging scholarship contributing to our understanding of the work-family interface is as diverse as it is colossal, and a full review is beyond the scope of my study. Nevertheless, a brief overview of the key dimensions is required prior to considering the more specific question of how contemporary global mobility impacts each member of the family. The first step is to consider each of the components - *work*,

family and the *interface*. Whether the definition of *work* should be restricted to activities undertaken for financial remuneration is a moot issue that remains unresolved (Moen, 2011), however, there appears to be a significant focus by work-family scholars on the paid employment aspect of work (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). The modern *family* can be seen to take a multitude of legal and gendered forms and yet arguably, still fundamentally adheres to the Piotrkowski's (1979) long-standing sweeping definition of a family as two or more interdependent individuals aiming to accomplish shared goals.

Far more problematic for scholars is the contentious issue of whether non-work relates only to *family* or should be inclusive of other life facets including relationships and experiences outside the immediate family (Moen, 2011; Rothausen, 2011). This absence of scholarly consensus serves to highlight the ever-evolving landscape and the ongoing need for future clarification of both *work* and *family*. With regard to the actual *interface*, seminal scholar Jeffrey Greenhaus has over the last 30 years, through various collaborations, produced a body of work that serves to underpin our understanding. The early domination of a conflict paradigm between work and family suggests a scarcity of time and energy which manifests as stress when participating in multiple roles. The initial definition of the interface was also a negative construct; "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Subsequent recognition of a potentially favourable bi-directional relationship between work and family delivers the distinct construct of enrichment, being when either "work experiences improve the quality of family life" or "family experiences improve the quality of work life" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73). If conflict and enrichment could be seen to reside

at either end of a theoretical continuum of interface, around the centre there ought to be the potential for balance.

Work-Family balance remains a construct that is often utilised without clear definition (Casper, De Hauw, & Wayne, 2013), perhaps reflecting the absence of scholarly consensus (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). Greenhaus and Allen (2011) incorporate both role effectiveness and satisfaction into their definition of the construct of balance. This definition, whilst compelling given their integration of both behavioural and attitudinal elements by situating “balance as a psychological construct” (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007, p. 457), they effectively isolate the individual from the other actors in the work-family interface, thereby denying any aspect of social construction. Voydanoff (2005) defines balance as “a global assessment that work resources meet family demands, and family resources meet work demands, such that participation is effective in both domains” (p. 825). This definition, alongside Grzywacz and Carlson’s (2007) more socially-constructed suggestion that balance is the “accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work-family domain” (p.458), both offer interpretations that are not too disparate. The overarching concept of work-family balance, when tailored to the current context, will also need to reflect the specific demands and resources that prevail during the experience of contemporary global mobility. Defining the phenomenon of what will be known as ‘Stay-Behind Family Adjustment’ will figure in the theoretical framework of my study presented in Chapter 6.

The lack of theoretical underpinning of work-family research has been critiqued by Eby and colleagues (2005), resulting in the recent emergence of a number of overarching conceptualisations of the work-family interface. Exemplars include Voydanoff’s (2005) adoption of ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1992) and boundary theory

(Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000) to explain the permeable borders between work and family, and Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker's (2012) work grounded within Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resource theory (COR). Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) question whether the ecological systems approach provides adequate explanation of the linkages between the work and family systems, however, by including personal resources as a central tenant, they arguably forefront the individual and not the family (Moen, 2011). Hence, whilst there is academic progress towards providing a theoretical foundation for the body of work-family scholarship, an unqualified application of an existing model to the current context seems unlikely. The following sections discuss how the globally mobile and their families, respectively, understand the impact of global mobility on their non-work lives.

2.3.2 The Globally Mobile at Home

A paradox of contemporary global mobility exists in that Frequent International Business Travellers (FIBTs) may actually spend less time at home than either commuters or those on short-term assignment (Brewster et al., 2011). FIBT's concerns around the scarcity of time available to spend with family (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Jais et al., 2015) resonate with short-term assignees who report the separation may negatively impact their partnership (Newby et al., 2005; Tahvanainen et al., 2005) and their relationships with all family members (Barker & Berry, 2009; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Rodriguez & Margolin, 2015). The overall lack of personal well-being experienced by FIBTs appears to be gender-dependant, where male travellers' stress levels remain constant throughout all stages of travel, whilst females' stress appears particularly high pre-and-post travel. The fluctuating stress levels of a female FIBT may be attributed to stereotypical gender roles, where women tend to have more responsibility for domestic tasks (Eby et al., 2005). It could be anticipated that the

responsibilities will increase both directly before a business trip and immediately afterwards, therefore amplifying the stress at these points in time (Casinowsky, 2013; Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013; Gustafson, 2006). Recent research suggests that female FIBTs, across multiple cultures, retain many of their main family caretaker responsibilities while overseas (Fischlmayr & Puchmüller, 2015) with little respite when they return home (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Westman et al., 2008), further supporting the gendered distinctions.

At home, the commuter's life becomes an inevitable cycle of arrivals and departures, with a noted spike in pre-departure discontent when it is perceived important occasions will be missed during the impending absence (Carter & Kaczmarek, 2009). Whilst the normative practice of scheduled down-time after each assignment affords the commuter extensive personal time, the habitual travel is still seen as impacting on their lives, from restricting their participation in sporting teams (Torkington et al., 2011), to an inability to accept positions of responsibility in church, school and community groups (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004). When children are present, the relationship may be strained, as the commuter invariably forgoes participating in everyday activities (Van der Klis & Karsten, 2009), potentially diminishing their familial role to the point where they feel they are an outsider (Torkington et al., 2011), and ultimately impacting any ongoing relationship with their children (C. Baker & Ciuk, 2015; Parkes, Carnell, & Farmer, 2005). Nonetheless, the compensatory time off is, for some, enough to ensure resilient parent-child relationships. Adolescents with fathers who commute appreciate the "chunks of quality time" they spend with a parent who is not tired from working all day (MacBeth, Kaczmarek, & Sibbel, 2012, p. 106).

Separation concerns are not an inherent issue for the traditional accompanied expatriate, nonetheless it should be noted that there are those with previous experience of

traditional accompanied expatriate assignments who believe FIBT is actually less demanding on their family. They believe FIBT, through facilitating stability, and enabling continuity in the career and education of all family members, is the more constructive global mobility choice (Cappellen & Janssens, 2010b). It would appear the same argument cannot be made for short-term assignees (Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014), due to the uncertainty surrounding the impact of length of the separation versus frequency of separation (Andres et al., 2012; Barker & Berry, 2009; Burrell, Adams, Durand, & Castro, 2006). However, a comparative study of the family impact experienced by the traveller across the various forms of contemporary global mobility is yet to be undertaken, so the question around the impact of the different modes remains unanswered.

2.3.3 The Family at Home

The following section identifies the exigencies placed on families who stay behind, and the strategies they adopt to alleviate these ever-changing demands. Where the form of global mobility has a bearing on the experience, this has been included in the discussion. The literature that addresses the impact on families who stay behind is primarily embedded in either the military (e.g. Andres, 2014; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Dimiceli et al., 2010) or the oil and mining resource sectors (e.g. Carter & Kaczmarek, 2009; Margolis, 2012). There is little doubt that the uncertainty and danger implicit in the military situation may heighten separation stress (Dimiceli et al., 2010; Kazakos, Howard, & Vetere, 2013, February), and may result in a unique situation which cannot be generalised to other contexts. However, a number of scholars maintain adequate parallels exist between military and other forms of short-term separation, as the key aspect is the temporary nature of the absence (Andres, 2014; Andres & Moelker, 2011; Wu, 2013). Moreover, in a post 9/11 world, safety concerns

are omnipresent for all who are globally mobile (Bader & Berg, 2014; Konopaske & Werner, 2005; Wagner & Westaby, 2009), further justifying the incorporation of military literature into this discussion. The scholarship regarding the familial impact of the resource sector is also an imperfect match as it is primarily grounded in ‘national’ commuting, specifically within Australia (e.g. Margolis, 2012; Misan & Rudnik, 2015; Taylor & Simmonds, 2009; Torkington et al., 2011). However, given the geographic expanse of Australia it is reasonable to include *nationally-grounded* research as the best available facsimile of *international* findings.

Prior to considering the various demands placed on the family, and the sources of support, it is relevant to recognise that for the family there are documented advantages of the work-related separations.

2.3.3.1 The Positive Impacts of Staying Behind

The growth in other relationships, the cultivation of new interests, and most significantly, the fostering of independence, are all positive impacts reported across the modes of mobility by families (e.g. Andres & Moelker, 2011; Lau, Ma, Chan, & He, 2012; Margolis, 2012; Parkes et al., 2005; Stewart & Donald, 2006). Frequent travellers perceive they are creating an environment that will foster a global mind-set in their offspring, and that they are raising the globally mobile workers of the future (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013). Whilst corroboration of this belief will require further research, there are positive factors specific to children that have already been identified. Military research triangulating the perspectives of students, parents and school teachers, confirms that additional responsibilities assumed by children could conflict with school and extracurricular endeavours, but are actually found to trigger increased accountability and dependability (Mmari, Roche, Sudhinaraset, & Blum, 2009). This is reflected in the apparent absence of any lasting impact the separations

have on children's educational endeavours (Engel, Gallagher, & Lyle, 2010). A recent review of available scholarship points to a well-supported separation generating a level of resilience that positively impacts the lives of the children, at least within a military context (Easterbrooks, Ginsburg, & Lerner, 2013).

Fiscal rewards, whilst not inherently relevant to military families, are potentially significant for many commuters, and may provide for an otherwise unattainable standard of living (MacBeth et al., 2012; Misan & Rudnik, 2015). However, given the integral nature of travel across many of today's organisational roles (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004; Viry, Ruger, & Skora, 2014), the relevance of fiscal rewards may be of declining significance. Nonetheless, children in a recent European study articulate their understanding that the financial benefits afforded the family are significant, even if this does not always compensate for the absences of the travelling parent (Borve & Bungum, 2015).

2.3.3.2 *Domestic Demands & Responsibilities*

Faber and colleagues (2008), in their methodologically exemplary longitudinal and multi-participant study of military reservists and their partners, identify the significant reassignment of spousal roles and responsibilities as a fundamental consequence of short-term work-related separations. These findings resonate throughout military deployment scholarship (Dimiceli et al., 2010; Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012; Mmari et al., 2009; Werner & Shannon, 2013) and the few available studies of the impact of short-term assignments grounded in other contexts (Konopaske et al., 2009; Starr & Currie, 2009; Wu, 2013). Espino and colleagues (2002), in one of the first studies to examine both the work and non-work impact of FIBT, find that where one partner engages in frequent international business travel, the partner may experience role overload, where the burden of domestic management rests solely on them. This is a situation that may

continue post homecoming, particularly if the traveller is male (Gustafson, 2006). Commuting arrangements appear to be the one form of global mobility where partners report being able to manage the family demands, conceivably a consequence of the cyclical nature of commuting where compensatory time off is the norm (Parkes et al., 2005). Nevertheless, during the periods the commuter is away, the partner is still challenged by absorbing the additional roles, including those gendered tasks that would usually be assumed by the absent partner (MacBeth et al., 2012; Torkington et al., 2011). It is not only the partner who assumes additional roles during the separations but also, at least for military families, children who shoulder extra domestic responsibilities (Chandra et al., 2010; Easterbrooks et al., 2013; Knobloch, Pusateri, Ebata, & McGlaughlin, 2015; Mmari et al., 2009). They do however continue to rely on the parent who stays behind to negotiate their way through the separation (Houston, Pfefferbaum, Sherman, Melson, & Brand, 2013; Stewart & Donald, 2006; Yarosh & Abowd, 2011, May) and it is this singlehanded parenting that weighs heavily on the partner.

The single parent status assumed by the partner (McNulty, 2015) is identified as a significant demand irrespective of the mode of contemporary global mobility, with the key concern expressed by parents being the impact of this temporary situation on the children themselves (e.g. Espino et al., 2002; Misan & Rudnik, 2015; Wheeler & Stone, 2009). The age of the children appears to moderate the experience, with infants deemed too young to fathom the parental absence (Andres & Moelker, 2011) and young children who are heavily reliant on their parents expected to be the most distressed (Osofsky & Chartrand, 2013). Adolescents, when afforded the opportunity to describe their experiences, distil the impact down to an impression of their family being incomplete (Knobloch et al., 2015).

Families appear to differentiate the impacts depending on the length and frequency of the separations. Where the traveller is engaged in the more ad hoc global mobility of FIBT, it appears that the longer the absence, the more problematic for the children (Espino et al., 2002; Hancock & Page, 2013). For commuter families, longitudinal statistical analysis indicates an adaptation process where the greatest demands are experienced during the initial years of long distance commuting, with a subsequent adjustment to the separations (Sandow, 2014). For short-term assignments, at least within the military context, parental reports range from it being the absence itself rather than the length of the absence being the important factor (Andres & Moelker, 2011; Burrell et al., 2006) to a modest correlation between the length of absence and behavioural problems (Barker & Berry, 2009) to an adverse behavioural impact accruing over subsequent deployments (McGuire et al., 2016). To date, no single study has provided a comparative analysis of the familial impact across each of the forms of contemporary global mobility.

When children are given a voice, they communicate a positive association between the length of deployment and their negative experiences (Chandra et al., 2010).

Multidimensional testing of children's mental health, as moderated by the cumulative separation period, appears to support the children's view (Lester et al., 2010). The previously detailed lack of overall consensus based on parental reporting, reaffirms the recent call from military scholars to increase methodological rigour and address the ubiquitous overreliance on parental perceptions as truly representative of their children's experience (Alfano, Lau, Balderas, Bunnell, & Beidel, 2016).

The partners of commuters, when compared to those with military spouses, and those who are not living with global mobility, perceive there to be additional stress placed on their family by the repetitive transitioning between co-operative and solo parenting.

Conversely, when the children of these three groups were tested for anxiety and depression, there was no discernible difference across the sample. Hence, while the parent who stays behind was concerned about the impact of the commuter's mobility, there was no measurable impact on the well-being of the children (Kaczmarek & Sibbel, 2008). Nevertheless, Mauthner and colleagues' (2000) earlier ethnographic study of those in the commuter oil and gas industry includes children's accounts of their exasperation with the commuter not being available on demand, consistent with reports of children missing their parents around significant family events and celebrations (e.g. Barker & Berry, 2009; Espino et al., 2002; Knobloch et al., 2015; Parkes et al., 2005). Perhaps the resilience often reported in children (Easterbrooks et al., 2013) means despite being exasperated, they are able to adapt to the challenging situation and therefore there is an absence of measurable stress. Future research giving voice to both parent and child should enable us to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon. Given the demands placed on the parent in supporting not only their children's adjustment, but also the traveller (Mäkelä, De Cieri, & Mockaitis, 2015; Westman, Etzion, & Chen, 2009), all whilst forsaking their own leisure time (Werner & Shannon, 2013), it seems unsurprising that they too, may experience a number of adverse outcomes (Dittman, Henriquez, & Roxburgh, 2016).

Feelings of separation, isolation and loneliness are universal (e.g. Andres et al., 2012; Gustafson, 2014; Torkington et al., 2011) and may result in a general deterioration of marital relations (Andres, 2014; Dimiceli et al., 2010; Newby et al., 2005; Stewart & Donald, 2006) and overall weakened psychological well-being (Orthner & Rose, 2009). Interviews with European FIBTs indicate that on occasion, the opposite occurs, and separation enhances marital satisfaction, arguably intensifying and focusing the time that is available to be spent together (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010). Nonetheless, the

higher rates of relationship breakdowns for those experiencing contemporary global mobility, when compared to non-commuting couples (Sandow, 2014), would point to the negative effect being the more likely experience. Resentment relating to the continuing absences (Welch et al., 2007), as well as a lack of empathy regarding the work-related pressures endured by the traveller (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013; Misan & Rudnik, 2015), may also create tension. The partner may also be concerned that their stress is subsequently emulated in their children (Dimiceli et al., 2010; Gewirtz, Erbes, Polusny, Forgatch, & DeGarmo, 2011; Lester et al., 2010). This belief is supported by both survey (Chandra et al., 2010) and interview-based research (Knobloch et al., 2015) where adolescent participants comment that the way they experience separation was, in part, a reflection of the mental health of the parent who stayed behind. There is a reticence to seek support from their parent for fear of exacerbating parental stress (Baptist, Barros, Cafferky, & Johannes, 2015), while others feel a responsibility for that parents' well-being (Andres & Moelker, 2011). Partners with independent and resilient personalities appear more able to manage (Torkington et al., 2011) and this may be reflected in strong personal relationships (Lau et al., 2012). Nonetheless, for many families the issues endure, and may even be compounded by physical manifestations of stress (Diamond, Hicks, & Otter-Henderson, 2008), and therefore warrant intervention.

While advanced family planning, particularly around childcare and other responsibilities, may reduce the demands placed on the family (Gustafson, 2014; Nicholas & McDowall, 2012; Stewart & Donald, 2006), commuting may provide the key to attaining a sustainable work-family balance (Margolis, 2012). Within the FIFO resource sector, the traveller enjoys extended time off at home with family when returning from each cycle, a situation that appears to be valued by both parent (Parkes et

al., 2005; Whalen & Schmidt, 2016) and child (MacBeth et al., 2012; Mauthner et al., 2000) alike. These findings resonate with the weekly corporate commuter where weekends are devoted to quality family time (Van der Klis & Karsten, 2009) and frequent international business travellers who report enjoying quality harmonious and intensive family time with children as a direct consequence of their absences (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004). However, for many, expecting compensatory time off at each homecoming may be more idealistic than realistic given their domestic work-related responsibilities (Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010; Gustafson, 2012; Mayerhofer et al., 2011; Welch et al., 2007). Irrespective of whether there is an opportunity for concentrated family time prior to departure, or upon return, it is these periods immediately before and after the separations that appear to be the most stressful for the family.

2.3.3.3 *Periodically Transitioning Families*

The families of commuters have been described as “periodically transitioning families” (Kazakos et al., 2013, February, p. 1157), and it appears this definition could be universally applied to all families. The recurrent cycles of comings and goings, whether on a timetabled or an ad hoc basis, are a quintessential feature of contemporary global mobility and a fundamental difference to both traditional expatriation and solely domestic roles. The following section discusses the challenges of transitioning, and the coping strategies adopted by the families.

Frequent and intermittent separations may be so disruptive it results in psychological and/or physical disorders, as evidenced by the increase in insurance claims for medical treatment made by the partners of World Bank employees (Dimberg et al., 2002). The strain on the work-family nexus appears exacerbated when the travel is last minute (Welch et al., 2007), or when there are unforeseen changes to the travel dates (Espino

et al., 2002), highlighting that stress may be at its most pronounced around the moments at either end of the travel cycle. Accounts from both parents who stay behind (Andres & Moelker, 2011) and adolescents (Knobloch et al., 2015) corroborate the significance of the actual leave-taking and homecoming, whilst noting the minimal time required for family life to return to normal pre-departure or post-arrival. Whether that adjustment period could be completely eradicated as families become more experienced at dealing with the transitions appears unlikely given the increase in children's behavioural issues identified over subsequent, repetitive, short-term assignments (Barker & Berry, 2009; Chandra et al., 2010). Minimising the adjustment period may entail explicit strategies to be adopted by the family unit. Pre-departure discussion appears to enhance children's ability to cope (Mmari et al., 2009; Parkes et al., 2005), although younger children appear unable to comprehend the length of the upcoming separation (Andres & Moelker, 2011) or the reason one parent is missing (Parkes et al., 2005).

Role ambiguity is a further transitioning challenge faced by the family, particularly when the traveller returns home. Uncertainty occurs around the assignment of roles (DeVoe & Ross, 2012; Stewart & Donald, 2006; Whalen & Schmidt, 2016), the parenting status of the returning traveller (Gewirtz et al., 2011; Mmari et al., 2009), and decision-making within the family domain (Faber et al., 2008; Houston et al., 2013). Role ambiguity extends to the role readjustment required from children who have taken on substantial additional responsibilities during the absence (Chandra et al., 2010; Knobloch et al., 2015). Lester and Flake's (2013) review of literature grounded in the armed services reconfirms the stress experienced at the end of a military deployment, especially when the child perceives inadequate recognition from the soldier of the sacrifices they, the child, has made throughout the separation (Mmari et al., 2009).

The stress of transitioning can also manifest in changes to the children's behaviour. Younger children may present with a variety of negative attachment issues, ranging from constantly wanting to be with the returned traveller to displaying preference for the parent who has stayed behind (Barker & Berry, 2009). The child's personality, alongside the level of parental and community support, may be key factors moderating these diverging outcomes. Jet lag and general tiredness emanating from the trip can also mean children perceive the traveller as still effectively absent despite their physical presence (Borve & Bungum, 2015), a sentiment supported by the travellers themselves (Nicholas & McDowall, 2012). Ensuring the predictability of rules and routines for children during separations may smooth the reintegration of the traveller back into the family home (Gewirtz et al., 2011; Parkes et al., 2005). The ameliorative impact of predictability may also explain why children appear to adapt more successfully to cyclical absences, than to an occasional absence (Mauthner et al., 2000).

Whether the separations are the result of cyclical commuting or more ad hoc in their nature, the domestic demands and responsibilities born by the family, alongside the stresses of periodically transitioning between co-parenting and parenting alone, are substantial. A strong support system is a key resource for those who stay behind, and the followings sections discuss the available literature on both organisational support and the essential support team of extended family and friends.

2.3.3.4 *Organisational Support*

Research suggests that organisational support for the family is not routinely provided (e.g. Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010; Suutari, Brewster, Riusala, & Syrjäkari, 2013; Torkington et al., 2011), with the unchecked challenges of global mobility expected to be borne by the traveller and their family (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004). This attitude could be attributed to three factors. First, this might

demonstrate that although the organisations establish these contemporary modes of mobility, they actually have little understanding of the ramification of such life styles on the globally mobile, or the family (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Suutari et al., 2013). Second, it may be that families do not seek support from the organisation, believing either that they have to cope alone or that the organisation will offer little assistance (Van der Klis & Karsten, 2009). Third, it may be that informal collaborative arrangements such as flexible rosters, working from home, and allowing the traveller control over their schedule to minimise weekend absences, are sufficient, and there is no need for more formal organisational involvement (C. Baker & Ciuk, 2015; Margolis, 2012; Wickham & Vecchi, 2009). Regardless, it does seem that within the military context, institutional family support can mitigate the impacts of separation on the family (e.g. Bowles et al., 2015; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; DeGraff, O'Neal, & Mancini, 2016; Wilson, Wilkum, Chernichky, MacDermid Wadsworth, & Broniarczyk, 2011). Furthermore, given that work-family conflict arising from contemporary global mobility has been shown to impact on work performance (Hancock & Page, 2013), it would appear organisations could also benefit from policies designed to support those who stay behind.

The escalating “war on talent” (Tung, 2016, p. 143) signposts a fundamental strategic concern for 21st century organisations on how to attract and retain key staff. Domestic career literature highlights the decision-making process that can occur within a dual-career couple and the negotiations that take place when establishing career primacy within the relationship. These decisions take account of organisational factors such as compensation, hours to be worked and required mobility (Livingston, 2014). Therefore, it seems reasonable to posit that the perceived or predicted support of the family by the current, or potential, employee organisation may impact the traveller’s career choices.

Scholarship has yet to specifically consider this proposition within the context of corporate contemporary global mobility, however, the negative impact the lack of family support has on re-enlistment decisions within the military (Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014) indicates this notion warrants further research. The breach created by this dearth of institutional support is considered in the following section.

2.3.3.5 *Support of Family and Friends*

Even for those in the armed services where the family appears to receive formal organisational support (e.g. Bowles et al., 2015; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Wilson et al., 2011), the assistance of family and friends is reported as a fundamental coping strategy (Barker & Berry, 2009; Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012; Wheeler & Stone, 2009). Support from family and friends is also vital for those outside the military (Lirio et al., 2014; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004), and is even more important when travel itineraries change at short notice (Nicholas & McDowall, 2012). Some partners of course, would prefer to cope alone so as to ensure consistency for their children (Werner & Shannon, 2013), but still recognise the support of friends as an invaluable resource.

The importance of the “wifenet” (Copeland & Norell, 2002) of local and empathetic expatriate spouses, and the support they offer, permeates traditional expatriate scholarship (e.g. Copeland & Norell, 2002; Kupka & Cathro, 2007; Ryan & Mulholland, 2014), and resonates with findings in a military context (Faber et al., 2008; Wheeler & Stone, 2009). Outside the armed services, for the partners of mountaineers, establishing empathetic and informed support networks of those from within the climbing community, forms an essential component of their coping strategies (Wu, 2013), as does engaging with the online community established for the partners of Chinese seafarers (Tang, 2012). Support from those who understand the situation

appears to be the preferred approach for the family, however, whether the needs change depending on the form of global mobility is yet to be considered. Local support networks are not considered as supportive as others in similar situations (Andres, 2014; Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004) and their advice may even be perceived as inappropriate (Rossetto, 2015).

Children may also look outside the family for comfort, particularly from those peers who also have a globally mobile parent who they perceive to appreciate the cycles of deployment and the associated stress (Andres & Moelker, 2011; Baptist et al., 2015; Easterbrooks et al., 2013; Mmari et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 2011). Being digital natives, they may even seek online connections with those within their cohort (Blasko, 2015). It should be noted these assertions are solely contextualised within the armed services, where base-style living means children may have empathetic peers, or in the case of the web-based interaction, it is facilitated by the military. This is somewhat comparable to the traditional expatriate compound living arrangement and the so called ‘third culture kids’ whose experiences may isolate them from their home country contemporaries and they relate best to other experienced expatriate children (Banai & Harry, 2004). Whether these findings apply to children who do not have access to empathetic peers is a question that has yet to be addressed by extant scholarship.

2.3.3.6 *Support from the Traveller via Modern Communication*

The universal proliferation of reliable internet fosters regular supportive contact between the traveller and their family (Houston et al., 2013; Margolis, 2012; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004; Whalen & Schmidt, 2016) just as advances in the internet communication platforms are regarded as having a positive impact on migrant family communication (e.g. Bacigalupe & Camara, 2012; Dekker & Engbersen, 2014; Graham et al., 2012; Madianou, 2012). The tools used to

communicate range from asynchronous email and SMS messaging through to scheduled synchronous audio or video mediated communication (Yarosh & Abowd, 2011, May). Communication is no longer restricted when a traveller is in a more hostile or isolated location (Houston et al., 2013) and it would appear there is a strong correlation between a family's successful and supportive communication, and their ability to cope with separations.

Research around FIFO commuters suggests that families who exhibit strong communication skills are able to successfully navigate the periodic separations (Taylor & Simmonds, 2009). This may be attributed to the perception that the traveller is at least "psychologically present" (Espino et al., 2002, p. 318) as modern communication, in particular video mediated conversations, promotes a consistent family dynamic throughout the separation (Furukawa & Driessnack, 2013; Judge, Neustaedter, Harrison, & Blose, 2011, May; Tarasuik, Galligan, & Kaufman, 2013). Synchronous contact may be supplemented by spontaneous unprompted email or SMS messages that provide a heightened sense of connection (Yarosh & Abowd, 2011, May), while supporting parenting decisions made by the parent who is at home (Van der Klis & Karsten, 2009). For the partner, effective communication not only improves their tolerance to parenting alone (Houston et al., 2013) but appears to have the ability to reduce physical manifestations of stress (Diamond et al., 2008). Children also perceive the support from the traveller via modern communication methods (Houston et al., 2013; Kazakos et al., 2013, February; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl, et al., 2004), however, merely having the ability to communicate should not be seen as a panacea.

Although frequent communication from the traveller is helpful (Andres & Moelker, 2011), the brevity of encounters may, in fact, provoke frustration, at least on the behalf of the absent family member (Lester & Flake, 2013) as the travelling parent covets

increased communication with those at home (Yarosh & Abowd, 2011, May). It appears that once children have adapted to the separation, they may be otherwise occupied when the traveller makes contact (Andres & Moelker, 2011) and it may fall on the parent who is at home to encourage communication (Yarosh & Abowd, 2011, May). In some instances, the rise of pressured expectations around the timeliness and frequency of contact may actually negatively impact the family dynamic (Thomas & Bailey, 2009) creating a stressful, not supportive, situation for the partner when communication is deemed unsuccessful (Kaczmarek & Sibbel, 2008). Further paradoxical findings indicate that for children already concerned about the traveller's situation, frequent communication may foster distress for the child (Houston et al., 2013). In view of the potential for successful communication to support the family, understanding how to meet the identified challenges warrants additional scholarly attention.

For the families, it appears that being 'at home' enables them to maintain their independence and nurture their own interests. Nonetheless, the cost of residential stability in terms of increased roles may be borne by both partner and child. The limited scholarship available indicates that the extended network of family and friends, and the traveller themselves, provide the resources required to support the family when faced with a dearth of formal organisational support. An additional matter with the potential to influence a family's ability to cope is the career of the stay-behind partner.

2.4 Careers

The following section provides an overview of contemporary career literature as well as a more detailed discussion grounded in the current context of sailing as a career, and the impact of dual-careers. The concepts that feature in the modern academic, and practitioner, career literature are introduced. They are then used to describe the career

of the professional sailor. The discussion amalgamates anecdotal evidence I obtained as the partner of a professional sailor, and during a two year period employed as the logistics and administrative support for a sailing team. I have also read a number of biographies of successful professional sailors (Becht, 1995; Dalton, 1991; Sefton, 2004) and the recently published insight into the yachting fraternity recounted by the respected commentator Peter Montgomery (Francis, 2015). The remainder of the section sits at the intersection between career literature and work-family research, focusing on dual-careers, and more specifically the careers of the partners of the globally mobile.

2.4.1 Career Literature Overview

A career may be defined as “the evolving sequence of a person’s work experiences over time” (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1989, p. 8). A career is continuous over a life time and it develops and changes, and it is not restricted to paid employment. The success of our career is measured in terms of objective means, such as financial achievement, and also subjective aspects such as satisfaction (Shen et al., 2015). A multidisciplinary review of career literature stresses that multiple factors and stakeholders each contribute to an individual’s career (C. Lee, Felps, & Baruch, 2014), which may explain why academics have yet to settle on a single integrated theoretical foundation for the study of careers (Inkson, Dries, & Arnold, 2015). The following discussion provides a brief overview of the seminal career concepts that form the basis of today’s career conversation, and considers the emerging idea that the contemporary reality may be a hybrid of them all.

Super’s (1957, 1980) comprehensive linear age and stage theory considered career cycles as part of one’s broader life cycle, claiming that the approach to career is a reflection of life stages. The initial theory has been refined into five stages that represent the cycle of career development over one’s life time: growth, exploration,

establishment, maintenance and disengagement (Savickas, 2002). Whilst the strength in this theory lies in the alignment with common sense and what is observed in the everyday (Inkson et al., 2015), it arguably only represents the continuous male career, and not the female experience, where family commitments can cause significant disruptions (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

Pringle and McCulloch-Dixon's (2003) model, however, does aim to represent the female experience. They identify four facets of the female career that women move between throughout their lives, with the moves being attributed to certain life events as opposed to specific ages. Women move between exploring, refocusing, rebalancing and reviving depending on their own assessment of their particular life stage, with movements being considered neither lineal nor assured. Nevertheless, certain events, such as child rearing and retirement, are inevitably age related and therefore this model retains certain elements of linear age and stage progression. Herman (2015) considers the careers of women working in the oft male-dominated science, engineering and technology sectors, identify similar facets, described as rebooting, rerouting and retreating. Whilst these cycle-based theories of vocational development have not been rendered obsolete, and continue to provide a theoretical foundation for on-going career research (See Dikkers, van Engen, & Vinkenburger, 2010; Hertel et al., 2013 for examples), there has been a significant increase in the influence of the nonlinear 'new careers' (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).

The protean career, named after the Greek god Proteus who was able to change his shape at will, first came into prominence around the turn of the century. The protean careerist repackages their skills, and experiences, to adapt to a changing work environment. Guided by their identity and values, they are motivated by intrinsic success (D. Hall, 2002). The uncertainties prevalent in today's economic conditions

underscore the increasing relevance of the adaptable and self-directed protean career model (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). The responsibility the protean careerist takes for their career development and choices can also be found in the proponents of an alternate 'new career', that of the boundaryless careerist.

Arthur and Rousseau (1996) identify the boundaryless career as one where portable career competencies allow the career actor to be mobile across both physical and psychological boundaries. These physical boundaries are not limited to changing organisations but also include geographical moves, industry and occupational moves, and even moves between employment and being self-employed. Examples of psychological boundaries include moving between job levels, and moving to roles that one is uncomfortable with. Subsequent refinements of the model assert that boundaryless is not an 'either/or' proposition but one that can be measured in degrees along continuums of both physical and psychological mobility (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Gender has the potential to impact the position on the two continuums, with women's discontinuous careers demanding greater psychological mobility, whilst less job discrimination affords men greater options for physical mobility (Segers, Inceoglu, Vloeberghs, Bartram, & Henderickx, 2008). These gender differences, which have often been ignored by those researching the boundaryless career (Pringle & Mallon, 2003), serve to highlight boundaries have not completely disappeared, reinforcing the call to rename the construct 'boundary crossing' careers (Inkson et al., 2015)

There are undeniable similarities between the protean and boundaryless career, and there are those who argue they are indistinguishable constructs (Skromme-Granrose & Baccili, 2006). However, Briscoe and colleagues' (2006) study, aimed at addressing the lack of operationalised measures of either the protean or the boundaryless career theory, also serves to clarify the differences between these related, yet independent, constructs.

Both career attitudes incorporate agency, however, the protean careerist's internal values appear to guide their career decisions whilst a boundaryless careerist's more external focus finds them more concerned with establishing relationships and seeking opportunities beyond organisational boundaries. Subsequent testing of the measures confirms their continued relevance in today's volatile economic environment, whilst reiterating the differences between the external support-seeking mode of the boundaryless, and the internal identity awareness of the protean careerists (Briscoe, Henagan, Burton, & Murphy, 2012). A final new generation career model, described as the mode of boundaryless career that "has been used by women for decades out of necessity" (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, p. 108), is the Kaleidoscope Career Model.

The Kaleidoscope Career Model represents the approach women take as they "shift the pattern of their careers by rotating different aspects of their lives to arrange their roles and relationships in new ways" (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, p. 106). Throughout the lifespan, a challenging, balanced or authentic career may at any one point in time move to the foreground as being most relevant at that point in time. The other career parameters lessen in intensity, just as certain colours recede to the background of a kaleidoscope, but are still present in the individual's life and career. Empirical examination of the model confirms its applicability to women's careers (August, 2011; Cabrera, 2009) and also the contemporary male career (Clarke, 2015; Sullivan, Forret, Carraher, & Mainiero, 2009; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007).

The new generation of career concepts, including the protean, boundaryless and kaleidoscopic career constructs, whilst seeming to represent the economic and societal changes over the previous decades, may still fall short in providing a single theoretical foundation on which to build subsequent career studies. There are those who argue the independent 'new career' is only available to a small number of young, mostly male,

knowledge workers (Bohmer & Schinnenburg, 2016; Gerber, Wittekind, Grote, & Staffebach, 2009). Moreover, the original proponents of the kaleidoscope career model, whilst questioning the continued adequacy of the age and stage models to describe the contemporary male career, find men continue to track along traditional linear career paths, at least within a single industry if not a single organisation (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007). This resonates with the assertion that alongside certain boundaryless and protean characteristics, employees continue to incorporate traditional job security and upward mobility into their perceived psychological employment contracts (Skromme-Granrose & Baccili, 2006), with many appearing to retain a traditional career orientation (Gerber et al., 2009).

Whilst the agency and independence offered by protean and boundaryless careers appeal to those navigating the modern dynamic economic environment, there remains a continued desire for traditional upward career mobility. Careers that enact elements of both traditional linear and the ‘new careers’ are known as hybrid careers (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), and it is this construct that potentially best describes the career of the professional sailor; a protean desire for intrinsic success, boundaryless career competencies and a linear career progression.

2.4.2 Sailing as a Career

Over the last 30 years, the international sailor has transformed from an amateur sportsperson, attending events when their ‘day job’ allowed, to a professional enjoying a contemporary career on the global stage. The career literature contains a growing recognition of the similarities between “athletic labour and highly skilled workers” (Elliott & Maguire, 2011, p. 111) and parallels the athlete and other globally mobile individuals (Agergaard, Botelho, & Tiesler, 2014). Whilst “mobility should not be used as a proxy for either boundaryless or protean career attitudes” (Briscoe et al., 2006, p.

44), the professional sailor's career appears to exhibit components of both of these contemporary career constructs. Moreover, their careers can, and in many instances do, incorporate not only traditional accompanied expatriations, but also each of the contemporary modes of mobility where the family stays behind.

Often individually managed and self-directed, and with value-driven goals, the professional sailor is arguably the quintessential protean careerist. The movement of sailors between teams to access development opportunities, perhaps to graduate to a different position on the boat, is consistent with self-direction as measured by Briscoe and colleagues' (2006) protean attitude scale. Likewise, their choice between the types of sailing they engage in (America's Cup versus Offshore Volvo) may well be a reflection of their personal priorities and the values-driven aspect of their protean career. The frequency of moves between syndicates, the transferability of sailing competencies, and extensive reliance on individual reputations, distinguishes professional sailors as also displaying aspects of boundaryless careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) and a boundaryless mind-set (Briscoe et al., 2006). However, the career of the professional sailor can also be shown to adhere to more traditional career theory.

A self-designed apprenticeship, where the apprentice shapes the curriculum, identifies the teachers and yet there is often no formal qualification awarded (Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999), is a career path that resonates within the sailing community. Alongside the obvious prerequisite sailing skills, individuals develop complementary skills that can range from boat building and sail making, to data analysis and weather forecasting. Learning can be through formal employment opportunities as well as informal peer and mentor 'training'. When considering the full cycle of the career of the professional sailor, many stages appear comparable to that of more traditional vocations. Adopting

the seminal work of Super (1957), incorporating Savickas's (2005) subsequent enhancements, the following table illustrates where the career of a professional sailor may be seen to align with the traditional linear career stages.

Table 2: The Career Stages of a Professional Sailor

Age	Stage	Key Features	Anecdotal Sailing Examples
0-14 years	Growth	Childhood focus on occupational world; development of concern about future as a worker	For a number of professional sailors who grew up in Auckland, New Zealand, experiencing the arrivals and departures of the ‘Whitbread Round The World’ fleet was a significant life event. Witnessing the participation of New Zealanders, such as those on Peter Blake’s ‘Lion New Zealand’ or ‘Steinlager II’ or later Grant Dalton’s ‘Endeavour’, triggered a desire to participate in such events. Whilst their childhood idols were often not paid professionals, their existence was the trigger for a focus on yachting as a potential career.
15-24 years	Exploration	Learning about what one might become; exploring interests and abilities and the world of work and occupations and making tentative matches; making occupational choices in line with one’s self-concept and actualising these choices in career behaviour, developing skills, experimenting with jobs	In conjunction with honing their sailing skills through competition and training programmes (such as the Royal New Zealand Yacht Squadron Youth Scheme), those wishing to pursue their sport as a profession often at this stage also develop complementary skills including boat building, spar making and sail making. At this stage many look to gain experience in both ocean racing and in-shore match racing to identify which they are more suited to, both in terms of skill and personality. Young hopefuls will often join the shore-based support crews of established racing teams to learn and to be readily available to step into sailing roles should they become available. This is arguably the sailing equivalent of the corporate intern programme.
25-44 years	Establishment	Stabilising choice within organisational and occupational parameters, advancement or transfer to newer or higher responsibilities	By this age and stage, most professional sailors have established themselves as either ocean racers (e.g. Volvo Ocean Race / Vendi Globe) or in-shore racers (e.g. America’s Cup / World Match Racing Circuit). Racing teams have strong hierarchical structures with ‘watch’ systems requiring a ‘watch leader’ (‘shifts’ requiring a ‘shift manager’) and tactical decisions being made at the euphemistic ‘back of the boat’ (the ‘strategic’ decision-making undertaken by the skipper, tactician and navigator – the sailing equivalent of the Chief Executive Officer, Chief Operating Officer and Chief Finance

			Officer). At this stage of a professional sailor's career, they would expect to be moving into these key roles. On occasion, sailors have been known to move to smaller teams to facilitate the attainment of greater responsibility.
45-64 years	Maintenance / Management	Reflecting on the career and deciding on continuation or change; if change necessary, recycling through the previous stages; renewing and innovating; holding steady in position, maintaining performance	The obvious physical requirements of professional sailing often means that at this stage the necessity to renew and innovate is required. Some move to less physically demanding roles (Certain racing circuits within the sport are colloquially referred to as the 'retirement circuit' as they are less physical and very rarely involve the more taxing overnight or offshore racing). Alternatively sailors at this stage may move into 'consulting' type roles, including becoming sailing 'performance managers' and taking up more shore-based management roles either with racing teams or racing event organisational bodies. It should be noted that there are also those who do hold steady in their position and maintain performance. The average age of the skippers of 2014 Volvo Ocean Race was over 50.
65+	Disengagement	Adjusting to declining energy. Decelerating, delegating, organising new life structures in which paid work is not central.	Whilst the retirement for the professional yachtsman would invariably be expected to be at a slightly younger age than an individual with a sedentary profession, the 'stage' would be expected to comprise the same elements. Coaching, mentoring and general promotion of their 'sport' is how many retired professional sailors structure the last stage in their career cycle

Note. Adapted from "Key Features of Career Stages," by Inkson, Dries and Arnold, 2015, *Understanding Careers*, p.91.

It would appear that the professional sailor may well be exemplar of the hybrid career (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). They appear to have the self-direction, and values driven goals, of a protean careerist, the mind-set required for a boundaryless career, and yet still adhere to certain aspects of the linear age and stage career.

Career typologies and cycles are not the only context where the professional sailor has parallels with the corporate careerist. With the product that the professional sailor has to sell being themselves, networking plays a key role throughout their career. Planned happenstance, where chance meetings are parlayed into career opportunities (Mitchell, Levin, & Krumboltz, 1999) has anecdotally been the precursor to many professional sailors' careers.

Another sphere where significant parallels can be drawn between the corporate and sailing career relates to mentors. Mentors can form part of a sailor's network, and these informal relationships are ubiquitous throughout the sailing community. The robust hierarchical structures found on board racing yachts, combined with what can be extreme and stressful working conditions, facilitates, and often necessitates, strong mentor and protégée relationships. Such relationships would appear to adhere to Kram's (1988) assertion that mentoring has both career and psychosocial purposes. Sailing mentors provide career-related advice, hands on coaching, and introduce new contacts. They also, particularly when intense competition is combined with long periods at sea, provide the support and affirmation that their protégé may require.

Whilst not always explicitly defined as such, formal organisational mentoring may also be found in the context of professional sailing. The

rules currently governing the Volvo Ocean race require each competing crew to have three racing crew members who are under 30 years of age ensuring the ongoing mentorship of those at the beginning of their careers (Macky, 2008).

A final point to note with regard to the sailing career relates to remuneration. Whilst there may be a perception, perpetuated by the media, that professional sailors are *all* generously compensated, the hierarchical structures of sailing teams result in tiered pay rates. Whilst there are no unions enforcing these rates, nor salary surveys identifying the salary bands, the strong networking between professional sailors ensures all are abreast of the accepted norms, and therefore base salary is very rarely the key point of negotiation. The fringe benefits, and, more specifically, the fringe benefits that impact on the professional sailor's family, are invariably the central concern for the potential team member. Discussion around travelling home, time off to be with family, family travel, and facilitating communication with the family whilst away, are among the many issues often key to finalising contracts. Yachting syndicates often adopt what corporates refer to as a 'cafeteria' system of benefits, consistent with other organisations where individuals engage in contemporary global mobility (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013).

Having discussed the career of the professional sailor, the next section considers the omnipresent issue in many partnerships, that of the dual-career.

2.4.3 Domestic and Expatriate Dual-careers

A dual-career may be defined as one where each partner has a “future career orientation and psychological commitment to their work” (Harvey, 1995, p. 226). Demographic changes over recent decades show an increase in the number of dual-career couples (Pixley, 2008), prompting a growing number of academics to question whether it is possible for both partners to sustain rewarding careers, and maintain a satisfactory work-life balance, whilst raising a family (e.g. Challiol & Mignonac, 2005; Gatrell, Burnett, Cooper, & Sparrow, 2013; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). Seminal research at the turn of the century highlighted couples may consciously scale back to reduce the family impact of dual-careers. The strategies they adopt range from one partner leaving the workforce to various trade-offs, depending on the life-course factors present at any point in time (Becker & Moen, 1999). The scaling back was disproportionately borne by the female partner in 1999, and despite a general societal trend towards increasingly egalitarian attitudes, it appears the male career continues to be given precedence (Pixley, 2008). This gendered career co-ordination is not limited to the domestic career but applies equally to dual-career expatriates. Hierarchical career decisions prioritising the male expatriates’ career predominate whereas female expatriates tend to take a more egalitarian approach when co-ordinating their career with their expatriate partner (Känsälä, Mäkelä, & Suutari, 2015). The potential to prioritise one career over another endures, and potentially intensifies, when only one partner in the relationship is globally mobile.

The impact of global mobility on dual-career couples has been examined primarily through the lens of traditional expatriation. Statistics highlight the significant impact relocation has on the career of the trailing partner when prior employment rates of around 50% drop to only 12% once in the foreign locale (Brookfield, 2014). Language issues (Cole, 2011; Roos, 2013), complications around work permits (Beaverstock, 2005; Vogel, van Vuuren, & Millard, 2008), and a general lack of organisational support (Cole, 2011; Kupka & Cathro, 2007) all contribute to the career challenges of the traditional trailing partner. These dual-career issues are attributed with underscoring a traveller's preference for short-term assignments (Tahvanainen et al., 2005), commuter partnerships (Sandow, 2014; Van der Klis & Mulder, 2008) and frequent international business travel (Kirk, 2015) over accompanied long-term expatriation. In other words, many travellers express a preference for engaging in the contemporary forms of global mobility.

There is an outstanding call to consider the dual-career impact of contemporary global mobility (Shaffer et al., 2012). The following section draws on the limited available literature to discuss the primary strategy identified for coping with the demands of separation, the adoption of flexible working arrangements. Given the paucity of research available in the context of contemporary global mobility, where applicable, findings grounded in either traditional expatriate or domestic dual-careers have been integrated to supplement the discussion.

2.4.4 The Stay-Behind Partner at Work

The partners of the globally mobile employ a variety of flexible working arrangements as they strive to maintain their career whilst managing the additional roles and responsibilities placed on them by recurring work-related separations. The level of professional adaptation undertaken appears to be influenced by the age of any dependent children (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013; Parkes et al., 2005), just as it does for working mothers without a travelling partner (Hegewisch & Gornick, 2011; McIntosh, McQuaid, Munro, & Dabir-Alai, 2012). Whether having a partner who is globally mobile means flexible working arrangements remain necessary over an extended period, due to periodically parenting alone, remains an unanswered question.

Traditional gender ideologies prioritising the impact on the family over the maternal career is an issue that presents both in contemporary global mobility (Dittman et al., 2016; Van der Klis & Mulder, 2008) and domestic dual-career literature (e.g. Friedman, 2015; Matias & Fontaine, 2015; Rusconi, Moen, Kaduk, Major, & Burke, 2013). The effect of the gender of the traveller permeates traditional expatriate dual-career literature (e.g. Hearn, Jyrkinen, Piekkari, & Oinonen, 2008; van der Velde, Bossink, & Jansen, 2005), and appears to remain relevant in the current context.

Angrist and Johnson (2000) conclude the short-term deployment of females did not impact on their male partner's employment, whilst the increase in responsibilities borne by female partners did result in them reducing the hours they worked. It appears that when both partners are travelling, as opposed to one global and one domestic career, the domestic responsibilities

may be more evenly distributed (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013).

However the previous discussion regarding the demands borne by the partner who stays behind paints a less egalitarian picture.

Research into the penalty of motherhood indicates flexibility in employment is attained in exchange for reduced pay (Edwards, 2012; Goldin & Katz, 2011) and promotional opportunities (Crompton & Lyonette, 2011; Malatzky, 2013). Nevertheless, pursuing part-time employment, working less than 30 hours per week (OECD, 2016), is a strategy military partners adopt to meet the demands placed on them during deployments (Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012). The partners of frequent international travellers, of either gender, also utilise part-time employment to manage the inter-role conflict they experience between their work and home domains (Stewart & Donald, 2006). Whether certain flexible working arrangements are better suited to the ad hoc travel of the FIBT, whilst others are well-matched with the periodic compensatory time off that comes with commuter assignments, is yet to be addressed.

In the modern labour market, increasing specialisation may limit the availability of local employment for dual-career partners (Sandow, 2014) giving rise to the 'Commuter Marriage', where one partner maintains a base away from home (Van der Klis & Karsten, 2009; Van der Klis & Mulder, 2008). The commuter relationship may be a conscious egalitarian approach to mobility, acknowledging the career commitment of each partner while wanting to avoid a trailing spouse situation with the attendant negative career impacts (Van der Klis & Mulder, 2008). While the commuting may be a conscious choice, the partner may still have to adopt flexible work

practices in order to manage family commitments when the commuter is absent (Misan & Rudnik, 2015; Van der Klis & Karsten, 2009). This may reflect a resolve to prioritise the family domain (Van der Klis & Mulder, 2008), or may be to make the most of any scheduled commuter time at home (Parkes et al., 2005). This final motive may be unique to the commuter context, because, as previously discussed, compensatory time off is primarily restricted to commuters (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Gustafson, 2012; Mayerhofer et al., 2011; Welch et al., 2007). It should be acknowledged that in many of the studies where part-time employment appears to be grounded in choice, as opposed to necessity, this is arguably facilitated by the financial rewards available, as for example in the extractive resource commuter sector (Carter & Kaczmarek, 2009; MacBeth et al., 2012; Misan & Rudnik, 2015; Parkes et al., 2005). Nonetheless, for the partner, there are factors over and above their financial contribution to the family, which influence their employment choices.

There are three key reasons given by partners for seeking paid employment; career commitment, financial reward, and the potential for social interaction (Parkes et al., 2005). Loneliness has already been identified as a consequence of global mobility (e.g. Andres et al., 2012; Gustafson, 2014; Torkington et al., 2011) so seeking company through employment is understandable. Some stay-at-home partners however make the decision to forgo paid work in the face of the additional roles and responsibilities (Parkes et al., 2005). Those military partners who relinquish paid employment claim to experience fewer relationship issues, compared to those who persevere with some form of work outside the home (Dittman et

al., 2016; Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012). Given the nascent nature of the literature, it is not possible to provide further analysis of the potential positives or negatives of the utilisation of flexible work arrangements by the partners of the contemporary global traveller.

2.5 Potential Theoretical Constructs

The previous section's review of the phenomenon of contemporary global mobility synthesises and summarises research from the global mobility, family, and career literature streams. The gaps identified signal issues that are still to be addressed, and it appears there are two models that could prove germane in seeking answers to these outstanding questions. The Job-Demand Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) and Family Systems Theory (Olson, Russell, & Sprenkle, 1983) seem relevant in the current context, consistent with recent calls from scholars to consider contemporary global mobility from each of these perspectives (JD-R: Kraimer et al., 2014; Lazarova et al., 2010; Family Systems: Takeuchi, 2010). The following sections provide a brief history of each of the theoretical frames, and then consider their potential as theoretical foundations for my research into the family of the contemporarily mobile.

2.5.1 Job Demands-Resources Theory

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model originally stems from research into the phenomenon of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001), with an underlying foundation in Hobfoll's (1989) Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Empirically-driven evolutions of

the initial model investigate the impact of job demands and resources on the development of both job strain and motivation. Advocating the proposition that “job resources may buffer the impact of job demands”, the original proponents believe the model has a wide-ranging applicability across multiple occupations with the potential to impact performance and well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 314). Research across a vast range of contexts, ranging from Austrian blue collar workers (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010) to Chinese health professionals (Hu, Schaufeli, & Taris, 2011) to Australian volunteers (Lewig, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard, & Metzger, 2007) appears to corroborate this assertion of broad applicability.

