Abstract

Expatriation is of enduring importance for multinational enterprise. Research and practice have focused on many aspects of expatriate management, reflecting a concern about expatriate performance, yet relatively little attention has been paid to expatriate performance management. Even less is known about the interplay between organization-level performance management practices and expatriates’ self-management of performance while on international assignment. During a qualitative exploration of expatriate performance management, I found that when expatriates were faced with undefined situations, they resorted to past professional, occupational or organizational experiences, depending on their length of tenure with the organization, to guide their performance. I develop this theme as a basis for future research by drawing on control, identity and scheme theories, to propose a model of an individual-level cognitive process determining work-role behavior.

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A COGNITIVE MODEL OF EXPATRIATE PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

INTRODUCTION

In this era of globalization, expatriation continues to play an important role as an international staffing option for multinational enterprises, and therefore in the development of international human resource management (IHRM). Examples that illustrate this enduring importance have been the advocacy of expatriate assignments as subtle control mechanisms, in place of the more direct structural realignments, to ensure internal and external environmental fit (Baliga and Jaeger, 1984; Welch, Fenwick and De Cieri, 1994), as diffusers of knowledge in multinational enterprises (MNEs) (Torbiörn, 1994; Welch et al., 1994), and as organization change agents (Al-Husan and James, 2003).

While calls to extend the line of sight of IHRM beyond expatriation have been heeded, this should not mean that expatriation is excluded from view. In spite of extensive research in some areas, there is still much to learn with regard to assumptions made about the efficacy of the expatriate staffing option. Take the performance of expatriates in their international assignments, for example. Although aspects of expatriate management such as selection, pre-departure preparation and cross-cultural adjustment have been extensively researched, relatively little is known about expatriate performance management. What is known appears to fall into two broad categories at the organizational and national levels; the nature of particular performance management practices (see for example, Harvey, 1997 and Tahvanainen, 1998), and the extent to which performance appraisal is transferred cross-culturally, effectively or otherwise (see for example, Gregersen, Black and Hite, 1994; Milliman, Nason, Zhu, and De Cieri, 2002; Rubienksa and Bovaird, 1999).

The rationale for staffing global operations with expatriates has included the expectation that because they have internalized headquarters policies, practices and even values, their performance will be congruent with headquarters goals and expectations, with or without a formal performance management system. Yet, little research has been conducted into the way in which individual expatriate-level performance management occurs. Even less has focused on expatriates’ self-management of their performance. For example, while Caligiuri and Day (2000: 154) investigated the impact of the personality trait, self-monitoring, on the technical, contextual and assignment-specific performance of “global assignees”, they did not examine the process by which expatriates decided how to perform in certain ways. If we accept that expatriates are active not passive selves, what cognitive processes guide expatriate interaction with the performance environment, including an organization’s performance management system, and subsequent expatriate behavior? Given that concern about expatriate performance has dominated other aspects of expatriate management research to date, this particular gap in the research seems a necessary one to fill.

I report a theme that emerged from qualitative, case study research into expatriate performance management as a dyadic relationship within two nonprofit MNEs and one for-profit MNE. It is a pity that nonprofit organizations have not been researched more thoroughly in the evolution of IHRM research. Many nonprofit organizations have long histories of involvement in international management and expatriate management, yet IHRM scholars know very little about them. The first reason, therefore, is that this is one case where IHRM practice might well lead IHRM research, a situation that has promoted concerns about the relevance of academic research to practitioners in management generally (Rynes, Bartunek and Daft, 2001). The second reason is that the nonprofit sector has experienced the most rapid growth of any internationalizing organizational sector during the past 20 years (Lindenberg, 1999), and is therefore a significant employer. Thus, including nonprofit MNEs extends IHRM research to an increasingly common and influential organizational context. Third, while the nonprofit sector is increasingly reliant on staffing with professionals and on corporation-style management practices, it is characterized by a value-based, rather than an economic orientation. Therefore, it can be considered a critical context (Yin, 2003).
in which to explore the assumption that internalized values guide expatriate performance management. Finally, nonprofit organizations may have an impact on commercial organizations. The purpose of my study reflects one of the main aims of exploratory research; that is, to articulate directions for future research via, in this instance, a model and research propositions extending from the initial findings.

Following an introduction to organization- and individual-level expatriate performance management, in order to place the ideas in this paper in their research context, I present the original qualitative case study and its conclusions. Second, as a means of directing future research, and based on the research participants’ responses and integration of relevant extant literature on cognitive, scheme, identity and control concepts, I propose a model of the cognitive process by which expatriates might self-manage their performance.

THE ORGANIZATIONAL, IHRM PROCESS OF EXPATRIATE PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

As a distinct subfield of management, IHRM has now reached maturity (Caligiuri, 2000), and leading scholars have raised their attention to strategic HRM in the global context (see, for example, McWilliams, Van Fleet and Wright, 2001). Throughout this evolution, the organizational milieu has been defined as the multinational enterprise (MNE). That is:

any enterprise that carries out transactions in or between two sovereign entities, operating under a system of decision making that permits influence over resources and capabilities, where the transactions are subject to influence by factors exogenous to the home country environment of the enterprise (Sundaram and Black, 1992: 733).

