AN EXPATRIATE MENTORING PLAN FOR ABU DHABI OIL AND GAS INDUSTRIES (GASCO)

by

THOMAS FREDERICK DREYER

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree

MASTER OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

in the

Department of Business Management

Faculty of Management Sciences

at the Central University of Technology, Free State

Supervisor: Prof D Kokt (D Tech Human Resource Management)

Bloemfontein
August 2017

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENT WORK

I, Thomas Frederick Dreyer, ID number [redacted] and student number [redacted], do hereby declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the degree MASTERS OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT, is my own independent work and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as with other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

Dreyer

08 August 2017

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT **DATE**

SUMMARY

Multinational Corporations (MNCs) are an essential part of the modern globalised business environment (Chen, Tzeng & Tang, 2005:278). Within an increasingly competitive global market, it is understandable that MNCs employ highly skilled expatriates from across the globe. Expatriates are individuals from one country who work and live in another country (Hill, 2005:618). According to Peiperl, Levy and Sorell (2014:45), skilled expatriates form the backbone of MNCs, and many MNCs fail due to a shortage of skilled labour (Abdullah & Jin, 2015:548-549).

Purgal-Popiela (2011:27) attests, however, that one out of three expatriates perform below expectation. On average, 40% of expatriates who complete their foreign assignments are ineffective or marginally effective (Deresky, 2002:398). The US reports an annual loss of around $4 billion due to failed foreign assignments (Cole & Nesbeth, 2014:71). Numerous authors propose mentoring as a strategy to support expatriates in adjusting to the new environment (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010; Feldman & Bolino, 1999; Forret, Turban & Dougherty, 1996; Gibb, 1999; Mezias & Scandura, 2005; Zhuanga *et al*., 2013). The majority of research on expatriates focuses on the mentor, but ignore the levels, methods and techniques that an expatriate mentoring plan should contain.

The focus of this study was to develop a customised mentoring plan for Abu Dhabi Oil and Gas Industries (GASCO). The company has around 7150 expatriate employees from 19 different countries. As GASCO has also reported high expatriate failure rates, this investigation was aimed at ascertaining work-related adjustments, personal-level adjustments and the extent to which expatriates have formed a new identity. Mixed-method research (both quantitative and qualitative) was used in this study which consisted of two phases. Phase 1 involved a structured questionnaire that was administered to all GASCO's expatriate employees who have been employed for two years or more. The quantitative findings confirmed that there was a lack of expatriate support pertaining to work-related and personal-level adjustments.

Findings were supported by the inferential statistics performed on the data. This enabled the construction of a proposed mentoring plan for GASCO. During Phase 2

the mentoring plan was presented to a focus group for discussion and further refinement before finalisation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Most importantly, I wish to thank our Heavenly Father for the life-changing opportunity, strength, guidance and knowledge to complete my dissertation. Thank you, Father, for sending the right people across my path to guide and support me through this exciting journey.

This amazing experience would not have been possible without my determined, motivated and caring supervisor, Professor Deseré Kokt. A special thank you to her for her guidance, encouragement, motivation and commitment in assisting me throughout my study.

Thank you to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for accepting me to this programme and for their financial assistance.

Thank you to my employer in Abu Dhabi (GASCO) for providing me with the necessary information and tools to complete this study and make a difference in the workplace.

A final word of thanks to my family and friends for all their support and understanding during this journey. A special thank you to my father, who always believed in me and encouraged me to start and complete this study. May your soul rest in peace.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENT WORK ii
SUMMARY iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS v
TABLE OF CONTENTS vi
LIST OF FIGURES viii
LIST OF TABLES viii
LIST OF GRAPHS viii
GLOSSARY ix
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION 1
1.1 Background to the study 1
1.2 Research problem 3
1.2.1 Background to the problem 3
1.2.2 Problem statement 5
1.3 Objectives 5
1.3.1 Main objective 5
1.3.2 Co-objectives 5
1.4 Questions 6
1.4.1 Main question 6
1.4.2 Research questions 6
1.5 Research methodology 6
1.6 Ethical considerations 7
1.7 Significance of the study 7
1.8 Limitations of the study 7
1.9 Layout of the study 7
CHAPTER 2: GLOBALISATION AND THE EXPATRIATE WORKFORCE 9
2.1 Introduction 9
2.2 Explaining globalisation 9
2.3 Globalisation and Multinational Corporations 13
2.3.1 Workforce diversity in Multinational Corporations 19
2.3.2 Managing workforce diversity in Multinational Corporations 23
2.3.3 Human resource management practices and diversity management within Multinational Corporations 24
2.3.4 Challenges of diversity management within Multinational Corporations 27
2.4 Expatriates and the challenge of failure 32
2.5 Individual and organisational elements affecting expatriate adjustment 36
2.6 Summary 53
CHAPTER 3: EXPATRIATE MENTORING 54
3.1 Introduction 54
3.2 Explaining the term ‘expatriate mentoring’ 55

3.3 Functions of mentoring 59
3.4 Learning theories and styles relevant to mentoring 62
3.5 Advantages and disadvantages of mentoring 70
3.5.1 Advantages and disadvantages for the mentee 72
3.5.2 Advantages and disadvantages for the (host-country) mentor 74
3.5.3 Advantages and disadvantages for Multinational Corporations 75
3.6 The influence of culture on expatriate mentoring 76
3.7 Expatriate training and support practices 82
3.8 Challenges of expatriate mentoring 84
3.9 Different stages and phases of expatriate mentoring 85
3.9.1 Mentoring and relationship phases 86
3.9.2 Mentoring implementation phases 91
3.10 Theoretical framework for the study 98
3.11 Summary 101
CHAPTER 4: PROFILING ABU DHABI OIL AND GAS INDUSTRIES (GASCO) ... 102
4.1 Introduction 102
4.2 The oil and gas sector in the UAE 102
4.3 GASCO's workforce 103
4.4 Initiatives taken by GASCO 105
4.5 Challenges within GASCO 107
4.6 Conceptual framework for an expatriate mentoring plan for GASCO 107
4.7 Summary 108
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 109
5.1 Introduction 109
5.2 Research methodology 109
5.3 Research approach and design 110
5.4 Data-gathering instruments 111
5.5 Population and sampling 113
5.6 Pilot study 115
5.7 Data collection 115
5.8 Fieldwork challenges 116
5.9 Summary 116
CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS 117
6.1 Introduction 117
6.2 Descriptive statistics 117
6.2.1 Section A: Demographic profile of the respondents 117
6.2.2 Section B: Work-related adjustments 123
6.2.3 Section C: Personal-level adjustments 125
6.2.4 Section D: Development of a new identity 127
6.3 Inferential statistics 129
6.4 Responses to the focus group discussion 133

6.5 Summary 134
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 135
7.1 Introduction 135
7.2 Conclusions 135
7.3 Recommendations: Expatriate mentoring plan for GASCO 138
7.4 Suggested future research 138
REFERENCES 139
ANNEXURE A: Questionnaire 174
ANNEXURE B: Expatriate mentoring plan for GASCO 178

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1: Kolb's learning cycle 65
Figure 3.2: The four individual learning styles 68
Figure 3.3: The Five C model 97
Figure 4.1: Number of expatriate employees at GASCO 104
Figure 4.2: GASCO leadership development framework 106
Figure 4.3: Conceptual framework 107

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: The impact of global activities on international business 14
Table 3.1: Mentoring benefits on career and psychosocial level 62
Table 3.2: The influence of national culture on mentoring preferences 79
Table 3.3: Mentor competencies per relationship phase 94
Table 6.1: Work-related adjustments 123
Table 6.2: Personal-level adjustments 126
Table 6.3: New identity development 128
Table 6.4 Pearson's chi-squared test results for work-related adjustment 129
Table 6.5 Pearson's chi-squared test results for personal-level adjustment 131
Table 6.6 Pearson's chi-squared test results for forming a new identity 132

LIST OF GRAPHS

Graph 6.1 Respondents' country of origin 118
Graph 6.2 Age distribution of respondents 119
Graph 6.3 Gender of respondents 120
Graph 6.4 Respondents' employment level 121
Graph 6.5 Respondents' employment period 122

GLOSSARY

ADNOC	Abu Dhabi National Oil Company
AE	Active Experimentation
CCT	Cross-Cultural Training
CE	Concrete Experience
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
GASCO	Abu Dhabi Oil and Gas Industries
HR	Human Resource
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IDV	Individualism
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MNC	Multinational Corporation
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
OPEC	Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries
PDI	Power Distance Index
RO	Reflective Observation
SHRM	Society of Human Resource Management
STHRM	Strategic Human Resource Management
TMD	Talent Management Division
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UNCAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
US	United States
USD	United State Dollars
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
WTO	World Trade Organisation

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The modern organisation finds itself in a competitive global setting which is a powerful agent for positive economic change (Banyhamdan, Harrim & Al-Qutop, 2012:74). Globalisation implies the cross-border connection and integration of societies, economies and cultures. This is not a new phenomenon – what is new is the scale and speed of globalisation over the past 20 years (Goldin, 2010:5). The opening of geographical boundaries of countries due to new and fast changing technologies (notably Information Communication Technology [ICT]) has increased the pressure on organisations to be more effective and efficient. In the modern business environment, companies are expected to be dynamic and competitive on a global scale.

Multinational Corporations (MNCs) are an integral part of the globalised business environment for a variety of reasons: access to new markets, more resources, available labour, lower transportation costs and financial incentives (Chen, Tzeng & Tang, 2005:278). It is thus not surprising that globalisation ranks high on the strategic agendas of company executives in their quest for competitive advantage in a fiercely competitive global environment (Goldin, 2010:8).

Within the context of globalised supply chains, information flows and financial market operations, there is an increasing demand for skilled labour. Abdullah and Jin (2015:548-549) note that many companies in the international arena fail, not because of a lack of informed business strategies, but because of ineffective human resource (HR) practices and skilled labour. Within an increasingly competitive global market, it is understandable that MNCs tend to employ employees from their home country to oversee projects abroad. These individuals are referred to as expatriates. An expatriate is defined as a person working and residing in a country other than their native country (Noe, 2013). Expatriates are individuals of one country sent by the parent company to perform international assignments (Hill, 2005:618). This involves working and living in another country.

International employees come in a variety of forms such as immigrants (people who come to live permanently in a foreign setting), short- and long-term expatriate assignees (nominated employees deployed by their company), international commuters (employees who work in a foreign country, but return home regularly), self-initiated foreign workers (individuals who undertake international work experience with no, or very little, organisational sponsorship) and employees undertaking extensive business trips (Point & Dickmann, 2012:19; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010:1013).

Expatriates play a vital role in starting and troubleshooting foreign ventures and their subsidiaries (Schweyer, 2004:1). According to Peiperl, Levy and Sorell (2014:45), a skilled expatriate workforce forms the backbone of MNCs. The success of MNCs thus depends on the performance of expatriates and it is important for organisations to ensure that expatriates are adequately prepared for what is expected of them. This involves adapting to a new working and social environment, which includes the adaptation of the family members who relocate with them (Morley, Burke & Finn, 2004:207; 2010:78; Selmer & Fenner 2009:80).

In this regard, mentoring is an essential imperative in ensuring that expatriates are able to adapt to their new environment. Mentoring is referred to as a strategy that provides the requisite support to an expatriate in coping with the challenges of adapting to a new work and living environment (Mezias & Scandura, 2005). According to Zhuanga, Wu and Wen (2013) and Feldman and Bolino (1999), expatriates who receive regular mentoring perform better than those who do not.

There is no 'one-size-fits-all' mentoring plan for expatriates. Mentoring plans need to be personalised to suit the organisation, its objectives and the target population. One of the most significant foundations of successful mentoring is the presence of a customised mentoring plan (Zhuanga *et al*., 2013). The use of a mentoring network (interlinking mentoring relationships among all members of the MNC) is proposed by Mezias and Scandura (2005), Feldman and Bolino (1999) and Feldman and Thomas (1992) to enhance expatriates' adjustment, development and successful adaptation.

Zhuanga *et al*. (2013) further attest that mentorship produces better career outcomes, increases job satisfaction and enhances socialisation. The majority of research on expatriates, however, focuses on the mentor (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010; Feldman & Bolino, 1999; Forret, Turban & Dougherty, 1996; Gibb, 1999; Mezias & Scandura, 2005) and ignore the levels, methods and techniques that an expatriate mentoring plan should contain. A mentoring plan should ideally contain measures to facilitate social support, impart information exchange and career advice (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010; Shumsky, 1993:8). Yet, Cullen and Parboteeah (2010) observed that only 30% of organisations practice mentoring.

The rate of failed expatriate assignments has never decreased, but the rate of deploying employees on international assignments is ever increasing (Forstenlechner, 2010:180). The US reports an annual loss of around $4 billion due to failed foreign assignments (Cole & Nesbeth, 2014:71). These direct costs include not only the loss of business and failed ventures, but also the loss of reputation of the company (Cole & Nesbeth, 2014:73). The estimated cost to expatriate assignments includes expatriate training and moving expenses, together with lost managerial productivity. It excludes the decreased performance of the foreign subsidiary itself.

The United Arab Emirates (UAE), in particular, employs large numbers of expatriates. According to Dyes (2009), expatriates comprise as much as 87% of the workforce in the UAE. The Ministry of Economy, Department of Economic Development and Statistics Centre in Abu Dhabi (2014:214) estimated the expatriate workforce of Abu Dhabi at about 1.4 million in 2011. Roughly 132 000 (10%) of the Abu Dhabi population are UAE nationals and around 1 311 800 or 90% are expatriates. According to Wils, Saba, Waxin and Labelle (2011:452), the expatriate workforce in the Arab world, specifically in the UAE, has expanded tremendously in the past two decades.

1.2 Research problem

1.2.1 Background to the problem

Globalisation is a reality in the 21st century, as well as MNCs' employing large numbers of expatriates (Harvey & Moeller, 2009:280). The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCAD) reports that there are around 889 146 MNCs worldwide (World Investment Report, 2015). Skilled expatriates are an integral part of the workforce of MNCs. According to Hill (2005:624), Ozbilgin (2005:132), Hansen and Rasmussen (2016:176) and Chen *et al*. (2005:278), the failure rate of expatriates remains high. This includes premature termination, unsatisfactory work performance and expatriates who are unprepared or ill-adjusted to the new setting (Chen *et al*., 2005:278).

According to Hansen and Rasmussen (2016:177), about 40% of expatriates are not adequately prepared for international assignments. In 2013, Maurer found in a survey that 42% of overseas assignments were unsuccessful. This is supported by Abdullah and Jin (2015:549) who stress the importance of training plans to assist expatriates in adjusting to their new environment. While formal training (whether pre-departure, post-arrival or cross-cultural training [CCT]) has been a dominant strategy to prepare expatriates, not much emphasis has been placed on expatriate mentoring plans (Kim, 2007:3). According to Cullen and Parboteeah (2010:27) and Sullivan (2015), very few MNCs have expatriate mentoring plans in place.

Purgal-Popiela (2011:27) states that one out of three expatriates performs below expectation. Pokharel (2016:311) further highlights the severity of the problem by indicating that 7% of MNCs in the US experience a 40% expatriate failure rate among their employees. A total of 69% of MNCs experience a 20% failure rate, and the remaining 24% have reported a 10% failure rate. Deresky (2002:398) continues to highlight the problem that, on average, 40% of expatriates who complete their foreign assignments are ineffective or marginally effective. Similarly, Maurer (2013) indicates that only 58% of overseas assignments are judged to be successful and attributes failure mostly to a lack of training and development strategies.

Numerous authors have proposed mentoring as a strategy that can facilitate social support, impart CCT and assist expatriates in adjusting to the new environment (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010; Feldman & Bolino, 1999; Forret *et al.*, 1996; Gibb, 1999; Mezias & Scandura, 2005; Zhuanga *et al*., 2013).

1.2.2 Problem statement

No country can escape the persisting impact of globalisation. In the Arab world, it has resulted in major changes in work values mainly due to modernisation, industrialisation, globalisation and westernisation (Wils *et al*., 2011:452). These changes have had a positive impact on the Arab business world, and the UAE is one of the global leaders in the financial trade. This has led to a proliferation of MNCs in the UAE, especially Abu Dhabi, which has increased the influx of expatriates from across the globe (Wils *et al*., 2011).

GASCO, the focus of this investigation, is one of the largest employers of expatriates in Abu Dhabi, employing around 7 150 expatriate employees (Al Qubaisi, 2015). The persisting expatriate failure rates have also affected GASCO. GASCO's Vice President, Semih Kutlay, expressed his concern with regard to the high failure rate of expatriates in his welcoming speech of 2014, stating that: 'Failed expatriate assignments result in a reduction in GASCO's market share as well as damaged staff, customer and supplier relations, not to even mention the extreme high financial loss to GASCO'. As GASCO has no formal mentoring plan for expatriates, the aim of this study was to develop an expatriate mentoring plan for the company.

1.3 Objectives

1.3.1 Main objective

The main objective of this study was to develop an expatriate mentoring plan for GASCO, Abu Dhabi.

1.3.2 Co-objectives

1. To determine the demographic profile of expatriate employees at GASCO.
2. To ascertain the work-related adjustments of expatriate employees at GASCO.
3. To ascertain the personal-level adjustments of expatriate employees and their families.
4. To measure the extent to which expatriate employees at GASCO have formed a new identity.

5. To test the suitability of the proposed mentoring plan for the expatriate employees at GASCO.

1.4 Questions

1.4.1 Main question

What are the ideal components/elements of an expatriate mentoring plan for GASCO?

1.4.2 Research questions

1. What is the demographic profile of expatriate employees at GASCO?
2. What are the work-related adjustments of the expatriate employees at GASCO?
3. What are the personal-level adjustments of the expatriate employees and their families?
4. To what extent have the expatriate employees at GASCO formed a new identity?
5. How suitable is the proposed mentoring plan for the expatriate employees at GASCO?

1.5 Research methodology

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:1-2) define research as an organised process of gathering, examining and understanding information to increase the understanding of a particular phenomenon. A research methodology explains and justifies the methods selected to conduct a particular investigation for the purposes of resolving an issue. It can be understood as the science of examining the process of conducting an investigation (Pandey & Pandey, 2015:16).

Owing to the nature of this study, mixed methods were employed (both quantitative and qualitative methods) to address the research problem. Qualitative research is primarily exploratory research which is used to gain understanding of underlying reasons, opinions and motivations as they provide insights into the problem, while quantitative research is used to quantify the problem by way of generating numerical data or data that can be transformed into useable statistics (Salkind, 2011:41). The quantitative part of the study involved administering a structured questionnaire to all expatriate employees at GASCO. This enabled the construction of the expatriate mentoring plan. The qualitative part of the study involved testing the suitability of the plan using a focus group.

1.6 Ethical considerations

In this study, the following ethical standards were adhered to:

- The GASCO employees who participated in the study were informed of the purpose of the study and how this research might contribute to future expatriate experiences.
- Participation in the study was voluntary.
- Privacy was maintained and all research data were treated confidentially.
- Participants were debriefed after the completion of the study.

1.7 Significance of the study

The study proposes a mentoring plan for GASCO aimed at addressing the high expatriate failure rates the company is experiencing.

1.8 Limitations of the study

Confidentiality is the main weakness of descriptive research. Respondents are often unwilling to participate and supply information.

1.9 Layout of the study

The study is set out in the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Globalisation and the expatriate workforce

The term ‘globalisation’ and the different role players affected are discussed in this chapter, followed by a literature review regarding the workforce diversity within MNCs, with special focus on challenges and how they should be managed. Lastly, the expatriate workforce is being discussed with the focus on its high expatriate failure rates due to adjustment challenges.

Chapter 3: Expatriate mentoring

This chapter highlights the importance of expatriate mentoring. It explains what is mentoring with specific focus on expatriate mentoring within MNCs while highlighting the advantages and disadvantages of this strategy. Lastly, chapter 3 presents the Identity Development Theory of Chickering and Reisser (1993) as theoretical framework.

Chapter 4: The oil and gas industry in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) with specific reference to GASCO

GASCO’s workforce, its current training strategies and challenges are discussed in this chapter. The conceptual framework for the study is also presented.

Chapter 5: Research methodology

This chapter discusses the research methodology which includes the research approach and design. The reasons for selecting the data-gathering instruments and target population are elaborated. Chapter 5 also deals with the data collection methods, fieldwork challenges and pilot study.

Chapter 6: Data analysis and presentation of findings

This chapter describes the analysis of the study and presents the results and findings.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 7 presents the conclusions of the study and outlines the proposed expatriate mentoring plan as part of the recommendations to GASCO’s management.

CHAPTER 2: GLOBALISATION AND THE EXPATRIATE WORKFORCE

2.1 Introduction

Owing to the massive expansion of the internet, the various forms of ICT and fast and efficient modes of international travel, the world has indeed become a global village. This also applies to the internationalisation of companies and the movement of employees across international borders. International trade, financial capital flows, trade liberalisation and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) are some of the issues that companies need to consider in becoming global players. Globalisation also implies sharing information, ideas and views of individuals belonging to various cultural groups at an international level (Brinkman & Brinkman, 2002; Umaru, Hamidu & Musa, 2013).

The aim of this chapter is to explore and examine the existing literature pertaining to globalisation, MNCs and the expatriate workforce. It further deals with workforce diversity and managing workforce diversity in MNCs, as well as the individual and organisational elements that affect expatriate adjustment. It will also reflect on strategies to support expatriate adjustment, which could assist in reducing expatriate failure rates.

2.2 Explaining globalisation

Humans have travelled and traded since early times. From the 16th to the 19th century European powers expanded aggressively and colonised many parts of the world (Luthans & Farner, 2002). This, together with the Industrial Revolution (from about the 1760s), has paved the way for the globalised world of the 21st century. In the Industrial Revolution machines were introduced to general production, chemical manufacturing, iron production, and so forth. This revolution, which had started in Great Britain, soon spread to all major European and North American centres, essentially conquering the international market. Between the end of the 18th and 19th century the need for raw materials and an upcoming second industrial revolution led the industrialised countries to colonise those least developed (Umaru *et al*., 2013).

According to Arezki, Rota-Graziosi and Senbet (2013), these actions initiated the development of MNCs. The two world wars and the opposing ideologies of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) and capitalist systems respectively brought a great deal of contention on how economic activities should be structured. After the Second World War, accelerated advancement of the global market took place as Europe recovered from the ravages of war. This involved the liberalisation of international trade and development (Umaru *et al*., 2013). The year 1989 witnessed the collapse of socialism, giving further impetus to the strong capitalist powers such as the US, Europe and Japan, while the Third World remained in a situation of absolute exploitation (Arezki *et al*., 2013).

Robertson and Khondker (1998:29) define 'globalisation' as the compression of the world with an accelerated increase in the recognition of the total business environment. Dicken (2011:5) concurs by stating that globalisation is the clear expansion of advantageous and valuable undertakings across national borders.

Globalisation, thus, involves the integration of both economic and production processes for the manufacturing of consumer goods and services, making use of facilities in different countries. This usually requires advanced technology and high levels of integration and implies that individuals from different cultural groups need to work together in achieving the goals of the organisation (Umaru *et al*., 2013). The cost of moving goods, services and knowledge effectively and efficiently across the world has continued to accelerate unabatedly (Bhagwati, 2004:10; Cole & Nesbeth, 2014).

According to Umaru *et al*. (2013), the following are some of the main features of globalisation:

- Trade liberalisation;
- Increasing and changing patterns of financial flows;
- Cheaper and quicker transport;
- The growth in the size and power of corporations; and
- Impressive advances in new technology, specifically information and communications technology.

Trade liberalisation is evolving, partly through its own dynamism and partly through the implementation of international, regional and national rules, standards and policies, in particular, the rules of the World Trade Organisation (WTO), and the policies of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (Bhagwati, 2004:11).

According to Evren (2006:10), an MNC tends to be an 'oligopolistic' corporation in which ownership, supervision, manufacturing and sales events extend over several national boundaries. It consists of a head office in one country with a group of subsidiaries in other countries. The main objective of the corporation is to secure the cheapest manufacturing of goods for world markets by getting the most efficient locations for manufacturing facilities. An MNC can use many kinds of instruments to create business areas. They frequently do this by FDI, joint ventures with firms in the host country, or portfolio investment where they invest in financial instruments such as stock shares, bonds, bills and real estates (Sturgeon, 2013).