Although the original construct was grounded solely in an organisational context, ensuing scholarship demonstrates the relevance of the model to the bi-directional work-family nexus (e.g. Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Minnotte, 2016; Schieman, Milkie, & Glavin, 2009). Demerouti and colleagues (2005) use the JD-R model to examine the crossover of phenomenon between dual-career couples. Their multi-participant study confirms the reciprocal relationship between one partner’s work and home experiences in terms of job strain and life satisfaction, and how the other partner experiences their work and home life. These findings highlight the potential overarching applicability of the JD-R model for considering the career and the non-work experiences of the partner in a dual-career relationship where the other partner engages in contemporary global mobility.

The JD-R model has also been extended into the international domain and adopted as a theoretical foundation for both traditional and contemporary global mobility research. For example, Lazarova and colleagues (2010)

adopt the JD-R model to discuss how a traditional expatriate family's adjustment to their new situation impacts on traditional expatriate performance. Rattrie and Kittler (2014), in their systematic review of JD-R literature, argue an overall lack of empirical support for any international extension of the JD-R model, but recent studies appear to remedy any deficiency. Traditional expatriate issues concerning retention (Qin, Hom, Xu, & Ju, 2014) and repatriation (Ren, Shaffer, Harrison, Fu, & Fodchuk, 2013) have been subject to research applying the JD-R model as the overarching theory. Furthermore, Jensen (2014), and Kraimer and colleagues (2014) argue that the JD-R model is also germane to the more contemporary forms of global mobility. For example, Jensen's (2014) research into work-family conflict arising from FIBT applies the JD-R model and finds the demand of work-related separation may be moderated by the resource of having control over one's travel schedule. Another example can be found in Fliege and colleagues' (2016) study of diplomats which contends the constant mobility may be both a resource in terms of the positive impact of enjoying new experiences but also an exhausting demand. Each of these examples further corroborates the potential for the JD-R model to provide an overarching foundation for research grounded in contemporary global mobility.

The first half of this chapter highlighted certain demands exacerbate, whilst the available resources have the potential to buffer, the impact of contemporary global mobility on the traveller and on the family that stays behind. Brough and colleagues (2013) undertook a longitudinal test of the JD-R model and, while questioning the strength of the theoretical

relationship between *generic* demands, resources and outcomes, suggest that *job-specific* demands and resources are valuable in predicting outcomes.

The preceding review of the relevant available literature identifies a number of demands specific to the experiences of the family (for example, periodic transitioning and parenting alone) and distinctive resources (for example, the empathetic wifenet) and therefore it appears the JD-R model could be valuable when predicting outcomes in the current context.

Despite the argument that the JD-R model is primarily descriptive rather than explanatory, its “elegant and parsimonious description of the way demands, resources and outcomes are associated” (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014, p. 55) has seen it adopted by many practitioners and academics.

Nevertheless, the lack of explanatory value means the JD-R model alone may not adequately explain how the actions of each family member may impact on the other primary actors within the family. The following section introduces a theory that does consider the effect of such reciprocity between family members - Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983). A brief history of the theory is followed by a discussion around the applicability of Family Systems Theory to the study of contemporary global mobility from the perspective of the family.

2.5.2 Family Systems Theory

Family Systems Theory, derived from Minuchin’s (1974) basic premise of reciprocity, maintains that the actions of each family member impact on the other primary actors within the family system. Applying Hall and Fagen’s (1956) seminal definition of a system as comprised of related objects, in a family the *objects* are the family members who are a “special set of people

with relationships between them; these relationships are established, maintained, and evidenced by the members communicating with each other” (Bavelas & Segal, 1982, p. 102). The attributes families draw on to cope with stressors, and to maintain their equilibrium, are family cohesion, adaptability, and communication (Olson et al., 1983).

Olson and colleagues consider family cohesion the “emotional bonding that family members have towards one another” (1983, p. 69), a connection diagnosed along dimensions that include common interests, time spent together, and how decisions are made. The level of cohesion experienced by a family can range from a very low level where they are disengaged from one another, to very high levels where they are enmeshed in each other’s lives. A balanced level of cohesion is when a family finds their equipoise between maintaining individual boundaries and spending time together. They define family adaptability as the ability of the “family system to change its power structure, role relationships and relationship rules in response to ...stress” (1983, p. 70) representing the family’s ability to negotiate change. The family’s capacity to adapt ranges from being excessively rigid, to high levels of flexibility that may result in chaos. A balanced level of adaptability incorporates elements of flexibility within certain structural restraints; the ability to share roles within the family’s existing rules. The third resource, and that which is considered a “facilitating dimension” (1983, p. 71) is that of family communication, with positive communication being considered critical in enabling cohesion and adaptability.

In order to achieve balance, a family needs to deal with normative ongoing strains, and the non-normative, the stressors arising from change (Patterson, 2002). The pressures placed on the family's equilibrium may be generated internally, or come from external career-related stresses (Brett & Stroh, 1995), and the oscillating nature of these factors would appear to resonate with the "periodically transitioning families" (Kazakos et al., 2013, February, p. 1157) who are the participants of my study.

Family Systems Theory provides the theoretical foundation for traditional expatriate research considering employee (L. Lee & Kartika, 2014), spousal (McNulty, 2012), and children's (van der Zee, Ali, & Haaksma, 2007) adjustment, corroborating Rosenbusch and Cseh's (2012) identification of a family's adaptability as fundamental to their cross-cultural transition.

Whilst these studies may fail to address Takeuchi's (2010) critique calling for longitudinal research to understand the potentially non-linear relationship between family antecedents and consequential adjustment, they appear otherwise methodologically robust and therefore provide adequate endorsement for the application of Family Systems Theory in the traditional expatriate arena. Research that considers corporate employees' willingness to undertake traditional long-term expatriation, and then compares this to their willingness to undertake short-term assignments (Konopaske et al., 2009), applies Family Systems Theory to the current context. Moreover, a growing number of studies in the military (Lester & Flake, 2013; Riggs & Riggs, 2011) and resource sector (Taylor & Simmonds, 2009) highlight the impact of family cohesion, adaptability, and communication on the family's capacity to adapt to contemporary global mobility. Notwithstanding the

increasing adoption of Family Systems as a theoretical basis for global mobility scholarship, the notion of applying a model with its genesis over 30 years ago to a very contemporary context requires some critical consideration.

Rodriguez and Margolin (2015), in their recent review of temporary parental separation literature, identify three factors key to families' successful operation during temporary absences, which align with family system attributes. The first is how effectively separated families make decisions, which is a recognised dimension of family cohesion. The second relates to how a family redistributes their roles which influences their ability to manage throughout the separations, and is a component of family adaptability. Finally, Rodriguez and Margolin (2015) corroborate the importance of successful communication and hence provide further support of the on-going relevance of the Family Systems Theory, and the applicability to the context of contemporary global mobility.

The JD-R model and Family Systems Theory each have the potential to contribute to the overarching theoretical foundation of this study. The strength of the JD-R model is in its descriptive clarity and as such, has been frequently applied to many occupational settings, including that of the contemporarily globally mobile. Its potential weakness lies in its lack of explanatory value, which is where Family Systems Theory may contribute. Understanding the reciprocity that exists between the globally mobile and the family, both in terms of managing demands and providing support, may guide our understanding of the familial impact of contemporary global mobility.

2.6 The Research Gaps and Questions

Synthesising global mobility, family, and career literature streams provides an overview of the existing understanding of how engaging in contemporary global mobility impacts on the traveller and their family. It appears the globally mobile work long hours which can ultimately negatively affect their health, and yet they are not routinely provided with adequate formal organisational support. It is the partner who is often responsible for emotionally championing the traveller and yet the partner themselves may be experiencing role overload in the form of excessive domestic and parenting demands. This in turn may impact not only on the partners' general well-being but also potentially their employment choices.

Consistent with the travellers' situation, formal organisational support for the family is lacking, meaning friends and family step into the breach to provide what is necessary. Modern communication tools ensure the absent parent is also able to support the family who stays behind. It does seem there is a demonstrable reciprocity between each of the family members, both in terms of managing demands and providing support, underscoring the potential for the JD-R model and Family Systems Theory to provide overarching theoretical foundations for my study.

There are a number of gaps in the literature that appear have yet to be addressed. At an overview level, there are currently no comparative studies contrasting the impact of each of the forms of contemporary global mobility, either from the perspective of the traveller or from the perspective of the family who stays behind. This may be a consequence of the ongoing lack of construct clarity, with the few available comparative studies

fundamentally restricted to a dichotomous consideration of long-term versus short-term options. From an overall methodological perspective, there is a reliance on parental reports to represent the voice of the child. The few exceptional studies that do give voice to the stay-behind child come primarily from the military context. Whilst such research provides an understanding of the issues from the perspective of a child living on a military base, for children without this institutional support, few have been offered the opportunity to discuss how they experience the phenomenon. There are also the gaps that sit at the intersection of all three contributing literature streams as shown in Figure 3.

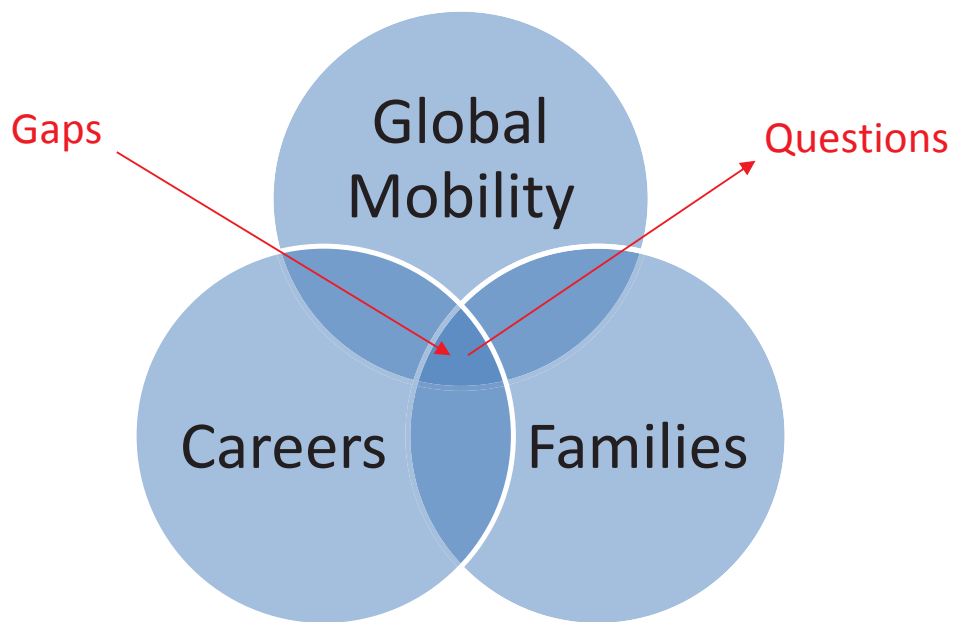


Figure 3: Symbolic Representation of Overlap between the Relevant literature Streams and the Identified Gaps

Consideration has yet to been given to the impact the form of global mobility has on the level of additional domestic demands to be borne by the family, or the support they require, and how this impacts the ability of the partner to sustain their career. From the opposing perspective, consideration

has yet to be given to how the various career adaptations undertaken by the partner enables them to maintain a sustainable work-family balance across the various forms of unaccompanied contemporary global mobility. My research questions stem directly from these gaps -

1. *How have the home lives of the stay-behind family members been affected by the contemporary global mobility of their partner or parent?*
2. *How has the career of the stay-behind partner been impacted by the global mobility undertaken by their partner?*

2.7 Summary

This chapter provides the overarching context for my study. Various forms of global mobility are increasingly being utilised, but scholarship is yet to provide comparable research across the contemporary continuum, to support organisations engaging in these modes of mobility. This resistance has been attributed to the absence of a construct clarity and consistently applied definitions, a shortcoming that has hopefully now been addressed. The extant literature around the experiences of the traveller and the family, both at home and at work, is synthesised and summarised. The Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983) are considered as potential theoretical foundations for gaining a more complete understanding of the impact of contemporary global mobility on the family. Combining the clarified definitions, the review, and the consideration of the potential theoretical foundations, culminates in the research questions. My study aims to answer the questions along the continuum of contemporary global mobility, from the

perspective of the stay-behind family, and as reported by the stay-behind family. The methodology adopted to achieve these goals, is detailed in the following chapter.

Chapter 3 Methodology

The following chapter explains both my overarching research philosophy, and the methodology I employed to answer the research questions identified in Chapter 2. As defined by Guba and Lincoln (1994), a paradigm is the fundamental set of beliefs that guide our action as researchers. It encompasses ontology, epistemology, and methodology, and the following chapter will address each of these in turn. While my personal philosophical position invariably permeated the decisions I made, as is required of any robust research, my methodology grew “from the questions” rather than “falling from the paradigms” (O’Leary, 2010, p. 9).

3.1 Philosophical Position

Ontological considerations focus on “the nature of reality” (Creswell, 2013, p. 20). Those who view the world through an objective lens assume a social world that exists independently from people and believe there can be a single, shared reality. The subjective view considers reality to be constructed through social interaction based on each person’s dynamic perceptions and experiences (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016; Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). I understand the world to be one that is socially constructed and that there is no single objective truth. I believe reality is different for each individual, at any one point in time, and in any one context. This is considered to be a constructionist ontological position (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016; Lincoln et al., 2011).

Epistemology considers how we understand the world and what “constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study” (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill,

2007, p. 597). As with ontology, there are objective and subjective views. The objective view holds that legitimate knowledge stems from the observation of context-free material items. This view is often associated with the natural sciences, and a philosophical position of positivism. The subjective view, which is my way of knowing, considers reality to be socially constructed by the social actors and is associated with interpretivism (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016; Lincoln et al., 2011).

It is the very existence of these competing epistemologies, these alternative ways of knowing, that can lead to different understandings of what is real, and consequently diverse philosophical positions (O'Leary, 2010). As an interpretive and constructionist researcher, I identify with 'social constructionists' (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016) as I believe reality is not constructed "in isolation but against a back drop of shared understandings, practices, language, and so forth" (Schwandt, 2000, p. 197). This perspective means I, like Huberman and Miles (2002), believe that my participants and I, through our interactions, construct knowledge together. As discussed in the introduction to this chapter, a research paradigm consists of the researcher's ontological and epistemological world view, and the research methodology (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The following sections discuss the third component of my adopted paradigm.

3.2 Research Methodology

The research methodology of my study can broadly and schematically be defined as qualitative, while the more precise definition would be that I adopted an abductive research strategy (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016). Methodologies are not only the practicalities that guide research design, but

serve to legitimise how knowledge is produced. They inform the outside world of the steps taken to ensure that processes are well-considered and methods are rigorous, and therefore the contributions are able to stand up to any scrutiny (O'Leary, 2010). Furthermore, the chosen techniques should depend on the underlying research questions and not any predetermined preference that I may hold, as each methodology has its strengths, and its limitations, in any given context. The following sections discuss both the qualitative approach and the abductive research strategy.

3.2.1 The Choice of a Qualitative Methodology

The study of contemporary global mobility, and the work-family nexus in an international context, are both considered to be emergent phenomena (Collings et al., 2007; Shaffer et al., 2012), immediately signalling a qualitative methodology as the best fit (Cappellen & Janssens, 2010a; Edmondson & McManus, 2007; Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The qualitative approach facilitates the gathering of rich data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008) while enabling flexible exploration (Morgan & Smircich, 1980), as necessitated by the limited available literature. This is consistent with the approach adopted, and justification provided, in recent studies of the work and family issues associated with contemporary global mobility, including Lirio and colleague's (2014) study into global work-life balance. Moreover, there are those from the post-positivistic school who believe there is an "inability of quantitative methods to appreciate human experience" (Spector-Mersel, 2010, p. 207) whereas "qualitative researchers study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena

in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 3).

The importance of choosing the right method becomes even more apparent when you consider the impact on the data produced (Fargas-Malet, McSherry, Larkin, & Robinson, 2010), and that mistakes may be amplified as they are adopted by future researchers and by practitioners relying on the rigour of their academics predecessors (Chang, McDonald, & Burton, 2010). Taking into consideration the emerging nature of the phenomena being questioned, alongside the desire to understand the way social actor’s experience contemporary global mobility, my study adopted a qualitative approach. This approach will be detailed over subsequent sections, commencing with the following discussion regarding my adoption of an overarching abductive strategy.

3.2.2 An Abductive Research Strategy

An abductive research strategy, as described by Blaikie -

“Involves constructing theories that are derived from social actors’ language, meaning and accounts in the context of everyday activities. Such research begins by describing these activities and meanings, and then derives from them categories and concepts that can form the basis of an understanding or an explanation of the problems at hand” (2007, p. 89).

Abduction as an overarching research strategy is consistent with an interpretivist and constructionist philosophical perspective, while providing my participants with a voice that will enable me to understand their

experiences of contemporary global mobility. The strategy entails identifying the individuals' realities and the typical experiences across the participants. The challenge is then to describe these experiences in the language of social science, and explain the phenomena in terms of both existing and new theoretical foundations. My engagement with the literature, and a priori identification of the Job Demand Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983) as potential theoretical foundations for my study, rendered me a "theoretically sensitized observer" (Timmermans & Tavory, 2012, p. 173), further justifying the abductive approach.

To access the accounts of the individuals' experiences, it is necessary to initiate a process that encourages participants to reflect on their daily social life (Blaikie, 2007), and I selected the semi-structured interview as the tool I would use to access the participants' social world. Figure 4 provides an overview of the data collection and analysis phases, conducted within the overarching abductive research strategy, and detailed in the following sections. Before providing a more detailed analysis of why the semi-structured interview was the adopted method, and how it was employed, the following section details the participants who contributed their voice to my study of contemporary global mobility.

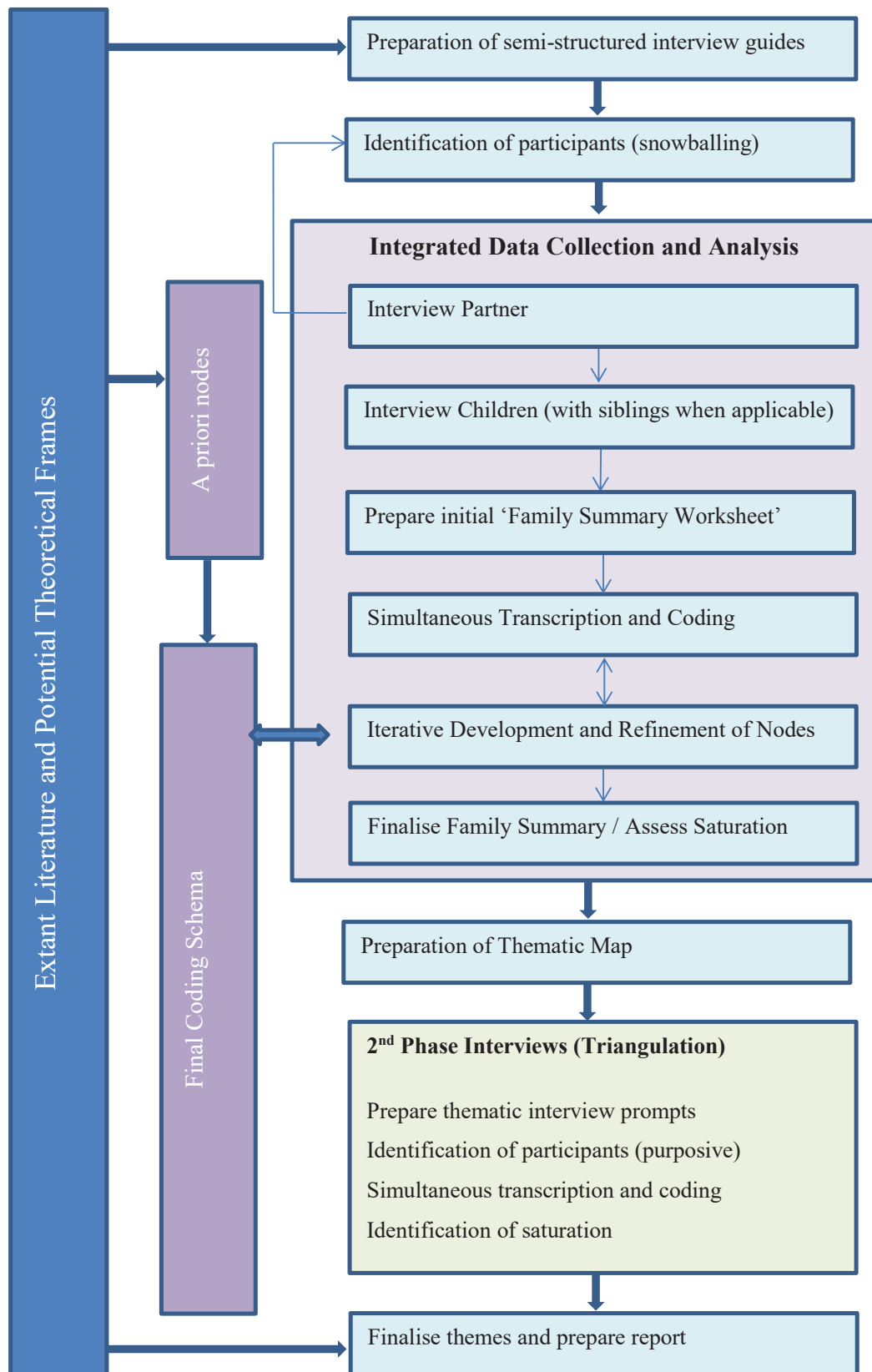


Figure 4: The Stages of the Abductive Research

3.3 The Participants

The participants in my study were the partners and children of international sailors who stay behind while their partner, or parent, travels overseas for work. I chose to engage with the international yachting community as sailors work across the various unaccompanied modes of contemporary global mobility, providing the opportunity to compare the impact of the various forms on the work and family life of those who stay behind. I chose to integrate multiple perspectives into the study so as to provide a rich understanding of family dynamics (Dobson, 2009; Harden, Backett-Milburn, Hill, & MacLean, 2010), and foreground the children who provided me with that additional viewpoint.

Although there continues to be an enduring element of “adultist” (Hatfield, 2010, p. 245) reluctance to forefront children’s perspectives as potentially unique from their parents (Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007; White, de Burgh, Fear, & Iversen, 2011), the importance of including both becomes apparent when considering the discrepancies reported between parent and children participants in recent military mobility (Chandra et al., 2010) and more general migration (Laoire, Carpena-Mendez, Tyrrell, & White, 2010) research. It appears adult proxies are “unlikely to be able to accurately represent children’s social worlds, no matter how well intentioned or informed the adult” (Mishna, Antle, & Regehr, 2004, p. 451) given their bias towards fitting the behaviours they observe into their own preconceptions of the situation (Weller, Hobbs, & Goodman, 2013).

The movement towards valuing children’s perspectives and considering children as authorities on their own lives (Alanen, 2001; Soffer & Ben-Arieh, 2013) may be attributed to the growing body of evidence indicating children to be competent research participants, with the verbal skills required to communicate their experiences (Kirk,

2007). Nevertheless, there continues to be a ‘white space’ in management studies yet to be filled by incorporating children’s perspectives (Kavanagh, 2013). Equally, recent reviews of literature grounded in the armed services, confirm an enduring over-reliance on parental reporting (Alfano et al., 2016; White et al., 2011) despite ongoing calls to include the child’s voice (Dittman et al., 2016; Espino et al., 2002; S. Harper & Martin, 2013; Laoire et al., 2010; Nicholas & McDowall, 2012). By including the children who stay behind in my study, I have the potential to make a significant contribution to existing knowledge. The remainder of the discussion regarding the participants provides a more detailed description of who they were, the process undertaken to identify and recruit them, and how I knew when I had heard enough.

3.3.1 Criterion for Inclusion

Families were considered for inclusion in my study if either the sailor or the partner holds a New Zealand passport. Whilst I concede there may be some who identify as New Zealanders without holding a New Zealand Passport, the criterion needed to be clear, concise, and repeatable without subjectivity, if my research findings were to be considered trustworthy (Refer Section 3.7 for a more detailed discussion). The New Zealand passport criterion was included for a number of reasons. It meant I was examining an under-researched population (McNulty et al., 2013) without limiting my sample to those living in New Zealand. This meant I was able to open up the discussion around why families may choose to live in one geographic location over another. This is especially pertinent as New Zealand is geographically isolated from the sailing destinations of Europe and the United States, and the literature already highlights the increase in travel-related issues over such distances (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Lirio et al., 2014). Within the passport criterion, the heterogeneity of the participants was maximised across age, family commitments and career, so as to facilitate the capture of

a wide-range of experiences. This is consistent with the approach taken by Shaffer and Harrison (2001) during the development of their model of traditional expatriate spousal adjustment when they sought to capture a broad selection of adjustment experiences.

Children were invited to participate if they were of school age (five and over) or if they had left school but continued to live at home. The key concern around children's ages and research participation relates to their ability to provide an informed consent. This and other ethical issues concerned with the inclusion of children will be discussed in detail in Section 3.4.2.2. However, the generally accepted assumption is that school age children are considered able to provide consent if appropriately managed by the adult researcher. Aside from the ethical issues, 5-years-old is when children are considered to possess the vocabulary required to articulate their experiences (Keats, 2000). My own children were six and ten respectively when I began interviewing, and they were able to clearly recall events relating to their father's travels and absences. Furthermore, research based on military families who stay behind where children are afforded a voice, has employed 'school age' as an inclusion criterion (e.g. Blasko, 2015; Lester & Flake, 2013; Lester et al., 2010). Given each of these factors, having started school was considered an appropriate lower age limit for the participants.

The inclusion of children who had left school but were still living at home was based not only on the axiom that children who are still living at home form a part of the family unit, maintaining some level of dependency on their parents, but also anecdotal knowledge that at least two yachting syndicates continue to budget for travel and accommodation for any dependent children, defined as those who still live at home. The criterion therefore seems relevant both generally and within the specific context.

Table 3 presents the demographics of the 21 parents and the 30 children who participated. The children who participated have been highlighted. The non-participant

children have still been included in the table as they are part of the demographic of their family, and have the potential to influence how their mother experiences living with contemporary global mobility. They are identified only by pseudonym and the partner's ages have been bracketed to increase their anonymity. It should be acknowledged at this stage that the partners are all women. This is a potential limitation of the study, however one that was unavoidable given there are a very limited number of professional female sailors. Having only female adult participants did however have advantages, such as facilitating the discussion around female careers.

Table 3: Primary Participants Demographic Data

Partner	Age	Passport Nationality	Current Domicile	# of Children	Children's Ages	Current Employment
Anna	40-49	New Zealand	New Zealand	4	14,12,9,8	Contractor - Part Time
Belinda	30-39	American	America	2	7,4	Stay-At-Home Mother
Bree	30-39	New Zealand	New Zealand	2	13,9	Entrepreneur
Carol	40-49	Sweden	Sweden	2	12,8	Student - Full Time
Claire	30-39	New Zealand	New Zealand	3	10,7,6	Stay-At-Home Mother
Dee	50-59	Canadian	Canada	2	18,15	Permanent Role - Full Time
Elizabeth	40-49	Scottish	New Zealand	3	7,5,2	Family Business
Joss	50-60	New Zealand	New Zealand	3	23,21,18	Permanent Role - Part Time
Jane	40-49	New Zealand	USA	2	16,12	Permanent Role - Full Time
Kate	50-59	New Zealand	New Zealand	3	23,22,18	Permanent Role - Part Time
Kris	40-49	New Zealand	New Zealand	2	11,9	Permanent Role - Part Time
Kayla	30-39	New Zealand	New Zealand	1	3	Permanent Role - Part Time
Kerry	30-39	American	New Zealand	2	7,5	Entrepreneur
Michelle	40-49	New Zealand	New Zealand	3	16,12,10	Contractor - Part Time
Mandy	40-49	Irish	Ireland	2	9,7	Family Business
Paulette	40-49	New Zealand	New Zealand	2	6,1	Permanent Role - Part Time
Sonia	20-29	New Zealand	New Zealand	3	8,3,1	Entrepreneur
Stella	30-39	New Zealand	New Zealand	2	7,5	Entrepreneur
Stacey	40-49	Sweden	Sweden	3	9,7,3	Entrepreneur
Sharon	30-39	New Zealand	New Zealand	3	6,4,2	Permanent Role - Full Time
Stephanie	20-29	New Zealand	New Zealand	2	4,1	Stay-At-Home Mother

3.3.2 The Sampling Process

The participants for my study were identified through a snowballing process that was also (increasingly) purposive (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). This approach was taken so as to capture a heterogeneous group, whose differing demographics, geographic and occupational experiences collectively had the potential to provide diverse perspectives that spanned the continuum of global mobility. In the first instance, I contacted a number of the partners of international sailors who my husband was currently sailing with. These people were happy to be involved in the research and at the conclusion of the interview, I asked if they would email any of their contacts who they felt would consider contributing to my research. One participant in particular who is very involved in the sailing community, was invaluable as she emailed over 20 contacts and through her introduction I was able recruit a number of families whose experiences spanned the continuum of global mobility.

As the research progressed, certain themes began to emerge from the concurrent transcription and analysis process (refer to Section 3.5.3 for a detailed discussion) and the recruitment process became increasingly purposive, targeting those whose apparent circumstances would appear to represent emerging themes. This was to ensure rich and in-depth data was collected whilst avoiding redundancy of data collection when other themes had reached a point of saturation. The following section will address the specific processes undertaken to identify when such saturation had been attained.

3.3.3 Saturation

Saturation is defined as when “additional data is no longer expected to contribute further richness to the understanding” (Kuzel, 2000, p. 41) and as suggested by Guba and Lincoln (1994) and O'Reilly and Parker (2012), I ceased interviewing when I

believed I had reached that point of redundancy. There are academics who advocate minimum numbers to develop the necessary level of understanding, but these proposed numbers range from at least six (Morse, 1994) to around 30 (Tharenou, 2015). My abductive strategy however, is aimed at understanding the typical experiences of those who stay behind, so this required that I continued to gather data until I had achieved that understanding, and not simply until I had reached an arbitrary number.

The risks of employing saturation lie in the lack of definitive rules governing its adoption (Hyde, 2003). Nonetheless, it appears that what is required is a clear understanding on behalf of the researcher, and a well-defined explanation for the reader, of how saturation was deemed to be achieved (Bowen, 2008; O'Reilly & Parker, 2012). For my study, my primary tool for monitoring saturation was the document I referred to as the 'Family Summary Worksheet' (Refer to Appendix B for an example). The worksheet facilitated identification of the 'Family Contribution', where I documented the unique contribution I felt the particular family had made to the study, in terms of the home impact and/or the impact on the partner's career. I noted my immediate thoughts on this at the completion of the parent and child interviews, and then revisited the worksheet once I had transcribed and coded the family's interviews. Once I was no longer able to identify a contribution from a family, I began to question whether saturation was eminent. At this point, I revisited the NVivo annotations, where I had recorded my thoughts on analysis alongside any outstanding questions, to consider if there were any categories that required further explanation. Once I was satisfied that additional interviews would not be expected to provide any further richness, I deemed that I had reached data saturation, and I ceased interviewing.

3.4 Data Collection Techniques

Semi-structured interviews were the method chosen to provide the social actors in my study with their own voice and enable the gathering of rich in-depth data (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; King, 2004). The following section will discuss my choice to interview, given the available alternative qualitative tools, and the interview process itself. As briefly discussed in the previous section, contemporary society deems children to have the competencies to participate in social research, however, there are number of issues arising from the ethics of including children in social research that warrant particular attention. Therefore separate consideration will be given to the adult and children interviews respectively.

3.4.1 The Choice to Interview

There were two factors that drove the choice of qualitative semi-structured interviews. First, the emerging nature of the phenomena that is contemporary global mobility, and secondly, that I was seeking the perspective of the previously under examined stay-behind family (Cappellen & Janssens, 2010b). This was a decision made in recognition of the research questions posed in Chapter 2 and not simply my falling into a ‘methodolatry’ (Janesick, 2000) of being attached to interviewing. Nevertheless, various alternative approaches were duly considered prior to my making the final decision to interview.

Ethnography was considered as an alternative to the arguably artificial situation that is an interview. However, the presence of an ethnographic observer can also create a contrived environment. Furthermore, “interviews can reveal emotional dimensions of social experience” that are not often evident during the observation of human behaviour (Lamont & Swidler, 2014, p. 159). A diary study was also considered. However, a

diary study records only the present, and gaining an understanding of the cumulative impact of contemporary global mobility required greater reflection on the past. Furthermore, a diary study relies upon the reading and writing competencies of any participating children (Hill, 2006). Finally, a survey was a possibility to obtain more information on global mobility. However, to create an instrument to measure the issues permeating the experience of a phenomenon, when those issues are yet to be identified, disregards recommended research practice (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Moreover, child participants are reported to find surveys ‘boring’ which can result in them providing subversive answers, whilst they are attracted to the immediacy of interviews, particularly group discussions (Hill, 2006). I therefore decided that semi-structured interview was the method that would provide the most in-depth answers to my research questions.

Interviews not only fit with the exploratory nature of my research, but also align with my overarching social constructionist philosophy, as they enable the “interviewer and interviewee to co-construct or evoke the contexts and practice of family life through an interactive exchange” (Mason & Tipper, 2013, p. 155). They may be time-consuming to conduct and to analyse (King, 2004), but they allow comparisons between people’s perceptions of the experience, and between contexts (Lamont & Swidler, 2014; Mishna et al., 2004). Interviewing allowed me to compare how the partners and children each perceived the impact, and how these experiences differed depending on the form of contemporary global mobility. Therefore, I believe any potential challenges were significantly outweighed by the capacity for interviews to provide the answers I was seeking. The next section discusses the process of interviewing the partners, before considering the potential challenge that is interviewing children.

3.4.2 Interview Process & Content

“The closeness of the research interview to everyday conversation may imply a certain simplicity, but this simplicity is illusory” (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015, p. 2).

3.4.2.1 Interviewing Adults

The partner interviews took place either via Skype (2) or in person (19), and were on average just under an hour (56 minutes) in length. Skype is now an accepted communication tool for interviewing (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004), and as Skype is widely utilised on a day-to-day basis by the participants of my study, its use was not expected to, and did not, give rise to any concerns. Nevertheless, an opportunity did arise that meant I was able to conduct a number of interviews face-to-face that I had expected to conduct over Skype given the geographic dispersion of my participants.

The annual Sydney to Hobart yacht race is very attractive for professional sailors who live overseas but want to visit their extended family in New Zealand over the Christmas period. I took advantage of this and managed to arrange face-to-face interviews with a number of families who currently reside in either Europe or the United States but visited during that period.

Prior to commencing interviewing, an interview guide was developed and pilot-tested. Consistent with the approach adopted by Shaffer and Harrison (2001) in their seminal study of traditional spousal adjustment, the guide had its genesis in my experiences as a stay-behind partner and parent over the recent decades. The issues I originally identified were considered in light of the existing scholarship, and ultimately gave shape to the schedule detailed in Appendix C. The guide was pilot-tested on two participants from my personal network to ensure it was not only complete, but consistently clear (Hollway & Jefferson, 1997), with the questions posed in lay language that were

understood (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). Comments by one of the pilot participants did result in one additional question being added to the guide, asking whether the separations had become easier over time. The finalised interview guide was deemed to provide the structure to strengthen the dependability of the interview process, while still affording the flexibility to spontaneously adjust the emphasis of the interview to respond to issues as they emerged. The flexibility also provided the participants the opportunity to adjust the emphasis of the interview, to discuss topics as they organically emerged, and to focus on the issues they, and not I, thought were the most important (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Layder, 1998; O'Leary, 2010).

Prior to the actual interviews, I emailed each of the partner participants an information sheet so they understood what I wanted to discuss. This also gave them an opportunity to ask any questions before we met, or to reconsider their participation if they felt they were not able to contribute (Refer Appendix D). I also, whenever possible, arranged to interview them during the day when their children were away from the home. This was to limit the interruptions and also to prevent the participant children from being within earshot (Bushin, 2007). This served two purposes. In the first instance, I did not want the mothers to feel inhibited when discussing their experiences if they felt this could have a negative impact on their children. The one interview I conducted during the school holidays confirmed my reservations, with the mother constantly lowering her voice and asking the children to go outside so she could talk to me. The second reason was that I did not want the children hearing their mothers' answers lest this would influence how they articulate their own experiences.

Once interviewing commenced, I adhered to the recommendations of Huberman and Miles (2002) and integrated the data collection and data analysis phases. This was consistent with the approach C. Baker and Ciuk (2015) adopted in their examination of

the work-family interface where a partner travels frequently for work. This allowed the interview guide to evolve to reflect any emerging themes. Whilst the guide remained fundamentally unchanged, minor additions were made after the completion of the first five interviews. Each of the first five participants was subsequently emailed the additional questions and two replied, with their responses being added to their interview transcripts. This approach is again consistent with that taken by Shaffer and Harrison (2001) when developing their Model of Spousal Adjustment in a traditional expatriate context.

The interviews themselves provided a wealth of in-depth data to contribute to the understanding of how the family experiences contemporary global mobility. It is almost paradoxical that perhaps one of the greatest limitations of using interviews as a research tool is also arguably one of its greatest strengths. That an interview is a social process means the relationship that forms between the researcher and the participant could influence the outcome. The other side of the argument is that the *social process* that enables the dynamic development of a rapport between the researcher and the participant over the course of the interview (Saywitz & Camparo, 2013) helps break down power imbalances (O'Kane, 2008) allowing participants to open up. I believe my position as a cultural insider (Refer Section 3.6) contributed significantly to the rapport I was able to develop with each of the participants and, ultimately, to my construction of new and unique knowledge. Exemplar of this was the number of participants who, throughout the interviews, sought reaffirmation of our shared background and when I was able to give them this, I believe it enabled them to share their own experiences. It also contributed to the breakdown of the social hierarchy that can exist between researcher and participant (Lincoln et al., 2011). This was particularly evident during the interview of a younger partner who seemed quite intimidated by the concept of a

PhD and it was only after I highlighted the similarities between her and I, that the implicit hierarchy began to break down and she started to really answer the questions. Hierarchical discrepancies are an ethical issue that apply equally to adult and children research participants. They, and other ethical challenges, are however, more concentrated when dealing with children (Soffer & Ben-Arieh, 2013). Therefore, the following section discusses not only the procedures surrounding the children's interviews, but also considers the various ethical issues that permeated the process.

3.4.2.2 Interviewing Children

There is an increasing recognition of children as competent contributors to the production of knowledge (Alanen, 2001; Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Morrow & Richards, 1996), “as experts on their own lives” (Mason & Tipper, 2013, p. 154). The caveat to this is to ensure the chosen methods are adequately oriented towards children (Kirk, 2007; White et al., 2011) and are accommodating to children's differing abilities and personalities (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Keats, 2000). The following section discusses the methods I adopted to facilitate the contribution of the children participants. The interviews of 30 children, in 17 family groups, were conducted with one exception, face-to face in their or a family member's home. The child who was interviewed over Skype, regularly uses Skype to communicate with both his father and his extended family, from whom he is geographically separated. As previously highlighted, the ethical issues that permeate the process of interviewing children require particular attention. The choice to interview in the family home, and to conduct combined sibling ‘group’ interviews as opposed to individual interviews, will also be discussed. Finally, the section provides detail regarding how I conducted the actual interviews, including my decision to utilise photo elicitation as part of the interview process. Each of these matters is important, as I believe to answer my research

questions, I need to include the children, to not conduct research simply *on* them or *about* them, but conduct research *with* them.

The Ethics of Interviewing Children

The ethical issues that arise when seeking to provide children a voice are fundamentally the same as the issues that arise when interviewing participants of any age.

Nonetheless, they require particular attention as “the differences between children and adult participants lie in the sharpness of the issues when children are concerned” (Soffer & Ben-Arieh, 2013, p. 563). The ability of children to provide an informed consent, the need to protect their emotional welfare, and the ethical responsibility to address the inherent power imbalance between adult researcher and child participants will each be considered in the following section. How I approached each issue will also be discussed.

Children are deemed to possess the competency to provide consent when they are considered articulate (Melton, 1983), and have been adequately informed of the process they are consenting to (Fargas-Malet et al., 2010). Massey University’s Code of Ethical Conduct Regulation 19(c)¹, however, requires that parental consent be obtained for children under the age of 15. In adherence to the code, I sought parental consent for each of the potential child participants. I emailed the parent the children’s information sheet (see Appendix F) to allow them to give my request an informed consideration prior to the face-to-face meetings where I would formally request their consent. There was a single instance where the parent agreed to be interviewed herself but, in her role as a parental gatekeeper (Bushin, 2007; Zartler, 2010), refused permission for her

¹ The full text of the code is available online at <http://www.massey.ac.nz/massey/fms/Human%20Ethics/Documents/MUHEC%20Code%202015.pdf?497309B983F78ECC2490A4A377F5CBAD>

children to be invited to participate. This process is consistent with the recommendations of the academic community (Soffer & Ben-Arieh, 2013; Whiting, 2015) and one I concur with, however, it does present researchers with, to some extent, an additional ethical concern. By giving power to adult gatekeepers, they are effectively denying children the right to participate and exacerbating the adult-centric imbalance that permeates social research (Fox, 2013; Skelton, 2008). Nonetheless, adult gatekeeping is the status quo and one, as Mayall (1999) suggests, researchers, including me, must accept if I am to gain access to the children who can answer my research questions.

Obtaining the informed consent of child participants requires they are provided with age adapted information (Bragadottir, 2000; Soffer & Ben-Arieh, 2013) that ensures they “understand the purpose of the research, what they are being asked to do, what they can expect, and that they are not obligated to participate” (Mishna et al., 2004, p. 454). I presented each of the children with their own information sheets (see Appendix F) which incorporated a specifically designed consent form, prior to commencing interviewing. These forms included an assurance that their anonymity would be preserved, moreover, I specifically verbally explained the concept of anonymity and confidentiality to them (Pinter & Zandian, 2012). Furthermore, I was conscious to explicitly advise each child that whilst their mothers had provided consent for them to be interviewed, they were entitled to make up their own minds, and were not obliged to continue (Kirk, 2007; Mishna et al., 2004). Two children were initially reticent and I informed both of them that was perfectly acceptable and that they could leave. They both however decided to sign the form and stay. Whilst one made only a minor contribution, once the sibling of the other child started answering questions, he became an active and articulate contributor.

Just as parental gatekeepers can paradoxically exacerbate ethical issues when they render children powerless by denying their right to a voice, a researcher's obligation to protect the emotional welfare can create further ethical dilemmas. When researchers "avoid asking the questions because they are ethically difficult", they are also taking a stance effectively "excluding children from research" (Morrow & Richards, 1996, p. 103). However, this does not exempt us from ensuring that we are aware of the need to make decisions that adhere to the "ethical principle of beneficence" meaning "that the risk of harm should be the least possible" (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015, p. 95). I was constantly reflecting on this requirement for non-maleficence, as evidenced by, for example, my decision to decline to interview the children of one family where the parents were experiencing matrimonial difficulties. While the mother provided consent, after I had completed her interview, I did not feel it would be possible to include her children without risking their emotional welfare. I found myself in a position similar to the one (Bushin, 2007) describes in that what I perceived to be in the 'best interests' of the children I was researching was not the same as the parent's perception. This served only to highlight the complexities of adhering to ethical practices and principles that researchers are constantly required to navigate.

The final ethical issue builds upon the foundation of our adult-centric society and the endemic power imbalance that exists between children and adults (Kirk, 2007). This imbalance requires a range of strategies to be adopted by the adult researcher to engage with the child participant and allow them their voice. It is necessary the children understand they are the experts on their lives and to convey to them that there is no right answer (Eder & Fingerson, 2002). As will be discussed, the mothers were invariably within earshot throughout the interviews, and there were instances of children referring to their mothers to gain an assurance of the accuracy or the appropriateness of their

response. Each time this occurred, I reiterated that there were no right or wrong answers and that I was simply interested in what they had to say. Additional suggested strategies for breaking down the power imbalance that I adopted throughout my interviews included providing age appropriate child-centred information, giving the children the control of the digital recording device, and the use of humour (O'Kane, 2008). The telling of humorous stories about my experiences of contemporary global mobility was part of a deliberate approach to minimise the social distance between myself and the child participants, to do as Raffety (2014) and Hatfield (2010) suggest and use our shared biography to develop a rapport. The decision to include photo elicitation in the interviews was a further strategy I adopted to redress the power imbalance. This will be considered in more detail shortly. A number of other decisions, such as where to conduct the interviews, and whether siblings should be interviewed together, were also shaped by the ethical landscape researchers are required to traverse when incorporating children into their studies.

Overarching Decisions regarding the Interview Place and Type

The decision to interview the children at home, or in the case of those visiting from overseas, in the home of the family member they were holidaying with, was primarily driven by the desire to address the power imbalance between adult researcher and child participant. Children are “used to having a voice and being listened to in their homes” (Bushin, 2007, p. 243) and therefore conducting research on *their* territory is considered constructive when aiming to redress the issue of researcher/participant hierarchy (Punch, 2002; Soffer & Ben-Arieh, 2013). Interviewing the children within the home has the additional benefit of evoking memories of family experiences (Mason & Tipper, 2013), a focus of my study, and providing conversational cues (Bushin, 2007).

Exemplar of this was when one child, who was fairly monosyllabic in his answers,

mentioned his father had recently been on the cover of a sailing magazine. He became much more animated and effusive in his answers once I asked if I could see a copy of the magazine. There are, however, also disadvantages to interviewing in the family home. These include distractions, such as the interruptions of other family members who are not participating in the interview process, and in my particular case, the omnipresence of the children's mothers.

Parental gatekeeping extends beyond their initial consent for their children to be approached and includes their ability "to situate themselves very directly between children and researchers" (Bushin, 2007, p. 239). This reflects the parent's desire to protect their children from harm (Mason, 2002) and can result in them over-riding or diverting the interview so as to present a consistent, potentially harmonious, front to the researcher (Mayall, 2008). In recognition of the parents' responsibilities towards their children, alongside my ethical obligation of non-malevolence, I advised each mother that they were welcome to stay if they so desired. The majority of the mothers, especially those with younger children, chose to sit with the children throughout the interviews. The others remained within earshot, as evidenced by a number of interruptions from other rooms. Their presence, whilst potentially intrusive, also proved to be valuable. When real-time debates and interactions occurred between the mothers and their children, this served to add significant insight and depth to the subsequent analysis (Bushin, 2007; Mason & Tipper, 2013). Moreover, especially for the younger participants, without the support of their mother, the power imbalance may have proven overwhelming, inhibiting their willingness or ability to actively participate (MacLean & Harden, 2014; O'Kane, 2008). Overall, the decision to interview in the family home, whilst giving rise to certain challenges, gave the children the opportunity to be experts on their own lives in an environment where they were accustomed to being listened too,

therefore reducing the social distance between us. Another major decision that was also driven by ethical concerns regarding hierarchical discrepancies, was the choice to conduct 'sibling' group interviews.

Seminal sociological researcher Berry Mayall considers the social context of a group interview to empower children's confidence when conversing with adult researchers (2008). This potential for the support of brothers and sisters to "dilute the power dynamics" (Hill, 2006, p. 81) prompted my decision to conduct sibling and not individual interviews. Group interviews not only reduce the salience of the researcher (Mayall, 1999), but can be more effective than one-on-one situations as the siblings co-construct their family stories together (Nelson & Quintana, 2005; Starkweather, 2012). They also appear to be the interview method of choice for participant children who recount finding a group situation less pressured (Giddings & Yarwood, 2005) while appreciating that "ideas could be shared and sparked off each other" (Punch, 2007, p. 221). There are, however, difficulties associated with group, and particularly sibling, interviews. Individual children may dominate group interviews (Giddings & Yarwood, 2005), in particular the oldest child may answer on behalf of their younger siblings, or make them hesitant to offer an alternative answer to the one provided by the family's first born (Punch, 2007). Following the practical techniques suggested by Bushin (2007) derived from her experiences interviewing children during migration research, I attempted to neutralise the eldest child by addressing questions to specific children, often in reverse age order. This was not 100% successful as there were still instances of the younger children parroting the older children, however, overall the strategy proved effective. It was evident that the individual children drew support from their siblings, growing in confidence, becoming increasingly effusive, and diminishing the power imbalance. This confirmed the choice of group interviews the appropriate for my study.

It should be noted that there were five children who were interviewed alone. The siblings of each of these children were under 5 and deemed too young to participate (Refer Section 3.3.1). Consequentially a limitation of my study is a variance of the interview process. For each of these interviews I was especially focused on establishing a rapport with the individual child, usually through our shared history and humour, so as to minimise as far as possible the power imbalance of the one-to-one situation. The interviews were fertile and contributed to the overall understanding of the experience of global mobility from the perspective of the child. I therefore remain confident the variance in procedure did not give rise to enough of a methodological issue to exclude those children from my research. All other aspects of the process of interviewing the children were standardised and are detailed in the following sections.

The Interview Process

When interviewing children, the adult researcher needs to balance connecting with the children with academic rigour (Soffer & Ben-Arieh, 2013), without influencing the children's contribution (Mauthner et al., 2000). I adhered to the three phases of interviewing children as suggested by Saywitz and Camparo (2013) in their handbook of Child Research. The authors suggest the interviewer should establish rapport, gather the required information, and then provide closure for the child participants. The previous discussion around ethics, and in particular the potential hierarchical power imbalance, has detailed the strategies I adopted to close the social distance between myself and the child participants. This section will provide detail on the information gathering aspects of the interview process, including why and how I incorporated an exercise in photo elicitation. It will also address the specific challenges around emotionally sensitive questions and the order of interviewing. It should be noted that while two of the families live in Sweden, their respective fathers are from New Zealand

and English is the language of choice in the family home. Therefore there were no language issues experienced during the course of their interviews.

Consistent with the approach adopted for the adult interviews, I prepared an interview guide with a genesis in my own experiences as a stay-behind parent, incorporating findings from the limited available literature (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001) (See Appendix E). Heeding the expert advice, I utilised open-ended questions hoping to elicit multi-word responses while constantly emphasizing to the children that they were the experts. Part of that process was to allow the children to direct where they wanted the conversation to go, which had the benefit of producing unexpected and insightful accounts, however on occasion I did have to use the guide to draw them back to the topic at hand (Saywitz & Camparo, 2013). I also chose to incorporate photos into the interview process, a decision prompted by my reading around the challenges of interviewing children, and the emergence of photo elicitation as a potentially constructive enhancement to the interview process.

Photo Elicitation

The photo elicitation interview has been defined as one where “researchers introduce photographs into the interview context” (Clark-Ibanez, 2004, p. 1507). Photo elicitation first emerged in the 1950s as a method for stimulating longer, and more comprehensive interviews (Collier, 1957). Subsequent proponents of the technique have corroborated the effectiveness of utilising photographs in evoking memories and stimulating discussion (Collier & Collier, 1986; D. Harper, 2002; Prosser, 2011). Photographs are deemed a potential ice breaker with the capacity to reduce the hierarchical disparity (Packard, 2008; Prosser, 2011) and to facilitate rapport between the adult researcher and the child participant (Clark-Ibanez, 2004; Gold, 2007). The introduction of the photographs allows the child to take on the role of the *expert*, again reducing the power

imbalance, but also eliciting uninhibited responses as they explain what *they* perceive the images represent (Pauwels, 2015). The decision to incorporate photo elicitation was also a response to seminal work-family researcher Greenhaus (2008) call to adopt innovative methods in work-family research.