As a part of the human resource management (HRM) architecture of an MNE, performance management, according to Lewis (1998: 67), “is a term used to describe an integrated set of techniques which have had an independent existence under their own names”; for example, performance appraisal. Broadly, performance management could be considered to comprise any HRM activity, or bundle of HRM activities, designed to improve employee performance, consequently, it has been variously defined by writers and researchers. Differences have resulted in a lack of consensus as to the precise nature of performance management. There is however, agreement that at its most narrowly defined, performance management would involve performance appraisal linked to reward decisions (Fenwick and De Cieri, 2002).

At the broadest level, that of its strategic integration with other management systems, performance management involves: links to the organization strategy; individual participation in setting performance goals; feedback on progress towards goal achievement; opportunities for improvement provided via performance evaluation and training and development; and, links between results and rewards. Performance management is one component of an organization’s control system, with performance appraisal as it central human resource management activity, dual purposes of evaluation and development, and a normative or directive dimension. As a bureaucratic control (cf. Baliga and Jaeger, 1984), its formal policies and procedures aim to direct, monitor, measure and develop expatriate performance. As a cultural control (cf. Baliga and Jaeger, 1984), the performance management system establishes and reinforces what is valued in performance terms within the MNE.

Expatriate assignments provide a complex context for performance management. Each of the characteristics of an integrated performance management system is influenced when performance management crosses national and cultural boundaries (Fenwick, 2004). For instance, the multidimensionality of expatriate performance has been acknowledged; with technical, contextual and assignment-specific dimensions identified as pertinent (Black, Gregersen and Mendenhall, 1992; Caligiuri and Day, 2000). In order to be valid and reliable, expatriate performance criteria upon which individual performance goals are based must reflect all three dimensions, yet all too often these criteria reflect the headquarters context, resulting in misleading information about
expatriate performance (Caligiuri and Day, 2000; Dowling, Welch and Schuler, 1999; Harvey, 1997).

When performance goal-setting during the international assignment involves the expatriate’s local manager, this process might well differ from that with which each is familiar in terms of the nature of the performance goals and the degree of acceptability of individual participation in goal setting (Rubienska and Bovaird, 1999; Fenwick and De Cieri, 2002; Tahvanainen, 1998). Further, those enduring issues of who conducts performance appraisals and how, may be intensified when managing expatriate performance. For example, the extent to which particular performance appraisal methods and the provision of feedback are acceptable, interpreted with distrust or felt as an insult differs across cultures (Entrekin and Chung, 2001; Milliman et al., 2002).

Providing opportunities for improvement through appraisal feedback and training and development is an activity aimed at continuous improvement, and socialization to desired organizational practices. Yet, it seems that the expatriate assignment itself is often considered the development opportunity, with some expatriate training occurring before the assignment is commenced, in order to minimize the likelihood of culture shock and premature return from the international assignment (Selmer, 2001; Dowling et al., 1999). Often the new work role an expatriate is about to undertake outside of his or her familiar, home country setting receives minimal attention.

Expatriate compensation increases the complexity of linking rewards to performance, because of the specialized local knowledge required across multiple employment and legal environments (Milkovich and Bloom, 1999; Fenwick, 2004). Further, due to the enduring popularity of the balance sheet approach to expatriate compensation, consideration of individual rewards for the added complexities of performing a work role effectively in cross-cultural settings is excluded as a criterion for performance-based reward. Additionally, the visibility and distinctiveness of this traditional approach within organizations, and the long-noted internal inconsistencies it can generate (Fenwick, 2004; Harvey, 1993) magnifies perceptions of expatriates as favoured employees.

Given these apparent difficulties in developing and maintaining effective bureaucratic control via an expatriate performance management system, it is little wonder that expatriates have always been expected to demonstrate the capacity to self-manage their performance (Black et al., 1992). Further, as the complexity of international work increases, so too has the tendency for MNE management to rely on more subtle, cultural control mechanisms such as internalization of organizational norms for ‘excellent performance’. The attraction of cultural control as a mechanism is that direct supervision and performance management practices can be tempered with self-management.

An expatriate performance management system, as Janssens, citing Smith (1979), suggests, is part of the “vocabulary of the organization”, and it “does not control the ‘process’ of decision making but the ‘premises’ for decision making” (1994: 856). The way individual expatriates interact with the performance management system, the process of decision-making about performance at the individual level, might best be explained by a cognitive approach.

THE INDIVIDUAL, COGNITIVE PROCESS OF EXPATRIATE PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

How individuals decide what is important in any situation has become a major concern of organization studies (Carver and Scheier, 1981), and many of the approaches to addressing this question have been assigned the general label of cognitive theories of organizational behavior (Cray and Mallory, 1998: Schneider and Angelmar, 1993). These theories “emphasize the categories and frameworks that managers use to apprehend specific phenomena and to categorize them as familiar, similar to other phenomena or unknown” as well as the mechanisms individuals use to make sense of phenomena that do not fit easily into their existing frameworks.
(Cray and Mallory, 1998: 93). Thus, a cognitive approach considers change as not just possible but inevitable as frameworks are adapted to suit different situations.

Schneider and Angelmar (1993) note that although there are many disciplinary perspectives of cognitive theory, there are three core properties of cognition across these perspectives that can be demonstrated at multiple levels of analysis. These are: cognitive structures representing and containing knowledge; cognitive style, or differences across units of structures and processes; and cognitive processes. Cognitive processes at the individual level refer to “how knowledge is selected, organized, transformed, stored and utilized (search, selection and retention)” (Schneider and Angelmar, 1993: 351).