MNCs not only have multinational investments but also multinational human resources. As a result, they also create multinational company cultures and multinational business practices in their subsidiaries (Arezki *et al*., 2013). Trade, invasion and religious conquests have been the main reasons why humans have explored the globe in the past centuries. The expansion of international business and tourism has been the main reasons behind the increase in international travelling. The increased pace of globalisation in the past two decades (since 1990s) has led to MNCs' becoming more prolific. Bardhan (2013:393) states that has globalisation progressed through various phases.

Currently, the interlinking of capitalism, technology and media marks the expansion of globalisation. The unprecedented forms of time–space compression are the outcomes of globalisation. According to Sturgeon (2013:), the potential for working across borders has increased due to the better codification schemes, advances in ICT and improvements in transport and logistics.

However, according to Umaru *et al.* (2013:2), there are certain barriers when it comes to the functioning of businesses on an international platform. These barriers include aspects such as organisation potential, financial barriers such as immediate availability of large amounts of cash, and a lack of information regarding the international trade markets.

Globalisation may mean elimination of state-enforced restrictions on exchanges across borders and the increasingly integrated and complex global system of manufacturing, distribution and exchange that has developed as a result. These developments have succeeded in relatively shrinking the political, economic and cultural barriers in favour of Western countries (Imam, 2009).

The processes of globalisation are moving between local and global, in a defined space, making the term 'global village' highly appropriate (Arezki *et al.*, 2013:27).

Umaru *et al*. (2013) list the effects of globalisation as follows:

- It improves data movement between different locations.
- Consumers and companies have extensive access to a variety of goods and services.
- There is an increase in immigration between countries.
- Social benefit is generated by the free flow of people from all over the globe as employees of the globalising organisations are exposed at international level through projects that require them to go outside their native country.
- International travel and tourism increase.
- The free circulation of people of different nations leads to social benefits.
- It helps countries resolve global problems such as cross- boundary pollution and climate changes, all by discussions.
- Resolving issues globally is encouraged by the introduction of international criminal courts and justice movements.
- Cross-cultural contacts have grown and cultural diffusion has occurred.
- Worldwide production markets have emerged.
- More trans-border data flow occurs via communication satellites, the internet, wireless telephones, etc.
- The standards applied globally such as patents, copyright laws and world trade agreements increase.
- Corporate, national and subnational borrowers have better access to external finance.

- Multiculturalism is spreading, as there is individual access to cultural diversity. This diversity, however, decreases due to hybridisation or assimilation.
- More worldwide sporting events such as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup are held.
- Local consumer products are exported to other countries.
- There is an increase in the desire to use foreign ideas and products, adopt new practices and technologies, and be a part of world culture.
- Free trade zones are formed having less or no tariffs.
- Owing to the development of containerisation for ocean shipping, transportation costs are reduced.

2.3 Globalisation and Multinational Corporations

MNCs have become gigantic in scale and have come to exercise a major influence over political, economic and social developments throughout the world (Evren, 2006:56). Evren (2006) states that the emerging global order has brought many new concepts such as access to broader markets, including the wide spread of financial markets and free trade zones, new economic relations, new tools for trade, and new interdependence not only among the US but also among countries and multinationals into the world agenda (Evren, 2006).

According to a UN report (2010), there are 82 000 MNCs in the world, controlling 810000 foreign affiliates, accounting for around a third of total world trade and employing roughly 80 million people outside their home bases. From their emergence through their developments, MNCs have always been important actors in world economy. With milestones as opportunities in the past, such as the Industrial Revolution, World War I or technological developments, the prominence of globalisation has start to play another role in world politics (Evren, 2006).

MNCs seem to preserve their importance in our daily lives and will increase their role in every social ground to be more influential on the faith of global politics and economics. According to Evren (2006:144), American MNCs will continue to be one of the most important actors in US politics in the upcoming years. MNCs are sometimes seen as 'an emerging global class of organisations' with the potential to 'form their own intra-organisational field' (Kostova, Roth & Dacin, 2008:996).

The growth in global trade is led by a few corporate giants such as ExxonMobil, Apple and Toyota, only to mention three, many of them bigger than most sovereign nations. Gabel and Bruner (2003:28) reported that these MNCs produce 25% of the world's gross product. The top 1 000 of these MNCs account for 80% of the world's industrial output. With its $210 billion in revenues, ExxonMobil is ranked number 21 among the world's 100 principal economies, just behind Sweden and above Turkey (Gabel & Bruner, 2003:35).

These powerful corporations may seem to be a boon to mankind, superseding the nation-state, diffusing technology and economic growth to developing countries and interlocking national economies into an expanding and beneficial interdependence. Or they may seem to be imperialistic predators, exploiting all for the sake of the corporate few, while creating a web of political dependence and economic underdevelopment. Many of these MNCs are extremely powerful institutions and possess resources far in excess of most of the UN member states (Evren, 2006).

Table 2.1 indicates the impact of global activities on international business.

Table 2.1: The impact of global activities on international business

World trade	1950–1998	Exports of goods increased 17-fold, while world economy increased only six-fold.
Capital flows		Global direct investment increased from $44 billion to $644 billion.
Shipping		Kilometres flown increased nearly 100-fold from 20 billion to 2.6 trillion.
Tourism		International tourist arrivals increased from 25 million to 635 million.
Telephones		Lines linking phones increased from 86 million to 838 million.

Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs)		International NGOs grew from 985 to an estimated 23 000.

Source: Geiersbach (2010)

It is evident from Table 2.1 that global activities have a significant positive impact on all aspects of international business. Organisations can use globalisation as a means to gain competitive advantage (Verma & Walsworth, 2007:228). Moreover, through globalisation, organisations can exploit international markets especially in developing countries (Arezki *et al.*, 2013:26).

Developing countries are often targeted by MNCs because they have, generally speaking, weak law enforcement and tax legislations. Therefore, some countries lose tax revenues (Arezki *et al.*, 2013:27). MNCs also seem to locate to countries where it is easy to avoid taxes, for example, the UAE and islands such as the British Virgin Islands (Arezki *et al*., 2013:28). Having calculated the losses, some developing countries such as the UAE have identified this problem (Arezki *et al*., 2013:27).

According to Welmond (2002), globalisation has a much greater impact on the educational and human resource development (HRD) level of MNCs than on the economic level. A re-evaluation of the purpose, content, structure, methods of delivery and assessment practices of MNCs has become necessary (Carnoy, 1999). The global knowledge economy rewards those who are better educated and further skilled. Moreover, there is pressure to increase the average level of education in the labour force which, in developing countries, means expanding both secondary and tertiary educational opportunities (Pieters, 2013:8; Welmond, 2002:39).

Gabel and Bruner (2003:35) elaborate on the unlimited opportunities that globalisation offers to human progress:

- The construction of the large internal market;
- The world's wealth and development opportunities;
- Cultural freedom;
- Responsible global politics;
- Technological advances;

* Education and training;
* The world of work;
* Better business organisation; and
* Competitiveness and free competition.

According to Point and Dickmann (2012), globalisation offers prospects for progress and prosperity for the below reasons:

* Trade is increased, allowing more and more profits.
* Investments in expansion determine higher levels of prosperity.
* Markets become more competitive and offer greater efficiency and best quality–price ratio.
* New technologies improve the quality of life and reduce costs (Arezki *et al.*, 2013:27).
* The media, the major networks and the internet improve the spread and quality of streams communication.
* The dynamics of globalisation facilitate the understanding of different cultures.

Schweyer (2004:1) states that the current generation own wealth, global markets, global technology, global views and global solidarity that can enrich the lives of individuals, but individuals should still be cognisant of the negative implications of globalisation. People are grappling with serious threats to human security and harmful disruptions in the globalised world, for instance:

* Financial instability and economic insecurity;
* Insecurity regarding job and income;
* Cultural insecurity due to the fact that globalisation opens the existence of cross-cultural beliefs which are seen as disturbing and disrespectful, especially in the Middle East. Today's flow of culture is unbalanced, heavily oriented in one direction from rich countries to poor ones (Zhuanga *et al.*, 2013).
* Criminals are reaping the benefits of globalisation because of unregulated capital markets and advances in ITC, and more convenient transportation

makes smuggling drugs, money, people and weapons faster and less restricted (Schweyer, 2004:1).

- The illicit trade in drugs, humans, weapons and laundered money is contributing to the violence and crime that threaten the world. Underpinning all this is the growing influence of organised crime and terrorism.
- Global corruption groups have the power to criminalise politics, business and the police, developing well-organised communication networks (Mezias & Scandura, 2005).

According to Peiperl *et al*. (2014:42), the continuous expansion of MNCs creates a high daily demand for quality goods, services and the human capital. MNCs further act as modernisers of the world economy which is reflected as a result of the continuous enhancement of new technologies and introducing innovations across the globe. MNCs are especially active in introducing technologies to relatively remote areas. Therefore, some industries are being redesigned so that they could be more technologically competitive (Biemann & Andresen, 2010).

Innovations are seen not only in the technological area, but also in medicine, education and social policies. By bringing progress to the poorest economies, MNCs employ people and educate them. Moreover, by minimising the costs of the manufacturing of many products, MNCs supply relatively cheap products to the developed markets. In turn, these services and goods facilitate people's lives, and some products contribute to people's high standard of living. However, there are no guarantees that every single country benefits from MNCs and that technology has reached every single undeveloped country (Umaru *et al.*, 2013).

The internationalisation of manufacturing activities is realised through different modes which can be divided into three broad categories: 1. International trade; 2. Cooperation agreements; and 3. FDI (Schweyer, 2004). International trade is the exchange of goods and services beyond national borders. This is usually the first method adopted by organisations to enter the global market, as it involves relatively low risk (Schweyer, 2004:1). Such forms of internationalisation may occur in different ways, namely licensing, franchising, alliances and joint ventures, and subcontracting.

The first mode (licensing) consists of a contractual arrangement that involves the transfer of the country's foreign licenses to the company for the use of the brand name, trademarks, patents, design, technology or whole products. In the second mode (franchising) is where the the holding foreign (franchisee) perform an economic activity, benefiting the brand's design or the firm's commercial formula. In the third mode, alliances and joint ventures involve the development of collaboration between independent enterprises related to the management of specific activities. Finally, subcontracts are formed when the MNC uses local suppliers of goods and services (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011; Suutari & Brewster, 2001). By making better use of the local suppliers the local workforce will be empowered and more job opportunities will be created for the local communities which can, in turn, assist in reducing the large numbers of expatriate employees (Edwards & Walsh, 2009).

A large number of expatriates who live and work in different countries form part of the critical element called 'skilled labour' (Abdullah & Jin, 2015:548). Many opportunities for international exposure for today's workforce have arisen from the global outsourcing of services and internationalisation of business. Many expatriates are being sent out on international assignments in different countries due to the need for onsite support of the MNCs even though these organisations tend to generate domestic employment (Koteswari & Bhattacharya, 2007).

Expatriates have been noted to play a vital role in organisational performance in the international arena. The satisfaction of expatriates must, therefore, be ensured by the MNC in order to retain the talent they bring to the table. Higher performance and productivity due to job commitment is found among satisfied employees (Luthans & Farner, 2002).

2.3.1 Workforce diversity in Multinational Corporations

Globalisation has brought diversity to the workplace. Workforce diversity is the accumulation of employees with dissimilar gender, age, nationality, cultural background and disabilities (Bedi, Lakra & Gupta, 2014:102). In the 21st century, workforce diversity has become an essential asset to the MNC, where attracting and retaining potential talent is top priority.

According to Patrick and Kumar (2012), the benefits of work diversity in the era of globalisation are:

- Organisations with diverse workforce have better knowledge about the global marketplace.
- These organisations have higher productivity levels due to the exchange of diverse ideas while resolving issues.
- A workforce comprising employees with different nationalities and backgrounds brings together unique perceptions and experiences which might enhance the responsiveness and productivity of the overall team during organisational changes.
- Higher intellectual learning and growth take place due to exposure to different viewpoints and cultures.
- Most importantly is the transfer of knowledge among MNC employees across borders.

Nunes and Simion (2014:228) concur by stating that transfer of knowledge between the parent company and its subsidiaries is considered a vital issue and imperative for competitive advantage. Research by Minbaeva (2007) emphasises that the ability to create and transfer knowledge inside MNCs is one of the main competitive advantages of MNCs compared with their domestic counterparts. MNCs focus on a transnational strategy search not only for business prospects in foreign markets, but also for transfer of knowledge from the parent company in order to raise the competitive advantage of their subsidiaries abroad and improve their strategic role in innovation (Nunes & Simion, 2014).

According to Mäkelä, Andersson and Seppälä (2012:442), expatriates from different cultural groups can have a great impact on knowledge processes. Individuals should consider the importance of sensitivity in understanding one another's differences, have tolerance with one another and consider different value systems. This needs to take place in a multinational environment, where different languages are spoken and different behavioural norms apply (Tregaskis, Edwards, Edwards, Ferner & Marginson, 2010). Capitalising on the advantages of diversity will require managers to be proactive and have insight into the infrequencies of managing diversity. In order for diversity to encourage and support creative approaches, it has to be effectively managed (Van den Born & Peltokorpi, 2010).

This is crucial, as diversity brings many challenges such as communication problems and intercultural conflict (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004) which can impede the functioning of the organisation (Elmadssia, 2011:201). Consequently, diversity is one of the contemporary challenges that MNCs are facing. Acknowledging and understanding culture as a means of forming improved channels of communication can help employees make more productive and adaptive choices within organisations.

Culture can be used, not as a means to emphasise differences, but to point to similarities instead (LeBaron, 2003). Knowing about organisational communication is only the first step in effective communication within an MNC. An individual must also learn the variations in communication that can occur, interpret communication differences in productive ways, and make effective choices about how to communicate across the numerous organisational boundaries within a business community (Nunes & Simion, 2014).

Keeping in mind LeBaron's (2003) warning that there is no comprehensive way to understand culture and its relations to communication and conflict, there are tools often used by anthropologists and communication scholars to help categorise cultural differences applicable to diverse organisations. One familiar tool deals with the concepts of high-context and low-context communication (Würtz, 2005). High-context and low-context communication refers to the level to which speakers trust factors other than explicit speech to convey their messages (Hall, 1971:4). Low- and high-context communication pertains not only to individual communication strategies, but may be used to understand cultural groups (Hall, 1971:4).

High-context cultures are those that communicate in ways that are implicit and rely heavily on context. In contrast, low-context cultures rely on explicit verbal communication. High-context cultures are collectivist, value interpersonal relationships, and have members that form stable, close relationships. In general, Western cultures tend to gravitate towards low-context starting points, while Eastern cultures tend to use high-context communication.

These low- and high-context communication methods are merely rubrics that give windows into how different groups of people make sense of their worlds. They are neither a reliable guide to every member of a particular group nor are they fixed in nature, since culture is constantly evolving and changing as people within groups and the contexts around them change (Hall, 1971:6).

Likewise, employees in diverse workplaces are often challenged to adapt their own cultural bias (Novinger, 2001) and moral measurements to be tolerant of differences. Within a given culture, values can maintain order and sustain a society. However, sometimes the explanatory function of such values, which once served a purpose, might need to be drastically modified as a result of increasing knowledge or practical requirements. This dimension often requires going beyond understandings of national, racial and religious boundaries (Shaules, 2007).

Acculturation is important in order for individuals to adapt to a new environment. Acculturation refers to the cultural modification of an individual, group or people by adapting to or borrowing traits from another culture (Elmaddsia, 2011:212). Acculturation thus pertains to changes that take place as a result of contact with culturally dissimilar people, groups and social influences (Gibson, 2001). Although these changes can take place due to almost any intercultural contact (e.g., globalisation) (Arnett, 2002), acculturation is most often studied in individuals living in countries or regions other than where they were born – that is, among expatriate employees (Schwartz, Unger, Zamboanga & Szapocznik, 2010:237).

There are four stages of acculturation behaviours for employees in a firm with a diverse workforce: assimilation, separation, deculturation and pluralism (Elmaddsia, 2011). The first, assimilation, is a one-way process where individuals adapt and absorb the dominant culture: This adaptation of unilateral minority implies a kind of cultural mutilation, as is the case for minorities to move forward, must adopt certain values of the company (Elmaddsia, 2011:212). Separation (where the individuals realise they have been separated from their home country and familiar practices) is the next stage. In this stage the exchanges between diverse groups are limited and promote partitioning from a spatial, cultural and technical perspective (Elmaddsia, 2011:212).

The third stage is deculturation, during which there is no preferred culture that has dominance over others. Such an environment could be a result of recruitment policies that diminish an emphasis on cultural differences to reduce misunderstandings between individuals. Finally, pluralism is the stage during which cultural cooperation is created as a result of perceptions that all the cultures make a positive contribution. The environment would contain independent ideals of equality where differences can be expressed and where an appreciation of different cultures exists. According to Elmaddsia (2011:212), pluralism is the key to success for MNCs.

Mäkelä *et al.* (2012) claim that, unfortunately, host organisations often adhere to the assimilation model, which simply suggests that, in order to succeed, foreign workers need to display the ability and willingness to adapt. This approach would, from a management perspective, diminish the need to learn about the cultural issues of foreign people in their workplace. However, according to Wentling and Palma-Rivas (2000), a desire and interest in diverse cultures can help employees understand the wants and customs of co-workers from other cultures, while not compromising the objectives of the MNC.

According to Elmaddsia (2011), cultural diversity enhances an individual's ability to communicate with diverse customers and the public. Although such diverse requirements have often been attached to the needs of the public (Cascio, 1998), most countries have a diverse customer base. The attention being paid by employers to issues of workplace diversity, for example, through the creation of diversity mission statements and the development of systematic diversity plans, is well established (Jackson, La Fasto, Schultz & Kelly, 1992).

2.3.2 Managing workforce diversity in Multinational Corporations

As indicated before, the management of workforce diversity is an important component of any organisation, especially MNCs (Ferner, Almond, Colling, Edwards & Carmen-Muller, 2004). As organisations change from national to global corporations, workforce diversity increases correspondingly, and the fundamental organisational HRD processes are challenged (Morley & Collings, 2004).

Some MNCs such as ExxonMobil, Apple and Toyota have recognised and attempted to respond to workforce diversity through extensive in-house workshops, surveys and even contracting management consultants in using a variety of initiatives to achieve positive changes both for individual and organisational performance (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). However, some research studies have shown that the outcome of diversity management is contingent on the underlying historical, cultural and societal background of the subsidiary. For example, Jones, Pringle and Shepherd (2000) showed that the diversity discourse, as well as the language and words used to describe diversity perceptions in New Zealand, was different from the discourse manifested by diversity management in the US because of the culture in which the language is used.

A study by Ozbilgin, Syed, Faiza and Torunoglu (2012) underscored the transfer of gender equality in Turkey and Pakistan as laden with difficulties and inconsistencies because of the local cultural and historical conditions. It pointed out the issue of political will to institute gender equalities in both countries. Another example was shown by Cooke and Saini (2010:495) who found that diversity management developed in another country may not be relevant in the Indian context. They argued that MNCs cannot simply adopt a diversity management approach without considering the demographic nature of the workforce, historical background of the firm and leadership preferences. These examples suggest that contextualising diversity management is crucial because it requires one to specify the organisational and team factors, as well as the relevant dynamics in the economic, cultural and historical environments that shape the diversity effects.

While MNCs are advised to leverage their globally diverse workforces, their attempts to do so have been little examined (Sippola & Smale, 2007:34). A study of 259 multinational subsidiaries (Brock & Siscovick, 2007) in the Asia-Pacific region suggested that integrating mechanisms such as control and standardisation used by MNCs when implementing their global strategies seldom contribute to the effectiveness of their subsidiaries. These strategies include HR systems such as the broad banding of salary structure and sharing of financial information that may be considered as organisational practices linked to diversity management. The authors argued that it is necessary to recognise the local differences and norms in each country and to provide some autonomy and flexibility to balance the different integrating factors at the subsidiary levels (Brock & Siscovick, 2007).

Efforts by MNCs to expand beyond a domestic market do not always fit with the strategy of creating subsidiaries across national borders (Brock & Siscovick, 2007; Ngo, Turban, Lau & Lui, 1998). For example, India presents an incredibly complex and unique challenge for MNCs, as religious, language, gender, race and regional perspectives and values need to be honoured and not merely tolerated (Ratnam & Chandra, 1996).

2.3.3 Human resource management practices and diversity management within Multinational Corporations

HRM is a set of distinctive activities, functions and processes aimed at attracting, directing and maintaining an organisation's HR (Shen, Chanda, D'Netto & Monga, 2009:239). HRM is a broad term that pertains to activities associated with managing employees, including people who are engaged as contractors (Kramar, 2013). HRM has been a leading management concept since the 1990s (Kirton & Greene, 2005) which has expanded substantially over the last decades. It involves the range of people management processes such as recruitment, training and development, reward and compensation, and performance appraisal (Shen *et al*., 2009).

HRM aims to optimise the human capital in organisations to ensure that it is effectively managed and motivated. There have been some debate on the role of HRM in diversity management (Shen *et al*., 2009). As argued by Kirton and Greene (2005), diversity management and HRM share many similarities. First, compliance with legal requirements such as equal employment opportunity and anti-discrimination is achieved through effective HR policies. Secondly, the objective of HRM to enhance the individual's involvement and commitment resonates with diversity approaches to equality and valuing the individual in the workplace. Thirdly, the HRM function is involved in activities such as recruitment and selection, training and performance management, which are considered crucial initiatives to manage diversity.

Diversity management, therefore, is closely linked to HRM practices and policies given their same focus towards achieving business goals and valuing the growth of employees. The key to effective diversity management hinges on strategic people-centred policies. The HRM department functions as the guardian for people management processes that can facilitate the implementation of diversity initiatives through different methods called the 'soft and hard' forms of HRM (Kirton & Greene, 2005). In 'soft' HRM, HR policies are directed towards skill development and high levels of flexibility and competence.

Soft HRM is concerned with developing a feeling of commitment to the organisation in each individual employee and is premised on the assumption that employee satisfaction will result in organisation success. Hard HRM regards the HR system as a business expense. Thus, policies resulting from this approach are mainly focused towards meeting organisational objectives rather than employee development. It is the soft form of HRM that seems to offer the most potential for creating equality and inclusion (Kirton & Greene, 2005).

With regard to the soft and hard elements of HRM, D'Netto and Sohal (1999) support the notion that, in managing diversity, HR practices must also focus on building skills, creating policies and initiating activities to bring out the best in every employee, which is the essence of diversity management. Managing diversity encourages the development of more innovative HR policies and practices that offer greater reciprocity in the employment relationship to support individual needs (Ferris, Frink & Galang, 1993).

Several authors (D'Netto & Sohal, 1999; Dickie & Soldan, 2008; Jabbour, Gordono, De Oliviera, Martinez & Battiselle, 2011; Shen *et al*., 2009) draw extensive attention to the wide range of HR functions and activities that support diversity management. These include HR planning, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management, promotion, and rewards. Therefore, it makes sense for the HRM function to lead diversity management in alliance with the strategic direction of the organisation (Jabbour *et al*., 2011).

Although the HRM function is recognised as critical in managing workplace diversity, many MNCs still consider diversity management mainly an issue of compliance (Shen *et al*., 2009). The 2008 survey conducted by the Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM) in 500 companies across the US, Europe and Asia showed universal interest in inclusivity as an approach to managing diversity. A total of 60% of the companies surveyed showed that workforce diversity had increasingly become a top management initiative. A total of 42% cited the head of HR as the main diversity champion. While diversity was often considered a general concept among these companies, diversity and inclusion initiatives were mainly directed at females and their concerns (SHRM, 2008).

The SHRM survey also cited that organisations in different countries often take divergent paths to enforce the same diversity goals to the extent allowed by their corporate or regional offices. However, US companies tended to follow more centralised approaches. Thus, regional differences in subsidiary companies present a delicate problem for MNCs, as they implement diversity and inclusion because of specific issues closely linked to each country's history and culture. In that respect, differences in culture and history have a decisive impact on the types and shapes of diversity initiatives within the MNC (SHRM, 2008).