I chose to introduce two photographs at the beginning of each interview. During pre-interview email communication with the parent participants I was able to identify the names of the sailing syndicates that their partners had sailed with most recently, and then searched the internet for relevant images. Aside from the afore-mentioned ethical drivers behind the use of photo elicitation, the objective behind introducing two photographs was to present boats that represented different modes of global mobility. For example, images of Volvo Ocean Race yachts were assumed to represent short-term assignments, where the sailors were gone for extended periods, either racing or training overseas. Conversely, yachts that were raced in various regattas over a race season often represented a situation where the sailor was engaged in either commuting, or frequent international business travel. I posed open questions to the children to allow them to take the lead (Epstein, Stevens, McKeever, & Baruchel, 2008; Pauwels, 2015), nevertheless, my selecting which photographs to include raises the methodological issue of the influence my choices had on the ensuing interviews.

The broader definition of photo elicitation includes the process of incorporating images taken by the participants, what Prosser (2011) refers to as “photovoice” (p.484). This method is argued to mitigate the risk of the researcher selecting photos that “miss an essential aspect of the research setting that is meaningful to the participants” (Clark-Ibáñez, 2007, p. 171). However, allowing the children to take photos is not without difficulty. The review by Fargas-Malet and colleagues (2010) of methodological issues surrounding photo elicitation research involving children highlights the lack of control

the researcher has over the children. Some may take photos that are inappropriate, whilst others may lack the skills required, and fail to produce any pictures at all. They also may capture images that are irrelevant to the question of interest. Given my research questions focus on the phenomenon of staying behind, it may be beyond the child photographer to identify images that can adequately portray how they experience being separated from the globally mobile parent. The risk in my study was that I presented the children with images of yachts that they did not recognise, or I failed to include a yacht that they associated with particular emotions or experiences. When I approached the mothers at the beginning of the photo search, I asked them to name the yachts they felt their children most identified with the sailor's travel. Whilst this required me to rely on parental report, this approach I felt provided the best chance of introducing the most relevant images. One final point with regard to the selection of images relates to the ethical obligation to protect the emotional welfare of the participating children. Given that innocuous images may stimulate or evoke "distorted, unexpected and even painful memories" (Prosser, 2011, p. 484), I confirmed with the mothers that there was no reason why either of the yachts they had identified should not be included.

Photo elicitation may not be the panacea to all the challenges associated with giving children a voice within research (D. Harper, 2002; Packard, 2008). However, I found it to be effective in starting the conversation between myself and the child participants, whilst also eliciting surprising and perceptive accounts. While I concur with Pauwel that "not all material will have the same 'elicitation' potential for all respondents" (2015, p. 99), by tailoring the photos to each individual family, I believe I maximised the benefits to be gained from using photographs to compliment and extend the traditional interview. Moreover, the collaboration that the photos inspired in the

children as they discussed what the photos meant to each of them (D. Harper, 2002) resonates with my overarching social constructionist philosophical perspective.

Information Gathering and Interview Closure

As previously discussed, the children's interviews followed three distinct phases – establishing rapport, information gathering and closure (Saywitz & Camparo, 2013). There are a number of strategies that I adopted throughout the process that warrant additional explication.

In recognition that rapport is a social process that develops over the course of the interview (Saywitz & Camparo, 2013), I held the more emotionally sensitive questions, such as such as “Is there anything you don't like so much about Dad travelling for work?” until near the completion of the interviews. Whilst there was a risk that the mother's presence would influence the children's responses to this type of question (Mayall, 2008), to not ask the question would be to take away the child's voice (Morrow & Richards, 1996). I found that by waiting until solid rapport had been established, the children appeared willing to answer the more delicate questions.

The timing of the interviews also proved to be a significant factor. As previously discussed, whenever possible I arranged to interview the partners during the day when their children were at school to limit interruptions and to prevent the participant children from hearing their mother's responses (Bushin, 2007). Furthermore, I also always scheduled the partner's interview first. This engendered a number of benefits. It contributed to the establishment of rapport if I was able to reiterate a story the partner had described, especially if it involved a humorous incident. Logistical information gleaned during the interview with the partner allowed me to introduce the current or most recent trips the sailor had been on as a way of prompting the more reticent

participants. Finally, given the potential for inconsistencies between parental reports and the children's accounts, when the partners' interviews had highlighted specific incidences as exemplars of how the children experienced staying behind, I would endeavour to incorporate these into the children's interviews. This added a depth to the data that would not have been possible had I exclusively relied on parental reporting. Consistent with the three phase approach, at the end of each interview, I summarised what I felt were the key points the children had raised. As a final point I asked if there was anything else they wished to discuss so as to provide them with a sense of closure to the process (Saywitz & Camparo, 2013).

Interviewing children requires the adult researcher to consider a number of ethical, methodological, and practical challenges. However, when an informed reflexive approach is taken to collaborate with the child participants, these experts on their own lives provide us with rich and in-depth data that would be lost had they not been given their own voice. The steps taken to analyse this wealth of data, so as to make a contribution to knowledge, are detailed in the following section.

3.5 Data Analysis

The approach taken to data analysis is nestled within an overarching abductive strategy, utilising thematic analysis to get from the "everyday concepts and meanings ...about which social actors can give account" to a description of the shared experiences "which can be understood in terms of existing social theories or perspectives" (Blaikie, 2007, p. 90). The data analysis process fundamentally followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) prescribed six phases of thematic analysis, and included a second phase of data collection for the purpose of enhancing the trustworthiness of the data (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). The abductive thematic analysis culminated in the development of a framework of the work-family interface, as experienced through the lens of

contemporary global mobility, which is presented in Chapter 6. The following section contains an overview of both abductive reasoning and thematic analysis, before providing a detailed explication of the data analysis process.

3.5.1 Abductive Reasoning – An Overview

Abduction endeavours to construct theory through the cyclical and systematic analysis of qualitative data against a “background of multiple existing sociological theories” (Timmermans & Tavory, 2012, p. 169). Blaikie (2007) describes this as “the process of moving from the lay descriptions of social life to technical descriptions of that life” (p.91) with the ‘technical descriptions’ adopting the language of the theoretical lenses that inform the analysis. Abductive reasoning provides an alternative to deductive and inductive approaches. Deduction requires a singularly applicable theoretical basis for empirical research that, given the multidisciplinary and emerging nature of my study, was not considered suitable. Alternatively, induction entails a logical progression from data to theory that disavows the researcher’s familiarity with, and the contribution of, existing frameworks. Given the potential theoretical foundations identified in Chapter 2, inductive analysis was also deemed inappropriate (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016; Timmermans & Tavory, 2012). I therefore chose an abductive approach to data analysis. I engaged in cycles of reasoning where I moved backward-and-forward between the data and a fairly broad theoretical field of pre-existing frames. As a “theoretically sensitized observer” (Timmermans & Tavory, 2012, p. 173), I believe I was able to recognise the potential relevance of data and how it could contribute to the development of a new theoretical frame for the work-family interface under contemporary global mobility. Part of this process included the identification of themes.

3.5.2 Thematic Analysis – An Overview

Themes are descriptions of repeating ideas (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003) that capture “something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). Thematic analysis provides a flexible tool with the potential to produce a rich account of the data. Studies within the three literature streams identified as germane to the current context have each adopted thematic analysis. Exemplars of these include Nicholas and McDowall’s (2012) global mobility study of business travellers, Starr and Currie’s (2009) research into the work-family nexus during short-term international assignments, and Herman’s (2015) paper on female careers. Thematic analysis has also been the chosen method when research has included children, including military children who have experienced staying behind (Baptist et al., 2015). The flexibility of thematic analysis supports many approaches to reasoning, including the adopted abductive approach, whilst facilitating a social constructionist stance (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Creswell, 2013).

Nevertheless, the assortments of potential definitions, and the proffered array of thematic data analysis methods, are problematic. Themes have periodically been referred to as analytic patterns, groupings, or abstract constructs. The focus has been placed on repeated words, phrases, or rafts of intact accounts. The labels given to themes have been derived from either the lay language of the participants, or the relevant literature and theory (Grbich, 2013). To address the potential ambiguities inherent in adopting a thematic approach, a detailed description of the method is required. Labelling my research as abductive reasoning that incorporates thematic analysis, does not in itself provide the required level of explication of the research process so as to render my research trustworthy (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004), nor

provide adequate justification for my methodological choices (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016). The remainder of this section on data analysis provides a detailed explanation of how my research proceeded with the aim of clarifying my choices and engendering quality research.

3.5.3 The Six Phases of Data Analysis

The processes I undertook to analyse my data broadly adhered to the basic precepts of thematic analysis as prescribed by Braun and Clarke (2006). Consistent with the overarching abductive approach, a priori codes were established, drawing primarily on the Job Demand Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983). Simultaneous transcription and coding of each interview was undertaken on a timely basis with an in-depth review of the codes completed after the first five interviews. At the completion of the initial cycle of analysis, I searched for themes, and then proceeded to review the analysis, until I was comfortable that not only each theme was supported by the data, but also that all data had been encapsulated within a theme. I then conducted the second-phase of interviews to provide not only a more in-depth understanding (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008) but to enhance the trustworthiness of my analysis (Miles et al., 2014). The following is a detailed description of the data analysis process undertaken. Notwithstanding that abductive reasoning is a recursive process where there is movement back and forth between analytical phases, to document the process in a manner that is logical, I have presented each of the stages in a more linear manner, in the order they were first employed, with supplementary detail provided when there was a significant reiteration of a particular phase. The qualitative data analysis program NVivo was employed throughout each of the six phases of data analysis. My adoption of NVivo, and an overview of how I

utilised its functionality to enhance the analytic process, will be considered prior to detailing each of the data analysis phases.

3.5.3.1 Utilising NVivo

Whilst acknowledging that “computers cannot replace the contextual processes required of the researcher” (Fossey, Harvey, McDermott, & Davidson, 2002, p. 729), programmes such as NVivo can be an invaluable tool for the qualitative scholar. NVivo facilitated my management, and analysis, of the hours of interview transcript, whilst the query functionality proved instrumental in the identification of themes (Grbich, 2013). The six hour training webinar I completed prior to commencing the transcription and the analysis of my interviews ensured the efficiencies gained from the tool were maximised. Given my abductive approach, it was arguably the theoretical sensitivity provided by NVivo (Grbich, 2013) that proved the most valuable. By uploading and coding the relevant extant literature in NVivo prior to commencing analysis, I was able to engage in a constant comparative process, viewing the interview data through the existing theoretical lenses.

On-screen analysis facilitated by computers has the potential to eliminate the paper doodles and fleeting notes that can prove the precursor to researcher insight (Vander Putten & Nolen, 2010). My decision to simultaneously transcribe and code, as will be discussed shortly, combined with the use of the annotation tool within NVivo, I believe successfully negated this risk. At the completion of the initial round of data analysis, I had recorded 743 annotations, which represented the computerised version of the handwritten fleeting note. Given the capacity to code my deliberations to both the text that had prompted the particular thought process, and the relevant empirical or theoretical background, NVivo actually facilitated rather than impeded many of my researcher insights. The categories, or using the NVivo terminology, the ‘nodes’ that

the annotations were coded to, were based on the a priori coding schema developed during the first phase of data analysis.

3.5.3.2 Generate Initial Codes

Braun and Clarke (2006) prescribe six phases of data analysis whilst allowing for both flexibility and reiteration. Therefore, given my abductive approach to thematic analysis, my first step was to generate the a priori coding schema. Abductive reasoning requires the researcher to abstract concepts that describe the social actors' understanding of their world (Blaikie, 2007) which, in the first instance, may be “based on the conceptual framework, list of research questions...and key variables that the researcher brings to the study” (Miles et al., 2014, p. 81). The a priori coding schema for my study had its genesis in both Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) Job Demands-Resources Model and Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983). Supplementary nodes, reflecting both the extant contemporary global mobility literature, and the researcher's previous study into maternal careers, were also included in the initial schema. The next step was for me to familiarise myself with the interview data.

3.5.3.3 Familiarising Yourself with Data

Transcription, focused reading and re-reading of data, and supplementary note taking, combine to familiarise the researcher with their data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Transcription as a process is “selective, interpretive, and representational” (Davidson, 2009, p. 37) and the choice to transcribe and code simultaneously was grounded in my social constructionist perspective. Just as “a smile can be interpreted as wry or loving” (Schwandt, 2000, p. 191), the nuances of language and tone, the silences, and the laughter can influence the meaning attached to words. Following Graneheim and

Lundman (2004), I believe the act of simultaneous transcription and coding strengthened my interpretation of the aural data.

For me, the reading and re-reading of data and supplementary note taking (Braun & Clarke, 2006) included a stepwise process whereby I looked at the individual interviews before considering the family as a whole (Mason & Tipper, 2013; Zartler, 2010). The 'Family Summary Worksheet' I developed (Refer Appendix B) served multiple purposes, including data familiarisation. The first draft of the worksheet was prepared immediately after the interviews, often hand-written immediately after the interview, to ensure the timely recording of my post-interview reflections that would later contribute to the analytical process. This process was recommended by Brinkmann and Kvale (2015). The worksheet was subsequently incorporated as a memo in NVivo where I updated the document to reflect where there was dissonance between the family members, and also where they concurred. Throughout the process, whilst "tempting for researchers to presume the adult view is more reliable" (Mason & Tipper, 2013, p. 159), the test was to identify where the accounts agreed and where there was dissention, and not to occlude the contributions of the children participants. The 'Family Summary Worksheet' not only contributed to the familiarisation process but also by focusing on the 'contribution' each family was making facilitated my recognition of when saturation had been reached (refer Section 3.3.3). As the process of familiarising myself with my data progressed, the need for the development of a posteriori codes emerged.

3.5.3.4 Iterative Development and Refinement of Codes

Consistent with the iterative flexibility of Braun and Clarke's (2007) guidelines, a major review of the coding schema was undertaken after five families had been interviewed, transcribed and coded. Whilst the original a priori nodes proved a reasonably comprehensive starting point, as transcription and coding advanced, the need for

additional nodes became increasingly apparent. There were four primary sources of additional nodes; some were simply suggested by the data, others surfaced as I viewed the data through the potential theoretical frames, whilst input provided during academic colloquia provided an alternative perspective from which additional categories evolved. Finally, a number of nodes, even after only five families, were becoming cumbersome to manage and additional sub-nodes were developed. At the completion of the review of the coding schema, a number of redundant nodes were also removed. Examples of each of refinement are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Exemplars of the Iterative Development and Refinement of Nodes

Source	Example Node	Description
Data Driven	Partner Communication	Early indications were that there may be an issue around the partner focusing on ensuring the children could communicate with the globally mobile parent, but not prioritising being able to have a private conversation between themselves. An additional category was therefore warranted.
Abductive Review	Frequency of Communication	During the transcription of one of the first five families, I came to see them as a family that was well-adjusted to living with a globally mobile parent. What appeared to be contributing to this family’s ability to remain in balance was the frequency of their communication during the separations. Nodes already existed for families who were reticent or too busy to communicate, but not for those families who communicated regularly. Communication is considered a facilitating dimension in Family Systems Theory. It was the viewing of the interview data through that particular theoretical frame that triggered the insight regarding the potential significance of the frequency of communication, necessitating the additional category.
Peer Perspective	Additional Demographics	During a progress presentation to colleagues from the Massey University School of Management, I was questioned whether the partners’ held a priori expectations regarding their partner’s potential global mobility. The proposition being that expectancies could impact attitudes and consequently coping. I therefore added additional demographic nodes to reflect whether the sailor was a ‘Full-Time Professional’, ‘Part-Time Professional’ or only competing in amateur events when they met. This was to provide context to subsequent analysis.
Sub-Nodes	Role Overload – Domestic Domain: Parenting Alone Nodes	Parenting Alone was initially a single node. Even after only five families, it became apparent that this was going to be a significant issue and required an additional level of detail. Subsequently, the sub-nodes of Parenting Alone – Discipline, Parenting Alone – Emotional Care and Parenting Alone – S-BP (Stay-Behind Partner) Behaviour Changes, were added to the schema.
Redundancy	Role Overload – Domestic Domain: Decision-Making	Subsequent to the creation of Partner Communication as a new node I utilised the NVivo ‘word query’ functionality to search the transcriptions for the words ‘talk’ and ‘communicate’. During the re-analysis of the transcripts, I came to the realisation that whilst I originally had included ‘decision-making’ as a non-work demand placed on the partner, what I really was identifying were various configurations of partner communication. I therefore reviewed the coding and eliminated the code for Role Overload – Domestic Domain: Decision-Making

NVivo effectively supported the major refinement of the coding schema, as well as facilitating my re-analysis of the five families that had already been coded. The nodes remained fundamentally the same for the remainder of the analysis. Once each of the families interviews had been transcribed, and then along with their 'Family Summary Worksheets, coded, I began the process of searching for themes.

3.5.3.5 Searching for themes

The fourth phase of thematic data analysis prescribes researchers to collate their codes into potential themes based on the data that has been coded to each category (Braun & Clarke, 2006). At the completion of the initial cycle of analysis, I revisited the Family Summary Worksheets with a particular focus on the 'contribution' each family had made. I also read through the (743) NVivo annotations I had made to record the ideas, hunches, insights, and questions that emerged throughout the transcribing and coding. These exercises began the process of distilling down nodes into potential themes. Further to this, and consistent with my abductive approach to reasoning, I followed the suggestion of Huberman and Miles (2002) and derived some initial themes from the various extant literature streams.

3.5.3.6 Reviewing themes

Braun and Clarke (2007) recommend a review of the themes in terms of the individual coded extracts, and at an overview level, with the aim to ensure the internal homogeneity of the data within the themes, and the clear distinction between externally heterogenic themes. My 'thematic map' took the form of two spreadsheets, one supporting each of the research foci. The individual coding to each node was reviewed and the node placed under the relevant themes. This process allowed me to ensure that the themes were supported by the data, and conversely that each node had been applied

to a theme, ensuring completeness. It also provided an overarching viewpoint of the distinction between each of the themes. It was during this process that the pervasive impact of the family's cohesion, adaptability and communication practices across each of the themes became apparent. This insight into how Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983) could contribute to our understanding of how families adjust to contemporary global mobility, was a fundamental step in the conception of the theoretical framework presented in Chapter 6.

Producing the thematic spreadsheets also functioned to address the suggested fifth analytical process of defining and naming each theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006). It was at this point that the second-phase interviews were undertaken. Triangulation was always anticipated as a way to increase trustworthiness (Miles et al., 2014). Having identified the themes that were prevalent for the partners of international sailors, I had the foundation for the second round of interviews.

3.5.3.7 Second Phase Interviews and Data Analysis

The second phase of interviews were conducted “to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p. 8) with corroboration between different data sources enhancing the trustworthiness of my analysis (Miles et al., 2014).

Furthermore, the inclusion of those whose experience of contemporary global mobility was grounded in alternative contexts was expected to add a richness to the analysis (Blaikie, 2007). The following section primarily follows the structure of the description of the initial process by discussing the participants, the data collection techniques, and the data analysis.

The overarching criterion for inclusion remained unchanged for the second phase participants, as the reasoning behind the requirement for one of the partners to hold a

New Zealand passport remained relevant (Refer to Section 3.3.1). Moreover, the intention to maximise the heterogeneity of the participants, particularly in relation to the form of global mobility their partners engaged in, remained unchanged. The point of difference, the new perspective, was derived from the global mobility taking place outside the profession of international sailing.

The participants for the second phase of interviews were a purposive convenience sample. I contacted my extended social network and asked if they knew of families with school age children who had a parent who engaged in contemporary global mobility. My request was passed onto those who fitted the criterion for inclusion, and when they indicated an interest in participating, I formally approached them. Consistent with the pervasive nature of the phenomenon (Brookfield, 2014), I received a significant number of offers to participate, therefore I was able to purposively approach those who offered heterogeneity in terms of either the type of contemporary global mobility their partner participated in or their own careers. Table 5 presents the relevant demographic data of the final five participants in the second phase of interviews.

Table 5: Second Phase Participants Demographic Data

Partner	Age	Passport Nationality	Traveller's Industry	# of Children	Children's Ages	Current Employment
Jasmine	40-49	New Zealand	Pilot - Commuter	2	5,8	Permanent Role - Full Time
Linda	30-39	New Zealand	International Sales - FIBT	2	7,5	Stay-At-Home Mother
Lesley	40-49	New Zealand	Aviation Admin – FIBT	3	15,13,10	Contractor – Part Time
Roseanne	40-49	France	Resource Sector– Commuter	2	7,5	Entrepreneur
Catherine	30-39	New Zealand	Sports Coach – STA	2	11,13	Permanent Role - Part Time

The interview guide for the second phase interviews took the form of a PowerPoint presentation of key quotes representing each of the main themes I wished to discuss. Where there were differing perspectives around the same theme, I provided quotes that represented each standpoint and asked which, if either, resonated with the participants.

The data analysis of the second phase interviews fundamentally adhered to the processes previously described. I simultaneously transcribed and coded each interview as recommended by Graneheim and Lundman (2004) for a social constructionist philosophical position. There was however a change in the format, as I transcribed all the interviews into a single document that was sorted by theme. This served two purposes. It highlighted when saturation had been reached, which was at the point where it became apparent each of the themes identified by the sailing fraternity resonated with the second phase participants. No further richness was being added to my understanding of the themes, and I judged any additional interviews would be redundant (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Hyde, 2003; O'Reilly & Parker, 2012). The second reason for using a single document related to the nuances of NVivo. I need all the second phase data in a single document so it counts as a single 'source' and could be easily identified and extracted. To conclude the data analysis I moved from themes to theorising.

3.5.3.8 Producing the Report

The final phase of thematic data analysis as prescribed by Braun and Clarke (2007) requires the researcher to relate their findings to existing knowledge and to their research questions. This scholarly report aims to give voice to the participants by providing rich descriptions of how they experience contemporary global mobility, as viewed through the theoretical frames of Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983) and the Job Demands-Resources Model

(Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The theoretical framework presented in Chapter 6 is the culmination of the six phases of thematic data analysis.

The report, my thesis, inevitably percolates my personal history with the participants' voices, requiring reflexive examination on my part, and clear disclosure to the reader of this researcher-researched identification (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; O'Leary, 2010). The following section addresses this issue.

3.6 Researcher Reflexivity

It may be inevitable that we choose to research subjects we are emotionally attached to, as it is this emotion that energises us to action (Elmhirst, 2012). What is important is to be reflexive in our understanding of the impact the nature of the relationship between the researcher and the object of the research has upon the research process, and that “all knowledge is ...a product of its own conditions of production” (Gray, 2008, p. 949). Reflection, in the language of social science, is no different from what we understand reflection to be in everyday life. It is the “careful reconsideration of knowledge: how it is produced, described and justified” (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016). Bourdieu (1990) clarified the approach required to separate the researcher from research process in his seminal discourse arguing the need for ‘two steps back’; the first step facilitates an overview of the situation, the second provides the researcher space to reflect on how they are influencing the process. Whilst this was my approach throughout, given my social constructionist persuasion, I also understand that my personal biography inevitably influenced how the participants and I constructed our shared understanding (Creswell, 2013). Furthermore, I believe that overall, the benefits afforded to me as a cultural insider, in terms rapport, and in terms of access to the children, outweighed the potential limitations.

As the wife of a professional sailor over the last 12 years I have alternated between temporary international relocations with our children, to staying behind while my partner engaged in various forms of contemporary global mobility. My status as a cultural insider (Ganga & Scott, 2006) I believe, as per Hatfield (2010), positively enhanced my rapport with the participants. Exemplar of this was when certain interviewees appeared reticent to share the more intimate details of their experiences of staying behind, perhaps fearing judgement. When I offered vignettes from my own life, to illustrate empathy and encourage rapport, they became significantly more effusive and willing to discuss not only the positives, but also the potential negatives. This was consistent with the approach taken in a recent study into divorce within the traditional expatriate community (McNulty, Selmer, & Shaffer, 2015). However, my affinity with the participants did generate its own challenges. As Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) state, with reference to their peers Rubin and Rubin (2005), when researchers identify too closely with their participants, they may be too empathetic and there is a risk they will limit their follow-up queries to those that will favourably depict interviewees. Furthermore, it should be noted that the relationship children have with the researcher may influence their responses (Mauthner et al., 2000). While I had met some of the participant children before, albeit fleetingly, some I had never met before. The participant children were therefore not a homogenous group and this was taken into account throughout the research process.

As Mortari (2015) points out, the quality of research arguably reflects my understanding of how my personal biography affects the knowledge I produce. Awareness is a precursor to reflective consideration, and my status as a cultural insider of the international yachting fraternity remained at the forefront of my mind throughout my study. An alternative, complimentary, perspective on research quality is found in the following critical evaluation of how I conducted my research.

3.7 Critical Evaluation

Irrespective of paradigmatic positioning, for research to be trustworthy, the issues of subjectivity and interpretation require attention (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). Rigorous standards need to be met; however, what those standards are is contingent on the overarching paradigm. While debates regarding the evaluation of qualitative research are oft-centred on a failure to comply with the positivist criterion of validity and reliability, these standards fail to adequately represent the determinants of excellent qualitative research (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2016; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). The current study does not seek a single account of social reality within a positivistic paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 1994), but a socially constructed “authentic truth that may sit alongside other interpretations” (O’Leary, 2010, p. 35).

Guba and Lincoln’s (1994) seminal discourse on the criterion for assessing qualitative research identifies authenticity and trustworthiness as key in the production of knowledge that is worthy of an audience’s attention. Whilst authenticity harks back to the previously discussed researcher reflexivity, trustworthiness is deemed to be comprised of four criterion with parallels in the quantitative tradition. Research that is credible, transferrable, dependable and able to be confirmed, is deemed to be trustworthy. The following section provides the detail of how I ensured each of these requirements had been addressed.

When the data and analysis attend to the research questions we are asking, this produces research that is deemed credible. Guba and Lincoln (1994) prescribe ‘member checking’ or triangulation as tools for achieving credibility. Whilst I offered each of the partner participants the opportunity to review the interview transcripts, they universally declined. However, the second phase of interviews from outside the yachting fraternity was an exercise in data triangulation. Graneheim and Lundman (2004) provide additional detailed guidelines for attaining credibility. Heterogeneity of participants is suggested to provide a richer

contribution to our understanding of the phenomenon being studied. My sample, whilst snowballed, was also purposive, ensuring I included participants of various ages, family demographics, careers, and who had experiences from across the continuum of contemporary global mobility. Dialogue with expert researchers is advocated to provide confirmation of how data has been sorted and labelled. My a priori coding schema was discussed with my academic supervisors and, as previously stated, questions raised during a university colloquium resulted in additional codes being added. Finally Graneheim and Lundman (2004) suggest data credibility may be provided through the presentation of verbatim quotations, so the reader can judge the similarities and differences between categories and themes. Representative quotes are peppered throughout my finding and discussion chapters, supporting my analytical assertions. Reflexivity to ensure I did not select only those quotes that would serve to “amplify or reinforce the researcher’s preconceived ideas or assumption” (Alvesson, 1997, p. 468) was constant throughout the process.

Comprehensive documentation of both research context and methodology provides the reader with the knowledge required to assess whether my findings may be transferable to their situation (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). By offering clear descriptions of who the participants were, the sampling process, and how data was collected and analysed, readers of my thesis are able to audit the study themselves. The rich and transparent presentation of my findings, incorporating any appropriate quotations, as suggested Graneheim and Lundman (2004) further enhances transferability. Nonetheless, even when comprehensive explication is provided, transferability between inherently contextual qualitative settings should be approached with caution.

The dependability of data as it is collected over time can be an issue, as inconsistencies may appear when the focus of the research evolves so as to reflect any emerging themes (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Achieving a balance between consistent data collection,

while still allowing the interview guide to evolve to explore developing themes, was a challenge that I remained cognisant of throughout the research process. Peer auditing, while having the potential to measure dependability (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) is perceived too demanding a process, attempted by few (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Adopting multiple approaches to data analysis, both computerised and manual, is another proposed pathway to dependability (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). By combining NVivo, which in itself facilitated consistent systematic analysis, with various analytical tools developed outside NVivo (for example the previously discussed Family Summary Worksheet and Thematic Map) engendered dependability in my research.

The final standard required is that of confirmability (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Analogous to Auerbach and Silverstein's (2003) criterion of communicability, where the assertion is that "if you can describe to someone a construct and they understand it, then it is communicable" (p.85), my second phase of interviews, alongside the presentation of interim findings at various academic colloquium, provided confirmation of my findings. Researcher reflexivity, when combined with critical evaluation of the research process, facilitates the production of authentic and trustworthy knowledge. However, research is not conducted in isolation, and as a researcher I have a responsibility to ensure "the rights and well-being of those involved with... (my)... study are protected at all times" (O'Leary, 2010, p. 40). The final section of this methodological chapter considers how I addressed my ethical responsibilities to my participants.

3.8 Ethics

The fundamental ethical paradox experienced as researchers is found in the desire to probe beyond the surface and provide participants with a rich voice, and yet maintain a level of respect that does not trespass upon their rights (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). My research is

bound by the institutional requirements presented in the Massey University Code of Ethical Conduct for Research, Teaching and Evaluations involving Human Participants². A full application is required when research participants include those under the age of 15.

Children, as already discussed, whilst giving rise to fundamentally the same ethical issues as adult participants, warrant particular attention due to the potential severity of the impact of ethically negligent research (Soffer & Ben-Arieh, 2013). The way I addressed the ethical specifics of interviewing children has already been detailed in Section 3.4.2.2. The requirements for conducting ethical research do not stop at the attainment of institutional approval but require ongoing consideration throughout the process.

Informed consent by participants requires a full understanding of the type of research that they are agreeing to, and the topics that will be covered. Consent must also be voluntary with participants having the right to discontinue at any point throughout the process (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). I emailed potential participants detailed information sheets for their consideration, prior to confirming a time to interview them. I then read through the information sheet prior to commencing interviewing (The adult and children information sheets are attached in Appendix D and Appendix F respectively). Only at that point was formal (written) consent obtained from the participants. When snowballing for participants, I requested the person who was suggesting the potential family contact them first to ensure they were happy to receive my invitational email. This was to limit any perceived coercion inherent in being contacted directly by an institutionally-backed researcher. In line with Massey's ethical requirements, the data management process was outlined in the information sheet, and data will be destroyed after five years. Finally, full demographic data has been excluded so as not to breach the participants' right to confidentiality. Ethics require that the

² The full text of the code is available online at <http://www.massey.ac.nz/massey/fms/Human%20Ethics/Documents/MUHEC%20Code%202015.pdf?497309B983F78ECC2490A4A377F5CBAD>

potential benefits of any research outweigh the risk of harm (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015).

The practices I have adopted throughout my study strove to ensure that for my participants, both adult and child, this was the outcome.

This chapter explains the paradigm guiding my research into the impact of contemporary global mobility on the family who stays behind. It has discusses my ontological and epistemological beliefs, and provides a detailed explication of the methodology adopted. It endeavours to afford the reader the information required to deliver a reassurance that the knowledge produced is both authentic and trustworthy. The subsequent chapters of my thesis present the reader with that knowledge, culminating in the presentation of my theoretical framework in Chapter 6.

Chapter 4 Findings and Discussion – Non Work Findings

This chapter is the first of two chapters that discuss the key findings of this study. Each of the chapters focuses on one of the research questions, with this particular chapter discussing the impact of contemporary global mobility on the home life of the families who stay behind.

The chapter tells an integrated thematic story, combining the voices of the partners and the children who stay behind, as well as the second phase interviewees from the greater global mobility community. This approach was taken to ensure that comprehensive overviews of all issues from multiple perspectives were presented together. Six themes emerged from the semi-structured interviews and each theme is presented here through a combination of verbatim participant comments and tables, followed by descriptive and analytical discussion. Merging the participants' rich descriptions of how they experience contemporary global mobility serves to highlight where they are in agreement, and also where they diverge. Each theme is at first described in the participants' words, allowing their voices to narrate the theme, followed by a critical analysis of these findings against the extant literature, thus identifying the empirical contributions of the research. The themes represent the impact on the families, from the perspective of the families, spanning the relevant modes of contemporary global mobility.

4.1 Recognised Positive Factors

The first theme to be discussed is the perceived positive factors recognised by those whose lives incorporate contemporary global mobility.

4.1.1 Stability

The opportunity to engender stability in the lives of their children was identified by over half of the partners as a fundamental positive outcome of staying behind. Consistency in their children's education was their primary focus, with the desire for stability particularly pertinent for those with children of high school age:

And then the next time in 2008 we decided, yes, because of their schooling we would only do a few trips... they were 15, 14 and 10... and she [our eldest daughter] was doing her NCEA [school exams]. (Kate)

We did discuss it but I guess my concern was the kid's schooling and their friends, and their sports... I would maybe take Craig and Fletcher out, being intermediate and primary, but not Leo out of high school. (Michelle)

However, the importance of continuity around schooling also resonated for some of the participants with younger children. Belinda, whose son is only 7, was delighted that he had been able to complete his first few years of schooling in their American home town:

All I wanted for Owen was to finish one school. You know, and he's about to do it. With the way that they work the schools here, the first one is from kindergarten to year three, so he gets to be top dog, for the first time ever. And know what it's like to be all the way through this school. And it thrills me, it thrills me. (Belinda)

As alluded to by Belinda when she refers to her son getting to be "top dog", staying at one school is not only about a consistent learning environment, but also about socialisation. The opportunity for their children to establish their own circle of friends was also seen as a key positive manifestation of stability:

I think there's just such value for them in being at home, and settled, and having friends, a life back here. (Stella)

As the kids are getting older, it takes a longer time to establish friends and a life somewhere else, we wouldn't move to anywhere for less than a year, unless the place is very familiar, as in New Zealand or San Francisco. It has to be a good adventure for all of us! (Stacey)

The attraction of stability may also be grounded in their observations of other families from within the yachting fraternity, and the impact they perceive recidivistic relocation has had on other children:

You know I think about our friend's oldest son. He always had one foot out the door. Their oldest son who is 10, one foot out the door. He's like "I don't have to fit because we are most probably leaving here", "I don't have to engage; we are most probably leaving here", "I don't have to make friends; we're probably leaving here" And I see that and I don't want that for my kids. It's hard. (Belinda)

I just didn't want our kids to be like a lot of America's Cup kids who don't know where they're from...they've lived in Switzerland, and then they've gone to San Francisco, and they don't have any home. When you ask the kids where are you from they are like "Oh, I was born here, and then we lived...I don't know where home is". (Kris)

A final positive aspect identified, while not specifically related to stability, is related to staying in one place, and is the potential for children to establish relationships with their extended family:

But that was the reason we came to Calgary, I had support and family here. And I wanted the kids to know the extended family. (Dee)

It's because my parents are getting older. I'm very close to my parents, particularly my father; I want my kids to know them. And I think there are things about living there that would be easier than living anywhere else. (Belinda)

4.1.2 Responsibility and Dependability

Another primary outcome identified by the interviewees was the positive growth in their children who exhibited increasingly responsible and dependable behaviour:

Molly has started dressing her 2-year-old brother in his pyjamas and nappy at bed time, and she'll come out now and put his milk in a bottle and really loves it.

(Elizabeth)

This was corroborated by her daughter:

Every night I dress Tony. (Molly, 7)

Elizabeth confirmed that while Molly now helps her youngest brother every night, "it absolutely started when [the traveller] was away."

It is not only the children who experience positive growth in their ability to competently assume additional responsibilities, but also the partners who stay behind:

Definitely being married to a sailor strengthened my ability to 'do it all' as the lifestyle gave you no choice really. (Dee)

Whether this ability to manage was essentially temperamental was raised by an interviewee:

Is it a certain personality type that facilitates that kind of working life? I don't know, maybe. I'm not sure which comes first. (Stephanie)

Stephanie was not alone in questioning whether the partners who stay behind become more responsible and capable, or whether they have an inherent existing independence:

The Dads were achievers, they were at the top of their sport... The mothers were, I guess, married to achievers so they were a certain breed as well. (Anna)

4.1.3 Opportunities to Visit the Globally Mobile Parent

While stability, and increasingly responsible and flexible children, are important for the partners who stay behind, for their children it appears the main advantage lies in the opportunity to visit the traveller on location. Over two thirds of the children specifically identified visiting their globally mobile parent as the prime positive consequence:

I have friends who haven't even left the States, they have been there their entire lives and to think that I have been to these amazing places. I wouldn't give that up for anything. (Mabel, 16)

The best thing would definitely be the travelling... it's just a good experience for us all, seeing new places. (Leo, 16)

Leo's brother agreed that the opportunity to travel influenced their family decision-making around whether their father should continue accepting overseas contracts:

We usually want him to because we want to travel. (Fletcher, 10)

As well as the children, just under half of the partners also recognised the positive impact of being able to visit the traveller on location. Some articulated this in terms of the experience:

So, we've got great memories as a family that we still talk about, and laugh about, you know, to this day, of our travels, so that whole travelling thing. And I always think it's great. (Kate)

Other parents also understood the potential long-term benefits for their children:

She has experienced things from all around the world. She has eaten different food from all around the world. She's pretty adaptable and flexible, she's probably quite

open to other ideas and other kids from other cultures and she's made all sorts of friends all around the world. (Paulette)

You know when we just went to Sydney, it really was quite exciting ...and the kids had a great time, and they met new friends, and they love reacquainting with these friends that they've met. My feeling is that when they're all older, they've already established friends around the world they could possibly meet up with. (Mandy)

However, not all partners considered that the prospect of visiting the traveller on location was either viable or desirable. There were four main reasons given for why the opportunity to visit the traveller on location was not always perceived as a positive consequence of staying behind, the first and foremost being reticence to disrupt their children's education:

I feel like we can't use all the travel allowance we have...so if we feel like we need to go see [traveller] we can always go, we've always been welcome, but the problem is with the schools, you can't use it...you don't want to interrupt their education. (Carol)

And then the next time we decided, yes, because of their schooling we would only do a few trips. How it worked was, if the stopovers coincided with school holidays we went, and if they didn't, then we didn't go. (Kate)

A number of the children did recognise that their education warrants consideration when planning visits:

When you get older, school is more important, like you can't really miss out on things. (Laura, 12)

Yes, next time I will be at [High School] so that will make a difference. It would be quite difficult for us to travel, especially me and Leo because we would be missing [High School] and it's quite important. (Craig, 12)

A further factor that could influence the partners' inclination to visit the traveller during the school term is the attitude of the school the children are attending. Some schools are opposed to 'holidays' during term time, whereas others are more supportive providing the children with the resources to keep up with their classmates. This was highlighted by Swedish-born Gina, who had attended a number of schools during her seven years of formal education:

The one that was probably the most OK with me going away was the International one in Stockholm... lots of kids travelled, because their parents were diplomats and in another country and they would go and visit. So people planned quite a lot ahead, so if you were travelling it would be OK. I usually got this big thick bunch of papers, put together. (Gina, 12)

The second reason that the partners appear reluctant to visit the traveller on location transpires from the situations they encounter when they get there:

And he's working almost every day. So he's out on the water, you know, he's down at the yacht club at 8 in the morning and sometimes comes back after 6 at night. So there is no point in us going. Just hanging out in some small yacht club in possibly a small town. (Sharon)

I don't generally travel with him because you don't see them anyway. They're there for work, we are just a distraction. (Kayla)

The third factor appearing to influence whether the partners perceive the potential to visit as a positive consequence relates to their own career. Exemplar of this was Kayla's statement that the reason she and her child did not travel was because she had "gone back to work, so [we] generally stay here". How the career of the partner impacts the family's adjustment to contemporary global mobility will be examined in depth in Chapter 5.

Finally, for some families, it is the financial considerations that influence their predilection towards visiting the traveller:

So if we went up, it would be like pay for your own airfares, which might be OK because you get that on air-points, but then it would still be 3 weeks of accommodation plus all the extra kind of things. It would still be thousands and thousands of dollars. (Stella)

No! And it's too expensive to. It gobbles into the income. We will do a family trip at one stage. (Bree)

This final reason resonated with a number of the partners interviewed in the second phase of this research who also attributed their reluctance to visit the traveller to the associated expense:

Even with [airline] employee discounts, it's still a big expense. (Leah)

The lay-overs are too short and the cost too much. (Janine)

4.1.4 Time-off Spent Together

Although seemingly contradictory, the time families are able to spend together is one of the key positive consequences of contemporary global mobility. Over two thirds of the partners perceive family time spent with the traveller has been enhanced by global mobility; an assertion reiterated by over two thirds of the children. The different positive manifestations are a reflection of the form of global mobility being undertaken. For those engaged in FIBT or undertaking short-term assignments, where they retain domestic employment responsibilities, it would appear to be the quality of the time spent together that is the recognised positive consequence:

I think we definitely do different things, we make the most of his time when he is home... They just appreciate his time, if Dad's home this weekend, they know we are going to go boating, we eat out a bit more when he is home, that would normally be a good treat for me. (Elizabeth)

This is a sentiment echoed by her child:

Well when Dad is not away we normally go away on the boat on the weekends, and every Friday if Dad is here we have movie night. (Molly, 7)

For commuters, it is the scheduled days off between rosters that produce the perceived positive outcome, an advantage recognised by both the sailing partners and their children.

The following quotes are from one family, the first being from the partner's perspective:

Even though he's away, I'd have it no other way. Because...when most kids are like "Dad you're moody" or "you're never at home" or "you're never at sports", [but] when [the travellers] at home he just drops everything for the kids. So it's worked out well...it compensates. And it's really good quality time, rather than just quantity... I wouldn't have it any other way. When he's home, he's home, and he's a father and he's a husband. (Anna)

And then from the perspective of two of her daughters:

When he's here, he's always, he's always here. And he tries to spend as much time with us as he can. (Laura 12)

When he's home, he's like, home. He doesn't have to go to work every day. (Alice, 14)

The children's recognition of the value of compensatory time-off may be attributed to their parents planting a seed to this effect:

The way I explain it to them, when your Dad is home, he gets to take you to school, pick you up, go to your practices. And then I explain there are a lot of Dads out there who work a job that starts at seven and finishes at seven at night and they don't even get to see their kids do anything... I said 'so when he's home, you are so lucky', and they're like 'oh cool'. So that's what I kept saying. (Bree)

They will talk about that. I actually point that out to them. We have discussed it a lot. I say that the other children's fathers are home but they probably have to work until 7 o'clock at night, and your dad comes and picks you up every day when he's home. (Carol)

Recognition of the quality of family time during days off was not restricted to the yachting commuters, but was also highlighted by the pilot's wife who participated in the second phase of interviews:

Because he's not bringing work home, he is fully there for the girls when he is at home. (Jasmine – 2nd phase participant)

The difference in the quality of family time between a FIBT or someone who undertakes short-term assignments, and a commuter devoid of domestic work responsibilities, was highlighted by six-year-old Gloria. Her father had recently changed from primarily commuting to holding a domestic role that includes FIBT and Gloria appeared displeased with how this had effected the time she did get to spend with him:

Because in the weekends, he could do fun things with me but now in the weekends he was still on that computer typing. (Gloria, 6)

Throughout the course of her interview Gloria mentioned "that computer", which was sitting in the corner of the room we were in four times. Each time her tone indicated she was unhappy with "that computer" and how much of her father's time she perceives it takes up.

However, for some partners, there is a point where they feel the traveller wants to spend too much time with the family when they are home:

One of the things about when [the traveller] is at home is that we do everything as a family...but then my life only revolves around kids. I know perhaps I need to get myself a bit more of a life again. (Claire)

We went for a holiday, which I was a little bit like, I've just had the kids all school holidays and then [the traveller] comes home and 'let's go on holiday' and it's kind of like, well how about we just get the kids to school and I have a day off [laughter].

(Sam)

This desire for a balance between concentrated family time and some interaction with those outside the family was also present in second phase participants:

When the kids were a bit smaller, [the traveller] would come home and he would really want that family time, and I'd want to get out the door. I was like 'No!' And everything he did, he wanted organised for all of us to do, all the time. (Lesley – 2nd phase participant)

One reason offered for this focus on concentrated family time is that the traveller spends time socialising with colleagues whilst away and therefore has no need to seek company from outside the family unit when they are at home:

And I think, that's actually probably one of [the traveller's] biggest downfalls, he loves his mates, but at home he doesn't catch up with anyone....Because when he's away he gets to hang out with his mates. And this is the thing we continually have this angst over. (Claire)

The consequential social isolation experienced by the partner during the periods the traveller is home has the potential to have a negative impact when the traveller leaves again:

So when he's home, we're happy being just us, but then when he leaves all of a sudden I need that support network back. (Kerry)

Finally, it should be noted that whilst this section has considered the positive factors attributed to the traveller's compensatory time off, primarily in relation to the children, there are also positive effects that accrue when the time off is spent specifically supporting the spouse. However, this support largely allows them to 'catch up' from the *domestic demands* they deal with while the globally mobile is away or to 'catch up' on their career where they utilise *flexible working arrangements* so that they can timetable their work around the traveller's availability.

4.1.5 The Other Recognised Positive Factors

There are two final, somewhat contrasting, positive outcomes identified by the partners who stay behind. They are the intrinsic benefit of the generous financial packages available to the more experienced sailors, and the appreciation of a number of seemingly inconsequential subjective positive effects.

There are, for some, but not all, significant financial benefits from engaging in contemporary global mobility. For those who are the recipients of generous remuneration packages, this is appreciated:

The financial side, obviously. [We] get to live a pretty nice life style. (Paulette)

If he didn't do it anymore, there would be financial implications. Like we would have to change our lifestyle you know. (Stella)

However, as discussed previously, there are pay scales that apply depending on the experience of the sailor and their position on the yacht, and consequentially the financial benefits are not a universally positive outcome. An exemplar of this is one family where the sailor moved to full-time sailing after working in his chosen trade:

It was a slight increase in salary from [the trade], but the increase turned out to be not enough. Once you know how much work you are actually going to be doing [laughter]. (Stephanie)

Furthermore, others recognise that for those who engage in contract roles, there are financial risks that potentially offset the benefits:

I think you know it has been quite up and down, I think [the employment] has been quite unpredictable. Especially when the campaign's over and all of a sudden you might not have a job, or that same income. I think the income has been unpredictable too. It's been an interesting time, really. (Joss)

Whilst the lifestyle afforded by the traveller's mobility is appreciated, it appears to have neither a pervasive nor prominent positive impact.

The other positive effect, recognised by almost half the partners and a number of the second phase participants, emanates from factors that could be considered simply part of the mundane of the everyday:

I get to watch what I want in the evenings, I get to eat at 5 o'clock and if I want to be in my pyjamas at 7.30 and climbing into bed I can. I can read till midnight without having to turn the light off because I feel guilty. There are lots of small things which are just the good counter. No I wouldn't wish to do any of those full-time but they're all very acceptable and often quite small pleasures, knowing that in another week or 10 days I'm going to have him home. (Elizabeth)

I can totally do my own thing. There's no compromise. I can watch my own TV, you know, and I don't feel bad about just having my pyjamas on and not being productive. Dinners are easy, less washing; I can splat and not feel bad about it. But then towards

the end I'm like I actually would like to hang out with people now. (Linda – second phase participant)

As implied by both Elizabeth and Linda, the benefit of having one's own space and being able to set one's own timetable has a temporal component. Kate reinforced this when asked if she appreciated these particular positive outcomes:

Those periods of time where he travels to sail, not on a Volvo [ocean race] so much, but the two weeks away and then back again, are actually quite nice. I quite like those, and I sure I'm not alone [laughter]. (Kate)

4.1.6 Discussion

There are a number of positive consequences of contemporary global mobility recognised by those who stay behind. For the partners, a significant positive outcome is the stability attained by staying behind, in terms of their children's education and their socialisation. The belief that staying behind to facilitate their children's education is a worthy endeavour appears consistent with research grounded in traditional expatriation, where families attribute their choice not to relocate to apprehensions around schooling (Cho et al., 2013; Dupuis et al., 2008; Gupta et al., 2012). The importance of education for potential expatriate parents is also evident in recent survey data where concern for their children's education was a primary reason given for declining postings (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2016). Whilst choosing to stay behind to provide a stable schooling environment has not been specifically considered by contemporary mobility scholars, researchers have approached the question from the other direction, asking whether an education could be compromised by staying behind. The existing literature indicates that neither the potential stresses children may experience, nor the additional time-consuming responsibilities born by children, have an enduring impact on their educational attainment (Engel et al., 2010; Mmari et al., 2009).

These findings reinforce the partners of this study in their conviction that a positive outcome of staying behind is a stable education for their children.

The belief that a stable social environment is important for their children, and that staying behind allows their children to establish their own circle of friends, is consistent with the views of global managers whose choice of contemporary global mobility over traditional expatriation was in part driven by their concerns around their children's socialisation (Cappellen & Janssens, 2010b). The particular importance families from within the yachting fraternity place on socialisation may be a reflection of their observations of other yachting families, and how they perceive the recidivistic repatriations have affected other children. The concerns of the yachting partners are reminiscent of, and contribute to, the academic conversation around "Third Culture Kids". Children who experience multiple traditional expatriate relocations may be described as having benefitted from the experience in that they develop an increased acceptance of other cultures (Selmer & Lam, 2004; Tarique & Weisbord, 2013). Nonetheless, they can also be considered "cut ... off from their domestic peers" (Banai & Harry, 2004, p. 103). It is this potentially adverse effect that appears to be reinforcing the partners' belief that staying behind has a positive impact because of the social stability it creates for their children.

Staying behind can also mean the children are closer to their extended family. Choosing to settle in a particular location so that their children can form relationships with their extended family has not been previously been discussed in the context of contemporary global mobility. What has been identified, is that being close to extended family also provides families with a natural support system (Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012; Lirio et al., 2014; Nicholas & McDowall, 2012; Whalen & Schmidt, 2016) and that families may relocate during military deployments to access this support (Paley, Lester, & Mogil, 2013). The

importance of support from extended family will be discussed in detail in subsequent sections.

Alongside the benefits of stability, the partners recognise the increasingly responsible and dependable behaviour exhibited by their children, as a positive consequence of staying behind. This is consistent with the parental reporting of improved responsibility that permeates literature from across the continuum of global mobility (Andres & Moelker, 2011; Parkes et al., 2005; Stewart & Donald, 2006), as is the children's recognition of their own increasingly reliable behaviours (Knobloch et al., 2015; Lau et al., 2012; Mmari et al., 2009).

A capacity to competently assume additional responsibilities was also recognised by the partners in themselves. Some partners did question whether their coping capacity could be attributed to existing personality traits. This argument would seem to find some support in a study of Australian commuters who found those partners with independent and resilient personalities more able to deal with the separations (Torkington et al., 2011). However, identifying the predominant personality traits of the partners of international sailors is beyond the scope of the current study.

While stability and enhanced responsibility were important positive factors recognised by the partners, for a significant portion of the children, the primary positive benefit of their lifestyle was the potential to visit the traveller on location. It is noteworthy that the children who did not specifically recognise the travel as a positive consequence fell into one of two groups. They were either children who lived a significant distance from extended family, and as many trips incorporated visiting their extended family, they may not necessarily connect the travel to the global mobility. The others had mothers whose careers significantly restricted their opportunity to travel. This serves to highlight the salience of the opportunity to visit their parent to the children living with contemporary global mobility.

Identification of the value children place on visiting the traveller, and how this could be a resource utilised to facilitate their adjustment to staying behind, is a contribution of new contemporary global mobility knowledge. While the adolescent sons of men working in the Australian Fly-In-Fly-Out resource sector comment that they appreciate the international holidays afforded by the often generous remuneration commuting can attract (MacBeth et al., 2012), their appreciation is of international holidays and not of being able to visit the traveller on international location. A single study using focus groups of overseas-based construction teams identifies the potential benefit of families being able to visit when the labourers were too busy to return home (Chan et al., 2012). However, this finding was based on parental reports, and was around the expected benefits and not the actual experience of family visits. While the finding that children get excited over the opportunity to visit the traveller is new, it is not totally surprising. To date, the majority of research where children have been given a voice is grounded in either the resource sector or the military. Visiting an isolated mining community, an oil rig, or a military camp is inherently neither desirable nor practical, but the fact that children from the yachting fraternity regard the opportunity to visit the traveller on location as a significant positive consequence, has the potential to inform global travellers from other industries.