A cognitive approach has been adapted to investigate certain aspects of international management. For example, Redding (1980) modeled the effect of cognitive process and national culture on organizational behavior in the Chinese context; Shaw’s (1990) model explored interaction between an expatriate and a host country national and convergence of cognitive structures via the dynamics of daily intercultural interactions; and, Calori, Johnson and Sarnin (1992) explored cross-cultural differences between French and British senior managers’ frames of reference about the structures and dynamics of their competitive environments. More recently Cray and Mallory (1998) adopted a cognitive approach in their text on cross-cultural management. Linking cognition to performance in an international context, Cray and Mallory note,

In order to interpret manifested behaviors accurately, the personal framework within which the individual operates must be understood…By understanding the information which triggers behavior and the interpretive framework within which such triggers operate, one can attempt to project likely behavior in another cultural setting (1998: 91).

I focus on the 

**cognitive process**

of expatriate performance management, while recognizing Schneider and Angelmar’s (1993) suggestion that the boundaries between cognitive structure and process in scripts are not always clear. One approach to understanding the cognitive process of expatriate performance management is the notion of scripts. “Scripts are cognitive knowledge structures held in memory that describe the appropriate sequencing of events in conventional or familiar situations” (Lord and Kernan, 1987: 267). They allow for knowledge-processing about work-role performance in those settings. Scripts have a “metaphorical nature that enables organization members to understand expected behaviors” related to required performance in particular situations (Gioia and Poole, 1984: 449). They involve more than one person. For the performers and their observers, scripts generate and reflect expectations about behavior, or performance. A script is salient for an individual because it has proved useful in dealing with recurring situations; it represents a short cut for the use of accumulated experience and wisdom.

Scripts can be weak or strong (Lord and Kernan, 1987). In weak scripts, there are fewer agreed points at which events in the script can be allocated to meaningful subgroups, and the content and the scheme of events are variable. Strong scripts reflect considerable agreement among observers regarding both the content of events and how they might be allocated to meaningful subgroups. For example, an expatriate performance management system that recognizes the technical, context and assignment-specific dimensions of expatriate performance; with clear, specific goals and standards of behavior across these dimensions might contribute to the development of a strong cognitive script of an expatriate’s performance in the international assignment. However, headquarters-based expatriate performance management systems, often found to overlook aspect of the assignment-specific dimension (Harvey, 1993) might contribute to the development of weak cognitive scripts through ambiguous performance goals and standards or ones that are a poor fit with the assignment performance context.

Scripts, particularly strong ones, have several characteristics, according to Lord and Kernan (1987). First, they organize information around goals and can be evoked by informing observers about the goals of actors. Second, scripts often incorporate multiple paths to goals – if one means to an end is temporarily blocked or infeasible alternative means can be easily followed. However,
these multiple pathways refer to familiar events, not new and unfamiliar ones such as those experienced by expatriates—multiple paths are alternatives not new scripts. Third, goal and path-related contents are organized according to hierarchical “means-end”, “in-order-to” [authors’ italics] relations in scripts (Lord and Kernan, 1987). That is, a lower-level goal such as performing effectively in an international assignment is linked to and must be performed before a higher-level goal such as obtaining a promotion. Research on memory has suggested a “top-down search for goal-related information in which lower-level goals are accessed through paths involving higher-level goals” (Lord and Kernan, 1987: 266). Scripts may also limit the ways in which an individual may respond if the situation is unusual, new or mistakenly matched with an inappropriate script (Lord and Kernan, 1998). Expatriate assignments may be one such situation. Scripts that are appropriate for performing their work roles effectively at headquarters may well be inappropriate or infeasible for expatriates in their international assignments. Fourth, as the requisite lower-level goals must be achieved before higher-level ones, a clear temporal structure is often indicated. Ready elaboration, the fifth characteristic of scripts, does however allow for expatriates to adapt their scripts to incorporate new situations (Lord and Kernan, 1987).

A cognitive approach to expatriate performance management can be linked to behaviors, in this case expatriate work-role enactment, via scheme theory, according to Lord and Kernan (1987). This conceptualization draws on Eckblad’s (1981, cited in Lord and Kernan, 1987) scheme theory and is considerably different from that of ‘schema’ or ‘schemes’ “used by American researchers to refer to various types of knowledge structures”. While scripts seem to explain what constitutes a work role, scheme theory stresses how individuals perform their work-roles through the enactment of scripts (Lord and Kernan, 1987: 267).

Schemes represent relatively autonomous goal-sub-goal hierarchies and means-end chains characterized by choice points and multiple paths to goal achievement. They represent sequential linking of relatively simple actions as components of more complex work roles. Further, schemes offer options to rely on habitual responses to lower levels of the scheme complexity hierarchy in familiar settings where no barriers to goal achievement exist. Thus, in terms of performance management, schemes and scripts are similar as they involve hierarchies, deal with the familiar but allow for change, and limit or constrain individual behaviors.

Having introduced expatriate performance management from the perspective of organizational and individual processes, I will now describe the larger research study from which my cognitive model is derived.

**METHOD**

My purpose for the study was to explore the performance management systems in use in certain MNEs with different control and compliance contexts, and how expatriates interacted with those systems during their international assignments. Thus, the unit of analysis in this research was the dyadic relationship comprised of the expatriate and the multinational enterprise, with the focus being the performance management of expatriates as a dimension of organization control (after Roth and Nigh, 1992).