Aside from different approaches to diversity management, company culture is a relevant issue and is considered to be a barrier to diversity and inclusion, particularly when changes in HR-related policies and practices are made to encourage diversity and create a culture of inclusion. Participants in the SHRM (2008) survey further indicated that diversity programmes must focus primarily on changing the company's own culture to make employees receptive to different backgrounds and views. Another challenge to diversity management seemed to be in middle management where departments or team projects are carried out. Although diversity is commonly a top-level initiative, a lack of top-level commitment and a general attitude of indifference among managers seemed to be barriers to diversity and inclusion. Interestingly, another obstacle was the fact that management was insufficiently diverse in itself to be able to empathise with the issue (SHRM, 2008).

The emergence of global diversity management using the multilevel concept has brought a series of changes and challenges in the HRM function. HR at the functional level cannot be isolated from its relationship with diversity management. HRM, with regard to both strategic and operational roles in factors such as vision, values and culture, has led to the inclusion of a much broader range of responsibilities under global diversity management. The power of centralisation is changing as the HRM function moves from implementing the same approach to more globalised contexts. While a wide range of options are available for HRM, there are also important challenges that need to be addressed.

2.3.4 Challenges of diversity management within Multinational Corporations

Previous studies (Dass & Parker, 1999; Kochan, Berukova, Ely, Jacson, Joshi, Jehn & Thomas, 2003; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 2000) confirm that organisations have developed and implemented impressive diversity initiatives since 1998 mainly due to the quest to be more productive and competitive. Despite these initiatives, so far there has been no conclusive and consistent evidence that links diversity management and performance (Yu, Cannella & Albert, 2009).

In some cases, diversity management may improve performance, while diversity may have unfavourable effects on performance in others. Previous research (see Mannix & Neale, 2005; Milliken & Martins, 1996) indicates a range of both positive and negative outcomes of diversity and diversity management among individual and intergroup relationships such as career outcomes and organisational effectiveness

(Kochan *et al*., 2003; Weigand, 2007). In addition, Kochan *et al*. (2003:7) suggested that 'the relationship between diversity and performance may depend on the organisational context in which the work takes place'. Considering the inherent challenges in workplace diversity, it is therefore prudent to state that the challenges of diversity management depend on its design, content and contextualised implementation outside of the MNC home country. Some of the challenges related to MNCs include: a) applying standardised diversity management practices; b) measuring the impact of diversity management; and c) managing the obstacles of diversity management. These challenges will be discussed below.

a) Applying standardised diversity management practices

Local responsiveness refers to the attempt by the MNC to respond within the context of different locations, political environments and market conditions (Yu *et al*., 2009). MNCs continue to face the challenge of competing globally and being locally responsive (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1987. In that respect, diversity management practices developed at headquarters may become incompatible with local subsidiaries because of different circumstances, as well as differences in cultural, institutional and demographic contexts (Lauring, 2013; Sippola & Smale, 2007). These inconsistencies between global integration and local practices are known to pose several challenges to MNCs (Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1990).

While diversity management may be culturally specific, its transfer could be difficult but not impossible if the goal is to replicate only those attributes that add value in the local context (Sippola & Smale, 2007).

b) Measuring the impact of diversity management

The lack of a unifying guide on how to measure the impact of diversity initiatives is considered another barrier to implementing diversity programmes. Most companies that participated in the survey by the SHRM (2008) had difficulty making a quantitative business case for diversity – that is, measuring the link between diversity and the bottom line, regardless of their location. This illustrates that only a few companies are equipped to measure the impact of diversity management on company performance.

A study conducted by Kochan *et al*. (2003) in four large firms under the consortium called Diversity Research Networks showed that diversity management initiatives produced mixed results. The study was done to test the business case for diversity, and focused on the relationship between race and gender diversity and business performance. The study found no consistent evidence between business performance and racial and gender diversity. Moreover, it found that gender had either positive effects or no effects on customer preference and team processes. The authors emphasised the importance of comprehensive diversity management initiatives focusing on managerial strategies, HR policies and organisational culture which inculcate mutual learning and cooperation.

The implication of diversity on the performance of the firm is no longer considered linear or definitive, and is measured primarily by financial performance. McMahon (2010) reviewed 24 academic articles published between 2000 and 2009 that highlighted the implications of race and gender, top-management teams and external/internal context on firm performance. Context in this sense refers to the proportion of the top-management team's functional diversity and similarity of office locations.

McMahon (2010) found that diversity effects were no longer considered simply in terms of demographics. Task-related diversity effects such as functional background, organisational tenure, experience and attitude towards others, and acceptance of differences seemed to be important criteria for assessing workplace diversity and explain its influence on business performance. Even when demographic factors were considered important, the moderating effects of macro- and micro-perspectives (Joshi & Roh, 2009), top-management functional background and span of control (Boone & Hendriks, 2009; Cannella, Park & Lee, 2008) were also shown to be relevant aspects for measuring the influence of diversity on performance outcomes.

While the concepts of workplace diversity and company performance adopted a contemporary and multidimensional approach to measure diversity outcome, the lack of a unifying model makes it difficult to come up with a common measure for benchmarking diversity results among different organisations. Even companies that insist on quantitative measures of success for their diversity programmes tend to turn away from discussing their objectives because of confusion and unclear goals regarding the implementation of diversity (Cannella *et al*., 2008).

c) Managing the obstacles of diversity management

Leadership, ownership and acceptance are substantial obstacles in diversity management found especially in senior management's proportional ownership and acceptance of its critical role in diversity management. These obstacles apply not only to MNCs, but also to other organisations implementing diversity management. Studies by Barrick, Bradley, Kristof-Brown and Colbert (2007), Cannella *et al.* (2008) and Jonsen, Schneider and Maznevski (2011) support this perception and show the challenge of winning the hearts and minds of the leaders to support diversity.

Although diversity is a top-level initiative, a lack of top-level commitment and a general attitude of indifference by leaders are among the barriers to diversity and inclusion. The results of the 2008 SHRM survey on diversity and inclusion showed that the main three barriers to increasing diversity in the organisation's senior management are a lack of top-management commitment, a sense that managers themselves were not sufficiently diverse, and a general attitude of indifference towards empathising with the issue.

A more recent survey by Rosethorn (2012) among HR practitioners in Europe revealed that senior leadership is seen as a key driving force for pushing diversity and inclusion agendas. However, only a few respondents indicated that they frequently discuss diversity issues with senior leaders since the initiatives are likely to be driven by HR.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:53) further highlight these common barriers to implementing diversity management as follows:

- An unsupportive and hostile working environment for diverse employees: Diverse employees are excluded from social activities and are thus prevented from forming networks with other employees.

- The difficulty in balancing career and family: Women are most likely to face this challenge. Even in a modern environment some women are still expected to take care of young children and manage the household. Although attitudes are shifting, women still bear the greatest household responsibilities.

- Worries of discrimination: People fear being discriminated against and therefore are reluctant to apply for jobs where there are different nationalities than theirs.

- Opposition to change: People still resist change for reasons such as fear of failure, mistrust and peer pressure.

- Diversity is not seen as an organisational priority: Employees may not view diversity efforts as work contributing to the success of the organisation.

Overall, the challenges to implementing diversity and inclusion in subsidiaries of MNCs cover a broad spectrum of internal and external issues. The challenges described above are among the commonly researched problems. MNCs vary with regard to their specific diversity goals, which require a delicate approach towards local cultures and tradition. The way MNCs resolve these challenges tends to follow regional lines and depends on the integrating mechanisms adopted by the parent company to their local subsidiary. It is difficult to generalise the challenges MNCs face in Asia-Pacific, given the limited research in this area.

Each MNC has its own culture and unique characteristics, and challenges of operating in a particular country compound the situation. However, recent studies by Cooke and Saini (2012) and Lauring (2013) in different companies in India and the Middle East respectively showed that there is no best way to manage workforce diversity in MNCs. The organisation's approach to diversity management depends on the degree of pressure to implement diversity and the type of programmes initiated as long as the expatriate workforce can be accommodated, this will assist in their productivity within the new MNCs.

2.4 Expatriates and the challenge of failure

Expatriates are the employees of an MNC who are assigned to projects in other countries (Sakho, 1999). Duppada and Aryasri (2011) define an expatriate as being an employee who is sent by a multinational parent company on a work assignment to a foreign nation. Expatriates are employees from the host country who have legal employment in another country (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011; Suutari & Brewster 2001). The term thus refers to an individual who locates to a different country, simultaneously changing the principal place of residence. Expatriates are individuals who move their personal or professional relationships to another country. This can affect their personal (and their family's) work and social life and adaptation (Kawai & Mohr, 2015).

According to Austin, Chapman, Farah, Wilson and Ridge (2014), in the last 20 years economic activities across borders have faced fundamental restructuring and the internationalisation of capital. The authors assert that this is due to the expansion of MNCs, as they have been the facilitators of the manufacturing and distribution of goods and services internationally. This supports the increase or growth in trade and investment across borders. Owing to increasing international mobility, more managers and corporate executives will experience expatriation in their working lives (Richardson & McKenna, 2006:7).

All of the above is done by the MNC, as they generally have the experts who are mobile and contribute to the management and development of their company globally. Expatriates may have advanced technology and management skills that enable them to take on global assignments. There are five types of job assignments expatriates can take: traditional assignments, long-term assignments, global nomad, short-term assignments and localised assignments (Price, Herod & Burns-Green, 2012). These will be explained below:

The traditional assignment: An expatriate is assigned abroad for Kreitner & Kinicki, one to five years and is expected to return to the home country.

Long-term assignment: The expatriate is assigned for longer than five years and is not localised to host-country programmes. They are not expected to move from country to country.

Global nomad: An expatriate move from country to country on varying assignments.

Short-term assignments: A short-term assignment is for less than a year (it excludes travelling frequently for business purposes). Most employees remain in the programmes of the home country while maintaining home residence.

Localised assignments: The expatriate is moved to the host-country programmes and is no longer regarded as a traditional expatriate.

Regardless which one of the above assignments the expatriate workforce is assigned to, the preparation and training of the expatriates remain of the utmost importance. Training is a planned effort by an organisation to facilitate the learning of job-related competencies and behaviours (Noe, 2013:34). It involves the process of changing employee behaviour and attitudes to increase the likelihood of their achieving their goals. Proper preparation and adequate training can enhance the success of expatriates and compensate for weaknesses identified during the selection process (Kawai & Mohr, 2015:591).

The main concerns of the expatriate assignments would be the skills and capability of the assignees – this applies to adaptation to a new working environment and culture. Therefore, adequate CCT and pre-assignment training are a crucial imperative. Vögel and Van Vuuren (2008) recommend that the achievement of a global assignment can be ensured if valuable preparation, support and training were offered to the expatriate, as well as to spouses and families. It is also important that suitable individuals be selected for assignments – placing an emphasis on adequate recruitment practices on the part of organisations (Lee, 2007). Training remains a critical link between good selection practices and effective management to ensure the success of an expatriate assignment (Abdullah & Jin, 2015:549).

Forster (2000) mentions that culture has a highly pervasive influence on the behaviour of individuals. Cohen (2012:195) defines culture as a ‘socially transmitted or socially constructed constellation consisting of such things as practices, competencies, ideas, schemas, symbols, values, norms, institutions, goals, constitutive rules, artefacts, and modifications of the physical environment’. Hence a person’s perceptions, attitudes, motivations, values, learning experiences and personality are largely shaped by culture. Culture refers to individuals who look and act similarly, based on the values they share. Behaviour that is considered a norm in the home country, however, could be deemed offensive to the people in another country.

Culture is not something that can be learned and internalised in days, and some cultures are more difficult to adjust to than others. If expatriates find themselves in cultures that differ substantially from theirs, adjustment might be more complex and lengthy (Abdullah & Jin, 2015).

Abdullah and Jin (2015) claim that pre-departure training and CCT are required to present concrete insight into the new macro- and micro-environment and equipping expatriates and their family with the information needed to navigate their new surroundings. This should also include a detailed job preview and briefing by the host organisation. Types of pre-departure and CCT include familiarisation with language, culture, history, living conditions, local customs and peculiarities (Mondy & Noe, 2005).

There are six categories of CCT (Forster, 2000): information about geography, weather, housing and schools; cultural orientation, providing information about the cultural societies and value systems; cultural acclimatisation training; language training; sensitivity training to develop attitudinal flexibility; and field experience, where candidates can experience some of the emotional stress of living and working with people from different cultures. Findings from a study by Mondy and Noe (2005:68) indicated that 56% of expatriates had experienced poor coordination between the local country and home office HR departments and that 35% of the expatriates had looked forward to leaving their company within five years.

Austin *et al*. (2014:542) investigated the adjustment of expatriate employees in the UAE related to their work expectations, incentives and benefits, freedom, flexibility and professional growth. The researchers found a negative relation between the following factors: motivational levels, job satisfaction and commitment of expatriates due to a lack of CCT and pre-departure preparation. The following section elaborates on the factors affecting the performance and success of expatriates.

Sarkiunaite and Rocke (2015:21) recognise that the biggest challenge of the expatriation route is the individual adjustment expatriates are expected to make. The authors revealed that the success of expatriate assignments depends on the ability of the selected individuals and their families to adjust to the new environment. It has been noted that the failure rate of many expatriate programmes is increasing (Abdullah & Jin, 2015). A study of the US and other international companies revealed that the premature return of expatriates is problematic and amounted to 7% of the total expatriates studied (Pokharel, 2016:311). The expatriate failure rate is defined as the inability of expatriates to perform successfully (Cole & Nesbeth, 2014:68).

Past research indicated three criteria to measure expatriate effectiveness in international assignments: CCT (Hechanova, Beehr & Christiansen, 2003; Huang, Chi & Lawler, 2005), premature return intention (Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black & Ferzandi, 2006) and job performance (Kim & Slocum, 2008). While criteria related to cross-cultural adjustment and premature return intention have been studied extensively in the past, studies on job performance are limited. This is mainly due to the difficulty in defining and eventually measuring the expatriate job performance concept (Shaffer *et al*., 2006).

Knowledge about the ability of expatriates to meet the expectations of their position and job performance has become critical. Individual job performance is usually a function of knowledge, skills, abilities and motivation directed at role-prescribed behaviour such as official job responsibilities (Rose, Ramalu & Uli, 2010). However, only the behaviour or actions that are relevant to an organisation’s goals can be considered in measuring an individual’s job performance.

Job performance is a multidimensional construct that consists of a task dimension (often production or deadline driven) and a contextual dimension (sometimes considered discretionary) (Rose *et al*., 2010:78). Aspects such as gender (Caligiuri, Phillips, Lazarova, Tarique & Bürgi, 2001), goal orientation (Wang & Takeuchi, 2007), task and people orientation (Shaffer *et al*., 2006), cultural flexibility (Shaffer *et al*., 2006), communicational ability, relational ability, stress tolerance and previous international experience (Rose *et al*., 2010) relate positively to the job performance of expatriates.

Lee (2007:405) elaborates on the reasons which cause expatriates to fail, namely difficulty in adapting to the new culture, challenges in learning new skills and difficulty in meeting performance standards. Cole and Nesbeth (2014:67) assert that the following categories of challenges apply to expatriates: job and work environment elements, family elements, organisational support, and contextual elements. Job and work environment include resources provided to the expatriate, where training and development have been highlighted as the imperial resource. Family elements focus on characteristics of the expatriate's partner and children. Organisational support refers to a variety of resources provided by the organisation to the expatriate and family. Lastly, contextual elements involve increased demands on the expatriate and the family.

2.5 Individual and organisational elements affecting expatriate adjustment

Research (see Andreason, 2002; Beitler, 2005; Black, 1988; Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992; Caligiuri, 2000; Harris & Brewster, 2004; Morley *et al*., 2004) suggests that cross-cultural adjustment is the key element of expatriate success. Adjustment is the re-establishment of routines that provide valued outcomes and feelings of control that are predictable (Morley *et al*., 2004:205). For expatriates, it implies the degree to which they feel secure and comfortable while living and working in their host country (Caligiuri, 2000:63). From the MNC's perspective, the degree of adjustment of the expatriate is an important predictor of employee performance. From the expatriate's perspective, adjustment is a determining factor for job satisfaction and psychological well-being (Beitler, 2005).

Many elements have been identified impelling expatriates' capability to adjust culturally. These include the following matters:

- Individual elements such as flexibility, desire to adjust, leniency towards ambiguity, leadership qualities, interpersonal skills and self-confidence, cultural understanding, emotional stability, previous overseas experience, ability to speak the language and personal characteristics (Caligiuri, 2000; Morley *et al*., 2004:206).

- Organisational elements include pre-departure preparation, MNC's selection criteria, organisational support and differences within the organisations (Andreason, 2002:21-22, Beitler, 2005; Black *et al*., 1992; Harris & Brewster, 2004).

- Job elements refer to role innovation, role clarity, role discretion, role conflict and overload (Caligiuri, 2000; Morley *et al*., 2004:207).

Non-work elements consist of cultural novelty, social support and family adjustment (De Matteo & Russell, 2000).

Individual elements affecting adjustment

Traditionally, MNCs have focused on managerial and technical skills when appointing expatriates (Adler & Zhu, 2005:4; Andreason, 2002:21-22; Brynningsen, 2009:4; Wright, Geroy & Baker, 1996:35). However, research (see Caligiuri, 2000; Morley *et al*., 2004:206; Rose *et al.*, 2010) identified certain traits and characteristics that predict expatriates' success in foreign assignments. Early research in this area focused typically on single, selected desired personality characteristics and traits such as cultural empathy, adaptability, diplomacy, a positive attitude, emotional stability and maturity, drive, leadership qualities, self-confidence and willingness to experiment with different customs (Brewster, 1993; Hiltrop & Jansen, 1990). However, Caligiuri (2000) highlights the below individual elements as top priority: language, previous international experience and gender.

Language

A lack of language skills has been identified to be the main problem when it comes to cross-cultural adjustment (Andreason, 2008:387). A lack of language skills will diminish the chances of having contact with people from the host country. In line with that, Kraimer, Wayne and Jaworski (2001:90) have shown a positive correlation between language fluency and interaction adjustment. Being able to communicate in the home-country language increases the ability to develop a social network in the host country which will, in turn, improve adjustment (Tanake, Takai, Kohyama, Fujihara & Minami, 1997:15), since it fosters social networks and thus social support. In addition, spouses who are able to speak the host-country language seem more likely to enjoy the foreign assignment. This is especially relevant, since the failure of spouses to adjust is one of the main reasons for assignment failure (Black & Stephens, 1989; Kraimer *et al*., 2001:92; Selmer, 1999:78). Hence, expatriates who are able to communicate in the host-country language will be able to adjust more easily.

Previous international experience

Previous international experience has been identified both as a major factor with regard to the ability to adjust cross-culturally and an aspect linked to the expatriate's willingness to accept overseas assignments (Black *et al*., 1992; Church, 1982). Moreover, it has been shown that people with previous international experience are able to draw from this experience in a new situation and thereby reduce stress. This, in turn, will make adjustment easier (Cai & Rodriguez, 1996:30-31). Therefore, expatriates with previous overseas experience are more likely to fulfil their assignment successfully.

Gender

Research by Tharenou (2008:183) found that only 23% of the expatriated population were female, whereas almost 50% of the workforce in Western countries are women. One explanation is offered by Hartl (2004:40) who states that the lack of female expatriates is a reflection of the glass ceiling. The glass ceiling refers to barriers that prevent women and minorities from advancing to management positions in corporations and organisations (The Economist, 2005). Thus, there are limited networking opportunities for women in management, compared with those for men who have more co-workers in their network, giving males a professional advantage (Linehan & Scullion, 2001).

Adler (1993) showed in her research that low selection of female expatriates is mainly based on two assumptions. Firstly, women do not seek international assignments usually because of family obligations and, secondly, some host-country nationals still discriminate against women in business (especially in Asian and Arabic countries). These common beliefs have been confirmed by Tharenou (2008).

Organisational elements affecting adjustment

The types of organisational support provided to expatriate families consist mainly of practical support in areas such as pre-assignment visits to the host location, CCT, furniture storage, interim accommodation, tax advice, home-sale assistance, language courses and immigration paperwork (Morley *et al*. 2004). But while companies generally pay significant attention to the logistics of an international relocation, much less focus is placed on the professional and social skills necessary for expatriates and their families to adjust to their new location (McNulty, 2012).

According to Cole and Nesbeth (2014:69), such support includes job search assistance, résumé preparation, work-permit assistance, career counselling and travel reimbursement, as well as introductions to other expatriates, memberships to sports and social clubs, and information about and access to expatriate forums and spouse networking groups. Thus, while organisational support can assist with expatriate success rates, its absence can have the opposite effect: poor support sends strong signals to employees and their families about the extent to which an organisation values their contribution and cares about their well-being which, in turn, can predict employee commitment and retention (McNulty, 2012).

Morley *et al*. (2004:208) indicate that some variables have a significant impact on an expatriate's ability to adjust cross-culturally. The major ones are pre-departure CCT, differences between the parent and the foreign company, and the support provided by the MNC. The organisational aspects include CCT, organisational culture, leadership style, organisational support, expatriates' selection process, and rewards and compensation.

Cross-Cultural Training (CCT)

CCT can be defined 'as the educative processes used to improve intercultural learning via the development of the cognitive, affective, and behavioural competencies needed for successful interactions in diverse cultures' (Littrell, Salas, Hess, Paley & Riedel, 2006:356). CCT has been identified as one essential factor for cross-cultural adjustment, and it is evident that CCT is effective in facilitating success on expatriate assignments (Littrell *et al*., 2006:355). There is no consensus about the type of training which must be offered. Also, it is not well understood whether the components of CCT should differ according to factors such as the cultural toughness of the assignment, the assignment's duration, the degree of interaction with host nationals, and differences in tasks to be performed on the job (Harvey, 1996:23).

Training has been identified to support cross-cultural adjustment in various ways. First, it helps to reduce cultural-based stress, because it reduces uncertainty associated with the transition and facilitates the formation of accurate expectations (Morley *et al*., 2004:208). Secondly, it helps expatriates to adapt to appropriate behavioural patterns in the new culture. Thirdly, CCT should enable expatriates to deal with unforeseen situations in the new culture and, thereby, reduce conflict. Lastly, training can assist expatriates in developing realistic expectations in respect to living and working in the host country (Caligiuri *et al*., 2001:358).

Although there is consensus about the aims of CCT (reducing culture shock and managing change, cultural difference and professional responsibilities), there are three major problems in respect of CCT. First, there is a lack of theoretical frameworks for CCT (Littrell *et al*., 2006:362). Secondly, most MNCs are not able to provide CCT in a formal and organised manner (Littrell *et al.,* 2006:358; Morley *et al*., 2004:208; Tungli & Peiperl, 2009:156). Thirdly, even studies examining training effects on business expatriates typically fail to examine the impact of the specific circumstances of the foreign location (Brynningsen, 2009:6). Nevertheless, most studies do advocate the positive affect of CCT on cross-cultural adjustment (Harris & Brewster, 2004; Harvey & Moeller, 2009:280; Morley *et al*., 2004:208; Selmer, 2005). Holtbrügge and Ambrosius (2015) highlight the fact that most CCT can be best facilitated through an effective mentoring plan.

<u>Organisational culture</u>

The greater the difference between home organisation and host organisation, the more difficult the work adjustment for expatriates will be (Morley *et al*., 2004:209), especially in an 'organisational cultural' context. According to Van Vliet (2014), organisational culture is a difficult concept to understand without the insight of Edgar Schein who developed an organisational culture model in the 1980s to make culture more visible within organisations. Van Vliet (2014) refers to Edgar Schein as the father of organisational culture.

Organisational culture can be defined as the pattern of beliefs, values and learning ways of managing with experience that have developed during the course of an organisation's history and which tend to be established in its material arrangement and in the behaviours of its members (Brown, 1995:8). Adler and Zhu (2005) explored the relationship between organisational culture and expatriate selection strategy. Yet, this study among 67 HR professionals did not show any significant differences based on organisational culture. Nevertheless, there might be differences with regard to other HR practices and thus expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment.