The partners who did recognise the opportunity to visit the traveller on location as a positive factor, spoke about it in terms of experiences to be enjoyed, and the conceivable long-term benefits. This potential for travel to help develop cultural competencies in children that will serve them in the future, has previously been theorised by Selmer and Lam (2004) during their study of recidivistic expatriation. However, the majority of partners did not recognise the potential travel as a practicable benefit, citing four main reasons why they were reticent to visit the traveller on location. The first of these was their reticence to disrupt their children's education, and given the previously discussed focus on educational stability, it would be

counterintuitive if those families were to then subsequently travel extensively during the school term. While the overarching importance of educational stability resonates with traditional expatriate literature (Cho et al., 2013; Dupuis et al., 2008; Gupta et al., 2012), there are no comparable findings that consider the relationship between the opportunity to travel and temporary absences from school. The identified parental reticence therefore contributes to knowledge in the contemporary global mobility and family research domains. A further nuance to the contribution is the identification that certain (private) schools may be more willing to accommodate travel during term time. Traditional expatriate packages often include a stipend to cover the accompanying children's attendance at private school whilst based overseas (Konopaske & Werner, 2005; Warneke & Schneider, 2011) and as identified by Gina, there is also the potential for private schools to make a difference for those who stay behind. Given that global mobility is now an integral aspect of many modern careers (Lirio et al., 2014; Shaffer et al., 2012; Welch et al., 2007), understanding how families are best able to take advantage of what their children perceive as the most significant positive factors when staying behind, is of both academic and practical value.

The second deterrent to visiting the traveller, as identified by the partners, was the limited time the traveller would have to spend with the family. Long hours are the norm for those on short-term assignment (Brewster et al., 2011), those who commute (Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010), those who are FIBTs (Mayerhofer et al., 2010), including it appears when the mobility is undertaken for the purpose of partaking in professional sailing events. The third deterrent is also career related but is in relation to the partner's career obligations and how these can limit the opportunity to travel. The bi-directional relationship between the partner's career and the traveller's contemporary global mobility is discussed in the following chapter.

The final reason given by the partners as to why they are reticent to visit the traveller on location is the financial outlay. Given that some organisations adopt contemporary forms of

global mobility to preclude the cost of family relocation (Tahvanainen et al., 2005; Vance & Paik, 2011; Welch et al., 2007), they may be disinclined to incur additional cost by paying for family visits.

Identifying the four factors - the educational concerns, the unavailability of the traveller, the partner's career commitments, and the finally the cost - contributes towards an enhanced understanding of why the partners who participated in this research are reticent to visit the traveller on location. Despite the partners' concerns, the children still consider the opportunity to visit the traveller on location the principal positive outcome of contemporary global mobility. Understanding this divergence highlights the importance of giving the children their own voice, and not relying on parental reports, as without their contribution, the significance of the travel may well have been lost. Identifying these divergent perspectives has the potential to empower families, and organisations, to maximise the positive outcomes.

The quality of the time spent with the traveller is an advantage acknowledged by both partners and children alike. The various nuances of how this is experienced are a reflection of the different forms of global mobility. Consistent with FIBTs who confirm "travel produced an 'intensification' of...family time" (Gustafson, 2014, p. 73), many of those living with sailing related FIBT describe the weekends and holidays they are able to spend with the traveller as both intensive and harmonious. For those commuting, the days off between regattas are appreciated, resonating with those from the extractive resource sector who appreciate the days off between rosters (MacBeth et al., 2012; Mauthner et al., 2000; Parkes et al., 2005). The participant children understand the duality of the situation, that their parent's periodic absences may be offset by the quantity and quality of time they spend together when the traveller is at home, and this is also a new finding in the global mobility context. The recognition of the value of the compensatory time-off by the children of the

yachting fraternity may be a reflection of a parent's evocation of the idea. This does not appear to have been previously considered in the literature surrounding other commuters. If the partner's prompting has contributed to the children's adjustment to the commuting lifestyle, this knowledge may assist families adjusting to global mobility within other contexts.

An additional identified difference between those FIBTs and short-term assignees, and the commuters, was that commuters not only have the quantity of time to physically spend with their children when they are at home, but with no domestic work responsibilities, they are not distracted or *absent* despite their physical presence (Kazakos et al., 2013, February). The example of Gloria and her dislike of "that computer" serves to highlight the differences. This appears to reference the boundary-spanning role-blurring that Voydanoff (2005) presents in her model where working from home is considered to negatively impact work-family balance. Furthermore, Ashforth and colleagues (2000) suggests that role-blurring can in fact impact on role performance. By Gloria's father being on "that computer", he, at least in her eyes, is a less engaged parent than when he was commuting and she had his undivided attention when he was at home. The spill-over of work into the family domain is a well-researched phenomenon (e.g. Bakker & Demerouti, 2013; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Voydanoff, 2005), however the current study is able to make a number of contributions to this conversation, including highlighting how the different forms of global mobility may impact the voracity of the spill-over when the traveller is at home.

A final point with regard to the traveller's time-off is that from the partner's perspective, there may be too much time spent together, isolating the family unit from their social networks. This focus on family time was, for some, a reflection of the time the traveller had spent socialising with colleagues while away, consistent with the close ties known to form between globally mobile workers (Misan & Rudnik, 2015).

For the families of the more senior, experienced sailors, there is the potential for generous financial packages, and these families acknowledge this as a positive aspect of living with contemporary global mobility. However, unlike the situation for commuters in the extractive resource sector (Carter & Kaczmarek, 2009; MacBeth et al., 2012; Misan & Rudnik, 2015; Parkes et al., 2005), the financial benefits are not universal. Furthermore, for those who engage in contract roles, there are financial risks that potentially offset any prospective benefits. The relationship between remuneration and motivation to engage in contemporary global mobility is outside the scope the current study. However, in the last decade, the literature questions whether financial remuneration is a motivator for traditional expatriates (Dickmann et al., 2008; Stahl, Chua, Caligiuri, Cerdin, & Taniguchi, 2009), and given the differing levels of remuneration, and the risks associated with contracting, it would appear this may also be the case for the yachting fraternity.

The final recognised positive impact of contemporary global mobility is the opportunity to enjoy having one's own space, and being able to set one's own timetable. This appreciation of such, arguably, incidental positive consequences has been noted in a small sample of previous studies, including by the spouse of an offshore oil rig worker who identified she liked to "enjoy the peace and quiet" (Parkes et al., 2005, p. 422). The partners who did appreciate these small pleasures were also, fundamentally, those who described their experiences in an overarching positive manner. This would appear to be consistent with the findings of Scheier and colleagues who found "dispositional optimism...and emphasizing positive aspects of [a] stressful situation" (1986, p. 1257) contributed to successful adaptation to demanding circumstances, suggesting that having an optimistic disposition may ease the challenges of staying behind, and may well help them adjust to living with contemporary global mobility. There was a temporal element to this final positive impact, with a tipping point for the partners where the attraction of having one's own space and setting one's own

timetable began to wane. Therefore, this would appear to be a positive effect when the traveller is engaged in FIBT or commuting, but may not be the case when they are away on short-term assignment and the length of the absence nullifies the potential positive impact.

4.2 Recurring Departures and Repetitive Repatriation

The second theme to emerge from the interviews is that a significant strain is placed on the families at two key points in time – at the point of actual leave-taking, and again upon homecoming. It is the recurring nature of the departures, and the repetitive aspect of the repatriations, that makes understanding the issues that coalesce around these temporal points so important.

4.2.1 Recurring Departures

Each mode of contemporary global mobility invariably involves recurrent departures, albeit with differing frequency and regularity. It appears that the reactions of the children are varied, primarily but not exclusively depending on their age, and that their parents draw on a number of strategies to help them navigate their way on each occasion.

For just under half of the participants, the departures have no perceptible impact on the children's behaviour:

I certainly don't have drastic changes in behaviour because of [the traveller] going.

You know, I never have tears, or crying. (Anna)

I've never really noticed a massive change in their behaviour when he comes and goes. (Kerry)

However, for an almost equal number of interviewees, they have at some point in time observed changes in their children's behaviour that they attributed to the traveller's departure:

I think they are pretty good and some other families have bigger problems but they do get a little bit sort of cranky when he is about to go. (Carol)

Age, as would be expected, appears to play a significant role in how the children react to the departures, with a number of the parents reflecting that it was when their children were younger that they felt the departures most keenly:

When they were younger, there would always be an adjustment period for both kids, their behaviour would change. For example, John would become clingy and have sleep disruption to the point he would need to sleep with me. Amy would react differently but her behaviour would be out-of-sorts for about a week also. (Dee)

It appears that it is around the ages of 7 and 8-years-old that the impact of the departures may be the most acute:

Lachlan acts up before [the traveller] goes away and when he's away quite often. I've definitely for the last 18 months really noticed him being a lot clingier to [the traveller]. (Claire - Lachlan is 7)

I find Jacob suffers the most at this point. Jacob gets quite emotional now. He's just started the last few trips, getting really emotional... Like he will, he'll be in a real foul mood the day [the traveller] leaves, and the next day he'll be heinous, and he'll be horrible... And then we'll be sitting there and he'll turn around and go "I just miss my Dad" and burst into tears. (Sonia – Jacob is 8)

Jacob acknowledges that his behaviour can change around the point when his father goes away as he articulates:

I get grumpy...I get grumpy with mum and Patsy [his 4-year-old sister]. (Jacob, 8)

Similar issues were recognised by the participants from the greater global mobility community:

My 7-year-old is going through a phase where he misses his Papa a lot more.

(Roseanne – 2nd phase participant)

One explanation for this behaviour change was offered by Lesley, the second phase partner of a FIBT, and mother of three:

When they were really young, they didn't notice it too much, but certainly my daughter, the middle child, she got to the stage when she was about 7 where she just missed him like crazy. She was just beside herself whenever he went away. So that was really hard, going through that sort of stage. I think she always did miss him, but she got to that stage where she could express how much she missed him" (Lesley – 2nd phase participant)

An alternative explanation offered for the behavioural change was that younger children, those under five, are heavily reliant on the parent who stays behind, minimising the impact of the recurrent departures:

I am the primary person...the food source [laughter]. And she is a mummy's girl anyway... so she doesn't notice that he is gone. (Paulette – referring to her 11 month old)

He really doesn't have a clue so he really doesn't notice if Dad is away or not so much, Mum's around so it's fine. (Kayla – referring to her 3-year-old)

Another factor that potentially impacts how children experience the departures emerged from the interviews with the children. It appears that children, across a broad age band, do not recognise how long the traveller is away for. This was apparent when 7-year-old Teagan was asked how long his father is usually away for and he replied:

The shortest is like two days, his last trip he was away for five days. But mostly for like a few weeks, but like the longest is like a month. (Teagan, 7)

According to Teagan's mother the traveller is away for at least one six-week period each northern summer and would never be gone for only two days. This lack of appreciation of time extends well beyond young children, as evident in the comments of 10-year-old Fletcher and 12-year-old Craig when asked how long their father had been based overseas during a recent series of recurring short-term assignments:

About a year? (Fletcher, 10)

No, I don't think it's a year, I thought eight months. (Craig, 12)

At the point the boys were interviewed their father had been based overseas for almost two years.

4.2.2 Strategies for Managed Departures

The interviewees identified a number of strategies they employ to minimise the disruption to the family each time the traveller departs. Some believe discussing the imminent departure will reduce the stress for the children:

I do try and remind them that he is going so it doesn't end up with "Oh is he going again now, I didn't know that", so we try and point out he is going to be away for a while. (Carol)

This approach was appreciated by Carol's daughter when asked if she wanted to be informed each time the traveller was about to leave:

Yes, because I kind of like to know how long he is going to be home, so I don't have to get a surprise when he is leaving. (Gina, 12)

Others believe forewarning the children can be detrimental:

Well I don't give much pre-warning to the kids at all because there is definitely a little bit of angst leading up to him leaving. We will often say the night before, or even in

the morning that he's going to go that night. And then say to them "remember that Dad's off this afternoon". (Elizabeth)

As soon as she was cognizant of him coming and going we didn't tell her until probably almost the day of his departure because it was too stressful, she would get too upset. That way it would be like "oh, Daddy's going on a trip today and he will be back soon". He would pack usually only a few hours before he was going for the same reason, because it was easier, less disruption. (Jane)

Whether the children are forewarned and therefore arguably forearmed, or whether the information is withheld to stave off any anxieties, it would appear that consistency is the key. Over half of the partners in this study take a consistent approach to the departures in an effort to normalise the process:

I think in general, because we have been doing this for a while now, we have always tried to minimise the drama around the departing, so we treat it as if it's normal.

(Carol)

We try not to make a big deal of him coming and going. We just tried to keep it as normal as possible. Stick to the normal routine, don't do anything special. (Paulette)

The effectiveness of normalising the process is perhaps best illustrated by the fact that when asked if they ever felt like crying when the traveller was leaving, the majority of the children answered with a resounding no, and many of them actually laughed at the idea that they would be moved to tears.

4.2.3 Repetitive Repatriation

The repetitive repatriation process experienced during each home-coming is also a stressful time for the family. When discussing the reintegration of the traveller at the end of each trip, *every* partner reported some form of disruption. The following section discusses the four

factors identified by the partners as influencing the intensity of the disruption experienced by their family each time the traveller repatriates back into their lives.

The first factor that has a bearing on how disruptive the arrival of the traveller will be is the length of time the traveller is going to remain at home. The partners, with experiences spanning the continuum of global mobility, have faced repetitive repatriations of varying lengths, and the unique insight they provide is that around two weeks is the minimum amount of time at home if the benefits are to outweigh the disruption:

The thing is when he comes home for [only] two weeks, he just gets rid of jetlag and he's real cool fun for three or four days and then he starts packing again and then he's off [laughter]. (Bree)

After a few days everything settled, and then it seemed like for a week he would be reintegrated, but then he would leave again, so that disruption, you know, caused a lot of strain. (Dee)

For some participants there was a point where they felt it was better if the traveller stayed away:

I'd almost rather he didn't come back for a week. Anything less than a week you might say "Not really sure whether you need to come back". (Stella)

They argue that the disruption is too much for the children:

I mean, you know, sometimes when they're coming and going it's more disruptive when they come because then the kids get all wound up, and they don't know who to listen to, and they're kind of messing up your programme, it's almost harder to adjust to the back and forth than it is to say, "OK you're gone, and we're fine, and we'll see you in two months". I don't want him coming and going. That's too hard on the kids, it's too confusing. (Belinda)

It would appear that this belief resonates with the children who also, through their experiences across the continuum of global mobility, see the short periods at home as more disruptive than beneficial. While the children, as previously discussed, have a limited appreciation of the length of the absences, some of them appear to understand how long the traveller will be at home for:

I mostly do not like it when he comes home for two days, and then he leaves again, because well, he comes home, and you meet him again, and then you have to do the whole leaving thing. (Gina, 12)

A final point regarding the length of time the traveller spends at home is that there are also those who recognise the very short periods at home can be stressful for the traveller as well:

The shortest trip this year that he's been home for is like five days. And that was crap. It was too short. But he'd do it in order to spend five days with the family... He was just so tired, and I felt really really bad, but I had heaps of stuff for him to do. And the kids were just hanging off him. And he was exhausted. And it really wasn't that good for him, really. (Sonia)

This empathy many of the partners have for the traveller will be discussed in detail in Section 4.4.

The second factor influencing the repetitive repatriation process is how significantly the day-to-day functioning of the family has changed during the preceding separation:

I think that's the hardest thing, that your parenting style changes, and it evolves with whatever age and stage they're at and if they're away for long enough they've missed how it's changed, and they just don't quite know. They just miss that initial change and so they just aren't there to know "Oh, we go to bed at 7.30 and not 7 o'clock now" and you end up sniping at them sometimes. (Claire)

There's always that period of adjustment when they come back after a long time. I've looked around and noticed we're all going "ugh", and rolling eyes, and there is lots of "Dad, we don't do it this way anymore" kind of thing. (Kate)

The age of the children appears to influence how quickly the day-to-day functioning of the family changes. For Sonia, whose youngest daughter was only 1 when she was being interviewed, the changes were frequent:

It definitely takes only about a week for the daily grind to change. I remember when Laura and all of them were little, and he'd follow me round and he'd be like "Oh, I'll get the baby up" and I'd be like "that's not what we're doing now". "Oh, I'll feed that baby", "Oh, that's not what the baby eats any more". So he would have to follow me round in order to just learn the new routines. And that would frustrate me but it had to be done. Now it's not so bad. (Sonia)

Role ambiguity is the third factor recognised as influencing the repetitive repatriation process. For some participants of this study, a settling in period during which roles are re-established is required:

Before we settle in to the new routine, and he slots into things, I think the first week is generally disruptive. I assume that he is going to do the whole thing, and take them to school and whatever, and actually he doesn't really. I assume he's going to take over the roles, and take on those responsibilities, and it takes a while for him to do that. (Carol)

We find that we get up in the morning and the dishwasher is not done, because that's normally [the traveller's] job, when he's home, but sometimes he's forgotten. Or the bread's not put on, because that's [the traveller's] job when he's home...when he's

home I don't do it, but if he forgets it's like "oh dear". Because he has to get back into that role of doing it. (Anna)

Others, through their years of experience, understand that decisions about who is to be responsible for what, should be made before the traveller's homecoming:

We would talk about this, and I would say to him "you know what, when you come in you're not going to handle what is going on". I always said to him "don't you growl at them, let me do it", because they take being growled at from me. (Michelle)

How much of an impact role ambiguity has on the repetitive repatriation process may also be a reflection of how long the traveller has been away for. After a lengthy absence the traveller may be used to living a managed and structured life:

He forgets I think that he leads a life of a bachelor. When he goes to work generally, people do what he asks and meals are cooked for him, life's pretty easy, well I see it that his life's pretty easy. (Michelle)

They live in an unrealistic world, right, so to come back, when they came back to try and live under one roof, it can be difficult, they aren't used to it. He is used to arriving and somebody telling him what to wear, what to eat, where to be, there are no families travelling with them. They go from place to place and never really having to deal with a lot of the real issues of life, you know. School. Kids. Property. Stuff like that. (Dee)

And not being part of the family:

It's just they're not used to living with kids. I think it's just forgetting that this is what family life is like. He's got to adjust to family. (Kate)

They can become agitated and impatient:

I think it seems like they go away and they just forget how patient you need to be with kids. I find sometimes I just have to call him out. And be like “You’re just grumpy, don’t give them such a hard time”. (Sam)

This is a situation that their children also recognise:

It takes a bit of getting used to. He's a bit impatient, and I guess not being around kids a lot, because he's usually just with adults, he's not very patient, and he doesn't kind of understand certain situations, as my Mum does. I think that because he hasn't been around home a lot, sometimes he just doesn't understand how the family works I guess. (Lacey, 18 – Kate’s daughter)

He shouts when he just comes home. (Mabel – 5 – Sam’s daughter)

He gets grumpy. (Teagan – 7 – Sam’s son)

A final point to note regarding role ambiguity is that some families take a very inflexible approach to the assignment of roles, and the partner meets all the demands of the family irrespective of whether the traveller is at home or not:

I’m like “Oh, what should the kids do”? I try to involve him with a lot of decisions, but I only do it so he actually can hear what’s going on. I don’t actually want his advice. (Claire)

I’m always telling him he has to slot into our life, and accept how we are. Because he seems to come home and want to do stuff, which irritates me, because I don't want him to. (Mandy)

Again, this situation is recognised by the children:

Mum has very much done everything. She always ruled the roost. (Jackie, 18)

And does that change when Dad's at home? (Interviewer)

No [laughter]. (Jackie, 18)

Finally, having been through it all before appears to provide the family with a sense of perspective, and an ability to appreciate the positive aspects of the traveller's return. Whilst it seems that there will be some level of disruption each time the traveller repatriates, the partners and the children interviewed for this study recognise that there are also positive aspects attached to the home-comings. The partners see the joy the arrival of the traveller brings to their children:

I'm always worried that they are going to forget him. They never do, they bust a friggen boiler when he drives up the drive. It's ridiculous. I'm like calm down, *I've* been here the whole time [laughter]. Come on. I'll go out and drive up the drive and you get that excited [laughter]! (Sonia)

And they appreciate how this excitement is also a positive experience for the traveller:

[The traveller] gets the biggest welcome every time he comes home. The dog jumping up, and the kids. You know those kinds of home-comings I don't think you get in the nine-to-five world. Those kinds of moments are pretty special for [the traveller].
(Elizabeth)

The children also fondly recall the moments of reconnection:

I remember him coming back, and like I would look forward to it and I remember once he came back at three in the morning and I had waited up and there was a hallway with a sliding door and I sat there at the sliding door until three in the morning waiting for him to come home. It's one of my happiest memories. (Mabel, 16)

The celebratory aspect of the home-coming may continue beyond the actual day of arrival:

When he comes back it's always a bit more special then. So we'll do a few, you know, nicer things. (Mandy)

There is probably a bit more fun around when he arrives back. So it's not a tedious, oh no, here we go, kind of thing. But, yes there is probably a bit more fun. We might let them stay up a bit later in the evenings because we will all have a family spa or swim or something. But nothing too major, it's all fairly routine. We have got quite slick at it. Because it is so often it's not a couple of big trips a year, because it happens so often it just works. (Elizabeth)

For some families however, instead of recognising the positive aspects of return of the traveller, the frequency of the repetitive repatriation can manifest as an indifference to their arrival:

Well there would just be that excitement when Dad walks in the door, and he would be the king pin for about a minute, and then you would just get back into it [laughter]. (Joss)

And I wouldn't want him to come home and everyone be rolling their eyes because I'm a pain when you think everyone's going to be "Oh Dad, yay, you're home"... I would hate that. (Kate)

4.2.4 Strategies for Minimising the Disruption

Just as some families pre-emptively discuss the traveller's departure, there are those who tell the children when the father is due home. They indicate when the traveller will be home for upcoming events, as opposed to the specific number of days until their return:

I just don't say "it is eight more sleeps, it is seven more sleeps" I don't do that. James starts basketball on the 14th of August so I said "well, that's cool, he will get to see

your first game back”. You know so I’ll try and get them excited that Dad will be here to be the first game back this term. (Bree)

They want to know things like, what is he going to be here for? Is he going to be here for our rugby game? (Kris)

However, if there is a change in the traveller’s arrangement and they are unable to attend the anticipated event, this can have a negative impact:

The boys get a bit upset about that [delayed arrival], especially if they know that he is going to miss a rugby game, or he is going to miss something that they thought he was going to be here for. That does really upset them. It puts a dampener on things. (Kris)

This potential for additional distress may explain why almost half of the partners do not signal the traveller’s imminent arrival:

We don’t make a big deal about him coming home...so he just shows up in the morning, he catches a cab, we don’t go to the airport, nothing. It is all about lessening the impact. (Jane)

Yes, yes, and we never tell them when he is coming home, it is just a surprise, otherwise they’d be, you know, if I was to say he was coming home in a week, I would be asked would be asked everyday “well when’s he coming home? (Sharon)

Some partners are deliberately obtuse about how long the traveller will be away for and when they are expected back, to circumvent the disappointment that eventuates if plans change:

I tend to, a couple of days before, just say “Dad’s off”. [They ask] “How long is he gone for?” [I say] “I don’t know” ... I don’t want them to have in their head space, oh, he’s away for ten days and it suddenly becomes six weeks, eight weeks. It’s just like, Dad’s gone, and I don’t know how long is he gone for. (Claire)

However, Claire's children had the following to say:

They don't tell us, Mum doesn't or Dad doesn't tell us when he's coming back.

(Madison, 10)

Because he might miss a flight. (Lachlan, 7)

Mum said because we'll keep asking "is he coming home now"? But we ask more when we don't know, because we don't know when he's coming home. (Madison, 10)

4.2.5 Discussion

The demands placed on families as they experience recurring departures, and repetitive repatriations, are an integral aspect of living with contemporary global mobility. How children experience the recurring departures appears primarily age related, with those who have recently started school exhibiting, and articulating, the most distress. Exemplar longitudinal military research suggests it is from the age of six when the children begin to have a more pronounced reaction to the departures (Andres & Moelker, 2011), and it would appear this time frame resonates with both the sailing and the second phase participants from the greater global mobility community. Children's verbal skills improve when they start school, and therefore they are able to articulate how they are missing the traveller. The alternative reason suggested for the change in the children's reaction is that younger children are more reliant on the parent who stays behind, therefore minimising their reaction to the traveller's departure. This explanation is similar to that provided by the afore-mentioned longitudinal military research (Andres & Moelker, 2011). While this current research project is not longitudinal in nature, many of the participant partners were able to recall the changes in their children's reactions over the many years they had been living with contemporary global mobility. They were therefore able to contribute to the conversation around the age the impact of the departures is the most acute, and why.

The children, of all ages, appeared unable to recognise how long the traveller is away for. That most children do not possess the sense of time that would allow them to keep track of the duration of absences (Andres & Moelker, 2011), nor have the capacity to recognise the frequency of the trips (Wong & Gerras, 2010), has previously been recognised in a military context. Applying this lack of temporal recognition to the current discussion, if children are unaware how long the traveller will be away for, it appears reasonable to posit that they will be less affected at the actual point of departure. This provides a potential explanation for why the mode of global mobility, and the implicitly different lengths of the upcoming separations, does not appear to have impacted the children's reaction to the traveller's departures.

There are two contrasting strategies with regard to whether children should be forewarned of the imminent departure of the traveller. Some take the same approach as military (Mmari et al., 2009) and commuter (Parkes et al., 2005) parents who believe discussion and awareness will reduce the stress of the departure, while others believe telling them too soon can be detrimental. Whilst there are those military parents who have been unsure how to explain the upcoming absence (Andres & Moelker, 2011), avoiding telling the children to forestall the onset of their anxiety does not seem to have been previously identified as a strategy for managing departures. The way both Elizabeth and Jane describe their approach would suggest they have factored in their previous experiences when deciding at what point to inform their children. Having participants with a lengthy history of living with a variety of forms of global mobility is one way this study is able to enhance existing knowledge. Irrespective of the approach taken, the focus is on consistency in an effort to normalise the process of recurring departures. Normalisation, in terms of how previous experiences can reduce the stress of global mobility, has only previously been discussed from the perspective of the traveller (I. Black & Jamieson, 2007; Gustafson, 2012).

The repetitive repatriation process appears to be the more demanding event, as *not a single* partner described the reintegration as either seamless or straightforward. Four factors were identified as influencing the intensity of the disruption experienced by the family, the first being the expected length of time the traveller would be staying at home. It appears around two weeks is the minimum stay required, anything less than that and some partners question whether the traveller coming home is the judicious choice. While the existing literature confirms the reintegration process as a generally demanding and destabilising experience for families (Chandra et al., 2010; Lester & Flake, 2013; Sheppard, Malatras, & Israel, 2010), and potentially more stressful than the initial departures (Mmari et al., 2009), the experiences of the interviewees provide additional depth to the understanding of repetitive repatriation in terms of the length of time the traveller needs to be at home before the benefits outweigh the disruption.

The second factor impacting the repetitive repatriation process is how much the day-to-day functioning of the family has changed. The longer the absence, the greater the potential for changes in family routines, and therefore the greater adaption required. This suggests that the repatriation for those on short-term assignments may require greater flexibility as the family settles into new routines. However, when infants are part of the family demographic, it appears that any separation, irrespective of the length, may lead to a disruptive re-entry while new routines are learnt by the traveller. While military (DeVoe & Ross, 2012; Gewirtz et al., 2011) and resource sector (Stewart & Donald, 2006) researchers have previously identified the impact changing routines can have on the reintegration, neither the impact of the mode of global mobility, nor of the family demographic, has previously been considered.

Role ambiguity is the third factor that influences the repetitive repatriation process. Stewart and Donald (2006) define the role ambiguity between spouses and frequent international travellers as when “role expectations become blurred” (p. 121) and the participants in this

study confirm there is often a settling in period as role expectations are re-established. Role ambiguity may be exacerbated when the traveller has been absent for an extended period of time as they are no longer used to being part of the family unit. As recognised by both partners and children, the traveller can become agitated and impatient. Davis and colleagues (2015) suggest that “effective parenting requires practice... fathers who are absent for long periods of time do not have the opportunity to practice being effective parents” (p.257).

When travellers spend a significant time away from the family, this can affect how they parent and therefore, the degree of disruption experienced upon their repatriation. To avoid ambiguity, some families become inflexible around the assignment of roles, with the partner meeting all the family’s demands irrespective of whether the traveller is at home or away. This approach could be seen to be taking the ‘periodic guest strategy’ (Forsyth & Gauthier, 1991) adopted by the spouses of commuters who take “all the decisions irrespective of whether or not her partner is at home” (Parkes et al., 2005, p. 424).

The fourth and final factor impacting how the families experience repetitive repatriations is their capacity to recognise the potential joyfulness of the situation. It appears that families who experience frequent repatriations can become “quite slick at it” (Elizabeth), they develop strategies to deal with the routine changes and the role ambiguity, allowing them to appreciate the positive aspects, as well as enduring the disruptions. This finding contradicts previous FIBT research where frequent travel was found to be more disruptive than infrequent prolonged absences (Jensen, 2014; Welch et al., 2007). The difference may be that in the previous research it was the traveller providing the data, and in this study it is the family.

Just as the families have differing strategies for dealing with the recurring departures, they also have contrasting approaches to signalling the imminent arrival of the traveller. While daily count downs to the traveller arrival are rare, possibly in deference to the previously

discussed children's inability to recognise time, approximately half the partners do advise their children when the traveller is going to be home for an upcoming event, such as a sporting fixture. However, if there are changes in the traveller's plans, and they are unable to attend the event, this can have a negative impact on the children. While not specifically discussed in terms of strategies to minimise the disruption of repetitive repatriations, Espino et al. (2002) do identify changes in the traveller's plans as one of the key stresses of contemporary global mobility. The potential for distress underscores why the other half of the participant partners are deliberately obtuse around the traveller's plans to avoid disappointment if there are changes. However, this strategy may also have its shortcomings, as Claire's children indicated they found the lack of clarity around when their father might be home frustrating. Giving voice to the children who stay behind unearthed a discrepancy between the partner's goal and the actual outcome of their strategy. This new knowledge can be used to inform and hopefully improve the lives of those living with contemporary global mobility.

4.3 Domestic Demands and Responsibilities

The demands that become the responsibility of the families who stay behind fall into two broad categories – the general pedestrian day-to-day management of the household, and the parental responsibility for the emotional welfare of their children. The following theme incorporates both forms of additional demands, and explains why for certain families the challenges appear more substantial than for others.

4.3.1 General Responsibilities

The day-to-day management of the household becomes the sole responsibility of the partner when the traveller is away:

Well, you are mother and father, you know, mother, father, driver, cleaner, sports supporter, just everything. (Kate)

I do everything. I'm the gardener, the cleaner, the car washer, you know, everything. So the chauffeur, the cook, and work part-time. (Kris)

The demands placed on the partners can push them to the limit of their capacity:

I just do the minimum I guess. I'm like, "I'm just not going to get anything done. I'm just going to survive". I'm going to do the minimum amount of work, look after the kids, and not bother about anything else. There'll be no home improvements, or gardening, or any of that, just literally live day-to-day and survive. (Stella)

For some of the participants, it would appear that the day-to-day responsibility for the household falls on them, irrespective of whether the traveller is at home, or away:

I guess we have quite defined roles. You know like [the traveller] has always had his career and that's his domain, and then my domain is in a way quite traditional, it's being with the children. He's not one to sort of get in the kitchen and cook, and do that kind of thing so I pretty much run the home. (Joss)

With [the traveller], I think we have fallen into a real routine where he works. We have very different jobs and so I just, I do "the house". It's kind of easier with the coming and going. There is not really anything much that changes whether he is here or not in that regard. I either have more or less washing to do [laughter]. (Stephanie)

The removal of uncertainty around role responsibilities could be perceived as providing a positive structured approach that helps the families' adapt to the traveller's absence.

Alternatively, the rigid assignment of roles to the partner may be experienced as a negative:

His way of dealing with [my stress] is saying "you should go for walk". And I'm like "Yes, that's right sweetheart, I'll just deal with the other 10 things when I come home,

and the kids wouldn't have got to where they need to, and nothing will be cooked, but that's OK. I'll go for a walk". (Claire)

It is not only the partners who take on additional responsibilities during the traveller's absences but also the children:

The boys are very good, they cope really well, but I'm quite lucky to have such good kids, because they understand how this all goes, and they know that Mum does struggle now and again and I need them to step it up and help me around the house. (Bree)

She was my second pair of hands, I had somebody to help me she was my helper. She was 4 years older than Bayley. And yes, most definitely I relied on her to help me. (Jane)

Just on half of the partners identified that their children take on additional domestic roles, including looking after their siblings, when the traveller is away. This was reiterated by the children, with over half of the children confirming they had additional responsibilities when the traveller was away:

Well, I might do the dishes, help Mum with dinner, and set the table. (Teagan, 7)

I kind of like help taking Charlie home from school. And sometimes we get homework done together, because it's easier than mine [laughter]! (Gina, 12)

There may be a temporal element to when these additional responsibilities kick off, as indicated by Anna, where the delegation only occurs after a certain period of time:

I find if [the traveller] is away for a long time, then I probably do delegate more. (Anna)

The children's willingness to assist varied across the participants, with some of the older children recognising they could have been more diligent:

We were all kind of busy with our sports and everything, so obviously we would like try and help but it's kind of hard when you are younger and you have got school and everything going on, to help out heaps, and be there. (Laura Jane, 18)

Do we help out with jobs around the house? Not really. Which is I guess why she is often stressed because we're quite lazy at home with jobs. (Leo, 16)

One of the primary tools used by the partners to help them manage the day-to-day is ensuring consistency, irrespective of the number of children they have, or the age of their children:

And then when [the traveller's] gone, he's gone, and Harry's fine. It's the same routine every week, nothing really changes. (Kayla – 1 preschool)

You just get into your routines. And you get settled, and things sort of tick along nicely. (Sonia – 2 preschool & 1 primary school)

And also there is just routine. You know we are very strict with routine [in the mornings] nobody is allowed to go near a TV or anything until everything is done. And they do their own sun screen, teeth, you know, they have their routine and that's how it is. (Elizabeth – 1 preschool & 2 primary school)

Well, we try and keep routine going, like the school and everything so it's just really normal. (Mandy - 2 primary school)

Routine is probably my biggest key. And I know that on Monday this happens, and on Tuesday that happens, and Wednesday that happens, and so that happens every week just about, the same training runs, or the same swimming or something. (Anna - 2 primary school & 2 high school)

This structured existence is also recognised by the children:

On Monday we go to skiing at snow planet, on Tuesday we go to gym, on Wednesday we have swimming lessons, on Thursday we have bread-making and Mike has soccer, and on Friday I usually have a play date and Mike has a play date too. (Molly, 7)

And we have routine. When Dad is gone, well we have the routine. Every day the same things happen. It's a good thing. I like routine. I like things to be predictable.

(Mabel, 16)

Given the importance of consistency, it is understandable that an inability to plan, due to oft-changing travel commitments, aggravates the challenges of managing the day-to-day:

What really frustrates me is not being able to book stuff in advance because you never know what's going to come up, or what may come up in the calendar, and so that seriously frustrates me. (Mandy)

This can lead to the partner adopting an approach whereby they operate the same irrespective of whether the traveller is home, so as to avoid disappointment when there are unforeseen changes in the traveller's plans:

So I always have that mind-set of never look at his schedule, you know, its a philosophy I've adapted over the years. I do what I do with the children, and if [the traveller's] home, it's a bonus, but if he's not home, he's not letting me down. (Anna)

This approach has also been adopted by second phase participants, such as the partner of an airline pilot:

When he's on call that's a shit month. When he's on call then he could be called out at any point in time. And you just have to run with it. You just have to go "ok, you're on call so we just have to operate like you're away". (Jasmine – 2nd phase participant)

The inability to plan also impacts the partner's ability to foresee when they will require additional assistance:

It's always changing. You know, no one can turn around and say "this is my yearly schedule" and "this is what it's going to be like" so "this is when I will need help".

So you've got to cope. It's always changing. So you've just got to cope alone. (Claire)

The demographics of the family is another factor that invariably impacts on the intensity of day-to-day demands placed upon the partner:

Having the two of them was hard. You know we didn't do a lot. You know it was a morning activity and I would get them home because I couldn't manage them by myself. I didn't want to take them anywhere because it was impossible. Yes, definitely much harder. (Belinda)

With the age of the children also effecting the equation:

[The traveller] left about five days after Aaron was born, so I had four under 6, and that would probably have been my worst of having to struggle, manage the family, and I felt that I was spiralling out of control. (Anna)

For me, it's easier now they are older, because with Leo being able to watch them, I can leave them home on their own, and I can go and do my groceries, I feel like I can get other things done quicker, not having to get three kids into their car seats, drag them with me to do groceries. So for me it is easier. (Michelle)

A final point to note regarding the day-to-day demands of managing the household is that the partners may actually intensify the pressure on themselves by adding additional activities to their schedule to compensate for the absence of the traveller:

When I know [the traveller's] leaving, I will have filled up that weekend with playdates and other stuff... We catch up probably a lot more with our school friends when he is away. (Elizabeth)

I don't want them to feel like they're fatherless so I just do what I can so they are not thinking all the time that Dad's not here. So I helped at sailing on Sunday because they asked for helpers and I was like "I can do whatever you like, you know like I'm not a sailor but I'll go out on a RIB or whatever". (Bree)

Unfortunately, whilst engaging in these compensatory activities may improve the situation for the children, it inevitably makes it harder for the partner:

Well I spend a lot of time with the children, I don't do anything basically for myself. I have a full-time occupation with my studies, and then it's the children from start to finish. And I have tried not to have an au-pair or a Nanny of anything like that because I think they need to have one parent. (Carol)

Carol also highlights the importance she attaches to having extended family support and not having to employ paid help. Whilst inherently an au pair or a nanny could be expected to help with the day-to-day domestic demands, the emotional care of the children invariably falls on the partner. It is this aspect of parenting alone that would seem to place the most strain on the partner who stays behind:

When he's home I actually have some sort of emotional support, so at night, we can talk and just kind of decompress. Also if the kids are being naughty about bed time, then he'll step in and deal with them. You know, so that's a big part of it. (Kerry)

The demand of parenting alone is discussed in detail in the following section.

4.3.2 Parenting Alone

Research grounded in the armed services identifies that the partner who stays behind has to “play the roles of both mother and father” (Mmari et al., 2009, p. 471) with the result that the “parenting intensity changes” (Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012, p. 384). The difference the presence of the traveller makes resonates with both the partners from the sailing community and the second phase participants of this research:

When they're home, life is so different because, you know, because there's two of you. [Someone] to piggy back off. So life is so different versus what it's like when you're by yourself. (Claire)

Even though I don't notice it when he is away, I just feel a big release off my shoulders when he gets back. It is weird. (Kris)

You're a single parent. The way we have to think about lives and plan our lives is as a single parent who sometimes has somebody there, and that's it. (Jasmine – 2nd phase participant)

Children of all ages recognised that the parent who stayed behind had to take on the role of both mother and father, and they understood the advantage of having two people collectively parenting together:

She has to look after four children and when Dad's here they work together. (Faith, 9)

Because there is no second person to control us, so she has to control us. And also get all her work done. (Craig, 12)

When things are stressful, it's hard not to have that person to talk through things and bounce things off. Sometimes I can tell when Mum's really missing Dad, and just when she's a bit overwhelmed with things, it's just hard when you're by yourself.

When you don't have that other person there. (Lacey, 18)

There are a number of factors that increase the parenting burden placed on the partner who stays behind. How much the children perceive they are going to miss the traveller and how this impacts their reaction to the recurring departures has already been discussed. The actuality of the emotional distress experienced by the children during the separations is considered in the following sections.

4.3.2.1 When Children Miss the Traveller

Giving voice to the children who stay behind allowed them to articulate how *they* feel when the traveller is away:

We don't do a heck of a lot of family activities I guess, and so birthdays are something we make a big deal about. We will go to dinner or something, but if Dad's not there then it feels a bit pointless almost, I feel. Because it's like not the whole group.

(Jackie, 18)

Well yes, but, we have kind of gotten used to the whole going away thing, so it's not as hard as it used to be. But we still miss him... It is just a general feeling when he's not there. (Leo, 16)

I just remember everything feeling so much more complete when he was home.

(Mabel, 16)

It does appear that for an only child the feelings may be more intense, as commented on by Stacey and Michelle when recalling how their eldest (and at that point only) child missed the traveller and their younger children seem far less affected:

When Nate was 2, he couldn't stand to see a dark taxi because that would come and get Dad and he would freak out. But Sally doesn't even notice. I think with Nate it was because it was just him and me then. But now you know there are three kids, and there is never going to be one lonely child. (Stacey)

To be honest I feel like I have only ever noticed anything in Leo. When he was younger, as soon as [the traveller] left the first night, he would be fine and the next three nights he would wet the bed. Every time. It took a few rounds of that for me to register that there was a pattern and connect what it was but I haven't seen anything in the other two. I was going to say that it was because Leo was back then the only child, and the others have had him being older to play with, or watch as a model, and I guess they have just had more people around them. (Michelle)

Overall it appears that having siblings minimises the feeling of missing the traveller, reducing the children's reliance on the partner:

I think having four children, they've all got each other, which has helped I think.
(Anna)

I think that I am lucky because they are two boys and they are very close. They are two years apart but they are super super close to each other so I think they rely on each other. (Kris)

A small number of participants, from both the sailing and the wider second phase global mobility communities, recognised the drawback of having siblings when there is only one parent at home:

So Blake is only getting shared time. Because Blake is either in daycare or he's with me and [his infant brother], there is no one who is just focusing on Blake at the moment. But if [the traveller] was here, either [traveller] could have one-on-one time with him or I could have one-on-one time with him. (Stephanie)

What they don't get is undivided attention, that's the difference that they don't have, because it's me with two kids. Because usually one parent with two children, so that

would be what they would miss, they don't have one-on-one time. (Jasmine – 2nd phase participant)

However, the overarching perception among the participants is that the presence of siblings is beneficial for children who are missing the traveller.

The need for the partner to provide emotional support for their children may be compounded when the traveller is missing significant events:

Already because [the traveller] is always working during August, the month of Randall's birthday, Randall is already, and it's only January, he has already said about 15 times, "Daddy will you be there for my birthday?" ...so he notices things like that. (Mandy)

I am remembering he missed Lacey's first school ball... those sorts of things they [the children] notice. (Kate)

However, a number of the partners who have been living with contemporary global mobility for extended periods of time, draw on their experience to minimise the distress for their children by, when possible, delaying the celebrations:

If I know that he'll miss a birthday then I'll let them know, "We won't have your birthday that day, we'll celebrate it, but we'll have it when Dad gets back on this day". (Bree)

The same approach is taken by the second phase participants:

When they were younger, he always made up for it [missing birthdays] when he got back. We would plan things when he was here, before he left, for when he got back. (Lesley – 2nd phase participant)

Whilst it appears that birthday celebrations can be effectively postponed, it is the significant events that cannot be delayed which appear most distressing for the children:

He did miss one of my dance shows and I didn't like that. (Mabel, 5)

Sometimes he misses out on my [gymnastic] competitions. Sometimes he misses out on very important things to me. (Madison, 10)

Gender can also impact how intensely the children miss the traveller. As has been previously acknowledged, the travellers in this study are all males, and it appears that the male children may be missing their male role model:

Randall does miss his Dad, he says he's in a house with two girls, so he says he is outnumbered and I guess that does impact on him sometimes... I know he (Randall) gets a bit down in the dumps sometimes and does miss his Dad. (Mandy)

Probably Jonah missed him most of all. Just being the boy... He's the only boy. So I would say he perhaps missed him the most. (Kate)

The potential impact the absence of the male traveller may have on their sons prompted some partners to actively seek additional male role models:

I've got a male babysitter, so the boys have a male figure around. (Bree)

I suppose they all need a male influence. But Jacob particularly needs a male around. Not all the time, but he does need male interaction. So quite often Mum's partner, he'll hang out with him. Or my Dad, if he's around, will hang out with him. I try and get that male influence, because I think it's important. (Sonia)

The significance of support, in its various forms, is discussed in detail in Section 4.5.

It should be noted that the partners may also miss the traveller. Their experiences of loneliness will be discussed in the context of the support they receive from the traveller via modern communication platforms in Section 4.6.1.

4.3.2.2 Dealing with Behavioural Issues arising from Missing the Traveller

Approximately half of the partners report changes in their children's behaviour each time the traveller leaves. However, it would appear that for the majority, the behavioural issues are short lived and wane fairly rapidly. For those where their children's behaviour remains an issue throughout the separation, having sole responsibility for the discipline of their children adds to the burden of parenting alone:

I don't know if it's because the kids have been acting like rat bags and I feel like it's me against them and there is no one else, you know because sometimes it's like, even though they're kids, they can be on your team, and lately they're not. (Kerry)

As highlighted in the following quotes, despite the plethora of modern communication tools available, the partners perceive they remain solely responsible for managing any behavioural issues:

I have a belief that what can he do? He's not here. So why then vent to him about it because him talking on the phone is not going to help, because he's not there in the situation, I'm the one here that has to deal with it. (Bree)

I mean we usually talk twice a day when he's in Europe. So he'll call his night, my morning, and visa-versa, so we talk. But it's not quite the same...Because I'm still *here*, you know. And the kids are still fighting *here*. (Kerry)

The impact of modern communication on the family living with contemporary global mobility will be discussed in detail in Section 4.6.

In an effort to reduce the demands placed upon them as the sole disciplinarian, partners may remove the opportunity for the children to misbehave by being particularly strict when charged with parenting alone:

I am very strict in terms of expectations, for the simple reason that if they were lying kicking and screaming on the floor, then I didn't have anybody backing me up, so it was easier never to let them get to that point. (Jane)

I am probably a bit harder on them when he is away because I need them to behave. I've got no back up here. (Elizabeth)

Elizabeth's daughter confirms her mother is stricter when the traveller is away:

Sometimes she can growl... It is more when Dad is away. (Molly, 7)

There appears to be two opposing approaches to the interchangeability between partner and traveller when it comes to the role of disciplinarian. In the first instance, the partners who stay behind retain primary responsibility for discipline, irrespective of whether the traveller is at home or away. However, there is an apparent downside to this approach:

I'm the baddie, I guess that's the bad part, that I'm always the baddie, even when he comes back, he's the nice guy because he's been away, so he won't give out to the kids as much if they have been naughty. Whereas I'm telling them to behave and act like normal...So I'm always the bad person and that does annoy me. (Mandy)

I don't think they noticed there being a huge difference [in the discipline when the traveller was away]. I was always just the bad cop. (Jane)

The alternative is where the parents endeavour to share the disciplinary role when the traveller is at home, allowing the partner to recoup their resources for future separations:

He has them probably more tightly disciplined than me. He gets them going and that sort of thing... He probably has the energy when he comes home to, I would say, re-enforce some of the rules. Whereas I'm just (big sigh) 24 / 7 I've been re-enforcing these rules and if they don't sort of happen, you know, for goodness sakes, right, I haven't got the energy to carry on with it sometimes. (Anna)

Having interchangeable responsibilities is also the approach taken by Michelle and her family. They see the benefits of being adaptable and sharing the role of disciplinarian with the traveller when they are at home:

I don't have eyes in the back of my head with three of them and a big house. When there's two of us in the house, when he's here, then yes, things get nipped in the bud, either quicker, or seen or heard, do you know what I mean, when there are two people. (Michelle)

This approach is recognised by all three of Michelle's sons:

She is a bit different when Dad's home. She's less stressed and angry... because there is more than one person at home who can control us. (Fletcher, 10)

Because Dad can usually deal with us a lot easier than Mum can by herself. (Craig, 12)

It changes but we are still not that well-behaved. But it definitely improves when Dad is at home. (Leo, 16)

4.3.2.3 The Impact of Time

The capacity for the partner to parent alone contains a temporal element and is a reflection of the mode of contemporary global mobility. It would appear that the partners have a preference for shorter separations:

It probably would be easier having him back more often. I would have always thought I would have gone for longer [trips], but the thing is, you just get worn down, you just get worn down. When they're away for an extended period there is no release, there's no break. (Claire)

This was also the prevailing attitude among the second phase participants, evident in Lara's description of her husband's frequent international business travel:

The first few days I'm like "I can do this, I'm fine". Then you just chug along in the middle section, and then the last few days I'm ready for him to come home. I prefer [the] intermittent [travel]. It's more manageable, I think the idea of thinking "I've got two months" would be hard going. (Lara)

Kate, who has experiences from across the continuum, recalled in her interview one period where she did not feel she was coping with the separations, and she attributed this to the length of time of the separations as necessitated by the traveller's short-term assignment:

I didn't manage very well. But I have every other time... [it was] probably the length of time that it was that I was by myself. (Kate)

4.3.3 The Resulting Stress

Lazarus and Folkman define stress as the "relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being" (1984, p. 19). Therefore, given the collective excessive demands borne by the partner each time the traveller is absent, it is unsurprisingly that for some, the situation is inherently stressful:

I feel like I have to have everything on such a tight rein all the time. I feel very much like if I let go even for a second, it will all come crashing down around my ears.

(Jane)

I think it's just that general feeling that you're on your own and you've got to just hold down the fort. And so, and I think it's just a heightened level of alertness, or whatever it is, stress I think, it's that level of "I've got to get the kids here, this here" and just manage it all. (Stella)

The strain placed on their mothers does not go unobserved by the children.

She's a lot calmer when he [the traveller] is here. And then when he goes she changes a bit, she is often stressed. (Leo, 16)

For some, having to continually cope with the excessive demands can result in what they describe as depression:

That particular race I didn't manage very well. And I was really depressed [laughter]. I don't think I was clinically depressed but I was really in a bad way. That's the only time in my life that I've gone through that kind of experience. I am not there now, oh no, not at all. So the reality was that I found because it was so long, 16 months, and it's just so busy, you know. (Kate)

For others, they acknowledge they may have struggled with depression irrespective of the life style, however, they believe that the separations and having to cope alone has influenced the strength of the incidences of depression:

Have I suffered more depression because of the life style? Yes! Was it going to rear its head anyway? Yes, it would have, but in a different way. My coping mechanisms are very different because you do it by yourself. (Claire)

4.3.4 Discussion

There are two forms of additional responsibilities placed upon the families who stay behind, the first of these being the day-to-day management of the household. General domestic role

overload has previously been identified in studies that span the continuum from FIBTs (Espino et al., 2002), to commuters (Misan & Rudnik, 2015) to those deployed on short-term assignments (Dimiceli et al., 2010). This study reinforces the limited findings of previous research, while allowing for comparative analysis across the continuum of contemporary global mobility within a single occupational context.

Despite a history of leading the world with equality and women's rights, the traditional gendered division of unpaid work is still the norm in New Zealand (Liu & Dyer, 2014) and this was evident for some participants. Similarly, the partners of FIBTs continue to take the primary responsibility for the household, regardless of whether the traveller is at home or away (Casinowsky, 2013; Gustafson, 2006).

The children of the traveller also shoulder additional responsibilities. Research within a military context has clearly indicated the additional roles children receive when the traveller is deployed on short-term assignment (Chandra et al., 2010; Easterbrooks et al., 2013; Knobloch et al., 2015; Mmari et al., 2009), although whether the children of FIBTs or commuters are also allocated additional roles has not been previously considered. The finding here suggests that the length of the absence may well be a factor for consideration in the allocation of additional responsibilities to children. It is noteworthy that these children did not proactively seek additional responsibility, despite recognising that their mothers were carrying a heavy burden in the absence of the traveller. Like the children of commuter parents (MacBeth et al., 2012), recognition does not always translate into a desire to assist.