A case study research design was appropriate as it permits contextual and processual analysis of complex phenomena (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Hartley, 1994). Such a method is advocated for exploring processes or behaviors that are little understood (Yin, 2003). The focus is on understanding the dynamics “present within single settings” (Eisenhardt, 1989: 534). To strengthen rigor and reduce bias, I carefully adhered to a consistent research protocol based on that provided by Yin (2003). Consistent with the broad research purpose, case selection was based on theoretical rather than on literal replication. That is, each case was selected in order to demonstrate predictable, divergent results (Yin, 2003).
The Case Sites

In order to structure data collection, description and analysis in a way consistent with the dyadic control relationship, the typology of compliance developed by Etzioni (1961) was used as a rhetorical frame for this study (cf. Miller and Crabtree, 1994). Compliance ‘is a relationship consisting of the power employed by superiors to control subordinates and the orientation of the subordinates to this power’ (Etzioni, 1961: xv). Normative power rests on power exercised through the allocation and manipulation of symbolic rewards and deprivations through employment of leaders, manipulation of mass media, allocation of esteem and prestige symbols, administration of ritual, and influence over the distribution of “acceptance” and “positive response”. Etzioni summarized this as persuasive or suggestive power (1961:5). Remunerative power is based on power over material resources and rewards. Some organizations have balanced combinations of normative and remunerative power, or dual power bases. Organization members’ involvement with the dominant organizational control may range from positive to negative involvement; that is, commitment through to alienation. Organizations’ goal orientations support their dominant power and compliance structures.

Table 1 summarizes the findings concerning the organizational context of the three cases; two multinational intermediate private aid and development agencies, MissionAid and AusAid and the petroleum division of a for-profit mining organization, Petrolco. ‘Intermediate’ refers to those nonprofit organizations that are neither membership based nor are they fully voluntary. They have part-time or full-time staff, seek funding, and deliver programs and services to people, communities, and/or to voluntary membership organizations themselves (Dichter, 1999: 39).

The goal and control orientations of these case sites varied; MissionAid having a ‘normative’ control and culture-creation and reinforcement goal orientation, AusAid having a ‘dual’ control and goal orientation, being predominantly ‘culture-creation and reinforcement’, but also ‘economic’ and Petrolco having a ‘remunerative’, ‘economic’ orientation. Not only do the three Cases represent very different organizational control contexts, but in all three, expatriation mainly occurred to culturally distant and or politically unstable locations. The opportunity was thus afforded to study expatriate performance management in “sharper relief”, with the aim of highlighting processes (Hartley, 1994: 215).

Expatriate assignments play an important role in the three Cases. The main purposes for expatriation were staffing and organizational development. MissionAid has an expatriate population with a specific religious denomination, AusAid has an expatriate population with a specific set of broad religious principles (Christian) and Petrolco has an expatriation population of diverse religious denominations. Headquarters for each Case was in Victoria, Australia.

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Table 1 about here
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Data Collection

Collection of self-reported data was appropriate in this study, as phenomena such as perceptions of personal experience and opinions of organizational policies and practices are best gathered from the persons themselves (Berg, 1995; Fine, 1994). I report on one theme from the 35 expatriate and repatriate interviews conducted mainly during 1996 and 1997 while interviewees were on home leave or within two years of their repatriation. In the larger study, 52 semi-structured interviews were conducted with human resource managers, expatriates and repatriates in addition to the relevant senior managers in all three case organizations. The interview schedule
was derived from relevant extant literature concerning organizational control, IHRM and expatriate performance management, and consisted mainly of open-ended questions.

The research questions bounding the study were:

1. What are the types of control in MNEs with different compliance bases?
2. How is expatriate performance managed in MNEs with different compliance bases?
3. What are the strategic IHRM issues related to the mix of cultural and bureaucratic control in MNEs?

The questions explored the control and compliance contexts, the nature of the expatriate performance management system in use, and expatriate and human resource managers’ perceptions about the efficacy of the performance management system.

After permission was sought from the interviewees, all interviews were tape recorded. Tape recording is advantageous as it permits the researcher to be an attentive and thoughtful listener (Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell and Alexander, 1995). Interviews ranged in duration from 45 to 90 minutes, and interviewees “were encouraged to say that he or she does not remember if in fact that is the case”. Higher accuracy in self-reporting has been found to result when interviewees were permitted to say as little or as much as they wished, as opposed to being asked “specific questions with an expectation of an answer for each” (Miller, Chet, Cardinal and Glick, 1997: 200). At the conclusion of each interview, field notes were made to supplement the tapes. I typed the recorded interview transcripts, verified accuracy by replaying the tape, and returned each to the interviewee for factual verification. This was particularly necessary because interviewees frequently referred to names of exotic places and communities.

Data Analysis

I coded and indexed interview data using Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching and Theorizing (NUD*IST4) qualitative data management and analysis software (Fielding and Lee, 1998). Then, I created an index tree of codes, or theoretical categories, based on the extant literature and the broad research objective. Thus, the tree reflected codes that related to each other in a coherent, study-significant way (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This was treated as a logically neat ‘start list’, which was open to modification and change throughout the conduct of the study (Miles and Huberman, 1994). I coded interview text at the sentence-unit level. Codes were refined over several iterations based on the relevant extant literature and from the interviewees’ accounts. This process permitted the progressive addition of ‘free nodes’, or codes outside of the initial index tree. These enabled indexing of themes in the data additional to those identified from the extant literature and the semi-structured interview schedule. Thus, I allowed for a grounded theory approach (Strauss and Corbin, 1994). Using the NUD*IST4 search facilities, I then compared the interviewees’ accounts with each other and with secondary data sources, including HRM policies and staff manuals, and where appropriate, annual reports and popular media articles about the MNEs.