In addition, the culture of one company might differ essentially in the host country compared to the home country based on whether the company follows an ethnocentric, polycentric, regiocentric or geocentric approach. A company which follows an ethnocentric approach uses the systems developed in the home country and the values, attitudes, practices and priorities of headquarters to determine the HR policies and practices. Hence, the organisational culture of the home country will probably not differ significantly from the host country (Gmür & Thommen, 2006:20). When following a polycentric approach, organisations will consider the needs of the local subsidiary when formulating HR policies and practices, as well as the management systems. A regiocentric approach focuses on the needs of a specific region when implementing systems. Finally, the global or geocentric approach follows a best-fit concept. The company's priority is the optimal use of all resources, and local or regional implications are not considered important for the success of the corporate strategy (Heenan & Perlmutter, 1979).

Based on these different approaches it would stand to reason that, if there were differences between the home organisational culture and the host country culture, adjustment would be more difficult, since it could be a double burden. Therefore, CCT would be more difficult for expatriates when the company followed a regiocentric or polycentric approach.

Leadership styles

National culture forms the basis for the development of organisational culture – the values attached to national culture will emanate in the culture of organisation as well as in expectations from leaders, hence expatriates may feel forced to change their management style. In turn, this could lead to problems in adjusting to the workplace and jeopardise the success of the assignment (Suutari & Brewster, 2004:192). Leadership styles are influenced by three elements. First, national culture influences leadership. Deeply held values regarding the rights and duties of citizens form the core of national culture and constitute a worldview. If leaders violate core values, they lose their authority over subordinates and may risk being removed from the leadership position. Secondly, political culture influences leadership in countries with democratic political values. Thirdly, organisational culture influences leadership. If leadership style is in contradiction to the cultural values of the company, this leadership style will not succeed within the organisation (Francesco & Gold, 2005:214-220).

Based on the above the Project GLOBE researched cross-cultural leadership differences and similarities in 2004. As part of their study of culture and leadership, GLOBE researchers, together with Hofstede (2001), developed a classification of cultural dimensions. GLOBE researchers identified nine cultural dimensions: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation and humane orientation (Francesco & Gold, 2005).

The data from the 62 countries studied in the GLOBE study were divided into regional clusters. These clusters provided a useful way to analyse the similarities and differences between cultural groups and to make meaningful generalisations about culture and leadership. In order to create those clusters the researchers used common language, geography, religion and historical accounts. Based on these elements, they grouped countries into 10 different clusters: Anglo, Latin Europe, Nordic Europe, Germanic Europe, Eastern Europe, Latin America, Middle East, Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia and Confucian Asia. Therefore, work-related adjustment should be easier if an expatriate works in the same country cluster.

Organisational support

One of the biggest stress factors for expatriates is the 'loss of social support provided by the organisation, family and friends' (Harvey, 1995:226). Social support can be defined as a buffer against stress and a positive association with emotional well-being (Copeland & Norell, 2002:255). This support can be provided by organisations, supervisors, co-workers and family members (Harvey, 1995). Social support, therefore, plays an essential role in the process of cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates. This is because social support is believed to be able to reduce the stress associated with working in a new cultural environment (Kraimer et al., 2001).

Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2001:267) showed that organisational support has an enormous impact on expatriates' ability to adapt to the new environment because they often lose their social home network. In addition, the organisation has a much higher impact on the expatriates' life then it would have had at home. Organisational support refers to direct organisational support such as logistic support, as well as indirect organisational support such as perceived organisational support and the fulfilment of the psychological contract.

Direct support can take on different forms such as continuous training provided by the organisation during the assignment (Andreason, 2002:24), logistical support with regard to information on housing, education and travel (Morley *et al*., 2004:208) and family mentoring programmes (Andreason, 2002:24). In addition, an important factor in direct support would be assistance in the family/spouse adjustment. This includes help in finding schools for children and helping dual career couples to find a job for the spouse (Harvey, 1996:311). Moreover, a general concern of the organisation towards the expatriate's health, well-being and work–life balance can be seen as direct organisational support (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2001:267).

Organisational support theory is based on the assumption that employees 'form general beliefs concerning how much the organisation values their contributions and cares about their well-being' (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001:42). Research showed that perceived organisational support is positively related to organisational commitment, organisational citizen behaviour, attendance rate, job performance and prosocial behaviours (Eisenberger *et al*., 2001). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found in a meta-analysis that the main work-experience antecedents of perceived organisational support: organisational rewards and working conditions support received from supervisors and procedural justice. However, research has also shown that perception of the support is more important than the actual support received (Tung, 1982).

Kraimer *et al*. (2001) were able to show in their research among 583 American expatriates that expatriates are well aware from which organisation (parent or foreign) they receive support and that perceived organisational support from both facilities helps the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates. First, perceived organisational support from the parent company is positively related to the expatriate's work and general adjustment. Secondly, perceived organisational support from the foreign facility is positively related to the expatriate's work, general and interaction adjustment.

Based on what was stated earlier, companies should ensure more than usual support. Besides pre-departure CCT and financial support, the parent company should offer other types of support as on-going career counselling, psychological counselling for expatriates experiencing stress and anxiety, and in-country contractual services to help in the transition period. In addition, the foreign company should provide support, such as a mentoring programme (Kraimer *et al*., 2004).

Expatriates' selection process

Lee (2007:405) argues that if candidates are not selected carefully they might not be able to cope with the cultural differences between the host and the home countries. In fact, Mercer found in its 2011 Worldwide Survey of International Assignment Policies and Practices that 62% of company's rate poor candidate selection as the main cause of assignment failure. The problem is that a lack of best fit between strategic intent, assignment purpose and expatriates' abilities (e.g., language expertise relevant to assignment location, relational abilities, and spouse and family considerations) is likely to result in an assignment's not achieving its stated objectives.

In the expatriates' selection process MNCs tend to use criteria which are based on the same success factors applicable to the domestic setting (usually technical and leading competencies). Some MNCs have the perception that skills are universal and applicable everywhere (Harris & Brewster, 2004:230). This places an emphasis on efficient selection procedures when expatriates are considered for international assignments (Lee, 2007:405; Rakowska, 2006).

Additional criteria related to specific circumstances of each international position must be considered (Deresky, 2000:24-28). Foreign assignments do not fail because of the lack of technical or leading skills, but often due to an individual's inability to adjust (Brynningsen, 2009:4). A study by Caligiuri (2000) found that technical skills do not relate with the desire to terminate an assignment. Hence, MNCs should focus on skills more closely related to the ability to adjust cross-culturally. Personality characteristics such as flexibility, desire to adjust, tolerance of ambiguity, leadership qualities, interpersonal skills and self-confidence, cultural empathy and emotional stability are imperative when individuals are selected for international assignments (Morley *et al*., 2004:206).

Brynningsen (2009:5) identified several elements MNCs should consider in their expatriate selection process, including:

- Strategic elements;
- Conflict resolution skills;

- Leadership and communication skills;
- Social skills;
- Flexibility and stability;
- Technical ability;
- Cross-cultural suitability;
- Family requirements;
- Company requirements; and
- Language.

Other elements to be considered are cultural empathy, adaptability, diplomacy, a positive attitude, emotional stability and maturity (Andreason, 2002:22). Moreover, the family situation and their ability to adjust play a crucial role in the expatriate's cross-cultural adjustment process. Therefore, the company should consider the candidate's family and their needs in the selection process (Brynningsen, 2009:6). Consequently, if MNCs consider these elements in addition to technical skills, the chosen expatriate is more likely to succeed in the foreign assignment.

Reward and compensation

When accurately designed, compensation systems encourage desirable employee behaviours, which are imperative to the successful implementation of business strategies. The decision on how to compensate individuals must be based on the HR strategy and take the social, competitive and regulatory environment into account. This will result in a compensation system which will affect employees' attitudes and behaviours and, ultimately, lead to a competitive advantage (Milkovich & Newman, 2007:32). MNCs are usually well aware of this fact and use compensation and benefit packages to support their expatriates. According to Andreason (2002:23), with regard to expatriates, these packages are usually designed to:

- Attract and retain staff;
- Provide an incentive for managers to leave the home country on a foreign assignment;
- Facilitate the transfer to the foreign location and back;

- Maintain an acceptable standard of living in the foreign location and hold the purchasing power parity; and
- Provide opportunities for financial advancement through income and/or savings.

Reynolds (2005:61) states that better salary packages will not have an influence on the decision to take on the foreign assignment. On the other hand, a study among Taiwanese managers showed that the compensation packages were the most important factor in deciding whether or not to relocate internationally (Toh & Denisi, 2005:139). However, Toh and Denisi (2005) raised the concern that an overpay of expatriates in comparison to local staff can lead to internal inequality and, in turn, to a decrease in job satisfaction and lower productivity among the local workforce.

Job elements

Job elements such as role novelty, clarity, discretion, conflict and role overload contribute to assignment failure in relation to role clarity, role conflict, and role novelty. These act as forecasters of adjustment, job satisfaction, performance outcomes, and turnover intentions mostly in relation to expatriates' compensation, career development and promotion opportunities (Stahl, Chua, Caligiuri, Cerdin & Taniguchi, 2009). Van der Heijden, Van Engen and Paauwe (2009:839) concluded that career support is valued more for the recognition or attention the organisation gives to expatriates than the actual career changes, opportunities and development programmes derived from it. The lack of a customised expatriate training and development programme with a focus on expatriate mentoring has been highlighted in previous studies (Elegbe, 2010; Selmer & Fenner, 2009; Zhuanga *et al*., 2013).

Certain job variables have an influence on expatriates' ability to adjust cross-culturally (Morley *et al*., 2004:207). Job variables obviously have the greatest impact on work adjustment and, when sent overseas, the individual often has to deal with new operations, new means of completing tasks and increased responsibility (Selmer & Fenner, 2009:80). Below follows a discussion of the different role aspects connected to job elements:

Role novelty

The difference between the expatriate's previous positions in comparison to the new position is called role novelty (Black, 1988). In other words, role novelty is 'the degree to which the role permits the exercise of prior knowledge, practiced skills, and established habits' (Nicholson, 1984:178). A higher degree of role novelty can increase uncertainty which, in turn, can hinder a high degree of work adjustment.

Role clarity

Role clarity entails an understanding of the position requirements providing the expatriate with a clearly defined set of expected behaviours (Selmer & Fenner, 2009:83). The greater the role ambiguity, the less the expatriate is able to predict the outcome of various behaviours, which may cause feelings of ineffectiveness and frustration (Black, 1988:281). Research has shown that the greater the role ambiguity, the smaller the degree of adjustment. Therefore, it has been argued that firms should place more emphasis on designing foreign assignment positions so that expatriates' jobs are defined clearly (Shaffer, Harrison & Gilley, 1999).

Role discretion

Role discretion refers to expatriates' authority to determine the parameters of the new position. This pertains to the amount of leeway individuals have in performing their job responsibilities, or to the authority and the decision-making freedom in their jobs (Andreason, 2003:50). According to Brynningsen (2009:10), role discretion is seen as the most important factor in determining the expatriate's work adjustment.

A study found that decision autonomy was significantly and positively related to all three aspects of expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (Takeuchi, Shay & Li, 2008). This can be explained by the spill-over effect which entails that the satisfaction of one adjustment aspect will have a positive influence on another aspect (Takeuchi, Shay & Li, 2008). The spill-over theory examines the relationship between an individual's work and non-work domains and emphasises the reciprocity of this relationship. In other words, affective responses from one domain may be carried over to another domain (Barnett & Marshall, 1992). Therefore, when companies appoint an expatriate, they should ensure that the expatriate has decision autonomy.

Role conflict

Role conflict occurs when the individual receives incompatible and/or conflicting information about what is expected of individuals in a new work setting (Selmer & Fenner, 2009:76). A typical situation in which role conflict could arise is when different leadership styles are followed, which could lead to feelings of uncertainty and confusion (Morley *et al*., 2004:208). Moreover, in a new cultural setting, conflicting signals may raise uncertainty due to the fact that an expatriate is required to understand conflicting signals, then to retain the relevant ones and finally execute appropriate behaviours (Andreason, 2003:51). Role conflict has been found to be especially important for expatriates, as they have to reconcile the different demands of home and host organisation (Harzing & Christensen, 2004).

Role overload

Role overload occurs when excessive demands are placed upon the expatriate in the new position (Morley *et al*., 2004:208). Qualitative and quantitative role overload can be distinguished. Qualitative role overload refers to a lack of necessary skills and competencies to complete the task. On the other hand, quantitative role overload refers to the individual's difficulties in completing an assigned task within an allotted period of time (Pines & Maslach, 1978). This could reduce the expatriate's ability to perform the job satisfactorily, hence making adjustment more difficult.

Non-work elements

Research has shown that certain elements unrelated to work have a significant influence on expatriates' ability to adjust cross-culturally (Morley *et al*., 2004:209). The most significant elements are spousal and/or family adjustment, social networks and repatriation-related challenges (Haslberger, 2005).

<u>Spousal/partner and family adjustments</u>

Lee (2007) reports that spouses/partners and/or children who are unable to adjust to the new environment is a major cause of failed expatriate assignments. Briscoe and Schuler (2004) agree that the inability of the expatriate family to adjust according to the other country might lead the expatriate to leave the host country and return home. McNulty (2012) found that trailing-spouse adjustment is multidimensional and socially constructed. Battles between identity and career issues are major psychological challenges and, if not addressed, can lead to feelings of isolation, loneliness, resentment, depression and marital stress. Work–family crossover effects have been shown to have an impact on expatriates' job performance, increasing their intent to leave (Cole & Nesbeth, 2014).

According to the 2011 Global Relocation Trends Survey Report, approximately 68% of documented expatriate workers worldwide were married. Of this 68%, 80% had spouses accompany them on their expatriate assignment. Approximately 47% of the expatriate population reported having spouses and children accompanying them on assignment. This is a significant number of people, with the potential to affect the success of expatriate assignments around the world.

A decision to relocate a family to a foreign country because of a work opportunity is not a decision taken lightly. Expatriates and their spouses usually take a considerable amount of time making the decision to move abroad before they embrace the opportunity (Pollock & Van Reken, 1999). MNCs require a significant commitment, since the cost of an expatriate manager can be three times the salary of a US executive (Maertz, Hassan & Magnusson, 2009). The Global Relocation Trends Survey Report (2011) by Brookfield Global Relocation Services indicates that in the last 10 years, due to economic shifts in the US and global markets, MNCs have become even more selective with the workers they send abroad.

Most companies are choosing to send fewer workers abroad, hoping for better retention and better return on their investment. Thus, the selection process has become even more complex when considering the employee most suitable for an assignment abroad. Knowing more about the experience of expatriate families will enable MNCs to make better decisions regarding who they choose to send abroad. Providing the necessary support to expatriates and their family has the potential to save the company and employee time, money and unneeded additional stress.

Previous literature reviews have identified many articles which focus on expatriate worker selection (Anderson, 2005; Lee, 2007; Selmer & Fenner, 2009). However, only limited attention is paid to accompanying family members in the selection process (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008). Shaffer and Harrison (2001) created a comprehensive model of expatriate spousal adjustment based on in-depth interviews with expatriates and their spouses. Shaffer and Harrison (2001) argued that there were three main elements to spousal adjustment:

1. An individual factor (language fluency, social self-efficacy, general self-efficacy, and change in employment status);
2. An interpersonal relationships factor (family issues and social networks); and
3. An environmental factor (favourable living conditions, assignment duration certainty and cultural novelty).

Given that the study focused only on information regarding expatriate workers and their spouses, it remains unknown which elements are most prominent for successful family transition during an expatriate assignment. Sarkiunaite and Rocke (2015:28) indicated that the hesitation of spouses to accept their partner's career, adjustment of children to the new environment and their education, and the strong demographic change act as the negative elements against the expatriate process, while further studies found that up to 85% of expatriate assignment failure are attributed to family dissatisfaction (Zhu, Luthans, Chew & Li, 2006).

Considering the high cost of expatriate failure there is significant economic incentive to identify elements that can help MNCs set up the necessary support and resources for expatriate families before possible negative effects could occur. There is also great social incentive: keeping families happy, healthy and together (Sarkiunaite & Rocke, 2015).

The inability of the spouse (and family) to adjust cross-culturally could be ascribed to a number of reasons. Usually the spouse is the one being more exposed to the new culture. Where the expatriate usually has the most contact with the company and is therefore buffered from the local environment, the spouse must often live without the familiar network of family and friends, without adequate language skills or cultural training and without adequate support programmes to assist in developing an appropriate lifestyle while overseas (Black & Stephens, 1989:541; Sarkiunaite & Rocke, 2015).

International adjustment difficulties have been aggravated due to the dual careers of couples. Harvey (1996:22) mentions that a contributing factor in the decision to turn down an overseas assignment in the first place may be the impact of that assignment on the spouse’s career. In addition, there has been an increase in female expatriates with a male spouse who almost always had a job before accompanying their husbands (Cartus, 2007). A distinction can be drawn between three types of spouse expatriates who all require different support from companies: first, female spouses who do not expect to work in the foreign country; secondly, female spouses who expect to work in the foreign location; and, thirdly, male spouses, who predominately expect to work in the foreign location (Punnett, 1997:246). Companies should provide corporate relocation support to the spouse throughout the overseas assignment in addition to support provided purely to the expatriate (Andreason, 2002:22).

Social support and networks

Social interface is an important source of information about culturally acceptable norms and behaviours, since it reduces uncertainties associated with work and non-work situations (Feldman & Bolino, 1999). As already mentioned, social support helps in mobilising emotional resources and fosters cross-cultural adjustment. Social support has two main functions in respect to cross-cultural adjustment: socio-emotional and instrumental support. Socio-emotional support reduces loneliness and depression, whereas instrumental support reduces the uncertainty associated with cultural transitions through information about social norms and regulations (Ong & Ward, 2005). Being a source of information and assistance, social support helps to reduce uncertainty and supports adjustment (Adelman, 1988). Thus, the bigger and closer the social network of an expatriate, the easier it is to adjust cross-culturally (Wang & Kanungo, 2004).

Repatriation-related challenges

Benson and Pattie (2008:1642) and Sarkiunaite and Rocke (2015:28) observed that the process of repatriation imposes great challenges on expatriates pertaining to loss of status and living standard, feeling underrated, financial difficulties, social adjustment and career direction. The issues emerging during repatriation can be organisational problems related to career expectations, a lack of authority and promotion, and personal problems related to social adjustment, living standard and family concerns (Harvey & Moeller, 2009:281).

2.6 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to examine the literature pertaining to globalisation, MNCs and the expatriate workforce. It further dealt with workforce diversity and managing workforce diversity in MNCs, as well as the individual and organisational elements that affect expatriate adjustment.

The common reasons which cause failed expatriate assignments are due to the inability of the expatriate to adapt to the new culture, to learn new things at the new workplace and to meet the performance objectives. Mentoring has been suggested as an approach to assist with expatriate adjustment challenges in order to ultimately assist in reducing the high rates of failed expatriate assignments.

CHAPTER 3: EXPATRIATE MENTORING

3.1 Introduction

The expatriate workforce has played an important role in international business and international HRM since the 1990s (Hippler, Brewster & Haslberger, 2015:1920). This is not surprising given the key role expatriates play in MNCs. With this in mind it is imperative that expatriates be mentored in order for them to successfully adapt to their new environment (Hippler *et al*., 2015; Malek, Budhwar & Reiche, 2014). While prior research (Andreason, 2002; Beitler, 2005; Black, 1988; Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992; Caligiuri, 2000; Harris & Brewster, 2004; Morley *et al*., 2004) has greatly increased our understanding of the determinants of expatriate success, the literature is criticised for being mainly focused on expatriate performance, with little focus on their training and mentoring needs (Beitler, 2005; Black *et al.*, 1992; Zhuanga *et al*. 2013).

There can be no standardised mentoring plan for expatriates, as mentoring plans need to be personalised to suit the organisation, its objectives and the target population. One of the most significant foundations of successful mentoring is the presence of a customised mentoring plan (Zhuanga *et al*., 2013). As indicated before, the majority of research on expatriates focuses on the mentor (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010; Feldman & Bolino, 1999; Forret *et al.*, 1996; Gibb, 1999; Mezias & Scandura, 2005), but ignore the levels, methods and techniques that an expatriate mentoring plan should contain.

The aim of this chapter is to explore the concept of 'expatriate mentoring', its advantages and disadvantages, as well as the challenges faced by expatriates. It will present the stages and phases of learning and reflect on the mentoring process. The chapter will also present the theoretical framework for the study, based on the Identity Development Theory of Chickering and Reisser (1993).

3.2 Explaining the term ‘expatriate mentoring’

The notion of a mentoring relationship originates from Homer’s *Odyssey*. In the story the king, Ithaca, entrusted the young prince to his friend, Mentor, who was to educate the prince while the king fought in the Trojan War. Since then the term ‘mentor’ has been used to refer to a person having broad and profound knowledge and being able to teach and guide the inexperienced (Zhuanga *et al.*, 2013:37). Competent individuals providing guidance, logical advice and continuous support for assisting the mentee during the learning and development process forms the process of mentoring (Armstrong, 2010:367). Armstrong (2010:368) defines ‘mentoring’ as a method of helping people to learn and to increase their job competencies.

Protégés (mentees) are guided by a mentor who opens doors for them and provides career support, ‘shows them the ropes’, creates potential opportunities for demonstrating competence in them, enhances their visibility and ensures that they have challenging work objectives (Werner & DeSimone, 2012:424). In general, individuals who are committed to eliminate any possible performance barriers or initial fristrations that ‘newcomers’ might face in their new settings are characterised to be mentors (Hunt & Michael, 1983; Kram, 1985). Mentoring can further be referred to as one strategy that provides the necessary support to an expatriate in coping with the challenges of adapting to a new work and living environment (Mezias & Scandura, 2005).

Mentorship can prove to be a useful asset, as working in a foreign setting may be extremely stressful to expatriates, mainly due to the adjustments they are required to make. Personal adjustments may be required such as finding a place to stay or to set up a new home, or work-related adjustments such adapting to a new organisational culture. Often social isolation is experienced by expatriates, as they are far away from their friends and family (Zhuanga *et al.*, 2013:36). Elegbe (2010:172), therefore, urges that, before departure, the expatriate should be assigned a mentor. The particular interest in mentoring can be explained by its psychological, social and career-related benefits for mentees, mentors as well as their organisations (Bouquillon, Sosik & Lee, 2005:239; Wanberg, Welsh & Hezlett, 2003).

A distinction needs to be drawn between formal and informal expatriate mentoring. Informal mentoring programmes has become prevalent because research has shown that informal mentoring is beneficial (Brief, 2008). Scholars have criticised that formal mentoring programmes may not be able to deliver the same benefits as the informal ones (Brief, 2008:285). This explains why some scholars state that most formal mentoring plans are designed simply to replicate the same benefits as informal mentoring (Clutterbuck & Ragins, 2002:44).

Welsh (2004:26) also highlights the mixed findings to the benefits of informal vs. formal mentoring plans. Brief (2008) and Mezias and Scandura (2005) suggest that a formal mentoring plan tends to be more limited with regard to role modelling and counselling and is more focused on job-related improvements than holistic life challenges. However, formal mentoring plans are developed to sustain and support the core competencies of the organisation. They promote and encourage staff development and have the support of management, as responsibilities and expected outcomes are clearly defined. Informal mentoring relationships cannot guarantee the enhancement of key competencies.

In addition, formal mentoring programmes offer the opportunity to include all who want to participate. In this way, organisations foster the development of new ideas, abilities and potential of employees who might have got lost otherwise. According to Clutterbuck (2001:29), formal mentoring programmes ensure that the goals in the mentoring relationship are specific. Moreover, a practical framework that includes prior training and continuous review for both parties, clarifies the expectations for both mentor and mentee, defines boundaries and makes it easy to identify how well the development takes place. In addition, ‘toxic’ mentors who have manipulative goals or are in any other way destructive to the organisation and the mentee can be weeded out by formal mentoring programmes.