A common theme when talking about strategies for coping with the additional demands and responsibilities was the need for routine. Predictable routines are important for many families, but they have been shown to be particularly important for military families times (Gewirtz et al., 2011). Further, previous research has identified the adverse impact of unpredictable travel on the family (Espino et al., 2002). Recognising that one of the potential

negative consequences is the inability to prearrange support adds depth to our understanding of the impact of contemporary global mobility on the family. As witnessed here, the routines established enable the family to transition to the traveller's movements – there is still school, there are still activities, life goes on. In the face of the traveller's departures and returns, the structured environment provides an unchanging routine for children (MacBeth et al., 2012), a routine which is voiced as a positive thing by the children themselves in this study. The new insight offered here is that partners may make deliberate choices that render the traveller's presence or absence effectively irrelevant, which has implications for the family unit.

Many participants added extra activities to the schedule to compensate for the departure of the traveller. The scheduling of fun family activities, and the increased involvement in the children's sporting endeavours, are support strategies that have been adopted by both military (Mmari et al., 2009) and corporate (Stewart & Donald, 2006) partners. This does however impact on the free time available for the stay at home partner – a finding which resonates with military spouses (Werner & Shannon, 2013).

The impact of the number of children, and the age of the children, on parents' ability to cope is not unique to the contemporary mobility context (e.g. Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Byron, 2005; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011), however the lack of respite due to the absence of the traveller arguably serves to compound the situation. Research specifically grounded in contemporary global mobility considers the dyadic option of children compared to no children, and confirms the presence of children adds to the stress of managing alone (Wheeler & Stone, 2009). Traditional expatriate research provides a more nuanced consideration of the impact of children during a traditional expatriation, at least in terms of their age, and it would seem Anna's "spiralling out of control" is consistent with the highest level of parental demand being placed on those with children under six (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001).

The second added responsibility identified by the partners is that they alone must provide their children with emotional support, and administer any required discipline, in the absence of the traveller. The children also recognise these additional roles must be solely played by the parent who stays behind. Previous research, where the children of commuters voice how they perceive the absence of the traveller to impact the parent who stays behind, has been inconclusive. While the primary school aged participants of Mauthner and colleagues' (2000) study did express concern for their mothers when their father was absent, the younger interviewees in a more recent study (MacBeth et al., 2012) were found to have a much more egocentric approach and focused on how the separations effected their lives. The current study confirms the earlier findings of Mauthner (2000) while extending them to incorporate children from a broader range of ages, and across the continuum of contemporary global mobility.

Emotional support is required to combat what the children describe as a general overarching feeling of missing the traveller. This is echoed in the experiences recounted by military youth (Knobloch et al., 2015). These feelings of incompleteness appear to be more intense for only children. The benefit of having siblings has been alluded to twice during studies grounded in the armed service. In the first study, communication between siblings was found to improve during parental deployment indicating the positive aspect of having someone to talk to who is going through the same experiences (Houston et al., 2013). In the second study, the potential for siblings to provide support was implied when adolescents not living in military bases discussed the lack of empathetic support from their civilian peers (Baptist et al., 2015). The potential positive impact of having siblings, recognised by the interviewees in this study, affirms what was previously only inferred. Whilst the number of children in a family is a predetermined characteristic, facilitating relationships with empathetic peers

outside the family may be one way of taking this knowledge and using it to minimise the emotional distress felt by the children.

For children, the absence of the traveller during significant events compounds their emotional distress. While the existing literature suggests children will primarily miss an absent parent around their birthday (Knobloch et al., 2015; Mauthner et al., 2000), of the children who participated in this study, only two groups of siblings specifically mentioned this. When the children did miss the traveller was when they missed events that could not be postponed, as opposed to family celebrations which can be pushed back until the traveller returns. The different significance of events that could be rescheduled, compared to those where the date is fixed, has not previously been considered previously. Awareness of the importance of these fixed events to their children may prompt the traveller to endeavour to adjust their work demands, or alternatively encourage the partner to call on additional resources in the form of family and friends to attend these events.

Gender also influences the intensity with which the children miss the traveller, with sons missing their fathers. While the relationship between the gender of the traveller and the gender of the child who stays behind does not appear to have been specifically considered in contemporary mobility scholarship, the findings do resonate with domestic work-family research. Johnson and colleagues (2013) found that when the fathers of boys worked more than 50 hours per week, this manifested in behavioural difficulties. The finding was not replicated with girls, or when it was the child's mother who worked the long hours.

There were children in this study whose behaviour deteriorated as the result of their missing the traveller, a finding consistent with both domestic work-family (Johnson et al., 2013) and military mobility (e.g. Barker & Berry, 2009; Chartrand, Frank, White, & Shope, 2008; Dimiceli et al., 2010) research. Despite the plethora of communication platforms available today, the immediacy often required when disciplining children means the role continues to

be performed by the parent who is there at the time. Some partners believe strict parenting removes the opportunity for children to misbehave. Although this strategy does not appear to have been specifically identified by mobility scholars, Dittman and colleagues' (2016) anonymous survey found the partners of commuters employed "harsh discipline practices" (p. 2778) compared to comparative community respondents. While not suggesting the participants of this study were overly punitive in their parenting, it is feasible that both groups of parents focused on the reducing the opportunity for their children to misbehave and thereby diminished the need for disciplinary intervention.

The previously discussed disruptive impact of repetitive repatriations means there may continue to be behavioural issues when the traveller returns. There are two opposing approaches taken by the families to the interchangeability of the role of the disciplinarian. There are those where the partner who stays behind retains the primary responsibility, believing consistency, combined with the unswerving application of rules, should reduce behavioural issues. This approach resonates with the partners of miners who found it beneficial to retain responsibility for the enforcement of their carefully established rules and routines each time the commuter returned (Misan & Rudnik, 2015). However, the partners in this current study also recognise the potential downside the approach could have on their relationship with their children. The extant contemporary global mobility literature primarily focuses on how additional time spent together can enhance the relationship between the partner and the children (Parkes et al., 2005; Stewart & Donald, 2006). Nevertheless Rodriguez and Margolin (2015) in their recent review of temporary parental separation, where they consider the incarceration, migration and deployment literature streams, does identify that the increased contact between children and their co-located carer means there is the potential for greater conflict. It is this potential for conflict that the participants of the

current study appear to be referencing when they describe themselves as the “baddie” or the “bad cop”.

Alternatively, there are families who endeavour to share the disciplinary responsibilities when the traveller is at home, allowing the partner to recoup their resources for future separations. When the traveller, upon their return, is perceived as having the extra energy required to enforce the rules, this could be attributed what Greenhaus and Powell (2006) refer to as work-family-enrichment, where “when individuals receive extensive resources from a role, their positive affect in that role is increased, which, in turn, facilitates their functioning in the other role” (p. 82). While returning deployed parents have been identified as enforcing strict discipline (MacBeth et al., 2012), perhaps in order to re-establish their role as an authority figure (Paley et al., 2013), that this may form part of a strategy designed to relieve the disciplinary demands placed on the partner has only previously been considered when both parents are globally mobile (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013) and not when there is one partner who stays behind. Moreover, giving voice to children who stay behind amplifies their parent’s recognition of the advantages of sharing the disciplinarian role.

The final point with regard to the demand of parenting alone is in relation to the mode of mobility. The experiences of the partner participants of this study span the various modes of contemporary global mobility and they express a preference for shorter absences. This finding addresses previous uncertainties surrounding the impact of length of the separation versus frequency of separation (Andres et al., 2012; Barker & Berry, 2009; Burrell et al., 2006), at least in terms of their capacity to parent alone. Moreover, this draws attention to a divergence between the partner’s preferences, and the mode of mobility that would best suit the children who stay behind. Given the majority of the children were unable to recognise the length of the separations, as well as their recollections of the disruption that occurs each time the traveller returns, longer less frequent sojourns could be better for the children. It

therefore appears that the partners of the contemporarily globally mobile would prefer they engaged in FIBT, while any children they have would benefit from them structuring their roles around short-term assignments. Having interviewed both the partners and the children of families with experiences that span the modes of contemporary global mobility has made this contribution to knowledge possible.

While there were some partners who experienced various, fluctuating levels of stress as the consequence of the traveller's absences, they do not represent the majority. The majority of the participants of this study, while undoubtedly experiencing domestic role overload, do not appear to recognise this as an unduly stressful situation. This contradicts previous findings where stay-behind partners' measured levels of stress exceeded community norms (Dittman et al., 2016), and where the partners of travellers were found to be twice as likely to seek medical assistance for psychological stress than those who were not living with contemporary global mobility (Dimberg et al., 2002). One reason for this may be that given the seminal definition of stress is where the demands of one's environment exceed one's resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), if the previously discussed coping strategies of the partners are an effective resource, they may mitigate the demands and minimise the potential for stress. The support network of family and friends that will be discussed in a subsequent section may also be an ameliorative resource when striving to reduce stress.

4.4 Empathy and Resentment

The previous two themes have highlighted the non-work demands placed on the families when living with contemporary global mobility. Despite the challenges, it appears that many of the partners feel compassion and concern for the traveller.

4.4.1 Compassion and Concern for the Traveller

Compassion and concern for the traveller was expressed by over three quarters of the partners interviewed for this research. They expressed compassion in that they recognise it is the traveller who misses out on the day-to-day experiences of living as a family:

Mike started crawling the other day so [the traveller] missed out on that. But that doesn't impact Mike at all, just [the traveller]. (Stephanie)

I think now it's harder for [the traveller] than for me. It's harder for him to be away from the family, he suffers more. There's more of a sacrifice for him, for sure. (Anna)

They also understand being away can be lonely for the traveller, and not the glamorous lifestyle that those who do not travel may perceive it to be:

Sometimes he's travelled and he's hated it, like really hated it, and every time I talk to him it's like "I can't wait to get home, I hate being here". (Kerry)

It's not actually that glamorous. What the boys do is they go to the dock and the hotel and maybe out to dinner, and that's about it. They don't go cruising around and seeing all the sights or anything. (Kayla)

This sentiment was also expressed by a second phase participant:

He says he doesn't enjoy it. And I can understand, I've been on work trips before overseas and you get there, and you're in a hotel and you can't sleep, and you're just doing work. (Lara)

Finally, they appear concerned that the traveller may feel excluded each time they return to the family home:

I wouldn't want to come home and everyone be rolling their eyes because I'm a pain... [laughter]... I can totally understand, and I would hate that. And sort of, they become

the lesser figure in the family almost just because they haven't been there for those experiences, and you know, so they [the children] come to me all the time. (Kate)

And it used to worry me in the past that [the traveller] would come back, and I felt like other kids were waiting at the door for their Daddy but mine always wanted me. (Michelle)

4.4.2 Frustration with the Traveller

While periods of frustration with the traveller appeared less prevalent than the widespread compassion and concern, one third of interviewees did recount times when they felt this way. It appears that frustration occurs when partners feel their freedom is restricted by the demands of solo parenting:

He would come from work and would say “Well I've got a job coming up in Portugal” or somewhere like that and I would go “Oh, god, I wish I could go” [laughter]. I remember feeling a bit resentful, because he was away. The whole parenting thing, it's demanding, you've got kids, and I guess it's not being able to just walk out the door, and suit yourself sometimes [laughter]. (Joss)

It isn't without its challenges for sure, and you know, you are the one at home, not going anywhere and you can resent them sometimes for that. (Claire)

These feelings were similar to those expressed by a second phase participant:

I mean I think I've been jealous too over the years, a bit resentful, I wished I could be the one who was heading off for a few days. (Lesley – 2nd phase participant)

An unexpected finding was that the partner's frustration can be amplified when the traveller has a role that involves commuting. While the positive aspects of compensatory time off

have already been discussed, it appears there can be an underlying frustration at how that time is spent:

But you know, you're still cooking, and cleaning, and doing stuff while he's having fun with the kids. (Mandy)

This is particularly pertinent for those who work full time:

I don't get to go to assemblies; I don't get to go to sports day. I don't get to meet the teachers. I'm grumpier that way, of the things that I miss out on, in that he gets to do all the stuff, he gets to do all that cool stuff. (Jasmine – 2nd phase participant)

4.4.3 Discussion

Drawing on the writings of social learning theorists (e.g. Bandura, 2001; Stotland, 1969) it has been suggested that empathy is when “individuals imagine how they would feel in the position of another and thus come to experience and share others’ feelings” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2009, p. 222). The partners’ compassion that the traveller misses their children growing up, the understanding the traveller may experience loneliness, and concern the traveller may feel excluded from the family upon their return, would appear to fall within the suggested definition of empathy. Whilst previous research has identified spousal compassion for travellers who miss seeing their children grow and develop (Parkes et al., 2005), and concern that the traveller may find it difficult to re-establish their place in the family (Faber et al., 2008; Paley et al., 2013), identifying these as components of an overarching empathy for the traveller is a contribution of the current study.

Oatley (2009) contends that one is unable to empathise “while in the grip of an emotion such as resentment” (p.29), therefore suggesting that resentment may be considered the opposite of empathy. Resentment is the indignation one feels over real, or imagined, maltreatment (Buss & Durkee, 1957), and the frustration some partners experience around the (perceived)

restriction of their freedom, could be interpreted as resentment. There are those partners whose resentment is amplified when the traveller is commuting, and able to spend their time-off with the children. While an overarching “undercurrent of resentment or stoic endurance of their partners’ absence” (Espino et al., 2002, p. 320) has previously been identified, understanding the primary source of the resentment, and when the resentment may be exacerbated, adds to the existing body of knowledge.

The (female) partner’s resentment at the quality time-off the commuter is able to spend with the children may also have a gendered element. Domestic dual-career literature indicates that where families undertake “tag-team-parenting” (Taht & Mills, 2012, p. 123), made possible by desynchronised work-schedules, despite the increased involvement of the tag-team fathers in parenting (Wight, Raley, & Bianchi, 2008), the mothers experience greater relationship dissatisfaction (Mills & Taht, 2010). This resonates with a portion of the mothers in the current study.

4.5 Support Resources

The preceding themes have highlighted the various challenges facing the families as they adjust to living with contemporary global mobility. The following theme focuses on the main forms of external support they utilise as a resource to buffer the demands placed upon them—organisational support, and support from family and friends.

4.5.1 Organisational Support

Formal organisational support does not appear to have been routinely provided for three quarters of the partners:

Any information I get, I get because [the traveller] finds it out. I mean they’re sending him requests forms to find out what he wanted on his sandwiches on the boat and I didn’t even know what hotel he was staying in and I’m like “turkey and cranberry

great, that's awesome, but where are you going to be, and where are you flying into, and when are you flying out? (Jane)

You get no contact from them. None at all. What if something happened with our kids? And I think that does add a little bit of stress, because sometimes you think "god, what if something happened to me and the kids are just here", there should be maybe a line of contact. (Mandy)

A number of the older children also recognised the lack of support:

They wouldn't offer you any support. They didn't contact us, or Mum, even once when Dad was away. They had nothing to do with us. (Jackie, 18)

The absence of organisational support does not appear to be limited to organisations within the sporting arena, with second phase participants also lamenting the lack of support:

I have never had anything from [employer] in my life. They don't do families. There's no family support. (Jasmine – 2nd phase participant)

One of the reasons for the absence of formal support may be the impact of culture. A number of the participants of this study observed the pervasive culture throughout the sailing industry to be one of exclusion and not integration:

I believe the culture within these teams looks at families as baggage. (Dee)

No support at all. No, "harden up, take a concrete pill". Yes I think it is that kind of industry. (Kayla)

The perception of an industry-wide work-family culture was not restricted to the participants from the yachting fraternity:

Absolutely none [no support] in our situation... I think it's the culture of [the industry]...the wives and family are just somebody at home, they're not involved or supported by the [organisation], at all. (Catherine – 2nd phase participant)

While Dee, Kayla and Catherine attribute the marginalisation of the families to particular industries, others highlighted the impact of the national culture of the organisation as a significant factor:

[The traveller] is currently working for a [European] team and they are so family-orientated. The CEO of the sponsor company came up to me on the dock and thanked me for “lending them my husband”. They really care about the families. Not like [previous American based employer] who didn't take the family into consideration at all. (Kate)

I mean compared to [previous European team], we could pick up the phone at any time of the day and just call somebody and they would help us organise whatever we need to be organised. But [previous American based organisation] did nothing for us, they had no person who helped...so it's the different teams. (Stacey)

It is important to note that Kate and Stacey are talking about different European and American organisations. Kate was referring to organisations that raced the Round the World Volvo Ocean Race, while Stacey was talking about organisations that competed in the America's Cup, reinforcing that the differences were more cultural than organisation-specific. The difference between the levels of support offered by organisations from different cultures was also recognised by at least one of the older children:

I think the lack of family support has to do with [the current Anglo-cluster organisation]. Like we really noticed the family side of things was so much stronger with the [previous European organisation]...they just had like such cool support

networks. And they even said that the families were like a huge thing for them, to make sure that they were looked after. Whereas with [the current Anglo-cluster organisation] it is pretty detached. (Jackie, 18)

However, the organisation alone would not seem to be the only reason for the lack of support. The participants expressed a general reservation to seeking organisational assistance. When questioned about the level or nature of support organisations could offer them, suggestions were not abundant. This could be a reflection of a belief that they should cope alone, that it is not the place of the organisation to provide them with support. Exemplar of this is Kate, who, as identified earlier, during a particular period found the stress of the separation overwhelming and yet when asked if the organisation could have provided any support, answered:

No, definitely not. They were all away, all overseas, and I would never bother a team.
(Kate)

Others also hold a general aversion to seeking support from the organisation:

I guess, are we too proud to ask for help? I think there is a bit of that. And you're not coping if you ask for help. I think there is probably a bit of that. (Kayla)

This conviction that they should cope without formal organisational support could be grounded in an a priori expectation of work-related separations when entering the relationship with the traveller. For those who started their relationship with the traveller when they were already a professional sailor (half of the participants), they appear to have an attitude that because they knew about the extensive travel, they should not complain about the additional demands placed on them:

I have to remind myself that I knew this was what he did when I married him so I sort of think I can't be the one stomping up and down...I mean I do realise that for our family I could if I wanted to but that is how he provides for us. (Michelle)

I always think, well, we chose this life. This is, I didn't meet [the traveller] and think I want him to change job. (Sonia)

There are even those who are reproachful towards those with a less than accepting attitude:

There are a few wives who I find a little bit hard work because they just resent their husbands for what they are doing. I see a couple of ladies who are just constantly complaining "Oh he is away again, ra ra" you know "I am doing everything, ra ra", but they knew that when they married them and that's what I don't get. I just don't get that side of it. I disassociate myself with people like that, those wives. (Kris)

Mobility is inherent in many jobs today, and people actively make the decision whether that is acceptable to them and their family. This was articulated by one of the second phase participants:

He made the decision when he took the job, he knew it involved travel, and there's lots of people who have those sorts of jobs. I don't even know if it occurs to companies to think about things like that. It's never even occurred to me that they would do anything, or offer anything. (Linda – 2nd phase participant)

The partners who were able to suggest potential forms of organisational support made three main recommendations. The first suggestion was the desire for organisations to create an inclusive environment where the contributions of the family members are also acknowledged, generating organisational based emotional support:

Make me feel part of the team. (Anna)

If it's an organisation that's based here, they could probably do just a bit more family-related stuff. It doesn't have to be anything fancy, but probably just create that “come down, have a sausage sizzle, and the kids running around together” and whoever wants to come can come. Probably a bit more of that. That would make a huge difference. (Kayla)

At least one participant from the second phase made a similar suggestion:

To make you feel a little bit more included in what's going on. (Catherine – 2nd phase participant)

In terms of a suggestion for informational support, the participants recommended establishing a designated person as the first point of contact for the families:

In terms of [the organisation], I guess maybe they could just you know have a person, an HR person, whose responsibility is to make sure that the wives are coping, you know, just that contact perhaps. (Joss)

Just some contact. And if I couldn't get hold of him, somebody else who knew where he was would have been nice. There were lots of instances that didn't apply to me, but applied to other friends, where something went wrong and they didn't have any way of contacting the team because their point of contact was their partner or husband and that was the person they couldn't get hold of. (Jane)

The final suggestion made by the partners was the desire for instrumental support that could alleviate some of the demands placed upon them each time the traveller is away:

They could definitely offer some kind of PA-type service that just helps everyone. You know just in terms of husband away, and I desperately need to have this done, or renew a passport, or something, that actually my day is too full. (Elizabeth)

It would be nice were if there was a bank of babysitter hours. (Kerry)

Both Elizabeth and Kerry are looking to access a communal resource as opposed to wanting to employ paid help dedicated to their family. This may be a reflection of how difficult it can be to employ paid help when the need for assistance is periodic, and often unpredictable:

I've been through, I think this will be my fifth nanny that I've had since I've been back [at work]. That's my biggest challenge, getting after school care hours. Because I only offer them 6 or 8 hours a week and don't really always need them when [the traveller] is at home. (Kayla)

One final point with regard to organisational support, or more accurately, the absence thereof, is that this can influence career decisions made by the traveller. While the previous section included a discussion around how some participants recognised the differing levels of support offered by different organisations, for one participant at least, the absence of support resulted in the traveller resigning their role:

We actually in the last few weeks decided that he doesn't wish to continue with them anymore. Because of the hours and they just have no interest in families at all. (Stephanie)

To summarise, given the overarching absence of organisational support, it is difficult to determine the impact of formal organisational support on families as they adjust to living with contemporary global mobility. However, as the various suggestion made by the participants have each proven successful in other contexts, it appears reasonable to assume that focused organisational support would help families adjust.

4.5.2 Family and Friend Support Network

Social support networks sustain those dealing with uncertainty and change (Albrecht & Adelman, 1984) and are considered “an exchange of resources...intended to enhance the well-being of the recipient” (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984, p. 13). The following section

discusses the various forms of social support that families use to help deal with the uncertainty and change that ensues during recurring departures and repetitive repatriations, and to enhance their well-being when coping with additional domestic demands and responsibilities.

4.5.2.1 A Collective Reticence to Seek Support

Prior to discussing the support that family and friends can provide, it is worth noting that almost two thirds of the participants of this study expressed a reticence to ask for help. The predominant stance was that they would only seek help when there was no other option available:

But I don't really like to ask for help, only when I have a child with a dropping heart rate who needs to be rushed to hospital...that's about the only time I will ask for help. Only in a crisis. (Elizabeth)

I wouldn't want to impose on them too much so I kind of just get on with it by myself, it's mainly if I'm really stuck I'd ask for help, otherwise I just cope. (Mandy)

This sentiment was also expressed by four of the five second phase participants, including Lesley who has three children and a partner who is a FIBT:

Sometimes I literally just had to ask for help getting the kids places. Which I hated doing, I hated doing it, and I would try and return the favours whenever I could, when [the traveller] was home too, he would offer to take their kids to sports and things like that. (Lesley – 2nd phase participant)

For many of the participants, the reticence to ask for help was described as an overarching reserve, but others were able to identify their specific concerns. As alluded to in Lesley's comments above, it appears reciprocity plays a role. The inability to reciprocate stops partners asking for help:

I don't like asking for help either. It's a real hard thing to do. I don't want to put other people out. And, I can't always help them out. Because I'm always working...you know people say to me "Just ask! Just ask! We are here!" And I'm like "I know! But I can't have your kids back because I'm working". (Bree)

The findings indicate that it is only when there is the potential to reciprocate that partners are comfortable seeking support:

My oldest daughter, she has a good friend who is in the same team, and her mother will take them to training, and take both girls, and feed them in town, and then drop them to training, and then I pick them up and drop the friend home, so it works out. It's a quid pro quo kind of thing. (Anna)

I have a few friends where I would help them out, maybe with their kids, and I make a point of it, to help them out, and then I know that if I needed a hand at any point that they could bring the kids home from school and maybe feed them and stuff, so you know, there is a nice network there. (Mandy)

The second reason provided by the partners for not calling on friends and family is a need to be available for their children, compensating for the absence of the traveller. This desire to consistently have one parent available for the children is exemplified in the following quotes:

We've made that decision that there's always one of us here. Like if I'm not here then [the traveller's] here. So they've always had that stability, one of their parents is here. Not a nanny. (Anna)

I have a full-time occupation with my studies, and then it's the children from start to finish. And I have tried not to have an au pair or a nanny or anything like that because I think they need to have one parent. (Carol)

4.5.2.2 *The Three Forms of Support – Family, Local Friend and the Wifenet*

Notwithstanding the collective reticence to actively seek support identified by the participants of this study, utilising family and friends as a resource to cope with the demands of contemporary global mobility has been widely acknowledged as a fundamental coping strategy for those who stay behind (e.g. Barker & Berry, 2009; Lirio et al., 2014; Nicholas & McDowall, 2012). The following section discusses the three forms of support that the interviewees *will* call upon to help them adjust to living with contemporary global mobility.

Extended Family Support

The importance of extended family has already been briefly considered in Section 4.1.1, where staying behind to strengthen relationships with extended family was identified as a positive aspect of contemporary global mobility. The significance of familial support becomes apparent when one takes into account that *every* partner mentioned the impact their access to extended family had on their ability to cope with staying behind. Three quarters of the partners discussed the role their extended family plays when the traveller is away. Some discussed the support in general terms:

I need the extra support. I need that extra pair of hands. And with [work] and with three children, you need to have another pair of hands. Mum and [the traveller] do this “tag, you’re it” thing. Mum’s always like, when [the traveller] comes home she’s like “Oh tag, you’re it!” [laughter]. (Sonia)

Others discuss the support in terms of the logistical support family can provide:

Dad helps me. He lives [approximately half an hour away], and he will come and I don't know, take them to sailing or something when I just can't physically be in two places at once. (Kris)

The remaining participants, those who are currently geographically isolated from their extended family, lamented their situation:

It would be easier if we lived [in my home country], for me. I mean if we lived close enough then I could actually have someone nearby. (Kerry)

It's harder because you know you were on your own for a month at a time with little kids, and I don't have any family support as such in [home town], so yes I found that quite hard. (Joss)

The lengths families will go to enable support from their extended family, and how various demands, such as the partner's career, affect the salience of extended family support, became apparent during the interviews. It appears that families are willing to relocate so as to be close to extended family, even when this increases the travel demands placed upon the sailor. For example, both Kris and Paulette's families returned to New Zealand from European bases, which were proximate to the travellers' primary place(s) of work, to be close to extended family:

Life with children is a little bit different. You have got family who want to see grandchildren. The support is also there [in New Zealand], with family. (Paulette)

We came back to New Zealand. We came back because...we just wanted the kids to grow up as Kiwi kids, and especially at the age they were, I wanted to be close to family. In Spain, Sunday is family day and it's very hard being alone there with the kids. (Kris)

The recognition of the importance of family support is also reflected in a desire to improve access to extended family. Anna and her husband made the decision to purchase a large rural property with two dwellings so that her mother could help with their four children when the traveller was away:

They go down there uninvited [to the grandparent's house], and it is very easy to bring Mum up if I think the others might need a sleep if I have some training with the older girls, I will say to Mum, can you just come up for an hour, which is easier than taking four kids to a training run in town. (Anna)

Second phase participant Jasmine and her husband built a guest room during a recent renovation, specifically so that her retired parents come and support her when the traveller is away. It appears those living with global mobility are willing to take significant steps to facilitate easy access to extended family, even when this has the potential to increase the work travel demands placed upon the globally mobile individual.

The second factor identified by participants as relevant when considering access to extended family is the work-related demands of the partner who stays behind and how familial support is important as it serves to support their career. Sonia has undertaken an entrepreneurial endeavour that required significant investment in land. One of the reasons she and the traveller purchased a particular parcel of land was because of its proximity to Sonia's mother:

We looked for land for sort of maybe three years...but, the right property had to come up. It had to be near Mum. This lifestyle that we lead, this farm life, I need an extra pair of hands. So I need to be able to call people last minute, family, I won't call other people, I'll call family and say "Hey, all the horses are running up the road, I'm absolutely freaking out, can you come around?" (Sonia)

The availability of family support is also important for those whose employment takes them away from the home:

The one thing I do to enable me to work is I use the grandparents a bit. So [the traveller's] Mum will come in the mornings to get the girls off, so that I can just get into that traffic a little bit earlier. (Sharon)

There were those who recognised they were unable to sustain the demands of paid employment whilst living with contemporary global mobility without the support of extended family.

Because I wasn't living in New Zealand, I didn't have family support, and so with small children somebody had to be with them, and if he wasn't going to be there then it had to be me...I do know that if we had been in New Zealand and I could have relied on his family and my family and then we would have made it work with me working as well. (Jane)

The impact on their career when geographically isolated from extended family support was also recognised by second phase participants, including Linda who lives a one-hour flight away from her family and on the opposite side of the world from the traveller's family:

I feel it makes a difference if you had family right there, and they were available. I know other people and I'm like "Oh, you've started work, great, what are you going to do for school holidays?" And they're like "Oh I didn't even think about it" and I'm like "Really? That's all I think about". (Linda – 2nd phase participant)

The career of the partner who stays behind will be examined in more detail in Chapter 5.

Well-Intentioned but Uninformed Local Support Networks

Local support offered by those who are not living with the demands of contemporary global mobility has been described as "uninformed" (Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004, p. 662) and unable to meet the needs of the families who stay behind "simply because of a lack of knowledge or experience" (Andres, 2014, p. 27). The primary reason given for this is around the availability of support during the weekends:

I do need more of a support network, but everyone I know is a couple with a family, and so I'm left on the weekends like a single Mum but I don't have any single Mum

friends who are also looking for something to do and I don't want to horn in on someone else's family time, being like the sad lonely singleton, so it's a hard one.

(Kerry)

I think for me the weekends were the hardest. Because during week, you know, you've got your activities and you know you'll see people and stuff like that, but in the weekends more people have their family time. (Joss)

The weekends are also a problematic time for the second phase participants:

The weekends, that's when everyone else has their family time, it's when I wanted to actually go and spend time with other people and they were busy doing their family things. (Lesley – 2nd phase participant)

While it would seem logical to assume that it is those who live with the longer separations inherent in short-term assignments who spend a greater number of weekends alone, the cyclical and scheduled nature of some commuting roles can mean much of the traveller's time at home is actually during weekdays:

He is probably home somewhere between 14 to 16 days a month but he only has 1 weekend, Saturday and Sunday, a month, off. So we have 12 weekends a year.

(Jasmine – 2nd phase participant)

The wifenet

If local support is uninformed, and unable to understand the additional demands placed on the families, then those who are in a similar position to the partners have the potential to provide the most relevant and empathetic support. Adopting the lexicon of traditional expatriate literature, the third potential source of support for the partners comes in the form of the empathetic wifenet (Copeland & Norell, 2002). Over three quarters of the partners recognised the support they received from their empathetic wifenet of supporters who are

also living with contemporary global mobility. It seems however, that there needs to be consolidation of “wives” in order to be useful support. Those who recognised the support of the wifenet were primarily residing in cities considered to be sailing hubs - Auckland, San Francisco, and Stockholm.

The wifenet differed from other forms of support, providing an empathetic perspective as embodied in the following quotation:

These other woman, they just 'get it' you know, so I don't have to explain *anything*, and we all get it, we all know. (Kate)

The participants identified three particular components of the wifenet that made them invaluable. First, the wifenet understands the importance of having support during the weekends:

In New Zealand, I have the kind of support who understood my situation. Like [a partner from the yachting fraternity] used to call me every Sunday, [and say] come out. Sunday's the worst day. Sundays are hard when people are out and about with their family. (Belinda)

What I find in the weekends is that friends of mine who aren't in the sailing world, that's their family time, so if you're sort of seeing them, you feel like a bit of a third wheel, even though you do, but so I'll always see what other sailing girls are around for weekends if [the traveller] is away. (Kayla)

An extension of this finding is that the wifenet also understands the need to stand aside when the traveller is at home and yet be ready to step back up once they have gone again:

Because I think people know I'm on my own so they invite, you know, and then I think they know the same, when he comes back, they just, you know, maybe let us just be a family. (Sam)

So when he's home we're happy being just us, but then when he leaves all of a sudden I need that support network back. (Kerry)

The second characteristic of those who may form part of a partners' wifenet is that they are non-judgemental and understand the reality of the situation:

I think there is a perception probably with sailing that it might be a bit glamorous, and [laughter] so venting to someone who doesn't understand that it can be difficult, you might end up sounding a bit spoilt. (Stephanie)

The other school mums and my work friends don't understand my situation. I think some of them look at me and think I lead the 'life of Riley' and think that's it's easy [they say] "Oh God I'd be rapt if my husband was gone for a couple of weeks" And I don't know if they mean it, or if it's tongue in cheek, I actually think some of them mean it. (Michelle)

The final factor that differentiates the wifenet from less informed local support is their understanding of what is helpful and what may be more of a hindrance. An example of helpful support is a shared meal in a comfortable environment with companionship for both the children and the partner:

We have one other Kiwi/Swedish family, he travels quite a lot...and we have, you know, Tuesday dinner together...They have two kids as well, so, we have a little group of friends that kind of lives the same life. (Stacey)

I have got [partner from sailing fraternity] who is a great friend, you know, she will often come over with her kids when [the traveller] is away, they will stay the night, we can have a few drinks, some dinner, and that is a good emotional support too. (Kris)

Conversely, there are those without the experience of living with contemporary global mobility who offer advice that can be considered unhelpful, undermining their support:

No one else understands. I've had girlfriends who are like "well just tell him to leave his job, just tell him to quit". And you know you keep getting the "well if you don't like it change it". And it's like well, yes. So it's very hard to vent. (Claire)

The significance of having an empathetic wifenet was also identified by the second phase participants. Jasmine, in particular, was particularly cognisant of the difference this could make, so much so that their family had made a conscious choice to relocate to a fairly small semi-rural community where a significant number of inhabitants (around 70 in Jasmine's estimation) all work in the same industry as Jasmine's husband. This enclave provides Jasmine with an established empathetic wifenet:

So it's like Saturday afternoon [a wifenet partner] will say "What are you doing?" And it's like "My husband's off to work in 20 minutes, bring your kids around." And then over summer we have get togethers either with husbands or without husbands but you have somebody who understands when you say "Look, [the traveller] has just got home" or "I'm home by myself for the weekend" so that makes quite a difference having people you can meet up with, and people you can complain about shifts to". (Jasmine – 2nd phase participant)

Jasmine's description encapsulates the three factors this study has identified as characteristics of an empathetic wifenet - those able to adopt the viewpoint of others and provide them with timely, non-judgemental and helpful support. The enclave where Jasmine's family now live is a fairly unique situation, one potentially worthy of future research.

A final point with regard to the wifenet is that there may be those who are new to the lifestyle, or who have relocated, and therefore have not connected with an empathetic

wifenet. During the interviews, one of the partners discussed an experience she had where an online community was established by a member of the yachting fraternity to connect the partners involved in a particular team:

The last America's Cup, the girls within the team were just such a cool group of girls and we all actually got on really well. And we sort created that ourselves if you like...it was led by one girl who started up a web site and we joined it and then we could post on it...And this was all self-initiated... we've created that culture ourselves, so the team culture was really positive. (Kayla)

4.5.2.3 Support for the Children

The importance of stability for children, in terms of establishing relationships with extended family and facilitating socialisation with their peers, was highlighted in Section 4.1.1 as a positive of staying behind. These relationships with extended family and friends are also very important in that they provide support for the children who may be missing the traveller (refer Section 4.3.2.1), while having to cope with the disruption engendered by the recurring departures and repetitive repatriations (refer Section 4.2). The following discussion considers two forms of support available to the children, their extended family and their peers.

Extended Family Support of the Children

The extended family appears to take on three principal roles in relation to their support of the children, the first of these being to provide them with additional emotional support. Children recognised that they spent more time with their extended family when the traveller was away:

We would come over here more [interview taking place in maternal grandmother's house] and I remember we lived literally down the road, so I would walk down here. (Mabel, 16)

We see our Aunties a little more [when the traveller is away]. (Stacey, 7)

While the children do not specifically articulate an understanding that their grandparents, or aunts and uncles, are providing them with emotional support, it would seem reasonable to assume that this is one of the reasons why they are spending more time with those whom they share a kin-like caring relationship.

The second form of support that the extended family affords the children is access to additional companionship in the form of their cousins or similar kin. This contact is facilitated by the partner:

My brother and his wife are [local] and they are really good. I spend quite a bit of time with them if [the traveller] is away...their little boy is 4 months older than Harry so they are good little buddies. (Kayla)

It is also a situation recognised by the children, as illustrated by the following response to the question - what changes when the traveller is away?

We also go to my cousin's house or the park by my cousin's house. (Molly, 7)

Or the sailing club by my cousin's house. (Mike, 5)

Yes. We also went to mini golf, when Dad was away, with the cousins. (Molly, 7)

While cousins and similar kin cannot provide the empathetic support provided by siblings, spending time with extended family could be seen as an extension of the scheduling of fun family activities previously identified as a coping strategy adopted by partners.

Finally, the extended family may provide gender-specific role models, as temporary substitutes for the traveller. As discussed earlier, there are those partners who recognise the need for a male role model for their sons when their father is absent. While some employ male caregivers, or place their sons in sporting teams with male coaches, the primary alternate male role model is a grandfather:

I do make an effort to get my Dad to spend time with them. And he sees that, and every time [the traveller] is away he says “so when can I pick the boys up from school or do something?” (Kris)

The impact of gender specific role models has not previously been identified in the context of contemporary global mobility, and although outside the scope of the current study, it is an area that warrants further attention.

Peer Support for the Children

Living on a military base provides the children of service men and women with empathetic peers who appreciate the stress associated with cycles of deployment. However, the children participants in this study do not live such contrived environments. Furthermore, it would appear that even when they do have peers who are living similar lifestyles (for example, the children of their mother’s empathetic wifenet), they do not seek their support. This can be seen in the following extracts from interviews with two girls of the same age whose mothers are part of each other’s empathetic wifenet. (The relationship between the mothers is known because Isla’s mother was a snowballed participant originally identified by Molly’s mother):

Do any of your friends have Dads who go away for work? (Interviewer)

Yes, Molly and Mike. (Isla, 7)

And do you ever talk to Molly about what it's like to have to have a Dad who goes away? (Interviewer)

No. (Isla, 7)

Do you know anybody whose Dad goes away for work like yours? (Interviewer)

Isla and Wade’s Dad. (Molly, 7)

Do you guys talk about that when you have play dates? (Interviewer)

No. (Molly, 7)

It would appear that living with contemporary global mobility does not create a significant symbiotic support relationship between the children from the yachting fraternity.

The other potential support available to children is their school friends. As discussed earlier, the prospect of a stable peer support network is seen as a key positive manifestation of staying behind. Whether this stable group of peers provides support elicited specifically in relation to the challenges of living with contemporary global mobility has not previously been considered. A number of the children confirmed they talked about the traveller with their friend, but this does not appear to be with the goal of seeking support but simply sharing information:

I mean, they [her friends] know that my Dad travels a lot, and then, when I bring them home they are like “where is your Dad?” and I'm like “Yeah, he's in like China!”

They think it's kind of cool. And kind of weird. I think they think it's a bit weird. But that's it. (Gina, 12)

Two of the oldest child participants alluded to how the absences are a routine and regular aspect of their lives not warranting discussion:

I don't really remember talking to my friends about it. I just didn't think it was worth talking about. (Lacey, 18)

I have had the same solid group of friends for almost a decade now actually, so they all are very familiar with my Dad and what he does. I don't usually complain about it, I don't know, I think it has just always been the way it's been, so I never notice any impact because it probably has just always been that way, it's just how my life has been. (Jackie, 18)

It appears there is an element of normalisation of the separations for children, and consequentially they do not seek support from their peers to help them adjust to living with contemporary global mobility.

4.5.3 Discussion

There are three forms of support that families can potentially draw on to buffer the demands placed upon them by contemporary global mobility. The first of these is organisational support, which was lacking for the stay-at-home partner. These findings resonate with previous research (e.g. Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Suutari et al., 2013; Torkington et al., 2011) as support continues to be reserved for those undertaking traditional expatriate assignments (C. Baker & Ciuk, 2015). This current study extends this finding, to provide an understanding of why there is this lack of support.

Literature suggests that organisations have only a limited understanding of the ramifications of contemporary global mobility from the perspective of the family (Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Suutari et al., 2013), which in turn restricts their ability to initiate relevant support mechanisms. While improving organisation's understanding of the impact of adopting contemporary forms of global mobility is high on the academic and practitioner agenda (Bonache et al., 2007; Collings et al., 2007; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Faulconbridge, Beaverstock, Derudder, & Witlox, 2009; Kraimer et al., 2014; McEvoy & Buller, 2013; Näsholm, 2009; Suutari et al., 2012), organisations also need to take a proactive approach to implementing supportive policies. Despite the plethora of research available regarding the familial impact of traditional expatriation, dating back to the seminal work of Black and Stevens (1989), and continuing today (e.g. Lazarova, McNulty, & Semeniuk, 2015; McNulty et al., 2015; van Erp, van der Zee, Giebels, & van Duijn, 2014; Wiese, 2013), the "implementation gap remains between work-family research and practical

impact” (Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011, p. 353). An exemplar of this gap is that while organisations claim they provide the required support for the traditional expatriate family (Ali, Van der Zee, & Sanders, 2003), the perception endures that organisational support is lacking (Cole, 2011; Gupta et al., 2012; Hutchings, 2005; Kupka & Cathro, 2007). The same sentiment is echoed here, with both the partner and the children noting the lack of support for them.

What is apparent though, and a contribution from this research, is that organisational culture and even the culture of different countries may be a factor of this lack of support. While the development of a comprehensive understanding of cross-cultural differences is beyond the scope of the current study, it is noteworthy that individualism and collectivism as cultural dimensions have previously been identified as affecting the work family interface (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009; Raghuram, London, & Larsen, 2001; Shortland & Cummins, 2007), with the consensus being that “members of collectivist cultures may display greater concern for the quality of their work–family interface than members of individualist cultures” (Powell et al., 2009, p. 601). While the majority of European countries are still considered more individualistic than collectivist (Minkov & Hofstede, 2013), the United States is ranked number one on the individualism index (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p. 78) and this potentially provides some explanation as to the different levels of support experienced by the partners. Some of the partners felt more supported by the European organisations than the more individualistic American organisations. There are a number of outstanding calls from within academia to understand how cultural influences shape organisational support (Jahn, Thompson, & Kopelman, 2003; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011) and it appears that future research within the context of contemporary global mobility has the potential to contribute to the conversation.

The partners' unwillingness to seek assistance from the organisation may also be contributing to the overall lack of organisational support. Further, this research finds that there is a separation of the organisation from the family. While the lack of support has been noted in the expatriate literature, the difference here is that the family is both physically and psychologically separated – that is, the family is physically situated in another location and there is no real relationship between the family and the organisation.

The partners did recognise, however, that travel was just part of the job for the professional sailor, and, particularly for those who formed the romantic relationship with their partner when he was sailing internationally, there was an acceptance that this was the way it was going to be. The reality is that in today's globalised economy, work related mobility is considered integral to many roles (Shaffer et al., 2012; Welch et al., 2007). It may be required for career development (Gustafson, 2014), and there may be organisational pressure to accept mobility (Lassen, 2009; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Tharenou, 2005). The partners apparent accepting attitude towards the ongoing travel, and the disparaging way Kris describes those who do protest, perhaps indicates a belief that their a priori knowledge precludes them from seeking organisational support. However, this finding does not mean support is not warranted. When joining the military, it appears reasonable to assume there would be an a priori expectation of travel and yet formal support has been proven necessary (e.g. Andres & Moelker, 2011; Bellou & Gkousgkounis, 2015; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014) and beneficial (e.g. Bowles et al., 2015; Houston et al., 2013; Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012). It should be noted that while the military is implicitly a more stressful situation than other contexts (Dimiceli et al., 2010; Kazakos et al., 2013, February), the parallels that do exist between the military and other forms of global mobility make the findings transferable (Andres, 2014; Andres & Moelker, 2011; Wu, 2013).

In keeping with this attitude of the partners, it is not surprising that they struggled to find ways in which the organisation could become more inclusive. Their suggestions, however, from personal experience and not from a reading of the literature, closely reflect the research on the support the military gives to partners, engendering feelings of inclusion (Andres, 2014; Blasko, 2015; Richardson, Mallette, O'Neal, & Mancini, 2016) effectively encouraging a positive attitude towards the organisation (Bellou & Gkousgkounis, 2015). A central contact point was another key factor suggested, and one which again has been recognised in the military literature (Huebner, Mancini, Bowen, & Orthner, 2009). The need for organisations to improve their information pipelines to the families is a common theme in the general global mobility context (Lin, Lu, & Lin, 2012; Taylor & Simmonds, 2009). Instrumental support such as assistance with childcare and general tasks was the final suggestion. Based on military literature, it would appear organisations have the potential to improve the ability of the family to adjust. A meta-analysis conducted by Butts, Casper, and Yang (2013) suggests offering a smorgasbord of family supportive policies to meet diverse family needs, which is consistent with the opinion of Anna who stated that “in the ideal world you would let the families choose what they needed”. The significance of this finding is that if the families understand that the levels of support can vary significantly between different organisations, this has the potential to influence subsequent employment-related decisions (Butts et al., 2013; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Kossek, Baltes, et al., 2011). Organisations may wish to incorporate this new knowledge when developing their approach to dealing with the growing global talent crisis.

Despite recognising the need for assistance to manage in the absence of the traveller, the partners were reluctant to ask for help from friends and family, even when it was offered. Part of the reason for this is the inability of the partner to reciprocate the favour. While support that can be reciprocated has previously been identified as the most useful form of

support (Rossetto, 2015), an inability to reciprocate has not previously been recognised as a deterrent to accepting support when it is offered. Further, some of the partners in this study were concerned to ensure that one parent was always available, and if the traveller was away, then this meant that the partner had to be with the children. “Tag-team” parenting is a construct used by those who engage in desynchronised nonstandard work schedules in able to ensure that one parent is always present (Taht & Mills, 2012, p. 123), but it would appear that the importance of having a parent present may be amplified in the context of contemporary global mobility, where for much of the time, only one parent is physically available. This places extra pressure and further demands on the partner.

Support from extended family is the second, and arguably most salient, resource available to those living with contemporary global mobility. *Every* partner interviewed either acknowledged the significant support they received from their extended family, or lamented the lack of support due to their geographic separation. The value of having access to extended family has been previously identified (Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012; Lirio et al., 2014; Nicholas & McDowall, 2012; Whalen & Schmidt, 2016), and the participants here serve to reify the importance of support from extended family when living with contemporary global mobility. While military families have been known to base themselves closer to extended family during deployment (Paley et al., 2013), what is apparent in this study, are the proactive ways in which the families enabled interaction with extended families, buying bigger properties, or building additional rooms to accommodate them.

Literature suggests that local support networks are not considered as supportive as those who are in similar situations (Andres, 2014; Demel & Mayrhofer, 2010; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004) and this resonates with almost half of the interviewees. The primary reason given for this is the availability of support during the weekends, a time that has been identified as particularly difficult for those who stay behind (Espino et al., 2002). Previous

research undertaken from the perspective of the traveller has highlighted the importance they place on flexible rosters and having control over their travel to minimise weekend absences (C. Baker & Ciuk, 2015; Margolis, 2012; Wickham & Vecchi, 2009). Adding the voice of partners to this conversation serves to highlight to organisations how pivotal the work resource of flexibility is to the family's ability to meet the demands of living with contemporary global mobility.

The wifenet was important to the participants, providing much needed empathy, but this was only available in sailing hubs, where an aggregation of partners was possible. The importance of the wifenet is that they can relate to each other's experiences (Rossetto, 2015), forming the basis of stronger relationships (Wheeler & Stone, 2009). Where this study makes a particular contribution to the literature is that the participants clearly distinguish the three factors that exemplify the empathetic perspective of the wifenet as opposed to the best intentions of the uninformed local support network. First, the inclusion of the partners' perspective in this research has revealed the difficulty of being alone at the weekends when the traveller is away, a time when families are usually together. Second, the common understanding of life without the traveller provides a buffer from those who think that the life of the expatriate is glamorous and privileged (Cherry, 2010), without understanding the reality of the situation. Third, this study highlights the importance of having support who understands what is helpful and what is not. The wifenet therefore provides timely, non-judgemental and helpful assistance to the partners who are coping alone. The opportunity to build this wifenet support through social media is a new development, which could serve to link partners in different parts of the world, and, if co-ordinated by the organisation, is a resource which could assist families adjust to living with contemporary global mobility.

The children of the globally mobile families have not often had the opportunity to have their views on the support they receive or need recorded in previous research. The findings

suggest that they do not specifically seek the support of their peers, empathetic or otherwise. While they may enjoy the extra time with the extended family, and even recognise that there is more of this time when the traveller is away, their lives largely go on as usual. The partners have created an element of normalisation of the separations for children, and consequentially they do not seek support from their peers to help them adjust to living with contemporary global mobility. While empathetic peer support that is available for military children living on base has repeatedly been shown to be beneficial during deployments (Andres & Moelker, 2011; Baptist et al., 2015; Easterbrooks et al., 2013; Mmari et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 2011), such a situation does not exist here. One reason for this difference might be the potential finality of the departure for those military heading to war.

4.6 Communication

The final theme discusses how modern technology allows the traveller to support the family during their absences. Prior to discussing the various communication platforms employed the families, there is one final pertinent demand placed on the family that has yet to be addressed; the loneliness that can be experienced by partners who stay behind.

4.6.1 When the Partner Misses the Traveller

It is not only children who miss the traveller, but also partners report experiencing loneliness:

We cope, I think it is just something because you set your mind to that this is how long they are going away for...It wears you down by the end of the trip, and you just want to have someone around. (Paulette)

I mean it's not just the lack of adult company; it's that I want *his* company. (Kerry)

Temporality could be expected to impact the intensity of the loneliness, and consistent with the partners' previously discussed preference for shorter absences when parenting alone, there appears to be a tipping point when the separations are too long:

Two and a half months was a long time. Yes. I wouldn't recommend that for anyone.

(Belinda)

Sometimes it's too long...6 weeks is pushing it...6 weeks is beginning to push it and

I'm like "when is he getting back, please god". (Mandy)

Modern communication tools allow the traveller to stay in contact, support the partner, and perhaps alleviate some of the loneliness. How the families as a whole utilise contemporary communication platforms to meet the demands of contemporary global mobility is the main focus of this theme.

4.6.2 Advancements in Communication

At the turn of the century, the absence of regular communication during separations was the most significant issue for the families who stayed behind (Espino et al., 2002). Today, through the universal proliferation of reliable internet, regular contact is both affordable and accessible (Houston et al., 2013; Margolis, 2012; Whalen & Schmidt, 2016). This change has been witnessed by those who have been staying behind since that time:

I remember back during [a Round the World Race in 1997] sending a fax [laughter]!

And now I don't have a fax machine, I wouldn't know how to send a fax. Who needs faxes these days? (Paulette)

You know it's so different now. When [the traveller] and I were first going out, because he's travelled forever...we would communicate by fax [laughter]. Whereas now we've got Skype, you can communicate every day. (Sharon)

The facsimile machine has been replaced by a plethora of communication options:

Well, I think now that communication is so much better. I'm just in touch with [the traveller] so much more. Text, email, face-time, and so it's just better. (Michelle)

Table 6 represents how sailing families utilise modern-day communication platforms when the traveller is away. When the partner and the children have the same communication preference they are recorded as a ‘family’, where their preferences diverge they are recorded separately.

Table 6: Communication Practices of the Partners and Children who Stay Behind

Frequency	Daily	Less Frequent	Infrequent
Synchronous			
Phone	3 Families 2 Partners	3 Families 4 Partners	1 Family 6 Children / Groups of siblings
Video-Mediated	4 Families	2 Families	2 Families
Asynchronous			
SMS	7 Partners 2 Children	1 Partner 7 Children	2 Children
Email	5 Partners	5 Partners 2 Children	3 Children
Other Apps	1 Family	1 Family	

4.6.3 Synchronous Communication

Synchronised communication falls into two categories: audio and video-mediated. The following sections discuss how families utilise each of these forms to varying degrees of success, and the primary pitfalls they encounter.