From this process, a theme in the accounts of the way in which expatriates determined work-role behaviors (performance) in ill-defined and or unfamiliar contexts emerged. I found that when expatriates were faced with ambiguous situations or those undefined by the organization’s performance management process, they resorted to past professional, occupational or organizational experiences, depending on their length of tenure with the organization, to determine the appropriate behaviors. Comments such as these illustrate the theme: “My identity comes from my relationship to God and the opportunity I have to use my gifts rather than because of the organization I am in” (MissionAid expatriate); “I knew what needed to be done because of prior experience. In my field, I had very clear ideas of what were appropriate performance goals for an oil company in this type of development”, “my performance was self-defined, based on 15 years of experience in the industry” (Petroloco repatriates); “[my] understanding of performance expectations and criteria [came from] years of practicing psychiatry, and having worked for the four years
previously with the Salvation Army, but just in the local church (AusAid repatriate); “I was setting up systems and processes that were the way [AusAid] did things [there was] no actual written job description of what I had to do (AusAid repatriate)”. The theme prompted me to propose the following model of the way expatriates determined how to perform in their international assignments.

EXPATRIATE PERFORMANCE: A PROPOSED MODEL OF THE SELF-MANAGEMENT PROCESS

Figure 1 presents a cognitive process. To explain how the expatriates decided between various behavioral options available to them and to better understand and predict work-related behavior in new and unfamiliar settings, I appropriated two concepts from identity theory, work-role identity and identity salience, and added the variable of ‘self-concept’. The self-concept is a set of self-meanings derived from an individual’s interaction with others. As Ashmore and Jussim (1997: 11) note, “[s]elf and identity are crucial to making sense of the thoughts, feelings and behaviors of individuals”.

As shown in Figure 1, I link expatriate cognition to expatriate behavior by suggesting that Work-Role Identity determines, via Cognitive Scripts and Schemes, appropriate sequencing of work-role events. This results in identification of Work-Role Behaviors and Performance Goals that demonstrate effective performance of this role. In reference to the earlier discussion, while scripts represent the cognitive structuring of individual knowledge about expatriate performance, work-role identity provides the reason why certain knowledge is sought, selected and retained.

I propose that expatriates perform these behaviors in order to achieve their performance goals and that they seek and respond to feedback via self-monitoring and self-regulation, in order to validate and maintain their work-role identities in their international assignments. They are motivated by the need to realize their ideal self-concepts as reflected in these work-role identities (Burke and Reitzes, 1991). This might involve adapting; even restructuring their work-role identity hierarchies and cognitive scripts and schemes, to enable expatriates to perform effectively when the international assignment or aspects of it represent unfamiliar or unconventional settings. As an unfamiliar work context for the expatriate, the international assignment might present barriers to goal attainment and therefore threaten the maintenance of a salient work role-identity. The threat is the inability to confirm that identity through performance.

I have assumed that individuals are goal-driven, and a cybernetic control perspective, by suggesting that expatriates are motivated to reduce discrepancies 1) between their established cognitive frameworks (their important work-role identities and associated scripts and schemes), and behaviors, and the ability to apply these to realize performance goals (reconciling ideal with actual performance); and 2) between their existing work-role identities and others’ perceptions of effectiveness in those roles. Thus, the model is limited to work roles and purposeful behavior (rather than the automatic, habituated kind, after Lord and Kernan, 1987). Finally the model is at once emic and etic (cf. Dowling et al., 1999; Teagarden and Von Glinow, 1997), as I propose that while culture distinguishes, for example, formulation and maintenance of work-role identities and cognitive scripts and schemes, it is likely that permutations of these concepts exist universally. Each of the elements in the model shown in Figure 1 will now be explained, and propositions for future research presented.

To summarize the Organizational Control systems found in the cases, internalized self-control was an important cultural control mechanism in MissionAid and AusAid. This was accomplished through the expatriate selection process with the main criterion of adherence to Christian beliefs
and principles. In contrast, formalized and centralized rules and procedures dominated organizational control at Petrolco, the for-profit organization, reflecting mainly bureaucratic organizational control (Baliga and Jaeger, 1984).

As mentioned earlier, performance management is a part of an MNE's bureaucratic and cultural control system. Performance management as an Organizational Control depends on the interaction of two parties; one who exerts control and one who responds to the control; the compliance structure, in Etzion's terms (1961). In each of the three cases, a formal Expatriate performance management process was in place, which reflected each organization's broader control system shown in Table 1. Varying types of pre-departure preparation, international compensation and performance appraisal were involved, but the practices generally resembled prevailing models of these expatriate performance management practices. This was an interesting counter-intuitive finding for MissionAid and AusAid.

Problems with the organizational approaches to expatriate performance management were also evident in all three cases. In particular, when expatriates had been newly recruited by their employers and contracted to the organization only for the duration of their international assignments, when the international location was culturally distant from their home country culture, or when the task they had been appointed to perform was not directly transferable to the assignment-specific context, the performance management system failed to provide adequate guidance for expatriate performance. As shown in Figure 1, the International assignment context, or assignment-specific dimensions, will impact on an expatriate's work-role performance. My finding is consistent with Mendenhall and Oddou's (1985) claim that the level of interaction with local employees, the novelty of the position and its tasks, and the cultural distance of the assignment location from that of the home country influence aspects of expatriate performance such as cross-cultural adjustment. While evident in all three cases, this problem was a particular feature in the two nonprofit organizations. The distinguishing features of expatriate assignments in these two cases were that they were usually situated in geographically and organizationally remote locations. These were often isolated communities where there was usually no other organizational representation either in terms of a physical presence like an office or branch, or by the presence of other employees. Participants from these cases therefore worked independently of the organization and often of its other employees.