According to Taglieber (2011), there are significant differences between formal and informal mentoring relationships. Informal expatriate mentoring relationships between two individuals develop on the basis of perceived similarities and mutual identification. Usually, formal expatriate mentoring programmes are initiated by the organisation, and the responsible programme administrators match mentor and mentee after an assessment of needs, competencies and compatibilities.

In informal mentoring relationships, mentor and mentee can meet when they wish, and they usually have more time to develop trust and to engage in psychosocial functions. Moreover, informal mentoring relationships usually last three to six years longer than informal ones (six months to one year). However, informal mentoring relationships may be so close and focus much more on long-term goals that mentors may place the mentees' interests above those of the organisation (Brief, 2008:286; Mezias & Scandura, 2005:522).

An advantage of formal mentoring programmes is that they cater to the interests of minorities or other disadvantaged groups which may experience greater barriers to developing informal mentoring relationships within organisations (Welsh, 2004:26). Clutterbuck (2001:28) refers to this as social inclusion and adds that formal mentoring programmes provide some control of the process. In so doing, organisations can ensure equal opportunities and an effective use of the diversity of talent, experience and backgrounds of their employees. Hence, informal mentoring seems to reinforce social exclusion, as the scarce pool of mentors usually come from a dominant, better educated and more ambitious social group. In addition, due to the similarities between mentor and mentee, relatively little learning takes place for the mentor (Taglieber, 2011).

However, the quality of the relationship and matching of mentor and mentee is crucial as research points out that it is better for expatriates to not have a mentor than to have a poor formal mentoring relationship (Mezias & Scandura, 2005:522). The expatriates are supported in their personal and work-related adaptation in the new setting by a mentor. Effective preparation, support and training if provided to expatriates can lead to the increased success of international assignments (Fontaine, 1997:631). An average of only 30% of the managers on expatriate assignments receives training before their departure as per Hill (2005:629) and Deresky (2002:399).

A significant effort in training, analysis, planning and selection of expatriates before, during and after arrival in the host country is required in the expatriation process, according to Duppada and Aryasri (2011:204). Research by Purgal-Popiela (2011:39) and Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2011:479) strongly suggests that experienced mentors should be provided to the newly arriving expatriates to assist them in adjusting to the hosting country, as well as the hosting company.

Career-related guidance can be provided only by the mentor, as it has the potential to significantly enhance the career satisfaction and success of an expatriate. Thus, the appointment of a mentor is necessary (Dessler, 2013:334). Dessler (2013:334) asserts that the likeliness of the adaptation of expatriates to the foreign assignment depends largely on how satisfied they are with their jobs. The 'global buddy' programmes were created for this purpose. According to Meyer and Mabaso (2004:5), significant preparation and planning to achieve its goals is required in the process of mentoring, for it is not a natural process.

According to Tabroon, Macaulay and Cook (1997:6), there should be clarity among MNCs about what they expect from the mentoring process. The mentoring expectations and customised needs should be communicated thoroughly to all involved parties. Even though there lies an urgency for implementing the mentoring programmes by many organisations, the plan may still fail due to a lack of initial mentoring planning.

The current systems, methods and processes acting as barriers within the business may hinder the implementation of effective mentoring plans. The planning phase must take this into consideration. Although every organisation has a different mentorship plan, according to Scandura and Williams (2001:352), the following areas must be addressed in such a plan:

- The purpose and objectives of the plan;
- The duration of the mentoring relationship;
- Mentoring models to be used;
- Monitoring progress;
- Management support;
- Selection of mentors and protégés;

- Matching of the pairs; and
- Programme evaluation.

An individual and a shared objective must be held by the mentors, protégés and the organisations. For ensuring that the mentoring plan meets its objectives, a common understanding by, and input from, all participants is crucial (Brown, 2001:72). The customised mentoring plan needs realistic mentoring expectations while performance evaluation is a critical component regardless of the particular strategies followed in a specific mentoring plan. Invaluable information for the constant improvement of mentoring plans and processes may be supplied by the expatriate's performance assessment when mentoring plans are revised and expanded (Sherman, Voight, Tibbetts, Dobbins, Evans & Weidler, 2000:41).

3.3 Functions of mentoring

Mentoring can entail a variety of behaviours and functions. However, Kram (1985) first grouped mentoring into two main functions, which are career and psychosocial functions. Career functions include sponsorship, coaching, protection, exposure and challenge. All of these activities are job-related and focus on enhancing the mentees' capabilities and standing in the organisation. Psychosocial functions, on the other hand, concern the mentees' attitudes, behaviours and values that in one way or another have an impact on their career development. This may include the anticipation of specific behaviours, attitudes and values that contribute to the success within the organisation, as well as the resolution of personal and professional issues that may hinder it (Luecke & Ibarra, 2004:77).

The array of these personal and professional tools has a major positive impact on the career development of mentees (Waldeck, Orrego, Plax & Kearney, 1997:3). In terms of the importance of both functions, mentees perceive the psychosocial function in informal mentoring as more critical and, therefore, place more value on it than on the career dimension. Psychosocial mentoring increases personal satisfaction in relationships and the mentees' sense of competence, identity and occupational effectiveness (Waldeck *et al.*,1997:89).

The benefits of the career functions arise mainly from the experience, seniority and hierarchical position of the mentor who is able to guide the mentee effectively through potential obstacles in the organisation. Psychosocial functions, in contrast, emphasise the quality of the relationship between mentor and mentee and depend on the degree of trust within the relationship. Elements such as respect, mutual liking, counselling skills and the desire for affection have an impact on the quality of the relationship (Brockbank & McGill, 2007:323).

In the end, when the mentor has performed several functions that were needed by the mentee, the mentor gains recognition and respect, confirmation and support from the employee he/she has been mentoring. Hence, reciprocity is a key characteristic of good mentoring relationships (Gibson, 2004:261). Table 3.1 provides an overview and a description of associated career and psychosocial functions. However, because the functions and their associated outcomes justify the existence of mentoring in the world of business, it should be described in more detail.

As already mentioned, career functions include sponsorship, mentoring, protection, challenge and exposure. Sponsorship is one of the most observed career functions. It describes the mentor's support for the mentee that opens doors and opportunities which otherwise would not have been available to the mentee. It supports the mentee in building a reputation, becoming known within the organisation and gaining access to job opportunities that prepare him/her for higher-level positions (Luecke & Ibarra 2004:77). Mentoring increases the knowledge and understanding of mentees on how to act and react effectively in business settings. On this basis, strategies can be developed that support the achievement of certain work objectives or general developmental goals.

Protection refers to the mentor's function to protect mentees from potentially destructive contacts with other members of the organisation. Challenge refers to discussions and assignments that enable mentees to increase their competencies. This entails the acquisition of technical and managerial skills through challenging assignments and discussions. The mentor gives ongoing feedback, direction and support in order to ease the burden of complex tasks while simultaneously encouraging learning. Exposure and visibility entail that the mentor assigns responsibilities to the mentees which enables them to develop relationships with powerful people in the organisation who may judge the mentees' potential for future advancement. This makes the mentees not only visible to decision-makers within the organisation, but exposes them to future opportunities (Ragins & Kram, 2007:5-7).

Psychosocial functions affect mentees on a more personal level by improving their sense of competence and identity. Its success and effectiveness depend on the quality of the interpersonal relationship between mentor and mentee. However, the first psychosocial function is role modelling, which occurs when a mentor's behaviours, attitudes and values provide the mentee with a model from which to learn. Acceptance and confirmation from the mentor help to increase the mentees' self-confidence regarding their abilities. This allows and encourages the mentee to try new behaviours and skills, as making mistakes in learning will not result in rejection by the mentor. Counselling provides the mentee with a sounding board to resolve any fears, anxieties or problems that cause distraction from work. Here, the mentor uses active listening techniques and offers feedback to resolve issues. Friendship is the result of several instances of social interaction which have culminated in mutual liking and understanding and represent personal caring that goes beyond professional business requirements (Luecke & Ibarra, 2004:77; Raggins & Kram, 2007:5-7).

Table 3.1 below highlights the mentoring benefits on a career and psychosocial level.

Table 3.1: Mentoring benefits on career and psychosocial level

Career functions	Psychosocial functions
Sponsorship: The mentor opens doors that would otherwise be closed.	Role modelling: The mentor demonstrates the kinds of behaviours, attitudes and values that lead to success in the organisation.
Coaching: The mentor teaches and provides feedback.	Counselling: The mentor helps the protégé deal with difficult professional dilemmas.
Protection: The mentor supports the protégé and/or acts as a buffer.	Acceptance and confirmation: The mentor supports the protégé and shows respect.
Challenge: The mentor encourages new ways of thinking and acting, and pushes the protégé to stretch his/her capabilities.	Friendship: The mentor demonstrates personal caring that goes beyond business requirements.
Exposure and visibility: The mentor steers the protégé into assignments that introduces him/her to top management.	

Source: Luecke and Ibarra (2004:77)

3.4 Learning theories and styles relevant to mentoring

Geber and Nyanjom (2009:896) argue that mentoring is more extensive than the professional development of an individual. This is due to the fact that the organisation and its educational goals are transformed by a mentoring process. Regarding learning from mentors, Ryan (2012:2) mentions the fact that expatriates come from various parts of the world and all have different levels of expertise. One could assume that MNCs in the UAE might be more open to leaders stemming from first-world origins which would, in turn, have an impact on the intended mentoring process.

During mentoring, learning takes place in various ways. According to Brockbank and McGill (2006:25), there is no specific theory of learning that embraces all the activities involved during the learning process. Brockbank and McGill (2006) suggest that the theories related to learning are vast, because most of what people think, speak, do, feel or believe is learned. Furthermore, the authors contend that a traditional academic approach tends to view learning as a mental process only, whereas other more advanced approaches to learning claim that mentees must also be active and put what they have learned into practice (Brockbank & McGill, 2006:26). Some relevant theories of learning include reflective learning theory, situated learning theory, social-constructivist learning theory and experiential learning theory.

Reflective learning theory views learning as an intentional process. It focuses on reflection as an essential element for deep and significant learning. During this process, the mentees embrace the social context, engage with others, are active participants, and are open to new challenges. The end result is not only a transformation of the individual, but also of the organisation (Brockbank, McGill & Beech, 2002:6).

Situated learning theory is also relevant to this study. According to situated learning theory, learning takes place in the specific context, culture and social setting in which the knowledge and skills are needed and will be applied (Schulze, 2009:3). Lave and Wenger (1991:32) claim that learning is not simply the transference of knowledge from individual to individual, but is based on shared knowledge when individuals collaborate in a social environment or community of practice. The authors speak of legitimate peripheral participation whereby individuals participate in communities as learner practitioners. In these communities, the novice gains new knowledge and skills, eventually moving towards full participation. Only when the participant fully engages within the socio-cultural community can the true meaning of the learning be configured (Lave & Wenger, 1991:29-43).

Much of the research related to effective mentoring practice appears to conclude that effective practice, measured by trainee learning, is based on Vygotskian and socio-cultural perspectives that are underpinned by social constructivist approaches in mentoring (Bradley, 2010:41). These perspectives maintain that human activities are rooted in social participation and learned not in isolation but with the assistance of others (Bradley, 2010:42). Social constructivist theory recognises the importance of social and cultural relationships and the role these relationships play in the organisation of human thinking (Bradley, 2010:33).

Schulze (2009:4-5) identifies six notions that define the constructivist view of learning, namely active participation in the learning process; creating or inventing knowledge; knowledge that is personally and socially constructed; learning being the key element in the sense-making process; and learning that requires problem solving. Furthermore, according to Vygotsky (1978), lifelong learning is dependent on social interaction. He was of the view that social learning leads to cognitive development – a phenomenon which is referred to as the zone of potential development.

Kolb (1994:2) suggests that learning is at the heart of the mentoring process and stresses that it is equally important for both the mentor and mentee to understand the learning process. He highlights the importance of the experiential learning theory, whereby learning can be perceived as a cyclical process. During this process, individuals gain experience by participating in an activity. Participants then reflect on the experience and attempt to make sense of their experience through analysis and conceptualisation. They then make choices based on the analysis and, finally, decide on further steps leading to the next experience. According to Kolb (1994:6), learning is thus cyclical and never ending, and the learning process is always repeated. Furthermore, Kolb suggests that the experiential learning theory provides a comprehensive model of the learning process that is consistent with what the world knows about how people learn, grow and develop (McKimm, Jollie & Hatter, 2007:11-15).

When the mentoring activities, interactions, benefits and expected outcomes are viewed through the lens of learning theories, all of the above-mentioned learning theories are relevant in the context of this study. The importance of the social constructivist and the situated learning theory for this study is also based on the culture, customs and communities prevalent in the UAE. Arab culture in general supports the notion of individuals working together and supporting one another.

Another learning theory, which is an experiential learning theory, is the cyclical learning theory. In this theory learners are challenged to choose a set of abilities they would use in a given learning situation (Kolb & Kolb, 2009:4). Within the cycle, four key learning stages are identified, namely concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualisation (AC) and active experimentation (AE). These four stages (Figure 3.1) will now be discussed in further detail.

Figure 3.1: Kolb's learning cycle

Source: Kolb and Kolb (2009:4)

Figure 3.1 illustrates the experiential learning cycle and suggests that learning requires abilities that are on opposite ends of the spectrum. Learners are challenged to continuously choose the set of abilities they would use in a given learning situation. In grasping different experiences, some individuals perceive new information through experiencing the concrete (things people can feel, see, make sense of), while others make sense of new information through abstract conceptualisation (thinking, planning, analysing).

Similarly, in processing a new experience, some mentees take time to reflect on what is happening around them by simply observing, while others leap at opportunities with no time to reflect. The former favours RO, while the latter favours AE (Kolb, Boyatzis & Mainemelis, 1999:2-4). The four stages of the cycle are explained below in more detail in the context of the mentor–mentee relationship in the UAE.

Stage 1: Concrete experience (CE)

During the CE stage, mentees view concrete situations from many different points of view. Learning occurs by relating one's own experiences to those of the people around you. At this point, the mentor is sensitive to the needs and feelings of others. For example, the mentor is expected to be sensitive to cultural customs, i.e. prayer times at various times of the day.

The reform agenda stipulates the transference of skills. The mentor is expected to guide the expatriates to a point where they are able to perform without guidance or support, and to a point where they themselves can become mentors in their own right (Thorne, 2011:175-183). Therefore, through concrete mentoring experiences, the mentees need to be guided to a point where they can support others.

Stage 2: Reflective observation (RO)

RO refers to a process of observation before making a decision, and observing a context from different points of view and reflecting about it. This stage is applicable to both the expatriate and host-country mentor within the mentoring process, because the reflection process will enable both parties to use the gathered information to guide their future mentoring objectives. Thus, the mentor and mentee search for meaning by studying a wide range of information in order to make sense of this information, or to establish whether the information they have studied can add practical value to the context.

Stage 3: Abstract conceptualisation (AC)

During the third stage, called AC, the mentees take time to think about the ideas they have learned and use their intellectual knowledge to solve problems, make decisions and find the best solutions. In this stage, mentees research the best options by analysing different methods pertaining to their situations. In the current professional development model, expatriate employees are encouraged to sustain their own learning by researching up-to-date ideas pertaining to their profession, and while these ideas are initially introduced by the mentors, the mentees gradually assume more responsibility for their own learning.

Stage 4: Active experimentation (AE)

During the final stage of the cyclical model called AE, mentees use their influence to motivate others to become involved in the work that needs to be done. At this stage, the mentees are comfortable in their leadership roles and use what they have learned during the mentoring process to adopt their own style to start experimenting how to mentor others.

The current professional development model is designed to provide expatriates with leadership support and training in the form of specific educational activities within a given time frame. Leaders are encouraged to use what they have learned during mentoring and to share best practices with their staff and others. This is the most rewarding stage for both the mentors and mentees in that the mentors should be able to release control, and the mentees should be in a position to model what they have learned (Kolb & Kolb, 2009:4).

Learning styles in mentoring

Individuals learn in different ways. McKimm *et al*. (2007:5) emphasise that all individuals do not possess the same skills set, nor are they comfortable in all of the four stages in Kolb's learning cycle. The authors argue that people favour a specific stage in the cycle, and some are more competent in certain stages than in others.

In relation to Kolb's learning cycle, Honey and Mumford (in McKimm *et al*., 2007:6-10) classified four basic learning styles that complement learning within the mentoring process. According to Honey and Mumford (in McKimm *et al*., 2007:5), the four learning styles that are exhibited during the mentoring process are the activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist styles. These learning styles, as depicted in Figure 3.2, will now be explained in further detail.

Figure 3.2: The four individual learning styles

Source: Honey and Mumford (in McKimm et al., 2007:6)

The activist enjoys a new challenge; the reflector thinks things through before taking action; the theorist group ideas in a logical sequence; and the pragmatist is a problem solver who tests new ideas. Whatever the mentee's learning style, it is the responsibility of the mentor to ensure that the mentee completes a learning cycle in a mentoring relationship. The host-country mentor should allow the expatriate mentee the opportunity to explore various learning styles and to adopt the style best suited for a specific situation. There may be certain stages that the mentee chooses to avoid, but the mentor should respect the mentee's decision in order to strengthen the mentoring relationship (Lewis, 2006:107). Each of the learning styles is now explained in more detail.

The activist learning style

Activists are, in general, comfortable at the onset of new experiences. Mentees who are activists enjoy generating new ideas and they tend to lose interest during the implementation phase. During learning, activists tend to respond to challenges quickly without thinking about the repercussions of their actions. They enjoy working in a team, but prefer to take the lead. Their learning style does not favour lecturing, tedious explanations and following exact instructions. Within the learning cycle as illustrated in Figure 3.2, activists learn best by being actively involved in the process (AE) and by taking part in the learning experience (CE).

The reflective learning style

Mentors who are reflectors tend to take their time to analyse a new situation from various points of view before making a decision. They are team players. However, they prefer to listen to the views of team members first before expressing their own points of view. Reflectors perform best when they have the freedom to complete a task within flexible time frames and when they are not compelled to lead a group. According to Kolb's learning cycle (Figure 3.1), the reflector enjoys being a part of the learning (CE), but from a distance, for example, observing the learning of others. This process presents the mentees with the opportunity to reflect on their own understanding (RO).

The theorist learning style

Mentees who are theorists are logical planners who solve problems according to a sequence. This learning style involves individuals who are perfectionists and have a need to justify the rationale behind their learning. Theorists are analytical, rarely display any emotion and perform best when they are faced with complex situations that provide them with the opportunity to use their skills and knowledge. They find it difficult to work in an unstructured environment or when the task requires an emotional element. With reference to Figure 3.2, theorists spend time reflecting on a situation (RO) and thereafter draw their own conclusions on the next steps (AC).

The pragmatist learning style

Mentees who are pragmatists are eager to learn new things. They are seen to be practically minded and require learning that is useful for their daily roles. They are not in favour of lengthy talks and enjoy tasks in which they are able to demonstrate their understanding. They also do not enjoy activities that are theory based or when there is no opportunity to put their learning into practice. In the learning cycle depicted in Figure 3.2, the pragmatists explore various practical conclusions (AC) which, in turn allow them to test these ideas in given settings (AE) (McKimm *et al*., 2007:6).

3.5 Advantages and disadvantages of mentoring

While mentoring has been widely researched in the domestic workplace, research has only recently begun to focus on mentoring in the international setting in order for MNCs to assist expatriates to succeed in their international assignments (Adler, 2008). While formal training – whether pre-departure or CCT – has been a dominant strategy for preparing expatriates, little is known about expatriate mentoring, which often takes the form of an informal development relationship or on the-job, one-on-one training. According to Kim (2007), expatriate mentoring has valuable advantages, as well as the potential to fill the gaps in CCT or pre-departure training and to develop expatriates for the following reasons.

First of all, while formal training is often restricted in duration and conducted in a time-compressed way, mentoring can take place anytime over the three phases of expatriation in the workplace. Secondly, mentoring is often less expensive than formal courses, can be used in a more cost-effective way, and decreases an employee’s need for other forms of training (Harvey & Wiese, 2002). Thirdly, mentors are a key source of real-time learning for the employee, and mentoring is an important workplace learning strategy. Expatriates can be active learners and participants in their own adjustment in the expatriation and challenges caused by the international business environment (Feldman & Thomas, 1992).

The success of foreign assignments with regard to expatriate adjustment and performance is highly dependent upon mentors (Holtbrügge & Ambrosius, 2015).

Holtbrügge and Ambrosius (2015:278) conducted an investigation to evaluate the impact of several mentor-related factors on the career growth of expatriates. For this purpose, social exchange theory was exploited, and a sample of 59 US expatriates appointed in Germany were interviewed. The research revealed that the organisational distance between the expatriates and mentors and mentors' contribution to their career planning had a positive impact on the skill development of the expatriates. Also, skills development of expatriates seemed closely related to their career growth. Lastly, the researchers emphasised the implementation of mentoring programmes in MNCs.

Hansen and Rasmussen (2016:176) explained that the failure of expatriates in overseas assignments have inspired more investigations regarding the possible roles of mentors in assisting expatriates during difficult times in their assignments. The researchers examined the mentoring of expatriates in three transnational companies and found that ethnocentrism in the native company presented a major constraint for cultural adaption and learning of the expatriates.

Therefore, mentoring and training within the native company regarding the process of expatriation must be facilitated for recruiting those who have better practical knowledge. Also, personal and relational mentoring must be incorporated with the help of experienced and motivated mentors who are supported and recognised in the respective organisation. According to Scandura and Williams (2001), only the minority of MNCs ensure their expatriates are provided with special mentoring in order to enable them to adjust to the new culture, both at work and on a personal level. The mentor will further assist in facilitating the learning regarding:

- The new role to be played in the workplace;
- Role-specific deliverables;
- Organisational culture and values;
- Future opportunities;
- Adjustments to be made during the pre-departure and onsite segments during the entire job assignment; and
- Host-country familiarisation with a focus on the local cultures.

McCaughey and Bruning (2005) agree with the literature of having a host-country mentor who can assist in learning and familiarisation to the local cultures. The mentor can also assist with problems and interactions which can contribute to the overall adjustment of the employee.

Host-country mentors possess the unique characteristic of having knowledge about the organisation, i.e. host-country culture and the work to be done in the host-country office (Mezias & Scandura, 2005). In addition, they can provide feedback regarding the job performance of the expatriates, addressing their behaviour which would facilitate the latter in adjustment in their role. Mentors offer strength and support to the expatriates to complete their jobs successfully. Moreover, they offer psychological support to the expatriates, as they model effective behaviour in work and interpersonal level.

Mentoring provides benefits for all parties involved. It can be described as a three-dimensional beneficial relationship between the mentee, mentor and organisation. As Lewis (2006:11) states, mentoring is an additive model. Hence, it is difficult to do harm, but easy to gain mutual benefits from the relationship. However, potential downsides still need to be considered for each party. In the following section, advantages and disadvantages will be described for the mentor, the mentee and the organisation.

3.5.1 Advantages and disadvantages for the mentee

There are various benefits of mentoring for the mentee (newly joined expatriate) such as easier adjustment to the new environment, improved self-confidence and efficacy, learning to cope with the formal and informal structure of the organisation, managerial tutoring, as well as career advice and advancement (Clutterbuck, 2001:38-40). According to Kim (2007), international settings often bring expatriates extreme stress and anxiety due to cultural distance and the lack of social support that is generally available from family and friends in the home country.

Mentoring programmes can offer this social support function for expatriates (Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Harvey & Wiese, 2002). Mentoring of expatriates provides them with a higher amount of job satisfaction, more promotions, a reduction in turnover intentions, less work-related and non-work-related conflicts, and reduced levels of stress (Kim, 2007). Abdullah and Jin (2015:553) concluded their study by suggesting that mentoring take place on an ongoing basis during the expatriation period, because incessant on-the-job training, mentoring and coaching would enhance expatriates' performance and reduce vagueness of and unfamiliarity towards the working environment and culture.

Mentoring enables new employees to settle in more quickly and ease the adjustment to the new environment. Having a mentor is a good way to increase the expatriate's understanding of the functions, processes, requirements and culture of the organisation. This enables newly joined expatriates to act more efficiently in their job, learn about the general business and gain access to information, resources and other support structures more easily through their mentor (Taglieber, 2011).