4.6.3.1 Audio Only (Telephone) Communication

The following extract is from the interview with Anna’s children, who talk to the traveller daily, unless he is at sea. They are one of the 13 families where audio communication is the preferred platform. They use their mother’s mobile phone, and her car’s blue tooth technology, to carry on a group conversation with their father as they are being ferried home from school and/or to extra-curricular activities:

So pretty much when he is on land, then you would talk to him daily?

Yes. (Alice, 14, Laura, 12, Faith, 9)

He [the traveller] normally calls Mum in the car and it's like blue tooth it goes through the stereo, and he can hear everyone on the car. (Laura, 12)

And we all talk to him. (Faith, 9)

We can have a big conversation. (Laura, 12)

And what do you tell him about when you talk to him? (Interviewer)

What happened in the day. (Aaron, 8)

He would normally ask "how was school"? (Faith, 9)

And like last week Alice had hockey trials so we spoke to him about that. (Laura, 12)

So it's just really almost like he's here? (Interviewer)

Yes. (Alice, 14, Laura, 12)

4.6.3.2 Video-Mediated Communication

Video-mediated communication was identified by eight of the families as their preferred synchronised platform. Their preference stems from the partner's belief that their children are more engaged when they can see the traveller. This is true irrespective of the age of the children:

We have tried talking on the phone, but with a just turned 4-year-old, it doesn't have the same impact, he is not really interested. Whereas if he's got Skype or something he can see his Dad so he will actually communicate a lot better. (Stephanie – Mother of two pre-schoolers)

The kids were able to maintain a much closer relationship with [the traveller] using technology that supported face-to-face. They became disinterested in speaking on the

phone as they got older; it seemed to be a chore and took a lot of my energy to get them to speak with him. Using Skype and FaceTime they would laugh, joke around and have longer conversations. They would be able to see where their Dad was and were much more engaged in the conversation. (Dee – Mother of two teenagers)

A number of the children reiterated the importance of being able to see the traveller, even for the 11 month old infant sibling of one of the interviewees:

Do you like to talk to him on Skype or the telephone? (Interviewer)

Skype, because I like seeing his face a lot. (Gloria, 6)

So it makes it easier to talk to him does it? (Interviewer)

Yes...and Mummy sits Adele (11 months) on her lap and she just, the whole time, she will go 'Dadda' 'Dadda'. (Gloria, 6)

So she recognises Dad then when she sees him on the computer? (Interviewer)

Yes. (Gloria, 6)

Is it better on the computer or on the phone? (Interviewer)

It's better on the computer so I can see Dad's picture. (Owen, 7)

The frequent users of video-mediated communication employ the technology in a variety of innovative ways:

Well we Skype, pretty much every day, or every second day. That has made things so much easier. You know the boys bring pictures up, or work they have done at school, and can show him. And you know you can go outside and they are playing cricket in the back yard and he can be watching them, and they can be showing off their new bowling. (Kris)

Tony (2) will actually be the longest to chat because I will put it [the computer] in front of him while he is playing with play dough and he will end up talking. You know that whole concept of if they don't love something they are eating you put them in front of the television so their concentration is on the television, well this is the same. The concentration might be on the play dough but the chat will just happen, subconscious I guess. (Elizabeth)

One of the second phase participants described how they use of Face-Time on portable iPads most nights:

Each of the kids takes their father to their bedroom and shuts the door so they get some private time. It really is like he is there. He reads bedtime stories and I often hear giggling, just like when he really is in the room. (Roseanne – 2nd phase participant)

4.6.3.3 The Challenges of Synchronous Communication

A small number of the partners in the current study reported their children's reticence to break away from what they are doing to talk to the traveller:

He [the traveller] phones almost every day. And very often they are not so interested in speaking to him on the phone, they are busy with their things, they are in their own world. (Carol)

Harry will talk to him [the traveller] but he's not at age yet where he's that fussed. If Harry's busy playing he'll just be 'No, I don't want to talk to Dad' And poor [the traveller] will be like "Oh really?" [laughter]. (Kayla)

The challenges arising from the traveller wanting to communicate at inconvenient times were far more widely reported. Problems emanating from time-zone differences were identified by

almost half of the partners, a number of the older children, and every second phase participant:

It depends what the time zone is. Because when it's what it is now, we're getting ready for school, he's got time to talk but we don't. (Bree)

Even now sometimes, I look at the phone and go "oh, it's [the traveller]"... and it's not that I don't want to talk it is just that it's not the right time to talk. (Kate)

The issue can be exacerbated when it is perceived the traveller may be enjoying their family free time, a situation that resonates with the previous discussion around resentment:

It's really hard with the time difference, you know he calls in the morning and we are on the way to school and he is in the pub and that's just, you know, so, no [we don't talk], not a lot. (Stacey)

A number of the older children also identified the impact of living in different time-zones when asked if they talked to the traveller, either over the phone or video-mediated communication:

Yes, occasionally, but not very much, because he's always busy and then the time difference and everything. [We talk] once every two weeks, or once a month. Not very often. (Lacey, 18)

Probably not as much as other people would think... the time difference is probably the most difficult factor. (Jackie, 18)

For some families the combined challenges prove too great and their synchronous contact with the traveller becomes infrequent:

I can go for a whole week without hearing from or talking to [the traveller] (Claire)

We try to talk like twice a week. But it's a disaster. You get on Skype and the kids start seeing his picture, you know, act up. So how often do we talk? Not a lot.

(Belinda)

A final point with regard to synchronous communication is that irrespective of how adept families are at utilising the platforms, there are still times when the reality of geographic displacement cannot be avoided. An example of this is when the children are misbehaving, as already highlighted by Bree and Kerry when recounting the challenges of parenting alone. As discussed previously with regard to the strategies adopted to deal with behavioural issues, there are those who are rigid in their parenting approach with the partner remaining the primary authoritarian irrespective of whether the traveller is physically present.

4.6.4 Asynchronous Communication

The primary asynchronous communication platforms available to families are SMS messaging and email. There are also a growing number of internet-based applications that support asynchronous communication. How the interviewees utilise each of these platforms will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

4.6.4.1 SMS Messages

SMS messaging is utilised by almost half of the partners to supplement their synchronous communication. The majority of those sending messages do so daily, and it would appear it is the spontaneity, and the speed with which messages can be composed, that is the main attraction:

And you know I'll often text him, even just something trivial that is going on. (Kris)

If I just want to get a quick message through to him, I'll just text him. (Kayla)

Children also send SMS messages, and as per Table 6, it is their preferred form of

spontaneous asynchronous communication:

I think they are just a product of their generation...when they are school they will text, because they can. (Jane)

Gina can have her own conversation going with [the traveller] independent of us. She will do that for sure now. (Carol)

I try to do it, like, every day, but it doesn't really happen every day....I have lots of stuff, like with my figure skating, and then sometimes I bring friends home, and then I just don't really do it. But otherwise when I have time I do. (Gina – Carol's daughter)

SMS messages can also contain PXT files and a number of families described how they attached pictures to the messages, particularly pictures of the children's sports events:

Nate has his own phone, so he might send a picture, if he is at his [ice hockey] game or something and they will talk about it later. (Stacey)

He does miss his Dad at rugby but then often I film it and send him a link, and I'll send loads of photos and then he'll talk to him on the phone about it. (Mandy)

4.6.4.2 Email

Asynchronous email communication circumvents the time zone issues inherent in contemporary global mobility (Graham et al., 2012; Thomas & Bailey, 2009). As described by Kate it allows correspondents to choose when they write the email, and affords them the luxury of lengthy missives if so required:

I email...I have thought about over the years, it is that when they phone there is so much to talk about that you don't really know where to start. So you end up not talking about any of it... And I also find that phoning to, always seems to happen either as I'm rushing out the door to work, or getting the kids, in those days, to school, or

cooking the dinner at night. It was just never convenient, there was never time to just sit down and have a good old natter. So now I email, when it suits me, and most days.

(Kate)

It appears to be a family approach, as Kate's daughter Lacey also uses email to communicate with the traveller:

I email him. Especially if there is something on my mind that I want to talk to him about. (Lacey, 18)

A second phase participant, who is the partner of a FIBT, also composes frequent emails:

I suppose it's just easier when I've got a free moment to just fill him in on what's happening. So he doesn't come home and think "I didn't know that". (Lesley – 2nd phase participant)

4.6.4.3 Modern Internet Apps

There are a small number of families who are moving towards internet-based applications for their asynchronous communication. One example is Stella and her children:

I prefer 'WhatsApp'. You can leave a recorded message, and I just prefer that at the end of the day... and I find you're in a better space than like sometimes I can be a bit rude to [the traveller] when he calls at bed time. But then I can't talk to him later because he's out sailing, so instead I leave a recording, you know "Hi, this is what we did today." That's definitely I think the best way for us to communicate. When it's just recorded, you've actually found a good time for yourself to do it. And Mabel leaves lots of really silly ones "Hi, Daddy, I love you so much". (Stella)

One of the second phase participants and her young children (also 5 and 7) utilise a different application, Voxer, which allows both recorded messages and synchronous communication:

A quick, touch base, what are you up to, how's it been? Sometimes it's just a couple of minutes, because we are just doing a quick message to each other. (Linda – 2nd phase participant)

4.6.5 Discussion

The loneliness experienced by some of the partners is not unique to those from the yachting fraternity, with isolation being identified in previous research spanning the continuum of contemporary global mobility (Dimiceli et al., 2010; Espino et al., 2002; Torkington et al., 2011). While there is no apparent consensus between the partners as to what the temporal tipping point might be where their loneliness becomes unsustainable, it appears reasonable to assume it would be during the longer duration of short-term assignments when loneliness would be at its most acute. The modern-day proliferation of reliable internet and communication platforms affords the traveller the opportunity to provide their partner with companionship, and perhaps to at least momentarily alleviate their loneliness.

Communication can be either synchronous, in the form of audio or video mediated platforms, or asynchronous in the forms of SMS, email or internet based messaging. Each family identified a preference for either audio (phone) contact or video-mediated (Skype or Face-Time) synchronous communication, and the typical frequency with which they utilised the platform. Asynchronous communication appears to be used to supplement the synchronised contact, and is not undertaken by all the families. The time the traveller has been away does not appear to influence the frequency of communication; daily communicators appear to do so irrespective of the length of the separation. These factors indicate the traveller's mode of global mobility does not significantly influence their family's communication.

Audio-only communication, including mobile telephones, is the preferred synchronous platform for 13 out of the 21 families. Anna's family have successfully harnessed technology

to facilitate mobile multi-participant communication at a time that is mutually convenient. Madianou's (2012) research suggests that mobile telephone technology can increase the opportunity for successful synchronous calls, while the opportunity for simultaneous conversations with multiple family members can generate "synergy and generally a more fun experience" (Yarosh & Abowd, 2011, May, p. 5). Anna's family has found a communication solution whereby they are able to avoid the pitfalls of inconvenient calling when the children are otherwise occupied (Andres & Moelker, 2011), and time zone issues inherent in global communication (Graham et al., 2012; Thomas & Bailey, 2009).

Video-mediated synchronous communication is the preferred platform for eight of the participant families, a choice grounded in the partners' belief their children, of all ages, are more engaged if they can actually see the traveller. Psychologists also believe that video-mediated communication has the potential to provide children "a stronger sense of proximity and enjoyment...than audio, suggesting that video is a more appropriate medium to meaningfully connect children to relatives during geographical separation" (Tarasuik et al., 2013, p. 1). From watching games of backyard cricket over Skype to reading bedtime stories over FaceTime, the users of video-mediated communication have developed a number of innovative strategies to fully harness the potential of these modern communication platforms. Just as it has been suggested that military spouses should be taught how to find "innovative ways to help the child connect with the absent parent" (Osofsky & Chartrand, 2013, p. 61), these findings could be used to inform those new to living with contemporary global mobility, irrespective of the industry.

Given the apparent advantages of video mediated communication identified by migrant transnational families (Furukawa & Driessnack, 2013; Judge et al., 2011, May; King-O'Riain, 2015), more families could have been expected to prefer platforms such as Skype and FaceTime, however slightly more families had a preference for audio-only communication (Refer

to Table 6). A predilection for one synchronous platform over another has not previously been considered in the context of contemporary global mobility. The current tendency to favour audio-only communication may be attributed to the previously discussed flexibility of mobile telephones, whereas for many, the use of Skype and Face-Time is restricted to when they are at home. This tendency may change as the cost of data decreases and mobile devices can more affordably be used for video-mediated communication. Communication preferences may also change if this new knowledge is able to inform organisational practice with data packages being offered to the families.

The fundamental challenges of synchronous communication identified by the participants of this study resonate with previous research. Children can be reticent to disrupt what they are already doing to talk to the traveller communication (Andres & Moelker, 2011), and consistent with the findings of Thomas and Bailey (2009), for synchronous communication to be successful it needs “to be fitted into a convenient slot in two very different timeframes” (p. 627). The child participants’ frustration with communication being restricted when living in different time zones is similar to the irritation expressed by the children living in transnational families who have to arrange contact around their the migrant parent’s working hours and the different time zones (Graham et al., 2012). The impact of time-zones on communication from the perspective of the children has not previously been recognised in the context of contemporary global mobility.

Asynchronous communication not only supplements, but in certain situations, can enhance, synchronous contact. While the partners oscillate between SMS messaging and more lengthy email missives, the children strongly favour sending SMS messages. The attraction of SMS messaging for the children may be attributed to their ability to spontaneously and independently contact the traveller, giving them control over the access to absent parent. The

importance of control over their situation has previously been conveyed by the children of commuters (Mauthner et al., 2000).

The use of SMS messaging as a spontaneous supplement to synchronised communication is not new (Yarosh & Abowd, 2011, May), and as identified by migrant families has the potential to improve communication as “texting can create an ambient virtual co-presence in which people have an ongoing awareness of others” (Bacigalupe & Camara, 2012, p. 1428). The contribution of this study is the understanding of how families use the inclusion of PXT pictures of the family’s activities, in particular the children’s sporting endeavours, to stimulate subsequent conversation. They are using SMS messaging not only to supplement, but to augment, their synchronous communication.

A final point to note with regard to the sending of PXT files, in particular the sending of pictures of the children’s sporting endeavours, is that it is around significant events that cannot be rescheduled, such as sports competitions, when the children are most likely to miss the traveller. Therefore SMS technology, with its capacity to create a “shared mutual space” (Bacigalupe & Camara, 2012, p. 1428) may go some way to minimise the angst felt by the children.

The partner’s oscillation between SMS messaging and email appears to depend on the expected length of the missive, and the convenience of being able to choose when they compose the correspondence. The potential benefits email communication have also been recognised by the partners of seafarers (Thomas & Bailey, 2009). However, ethnographic research into Asian transnational families indicates that email has been superseded by newer communication platforms (Madianou, 2012). While, as per the summary table included in Section 4.6.1, this changeover has yet to occur for the families interviewed for this study. There are exceptions, such as Stella and her children. They are infrequent synchronised

communicators, and have found an online platform that resolves the problems they encounter when the traveller tries to make contact at inconvenient times. Their chosen tool, 'WhatsApp', allows the young children (under 7-years-old), who may not yet be able to type an email or compose a SMS, to spontaneously and independently leave messages for their father at a time that is convenient for them.

It is unclear why particular families are early adopters of internet-based communication platforms, it may be they are driven to find an age-appropriate, spontaneous and independent way for their young children to contact the traveller. It may be that they are younger than some of the other participants and are more "digital natives" than "digital immigrants" and therefore use a broader range of internet communication technology than those of an older generation (Chesley, Siibak, & Wajcman, 2013, p. 259). Consistent with previous calls to understand new communication platforms (Madianou, 2012), future research could advance our understanding of how families living with contemporary global mobility successfully harness new technologies.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses the impact of contemporary global mobility on the home life of the families who stay behind, from the perspective of the families, and across the relevant modes of contemporary global mobility. The six themes that emerged from the semi-structured interviews are presented through a combination of verbatim participant comments and tables, followed by descriptive and analytic discussion. The following chapter will focus on the second research question and the impact of contemporary global mobility on the career of the partner who stays behind.

Chapter 5 Findings and Discussion – Career Findings

This chapter is the second of the two findings chapters, focusing on the second research question, exploring the impact of contemporary global mobility on the career of the partner who stays behind. A career may be defined as “the evolving sequence of a person’s work experiences over time” (Arthur et al., 1989, p. 8), and this chapter gives voice to the partners as they describe their continuous career and how it has developed and changed over the period they have been living with contemporary global mobility. As with the previous chapter, the views of all participants are presented as an integrated thematic story, through a combination of verbatim participant comments and tables, followed by descriptive and analytical discussion. Each theme is at first described in the participants’ words, allowing their voices to narrate the theme, followed by a critical analysis of these findings against the extant literature, thus identifying the empirical contributions of the research.

The three themes represent the impact on the partners, from the perspective of the partners, spanning the various modes of contemporary global mobility.

5.1 Career Priority

Dual-careers, where each partner has a “future career orientation and psychological commitment to their work” (Harvey, 1995, p. 226) are increasingly common (Pixley, 2008), leading many to question whether it is possible for both partners to sustain rewarding careers while maintaining a satisfactory work-life balance (Challiol & Mignonac, 2005; Gatrell et al., 2013; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012). The following theme considers whether the career of the globally mobile traveller takes priority over the career of the partner who stays behind.

5.1.1 The Trailing Spouse Experience

The interviewees who took part in the current research were asked to participate because they fitted the criteria as stay-behind partners of contemporary globally mobile travellers.

However, many of them had also, at some point, undertaken the role of the traditional trailing spouse, and their recollections of these periods are noteworthy. The predominant sentiment that emerged was that the relocation decisions were made with little apparent consideration of their own careers:

I did work just before the 2001 Volvo Ocean Race, but then we got a six week call up being asked if [the traveller] could come and do this Volvo...And there was no discussion... [Laughter]... So [the traveller] says to me "I've got a call from [a potential employer], he wants to do this, and *we're* [emphasised] going to be in Newport and *we're* [emphasised] going to be going to here and there". So I know he's trying to pretend that *we're* [emphasised] going to have this discussion about it, but he's already decided. And he could not turn that down, and I wouldn't ask him to either. So that was the end of my job then. (Kate)

The prioritisation of the traveller's sailing career prevailed even when partners had made significant accommodations in an attempt to facilitate dual-careers:

[The traveller] had negotiated a contract and had flown to Sweden and so I had gone to my employers and made a presentation suggesting that I could work at least part-time remotely so when he was in port I could fly and meet him, and I could still be contactable and be able to do my job...what happened was having set all this up, when the traveller got to Sweden he called me and said "I can't do this by myself it's really hard, and it would be really good if you just came, and I'll find you a job in the team"...my response was that I really need to think about that, because I have gone to

a lot of trouble to set up what I considered to be my ideal dream situation and then I was going to have to give that up... I think essentially what I felt then was that if I had chosen to stay, I was choosing to stay over my marriage and I didn't want to do that, so I chose to go and I ended up in Sweden. (Jane)

Finally, for those who were younger when they were presented with the opportunity to relocate, some made the decision to prioritise the traveller's career over their own education:

Well, I met [the traveller] when I was at university, and I was studying a marine science degree... I was signed up for a Master's degree...except he signed up for the Volvo and so I deferred it for a year, because there was the choice of going off around the world, and I got a job working for [a retail organisation selling sponsor clothing]... and then at the end of that I was coming back to do my Master's and he got an America's Cup job...so I put the Master's to the side. (Mandy)

I just wanted to do a degree of some kind. I applied for Architecture school, got in. But it's a full-time 5-year degree. And you have to be living in New Zealand for it ...but then [the traveller] got the call up to go to Valencia, and I decided to go to Valencia instead. (Stella)

Mandy currently manages rental properties owned by her extended family. Stella has recently resigned a part-time office administrator role to embark on an entrepreneurial endeavour. While it is impossible to establish a causal relationship between the choice to forgo tertiary education opportunities and the current employment of the partners, it seems likely that their choices have had some enduring impact.

On the occasions where the decision was made to accompany the traveller, suitable employment often proved difficult to find:

So I didn't work at all when we went to Valencia. Especially with the hours that [the traveller] did, and the language, I wasn't fluent enough, and I didn't have a Visa, so I am sure if I found the right job attached to a team I probably could have, but there were too many issues. (Kris)

As Kris suggests, there are sometimes jobs available within the broader yacht racing industry that are an employment option for the trailing spouses. Almost half of the participants had at some point in time taken such roles, the majority with peripheral support organisations such as those retailing sponsor's clothing, while a small number were able to find employment within the sporting organisations:

Actually it started off as, "Paulette can you fly to London to pick up some part for us and we will put you up in a hotel overnight and come back tomorrow". It grew from there...it was just part-time but it stopped me from being bored. (Paulette)

For approximately one third of the participants, a growing desire to prioritise their own career was a contributing factor in their decision to stop trailing and start staying behind:

I definitely needed something. I had followed [the traveller] around everywhere for his career. Don't get me wrong, I loved every second of it, and I wouldn't change any of it. But I think by the time I got home I was going, well what's for me? I have raised these three kids, I have followed you round the world while you do your career, what am I doing? What am I achieving? I just feel like before I felt that I couldn't work...because I was following [the traveller]. So by choosing to stay behind, I could take control and be able to work after years of not being able to. (Michelle)

5.1.2 Career Hierarchies

The previous chapter discussed in detail the non-work impact on the family when living with contemporary global mobility, including the additional roles and responsibilities borne by the partners who stay behind. It would appear these additional domestic demands can curtail the partners' career options:

My career...[laughter]... I think we both agree, that it would be difficult for our family for me to work full-time... You know, I worked full-time when [the traveller] was working mostly at home, and Blake was really a baby, and we would leave home at quarter to seven, and we wouldn't get home till half past five. So to have two kids and having the sole responsibility for pick-ups and drop off ... that wouldn't work.
(Stephanie)

Over three quarters of the partners indicated they had made sacrifices in their career to enable the traveller's global mobility. While some were like Stephanie, where the prioritisation was the result of a joint decision, for others, there was an apparent presumption that the sailor's career would take precedence:

He just does what he chooses. He just decides. I mean I have had jobs, but looking after three busy children by yourself, you can't. You know, something has got to give, so really, I can't work. I would like to work but the decision process with regards to jobs, he makes the choices, I just go with it. (Claire)

Two of the second phase participants from the greater global mobility community also confirmed their careers have been considered secondary to the travellers:

His career takes priority, that's always been very clear. He doesn't say "well mine's more important" but it always has been. (Catherine – 2nd phase participant)

I'm sacrificing. I mean I already am in terms of career, where I would want to go, I am already sacrificing. (Linda – 2nd phase participant)

It would appear the main impetus for the prioritisation lies in the need for the parent who stays behind to compensate for the absence of the traveller:

When I fell pregnant we discussed work. And we decided that I was going to be a stay-at-home-mum because [the traveller] travels. [We decided] it was important that one of us was a stable figure in our children's lives. (Sonia)

I think that I perhaps, I would have perhaps gone back to doing something else other than just being a mother earlier. But that's where you are over-compensating for him being away...because in Sweden you would go back already at one, you know when your child is one you put them in day care, that's what most people do...but for me I've felt it's important that I'm there for them because [the traveller] is not so much. (Carol)

It appears that actively compensating for the missing traveller is not restricted to those with young children, as this was the reason provided by Michelle for her recent decision to resign from her full-time teaching role:

Well it is because they've already got one parent away. [The traveller's] away and he's not around for them. By me going to work, I'm not there for them then either. I know I haven't left the country, but I'm still over at the school, and they're all back at home in the house. (Michelle)

Michelle's three boys are aged 10, 12 and 16 respectively.

The compulsion to compensate was also evident in a number of career decisions where partners limited their own global mobility. Anna initially became a nurse because she saw

nursing as her passport to travel; this however has had to change to accommodate the traveller's career:

As it is, my career is second, and I haven't got where I would like to have gone...I look back, why I wanted to nurse, it was to travel. I've certainly still got friends who are still doing 3 month contracts up in Australia up in the mines and that sort of thing, but I don't know...I don't want them [the children] worried about me when [the traveller] is gone as well. (Anna)

Kayla also had to change her role after having her son:

When I met [the traveller], I was in a really full-on corporate job myself. I did an Asia-Pacific role, so I travelled all the time as well...So it has changed dramatically since we have had Harry. When I finished my maternity leave, there was just no chance I could go back to that role. So I resigned from my job because, you know, Harry needed a parent. There is no way I would have wanted to leave Harry, so I wanted not to be away from him in that kind of role because [the traveller] was away so much. I just wanted that stability for him... I can't, with [the traveller] away I just can't always be on planes...So yes, that's had a huge impact. So see you later career for a while. (Kayla)

The participants from outside the yachting fraternity agreed that there should only be one traveller within the dual-career partnership:

It is a consideration of who I work for. And the type of role I take. My previous role was one that I was starting to need to travel for, which didn't work, and was one of the reasons I changed roles. Someone needs to be the one at home one, the one who gets called when anything happens. So my career is defined by who I can work for because I can't have a job where I travel, I can't. (Jasmine – 2nd phase participant)

I stopped [working as an air hostess] because then we both would be flying. If [the traveller] was at home maybe we would have considered it, but no. I just felt personally that I didn't want the kids to have two parents who were away, and basically a nanny bringing them up. (Lesley – 2nd phase participant)

5.1.3 Prioritising the Sailors' Career

The interviewees attributed the prioritisation of the sailor's career over their own to two factors – finance and passion. An example of a financially-motivated career prioritisation was when Belinda was offered a full-time role managing an exclusive retail outlet at the same time the traveller was considering a new role that would include a significant amount of commuting from New Zealand to a European base:

They offered me a manager's job. [But] there was no discussion about that, no, not at all. Making \$16 an hour was never going to compete with what [the traveller] was being offered, which at the time was the most money he had ever been offered in his career. So, no, no, no, there was never a discussion about that. But that was really hard for me to turn down. I was really excited and I kind of hoped that that would lead to more. (Belinda)

The passion the sailors have for their career was the second factor highlighted by the partners as influencing whose career would take priority:

These guys are so lucky that their job is their passion in life, and my goodness, there are not many people who can say that. (Kayla)

It's not just a job to him. So, yes, that's why I don't ever hesitate. It's sailing, and it's his passion. Also, previously he did a management job with a sail loft and he was, you know, quite miserable doing that. So, we'd been down that road, and other roads, but

it is definitely nice for him to do something that he really wanted to do and loves doing. (Kate)

Even for Claire who, as previously discussed, does not feel there was any consultation as to whose career should take precedence, acknowledges the traveller's passion and how this influences their situation:

That's why I actually just don't interfere, because he genuinely loves it. So that's why I've got to let him make the decisions. So I guess I'm very tolerant, far too tolerant. (Claire)

There were marginally more references to the significance of the sailors' passion towards their career, over the financial differential, and it would appear where both are acknowledged factors, passion may be more important than pay:

He does it for the love, and he's always said "when I don't love it anymore I won't do it", that's the end of the story. He doesn't do it for the money, he does it because he loves it. I think he would find it really hard to leave. (Kris)

He loves his job. He absolutely loves it. What a way to live your life. Actually enjoying what you're doing. It's not about the money, it's about the sailing. (Sonia)

5.1.4 Discussion

It appears a globally mobile career in a dual-career partnership often requires, and frequently perpetuates, the prioritisation of the career of the traveller over and above the career of their partner. Consistent with the Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz, and Beutell (1989) definition of career prioritisation as the "relative priority of each career...regarding such issues as relocation and accommodation to work demands" (p. 142), the findings

indicate a widespread prioritisation of the international sailors' careers, irrespective of whether the partner relocates or stays behind.

While the focus of this study is the impact of contemporary global mobility, the experiences of many of the interviewees span all modes of global mobility, allowing them to make a contribution to the traditional expatriate literature. The existence of a career priority is implicit in corporate dual-career relocation decisions (Gupta et al., 2012; Käsälä et al., 2015; Mohr & Klein, 2004), however, the findings here are more in line with the explicit deference to the athletes' careers observed in the spouses of NFL and baseball players who repeatedly relocate within North America (Ortiz, 2006). The current research extends the existing sports-related findings to an international context.

When partners from the yachting fraternity do relocate, the barriers to employment are the same as those encountered by corporate trailing spouses. These include language and work-visa issues (Mäkelä, Käsälä, & Suutari, 2011; McNulty, 2012), and the long hours endemic in expatriate postings (Cole, 2011; Shortland & Cummins, 2007). However, the international yacht racing environment appears to offer a potential solution to the career issues faced by trailing spouses. While practitioners have suggested that the accompanying partner may be an unrecognised and unrealised resource for organisations (Worthington, 2008), sailing partners finding employment, either within sailing teams or with peripheral support organisations, appears to be a unique approach. Although performing basic administrative tasks for sailing teams, or selling branded t-shirts to sporting fans, may not contribute to the career capital of the trailing spouse, such roles provide the partners with some financial independence, alongside the potential social benefits of employment (Parkes et al., 2005). Although the career of the sailor remains the priority, the potential for employment may contribute to the trailing partners' adjustment to their new situation (Cole, 2011; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001). Given the acknowledged relationship between spousal and expatriate

adjustment (e.g. J. Black & Stephens, 1989; Palthe, 2004; Seak & Enderwick, 2008), considering such employment opportunities could benefit organisations engaged in traditional accompanied expatriation.

The historic decision by some partners to forgo tertiary education to trail the sailor appears to have had a significant long term impact. Education is a biographic variable that contributes to human capital (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004) and is a predictor of career prospect and career performance (Inkson et al., 2015; Liechti, 2014). That trailing spouses may forgo their own education, as the consequence of prioritising a traveller's career, does not appear to have been previously identified. This may be attributed to the age the sailors' partners were when first offered the opportunity to expatriate, which, consistent with the sporting context, may be younger than the partner of the traditionally studied corporate expatriate. Given the ever-expanding demographic of expatriates (Shaffer et al., 2012; Takeuchi, 2010), understanding the long-term implications of prioritising the expatriates' career over their partners' education could prompt organisations to offer support to partners wishing to pursue their education while living overseas.

Staying behind to enhance one's own career is a reflexive choice for partners living with contemporary global mobility (Gupta et al., 2012; Konopaske et al., 2005), including the partners of international sailors. However, while they may improve their career opportunities by staying-behind, it appears the traveller's career often retains a relative primary position in their dual-career hierarchy, evident in the finding that many of the partners make significant career adaptations to provide their children with a stable environment and to compensate for the absence of the traveller. Reducing one's work responsibilities to care for children is not unique to the current context (Herman, 2015; Mutter & Thorn, 2015, December; Stone, 2007), however, it appears the demands of contemporary global mobility may amplify the need to make career adjustments. This would seem to be the case even when this goes

against the prevailing cultural norm (Beham, Drobnic, & Prag, 2014), as was the situation for Carol and the Swedish expectation that her children should be in childcare by the time they are 1-years-old. While children growing older is expected to engender a more egalitarian approach to dual-careers (T. Allen & Finkelstein, 2014; Becker & Moen, 1999), Michelle's recent decision to resign from a full-time position, even though her children are of an age where they may be considered partially independent, indicates contemporary mobility may extend the timeframe where one partner must make career sacrifices to accommodate the other partner's work demands. Moreover, the enduring prioritisation of the travellers' careers is also evident in the career paths of the partners from the sailing fraternity, and those from the wider global mobility community, who were reticent to incorporate global mobility into their own careers. This contradicts the previous findings of Lirio and colleagues (2014) who suggested staggering international travel could allow dual-career partners to both have globally mobile careers, but they did not explore the views of the wider family members.

The final contribution to the career prioritisation conversation is an enhanced understanding of whose career will be the one to be prioritised in a dual-career partnership. The current findings indicate that the prioritisation of the sailors' careers over their partners can be driven by disparities in their earning capacity. This reifies the importance of relative wage differentials in dual-career decisions, as previously identified in domestic (Shafer, 2011), sporting (Roderick, 2012), and globally mobile (Van der Klis & Mulder, 2008) research contexts. In her study of domestic career prioritisation decisions, Pixley (2008) identifies that the order of career prioritisation significantly predicts subsequent income. This suggests that the constant prioritisation of the traveller's career based on earning disparity, could be self-perpetuating, as the earning capacity of the partner continues to decline each time there is a recurrent decision to prioritise the traveller's career. This finding contributes to both career and contemporary global mobility knowledge. Furthermore, understanding the potential long-

term impact of their career prioritisation decisions on future earning capacity could influence the choices made by dual-career couples.

The foremost reason provided by the partners as to why the sailor's career was perpetually prioritised was passion. It would be reasonable to assume that this may indicate a 'calling', a "consuming, meaningful passion people experience towards a domain" (Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011, p. 1003) but it is an area that requires further future research. One explanation for why the traveller's calling could influence the stay-behind partners downgrading of their own career aspirations is Demerouti and colleagues' (2005) finding that with domestic dual-career partners, when the life satisfaction of the male partner was strong, this positively influenced the life satisfaction of their wives. Perhaps the partners inherently understand that the traveller engaging in a career they feel passionate towards, has the potential to cross-over and impact their own life satisfaction. This assumes having a calling towards one's career not only results in job satisfaction (Duffy, Bott, Allan, Torrey, & Dik, 2012), but may also influence life satisfaction. To fully understand this relationship within the context of contemporary global mobility also requires future research.

5.2 Career Strategies of the Partners who Stay Behind

The career strategies adopted by the partners who stay behind span a continuum, from not working outside the home through to full-time employment. Figure 5 represents the current employment status of the partners, while Figure 6 provides further analysis based on the predominant mode of mobility of the traveller. The findings around each of the potential career strategies form the basis of the following section.

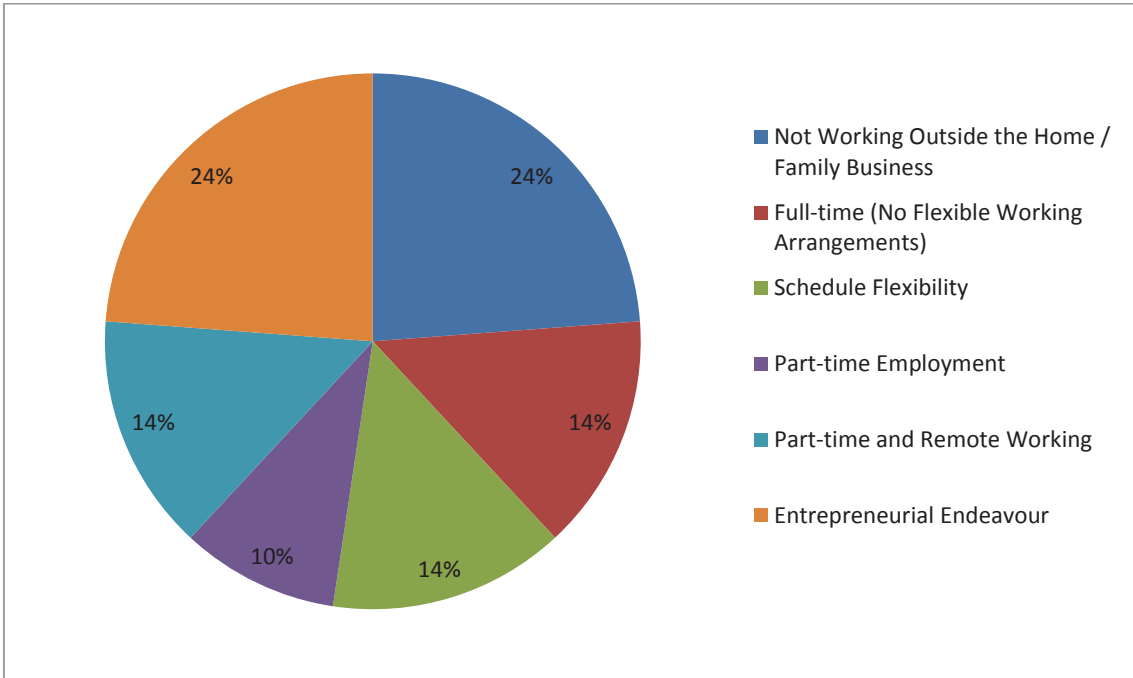


Figure 5: Career Strategies of the Partners who Stay Behind

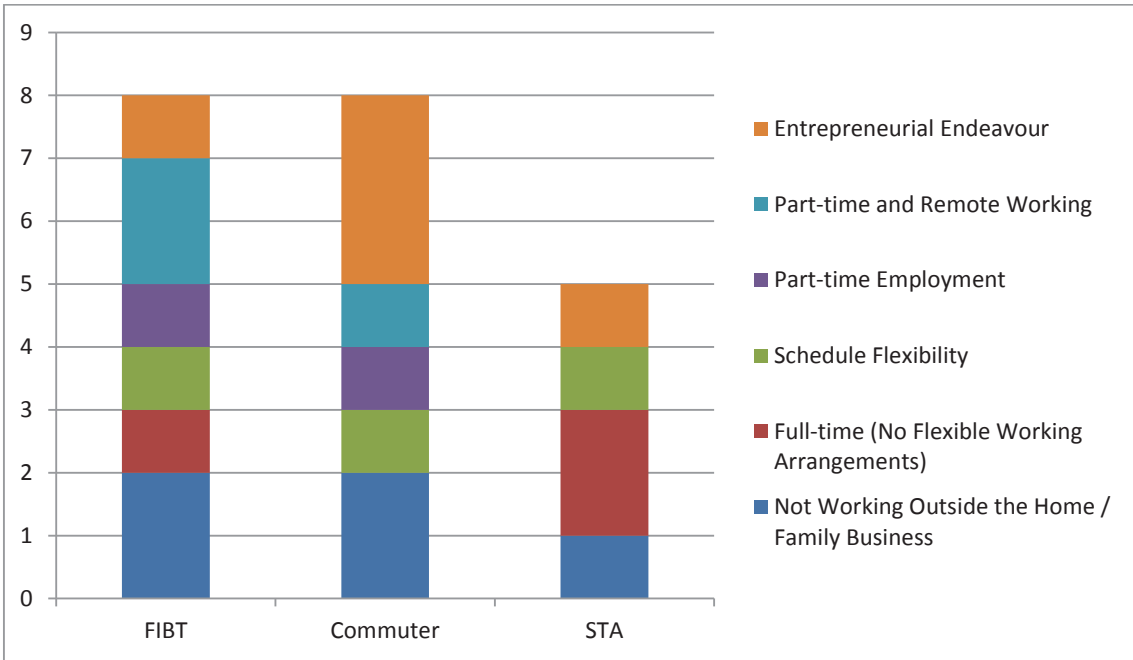


Figure 6: Career Strategies across Modes of Mobility³

³ As per Section 2.2.2.2: Frequent International Business Travel (FIBT) is defined as taking frequent ad hoc trips of between one and three weeks where the travel forms an essential element of one’s role. Commuting entails weekly or otherwise periodic cycles of working at an international base, often to accommodate work-life balance. Short-Term Assignments (STA) are usually greater than three months but less than a year, and are undertaken for a variety of reasons including projects, skill transfer, and problem solving.

5.2.1 Strategies at Either End of the Employment Continuum

There are two divergent career strategies, sitting at either end of the employment continuum, that have been adopted by the partners who stay behind – opting out of paid employment, and engaging in full-time roles without utilising flexible working arrangements.

The five partners who are not currently in paid employment fall into two categories, those who are not engaged in any form of work outside the family home, and those who work in an unpaid role. The partners who have currently opted completely out of the workforce each featured in the previous section as having prioritised the traveller's career, and while they profess a desire to return to the workforce, none of them believe that is currently feasible:

I've tried to work but it was too hard. Every time I've done it it's just been too hard. But I would love to. (Claire)

I don't know. When it comes to my career I'm really not sure what to do. I would really like to work, I really want a career...but as far as what that is, and when is the right time to embark on something, I really don't know. (Belinda)

The participants who have unpaid roles are working in what could be described as their family business. In Mandy's case, this is managing her extended family's property portfolio:

I am kept busy when [the traveller] is away as my family have rental houses so I'm always doing up something, and seeing to them. (Mandy)

In Elizabeth's case, her role is to provide administrative support for the traveller:

And there is a lot of admin involved in our lives...booking tickets and accommodation... I'm just busy. I keep an eye on the news... staying on top of when we transfer our foreign currency earnings across, what we instruct our accountant to

do... I think I save a lot more by keeping an eye on that kind of stuff than I would earn. (Elizabeth)

While Mandy is currently seeking additional employment that will “suit the lifestyle”, Elizabeth believes she wouldn’t “contribute as much if I was actually working for someone else”.

One reason so few of the partners have opted out of the labour force, and that the majority of those who have done so are hopeful of shortly opting back, may be the social support that they receive from their work colleagues:

I feel like my conversations are purposeful with the other adults at work. Once I was teaching whole terms at [local primary school] then I started I started going “OK now I’m reaping rewards”. I think it was being part of a team. (Michelle)

I have great nursing friends I work with, who I have worked with on and off for 10 years. I go in there and get intellectual stimuli, and friendship as well. I don’t go out with them socially as much as I used too though, I’m too busy probably with the children. (Anna)

The importance of the social support of colleagues was also recognised by partners from the greater contemporary global mobility community:

My key for work really is the contact with the girls. (Catherine – 2nd phase participant)

For one second phase participant, having work-based social support was so critical that she sold her entrepreneurial start-up business and returned to her previous profession:

I got lonely because I was at home on the computer all day, and I was like no, I need social interaction, so I sold it [the business] ...the loneliness was probably when he was away...I need to interact with people. (Linda- 2nd phase participant)

At the other end of the employment continuum are the three partners who work full-time without utilising any flexible working arrangements. It would appear that the age of their children influences their career decisions:

With small children somebody had to be with them, and if he wasn't going to be there then it had to be me... [however] I have recently taken the job as the [full-time] administrator at the girls' [high] school. (Jane)

I took a year maternity leave when we had our first child, then I worked for about another year but made the decision to stay at home full-time as it became difficult to do it all...now the kids are more independent I am using my Master's in Leadership-Healthcare in my current [full-time] role. (Dee)

5.2.2 Flexible Working Arrangements

Approximately half of participants from the sailing fraternity, and a similar proportion of the second phase participants from the greater global mobility community, utilise some combination of flexible working arrangements in their career strategies. The following sections will discuss the various permutations of flexibility adopted by the partners.

5.2.2.1 *Schedule Flexibility*

Schedule flexibility “may include...the ability to have flexible starting and ending work times, schedule control, or the flexibility to respond to non-work (i.e. family) situations (Haddock, Zimmerman, Lyness, & Ziemba, 2006, p. 210). Sharon exploits each of these elements of schedule flexibility to maintain her full-time employment:

I am lucky, they let me bank hours when [the traveller] is at home, I work long hours and he does the school runs and the afterschool activities. Then when he's away they're really flexible, and I can work more around school hours. (Sharon)

Stacey has recently started her own entrepreneurial endeavour, however prior to that she had a role that also included significant flexibility:

In [Stacey's industry] it is all about delivering on time... so some weeks I have been working 150% and hopefully [the traveller] is at home that week, and then the next few weeks I work at 70 – 80% ...so that is the perfect match for us. (Stacey)

Sharon attributes her successful utilisation of schedule flexibility to her immediate supervisor:

My supervisor, he's got three kids as well, so he understands. When [the traveller] is away he lets me work when I can. (Sharon)

Stacey attributes her access to schedule flexibility to living and working in Sweden:

You can always make a deal with your boss. And even though you work full time, you don't necessarily have to be there between eight and five, you can usually leave at three to pick up the kids, so we have a very open minded work atmosphere [in Sweden] I think compared to the rest of the world. (Stacey)

An alternative approach to schedule flexibility, taken by a number of the partners, is ad hoc contract employment, which allows them the flexibility to work when they can, usually when the traveller is at home:

The hours are really flexible because I work on a casual basis. So every week I get the list of the available [nursing] shifts, and if it fits in with the family it does, and then I

work. But when [the traveller's] away I do less.... my wages have decreased over the last two years because if he's working then I'm not working. (Anna)

This approach has also been adopted by second phase participants from the greater global mobility community, including Lesley who works as an 'extra' in film and television:

I couldn't really find a job that I could work in...not knowing what days he's home and what days he's not and things like that. So I thought [being an 'extra'] would work quite well. They ring and say "Can you do this? Are you free on those days?" and if I am I will, and if I'm not, I just say it doesn't work. (Lesley – 2nd phase participant)

5.2.2.2 *Part-Time Employment*

Part-time work is defined by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development as working less than 30 hours per week (OECD, 2016), and almost a quarter of the partners currently hold part-time roles. For some of the participants, the number of hours they work is a reflection of both the age of their children, and the demands placed upon them by contemporary global mobility:

I mean I have always sort of worked part-time, but as they have gotten older, I am working more. But I still find, I don't think I will ever work full time, because there is still so much to do in the home. I still do all the things that I have always done. (Joss)

For others, their hours are also an expression of their personal beliefs regarding maternal employment:

I would like to go to work another day a week, but I don't want to put Aisha in day care another day. She is in from 9.15 to 3.15 two days a week. And it's easy. And it's

not too long for her. I would feel guilty if it was a full day. Or I would feel guilty if it was 5 days a week kind of thing. (Paulette)

Remote or teleworking is defined as “an alternative work arrangement in which employees perform tasks elsewhere that are normally done in a primary or central workplace, for at least some portion of their work schedule” (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007, p. 1525), and a number of the part-time participants also incorporate aspects of remote working into their overall career strategy:

They said to me when I took the job, do it from home, do it from here, do it from where ever you want, just do it... I spend Christmas in [beach location], and every school holidays I spend there. And I just work from there and then the boys don't miss out on going to the beach even when [the traveller] is doing the Hobart [yacht race commencing on the 26th of December] or whatever. (Kris)

I can do either but I generally will go the office so that I am present in the office for the team. But if I need to work from home when [the traveller] is away, I can work from home. (Kayla)

For both of these participants, the support of their immediate supervisor was essential in facilitating their remote working:

I am lucky, because I have been at [organisation] for a long time, and my boss she is bloody amazing. She is super loyal.... but a lot of companies don't get it. They don't understand. They think that if you are “working from home” that you're not doing anything. You know, they don't think you're doing it. (Kris)

This week, for example, Harry did a [kindergarten] concert and I never get to go to them, so I worked from home and said to my boss I just want to nip up to the kindy

for that hour and she just never ever says no because she knows we just work hard out, that she gets that time back...She is an out-of-the-box boss, she is one of those good ones. (Kayla)

5.2.3 Entrepreneurial Self-Employment

There are five partners who are currently self-employed working in their own entrepreneurial enterprise. Their businesses range in tenure from over ten years to less than six months, and their activities range from photography to internet-based event planning to a horse riding school. While their endeavours span a broad spectrum, it appears their motivations are similar, as succinctly summarised by Sonia:

The perks of having your own business, you work when and where you want to work, and for how long you want to work. (Sonia)

This sentiment was also expressed by one of the entrepreneurs from the greater global mobility community:

I was trying to make it work for my situation... it was the flexibility, and I could do it from home. (Linda- 2nd phase participant)

The ability to work from home allows the partners to manage their other domestic responsibilities, particularly when the traveller is away:

Today I got up at just after 5 so I could work first, because when [the traveller's] away I have to get up around about 5 to do a few hours of work before getting ready for school starts. Because my work day finishes at 3. (Bree)

Conversely, when the traveller is at home they can also adjust their day accordingly:

When he's home I try and get up at 7 and work till 5 or 6. So my work hours change.

(Bree)

Another advantage that is particularly salient in the current context is the potential for families to enjoy the positive aspects of living with contemporary global mobility, such as visiting the traveller on location:

The nice thing is I can do it and I can still travel, I don't have to be here. I've got my own web site and I do my online sales. I'm going away for the whole month of July, and I'm going to have the girl down the street, I'm going to train her up on how to do what she needs to do so I can leave. So yes, it's nice. I knew that I never wanted to have a job where I had to be anywhere for a certain number of hours, because then we wouldn't have the flexibility that we need to have a lifestyle while [the traveller] still works like he does. (Kerry)

This flexibility to operate their business remotely is dependent on the particular enterprise, which may be why the majority of the entrepreneurs have businesses that can, at least in part, be managed from anywhere they have internet access.

However, the current context can also amplify the challenges of entrepreneurial self-employment. For example, it may take longer to grow the business within the confines of contemporary global mobility:

When he was away, and the kids were still young, I didn't do weddings or anything because I had no one I felt I could leave the kids with because what if something happened. (Bree - Photographer)

So this is a very small business at this point. It is just going through word of mouth and stuff. Because of the kids being young, and [the traveller] being away, and just

our life style, I only do hours that suit me. The kids are always going to come first, always. (Sonia – Instructor)

Furthermore, the demands of the business, when combined with the additional domestic demands and responsibilities borne by the partner who stays behind, may limit the partner's personal time:

I went and had lunch with a friend yesterday. Do you know how luxurious that is? Because it just doesn't happen. Because I'm always "oh, I can't, I've got to get this job finished...grrrr" [laughter]. (Bree)

I make my own hours and do my own thing, but it's just an extra thing and I feel like I've taken on too much. When I have the time to do it I really enjoy it, I just don't have the time. Because I can't do it after the kids are home from school, I can sometimes do a bit of it between 6 and 7 in the morning. You know I used to enjoy doing the gardening, and there was just a lot more that I was doing for my own mental health, that I'm not doing now. (Kerry)

5.2.4 Discussion

The limited existing contemporary global mobility literature that does consider the impact on the career of the partner is primarily confined to generalised findings acknowledging that it may be more difficult for the spouse to work outside the home (Espino et al., 2002; Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012; Misan & Rudnik, 2015). The current research provides the previously neglected detail, discussing the various adaptations the partners have undertaken during the "evolving sequence of...work experiences" (Arthur et al., 1989, p. 8) that is their career.

Opting out of the paid labour force to manage the additional domestic demands and responsibilities borne by those who stay behind, is a recognised strategy of the partners of

commuters working in the extractive resource sector (Dittman et al., 2016; Parkes et al., 2005). The findings of this research indicate the strategy is also embraced by those living with travellers engaged in FIBT, and those undertaking short-term assignments. Elizabeth, the only one of the partners who did not express a desire to re-join the paid labour force, arguably already has a “two person single career” (Papanek, 1973, p. 852). This phenomenon, identified among corporate executives and their wives, refers to the vicarious achievements of the corporate wife who is not formally employed but performs tasks that contribute to her husband’s work performance, which in turn simultaneously restricts their potential to develop an independent career of their own. The two person single career has previously been considered in a sporting context, namely the rodeo where spouses provide unpaid labour (Forsyth & Thompson, 2007), and it appears it may also exist within the context of international yachting.

In the current study, almost all of the partners either currently work outside the home, or profess a desire to do so. The reason for this may lie in the social support that the partners from both the yachting fraternity and the greater global mobility community draw from their work colleagues. The importance of work-based social support for dual-career parents has been identified within domestic work-family literature (Minnotte, 2016). Given the loneliness experienced when staying behind (refer Section 4.6.1), the salience of social support from colleagues appears to contribute to their almost universal desire to work outside the home. Understanding the potential benefits of opting back into the paid workforce may be helpful for those who are learning to manage the numerous demands placed upon them when living with contemporary global mobility.

The partners who are currently engaged in full-time roles that do not incorporate flexible working arrangements, have only done so as their children age. While opting out to take care of young children has previously been considered within the current context (Parkes et al.,

2005), understanding that the changing demographic of the family means they may subsequently opt-back into full-time roles once the children have reached a certain level of maturity and independence, is new. The progressive reorientation of mothers towards work as their children age (Evertsson, 2013), and the penalties ascribed to maternal career breaks (McDonald, Bradley, & Brown, 2008; Staff & Mortimer, 2012), have previously been identified by scholars focused on women's careers. Understanding whether those living with contemporary global mobility take longer to return to full-time employment, and therefore pay a greater penalty, requires further comparative research.