As shown in Figure 1, both organizational and Individual (Self-)Control contribute to Expatriate Performance through development, maintenance or abandonment of expatriate work-roles. Although cognitive scripts and themes deal with how information is processed, as discussed above, they do not explain the motivation for how work-roles are identified, then maintained. An expatriate’s Self-concept may be “understood as the hierarchical organization of a set of identities ordered by centrality or salience” (Burke and Reitzes, 1991: 242), or the degree to which it is important to the expatriate's self. Identity theory has received considerable attention across many areas of management (Albert, Ashforth and Dutton, 2000; Ashmore and Jussim, 1997). The nature of the qualitative data I collected and analyzed indicated the applicability of a particular theoretical perspective to expatriate performance management. A role-based identity refers to a set of characteristics or expectations that simultaneously is defined by a social position in the community and becomes a dimension of an actor’s self” (Charng, Piliavin and Callero, 1988), or identifies an individual as a particular type of person in relation to certain “role partners” (Thoits and Virshup, 1997: 115). An expatriate’s Work-Role Identity is one such social position. For example, expatriates and repatriates interviewed identified themselves as members of certain professions or occupations, such as teachers, medical practitioners, administrators, human resource managers. However, a role-based perspective of identity differs from a collective or social identity perspective because, although it recognizes the importance of society in identity formation and maintenance, role identity provides individuals with a sense of personal, “meaningful selves, and identity performances are ways to garner self-validation, positive reflected appraisals, and perceptions of competence” (Thoits and Virshup, 1997: 115). A role-based perspective of identity therefore appears particularly relevant when considering expatriate self-management of performance.
The more salient the role, the more likely it will be that the individual will behave consistently with that identity. Therefore, role-identity salience is considered an important predictor of behavior (Burke and Reitzes, 1991; Charng et al., 1988). The influence of others is critical to predicting role salience. In their review of identity theory, Burke and Reitzes (1991) note that the establishment, maintenance and validation of identities constitute a cybernetic control process; that is, one based on information processing (Carver and Scheier, 1981). The process involves self-naming or location within social categories and interaction with others in relation to these, and presenting and adapting the self to negotiate and confirm the behaviors and connotations associated with the social categories. Professions and occupations are examples of work-related social categories.

Formal, organizational expatriate performance management practices play an important role in this process, therefore, by providing information about the organization’s guidelines about and expectation of expatriate performance. They define the role in performance terms, according to organizational goals and objectives. Thus, lack of a formal expatriate performance management process or such situations as isolation from one’s work peers and employers, as experienced by expatriates in MissionAid and AusAid, might therefore diminish the salience of a particular work role if the opinions of these others are fundamental to maintaining it. However, depending on the extent to which “role - person merger”, or internalization of a role as part of the self, occurs, the opinions of others may cease to have as much influence if that role is important to an individual’s sense of self, or self concept (Turner, 1978, cited in Charng et al., 1988: 304).

For example, one Petrolco employee expatriated as manager of the legal team for an international project (or organization work-role identity) identified more strongly with …and his role identity as a member of the legal profession (Wallace, J.E. 1995. Organizational and professional commitment in professional and nonprofessional organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 40: 228-255.

Thus, in relation to the interplay of organizational and individual performance management, the following is proposed about the expatriate work-role specified in the MNE performance management system, referred to as the organizational work-role identity, and expatriate’s sense of self;

Proposition 1. The relative salience of an expatriate’s organizational work-role identity and other work-related social categories (such as occupation or profession) with which he or she identifies will be determined by the relative importance of each to his or her self concept.

Figure 1 represents a feedback-driven, cybernetic, model of control. Of course the application of cybernetics, the science of communication and control, to human behaviors and to human resource management is not new (see for example, Carver and Scheier, 1981; and, specifically with regard to HRM, Snell, 1992). Indeed most performance management approaches, including the integrated characteristics outlined above, are based on a cybernetic approach, including feedback and regulating mechanisms.

Applying cybernetics to identity theory, identity processes “may be regarded as acting like a thermostat” (Burke and Reitzes, 1991: 242). ‘Selfing’ is the term used by McAdams (1997: 56) to describe the individual’s process of being him- or her-self, through the capturing and appropriation of his or her experiences, that results in a “reflexive conception of self”, or self-concept, and a sense of others, as part of an individual’s cybernetic control system. The comment by an Australian nurse expatriated to Africa by AusAid expresses the reflexive process of being herself in a very unfamiliar context, “…you knew you were going to be a nurse, but what does being a nurse mean in Africa compared with here [Australia].”

A cognitive script as a sequence of events over time is also a procedural outline, or scheme, for certain actions, thus illustrating the earlier point about blurred boundaries between cognitive processes and structures as structure and process interact. Scripts are considered more specific
and directive than roles and may include multiple individuals who interact in accordance with each script. Further, a script as a structure can be modified and adapted by different experiences. In this way, it is proposed, an ‘expatriate protean self’ can be seen as comprising multiple roles providing possibilities for adaptation through “explorations and new combinations, for life-enhancing responses” (Lifton, 1993: 24, cited in McAdams, 1997: 48-49.) An Australian repatriated from Tokyo commented on the way he perceived his work role to change in the international assignment, including expanding to involve his wife, in fulfilling the role of company ambassadors.