Since humans are social beings, the mentees gain not only satisfaction through the relationship with their mentor, but also more self-confidence and respect, especially when skills and capabilities increase. This may entail specific, job-related competencies, as well as the improvement of general skills such as problem-solving and self-reflection skills. This, in turn, will lead to higher job performance by the mentee and, consequently, to financial and career rewards by the organisation, which will reinforce the perceived value of the relationship.

As mentors offer protection to mentees, they become more confident and willing to take career-enhancing risks. In addition, mentors often act as nominators or sponsors for their mentees, which enhances their chances of being considered for beneficial opportunities such as promotions or attractive assignments (Clutterbuck, 2001:38-40; Scandura, Tejeda & Werther, 1996:51-52). However, there are also potential disadvantages for mentees, for example, when mentors want to relive their own career through them or enforce their own agenda. Empirical evidence indicates that such behaviour leads to mentees' leaving the organisation (Feldman & Thomas, 1992; Harvey & Wiese, 2002).

Possible conflicts between line manager and mentor may also have negative effects on the mentee. Sometimes, when the mentoring relationship is mostly used to sponsor the mentee, unhealthy levels of dependence may develop that end up with mentor and mentee competing with each other for the same position. Mentors who like giving too much advice may end up giving the wrong advice. Mentees need to have the strength to decide on their own what they want to do (Clutterbuck, 2001:43-44). In conclusion, potential downsides usually emerge when mentors perform their function poorly or when the programmes are designed or implemented poorly.

3.5.2 Advantages and disadvantages for the (host-country) mentor

A number of benefits are associated with becoming a mentor, especially for an expatriate mentee. The main benefit is clearly the satisfaction and fulfilment that a mentor receives by seeing the protégé develop personally and professionally. Usually, people who have already achieved their career peak and experience a midlife transition engage as mentors, as they seek new challenges (Rose & Scandura, 2004:958). Most seniors do not accept the role because they feel they have to, but because they see it as an opportunity to improve their own role, skills and contributions (Lewis, 2006:13). Furthermore, they gain satisfaction by passing on their knowledge and wisdom to mentees, as this generates a sense of immortality for the mentor. Mentors may also learn from their mentees, especially expatriate mentees, since they possess international experience and can share other best practices from abroad.

This new relationship brings new energy, perspectives and ways of thinking into the mentor's personal and professional life. In particular, mentors can learn new skills from their mentees, such as dealing with and usage of emerging technologies (Taglieber, 2011). Moreover, mentors gain recognition by peers and superiors for supporting the development of high-potential individuals in the organisation. Lastly, mentors experience sincere loyalty and support from their mentees, and the mentors may see something of themselves in their protégés, enabling them to live vicariously through their protégés by enjoying their success and guiding them through difficulties (Parise & Forret, 2008:226-227).

However, there are also some downsides associated with becoming a mentor. According to Clutterbuck (2001:47), they include the following risks:

- Confidentiality being broken by the mentee;
- Resentment from subordinates who complain that mentors do not invest similar time and effort in their development;
- Humiliation when a succession of mentoring relationships fail; and
- An over-demanding mentee who requires more time than the mentor is willing to spend.

A mentor should consider the time that needs to be spent in order to nurture the relationship with the mentee. Another factor that can lead to dissatisfaction is the recognition a mentor expects to receive from the relationship, as this significantly varies with the mentee's performance. Where a high-performing individual provides visibility for and reflects positively on the mentor, a poorly performing mentee could tarnish the mentor's reputation. In addition, when engaging in a mentoring relationship, the mentor runs the risk of being displaced or 'backstabbed' by disloyal mentees (Rose & Scandura, 2004:958).

3.5.3 Advantages and disadvantages for Multinational Corporations

Mentoring is a useful management and career development tool. In this sense, it is beneficial to the organisation, especially for MNCs, because it increases the pool of talent and potential future leaders and leads to higher organisational commitment and lower turnover (Hegstad & Wentling, 2004). Besides its usefulness in the retention of employees, mentoring also serves as a tool to attract new talent and ease their adjustment to the new environment (Singh, Bains & Vinnicombe, 2002). Sullivan (2015) adds that it provides the MNC with an improved morale, higher motivation of expatriates and better relationships within the MNC.

In general, mentoring enhances business learning in a relatively inexpensive way, as no new tools need to be acquired to foster talent via mentoring. Other authors (Kram, 1985; Veale & Wachtel, 1996 in Friday & Friday, 2002:154) associate mentoring with the support of corporate diversity initiatives, enhancement of communication of corporate values and behaviours, improvement of recruitment and retention, increase in employee's sense of engagement and empowerment, enhancement of communication and knowledge transfer, and the optimisation of human resources.

Since mentors transfer their knowledge, values and attitudes to their mentees and act as a role model for them, mentees learn to think, behave and act in compliance with the core organisational culture. As change is inevitable in organisations, mentors can discuss differences between espoused corporate values and actual behaviour. The mentor clarifies for the mentee which aspects of the culture are open for dialogue and which not (Zhuanga *et al*., 2013).

Through the mentoring relationship, a mentee in management gains access to middle management, while being accepted at lower managerial levels in the organisation. Since the mentee is part of both groups, he/she becomes familiar with the language and mannerisms of both. Hence, the mentee is able to communicate each group's ideas and opinions effectively. These informal communication networks boost productivity and efficiency because they lead to higher levels of learning, innovation and quicker adjustment to business needs (Clutterbuck, 2001:36-37). To summarise, the mentioned authors agree that mentoring enhances organisational communication, increases employee attraction and retention, and helps with HRD.

Brief (2008:287) lists potential downsides of formal mentoring programmes for an organisation, which include a lack of organisational support, creation of a climate of dependency, difficulties in coordinating programmes with organisational initiatives, as well as costs and resources of overseeing and administering programmes. Ehrich and Hansford (1999:12) emphasise that organisations should consider potential downsides in relation to the benefits. However, there are two main points every MNC should consider before implementing an expatriate mentoring programme. First, an organisation should analyse whether the anticipated outcomes of the programme outweigh the costs of its implementation. Secondly, they should ensure support among employees and managers for the programme, as a lack of support and commitment can destroy a mentoring programme.

3.6 The influence of culture on expatriate mentoring

Mazrouei and Pech (2015:33) explored the role of organisational culture, adaptation, political environment and leadership in the adjustment of expatriate managers working in the UAE. The research of Mazrouei and Pech (2015) revealed that expatriate leaders are faced with cultural shock, because they are confronted by a foreign unknown environment. The impact of globalisation on organisations is that their workforce becomes more and more diverse. Hence, different nationalities and cultures need to be able to work together.

Mentoring programmes can be a good tool to learn about and use cultural differences to enhance creativity and performance, as well as to ease the CCT of expatriates (Feldman & Bolino, 1999). Mentoring programmes and their characteristics are influenced by cultural preferences, in other words, mentoring is experienced differently in other national cultures (Clutterbuck, 2001:132; Megginson, 2000:258-259), and mentoring programmes may even vary across organisational cultures. The lack of knowledge on cross-cultural mentoring practices in MNCs make it challenging for mentoring programmes to meet their specific objectives (Kim & Egan, 2010:90).

According to Clutterbuck and Megginson (1999:140), the traditional national approaches to mentoring can be differentiated on the basis of three categories, namely the goals, the style of the relationship and the features of the schemes (see Table 3.2). The general understanding of the function of mentoring may vary across nations. Hofstede (2001) categorises national cultures in five dimensions:

Power Distance Index (PDI) – The extent to which the less powerful members of organisations and institutions accept and expect power to be distributed unequally.

Individualism (IDV) vs Collectivism – According to IDV, individuals act on their own, making their own choices, and to the extent they interact with the rest of the group. Collectivism views the group as the primary entity, with the individuals lost along the way.

Masculinity vs. Femininity – A masculine society has traits that are categorised as male, such as strength, dominance, assertiveness and egotism. Feminine society is traditionally thought of as having conventional traits, such as being supportive, caring, and relationship oriented.

Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) – This refers to a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity. It reflects the extent to which members of a society attempt to cope with anxiety by minimising uncertainty.

Long-term Orientation (LTO) vs Short-term Orientation (STO) – Long-term orientation is when one is focused on the future. One is willing to delay short-term material or social success or even short-term emotional gratification in order to prepare for the future. If one has this cultural perspective, one values persistence, perseverance, saving and being able to adapt.

Individual achievements, goals and personal uniqueness, and people are expected to look after themselves and their immediate family. In collectivistic societies individuals are required by implicit norms and duties to give priority to the interests and needs of society over their own, whether those of immediate family or co-workers. In short, collectivism entails the sacrifice of own needs and desires in the interest of society. The Masculinity vs. Femininity index refers to the predominant male (more masculine characteristics, e.g., aggression) or female values (more feminine characteristics, e.g., support and cooperation) within a culture. In masculine cultures, people value competitiveness, assertiveness, determination and the accumulation of wealth, whereas in feminine cultures quality of life is perceived as more important, and arguments and confrontation are generally avoided (Hofstede, 2001).

Concerning mentoring preferences and perceptions, feminine countries such as the Netherlands or Sweden tend to value the soft benefits of mentoring (mutual support and learning), whereas masculine and highly individualistic countries such as the US tend to prefer the direct career-related benefits such as sponsorship and career promotion. Table 3.2 explains how different countries/cultural groups prefer to use different mentoring relationships for desired results.

Table 3.2: The influence of national culture on mentoring preferences

Country	Goals	Style of relationship	Features of schemes
USA	Sponsorship Promoting career	Paternalistic	Senior director taking up cause of younger high flyer
France	Insight Analysis of life purpose	Commitment to sharing values	Scheme created outside companies
Netherlands	Mutual support Learning Networking	Informal Egalitarian Peer mentoring Universal	Recognising benefits for mentor and mentee Personal and professional
Sweden	Perpetuate culture	Share understanding Exchange knowledge	Strong sponsorship from HR and CEO Well researched and planned Involves all in categories targeted
Britain	Insight Learning Support	Individualistic Charismatic mentor shares insight and challenges mentee	*Ad hoc* Diversity of opportunities

Source: Clutterbuck and Megginson (1999:140)

Cultural differences are evident in the style of the relationship as well. Where the masculine and highly individualistic US have a paternalistic relationship, feminine cultures such as the Swedish have a more informal and collaborative approach that emphasise a shared understanding and an exchange of knowledge.

Clutterbuck (2001:132) describes the impact of culture on mentoring with an example of a Dutch and a British expatriate mentor who worked in Brunei. The two Western mentors were asked to plot the shape of the relationship on a coordinates diagram according to where the emphasis of their behaviours should rest (the dimensions were sponsorship, stretch learning, support and self-reliance). A comparison of mentee and mentor expectations showed completely opposites. The local mentees emphasised sponsorship and support, whereas the mentors viewed stretch learning and self-reliance as most important. Evidently, clear communication of expectations is even more critical in cross-cultural relationships, as national cultural values have a major impact on mentoring perceptions and expectations.

According to Megginson (2000:258), the complexity of the issue is how the difference in nationality of mentor and mentee can be seen as a goal, as an advantage or a problem that needs to be solved. This difference can be used to achieve diversity objectives. Furthermore, a mix of nationalities can be used as an effective way to communicate the corporate culture across national borders. Potential problems arising from different expectations rooted in the national culture can be avoided by clear communication of mentor and mentee expectations in the beginning of the relationship. Cross-cultural mentoring does not only increase mentee competence, but also improve the mentoring managers' understanding of others by enhancing their own cultural sensitivity skills. This, in turn, increases managerial performance in conducting international business (Gentry, Weber & Sadri, 2008:249).

Organisational culture encompasses the shared basic assumption, beliefs and values within an organisation that guides the members' thought patterns, behaviours and attitudes (Marquardt, 2002:27; Schein, 1992:12). The culture of an organisation consists of visible and invisible characteristics. The visible characteristics include rituals, stories, clothing regulations and the kind of language that is spoken in the organisation. The invisible characteristics refer to shared values, norms, beliefs and assumptions of the members (Schein, 1992).

The culture of an organisation has a huge impact on its performance and long-term effectiveness. Kotter and Heskett (1992) interviewed a number of financial analysts in different industries and corporations and found that the culture was a critical factor in the financial success of the companies. Furthermore, it has an impact on individuals, because it influences employee morale, commitment, productivity and emotional well-being (Cameron & Quinn, 2011:35).

A prerequisite for the success of expatriate mentoring is that the organisational culture should support its implementation and integration. If not, mentoring efforts will not be successful, as challenges will harm its viability and long-term sustainability. However, an organisational culture of learning and innovation will not only ease its implementation and integration, but also improve its general effectiveness. A mentoring culture needs to be created in alignment with organisational culture. This congruence will ensure that expatriate mentoring stay on the MNC's agenda as it becomes a cultural expectation and an organisational competence (Zachary, 2005:7).

Mazrouei and Pech (2015:33) revealed that the facilitation of economic growth in the UAE has attracted the recruitment of large numbers of expatriate managers. The issues of skills and cultural awareness among expatriate managers working in the UAE with regard to Islamic religion were examined by gaining insight into their expatriate experiences. The researchers investigated the problems faced by the expatriates in senior positions and how they had adjusted before effectively undertaking their respective roles of leaders. The issues of language, Islamic principles and practices, time management and inclination towards paternalistic management style were found to be predominating. The researchers emphasised the development of a mentoring plan or training practices to help the expatriate leaders and managers deal with these sensitive cultural issues.

In a study on the efficiency of expatriate leaders in the UAE Bock (2014:5) found that these leaders made little impact on the productivity of the overall system, as they were faced with certain challenges. Cultural and religious barriers between expatriates and other staff also seemed to be the cause of adjustment difficulties. Language difficulty, poor communication, resistance to change and a lack of role modelling were other challenges. To overcome these hurdles, the researcher recommended the introduction of two-week training and mentoring programme focusing on improving the mentoring relationship between expatriates and the host-country leaders. Also, the researcher emphasised further research, as this area is still less explored.

Toit and Jackson (2014) confirm the lack of expatriate studies in relation to leadership in the UAE higher education system. They found that expatriate school leaders were expected to be able to interact efficiently with local leaders and colleagues in spite of limited international and cultural experience. The researchers emphasised the development of mentoring or training programmes before the departure of expatriates to the overseas assignment to gain an advantage over the mentioned challenges.

The process of expatriation is considered as costly for the employer as for the employee, making it highly crucial for finding strategies to assist expatriates in adjusting to the foreign culture (Mazrouei & Pech, 2014:47). Failed overseas deployments have serious repercussions on the MNC’s reputation and expenses. Mazrouei and Pech (2014) investigated the factors affecting expatriate leader adjustment with close relation to the mentoring programmes. They revealed that well-structured pre-departure training of the expatriates played a positive role in their adjustment to the overseas assignment. Also, mentoring seemed a highly effective means of preparing the employees for their foreign assignment.

3.7 Expatriate training and support practices

Some researchers (Chang, 2005; Gani & Tan, 2005; Gupta, 2013) emphasise that expatriates must receive suitable training before being sent out on an international assignment. CCT is widely known to have a positive impact on the expatriate's performance (Caligiuri *et al*., 2001). During the 1980s companies were not used to providing different types of training to their expatriates, which resulted in the failure of the expatriate programmes.

A study of the training of Chinese expatriates by Zhang and Fan (2014) indicated that providing training to such employees is vital for the success of the programme. The training should include special mental health of the expatriate in the pre-expatriation training programmes. The employee should be provided with pre-departure training rather depending solely on the learning during assignment. The training practices mentioned in the study include the following (Posavec, 2014:7):

Self-maintenance skills: These proved essential for the expatriates, since being away from home, family and especially spouses cause great frustration to people in general.

The use of subsidiaries as a training tool: The Chinese believe in training by doing. For this purpose, they use their subsidiary office as a place of training where expatriates are developed and their managerial and global capabilities built. This form of on-site training involves seminars, e-learning systems, mentoring, information packages and social activities with employees of the host country. Such an onsite programme is about giving training to the employee at both the subsidiary and the headquarter level. This all proved to be beneficial to the employee.

Research by Zhang and Fan (2014) suggests that assessment and selection of expatriates should take an approach that more closely reflects the reality of expatriate needs above and beyond their training needs, referring to situational elements such as the expatriate’s family. The family members of the expatriate, especially how well they adapt, is critical to the work performance of the expatriate. Research (Zhang & Fan, 2014) identified certain factors that negatively influence family adaptation, including unrealistic expectations of the environment, culture and lifestyle, cultural insensitivity, being away from the normal support network, poor work–family balance, a lack of career opportunities for trailing spouses, and limited facilities for expatriate children’s education and leisure. These factors vary from one country to another.

For the reasons stated above, organisations should invest more in assisting expatriates and their families to adapt as quickly as possible. Vogel (2006) found that the demographic profile of South African expatriates varies between 23 and 60 years of age, unlike the international staffing trend where MNCs are sending younger employees on international assignments. The reasons are that younger employees do not, in most cases, have trailing spouses and children who would add to the cost of an international assignment and, as was seen in a number of US studies, are a major contributor to the early termination of an international assignment (Vogel, 2006:171). In the current research, the majority of South African expatriates were married, highlighting the fact that organisations will have to support the families of these expatriates.

A study conducted in 46 countries found that the amount of organisational support that expatriates felt they were receiving and the relationship between their work and family domain have a direct and unique impact on the individual’s intentions regarding staying with or leaving the organisation (Vogel, 2006). Organisations that have recognised the importance of family support interview both the spouse and the employee before deciding whether to approve the assignment.

Vogel further notes that training should be aligned to the duration of the assignment, as the literature suggest that age can influence the success of an international assignment. Vogel (2006:179) also found a substantial relation between the age of expatriates and the preparation, support and training necessary (dependent variables) by them. Analysis of the survey questions regarding the age of expatriates revealed the following interesting insights:

- *The MNC should pay for the storage and insurance of all belongings remaining in the home country*: While 85.7% of the expatriates, 35 years and younger, agreed with the statement, 100% of the expatriates older than 35 agreed with the statement.

- *The MNC should provide expatriates with legal aid in order to make or update their will prior to departure*: While 82.14% of expatriates 35 and younger agreed with the statement, only 56.76% of expatriates over 35 agreed with the statement.

- *The MNC should assist expatriates' spouses to find employment in the host country*: While 90% of expatriates 35 and younger agreed with this statement, only 43.75% of expatriates over 35 agreed with this statement.

- *Expatriates should receive CCT focusing on particular characteristics of the host culture such as customs, values and beliefs*: While 96.43% of expatriates 35 and younger wished to receive subjective CCT, only 78.38% of expatriates over 35 wished to receive this training.

- *The MNC should provide expatriates with reading material from the host country to prepare them for the new location*: While 82.14% of expatriates 35 years and younger agreed with this statement, only 59.46% of the expatriates over 35 agreed with this statement.

3.8 Challenges of expatriate mentoring

In some cases, logistical and location difficulties might arise where the host-country mentor and expatriate protégé are not in the same location or even the same country (Ensher, Heun & Blanchard, 2003). For example, the required mentor, based on the needs of the mentee, cannot easily be found within the MNC (home office) causing a delay in the mentoring process (Ensher *et al*., 2003). To deal with such a situation, the MNC sometimes hire a mentor from an external source. However, chances are that the desired mentor might not be available in external sources as well (Headlam, Craig & Gosland, 2006).

Clearly, the process of mentoring becomes even more difficult and problematic when the mentor and the mentee are in different locations. Although the mentor may be available within the organisation, the relationship between the mentee and the mentor might not be possible due to the distance. It is the most cost effective for the organisation when the mentor is in close proximity to the mentee. Distance between the two can be managed when both of them agree to travel, which however still proves to be costly. Packard (2003) confirms that, many times, the money and time needed to conduct a face-to-face meeting between the mentor and the mentee hinder the use of traditional mentoring.

3.9 Different stages and phases of expatriate mentoring

According to Mezias and Scandura (2005) and Crocitto, Sullivan and Carraher (2005), the expatriate assignment comprises the following three stages:

1. Pre-departure: The expatriate is selected by the MNC for the international job assignment.
2. Expatriation: The expatriate is doing his/her job abroad at the new workplace.
3. Repatriation: The expatriate returns to the home-country office.

The most crucial and significant stage is expatriation. This is the stage during which the expatriate faces the maximum number of major challenges while being abroad (Crocitto *et al*., 2005). Expatriate mentoring is primarily required to guide mentees during the expatriation stage so that they can cope with the challenges related to both work and personal life in the new country.

One technique of mentoring is called traditional mentoring. This type of mentoring involves both the expatriate and the mentor to be physically present in a face-to-face meeting. However, as mentioned above, expatriate assignments may occur in regions where no mentor is available (Crocitto *et al*., 2005). Therefore, this technique is not always possible. Another technique, namely e-mentoring, is important in these times of growing technology for the organisations to undertake the mentoring process without fail.

According to Rickard (2004:384), e-mentoring is the mentoring of an expatriate which takes place electronically. The various methods for e-mentoring comprise the following electronic communication sources: e-mail, chat rooms, message boards, webpages and forums (Hamilton & Scandura, 2003). The goals and objectives of e-mentoring are the same as those of traditional mentoring, but the way of conducting this process of mentoring is electronic. Bouquillon *et al.* (2005) are not proponents of the e-mentoring approach because, according to them, it does not fulfil the need for a personal mentoring relationship.

3.9.1 Mentoring and relationship phases

Mentoring relationships evolve over time. Four distinctive phases were identified in a qualitative study of 18 mentor–mentee dyads by Kram (1985), namely initiation, cultivation, separation and redefinition. Follow-up quantitative research (e.g., Chao, 1997; Pollock, 1995) supported the validity and processes of these phases (Bouquillon *et al*., 2005:241). There are many viewpoints with regard to the process of mentoring and its relationship phases. However, for the purposes of this study, the research of McKimm *et al.* (2007:7-10) and Dixon and Bonfield (2013:4-5) is particularly significant, given that each of the four stages bare relevance to the expatriate mentoring process in the UAE. The four stages include the initiation stage, the getting-established stage, a maturation stage and a termination stage. These stages will be explained next.

Initiation stage

During the first stage, the mentor attempts to create an alliance with the mentee by forming the relationship and agreeing on some ground rules that will strengthen the relationship (Dixon & Bonfield, 2013:4). It is, therefore, vital for both parties to have an idea of what they hope to gain from the mentoring experience and, in so doing, prepare for scheduled mentoring sessions. According to Zachary (2005), this phase usually lasts six months to one year.

It is quite common for mentees to hold an unrealistic picture of the mentor in the beginning. Mentee see the mentor either as an extremely competent figure who will provide support and guidance or as a ‘played out time-server’ who cannot be trusted. In the first case, mentees identify with the mentor, gain emotional support from the relationship and feel that someone important cares about them. When the perception of the mentor is negative in the beginning, the functioning of the mentoring relationship depends on the mentor’s ability to win the mentees’ respect as the nature of the job and its difficulties become clearer (Clutterbuck, 2001:100).

In the initiation phase, mentor and mentee communicate expectations, needs and concerns on which basis they begin to develop rapport (Meyer & Fourie, 2004). In general, both parties expect to gain some valuable personal and professional experience: The mentee seeks the availability of a contact who can provide guidance, counselling and support when needed, and the mentor seeks to gain some new insights by sharing knowledge and experience (Kram, 1985:614).

In the UAE context, in this stage, the expatriate employee makes initial contact with the host-country manager and some ground rules are established in general. During this stage, the expatriate usually gets a glimpse of the cultural situation in the UAE. This include daily customs, i.e. the practice of the local handshake, inquiring about the well-being of relatives and the acceptance of Arabic coffee and dates before dealing with any work-related discussions. Visitors’ partaking in this ritual are usually considered to be respectful and this, in turn, could support the initial bonding process.

Getting-established stage

In this stage, the mentee may be insecure and might require some added support from the mentor. Once a trusting relationship has been established, the mentor is able to guide the mentee through the learning process, which will lead to a kind of relationship where the mentee is more comfortable. This is where the agreed responsibilities move from planning to execution (Dixon & Bonfield, 2013:5).