Flexible working arrangements are often constructed to accommodate outside commitments (Fursman, 2009), and approximately half of the participants of the current study have fashioned various combinations of flexibility to accommodate the additional domestic demands placed upon them by contemporary global mobility. Schedule flexibility is a prominent strategy adopted by domestic dual-career couples when trying to balance work and family (Haddock et al., 2006), however, schedule flexibility on its own, did not feature significantly among the partners from either the yachting fraternity or the greater global mobility community. The reason for this may be that while Sharon, the partner who does use schedule flexibility, has an arrangement that allows her extensive flexibility depending on whether the traveller is at home or away, the more standard application of flexitime is restricted to starting and finishing times within a single day (Haddock et al., 2006). The utilisation of flexitime within a day, where there are children involved, requires a partner who is also afforded flexitime and therefore able to take up the mantle of childcare at the opposite ends of the day (Mutter, 2013), something that is not possible when the other parent is a traveller engaged in contemporary global mobility.

To address the limited utility of traditional flexitime for those living with contemporary global mobility, a number of participants use ad hoc contract employment to construct the

level of schedule flexibility they require, usually only working when the traveller is at home. While contract or temporary employment may marginalise workers (Hardy & Walker, 2003), it would appear these partners are more 'lifestyle temps' who use ad hoc contract work to facilitate balance (Alach & Inkson, 2004). Utilising ad hoc employment to create an employment schedule around a traveller's comings and goings is not a strategy that has been previously identified, but is one that appears to contribute to the adjustment of the participants in this research.

Part-time working is an adaptive strategy a number of the partners adopt, irrespective of the mode of mobility of the traveller. This is consistent with the limited literature available across all modes of contemporary global mobility where partners identify they have restricted their work hours to meet the additional domestic demands placed upon them (Lara-Cinisomo et al., 2012; Stewart & Donald, 2006; Van der Klis & Mulder, 2008). Given the prevailing cultural belief, at least in New Zealand, that mothers should not work full-time (M. Baker, 2010; McPherson, 2006), Joss only increasing her hours once her children aged, and Paulette's guilt around wanting to work more hours, indicate that for them working part-time may not be a response to contemporary global mobility but a culturally-formed normative parenting expectation (van Engen, Vinkenbug, & Dijkers, 2012). However, the combination of part-time and remote working does seem to be a career strategy that is a response to contemporary global mobility. Working remotely allows for optimal time management (Hilbrecht, Shaw, Johnson, & Andrey, 2008) and the partners use the combination to manage the temporal demands placed upon them when blending their employment with the traveller's contemporary global mobility. The universal proliferation of reliable internet that allows Kris to work remotely at the family beach house could foreseeably support partners who wished to work while visiting the traveller on location. Given the previously discussed importance of visiting the traveller for the children, and the

partner's reticence to do so, this new understanding contributes not only to knowledge, but has the potential to guide families as they adjust to living with contemporary global mobility.

Irrespective of the combination of flexible working arrangements undertaken by the partners, it appears supervisory support of their various career strategies is a prerequisite. Immediate supervisors have been shown to have an instrumental role in facilitating successful flexible working (Ferguson, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2015; Major, Fletcher, Davis, & Germano, 2008) and this appears amplified in the context of global mobility, as they are required to support different levels of flexibility depending on whether the traveller is at home or away. The findings also indicate there are four factors which may predict discretionary supervisory support for the level of flexibility required by those living with contemporary global mobility – gender, organisational tenure, empathy regarding childcare responsibilities, and national culture. While organisational tenure has not previously been recognised as affecting supervisory support of flexible working arrangements, individual studies have identified the similarity of gender and childcare responsibilities (Bagger & Li, 2014), and national culture (Stavrou, Parry, & Anderson, 2015) as relevant. This research provides an overarching insight into why supervisors support the adoption of flexible working arrangements, particularly when viewed through the lens of contemporary global mobility.

In light of the previous findings regarding the advantages of combining various flexible working arrangements, it is somewhat predictable that the predominant career strategy of the partners is entrepreneurial self-employment, a strategy that offers multiple facets of flexibility (W. Allen & Curington, 2014; Seva & Oun, 2015). Kaplan and Warren (2013) define lifestyle entrepreneurs as those who “develop an enterprise that fits their individual circumstances and style of life” (p.7), and consider business goals as secondary (Bolton & Thompson, 2003). The restructuring of the partners' work day, depending on whether the traveller is at home or away, their use of the internet to facilitate remote working, and the

prioritisation of their children at the expense of expanding their business, identify the partners as lifestyle entrepreneurs. While lifestyle entrepreneurial self-employment facilitates flexibility, this may be at the expense of personal time (Lewis, Harris, Morrison, & Ho, 2015), an issue recognised by the partners from the yachting fraternity. Entrepreneurial self-employment has not previously been considered as a career strategy for those living with global mobility, and the findings here not only contribute to the respective literature streams, but may also be useful for partners who stay behind.

In summary, it appears that the partners adopt a variety of career strategies to adjust to living with contemporary global mobility. The level of adaption required is influenced by the age of their children, consistent with findings from within the current context (Fischlmayr & Kollinger-Santer, 2013; Parkes et al., 2005), and in relation to working mothers without a travelling partner (Hegewisch & Gornick, 2011; McIntosh et al., 2012). For the participants of the current study, the mode of mobility does not impact their career strategy (Refer Figure 6). This may be because the partners have adopted either career strategies that are void of flexibility, and therefore the traveller's comings and goings are irrelevant, or they have constructed personalised arrangements of flexible working that meet the requirements of each mode of mobility, as and when required.

5.3 The Kaleidoscope Career Model

The following theme discusses the partners' careers as viewed through the lens of the Kaleidoscope Career Model. The theme is presented in two parts; the first two sections discuss the current roles of the participant partners and whether they align with the overarching career parameters of the Kaleidoscope Career Model. The subsequent sections consider the "evolving sequence of...work experiences" (Arthur et al., 1989) that make up the partners' careers to date, and how the patterns of their careers may also be viewed through the lens of the Kaleidoscope Career Model.

5.3.1 The Partners' Current Roles

The partners' descriptions of their current roles fell into three broad categories, with just over half of the partners highlighting the importance of finding balance between their work and their non-work demands. This includes Kayla, who has recently returned to her previous corporate employer, after a period of maternity leave:

I feel super lucky. And I've kind of gone back to a job I know and love, it hasn't really changed, and that's fantastic...[however] I'm not travelling that much, which was one of the things when I went back, I said that was what I would struggle with. I wrote down all the things that I used to go to Australia for and they were like "oh we do that by [internet conferencing application] web ex now" and heaps of it was culled. And I said, that's perfect because I will struggle with that [the travel], I can't, with [the traveller] away I just can't always be on plane like I used to be. (Kayla)

Kayla not only used to travel extensively, but she also worked long hours to meet the challenges of her role. By negotiating a job-share situation, she has managed her return to the organisation while removing some of her previous responsibilities:

So I used to be a workaholic and work weekends and now, well [laughter], priorities have changed! (Kayla)

Furthermore, she has returned to a role that she genuinely enjoys:

I think you have to enjoy your job or else what a drag. There would be a lot of people who would go each day and not enjoy their job and that would be so hard. I'm really lucky like that. (Kayla)

Almost all of the remaining partners' current roles fell into the second broad category, where the focus is on following their dream and potentially fulfilling what they see as a greater

purpose. They have identified what is important to them, and strive to obtain this authenticity. Carol, who is studying full-time to become a veterinary surgeon, is achieving her childhood dream, while also providing her daughters with a role model:

When I was younger I wanted to be a vet. I've had an unusual passion for animals, the house has been full of all sorts of animals...then I started to think about what do I want to do with my time, and I realised I didn't want to work in business, I want to be a vet...I'm doing this as much as for my own sake, completely selfish, I love it, I think it's fantastic, I can't believe I'm so lucky that I get to do it... I also think as a role model, especially having two girls, it is important to be able to do it. I don't want them to have a mum who doesn't do what she really wants to do either. (Carol)

Full-time study is a demanding undertaking and sometimes Carol she has to sacrifice her study to accommodate the demands of living with contemporary global mobility:

The younger students on my course, the hours that they spend are more than you would with a full-time job. I don't, but I don't do as well. I am still passing but a lot of them have higher grades... we were heading into a period where [the traveller] could not come home for eight weeks, and then we have to, for the children's sake, we have to make sure that at least in the middle of that period, they have to see him...So then we had to go away. So it meant that I missed out on a week at university that I cannot compensate for when I come home...because I don't have the time.

The final participant, Sharon, thrives on the challenge of managing a full-time professional position:

I have a master's degree in mechanical engineering and I do project management ...the job's good, and I'm happy with the status quo, but last year a job came up at my

company that I really wanted, so I just went for it. I didn't get it, but for my dream job I'd be happy to hire a nanny or whatever to step up the [corporate] ladder. (Sharon)

As previously discussed, Sharon uses schedule flexibility to balance her work commitments with her family responsibilities, banking hours when the traveller is home, then pulling back when the traveller is away. This allows her to continue to work in a profession that appears to align with her personal disposition, as can be seen in her description of how she manages the additional demands placed upon her when the traveller is away:

Yes, I am highly into routine, an occupational hazard I guess [laughter]. I work in manufacturing, and I'm in process improvement, so I process improve around the house [laughter]. A place for everything and everything in its place. So it's part of my nature as well as part of my job. (Sharon)

It is noteworthy that the participants from the greater contemporary global mobility community were similarly apportioned; one second phase partner had challenge as the primary focus of her current role, while the others were evenly distributed between finding balance and seeking authenticity.

5.3.2 Discussing Balance, Authenticity and Challenge

The Kaleidoscope Career Model contends that throughout one's career, at any point in time, a focus on balance, authenticity or challenge may prevail, while the other aspects recede into the background (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). What sets the Kaleidoscope Career Model apart from previous dichotomous conceptualisations of the stages of working lives, is that when one parameter is foregrounded, the others, whilst not the primary focus, remain relevant (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007). The Kaleidoscope Career Model provides a lens through which to view women's careers (August, 2011; Cabrera, 2009), the contemporary male career

(Clarke, 2015; Sullivan et al., 2009; Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007), and it appears, the career of partners of the globally mobile.

Kayla's current role appears exemplar of prioritising balance where she is "making decisions so that the different aspects of one's life, both work and non-work form a coherent whole" (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007, p. 247). She has been able to reduce the hours she is required to work, and the travel she is required to undertake, both which are important given the recurrent absences of the traveller. However, her appreciation that the role "hasn't really changed, and that's fantastic", indicates that while she may have stepped away from her self-professed workaholic tendencies, challenge is still an important factor in her career. Moreover, her apparent genuine enjoyment of her job suggests she may also experience moments of authenticity.

Carol's decision to undertake full-time tertiary education, while undoubtedly challenging, appears primarily focused on authenticity. Sullivan and colleagues (2009) propose that those who follow their dream, yet remain aligned to their individual values, are pursuing an authentic career. Carol's veterinary ambition is in line with her enduring passion for animals, and she states she is "following her dream". Further, as shown by Johnston and Swanson's (2006) study, she may be empowering her children by role modelling her internal values and work ethic. Her willingness to miss a week at university to visit the traveller on location illustrates that Carol will, when required, prioritise family issues over her work, indicating that balance, while not at the forefront, continues to play a part in her kaleidoscopic career.

Challenge, appears to be the predominant parameter for Sharon, who last year applied for a role that would be a "step up the [corporate] ladder" even though if she had been successful that would have required her to employ a carer for her children. Reaching outside your comfort zone, and a willingness to take on new work responsibilities, are measures of a

challenging career (Sullivan et al., 2009), and resonate with Sharon's desire for hierarchical advancement within her organisation. Sharon's adoption of a flexible work schedule shows she continues to strive for a level of balance, and while authenticity does not appear a significant feature in her current role, her anecdote that she will "process improve around the house" does indicate some alignment between her personal characteristics and the values and behaviours required in her role.

This study is the first to consider whether the Kaleidoscope Career Model is applicable within the context of contemporary global mobility, and makes a unique contribution to the respective literature streams. It provides examples of the dominance of each of the three parameters in the lives of three of these women, and clearly demonstrates the existence of the other parameters in the background. Furthermore, in response to those who question the Kaleidoscope Career Model, arguing it ignores contextual constraints (Fernando & Cohen, 2013), the current research finds the model does provide a frame for the recognition of how contextual factors, in this case the demands of living with contemporary global mobility, can influence career-related decisions.

5.3.3 Career Patterns

Having established that the careers of partners who stay behind can be viewed through the lens of the Kaleidoscope Career Model, the following section discusses the various patterns the careers of the partners take as they shift "their careers by rotating different aspects of their lives to arrange their roles and relationships in new ways" (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005, p. 111). Figure 7 illustrates the overall patterns of kaleidoscopic focus adopted by the partners.

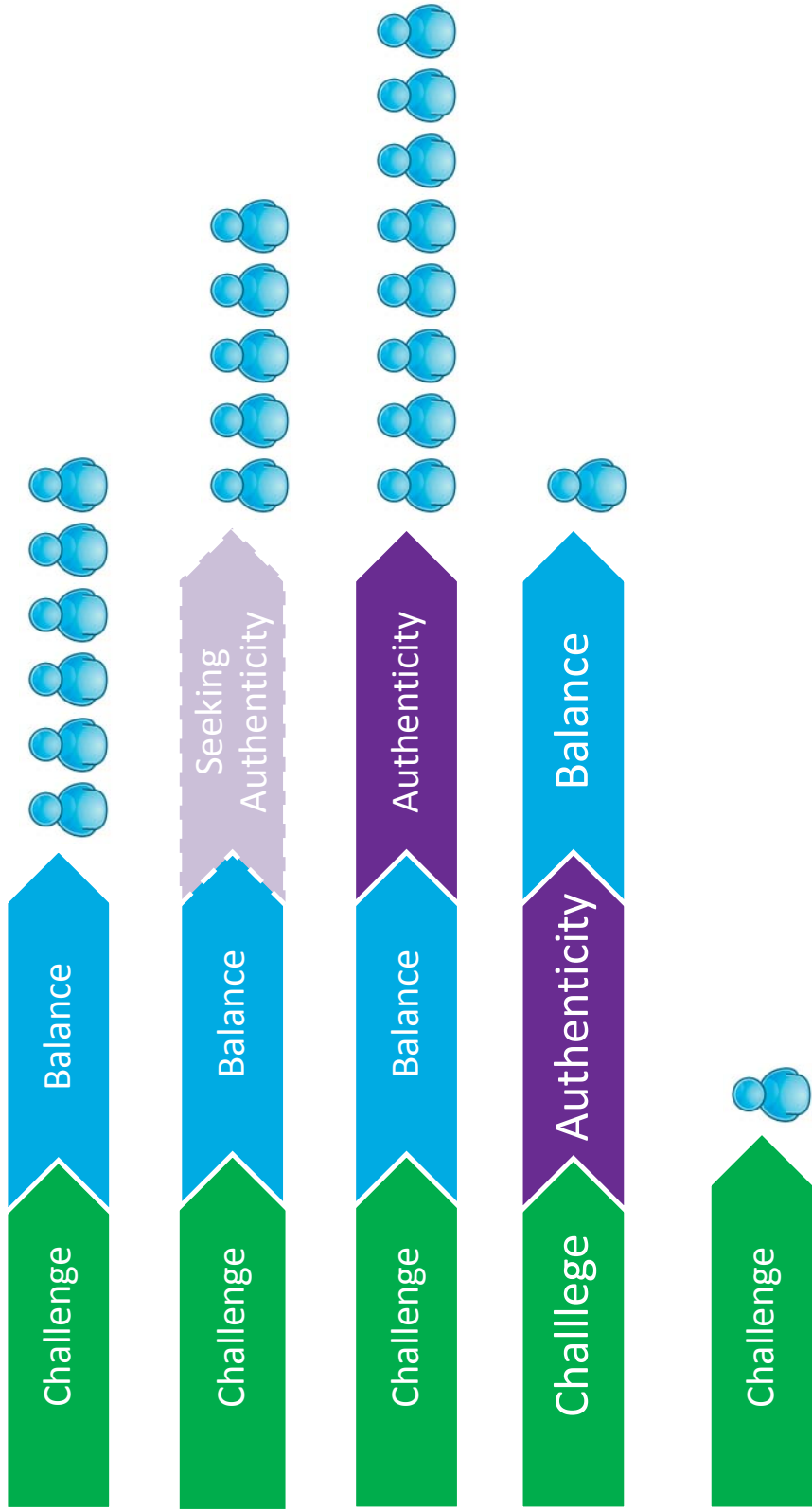


Figure 7: Patterns of Kaleidoscopic Focus

The remainder of this section will provide exemplars of the various patterns that emerged during the partners' interviews, as they made adjustments to their careers to find the best fit between their need for balance, authenticity and challenge (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). The assertions regarding which parameter the partners have in focus at any one point in time draw upon the scale developed by Sullivan, Mainiero and colleagues (2009). The scale is attached in Appendix G.

Dee is the first example, and over the course of her lifetime she has at one point focused on each of the career parameters, starting with a challenging career as an emergency department nurse:

When I met [the traveller], I was working in the US as an ED [Emergency Department] Nurse and I kept nursing for many years until we had our first child. I took a year maternity leave, then I worked for about another year but then made the decision to stay at home full-time as it became difficult to do it all. (Dee)

Her decision to stay at home to manage the domestic demands of living with contemporary global mobility was Dee turning the kaleidoscope to focus on finding balance. After approximately five years, she commenced part-time post-graduate study:

I was becoming more and more restless staying at home and missed my career. I decided that I needed to take the plunge and build on my past education and experience and complete my masters to position me better to be able to return back into the workforce. I found a program that supported my need to continue to be a full time stay-at-home parent while I pursued my higher education. (Dee)

Studying part-time allowed Dee to remain focused on maintaining equilibrium between her work and non-work while acquiring the education necessary to embark on an authentic career grounded in her passion for working in healthcare.

Dee's career has followed a pattern where she originally focused on the challenges of the emergency department, before giving up nursing in order to balance her non-work demands, and finally shifting her desire for authenticity to the fore. Over one third of the participants have followed a similar pattern, and of those, approximately half have used entrepreneurial endeavours as a vehicle for authenticity. Bree's career is an example of this particular refinement of the challenge-balance-authenticity pattern, starting with a career in retail where she was very goal-directed, thriving on the challenges presented to her:

When I worked in retail, I always said I want to be the perfect manager for someone. I know I'm going to do an awesome job for them and I'll never let them down. That was my ultimate aim in any job I did. You know, I started off as an assistant manager and quickly became the manager. (Bree)

When Bree's family undertook a traditional expatriate assignment, she refocused her career, moving balance to the fore, however she maintained a certain level of challenge by founding a newsletter for the expatriate yachting community:

When we first shifted there, I had to be dragged because I had a great job here... And then I sort of decided, well I'm not going to sit here and mope, and I went to a first coffee catch up with kids, and I realised very quickly that there was no support for us over there. So then I created the [expatriate newsletter]... So that kept me out of trouble for, oh I don't know, 20 hours plus a week. I was up till god knows what time in the night getting it ready to send out. (Bree)

The expatriate newsletter arguably also provided Bree with an element of authenticity in that she had a greater purpose and was making an impact. When she returned to New Zealand, she launched her entrepreneurial endeavour, a photography business, which she also uses as an authentic vehicle for internal values, as is evident in her description of a recent event:

I had an email from a man [saying] “my wife’s got a second round of breast cancer, she’s just been diagnosed with it again, and she’s only just gone through it all and she’s grown her hair back, and we haven’t had a family photo done”, and I’m just like “oh, god, I have to do that”. So I’m like “of course I can”. It’s those people who I do go that extra mile for. And they couldn’t afford a family shoot, so they asked “can we just get a family photo?” And I’m like “of course you can. I’ll charge you my minimum rate”. So they turn up at this place, beautiful Indian family, the wife is just gorgeous you know, and I can see her scar where her boobs were reconstructed. And I took way more photos than I said I would but I didn’t care. You know. (Bree)

A number of the participants from the greater contemporary global community have also had careers following the challenge-balance-authenticity pattern. This includes Roseanne who, having undertaken the challenge of teaching a foreign language to high school students, gave up her role to start a family. She has now started a business with a colleague, providing counselling services. While her current role is as the administrator, she is currently part-way through a training course that will allow her to counsel clients, bringing her desire to make an authentic impact to the fore:

At the moment I do the office work part-time from home, but I’m doing a 2 year training course as well, and once that’s done I’ll also be able to meet with the clients, get out of the house a bit more, and get into the whole counselling thing. That’ll be perfect. (Roseanne - 2nd phase participant)

Approximately half of the participants have rotated their kaleidoscope from challenge to balance, and at this point in their lives, balance continues to predominate. Of those participants, approximately half again are unequivocally focused on maintaining that equilibrium between work and non-work. This includes Kris who held variety of challenging roles in her early career:

I do think, you know, it's like, I studied, I travelled, everything I wanted to do when I was young. Had my great career, because I see that it was awesome and I loved it... I do actually feel a bit sad sometimes that I couldn't keep that up. But that was my decision. (Kris)

Her decision to move into a part-time role in a different industry, albeit one taken with some remorse, has her currently achieving her desired level of balance between work and family:

What is the ideal job? [laughter] The one that I ended up with, except for the pay! [laughter] So, what were the criteria? Well it was going to have to be three to four days, and then realised that marketing was something where you brought home the stress. I wanted something that was a little bit more just task-orientated. So you go and you do your task, and you come home, and you can concentrate on other things, especially your family. (Kris)

This is not to say that Kris does not aspire to at some point make another turn of the kaleidoscope, but maintaining the equilibrium is most important to her right now:

I do want something different eventually. You know we would like to buy a business or something, when [the traveller] stops travelling, and we can work in the business together. But not now. Not while he still loves it. (Kris)

As previously discussed, Kris prioritises the traveller's career, because she believes he has passion and potentially a calling for his profession. However, approximately half of the partners currently focused on balance appear to be harbouring unfulfilled aspirations of authenticity:

And that's one of the things, one of the reasons I've tried to work, is to try and show the kids, look I am not just that person that runs you here, there, and everywhere. But it was too hard. Every time I've done it it's just been too hard. But I would love to, I've got a friend who goes in three days a week and does three hours cleaning for a family, gets stuff organised. Walks out, feels fulfilled because she's done something for someone else. And it's like I actually need to do that. Because that's the thing, I've lost my identity. (Claire)

It's still not too late. I saw slides of a nurse up in Pakistan, and I thought that could be fantastic to do, and I want to get up and do Afghanistan and that, but I think it's too dangerous to put my children through "Mum's in a war zone". (Anna)

Moreover, as in the case of Michelle, there are those who have moved through challenge, balance and authenticity, and the demands of contemporary global mobility have forced another turn of the kaleidoscope, bringing balance back to the fore:

I love teaching and I love being with the kids... I felt like I belonged to something and I was helping...[however]...I didn't feel that I was giving them [her children] the time that I could, and should, if I didn't work. Because if I felt like I was making it work, the working and the kids, then I'd keep doing it. But I didn't feel like it was working, I didn't feel like I was doing the best by them. (Michelle)

There is one example of a participant's career that has followed a different pattern.

Elizabeth, after completing the challenge of an honours degree in sports medicine was able to follow her dream and become a professional sailor:

I applied for my Master's of Physiotherapy, which was going to be after a summer...then I met Tracey Edwards, and her boat (Royal Sun Alliance) was there, I was just trying to find a summer job and they said, "Oh, have you come to apply for the girls team"?, and I said "What girls team?" And the rest is history... So, when I was 21 I was on the girls' boat, and in 1998 we went around the world.

Elizabeth went on to complete a number of double-handed and solo ocean races. Elizabeth is now the mother of three young children and works supporting her husband's sailing career. She is focused on maintaining a balance between her various responsibilities:

For those years I was very focused on what I was doing, and no boyfriend was going to tear me away, nothing was going to stop me.... and I remember thinking I need to and do as much as I can, and when it comes around to that time, I need to compromise...[and now]... I meet other younger mums, who really want to start their own business, or want to do something, and they've got these young kids...and they are putting them into the day care. I just don't feel any need to go and do that because I have done what I wanted to. I think it has made a big difference. (Elizabeth)

Elizabeth's career has followed a pattern where challenge, then authenticity, and now balance have each respectively been brought into focus with the turns of the kaleidoscope. While none of the other partners, from either the yachting fraternity or the greater contemporary global mobility community, followed the same pattern as Elizabeth, they did believe that in some point in the future, the traveller may move from their current authentic focus to one which facilitated greater balance:

Because [the traveller] is a professional sports person, it will end at some stage, age wise, and then we will just re-evaluate. I mean he could go into coaching or something, and then it might be me who is the career person. (Kayla)

I would say my husband is very mindful of the balance. So he goes through waves where he wants to go off grid... So it's quite a big thing for him. He's mindful of the balance and the family because he gets guilty sometimes with the trips and stuff.

(Lara- 2nd phase participant)

A final point to note with regard to career patterns is that there is one participant who has challenge as her prevailing focus, and other than three short maternity leaves, this has been her focus throughout her career. Sharon is in her early thirties and may well choose to rotate the kaleidoscope at some point in the future but at this point in time it is not possible to ascertain what the turn will be and what pattern her career will follow.

5.3.4 Discussing Career Patterns

The predominant career pattern followed by the participants is one where the partners initially prioritise challenge, subsequently balance becomes the key parameter, and ultimately they have, or would like to, make another turn of the kaleidoscope to focus on authenticity.

The original proponents of the Kaleidoscope Career Model, Sullivan and Mainiero, find this to be the pattern typical of many women, and have designated it the *beta* career pattern (2007). This study contributes empirical support for the predominance of the beta career pattern among women, including those living with contemporary global mobility.

Women enacting their authenticity through entrepreneurial endeavour is a further contribution of the current study. The congruence of lifestyle entrepreneurship, and an authentic turn of the kaleidoscope, while not previously specifically identified, does find implicit support in the respective literature streams. Lifestyle entrepreneurial endeavours are

“an enterprise that fits...[ones]...individual circumstances and style of life” (Kaplan & Warren, 2013), which appears consistent with Sullivan and Mainiero’s description of women’s authenticity as including “making decisions to start a business because it is right for her” (2007, p. 249).

The number of partners who are currently focused on balance, and are yet to foreground authenticity, may be attributed to their life stage, with many of them still in what has been identified as mid-career (Cabrera, 2009). Whether the partners living with contemporary global mobility are more reticent to rotate the kaleidoscope and prioritise authenticity when compared to others in dual-career relationships, is a question that requires future comparative research. However, there are indications that the career of the traveller, both specifically in terms of the sporting context, but also more generally in terms of the greater global mobility context, may have an impact. As previously discussed, the foremost reason partners give for prioritising travellers’ careers is a belief they have a passion for their profession. Career prioritisation within dual-career couples has previously been considered through a kaleidoscopic lens, with earning potential being identified as the key factor in deciding whose career to prioritise (Clarke, 2015). The contradictory findings in the current study can be attributed to the specific sporting context and make a unique contribution to sporting literature. The partners who have unfulfilled aspirations of moving their primary focus from balance and are seeking authenticity, appear constrained by the demands of living with contemporary global mobility. While Cabrera (2007) recognises the existence of barriers to those seeking to turn the kaleidoscope, the business school participants of her study emphasise organisational boundaries, such as the limitations of flexible working arrangements. However, for the participants in this study, it is the non-work demands that appear to be the primary barriers to refocusing their kaleidoscope. This may be due to the additional domestic demands and responsibilities placed upon partners who stay behind.

Alternatively, this may be because they have already fashioned various combinations of flexible working arrangements as part of their ongoing career strategies, consequently reducing any organisational barriers. Irrespective of the underlying mechanisms, what is apparent is that living with contemporary global mobility can restrict the refocusing of careers. Recognising that turning the kaleidoscope is not always an unbounded choice does not invalidate the applicability of the Kaleidoscope Career Model; it serves to support the original authors' assertion that one of the strengths of the model is its capacity to incorporate the contextual factors that influence career decisions, and potentially limit career options (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007). Elizabeth, the one participant who has followed a different path, moving from challenge through authenticity and now to balance, has followed the *alpha* career pattern, a pattern considered more typical of males (Sullivan & Mainiero, 2007). That career pattern has also been described by professional women (Davoine, Ravasi, Salamin, & Cudré-Mauroux, 2013), and it appears it may also be prevalent for professional athletes, such as Elizabeth. Future research is required to further develop this notion.

It appears, according to the partners, that the pattern being followed by the sailors is the alpha model; having realised the goal of becoming a professional sailor they are enjoying a career they are passionate about. However, at some point they are expected to reassess and, as highlighted by Kayla, perhaps move into coaching or a similar role that would require less travel. Future longitudinal research, potentially including the travellers, could also contribute to empirical support of the Kaleidoscope Career Model.

One of the focuses of the current study is a comparative examination of the impact of the travellers' work-related absences across the continuum of contemporary global mobility. A breakdown of kaleidoscopic patterns shows that there are differences depending on the mode of mobility adopted. As shown in Figure 8, it is only when the traveller predominantly either

commutes, or undertake short-term assignments, that there are partners who are still seeking authenticity.

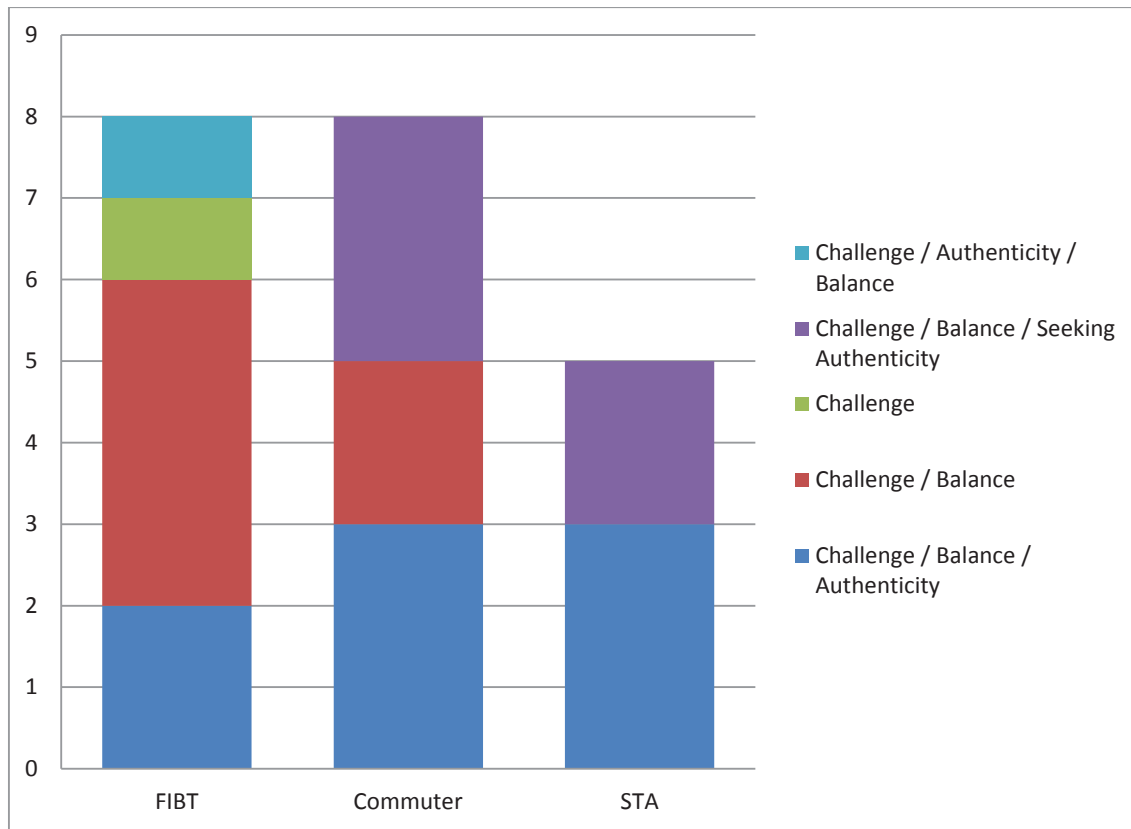


Figure 8: Kaleidoscopic Patterns across Modes of Mobility

For those where the primary mode of mobility is FIBT, they do not appear to have been as restricted. This adds to our understanding of the complexities of women’s careers when living with contemporary global mobility, as viewed through the lens of the Kaleidoscope Career Model. This also has the potential to inform those who are living the lifestyle, as understanding this may prompt the traveller to manage their organisational demands in such a way that this reduces the barriers placed on their partners’ career.

5.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses the impact of contemporary global mobility on the careers of the partners who stay behind, from their perspective, and across the various modes of

contemporary global mobility. The three themes that emerged from the semi-structured interviews are each presented through a combination of verbatim participant comments and tables, followed by descriptive and analytic discussion. The following chapter draws on the findings from across the home and work domains, to present a framework of the work-family interface as experienced through the lens of contemporary global mobility.

Chapter 6 The Work-Family Mobility Framework.

The thesis up to this point has achieved three key steps. It has synthesised and summarised the existing contemporary global mobility, family, and career literature streams, identified the Job-Demand Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983) as being relevant to these literature streams, and discussed in detail the findings of the current study. Combined, the previous chapters culminate here, with the development and presentation of an integrated framework entitled the ‘Work-Family Mobility Framework’, as viewed through the lens of contemporary global mobility. The chapter will introduce the framework before defining the central construct – Stay-behind Family Adjustment. Each element of the framework will then be discussed, drawing on the findings presented in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 to explain their inclusion in the framework, and their potential to affect families’ adjustment to living with contemporary global mobility.

6.1 The Framework

The theoretically and empirically derived framework presented in Figure 9 illustrates the process by which the demands and resources present in the contemporary global mobility work-family interface, and impact on the adjustment of the family who stays behind. As previously discussed, both the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R) and Family Systems Theory are applicable in the current context, and provide the theoretical foundation for the framework.

To recap, the JD-R model advocates the proposition that resources may buffer the impact of demands. While the original construct was solely grounded in an organisational context, subsequent scholarship has demonstrated the relevance of the model to the bi-directional work-family nexus (e.g. Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Minnotte, 2016; Schieman et al., 2009). Family Systems Theory, derived from Minuchin’s (1974) basic premise of reciprocity,

maintains that the actions of each family member impact on the other primary actors within the family system. Families draw upon their cohesion and adaptability when faced with stressors. Communication is a facilitating dimension within the family system with positive communication being considered critical in enabling cohesion and adaptability.

The abductive strategy adopted throughout this study involved cycles of reasoning, moving back and forward between the data and a fairly broad theoretical field of pre-existing frames. At the conclusion of the data analysis process, it became clear that not only were the JD-R model and Family Systems Theory relevant to the current context, but also that Family Systems Theory could add explanatory value to the descriptive clarity of the Job Demands-Resources model, and combined they provide a frame for understanding the factors influencing the adjustment of families who stay behind. Finally, the integrating of work and non-work demands and resources, and the family system into a single framework, reflects the permeable boundaries that exist between work and family domains (Ashforth et al., 2000), and the findings of the current study.

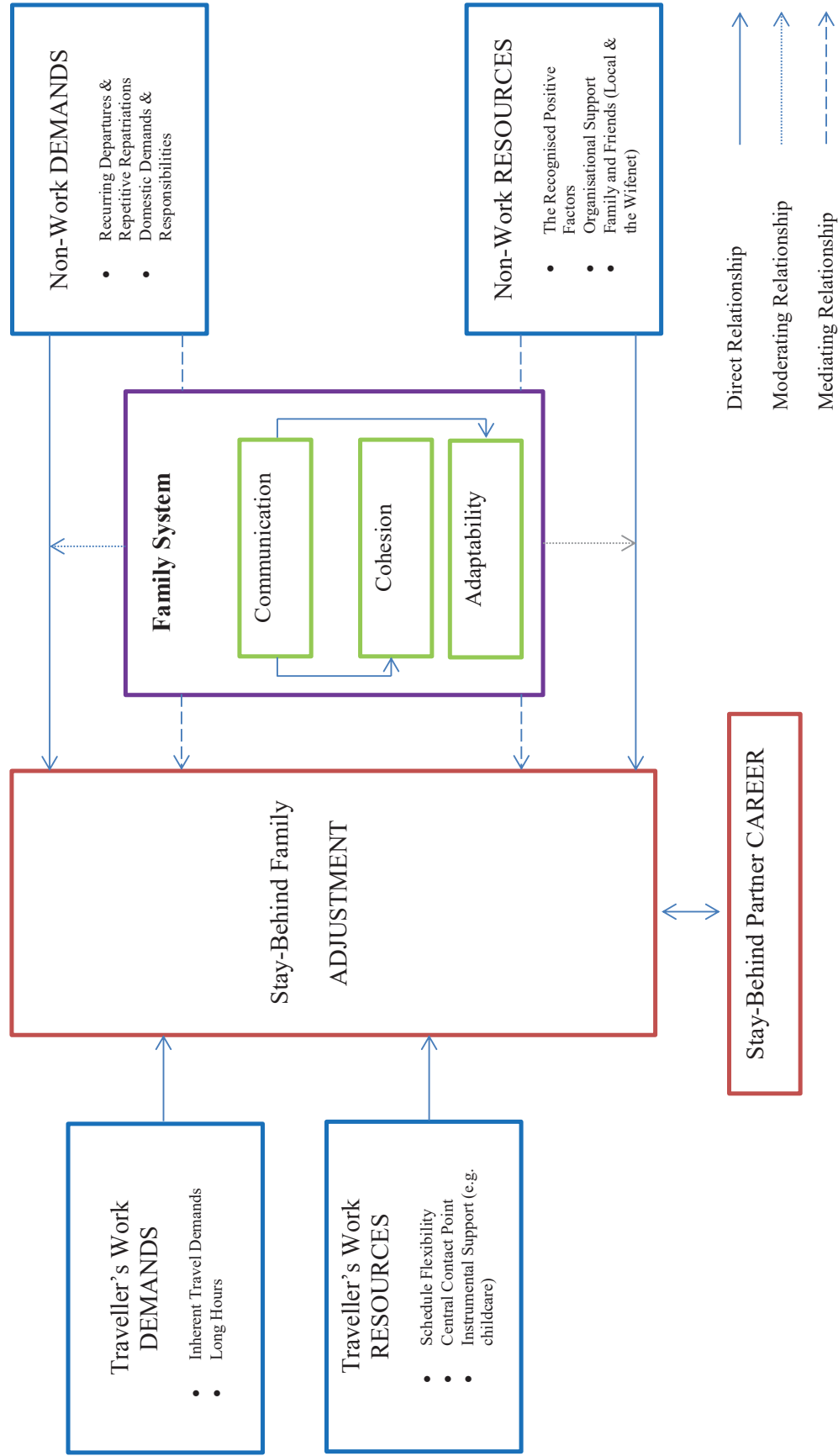


Figure 9: Work-Family Mobility Framework

6.2 Stay-Behind Family Adjustment

The ability of the family, the two or more interdependent individuals with shared goals (Piotrkowski, 1979), to adjust to living with contemporary global mobility, is the construct at the centre of the framework, and at the nucleus of this study. A family that is adjusted is arguably one that has attained a sustainable balance between the work and family domains. As previously discussed, consensus around what defines work-family balance has yet to be achieved. However, there are two definitions that offer interpretations that are not too disparate, and also appear relevant in the current context. Voydanoff's (2005) definition of balance as "a global assessment that work resources meet family demands, and family resources meet work demands such that participation is effective in both domains" (p. 825) speaks directly to the underlying proposition of the Job Demands-Resources model that "resources may buffer the impact of...demands" (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 314). Grzywacz and Carlson's (2007) assertion that balance may be achieved through the "accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work-family domain" (p.458) resonates with the premise of reciprocity underscoring Family Systems Theory. Integrating each of these definitions, *stay-behind family adjustment is conceptualised as the state when interdependent individuals who form a family are able to accomplish their shared goals by employing resources from both the work and home domain to meet the multiple, ever-evolving, demands placed upon them.*

The remainder of the chapter draws on the empirical findings of this current study to explain how each of the constructs independently, or interdependently, affects the ability of the family to adjust to staying behind.

6.3 Traveller's Work Demands

The organisational demands of global mobility not only provide the overarching context for the current study, but also specifically impact the ability of the family to adjust. For example, while over two thirds of the children identify the opportunity to visit the traveller on location as the principal benefit of the traveller's role, the long hours often demanded of the traveller while overseas means many of the partners are reticent to do so. Therefore, the protracted work days demanded of the traveller reduce the likelihood that the children will get to visit their parent on location. This, in turn, reduces the likelihood that the family will draw on the resource that has the potential to ameliorate the emotional distress children can experience when they miss the traveller and therefore the potential to positively affect the children's adjustment.

The framework also reflects the interdependence between the substantial travel demands inherent in contemporary global mobility, and the extended family, an essential non-work resource. The contribution grandparents and other extended family members make to the ability of the family to adjust is so significant there are those, such as Kris and Paulette, who relocated from Europe to New Zealand, to be closer to their family. In those instances, an increase in the traveller's work-demands in terms of the hours required to commute to work, was considered an acceptable additional demand, as it facilitated extended family support, enabling adjustment. Conversely, the protracted commute time can mean that the traveller is unable to return home between assignments, which could adversely impact adjustment. The salience of extended family support will influence the point at which the demands of additional travel outweigh the potential resource.

6.4 Traveller's Work Resources

The overwhelming absence of organisational support available to the families in the current study means there is limited empirical justification for the inclusion of organisational resources in the framework. However, the participants did suggest a number of potential organisational resources, including communal child-care and a dedicated contact within the organisation. As these resources have previously proven beneficial in a military context, it appears likely that focused organisational support could help families to adjust.

An organisation resource that is available, and does impact adjustment, is schedule flexibility. An example of why the traveller having control over their schedule can affect adjustment is the adverse impact on children when the traveller misses significant events that cannot be postponed. Mabel's father being able to schedule his travel around her dance recitals, or Madison's father being able to make it home for her gymnastics competitions, has the potential to positively affect their adjustment. This is another example of the interdependence between the various components of the framework - in this instance the traveller's organisational resources and the non-work demands.

6.5 Family Systems and Family Adjustment

The framework indicates that the impact of non-work demands and non-work resources are both moderated and mediated by the level of cohesion between the family members, and their adaptability when faced with the oscillating demands of living with contemporary global mobility. Communication between family members is considered a facilitating dimension, and the following section introduces two families whose different approaches to communication affect their cohesion and their adaptability. Subsequent sections draw on other families' experiences to illustrate the moderating and mediating effect of cohesion and adaptability on non-work demands and resources.

6.5.1 Communication as a Facilitating Dimension

Communication is considered critical in determining the level of cohesion between family members and their capacity to adapt to changing circumstances (Olson et al., 1983). The frequency, and form, of communication differed significantly between the participant families, and this was seen to impact both their cohesion and their adaptability. The following examples are of two families who communicate very differently, and consistent with the Olson and colleagues' assertion that communication is a facilitating dimension (1983), they exhibit very disparate levels of cohesion and adaptability.

Anna's family are frequent communicators, harnessing mobile phone and their car's Bluetooth communication technology, to facilitate daily multi-participant conversations with the traveller. Furthermore, the empathy Anna appears to have for the traveller is also considered to contribute to strong communication skills. In the parlance of Family Systems Theory, empathy enables "families to share with each other their changing needs and preferences as they relate to cohesion and adaptability" (Olson et al., 1983, p. 3).

Anna's strong communication skills appear to facilitate the interchangeability of roles between herself and the traveller each time he repatriates, which according to Olson and colleagues (1983) indicates a balanced level of adaptability. For example, each time the traveller returns he becomes responsible for emptying the dishwasher, even if during those first few days he sometimes forgets, and Anna needs to remind him. More significantly, he also takes on the role of disciplinarian, so Anna can recoup her resources for future separations. It is reasonable to assume that this interchangeability requires a dialogue between Anna and the traveller, highlighting the relationship between strong communication skills and the families' capacity to be adaptable.

Communication can affect cohesion. One measure of cohesion is the amount of time a family spends together (Olson et al., 1983), and the daily conversations Anna and her children have with the traveller while driving around in her car, allows them to enjoy virtual time together while geographically separated. It therefore appears that Anna's family, through their strong communication practices, are able to maintain balanced levels of both adaptability and cohesion, while living with the challenges of contemporary global mobility.

In contrast to Anna's family, Claire's family are infrequent communicators, and can go for a whole week without contact, synchronous or otherwise. Claire also appears to resent the impact the traveller's role has on both her personal wellbeing in terms of having suffered bouts of depression, and in terms of his career constantly taking precedence over her desire to work. As previously discussed, Claire would really like to re-join the paid workforce, and she feels without paid work she has lost her identity. However, she believes the demands of parenting three children means she is unable to work while the traveller is still globally mobile, and appears to resent that he arbitrarily makes the decisions that ultimately affect their dual-careers. While empathy is said to engender strong communication skills (Olson et al., 1983), as one is unable to empathise "while in the grip of an emotion such as resentment" (Oatley, 2009, p. 29), it seems reasonable to posit that resentment could therefore manifest as weakened communication skills.

In the absence of frequent contact, the traveller may be unaware of any changes to the family's day-to-day routines, making his reintegration into the family even more disruptive than could be expected if they maintained regular communication. In an effort to minimise the impact, Claire maintains the overall responsibility for the functioning of the family irrespective of whether the traveller is at home or away. Furthermore, consistent with Claire's weakened communication skills, while she may give the pretence of involving the traveller in day-to-day domestic decision-making, by her own account, she takes no heed of

his advice. The consequence of the intermittent communication during the traveller's absence, compounded by weakened communication when the traveller is at home, shows a family whose routines remain rigid, with no interchangeability of roles between the partner and the traveller. In direct contrast to Anna's family who do share roles and responsibilities, Claire's family appears inflexible and unable to adapt to the changing circumstances inherent in contemporary global mobility.

The intermittent communication while the traveller is away also appears to impact Claire's family's cohesion. To compensate for an absence of virtual time spent together while apart, they spend, what Claire perceives, as too much time together when the traveller is at home. In terms of Family Systems Theory, spending too much time together is considered to indicate a family that is overly enmeshed in each other's lives with their cohesion out of balance (Olson et al., 1983).

Having provided empirical examples of the relationship between communication and the dimensions of adaptability and cohesion within the context of contemporary global mobility, the following sections consider the remaining components of the framework, and their potential to affect stay-behind family adjustment.

6.5.2 Non-Work Resources

The primary non-work resources that families who stay behind rely upon are their extended family, and for the partners, their network of empathetic friends. The support of their extended family is the most salient support resource in the current context with every partner acknowledging the support they receive from extended family, or lamenting how geographic separation limits the immediate support family can provide. Extended family provides logistical and emotional support, bolstering the partner's capacity to manage the additional demands placed upon them while juggling their careers, and directly affecting their ability to

adjust to living with contemporary global employment. The extended family also supports the children by spending more time with them during the traveller's absences, which is particularly important for the adjustment of sons who are missing their father's support. The wifenet of sailing spouses who live in cities that are sailing hubs, also directly impacts the capacity for adjustment, by providing timely, non-judgemental and helpful assistance to the partners who are coping alone.

While the extended family and the wifenet, as non-work resources, can directly affect the capacity for the family to adjust, there are also examples of where the family system moderates the role these non-work resources play. The adaptability of the family influences the capacity for extended family members to step in and provide support as, and when, it is required. The "tag, you're it" that Sonia uses to describe how her mother and the traveller substitute in and out for each other is indicative of being able to negotiate change, a measure of adaptability. Sonia's family's adaptability means she knows she can call on her mother whenever she needs help, underpinning the positive relationship between her mother, as a non-work resource, and her family's capacity to adjust to living with contemporary global mobility.

With regard to the moderating effect of cohesion on non-work resources (as previously discussed in terms of Claire's family), becoming enmeshed and only spending time with each other when the traveller is at home can impact the ongoing relationship the partner has with their support network. While those living in sailing hubs with an effective wifenet have support from people who understand the importance of spending quality time together when the traveller is at home, local support networks may be well-intentioned but are often uninformed of the challenges of living with contemporary global mobility. Therefore, those who rely on local support and not an empathetic wifenet, enmeshing themselves with the traveller during repetitive repatriations, have the potential to stifle the support offered when

the traveller leaves again, indicating cohesion that is out of balance can moderate the relationship between the non-work support offered by local friends, and stay-behind family adjustment.

6.5.3 Non-Work Demands

The demands of staying behind include coping with recurring departures and repetitive repatriations, as well as managing the additional domestic responsibilities. The comings and goings of the traveller, and how this is managed, can directly affect families' capacity to adjust. For example, managing the children's expectations with regard to the imminent arrival of the traveller can mean avoiding disappointment when travel plans change, and therefore limiting any adverse impact on the children's adjustment. Furthermore, the collective excessive demands borne by the partner can manifest as stress, and also directly affect their own adjustment. The majority of the partners do not recognise the situation as unduly stressful, reflecting the capacity for resources to buffer demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), and the potential for a strong support network to be an ameliorative resource when striving to reduce stress and adjust to staying behind.

As suggested by the framework, the family system also works as an intervening variable, mediating the relationship between non-work demands and the families' adjustment to staying behind. For example, the families take two divergent approaches to the interchangeability of the role of the disciplinarian. There are those like Mandy and Jane who retain primary responsibility for disciplining their children, irrespective of whether the traveller is at home or not. While consistency is important for those living with repetitive repatriations, this approach leaves the partners feeling like they are the "baddie" (Mandy) or the "bad cop" (Jane). Therefore, their inflexible approach to role allocation, indicative of adaptability that is out of balance, appears to adversely impact the relationship between the partners and their children. Given stay-behind family adjustment is conceptualised as the

state when interdependent individuals who form a family are able to accomplish their shared goals, it is reasonable to posit that when the relationship between the interdependent individuals is impaired, this will affect their ability to accomplish their shared goals, and consequently their ability to adjust to staying behind. Conversely, others such as Michelle, do involve the traveller in the discipline of their children when they are at home. Each of her three sons recognises the positive impact of this flexibility and role sharing, in terms of reducing their mother's stress, and improving their behaviour. It appears therefore that being adaptable has the potential to positively impact the relationship between the interdependent individuals, and positively affect their capacity as a family to adjust to staying behind.

The cohesion of the family both moderates and mediates their ability to adjust to the non-work demands of living with contemporary global mobility, including the challenges of repetitive repatriation. Recognising the celebratory aspects of the traveller's home-coming has an ameliorative impact on the disruption inherent in the traveller's returns, which is arguably grounded in the cohesion the family members feel towards one another. For example, in Elizabeth's family, when the traveller is at home they spend time together boating and eating out. Elizabeth's children are always very excited to see the traveller each time he returns, perhaps in anticipation of the imminent family time. Their common interest in boating, and the time they spend together dining out, indicates a cohesive family unit (Olson et al., 1983), which in turn appears to strengthen their capacity to recognise the joyfulness of the traveller's return. Therefore, their cohesion as a family unit moderates their capacity to adjust when faced with the demands of repetitive repatriation. In the words of Elizabeth, they have become "quite slick at it".

However, there are other families who struggle with the repetitive repatriations, particularly after lengthy absences. Sam describes the traveller as impatient and grumpy when he returns, as do her children. The level of emotional bonding family members feel towards one another

is indicative of their cohesion as a family unit (Olson et al., 1983) and it seems likely that families who have a balanced level of cohesion will be more able to work through the challenges of an impatient and grumpy traveller trying to reintegrate back into the family. The families' levels of cohesion can therefore be understood to mediate the relationship between the non-work demand of repetitive repatriation and their ability to adjust to staying behind.