I think the company expected full commitment, long hours that required considerable support from family, from my wife, and they expected my wife to take a large role in company affairs with entertaining and things like that.

Over time, if pursuit of a salient role-identity is not reinforced or rewarded by reflected appraisals from the social setting, in this case the international assignment, then it is likely to become less salient (Thoits and Virshup, 1997). That is, from organizational and expatriate perspectives, if performance management practices are irrelevant to or not administered during the international assignment, then a weak organizationally-defined performance script for expatriate performance is likely to result. Therefore, I propose that:

Proposition 2a: When performance management practices result in a strong script of an expatriate’s work-role performance, his or her organizationally defined work-role will still be salient during the international assignment.

Proposition 2b: When performance management practices result in a weak script of an expatriate’s work-role performance, his or her organizationally defined work-role will be less salient during the international assignment.

The feedback loop revealed in the study is shown in Figure 1 as solid lines with arrows indicating the direction of the feedback. They also indicate Self-monitoring, a particular form of cognitive feedback about performance. Self-monitoring occurs in order to compare “reflective appraisals” of others (input), with the identity as categorized socially (the thermostat setting) and produces outputs of meaningful behavior “that change interaction until the meanings of the input match the meanings of the identity” (Burke and Reitzes, 1991: 241). Individuals may be high or low self-monitors. According to Snyder (1974), individuals high in self-monitoring ability (high self-monitors) seem able to regulate their self-presentation for the sake of desired public appearance. Consequently, expatriates who are high in self-monitoring ability are highly responsive to interpersonal and social signals of performance that is appropriate for the situation (Caligiuri and Day, 2000; Snyder, 1974). Thus, they actively seek feedback from others, as exemplified by an expatriate from MissionAid:

I spent a lot of time trying to get in touch in with contacts, other expats in the area, if I had heard names of Australians who had some experience, I’d write to them and try and get some advice. So during those first two years I was asking a lot of questions and writing lots of letters to get some ideas about what I was doing.

Conversely, individuals who are low in self-monitoring ability (low self-monitors) typically do not have a learned concern for appropriate self-presentation, may not be so vigilant to social cues, and may therefore be unable to modify their self-presentation in order to create desired impressions and achieve favorable outcomes in interpersonal situations. Low self-monitors are less likely to engage in active feedback-seeking (Ashford and Tsui, 1991). Of course, while low self-monitoring expatriates might be more likely to adhere to the performance requirements specified in the performance management system than high self-monitors (Caligiuri and Day, 2002), the extent to which their resultant performance is effective in the international assignment will be influenced by the existence, integrity and or validity of performance management practices (i.e., the extent to which these practices recognize the international assignment context).
For example, consider the agriculturalist expatriated from Australia to Indonesia by MissionAid. He struggled with the unclear and unspecified performance goals provided for the international assignment and decided, based on feedback he sought from colleagues back in Australia and his existing internalized ‘agriculturalist’ work-role-identity scripts and schemes, on an agricultural project for the region. This project proved entirely unsuitable for the location. He then asked to be repatriated. Two years later, he was offered another international assignment in a different country. He implemented the same agricultural project there and it was a resounding success. It remains a question as to whether this success was due to a favorable assignment specific context for such a program or due to cognitive and behavioral adaptations the expatriate made.

In relation to the influence of social connections that are salient to an expatriate’s self-concept and work-role identity during an international assignment, self-monitoring plays a role. High self-monitors will abandon existing interpersonal relationships in favor of new ones that are more likely to enhance public appearance. Low self-monitors will maintain existing interpersonal relationships in favor of developing new ones as the performance context changes (Jenkins, 1993). Thus, the following are proposed:

Proposition 3a: A low-self-monitoring expatriate will base his or her self-monitoring on relationships pre-dating the international assignment rather than on any new relationships formed in the international assignment.

Proposition 3b: A high-self-monitoring expatriate will base his or her self-monitoring on new relationships established in the international assignment, provided this would enhance his or her public presentation.

The process also therefore includes Adaptive self-regulation to reduce discrepancies (Tsui and Ashford, 1994). Self-regulation is central to cybernetic control theory (Carver and Scheier, 1981), and involves acting to reconcile ideal and actual performance. The extent to which an expatriate self-regulates his or her performance to adapt to the unfamiliar, international assignment context is likely to be influenced by his or her level of self-monitoring. Therefore, I propose:

Proposition 4a: A low-self monitoring expatriate is likely to persist with established work-role behaviors, even when they conflict with local behavioral norms for the work role, except when local norms are more consistent with his or her own values about the work role.

Proposition 5b: A high self-monitoring expatriate is likely to adapt his or her work-role behaviors to reflect local behavioral norms for the work role, provided this would enhance his or her public presentation.

IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE, AND CONCLUSION

My study has explored MNE performance management practices and expatriate self-management to provide a model for future research. I have taken some important steps forward. First, I conducted a qualitative case study across three MNEs, collecting data representing two levels of analysis. The case study methodology sought to facilitate both exploration and theory-building through the inductive and deductive processes followed. Figure 1 is a result of the inductive process. In this way, the case study method has contributed to explanations of phenomena as part of theory building (Yin, 2003). In particular the choice of the two nonprofit cases allowed for the inclusion of an increasingly important yet so-far neglected expatriate performance management context. Second, in contrast to the research to date in expatriate performance management, I have considered not just the nature of the organizational performance management systems in each case site, or the views of the expatriates affected by them, but also the interplay between both in terms of a cognitive process. By taking this approach at the individual-expatriate-level, I
have provided insight into how expatriates might make decisions about their performance during their international assignments.

In terms of future research to develop actionable knowledge about expatriate performance management in MNEs, my study suggested that expatriate performance during the international assignment is a function of both the MNE performance management system and expatriate work-role identity. Repositioning roles in their individual identity hierarchies, and or adapting work-roles as expatriates interact with unfamiliar international performance contexts not adequately or accurately reflected in the MNE performance management system are examples of the cognitive process enacted. However, much remains to be done in future research, in order for this to generate actionable knowledge.

The model in Figure 1 should not be considered complete; rather, it is a starting point. Three key requirements for research on performance management as part of IHRM are to develop psychometrically sound measures for relevant constructs and methods for testing the research propositions (Schuler and Florkowski, 1996), to use multi-method research designs in order to achieve both breadth and depth of knowledge, and to involve practitioners in the design and conduct of research in order to increase its relevance to them and therefore the likelihood that they will both read and be informed by it (Rynes, Bartunek and Daft, 2001). Longitudinal research is required to more effectively map and develop the aspects of the model I have proposed, and the changes over time in the dyadic interaction that is expatriate performance management. For instance, the process represented in the model might be more relevant in certain stages of an expatriate assignment, the early stages for example, or when changes occur to the organizationally defined work role or other aspects of the international assignment context.

Further, there is a need to separate unique, “personal self-understandings” from “individual self-conceptions in terms of broader social categories” (Thoits and Vershup, 1997: 106). For example, John Smith’s unique biographical details, such as where he was born, and idiosyncratic experiences, such as how often he attended the theatre or moved house, versus his individual self concept as a manager, a parent and an expatriate. Schneider and Angelmar (1993) argue for more research into cognition at the group and organizational levels. Perhaps expatriates share a particular cognitive framework by virtue of the common experience of having expatriated. Perhaps, also, as suggested by Calori et. al. (1992), culture is one environmental variable that might result in members of a particular country or organization with similar cognitive frameworks. Finally, in relation to implications for research, while the focus in this paper is on expatriate performance management, perhaps the model could be more broadly applied to include host country and third country nationals.

There are important implications for the practice of expatriate performance management. For instance, when expatriates were faced with ambiguous situations and or those not covered in the organizational performance management practices, they resorted to professional, occupational or organizational identities, depending on, for example, the nature and duration of their employment histories with the headquarters, to determine the appropriate behaviors. Such an approach to self-management may or may not be in the best interests of the expatriates or MNEs concerned, depending on the extent to which these other identities are consistent with effective performance in the international assignment. A further implication for practice is to consider the importance of social connections for a particular work-role identity when applying performance management practices to expatriates. For example, Feldman and Bolino’s (1999) study suggests the value of on-site mentors in socializing expatriates to the international assignment context. Also to be considered is the influence of first-time experience versus established careers as expatriates. The basis of intention to perform will likely differ between first timers and those with experience/careers in the role. Drawing on Charng et al.’s (1988) research, for first-time expatriates, attitudes towards expatriates and social pressure to perform certain behaviors in the expatriate’s role (subjective norms) might be the main predictors of their behavioral intentions. For expatriates experienced in their work roles, work-role identity might be the main predictor of their behavioral intentions, leaving aside the impact of differences in the levels of individual self-monitoring.
My empirical findings have highlighted consequences for expatriate performance management in certain conditions. In particular, when expatriates had been recruited by their employers and contracted to the organization only for the duration of their international assignments, when the international location was culturally distant from their home country culture, or when the task they had been appointed to perform was not directly transferable to the international context, the performance management system failed to provide adequate guidance for expatriate performance. Given that flexible employment practices, a proliferation of nonstandard, shorter international assignments as alternatives to expatriation (Welch and Fenwick, 2003), and the view that careers are increasingly within individuals rather than organization-specific (Garavan, Morley, Gunnigle and Collins, 2001) are increasingly part of the IHRM environment, the model and its related propositions provide a timely agenda for expatriate performance management research and practice.
REFERENCES


Table 1: Summary of the Organizational Contexts of the Cases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>MissionAid</th>
<th>AusAid</th>
<th>Petrolco</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>1913*</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>1960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First international market entry</td>
<td>1882**</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>1970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit orientation</td>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td>For-Profit</td>
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<td>Culture-creation and reinforcement</td>
<td>Culture-creation and reinforcement/ economic</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Orientation</td>
<td>Normative (N)</td>
<td>Dual (N/R )</td>
<td>Remunerative (R)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of expatriates interviewed</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total number of expatriates</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* the Australian office
** Australian expatriates were originally recruited from the international head office

Figure 1: A Cognitive Model of Expatriate Performance Management

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Organizational Control
- Expatriate performance management process
- International assignment context

Individual (Self-) Control
- Self-concept

Expatriate Performance

Expatriate work-role identity

Self-monitoring
Adaptive self-regulation

Performance Goals

Cognitive Scripts & Schemes
- Appropriate work-role behaviors
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