This development is characterised by a trusted, open and honest relationship between the two parties. At this stage in the relationship, the mentor transfers knowledge to the mentee and offers networks and protection, while the mentor gains loyalty and support while passing his/her values, attitudes and ideas to the mentee. The mentee learns to deal with obstacles in the business environment, and learning and growth outcomes manifest themselves in new competencies acquired by the mentee (Bouquillon *et al*., 2005:241-242).

Maturation stage

During the maturation stage, the mentor acts as a facilitator and aims to encourage the mentee to think critically, solve problems, reflect on goals or targets, and explore all possible options that are available when executing a task. At this stage, the mentor's role starts to change, and the mentee is encouraged to take more risks and draw on different perspectives in an innovative and creative manner (Dixon & Bonfield, 2013:5). At some point the mentor will have to step back and allow the mentee the freedom to implement what he/she has gained from the mentoring experience.

This is also known as the separation phase where a structural and psychological disconnection needs to take place between mentor and mentee. This disengagement occurs as provided functions by the mentor decrease and he/she realises that the mentee has gained more confidence and become more independent. However, sometimes the separation occurs due to geographical or organisational reasons before the mentee has reached the maturity stage, which results in feelings of anger and resentment. If the separation is timely or planned and in the right stage of the mentee's development, it allows the mentee to operate independently of any support while the mentor takes pride in seeing the development of the protégé (Bouquillon *et al*., 2005; Kram, 1985; Meyer & Fourie, 2004). This leads to the termination stage.

Termination stage

In the final stage of the mentoring process, the relationship between the mentee and the host-country mentor will either end earlier than expected or it will terminate naturally. Some of the positive reasons for the termination of the mentoring relationship are when both parties have accomplished the intended goals, the project has been completed, and promotional opportunities for either party has brought about an end to the interaction. In contrast, the quick termination of the mentoring relationship could be as a result of unsuitable partnering, personality clashes, the fact that the mentees' needs are not being met or that either of the individuals is not committed to attending scheduled meetings (Dixon & Bonfield, 2013:5).

However, the relationship can continue beyond formal termination when the mentee leaves the organisation to a next expatriate assignment, when repatriation occurs or when the mentor retires and the mentee becomes a peer and a lifelong friendship has developed. In this case, the relationship is informal in nature. The former formal relationship has come to a natural end, as mentoring is a goal-oriented process of which closure is an inevitable part (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2005:179; Kram, 1985; Zachary, 2005).

In the UAE context, there is currently a high turnover of expatriates exiting the Oil and Gas industry for various reasons, one being the reduction in oil prices. A high turnover leads to a disruption in the mentoring process (Ryan, 2012:3-6), because the mentoring relationship is disturbed or terminated before the mentoring goals have been satisfied. Megginson, Clutterbuck, Garvey, Stokes and Garrett-Harris (2006:15) draw attention to some key circumstances that can affect the mentoring relationship. Some of these include:

The social environment or context in which the mentoring relationship takes place: Mentoring leaders in the UAE are likely to follow different relationship dynamics, compared to mentoring in a Western setting. This is chiefly based on cultural and religious restrictions which may have an impact on the mentoring relationship.

The age, expertise and ability of the participants: Within the context of this study, these variables could have an effect on the mentoring relationship, because some of the host-country mentors are much younger than the newly joined expatriate, or vice versa.

The duration period of the mentoring relationship: The expected and the actual duration period of the mentoring relationship could be anything from a few months to many years. This is significant based on the fact that the current reform agenda has specified a long-term mentoring process in the UAE oil and gas environment. However, the possibility exists that expatriate mentors may not honour this expectation (Thorne, 2011:173).

The rapport between the mentor and the mentee: The bond between the mentoring partners and how this evolves over time is a factor that can affect the mentoring relationship. This is an essential element to ensure successful mentoring.

The motivation of both parties to achieve the intended goal: The drive of the mentors and the mentees will influence their relationship, as well as their success in reaching set goals. In this regard, the intended goal of the reform agenda is to develop the skills of the newly joined expatriates through a mentoring process (Clutterbuck & Lane, 2004).

All of the above-mentioned elements can have an impact on the behaviour patterns of the mentors and the mentees within the mentoring relationship. The success of the relationship is not solely dependent on the organisational expectations, but also on the quality of the partnership (Ragins, Cotton & Miller, 2000:1179-1184).

Megginson *et al.* (2006:14-20) view mentoring relationships as dynamic partnerships between individuals. They are of the viewpoint that this relationship is only dynamic if the circumstances, purpose and personalities involved are favourable. These authors emphasise the fact that time is a key aspect within this relationship, and when the relationship evolves, both parties begin to see the benefits of the partnership. Furthermore, they highlight the fact that the mentoring relationships can take on various forms, underpinned by different philosophies or dissimilar mentoring models.

3.9.2 Mentoring implementation phases

Mentoring can have negative effects on the organisation if the mentoring programme lacks support within the organisation and if it is not correctly planned and implemented (Douglas, 1997:86). Therefore, formal mentoring plans need to be implemented in a planned, structured and coordinated manner. It is the responsibility of MNC managers to ensure that the goals of the programme are clear and known to the key parties, that the right mentors and mentees are selected and matched, and that organisational support and commitment are evident within the organisation (Hansford, Ehrich & Tennent, 2004:521). Berry's (2003) theoretical model of organisational mentoring will be described below. This model explains in nine phases what needs to be done and considered when implementing a mentoring programme in an organisation.

Phase 1 – Define programme objectives

The team responsible for the implementation of the mentoring programme has to formulate SMART (specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-based) objectives, because they have to convince top management of their plan. Moreover, the objectives form the basis for a future evaluation of the programme. Besides ensuring top-management support, it is crucial to involve both host-country and expatriate employees in the planning of the mentoring programme for two reasons. First, HR can make sure that employees are supportive of the programme and that it is in line with their needs. Secondly, by giving employees a voice in the planning, they feel more responsible for the outcome (Allen, Eby & Lentz, 2006:128). Meyer and Fourie (2004) believe that, without involving employees, mentoring programmes are likely to fail.

Phase 2 – Identify management development needs

Mentoring programmes must be linked to the management system and the strategic HR plans of the organisation to ensure that the employees with the right skills are available at the right time. The expatriate mentoring plan needs to fit into the strategic framework of the MNC and be supportive and in line with other HRD practices (Meyer & Fourie, 2004). Strategic Human Resource Management (STHRM) can be defined as the connection of HR goals with the strategic objectives of the organisation in order to improve business performance (Allen *et al*., 2006).

As a key characteristic of STHRM, two types of fit or alignment have to be distinguished. Fit means ‘the pattern of planned HR deployments and activities intended to enable the firm to achieve its goal’ (Wright & McMahan, 1992:298). Horizontal fit refers to the congruence between several HRM practices (Baird & Meshoulam, 2008:116), whereas vertical fit refers to the alignment of HRM practices with the strategic management process of the company. Friday and Friday (2002) explain in their article how the mentoring plan can be aligned with the corporate strategy so that there is strategic fit. They state that this mentoring plan should head the structure; thus, the corporate mentoring plan should be formulated before the mentoring process and programmes are structured.

Prior to the strategy, a corporate mentoring mission statement and goals should be formulated in order to clarify which purpose the formal mentoring will serve within the organisation and which outcomes are expected. Similarly, to the development of other strategies, an assessment of the internal and external environment will follow. Internally, investigation is needed into the best position formal mentoring within the existing structures, where mentoring needs are. Externally, a benchmark analysis should deliver information about mentoring strategies, processes and programmes in other organisations in order to assess which of these will fit the organisation the best.

After the internal and external assessment, the strategy developer should be familiar with the strategy, culture and values of the MNC. On this basis, a strategy needs to be developed that recognises and clearly articulates a strategic fit between the business strategy and the formal mentoring strategy in order to convince top management and to obtain the necessary resources to implement and sustain the formal mentoring programmes.

Phase 3: Select mentors and mentees

In the previous phase mentoring needs were identified by an internal analysis of existing structures and processes. In this phase, competence criteria for mentor and mentee must be established, on which basis mentor and mentees are selected (Berry, 2003:172-174). According to Ramani, Gruppen and Kachur (2006:404-408), mentors need clear expectations of their roles and enhanced listening and feedback skills. These include the ability to give positive and negative feedback, as well as active listening skills. Moreover, mentors should be knowledgeable and respected in their field, because they should be able to open doors for the mentee.

They should also be available for and responsive to the mentees needs. This requires them to regularly spend sufficient time with the mentee. Culture and gender issues can be a barrier to effective mentoring relationships, and mentors need to be aware of these issues, which include accepting and appreciating differences and sensitivity to culture and personal boundaries. Cross-cultural mentoring relationships may open opportunities for even greater mutual learning experiences than usual relationships.

Another characteristic of effective mentors is that they are able to support and challenge mentees, meaning there needs to be a balance between support and challenge that the mentee receives. Clutterbuck (2005:4) divided the suggested competencies of a mentor into each phase of the mentoring relationship, as indicated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Mentor competencies per relationship phase

Mentorship relationship phase	Suggested mentor competence
Building rapport	Active listening
	Empathising
	Giving positive regard
	Offering openness and trust to elicit reciprocal behaviour
	Identifying and valuing both common ground and differences
Setting direction	Goal identification, clarification and management
	Personal project planning
	Testing mentee's level of commitment to specific goals
	Reality testing and helping the mentee focus on a few achievable goals rather than on many pipedreams
Progression	Sustaining commitment
	Ensuring sufficient challenging the mentoring dialogue
	Helping the mentee take increasing responsibility for managing the relationship
	Being available and understanding in helping the mentee cope with set-backs
Winding down professional relationship	Managing the dissolution process
	Being able to reduce the relationship when it has run its formal course

Source: Clutterbuck (2005:4)

Based on previous research by Clutterbuck and Lane (2005), in which HR professionals, executive mentors and participants in training sessions were questioned, generic mentor competencies were found to be the following (Clutterbuck, 2005:4):

- Self and behavioural awareness;
- Business and professional understanding and sense of proportion;
- Communication and conceptual modelling;
- Commitment to own learning and interest in helping others to learn; and
- Relationship management and goal clarity.

Phase 4: Conduct orientation sessions

Orientation sessions should aim at addressing the objectives of the programme and investigate mentors' and mentees' expectations. The programme coordinator needs to clarify the roles and responsibilities of the mentor and mentee. In addition, both parties need to define the ground rules, agree to them and show their commitment to them in their future dealing with each other (Berry, 2003:178-180). The provision of orientation and training, including such things as setting expectations and preparing participants for their new roles, is linked to mentoring effectiveness, a shared sense of community and fewer problems in the relationship. Orientation and training programmes reduce stereotypes about mentoring persons of different race or gender, encourage developmental interactions and manifest a culture of learning and mentoring (Abate & Eddy, 2008:366).

Phase 5: Matching mentors and mentees

Matching the right mentor with the right mentee is one of the most critical elements in implementing a successful mentoring programme. Mismatching a mentoring pair will cause serious problems, as trust and mutual liking are essential for a functioning mentoring relationship. Giving mentees a say in choosing their mentor increases their sense of ownership, which results in higher commitment to the relationship. However, it sounds easy theoretically, and to put this into practice is rather difficult, as employees at junior level may not have the necessary contextual knowledge to make a proper choice on their own. Welsh (2004:69) provides questions that help develop the matching criteria:

- Do you want to provide mentors for everyone or just a certain group?
- Should mentees be required to select their mentors from an identified pool of mentors?
- How formal do you want to be in your matching process?
- Should mentoring pairs be of the same gender, race, department, etc?
- How do you predict compatibility of partners?
- Should potential mentors be screened?
- Will you require certain characteristics of your mentors?
- What makes a successful mentee in your organisation?
- What kinds of expectations will mentees have of mentors?
- Should pairs be matched based on similar/different leadership/personality/ work/learning styles?

Phase 6: Establishing developmental plans

Freshly matched mentors tend to rush into the process by wanting to set personal long- and short-term goals for the mentee. However, it is advisable that mentee and supervisor meet first to discuss the developmental programme prior to mentor and mentee having a meeting. Development objectives set by supervisor and mentee serve as a starting point for the first decisions between mentor and mentee. This also ensures agreement on the mentors' and mentees' expectations for the relationship and its outcomes. Mentors should support mentees also in breaking down broad, intangible goals of the mentee into SMART goals (Berry, 2003:182-184). Pegg (1999) provides with his Five C (Figure 3.3) model a way for mentors to conduct sessions in a structured manner.

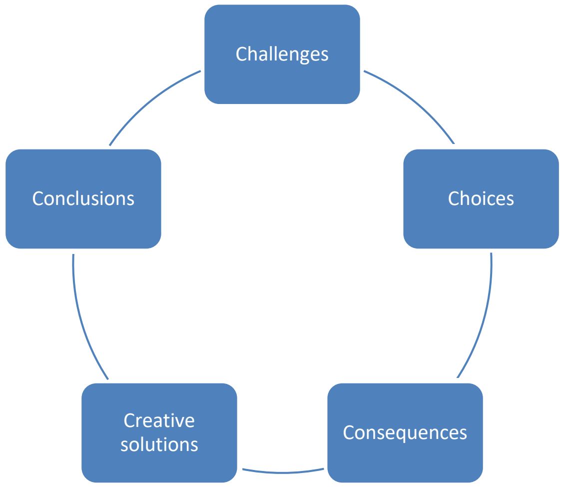


Figure 3.3: The Five C model

Source: Pegg (1999:136)

According to the model, mentors should ask their mentees to send them a list of topics they would like to discuss concerning their challenges prior to their meeting. In the meeting, mentor and mentee work through the challenges and find ways to deal with them. In the model, this is referred to as ‘choices’. Mentor and mentee assess advantages and disadvantages of possible actions. After the consequences of pursuing a specific option have been discussed, the mentor steps into the role of the active listener, guiding the mentee towards a creative and perfect solution. After this process, dates are set to achieve the developed targets (Pegg, 1999).

Phase 7: Providing feedback and evaluating the relationship

Two activities take place in this phase. First, the mentor coaches the mentee to improve his/her skills and self-perception and, secondly, both parties evaluate their relationship. Through coaching, the mentor helps the mentee to improve his/her self-worth. In feedback sessions additional work opportunities are provided by the mentor to reinforce the development of managerial and other critical skills of the mentee. A continuous evaluation of the relationship is essential to ensure its effectiveness. However, the nature of the feedback from both parties depends on the relationship that has been developed. The programme coordinator has to ensure regular meeting of mentee and mentor, as they should determine the future of their relationship and decide whether intervention is necessary (Berry, 2003;185-186; Meyer & Fourie, 2004).

Phase 8: Dissolving the relationship

When goals have been achieved, the relationship has to come to an end at some time. It is essential that the relationship is not dissolved prematurely, because this could lead to feelings of uncertainty and anxiety for the mentee. Therefore, a prior-agreed time limit will enable both parties to prepare for the ending of the relationship. Prior to the formal termination of the relationship, mentor and mentee should evaluate the relationship with regard to feelings related to its ending, the delivered and the lack of outcomes of the relationship, and the possible future nature of their relationship (Berry, 2003:187-189).

Phase 9: Evaluating the mentoring programme

Hansford, Tennent and Ehrich (2002:114) suggest that mentoring programmes be continually evaluated and refined. It is vital to monitor these programmes to obtain information as to whether or not they are effective and which measures should be expanded and which should be terminated. According to Berry (2003:190-192), a prerequisite for an accurate evaluation of mentoring programmes is the setting of SMART goals at the beginning of the programme.

3.10 Theoretical framework for the study

The Identity Development Theory of Chickering and Reisser (1993) served as the theoretical framework of this study. Although the theory initially focused on the psychological development and adaptation of college students, it can also be applied to the adaption and new identity formation of expatriates.

The Identity Development Theory proposes seven stages or vectors that individuals go through in order to adapt to a new environment. These stages include competence development, emotion management, moving from autonomy to independence, development of mature interpersonal relationships, identity establishment, development of purpose and, finally, development of integrity. These will be explained below.

Vector 1 – Competence development

The development of intellectual and physical skills and interpersonal relations forms the main focus area of this vector. This involves the acquisition of knowledge and the expansion of cultural intelligence and cognitive competencies. Intellectual competence involves using one's mind to construct cognitive and non-cognitive characters. This pertains to the acquisition of skills and competencies to adapt to a new environment. The physical and manual aspect involves athletic and artistic achievement, as well as an increase in self-discipline, strength and fitness, competition and creation. Interpersonal characteristics encompass skills of listening, understanding, communicating and functioning in different relationships (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Vector 2 – Emotion management

Emotions such as anxiety, anger, depression, shame and guilt need to be managed. Knowing and becoming aware of these emotions are essential, as well as constructing ways in which emotions could be managed (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Vector 3 – Moving through autonomy towards interdependence

Developing independence and autonomy becomes vital in this vector. The transition from autonomy towards interdependence requires emotional and instrumental independence. This includes emotional freedom and not needing constant approval of others. Emotional independence means the ability of individuals to willingly risk relationships with those who are close to them in exchange for pursuing their own individual interests or convictions. Emotional independence occurs when there is a separation from a support group such as parents, peers, teachers or mentors.

One must accept voluntarily to lose the support group to strive for one's goals in life and express own opinions. Individuals achieve instrumental independence once they are able to organise activities and learn how to solve problems on their own.

Instrumental independence is the ability to solve problems on one's own. Through this vector, employees can manage the tension between the need for independence and the need for acceptance, along with respecting the uniqueness and independence of others (Chickering and Reisser, 1993).

Vector 4 – Developing mature interpersonal relationships

It is essential that expatriates develop mature interpersonal relations. Awareness and understanding of different ideas, backgrounds and the values of others create a positive sign of mature interpersonal relationships. Two aspects of this vector are (1) tolerance and appreciation of differences, and (2) the capacity for intimacy (Chickering & Reisser, 1993:48). Tolerance is both intercultural and interpersonal. Openness for the understanding of a person for the qualities they possess, instead of stereotyping, shows increased tolerance. The factor of a capacity for intimacy entails moving from a significant amount of dependence on others towards higher levels of independence (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Vector 5 – Establishing identity

A new identity needs to be developed by the expatriate in a foreign setting. This vector is important because it encompasses development that occurs in the first four vectors (Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Identity development includes the following: (1) comfort with appearance, (2) comfort with gender and sexual orientation, (3) a sense of self in a social, historical and cultural context, (4) clarification of self-concept through roles and life-style, (5) a sense of self in response to feedback from valued others, (6) self-acceptance and self-esteem, and (7) personal stability and integration (Chickering & Reisser, 1993:49). Knowing oneself and one's own attitude towards oneself is important in establishing identity.

Vector 6 – Development of purpose

The motivation to acquire competencies and develop own interpersonal relationships is generated by every individual's specific purpose. Establishing plans which encourage the process of growing is a prerequisite for advancement. Developing a purpose for why one attends college varies and depends on career goals, personal aspirations and commitments to family and other aspects of one's life. Decisions must be made to learn to balance these career goals, personal aspirations and commitments to family and self (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

Vector 7 – Developing integrity

This vector refers to the clarification and rebalancing of personal values. This implies that there is a match between an individual's value system and the emerging new identity. Also, thinking about others' beliefs, points of view and the willingness to preserve self-respect while monitoring behaviour is important in individual development (Chickering & Reisser, 1993).

3.11 Summary

This chapter outlined the importance of expatriate mentoring by explaining mentoring, the mentoring implementation phases and the relationship between the expatriate mentee and host-country mentor. The chapter also reviewed the current training and support functions available to the expatriate workforce within MNCs.

Expatriates face numerous challenges such as family-related adjustments, cultural shock, repatriation issues, adaptation and emotional and physical problems. This chapter identified ways in which organisations can assist expatriates in adjusting to their new environment. The chapter also presented the theoretical framework for the study, which is based on the Identity Development Theory of Chickering and Reisser (1993).

CHAPTER 4: PROFILING ABU DHABI OIL AND GAS INDUSTRIES (GASCO)

4.1 Introduction

The oil and gas sector of the UAE has been instrumental in ensuring the rapid growth of the country's economy. Around 10% of the world's total oil and gas reserves are situated in the UAE, and it is projected for the coming decades that this sector will continue to grow (Butt, 2001:231). To date, the biggest deposits of oil has been found in Abu Dhabi compared with other UAE regions. More than 85% of the total UAE oil capacity and 90% of the UAE's reserves are controlled by GASCO (ADNOC – GASCO, 2014). This has resulted in the exponential growth of GASCO over the last few of years.

Presence of oil reserves in the UAE was discovered in 1939 shortly before the outbreak of the Second World War. The early 2000s saw the 15th anniversary of the first drilling of the Ra's Sadr shaft, located to the north east of Abu Dhabi. It was unfortunately dry. Even though the UAE was late in realising the importance of digging for oil reserves, they are making up for lost time. In the last two decades, the UAE has held a major share in the world oil industry. The UAE is now regarded to be the sixth largest oil producer in the world (ADNOC – GASCO, 2014).

The aim of this chapter is to present an overview of the oil and gas sector in the UAE with specific focus on GASCO. It will elaborate on the workforce of GASCO, the training programmes and initiatives taken by the organisation, together with its associated challenges. Chapter 4 will also present the conceptual framework for this study.

4.2 The oil and gas sector in the UAE

As indicated before, the UAE oil and gas sector has been the major source of economic growth as per the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) quota changes (Butt, 2001:231). This has led to Abu Dhabi overtaking Dubai in the contribution to the growth of the UAE. Abu Dhabi is enriched with the largest oil and gas fields in the Emirates. The oil obtained in Abu Dhabi from Murban, Lower Zakum, Upper Zakum and Umm Shaif, is measured as light, with 40-43-degree gravities. These are the major export crudes.

The oil and gas industry of Abu Dhabi, named GASCO, was founded by the late Sheikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al Nahyan with the aim to utilise the vast gas resources of the UAE. Incorporated as the joint venture between Abu Dhabi National Oil Company (ADNOC), Shell, Total and Partex in 1978, GASCO came into full operation in 1981, and in 2013 it has invested around US$10 billion in various projects for expansion. This has emphasised the extraction of natural gas liquids from associated gas and natural gas in the main concessions.

Regarding GASCO's daily production, it generates 215 000 barrels of condensate, 31 800 tonnes of propane, butane and paraphinic Naphtha, 5 800 tonnes of sulphur and 10 600 tonnes of ethane. With the purpose of obtaining operational efficiency, GASCO aims at sustainable development and applies sustainable practices in its business operations.

4.3 GASCO's workforce

By deploying the GASCO employment campaign, the organisation has obtained a large workforce comprising over 70 different nationalities. In 2014, there were more than 2 500 Emiratis employed by GASCO. GASCO is one of the largest employers of expatriates around the world – about 7 150 expatriate employees (Al Qubaisi, 2015). Figure 4.1 projects the growth of GASCO in terms of the number of expatriate employees.