6.6 Stay-Behind Partner Career

The bi-directional relationship between the partner's career and the adjustment of the family is the final element of the framework. The extent of career adaption required by the partner can be a reflection of the level of adjustment achieved by the family. Equally, the partner's career is itself a meso-system of demands and resources, with the potential to affect the family's adjustment to staying behind.

An example of when an absence of adjustment can negatively impact a partner's career is Claire. Her family, as previously discussed, is inflexible and periodically enmeshed, and the lack of balance in their family adaptability and cohesion, adversely affects their adjustment to living with contemporary global mobility. This, in turn, has meant that despite her desire to do so, Claire has been unable to sustain employment outside the home. Conversely, Carol's children have now reached an age where she no longer feels she constantly has to be there to compensate for the absent traveller, transforming their collective adjustment. This has allowed her to undertake the full-time study required to become a veterinary surgeon and embark on her own authentic career.

The career of the partner who stays behind impacts the adjustment of the family through the adoption of flexible working arrangements. There are a number of examples of how flexible working arrangements influence the families' capacity to adjust to living with contemporary

global mobility: Sharon uses schedule flexibility and banks hours by working an extended day when the partner is at home so she can meet the additional domestic demands placed upon her when the traveller is absent, Kris works remotely when required so that her sons do not miss out on their holidays at the family beach house when the traveller is away, and Joss work part-time so as to manage the demands of living with contemporary global mobility.

Having a career that includes entrepreneurial self-employment also affects the adjustment of the family who stays behind. For example, in Kerry's case, her entrepreneurial endeavour is able to be managed via the internet, so she and her children are able to periodically visit the traveller on location. As previously discussed, this is, for the children who stay-behind, the principal benefit of the traveller's role, and therefore, being able to take up these opportunities can reasonably be assumed to positively contribute to their overall adjustment to the situation.

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter introduces the theoretically-and-empirically-derived Work-Family Mobility Framework, as viewed through the lens of contemporary global mobility. Building on the theoretical foundations of the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983), the framework draws upon the findings of the current study to explain the inclusion of each of the components. The framework reflects the interrelationship that exists between the demands placed on the families, the support resources they use to buffer these demands, the moderating and mediating effect of their cohesion and adaptability, and ultimately, their adjustment to living with contemporary global mobility. Incorporating the impact of the Family System adds explanatory value to the descriptive clarity provided by the JD-R model. The theoretically derived definition of the Stay-Behind Family Adjustment, as when the interdependent

individuals who form a family are able to accomplish their shared goals by employing resources from both the work and home domain to meet the multiple of ever-evolving demands placed upon them, is supported by the empirical findings of the current study.

A final point to be made in relation to the Work-Family Mobility Framework is that in the current context, there was no evidence of the family system mediating the relationship between Non-Work Resources and Stay-Behind Family Adjustment. This is not to say the relationship does not exist, however, this study did not provide any empirical support for the mediating affect. Future research examining the framework in other contemporary global mobility contexts will be able to provide a more in-depth understanding of the role of the Family System in moderating and mediating the demands and the resources of the contemporary global mobility non-work domain.

Chapter 7 Conclusion

This thesis expands our understanding of contemporary global mobility from the perspective of the family, as reported by the family, across each of the modes of mobility. Coalescing around nine themes, the collective findings from the two research questions led to the development of the Work-Family Mobility Framework, as viewed through the lens of contemporary global mobility. This chapter provides an overview of the study, before reiterating the key theoretical, methodological and practical contributions. Finally, the limitations of the study are acknowledged, and directions for future research are identified.

7.1 Overview of the Study

This study explores the impact of contemporary global mobility on the home and work lives of families who stay behind. This study is the first to contrast the impact each mode of contemporary global mobility has on families as they employ resources from both the work and home domain to meet the multiple, ever-evolving, demands placed upon them. This was made possible through construct development, undertaken to redress the lack of existing construct clarity around contemporary global mobility. This was also facilitated by asking families from the international yachting fraternity to be participants, as international sailors work across the continuum of contemporary global mobility.

The research itself was conducted through a lens of social constructionism, using semi-structured interviews to give a voice to both the partners and the children who stay behind. This approach was taken in response to the endemic overreliance on parental reports to represent the voice of the child. The interviews, which for the children included an exercise in photo elicitation, continued until saturation was deemed to have

been reached. Second phase interviewees from the great global mobility community enhanced the trustworthiness of the yachting fraternity data. The findings from the interviews will be summarised in the following sections.

7.2 Theoretical Contributions

The theoretical contribution of the study responds to outstanding calls to enhance our understanding of contemporary global mobility (e.g. Collings et al., 2007; Crowley-Henry & Heaslip, 2014; Kraimer et al., 2016; Suutari et al., 2012) and to consider the work-family nexus from an international perspective (Cappellen & Janssens, 2010a; Kaczmarek & Sibbel, 2008; Takeuchi, 2010). The first research question asks:

How have the home lives of the stay-behind family members been affected by the contemporary global mobility of their partner or parent?

Findings from the study confirm there are positive aspects of staying behind, including the quality of the time families do get to spend together. How this time is enjoyed depends on the mode of mobility. However, there is also a significant strain placed on the family, particularly at the point of actual leave-taking, and even more so, upon homecoming. The age of the children, the length of the absence, and the length of the traveller's stay, each affect how the families experience the recurring departures and repetitive repatriations. Reinforcing the limited previous research is the finding that the stay-behind parent experiences domestic role overload when faced with the day-to-day management of the household, during the traveller's absences. This study provides a new understanding about the importance of the traveller missing events that are fixed being the most distressing for the children, and that place the greatest parenting burden on the partner. In this study the majority of the partners feel empathic towards the traveller, understanding they are the ones who miss out, and they are the ones who

struggle re-establishing their role in the family. However, there are those who are ultimately resentful of the traveller, particularly, and somewhat paradoxically, when the traveller is engaged in commuting. The study identifies three forms of support that are essential for the family – organisational support, support from extended family, and support from their network of friends. With formal organisational support not routinely provided, the extended family invariably step in to fill the breach. Friends, particularly the wifenet of empathetic friends, are also an invaluable support for the partners, if not for their children. The final support the family can draw upon is the traveller themselves, through the modern-day proliferation of reliable internet and communication platforms.

The second research question asks:

How has the career of the stay-behind partner been impacted by the global mobility undertaken by their partner?

The current study identifies that a globally mobile career in a dual-career partnership often requires, and frequently perpetuates, the prioritisation of the traveller's career. Understanding that the constant prioritisation of the traveller's career increases the wage differential between the partner and the traveller, potentially creating a self-perpetuating cycle of career prioritisation, contributes to both career and contemporary global mobility knowledge. The study also provides a detailed understanding of the career strategies of the partners who stay behind, significantly expanding the limited previous general acknowledgement that those who stay behind may find it more difficult to work outside the home. The majority of the partners in this study who work outside the home, construct personalised arrangements of flexibility that meet the various demands of each mode of mobility. For a number of the partners, the flexibility they require is

afforded them by engaging in entrepreneurial self-employment. The study also contributes to Kaleidoscope Career Model literature, confirming the model's applicability within the context of contemporary global mobility. Moreover, the study supports the predominance of the beta kaleidoscopic career pattern among women.

The final theoretical contribution of the study is the Work-Family Mobility Framework, as viewed through the lens of contemporary global mobility. Family Systems Theory (Olson et al., 1983) adds explanatory value to the descriptive clarity of the Job Demands-Resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), and combined they provide a frame for understanding the factors influencing the adjustment of families who stay behind.

7.3 Methodological Contributions

The major methodological contributions of this study stem from the decision to foreground the voice of the children whose lives are impacted by contemporary global mobility. This study reaffirms the increasing recognition that children are competent contributors to the production of knowledge (Alanen, 2001; Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Morrow & Richards, 1996), and accordingly should be utilised as the “experts on their own lives” (Mason & Tipper, 2013, p. 154). For example, if I had relied upon parental reporting, I would not be aware that the children see the opportunity to visit their parent on location as the primary positive outcome from global mobility. From the partners' perspective, the opportunity to visit the traveller is rarely appreciated as it is seen as expensive, disruptive, and the traveller invariably too busy to spend time with the family.

This study also reaffirms the importance of integrating multiple perspectives to provide a rich understanding of family dynamics (Dobson, 2009; Harden et al., 2010). For

example, the partners profess a preference for Frequent International Business Travel as this affords them regular respite from the additional domestic demands and responsibilities. However, the children in their interviews showed a lack of temporal recognition with regard to how long their parent was usually away for, and this, combined with the disruption of the repetitive repatriation, indicates that for the children short-term assignments may be the preferred mode of mobility. This knowledge would not have been identified if only the partners or only the children were interviewed and has the potential to inform advice offered to those new to living with contemporary global mobility. This is an example of how initial methodological choices have the potential to enhance the theoretical contribution, which ultimately impacts the lives of those affected, by providing practical suggestions.

7.4 Practical Suggestions for the Family

The key implications of this study for the families who stay behind fall into four categories – ameliorative strategies for the partners, advice for helping children to adjust, suggestions for improving communication while the traveller is overseas, and finally, career advice as it pertains to the career of the partner who stays behind.

The additional responsibilities placed on the families, particularly the partners, can be significant, and for those living with contemporary global mobility, they would do well to consider the following suggestions. For the partners who stay behind, it is important they do ask for help when they need it, even when they feel they are unable to reciprocate. Their children do notice when they are stressed and overwhelmed by the demands placed upon them, and therefore it is important to reach out when necessary. Weekends are invariably difficult, especially for those who do not have access to a wifenet. For those who are reliant on well-intentioned yet uninformed local support networks, there is the potential to build an empathetic network through social media.

Many such internet-based social networks already exist for the trailing spouses of the traditional expatriate, and there is at least one example of a site established by a stay-behind partner from the sailing fraternity. Seeking out, or taking the initiative and developing, social networking platforms to connect with others living with contemporary global mobility, has the potential to provide the partners with timely, non-judgemental and helpful support from those who can relate to their experiences.

Another form of support that is particularly salient for those living with contemporary global mobility is the extended family. To that end, families may wish to consider taking proactive steps to facilitate this support. This could involve the significant step of relocating to be closer to extended family, or if that is not a feasible option, undertaking to provide accommodation so family can stay over periods where support is particularly needed, such as during the school holidays for partners employed outside the home.

Finally, while having a routine is important, it is also important to share the domestic demands and responsibilities when the traveller is at home. Not only do children recognise and react to their parents sharing responsibilities when the traveller is at home, but sharing the parenting will allow the stay-behind partner to recoup their resources for future separations.

The findings in this study contribute to the following advice for parents seeking to help their children adjust to living with contemporary global mobility. It is important to normalise the process of the recurring departures. Therefore, whether the decision is made to discuss the upcoming departure in the belief that awareness will reduce any stress, or to forestall telling the children in the belief this will delay the onset of anxiety, partners are advised to take a consistent approach each time the traveller departs. Prior

to the traveller leaving, there also appears to be an advantage in reaffirming the positive aspects of the global mobility lifestyle for the children. Whether this is talking about the potential to visit the traveller on location, or the quality of time the family will get to spend together when the traveller returns, evocation of these ideas appears to assist the children in adjusting. This suggestion may be particularly pertinent for families where commuting is the predominant mode of global mobility, as each time the traveller returns they will be free to spend their compensatory days off with their children, and should not be distracted by any domestic work demands.

During separations when significant events occur, such as birthdays or sporting competitions, there are a number of different strategies that could help reduce the emotional distress for the children. With regard to birthdays it appears that many children are happy to reschedule the celebrations for when the traveller returns. Where this is not an option, involving extended family in the celebration appears to have an ameliorative effect. When the events cannot be rescheduled, partners should be aware this is the most distressful time for children who are missing the traveller, but also that modern technology can help ease the situation. Photographing or filming the event, transmitting this to the absent traveller, and then facilitating communication between the traveller and the child to discuss the outcome, is a strategy that has been shown to work.

Consistent with the suggestion that partners should connect with an empathetic wifenet, is the recommendation that children would also benefit from establishing a network of empathetic peers. Shared space on the internet has been shown to be beneficial for military youth, and it seems likely that children from the greater global mobility community would also benefit from connecting with peers who can relate to their experiences. Given the technical expertise of today's digital natives, the suggestion is

not that the partners themselves facilitate the networking, but that they should suggest to their technologically-savvy children that there may be advantages to doing so.

Finally, with regard to helping their children adjust, understanding the divergent perspectives held by the partners and the children has the potential to empower the family to more effectively manage their lifestyle. For example, it appears that for the partners, the regular relief provided by FIBT is the preferred mode of global mobility. Conversely for children who are particularly sensitive to the recurring departures and repetitive repatriations, longer and less frequent short-term assignments would appear the less disruptive choice. Travellers are therefore encouraged to, wherever possible, switch between the modes of mobility. Another divergence relates to the opportunity to visit the traveller on location. While the parents may be reticent to do so, given the upheaval, the cost, and the disruption to their own career, they should consider that this opportunity is very important for the children. With regard to disruption to their own career, partners may wish to consider finding employment with organisations where policy, and supervisory practice, supports remote working. The proliferation of modern communication platforms means there are many tasks that can now be undertaken remotely. While these suggestions may not be practical for all families living with contemporary global mobility, understanding the divergences that exist may allow families to tailor strategies to their own personal circumstances.

How the family communicates with the absent traveller is considered critical in determining the level of cohesion between family members, their adaptability, and ultimately their capacity to adjust to their ever-evolving circumstances. Therefore, families should consider embracing some of the successful communication practices adopted by the participants of this study. Harnessing mobile phone technology can increase the opportunity for synchronous calls when family members are out-and-about,

therefore potentially avoiding the time zone issues inherent in global mobility.

Combining mobile phone technology with Bluetooth technology can facilitate multiple simultaneous conversations, which generates synergy between the family members. It is also suggested that partners try and facilitate some video-mediated communication as it appears children are more engaged when they can actually see the traveller.

Innovative suggestions of how video-mediated communication can be incorporated into families' day-to-day lives include watching backyard cricket over Skype and reading bed time stories over FaceTime. Families should also understand that once children reach a certain age, they appreciate having control over their communication with the traveller, and providing them with a mobile phone would allow them to spontaneously and independently contact the absent parent. A final suggestion is that there is an increasing number of communication Apps available that have the potential to address time zone issues and allow technologically savvy children to independently leave messages for the traveller. These include Voxer and WhatsApp, and families would do well to consider if they have the potential to address any of their existing communication issues.

This study is the first to give detailed consideration to the dual-career of the partner who stays behind. The following advice draws on the career stories of those from the yachting fraternity, and the greater contemporary global mobility community. At an overview level, it would be prudent for the partners to consider the long-term impact of constantly prioritising the traveller's careers. Career prioritisation can predict subsequent income, and if dual-career decisions are driven by earning disparity, there is the potential for this to become a self-perpetuating cycle where the partner's career will never become the first priority. While other factors such as the traveller's passion towards their career can ultimately also impact dual-career decisions, partners should be

aware of the potential implications. This study also recommends that partners should remember that work colleagues are a potential source of social support, which may influence the decisions of those who are considering opting back into the work force, or those considering opting out.

Specifically, the findings suggest that partners should look to construct personalised flexible working arrangements, which allow them to achieve a sustainable work-family balance that can accommodate the comings and goings of the travellers. It appears that flexibility, in terms of schedule and location, are fundamental to dual-careers when living with global mobility. When partners are unable to find sufficiently flexible permanent employment, they may wish to consider ad hoc contract employment. This will provide them with control over their schedule, not so much in terms of glide-time within an individual day, but in terms of working more hours when the traveller is at home, and reducing work commitments to balance the additional demands placed upon them when the traveller is away. With regard to remote working, partners should consider whether the proliferation of reliable internet and modern communication platforms means there is now an opportunity for remote working that they have not previously considered. Finally, while not an option for everyone, lifestyle entrepreneurial self-employment has the potential to deliver the flexibility required to manage both work and family demands, and the potential to allow partners to enact their authentic career.

7.5 Practical Suggestion for Organisations

The suggestion that organisations should take some responsibility for the work-home balance of their employees is not new (Striker et al., 1999), and yet the participants of this study confirm an enduring absence of formal organisational support. Existing literature suggests that organisations have only a limited understanding of the

ramifications of contemporary global mobility from the perspective of the family (Demel & Mayerhofer, 2010; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, & Herbert, 2004; Suutari et al., 2013), which in turn restricts their ability to initiate relevant support mechanisms.

The current study goes some way to filling this gap in the knowledge, and Table 7 summarises the practical suggestions for organisations that have been made throughout the thesis. This table is the contribution from the study at an organisational, rather than an individual level, and therefore the contribution to the International Human Resource Management (IHRM) literature.

A final suggestion is that a 'cafeteria' system could be applied to the benefits, being a system where the families are offered a smorgasbord of potential benefits and they choose the ones that will be particularly useful, depending on their own individual circumstances. The fundamentals of this practice are already the norm in the international yachting community where travel budgets and accommodation allowances are part of the negotiation of the overall package with the sailors (Refer Section 2.4.2). This practice could be expanded to include the various other financial allowances suggested above, and expanded beyond the sailing fraternity to the greater contemporary global mobility community.

Table 7: Suggestions for Organisational Support

Suggestions Directly from the Study Participants

Organisations would do well to create an inclusive environment where the contributions of the families are recognised, generating organisational-based emotional support. This could be as simple as periodically holding sponsored social events for the family members when travellers are away, or facilitating an online community. While this idea has its genesis in the sporting ‘team’ environment, it is equally as applicable to those in the greater contemporary global mobility community, for example where whole project teams are working overseas at any one point in time.

The participants recommend that there should be a person designated as the first point of contact for the families. While modern day mobile phone technology means families can often be in direct contact with the traveller, there are still circumstances, and geographic locations, where this is not an option. The designated person would also be the primary point of contact for the family in case of emergencies, either at home or abroad.

Instrumental support could alleviate some of the demands placed upon the families. One such suggestion made by the participants was a shared communal nanny service that could be called upon as and when required. This is a reflection of the difficulty the partners have in employing paid help when they only require them on a periodic and often unpredictable basis.

Suggestions Emerging from the Findings - Financial Allowances

The importance of living close to extended family, and the significant steps those living with global mobility are willing to take to access their support, suggest organisations may consider offering a one-off relocation package to the family. This would be similar to the relocation packages offered to the families of traditional corporate expatriates (Warneke & Schneider, 2011), but in the context of contemporary global mobility the relocation is not to wherever the traveller will be based but to move the family closer to their preferred support network. An alternative use for the relocation allowance could be to move the family closer to the predominant international working locale of the traveller, minimising their commute, and maximising the time the family can spend together between trips.

Given the significance the children attach to being able to visit the traveller on location, organisations should consider including a family travel budget in the traveller’s compensation package. This financial assistance would attend to one of the partner’s stated barriers to visiting the traveller.

Adopting video-mediated platforms has the potential to enhance communication between the absent traveller and their family. Organisations could offer financial support for the families to ensure they can purchase the required technology, and meet the ongoing data costs.

Suggestions Emerging from the Findings - Other

For the families who stay behind there are certain times where the timing of the traveller’s absences is less than ideal. If the trip home is too short, or the preceding travel too long, this can significantly impact how disruptive the recurring departures and repetitive repatriations are for the family. Furthermore, it appears that when the traveller misses a significant event that cannot be rescheduled, this when the child misses the traveller the most, which can result in emotional distress and behavioural problems. While accepting that certain work demands must be met, organisations should understand the importance of offering travellers some flexibility over their travel schedule.

7.6 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research.

This thesis has made theoretical, methodological and practical contributions to contemporary global mobility research. However, there are limitations to the current study that must be acknowledged.

The first limitation relates to the sample – all the partners interviewed are women, and they are all from the international yachting fraternity. The impact of this is that the findings are limited by the perspectives of the participants. For example, given that the traditional gendered division of unpaid work remains the norm in New Zealand (Liu & Dyer, 2014), the absence of male participants means it is not possible to clearly isolate the cultural expectation from the impact of contemporary global mobility, when discussing both domestic role overload and career prioritisation.

The perennial concern of many qualitative researchers is the ability to transfer their findings beyond the immediate context. In this study, there are certain factors that have been identified, and certain strategies that have been adopted, that minimise the impact of the seemingly heterogeneous participants. At an overall level, the rich and transparent documentation of the context, the methodology, and the findings, allows the reader to make their own informed assessment of transferability (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

With regard to the potential transferability of research conducted in a sporting-specific context, there is a growing recognition of the parallels between athlete labour and other globally mobile individuals (Agergaard et al., 2014; Elliott & Maguire, 2011).

Furthermore, the trustworthiness of the data is enhanced by interviewing the second

phase participants from the greater global mobility community, in an exercise of data triangulation (Miles et al., 2014).

Given the gendered nature of international yachting, the gendered nature of the study was an unavoidable limitation. However, a substantial effort was made to maximise the heterogeneity of the participants across age, family commitments, and career, so as to capture the widest range of experiences possible within the seemingly homogenous sample. There is potentially an argument that an alternative context could have been considered, one where there are male partners who stay behind, but the benefits afforded to me as a cultural insider, specifically in terms of access to the children, I believe outweighed the potential limitations. Parents as gatekeepers hold considerable influence over whether their children will be allowed to participate in research (Zartler, 2010). Given only one partner agreed to be interviewed herself, but did not give consent for her children to participate in the research, I believe my position as a cultural insider took the partners from gatekeeper to gate-opener.

The acknowledgement of the limitation also leads us to areas for future research. Subsequent studies should be conducted within families where the traveller is female. Furthermore, future research should look to test the Work-Family Mobility Framework in other contemporary global mobility communities.

The second limitation to the study relates to the children's interviews, as there were a number of issues that had the potential to affect the data collection process. In the first instance, there were five children interviewed alone, as opposed to in sibling groups, as their siblings were too young to participate. Ensuring all other aspects of the interview process were consistent, and focusing on establishing a rapport with the individual child, resulted in fertile individual interviews. For example, Gina, who was interviewed

alone, features in the findings with regard to the preferred mode of mobility, informational preferences, additional roles and responsibilities, peer support, and independent communication. This significant contribution would have been lost without the variance in the interview process, and therefore this is considered a warranted approach.

The other issue relating to data collection during the children's interviews is the omnipresence of the maternal gatekeepers. However, this is the status quo that researchers must invariably accept in exchange for access to children (Mayall, 1999). While initially a number of children sought parental approval for their answers, as the interviews progressed they grew in confidence and were increasingly willing to engage autonomously. I believe this was due to my focus on establishing rapport with the children, primarily through the telling of humorous stories about my own experiences of contemporary global mobility, and due to my constantly reminding the children that there was no right or wrong answer to any of the questions. For some of the children the power imbalance inherent in the situation may have become overwhelming without the support of their parent, inhibiting their willingness to actively participate (MacLean & Harden, 2014; O'Kane, 2008), and therefore the presence of the parent is considered an acceptable constraint in exchange for giving the children their own voice.

Nevertheless, future research surveying children, independently from their parents, should be considered. This approach is now possible as many of the issues permeating contemporary global mobility have been identified in this study, meaning such an instrument could now be created (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). The remainder of this section is comprised of additional suggestions for future research that do not have their genesis in limitations of the study, but in the findings presented in the thesis.

The finding that only two of the families were early adopters of internet-based communication applications warrants further research, given the potential for these tools to ameliorate the time-zone challenges inherent in international communication. Such research would also answer outstanding calls to understand new uses for communication platforms (Madianou, 2012).

The contribution of this study makes to our understanding of the impact of contemporary global mobility on the careers of the partners who stay behind is significant. Future longitudinal research, revisiting the partners to question whether their careers were now taking priority, and to see what new rotations, if any, they had made of the career kaleidoscope, would build on the current thesis and make a further contribution to knowledge. Incorporating the traveller's perspective into future research, in particular, investigating their kaleidoscopic career pattern, would further contribute to contemporary global mobility and career scholarship.

The children who participated have already made a significant contribution; however, future longitudinal research could build on this foundation. Their experience of living with contemporary global mobility, and the cultural intelligence they acquire while visiting the traveller, could influence their future career choices. Just as it has been suggested that the third culture children of expatriates might become the expatriates of the future (Lam & Selmer, 2004; Westropp, Cathro, & Everett, 2016), these children could become the globally mobile of the future.

Finally, the Work-Family Mobility Framework presented in Chapter 6 assumes the Family System will mediate the relationship between Non-Work Resources and Stay-Behind Family Adjustment. In the current context, there was no empirical support for

this relationship and therefore future research examining the framework across the greater contemporary global mobility communities is required.

7.7 Concluding Comments

This thesis is my contribution to those who are living with contemporary global mobility. By enhancing our understanding of how contemporary global mobility affects those who stay behind, allows me to offer informed and hopefully helpful advice that will help other families to adjust. This knowledge can also be used to inform organisations of the support they can offer. This may not close the implementation gap, but at least organisations can no longer claim they did not know what was needed.

This thesis is also my contribution to the children whose voice is often excluded from work-family research. By showing how important it is to allow children to be the experts on their own lives, I hope other researchers will be more inclined to do so. I believe I have illustrated how this can be done in an ethically robust way, while addressing the inherent power imbalance that exists between adult researcher and child participant.

Finally, this thesis is my contribution to my own career. The journey from St. Petersburg airport to here has been long, sometimes challenging, but ultimately enjoyable and rewarding. I believe my search for balance has led to me to where my authentic career will lie.

My husband is still an international sailor, and as I write this he is on a plane to Europe where he will be working for the next two weeks. My children and I will carry on with our day-to-day lives and communicate with him when we can, sometimes using some of the new technology I am now aware of, thanks to the participants of this study. When he returns we will repatriate him back into our lives with hopefully not too much

disruption, and I certainly will be handing over a number of responsibilities to him so I can recoup my resources, in preparation for the next time.

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Appendix A: Extant Taxonomies of Global Employees

Article	Long Term Traditional	Short Term	Commuter / FIBT	Other	Point of Differentiation
Torrington (1994)	Expatriates (motivation - attaining headquarters senior role)	Technical specialists (away for various length of time but a minimum of 6 months in head office annually)	International managers (based in head office but constantly travelling, rarely overseas for more than 1-2 consecutive weeks at a time) / Occasional parachutists (making 2-3 short trips annually)		Historic classification of HCN's dependant on length and frequency of travel
Baruch & Altman (2002)	Global (experienced expatriate manager multiple international placements) / Emissary (Expatriate role to install home country culture) / Expedient (Employed by emerging global organisations with ad hoc expatriation management) / Professional (outsourced expatriate expertise) / Peripheral				Differentiated on whether individuals / companies present a global / local focus, supplemented by the type of psychological contract
Banai & Harry (2004)	International Itinerant - "professional managers employed for their ability, by at least two business organizations that are not related to each other, in at least two different foreign countries." (p.100)				

Article	Long Term Traditional	Short Term	Commuter / FIBT	Other	Point of Differentiation
Collings, Scullion & Morley (2007)		Short – Term Assignments (Less than 1 year for various purposes. Whether family accompanies or stays behind deemed irrelevant for purpose of definition. Considered flexible and cost effective)	Commuter (weekly) or Rotational (periodic) un accompanied relocation. International Business Travel (Used for travel to developing countries where there is recourse to relocation. For the purpose of irregular and/or specialised tasks / often an essential element of the role)	Virtual Assignments (Management of international staff performing routine functions from home country)	Classification based on frequency and temporality of assignment plus assignment purpose
McKenna & Richardson (2007)	Independent Internationally Mobile Professionals – Mercenary (maximising intrinsic rewards) / Architects (building a boundaryless career) / Refugees (escaping professional or personal dissatisfaction) / Explorers (looking for new professional and cultural experiences) / Seekers (seeking personal development in new environment) / Tightrope walkers (desire challenges and embrace risk) / Missionaries (Philanthropic agenda)				Differentiated on individual motivations
Peiperl & Jonsen, 2007	Global Travellers – who work and live within expatriate enclaves effectively isolated from the local culture. Real Global Citizens – cross cultural and physical borders		Global Travellers – alternatively frequent travellers who only interact with those within the head office culture. Appear to combine ‘commuters’ and ‘globetrotters’ under the heading of ‘flexpatriate’	Virtual Global Citizens – Physically in home country but virtual interaction across a multitude of cultures and markets	Differentiation based on interaction across culture and temporality of travel i.e. Focus on cross-cultural aspects

Article	Long Term Traditional	Short Term	Commuter / FIBT	Other	Point of Differentiation
Millar & Salt (2008)	Long Term Assignments (either for transfer for often technical knowledge and/or for career development)	Short-Term Assignments (For between 3 – 12 months to gain career enhancing experience and / or collaborative projects. Expatriate type benefits but by definition no family accompaniment)	Commuter Assignments (Personal circumstances drive commuting to substitute for either long term or short term. Rotators (Another term for FIFO 's within extractive industries. Shift cycles of several weeks and always unaccompanied) Business Travel (Flexible mobility facilitating face-to-face meetings. Sometimes driven by personal circumstances including dual-careers)	Virtual mobility (Facilitates projects staffed by globally distributed teams without the stress of frequent lengthy flights)	Differentiate based on the volume and tenure of mobility and their rationale i.e. the purpose with regard to knowledge transfer. Cost rarely a consideration.
Meyskens, Von Glinow, Wether & Clarke - 2009	Traditional expatriate (Low Congruence / Medium Work-Life Balance)	Short term (Low Congruence / Low Work-Life Balance) – 1 moth to 1 year and usually problem solving or trouble shooting	Frequent flyer or business traveller assignments (High Congruence / Low Work-Life Balance) – frequent travel while in regular contact with home office. / Commuter (High Congruence / Medium Work-Life Balance) – weekly travel from home base to another country		Selection of assignment type dependant on goal congruence (between MNE and subsidiary organisation) and work-life balance considerations of the individual
Sijjanen & Lamsa (2009)	Global careerists (Strongest relationship with expat. colleagues Committed to career) /Balanced experts (Combination of home and away career) / Idealizers (Ideological commitment) /Drifters (Adaptation issues due to lack of clear focus).				Dependant on approach to cultural adaption and career management focus

Article	Long Term Traditional	Short Term	Commuter / FIBT	Other	Point of Differentiation
Connelly (2010)	Transnational entrepreneurs (Profit driven but lacking org. support) Ambassadors (Delegates of a greater cause non-profit cause) / World changing entrepreneurs (Non-profit ideologically driven without significant org. support)				Differentiated based on Profit / Not-For-Profit and organisational size
Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen & Bolino (2012)		Short term assignees – 3-12 months usually unaccompanied to 1 or a few countries for projects and/or problem solving and/or management development (as defined by Tahvanainen, Welch & Worm, (2005))	Flexpatriates – 1 or 2 months unaccompanied project or skill transfer to multiple countries. (as defined by Mayerhofer, Hartmann & Herbert (2004)) International business travellers – multiple unaccompanied trips for between 1 and 3 weeks usually for negotiations, conferences or project based. (As defined by Welch, Welch & Worm, 2007)	Global virtual teams - Home country based but communication outside work hours imposes non work disruption and inter dependence with global colleagues demands cognitive flexibility (as defined by Maznevski, Davison, & Jonsen, 2006)/ Global domestics – remain in home country but interact with international colleagues	Global Travellers defined based on physical mobility (per Peiperl & Jonsens, 2007), cognitive flexibility and non-work disruptions
Andresen & Bieman (2013)	Early Career (traditional single long term then permanently repatriate home) / International Organisation Career (single organisation driven by objective measures)/ International boundary/less career (Focus on subjective career measures)			Transnational career (Single employer but multiple international postings driven by objective and subjective career measures	Dependant on temporal point in career, geographic mobility and organizational tenure

Article	Long Term Traditional	Short Term	Commuter / FIBT	Other	Point of Differentiation
Baruch, Dickman, Altman & Bournois (2013)	Traditional corporate long term expatriation / Government long term for diplomatic services holistically interacting with multiple cultures / International non - government humanitarian and relief agencies services holistically interacting with multiple cultures	Short term secondments / Short term assignments usually unaccompanied / Government short term for armed services with limited interaction / Sabbaticals	Flexpatriates – short term travel with home country base and targeted work interaction across multiple cultures / Globetrotting professionals to many cultures for variable periods of time / Cross-border commuting usually to single culture with targeted work only interaction /	Self-initiated long term expatriation / In-patriates / In-shoring technical jobs across high cultural gaps / Virtual global employees / Immigration – legal, illegal and asylum seekers / international students	Differentiate across 7 dimensions; time of exposure, depth of cross cultural contact (as per Cappellen & Janssens, 2005) / breadth of interaction / legality of employment / whether organisation or self-initiated / cultural distances / cultural dependencies of role – The 7 factors purport to build on Peiperl and Jonsen's (2007) 2 dimensions of temporality and the quantity of interaction.
Doherty, Richardson & Thorn (2013)	Traditional Expatriate – Company driven	Short Term / Flexpatriate – Company driven unaccompanied		Organisational SIE (Secondment) / Self-initiated Expatriate / Opportunistic Overseas experience (O.E) employment / International students (educational or family migration focus) / Migration	Differentiated across the spectrum based on 8 dimensions; initiation / goals / funding / focus / career agenda / intended duration / employment / occupational category
Andresen, Bergdolt, Margenfeld & Dicklman (2014)	Assigned / Drawn Expatriate – (Traditional expatriates – the 'drawn' relates to being employed for the specific role)		Assigned traveller / Self-initiated traveller (Organisational or self-initiated business traveller and commuters)	Intra-SIE / Inter-SIE (Self-initiated roles either inter or intra organisational)	Dependant on 'migrant' or 'non-migrant' status then initiator of the international work experience
Bonache & Noethen (2014)	Star Assignments (High performance leads of unique tasks impacts organisational success) / Guardian Assignments (Expatriate failure drives organisational losses)				Based on task definition and purported non-linear relationship between expatriate and organisational performance

Appendix B: Exemplar Family Summary Worksheet

Family # 10

Family Demographics

Kerry (39), Isla (7) & Wade (5)

Post Interview Notes

After listening to her children's interview Kerry noted her surprise that they had no concept of the time with regards to how long [the traveller] is away for. As per Isla "Once he's gone away 2 weeks, and maybe 3 days? A few months?"

She said "well they clearly don't need him when he is away!" Isla says she doesn't miss him and doesn't even really get sad when he leaves – she arguably thought she should say she did but once we established that I understood she didn't have to miss him she felt able to say that she didn't. Wade however does say he misses [the traveller].

Methodological Contribution

Isla, especially in the beginning kept looking to check with her mother that her answers were 'ok'. There is a cost here where I think the children are not fully opening up if their mother is in the room however I am unlikely to get people to agree to allowing their children, especially young children to participate, without their presence.

However, having the same aged child as Isla did enable me to form a relationship with her and get her to answer questions on her own, without deferring to Kerry, (with her eyes / body language) as the interview proceeded?

Parent v Child – Consensus

Kerry doesn't think the children really change their behaviour when [the traveller] comes and goes because it is so normalised for them. And Isla agrees, as she pointed out, they fight all the time!

Kerry does save up 'fun' activities to do when [the traveller] is away. Isla confirms this.

Kerry thinks Wade is more vocal about missing [the traveller]. Isla certainly doesn't seem to miss [the traveller] when he is away while Wade says he does.

Parent v Child – Divergence

Kerry thinks the children don't mind [the traveller] missing birthdays as they make up for this calendar constrained events with different 'special' family activities. Isla doesn't seem to be aware of this.

Isla is of the opinion that her mother may actually have less domestic chores to attend to when her father is away. Less food to buy and less of other activities focused around her father. This may simply be indicative of Kerry protecting her children from the extra strain placed on her from the separation.

Kerry talks to [the traveller] regularly but when I asked Isla how often she talks to [the traveller] she says "I don't know, maybe once in two weeks, we don't call him that often" (This would not appear to be an aversion to using the technology as she was going to FaceTime her friend that evening)

Key Family Contribution – Non Work

The ‘lifestyle’ this family gets is not only about the international travel but also about the 4 or so months they get to spend away cruising on their boat over the New Zealand summer each year.

Kerry highlights the dedicated family time they enjoy when [the traveller] is at home. She highlights they do not really socialise with other people when he is home as that would detract from the family time

Kerry had worked in the industry (which is how she met the traveller) and she understands the need for him to be seen and to be at the top of his sailing game. She acknowledges that [the traveller’s] perceived expertise is required to maintain the business and that it is not so much about it being a ‘calling’ for him as much as ensuring that the business continues to grow. This is almost exactly aligned with what Elizabeth said. Therefore perhaps in the corporate world it is better to introduce some form of bonus scheme so the family can see the potential extrinsic rewards for the separations.

Kerry “I am not looking for adult company I am looking for his company” so perhaps need to include trips for spouses to spend time with their partners (either alone or with children – smorgasbord). And yet she must be hiding this from the children as whilst they clearly understood what made their mother sad (a recent incident where the family dog had to be put down) they did not see this sadness when [the traveller] was away.

Kerry made a number of comments how she felt the children’s behaviour had deteriorated in general of late. Whilst she is unsure what to attribute this to when talking later she confirms that the new entrepreneurial business she has started has put her

under time stress and she simply does not feel she has enough hours in the day to parent and to manage her new business. Perhaps therefore it is her stress that is crossing over to the children and this is what is affecting their behaviour. This would appear consistent with the extant literature which finds that it is not the actual absence of the parent but the stress exhibited by the stay-behind parent that represents the largest issue for them, the stay-behind children.

Key Family Contribution – S.B.S Career

The lifestyle is why Kerry doesn't have a corporate job as she does not want to jeopardise this.

Appendix C: Adult Interview Guide

#	Question Guide	Origin of Topic / Researcher Notes
1.	<p>Introductory Briefing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discuss Information Sheet - Obtain Consent(s) - Any questions before we start? - Outline basic topics to be covered / emphasise this is only a guide 	<p>As suggested per Brinkmann & Kvale (2015) publication "Interviews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing"</p>
2.	<p>Basic Demographics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Age / Gender / Number of Children and age of those children / Highest Education 	
3.	<p>Partners Current and Recent Employment History</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Please describe the role(s) your partner currently has and their current travel commitments 	<p>To identify demands on the globally mobile spouse per the Job Demands-Resources Model Bakker & Demerouti (2007) as extended into the expatriate landscape by Lazarova, Westamn & Shaffer, (2010).</p> <p>To classify the traveller across the taxonomy.</p>

- Briefly describe their role(s) and travel obligations over approximately the last 5 years.

- Do they appear content with their current travel commitments?

4. Pre-Trip Decision-Making & ‘Rituals’

- Can you describe the family decision-making process that is undertaken (if any) prior to your spouse accepting a new role? What underscores the decision regarding whether it is an accompanied or an unaccompanied placement?

Looking to establish the impact on the ‘Family Equilibrium’ as per [Olson, Russell & Sprenkle, \(1984\)](#) with particular focus on identifying aspects of family ‘communication’ / ‘cohesion’ / ‘adaptability’ – Do you make decisions as a family therefore exhibiting cohesion? – Do roles and responsibilities change therefore exhibiting adaptability?

- Can you please describe what normally happens prior to your partner going away?

Looking for insight into issues such as the **impact of short notice** and unexpected change on travel. Also looking for **differences across the taxonomy of global mobility.**

- o Are there situations or incidences where things

Looking to address critique of cultural & institutional literature (Stahl & Bjorkman p 976) that not taking account of changes over time.

don't go 'normally'? What happens then?

5. Spousal Role – During Separation

- How do you see your roles and responsibilities change when your partner is away?
- What **strategies** do you use to cope with any additional demands? **Who supports you?** Do the teams? **What else could the teams do** for when you are at home?

Increased non work demands is a consistently reported issue for military stay behind spouses
Looking to confirm applies to the current participants. Looking for 'adaptability' from Family Systems Theory Perspective

Looking to identify the resources the stay behind spouse uses to maintain the family equilibrium.

Do they have the wifenet that dominates traditional expatriate literature? Local or sailing or both? How keep in contact with Sailing wives? What about extended family support?

What organisational support would you like? Communication? Information? Contact person? Travel to visit? Home help?

Do they receive spousal support via various communication channels? Communication facilitates cohesion and adaptability.

- How do you look after you? Sports? Socialising? Other ways to relax?

Looking at differences across taxonomy?

<p>- Does the length of the separation make a difference? Or the frequencies? Is it the same each time or does it become easier? What about when they come home? (Normalised?)</p>	<p>Normalisation? Compensatory behaviour upon return? Reintegration Issues? Conflict around role ambiguity (who is responsible for what) upon their return)?</p>
<p>- Do you think over time you have changed in your response to the separation? How you manage? How you respond to change? How you communicate with your spouse when they are away? How much you rely on your spouse when they are away?</p>	<p>Point s in Life Cycle? Age of children? Point in Career Rainbow? Normalisation? Communication strategies & effectiveness. Preferred method of communication? Why?</p>
<p>What are the general positives from your - perspective?</p>	<p>\$? Travel? Degree of Independence?</p>

6. Repatriation

- **When they return how do they slot back into daily life?**

7.	Children's Role	
-	How do you think your children's lives are different when their father is away? And does it fluctuate during various stages of the separation?	<p>Children taking on increased responsibilities is constantly reported in the military context. Looking to confirm if applies to the current participants.</p> <p>Is the impact different on your different children depending on their age?</p> <p>Does their general behaviour change?</p>
-	What strategies do you think they use to cope with the separations?	<p>Do they rely on support from friends?</p> <p>Are these friends able to understand?</p> <p>Are there any indications of 'normalisation'?</p>
-	What strategies do you use to help them deal with the changes?	<p>Facilitation of communications? Which method do they prefer? Why do you think?</p> <p>Other ways of keeping them 'present'?</p>
-	Do you think this has changed as they have aged?	<p>Ensure rules and routines continue as normal? Are there any particular rituals adopted around the separation?</p> <p>Do you tend to hide your stress? Loneliness? Is this because you think your mental state could cross over to impact them?</p>
		<p>Increased responsibility leads to improved accountability &</p>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What are the general positives impact on your children that you can see? 	dependability? Independence? Resilience?
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7. Career

“the evolving sequence of a person’s work experiences over time”

One career, full of continuity and change that is not confined to paid work (arguably parenting may provide important career skills)

Role prioritisation – work v home?

Career prioritisation – Globally mobile v Stay behind spouse?

- Can you briefly describe your recent employment history?

Adjusting work demands temporarily or more permanently?

- If you are currently self-employed was it your family situation that motivated you to take this entrepreneurial path?

Traveller’s organisational support?

Stay behind spouse’s organisational support?

Agency over career choices?

- Are there aspects of your career that you feel have been impacted by your partners travel commitments?

Life Stage impact on current choices?

- What are your current career goals?

- What could be done to make it easier for you to achieve these goals?

Debriefing

- Any further questions?
- Summarise key points and ask for any further feedback
- Ask how enjoyed experience of interview?
- Ask if know any other potential participants that may fit the criterion and be willing to participate.

As suggested per [Brinkmann & Kvale \(2015\)](#) publication
"Interviews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing"

Appendix D: Adult Information Sheet



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INFORMATION SHEET

About the Researcher

My name is Joanne Mutter and I am currently studying for my PhD at Massey University in Auckland, New Zealand, under the supervision of Dr. Kaye Thorn. My previous learning has focused on human resource management, and I am currently particularly interested in understanding the impact of work related travel on the lives of the families who ‘stay behind’.

About the Project

The project involves interviewing the stay-behind partners and children of professional sailors who travel extensively for their work. The aim is to identify what impact the travel has had on your family life in general, and also on your career. Whilst all initial interview participants will be from the yachting fraternity, the focus is not on sailing but simply on work related separation. The ultimate goal is for the project to identify strategies that will help reduce the challenges and amplify the rewards of global employment, for all members of the family, irrespective of the industry.

An Invitation

I would like to invite you to participate in my research by agreeing to an interview to discuss the impact of your partner’s travel from your perspective.

With your consent I would also like to ask your children if they would like to participate and provide their point of view.

I would also appreciate if you could put me in contact with anyone else from the sailing community who may be willing to participate in my research.

Project Procedures

For you, the process will involve a one-on-one interview that will last between 60 and 90 minutes where you will be asked about your family life and your career.

For your children the process will involve an interview of no more than one hour where they will be asked about family life in general, and what happens when Dad / Mum is away.

With your permission, I plan to show the children photos of yachts their fathers / mothers have raced on to help encourage their participation and to prompt their thoughts. In recognition of the tragic losses of Hans Horrevoets and Andrew Simpson, no photos will be used from either ABN AMRO or Artemis. If there are any other incidents you feel your children may find disturbing, please let me know.

I hope to interview you in your family home, either physically in person or via Skype, at a time that is convenient for you. You are welcome to remain in the room if your children are to be interviewed, or simply within earshot if you are comfortable with that.

If you become concerned your child has in anyway become distressed by the interview process, or they simply require someone else to talk to about their situation, I would recommend the following counselling services:

- i. 0800whats up (www.whatsup.co.nz) – a free phone service for children and youth
- ii. 088 376 633 (www.youthline.co.nz)

There is also www.supportingfamilies.org.nz, a website with useful links that may not only be useful for your children but for you as well.

Data Management and Confidentiality

All interviews will, with your permission, be recorded. I will personally transcribe all the interviews and I will always use a pseudonym so you remain anonymous. The same assurances will be given to your children. You will be offered the opportunity to edit

the transcript of your interview. All data will be kept in a locked filing cabinet accessible only by me.

A second phase of research will involve interviews conducted outside the yachting fraternity. Whilst I will discuss my initial findings with the participants, it will be only at a summary level and your anonymity will be preserved.

Your Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- decline to answer any particular question;
- withdraw from the study prior to – or at any time during – the interview;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

Project Contacts

Thank you for your time. Please do not hesitate to contact me or either of my research supervisors if you have any questions.

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This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, Application 14/047. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Dr Andrew Chrystall, Acting Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, telephone 09 414 0800 x 43317, email humanethicsnorth@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix E: Children Interview Guide

CHILDREN INTERVIEW GUIDE

#	Question Guide	Origin of Topic
1.	<p>Introductory Briefing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discuss Information Sheet - Obtain Consent(s) - Any questions before we start? 	<p>As suggested in Saywitz & Camparo (2013) primer for interviewing children there should be 3 phases – Initial development of rapport / information gathering / closure</p>
2.	<p>Basic Demographics</p> <p>Age / Gender</p>	
3.	<p>Introduction of Photo(s)</p> <p>Here is a photo of BOAT A (and BOAT B)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What do these photos make you think about? - Can you tell me about what Dad does when he goes away to work on these boats? - Does he go away very often? - How long he normally goes away for? - Which did you prefer? When he was on Boat A or Boat B? Why? 	<p>Introducing the photographs to stimulate discussion and evoke memories (Collier & Collier, 1986; Harper, 2002; Prosser, 2011).</p> <p>Photo's to remain on the table for remainder of the interview.</p> <p>Do they understand time?</p> <p>Which form of Contemporary Global Mobility do they prefer?</p>
4.	<p>General Family</p>	<p>Looking to establish the impact on the 'Family Equilibrium' as per Olson, Russell & Sprenkle, (1984)</p>

	<p>- Can you please describe what normally happens when your Dad goes away?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Before he goes? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Do you talk about what is going to happen?</i> ○ <i>Do you as a family discuss the decision for dad to travel for work?</i> ○ When he is away? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ <i>Does Mum do extra things when Dad's away?</i> ○ <i>Do you do help Mum when he is away?</i> ○ <i>Do you still do your sports and other after school activities? What about having friends over?</i> ○ What happens when he comes back? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Do you spend extra time with Dad? Doing what? ○ Do you still have to do your extra jobs? ○ Does Dad slot right back in? Or does it take a while for everything to return to 'normal'? 	<p>with particular focus on identifying aspects of family 'communication' / 'cohesion' / 'adaptability'</p>
<p>5.</p>	<p>Children's Coping Strategies</p> <p>- Do you talk to Dad while he is away? Text him? Email him? Skype him? Which method of communication do you prefer? Why?</p>	<p>Frequency? Communication platform? Spontaneous or structured?</p> <p>Reliance on Mum? Extended family? Friends? Or is the process 'normalised'?</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What else do you do if you are missing Dad? Or feeling like you need some help? 	
6.	<p>Children's Perspective / Roles</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What's the best thing about Dad travelling for work? - Is there anything you don't like so much about Dad travelling for work? 	<p>Increased freedom at home? Increased responsibility at home? More time with Mum? Trips to visit him? Financial and material advantages?</p> <p>Increased responsibility at home? More or less than your siblings? Do you keep these roles when dad comes back? Missed significant events such as birthdays? Missed everyday events? Things you don't do while Dad's away? How is Mum when Dad is away? Tired and Grumpy Dad when he gets back?</p>
7.	<p>Debriefing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Any further questions you would like to ask me? - Summarise keys points and ask for any further feedback / comments 	<p>As suggested in Saywitz & Camparo (2013) primer for interviewing children there should be 3 phases – Initial development of rapport / information gathering / closure</p>

Appendix F: Children Information Sheet

CHILD INFORMATION SHEET



My name is Joanne Mutter and I am currently a student at Massey University. My husband's name is Tony Mutter and he races yachts for a job just like your Dad does. I am doing a study to try and understand what happens when Dad goes overseas and the rest of your family stays behind. I am doing this to try and find out how we can make it easier for **everyone** in your family when Dad travels for work.

Mum is going to talk with me, and Mum or Dad has given their permission, so I would like to invite you to participate in my study. If you choose to join in, I would like to talk to you to learn about your life. Mum or Dad can be in the room if you want, that is between you and them. When we start I will show you some photos of boats that Dad has raced on and ask you what this makes you think of. I am interested in learning from you how things are when Dad is away, and if things change when he is back. I am interested in hearing what you think are the best and the worst things about Dad's job, and anything else you think I might not know about when you stay behind and Dad travels.

Do you have any questions? Some of your questions may already be answered here:

- You don't have to take part. Talking to me is totally voluntary and up to you.
- If you decide after we start talking that have changed your mind that is perfectly OK. Just tell me and we will stop.
- You can ask me questions at any time.
- I want to record what you have to say but if you don't want me to that's OK. If you say I can use the digital recorder and then change your mind that is OK too. Just ask me to and I will turn it off.
- I am not allowed to use your real name when I write about what you have to say, even when talking to my teachers at the University.
- Nobody but me will see exactly what you have told me.

If you are happy to help me to learn about your family can you please print your name next to the smiley face below.



Name: _____

If you don't want to take part that is OK too. You don't have to do anything more, but I did want to say thank you for the time you took to read about my study.

Project Contacts

If you, or Mum or Dad, have any other questions about my study, you can contact me, or my teachers, at:

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Appendix G: Authenticity, Balance and Challenge Scales

Authenticity:

I hope to find a greater purpose to my life that suits who I am.

I hunger for greater spiritual growth in my life.

I have discovered that crises in life offer perspectives in ways that daily living does not.

If I could follow my dream right now, I would.

I want to have an impact and leave my signature on what I accomplish in life.

Balance:

If necessary, I would give up my work to settle problematic family issues or concerns.

I constantly arrange my work around my family needs.

My work is meaningless if I cannot take the time to be with my family.

Achieving balance between work and family is life's Holy Grail.

Nothing matters more to me right now than balancing work with my family responsibilities.

Challenge:

I continually look for new challenges in everything I do.

I view setbacks not as "problems" to be overcome but as "challenges" that require solutions.

Added work responsibilities don't worry me.

Most people would describe me as being very goal-directed.

I thrive on work challenges and turn work problems into opportunities for change.

Source: Sullivan, S., Forret, M. L., Carraher, S. M., & Mainiero, L. A. (2009). Using the kaleidoscope career model to examine generational differences in work attitudes. *Career Development International, 14*(3), 284-302.