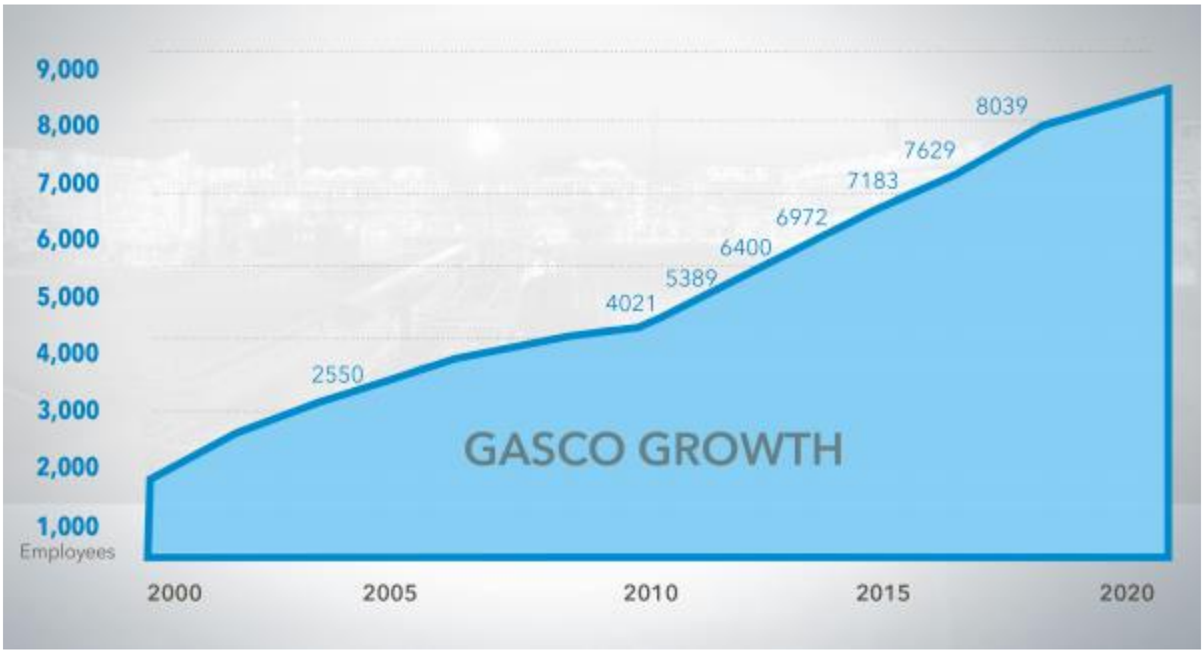


Figure 4.1: Number of expatriate employees at GASCO

Source: GASCO HR Department, 2015

With the high oil and especially gas demand, GASCO is continuously expanding its workforce. A new rich gas field has recently been discovered in Abu Dhabi where GASCO is aiming to have another plant in operation before 2020. This will then expand GASCO's expatriate workforce population to above 8 000 employees.

For the sustainable growth of the organisation, GASCO aims at achieving the following:

- Creating a competitive and attractive environment for the employees;
- Encouraging a culture of professionalism and organisational commitment;
- Initiating a systematic procedure for professional development of all the employees; and
- Promoting open communication and engagement within the workforce.

4.4 Initiatives taken by GASCO

The Talent Management Division (TMD) at GASCO aims at acquiring an efficient workforce with potential leaders for higher productivity. For this purpose, certain training initiatives and programmes are organised by the TMD.

The scope of the TMD is:

- Emiratisation and employee competency management;
- Strategic manpower planning and recruitment;
- Leadership development and learning;
- Technical training, English language and administration services; and
- Corporate competencies.

The following are some of the initiatives undertaken by GASCO for the development of its employees:

Leadership development framework

The leadership department at GASCO has initiated career development plans for the potential future leaders of the organisation. Employees are equipped with required competencies and behaviours through education programmes. Quality, efficiency and impact are the three strategic objectives of this framework, where the acquisition of leadership skills (health and environment, political and emotional intelligence awareness) is emphasised. The management-level employees and emerging leaders are the key target audience for this leadership development plan.

The framework comprises three sequential pillars as explained in Figure 4.2:

1. Setting the direction;
2. Delivering results; and
3. Engaging people.

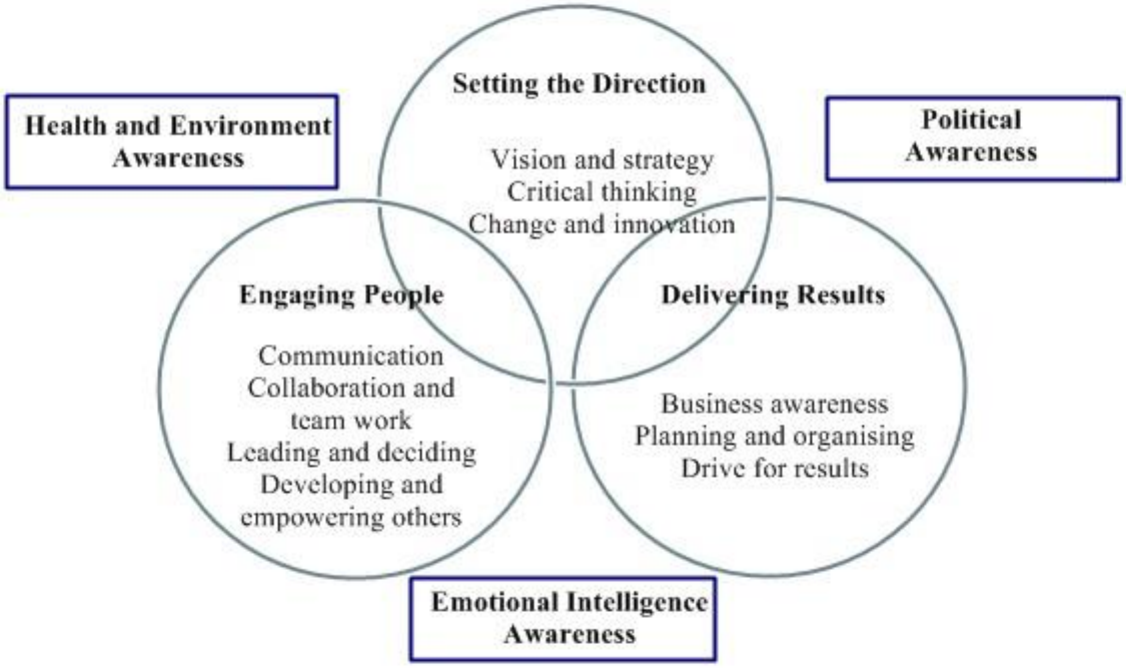


Figure 4.2: GASCO leadership development framework

Source: GASCO Learning and Development Intend, 2014

The GASCO leadership development framework has been developed by the TMD under the leadership of GASCO's Human Capital Vice President and finally approved by GASCO's executive leadership team. The main focus of this leadership development framework is to have the subject matter experts in the different fields engage with the potential future leaders and develop them in all the core business elements as indicated in Figure 4.2.

Training programmes

For the progression of individual development, the TMD adopts the following training mediums:

- Regional teachers;
- Academic institutions; and
- On-the-job training.

4.5 Challenges within GASCO

GASCO has faced some challenges due to climate changes in the oil and gas sector, such as access to energy and the severe drop in oil prices. In 2014, GASCO encountered further challenges such as fatalities, increase in incident and injury rate, and delays in projects due to major maintenance. Furthermore, the organisation is still encountering communication-related challenges with its employees and expatriates. Though the organisation takes several initiatives for providing traditional and leadership training, the expatriates are facing communication and adjustment difficulties.

4.6 Conceptual framework for an expatriate mentoring plan for GASCO

Drawing from the literature review and theoretical framework of the study, an expatriate mentoring plan was developed for GASCO. The conceptual framework for this study is presented in Figure 4.3.

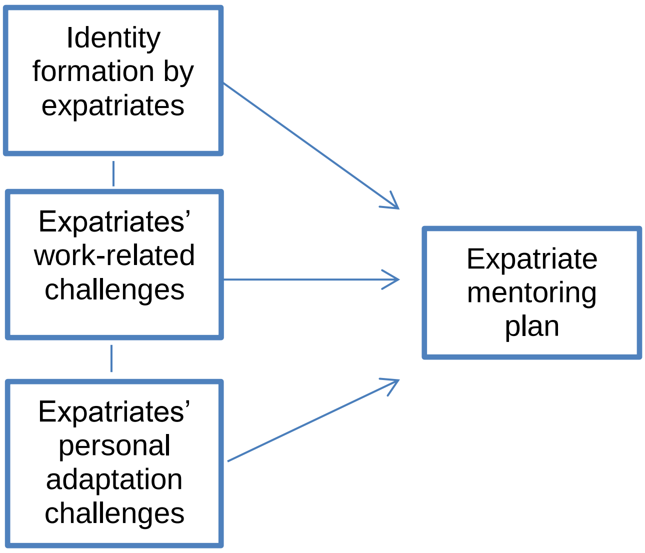


Figure 4.3: Conceptual framework

Figure 4.3 indicates the construction of the mentoring plan by applying the Identity Development Theory of Chickering and Reisser (1993). The empirical study further sourced data on the work-related and personal-related challenges the expatriate workforce at GASCO are experiencing. These three elements were used to assist in the construction of a customised mentoring plan for GASCO.

4.7 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the oil and gas sector in the UAE with specific reference to GASCO. The growth of GASCO, its workforce and challenges were elaborated upon. GASCO's TMD aims to acquire an efficient workforce and be regarded as the preferred oil and gas employer on the world. The chapter also presented the conceptual framework for the study.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

Research could be described as any organised and systematic process carried out to solve a specific problem (O'Leary, 2004:85). Researchers are able to uncover unfamiliar facts which enable them to comprehend particular phenomena. Research should be approached in a planned and systematic way (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:1). This applies to all stages of the research process – ranging from the reason for the research, the aims and objectives, the design of the research project, the methods used to investigate the problem, as well as the conclusions reached. Chapter 5 outlines the research methodology, research approach and design, data-gathering instrument, population, pilot study and fieldwork challenges pertaining to this study.

Owing to GASCO's large expatriate workforce the research was conducted in two phases. Phase 1 involved a structured questionnaire that was administered to a sample of 10% of GASCO's expatriate employees who had been employed for two years or more. Survey Monkey was used and respondents were requested to complete the questionnaire online. Once the data were statistically analysed, it enabled the construction of a proposed mentoring plan. During Phase 2 the mentoring plan was presented to a focus group for discussion and further refinement.

5.2 Research methodology

Research methodology is a general approach to studying a research problem. The choice of method should reflect an overall research strategy. The research methodology focuses on the research, applied tools and procedures to achieve the study objectives (Pandey & Pandey, 2015:16). According to Kothari (2004:8), research methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problem. It may be understood as the science of studying how research is done scientifically. Research methodology involves the steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in studying the research problem along with the logic behind it (Kothari, 2004:8).

5.3 Research approach and design

According to Kothari (2004:5), the basic approaches to research is the quantitative and qualitative approaches, while Caruth (2013) highlights that the mixed-method approach is receiving increased attention from researchers. Quantitative research is underpinned by exact and objective knowledge and it requires methods such as experiments and surveys to describe and explain phenomena (Anderson, 2004:204-207; Kumar, 2005:12). Quantitative research emphasises objective measurements and the statistical, mathematical or numerical analysis of data collected through polls, questionnaires and surveys, or by manipulating pre-existing statistical data using computational techniques (Pandey & Pandey, 2015:21). Brynard and Hanekom (2005:29) agree that quantitative research methods include techniques such as observation, pilot studies, quantitative analysis and questionnaires.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, is a systematic approach to describe life experiences by gaining an understanding of underlying opinions and motivations (Burns & Grove, 2003:19). The intention of qualitative research is to uncover trends and aims to probe deeper into the particular problem. According to Oun and Bach (2014:253), the goal of a qualitative researcher is to develop an in-depth understanding of human behaviour. Qualitative research, thus, examines and answers questions of how, where, what, when and why a person would act in a certain way towards a specific matter.

A mixed-methods study is research in which quantitative and qualitative approaches are combined or integrated intentionally as components of the research. The use of these approaches can occur at different points in the research process (Caruth, 2013; Creswell & Plano, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Owing to the nature of this investigation a mixed-method approach was followed.

A research design is simply the framework or plan for a study that is used as a guide in collecting and analysing the data. It is a blueprint that is followed in completing a study. Research design is also the blue print for collection measurement and analysis of data. It is a map that was developed to guide the research (Pandey & Pandey, 2015:18). Leedy and Ormrod (2010:1-2) define 'research design' as a systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information to increase the understanding of a particular phenomenon. It indicates to the readers the method and technique used by the researcher in formulating the study outcome for the mentioned problem.

Research design includes the specific methods and procedures that the researcher intends to follow to solve particular problems (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The research design for this study was case study research, as the focus was on a single organisation, GASCO. This questionnaire was constructed according to a six-point Likert scale (ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree) and all results were captured in a Microsoft Excel spread sheet for further data analysis.

Upon completion of the quantitative phase, the gathered data were analysed and a draft expatriate mentoring plan was developed. The draft mentoring plan was presented to a focus group that interrogated the appropriateness of the plan – this was Phase 2 of the research. Once the focus group discussions had been completed the mentoring plan was finalised.

5.4 Data-gathering instruments

As the empirical section of the study involved mixed methods, two data-gathering instruments were used, namely a quantitative questionnaire and a qualitative focus group discussion. According to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:3), research instruments are devices for obtaining information relevant to a research project, and there are many instruments to choose from. No single research instrument is inherently superior to another (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003:3).

Questionnaire design

The quantitative part of the study involved administering a structured questionnaire to a sample of 10% of expatriates with two or more years' experience at GASCO. According to Kothari (2004:100), a questionnaire consists of a number of questions printed or typed in a definite order on a form or set of forms. The questionnaire is then sent to the target population with a request to answer the questions and return the completed questionnaire. Kumar (1996:110) notes that ‘a questionnaire is a written list of questions, the answer to which are recorded by respondents who read the question, interpret what is expected and then write down the answers’.

The questionnaire consisted of four sections: Section A captured the demographics (gender, age, racial group, employment level within GASCO and number of years employed) of the respondents, Section B captured their work-related adjustment challenges, Section C captured the personal adjustment challenges that respondents and their families experience, and Section D measured the extent to which respondents had formed a new identity in the foreign setting (based on Chickering & Reisser, 1993). Refer to Annexure A for the questionnaire.

Clear instructions were given to the respondents on how to respond to the questions. Since English is regarded as the official company language, the questionnaire was distributed in English only.

The responses to the questionnaire (which involved the statistical interpretation of the results) enabled the construction of a preliminary expatriate mentoring plan which was presented to a focus group for discussion.

Focus group discussion

A focus group interview is a qualitative technique for data collection. A focus group is defined as a group comprising individuals with certain characteristics who focus discussions on a given issue or topic (Anderson, 1990:241). According to Denscombe (2007:115), a focus group consists of a small group of six to nine people brought together by the researcher to explore a topic. Focus groups aim to obtain detailed information about the feelings, perceptions and opinions of participants. This elicits a greater understanding of the attitudes, behaviour, opinions or perceptions of participants (Hennink, 2007:6).

Nine expatriate employees were targeted to participate in the focus group discussion. These individuals were from different nationalities, with two or more years’ experience at GASCO. They also did not participate in the quantitative part of the study. The focus group discussion was conducted for two hours on 17 June 2017, and six of the invited respondents participated. The group consisted of expatriates from the following nationalities: United Kingdom (UK), India, Philippines, New Zealand, Romania and South Africa. They were presented with the draft mentoring plan (based on the quantitative analysis of the research results in Phase 1) and asked to provide feedback on the appropriateness of the plan. The researcher took meticulous notes, as the respondents were not willing to be recorded. The feedback from the focus group was incorporated into the final expatriate mentoring plan for the company (see Annexure B).

5.5 Population and sampling

For the quantitative section of the study

A population is a collection of individuals with similar characteristics (Salkind, 2011:95). Collins (2000:47) defines a population as the entire group of persons, groups and/or objects that the researcher wants to study. Sampling involves taking a representative selection of the population and using the data collected as research information, hence a sample is a 'subgroup of a population' (Frey, Botan & Kreps, 2000:125). According to Cochran (1953:5), the correct sampling methods provide for greater accuracy and allow researchers the ability to reduce research costs, conduct research more efficiently and have greater flexibility.

Two standard categories of sampling exist – probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling can be referred to as random sampling (Salkind, 2011). According to Creswell (2014:295), probability/random sampling is a procedure in quantitative research for selecting participants. In this procedure, each individual has an equal chance of being selected from the population, which ensures that the sample will be representative of the entire population.

Non-probability sampling can be referred to as non-random or convenience sampling (Salkind, 2011). Non-probability sampling is where respondents are chosen based on their convenience and availability. A core characteristic of non-probability sampling techniques is that samples are selected based on the subjective judgement of the researcher, rather than random selection (Creswell, 2014:204).

Probability sampling was applied in this study, as 10% (715 individuals) of GASCO's expatriate employees (approximately 7 150), with two or more years' experience, were included in the data collection process. A list of the expatriate employee names and details was obtained from GASCO's HR department, and the sample was selected using simple random sampling. According to Kothari (2004:15), simple random sampling is also known as chance sampling. With this technique each item in the population has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample. Each of the possible samples, in the case of a limited population, has the same probability of being selected.

This sample included employees from all six GASCO departments (Administration, Safety, Operations, Maintenance, Projects and HR). The positions of respondents varied from entry-level, artisan, supervisor, specialist and low-level, middle and senior management. Of the 715 respondents who were targeted for data collection, 391 completed the questionnaire. This represents a response rate of 55%.

For the focus group discussion

For the qualitative part of the investigation respondents were presented with a draft mentoring plan which was interrogated as part of the focus group discussion. As indicated before, the following criteria were used in selecting individuals for the focus groups discussion:

a) Respondents had to have more than two years' experience at GASCO as an expatriate employee.
b) They did not participate in the main study.
c) They represented the six departments in GASCO.
d) They were from different nationalities.

The reason for this purposeful selection of the target population was to ensure the researcher received valuable feedback and suggestions from different perspectives.

5.6 Pilot study

The pilot study only applied to the quantitative section of the study. According to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:57), research instruments need to be piloted prior to putting them forward to the target population. A researcher must identify and correct imperfections by piloting, or testing out, all questions with a selected number of respondents to ensure clarity of the data collection tools. Piloting is crucial because it assists in eliminating ambiguous questions and generating useful feedback on the structure and flow of your intended interview (Kothari, 2004:101).

For the purpose of this study the questionnaire was piloted on 26 January 2017 with five expatriate employees from the HR, Safety and Operations departments. All the employees included in the pilot study had more than two years of service at GASCO and were from different nationalities (Arabic, British, Jordanian, South African and Indian). A soft copy of the questionnaire was sent to seven candidates, after which five successfully returned it to the researcher. All the respondents indicated that they understood the questionnaire and that the questionnaire was neither ambiguous nor difficult to understand. After the completion of the pilot study and as per the outcomes of the pilot study, no changes were made to the questionnaire.

5.7 Data collection

As indicated before, data gathering comprised two phases. In Phase 1 quantitative data were collected using a structured questionnaire. Phase 2 was the qualitative phase of the study in which a focus group discussion was held to gather feedback and suggestions from a diverse target population who had not participated in the main study.

The following data collection procedure was adhered to for this study:

a) Permission was obtained from the relevant GASCO authorities and stakeholders to perform the empirical study.
b) Permission was obtained from respondents.
c) The researcher was the person who collected the data.

d) Two weeks in February 2017 was used to collect all the quantitative data.
e) One focus group was conducted in March 2017 to test the proposed mentoring plan for GASCO.
f) The researcher was assisted by a secretary to take notes during the focus group discussion.
g) Access to the collected data was limited to the researcher only.
h) The identities of all the respondents were kept anonymous.
i) The outcome of this study was shared with GASCO and all respondents.

5.8 Fieldwork challenges

The challenges which the researcher experienced during the data-collection process were the following:

a) Authorisation had to be sought from the Talent Management Vice President of GASCO, who scrutinised the aims and objectives of the study.
b) Some of the respondents were not particularly comfortable answering the questions. This was a sensitive time, as the company was going through rigorous cost reductions which resulted in organisational restructuring and workforce reductions.
c) The respondents were given two weeks to complete the questionnaire, but with limited responses the researcher had to allow another week to increase the total number of responses.

5.9 Summary

This chapter outlined the research approach used in this study with specific focus on the tools and procedures applied during the planning, design and execution phases. Chapter 5 explained the two phases of data collection, as well as the development of the data-gathering instrument, the population and sampling, data collection, the pilot study and fieldwork challenges.

CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the findings of this investigation. As indicated before, 10% of GASCO's expatriate workforce was targeted for data collection. A total of 391 questionnaires were completed. This chapter reports on the responses obtained from the questionnaire, as well as the outcomes of the focus group discussion. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied to interpret the data. Descriptive methods include graphs and tables, while the inferential statistics included using Pearson's chi-square. This enabled the researcher to draft a mentoring plan.

6.2 Descriptive statistics

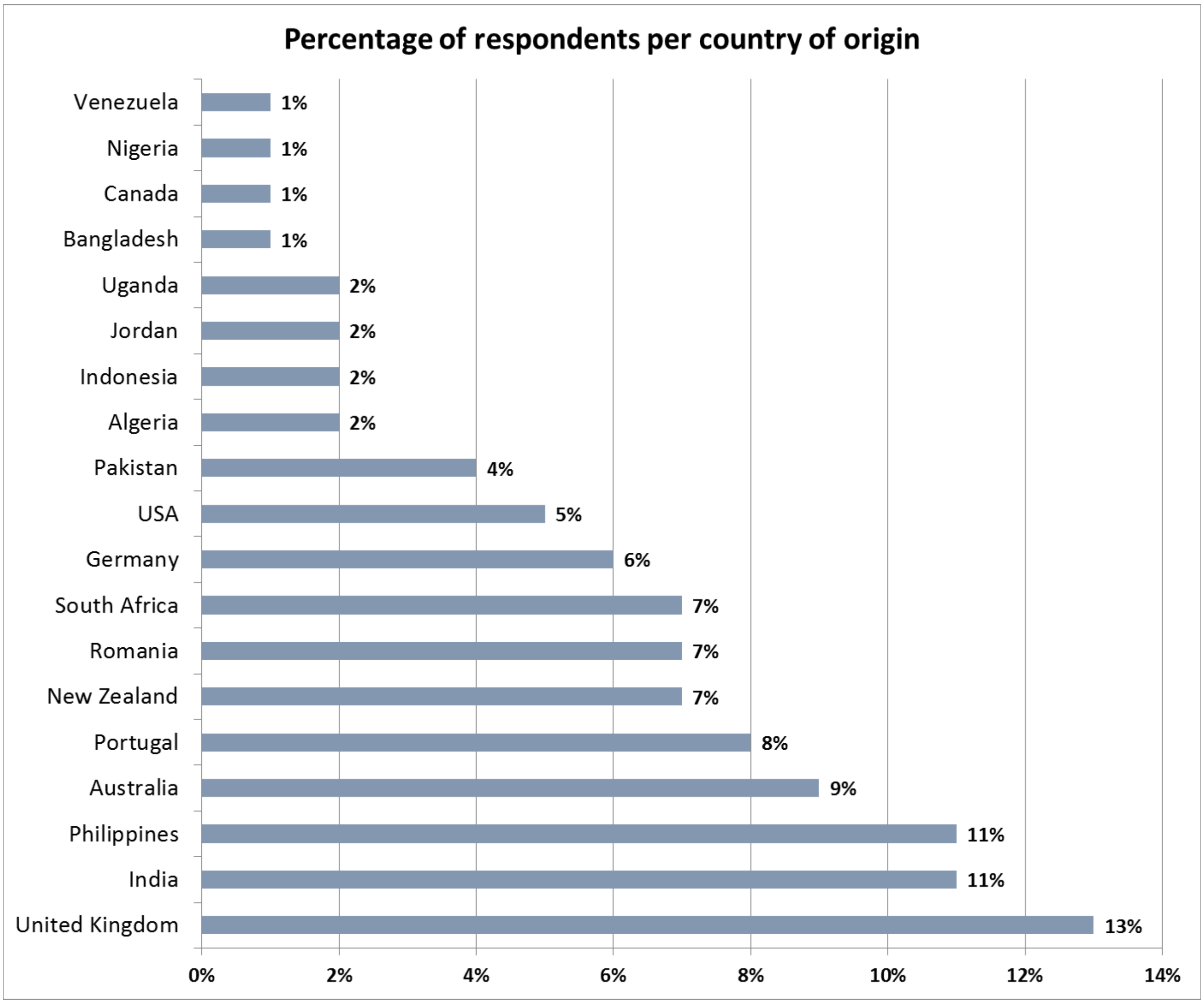
According to Mouton (1996:102), descriptive statistics includes data, facts and narratives and provides truthful descriptions of the phenomenon under investigation. Descriptive statistics involves describing data and understanding what the obtained data have to say about the relevant phenomenon.

6.2.1 Section A: Demographic profile of the respondents

This section describes the demographic profile of the respondents, namely country of origin, age, gender, employment level within GASCO and numbers of years employed by GASCO.

Country of origin

Question 1 aimed to ascertain the respondents' country of origin. This is reflected in Graph 6.1.

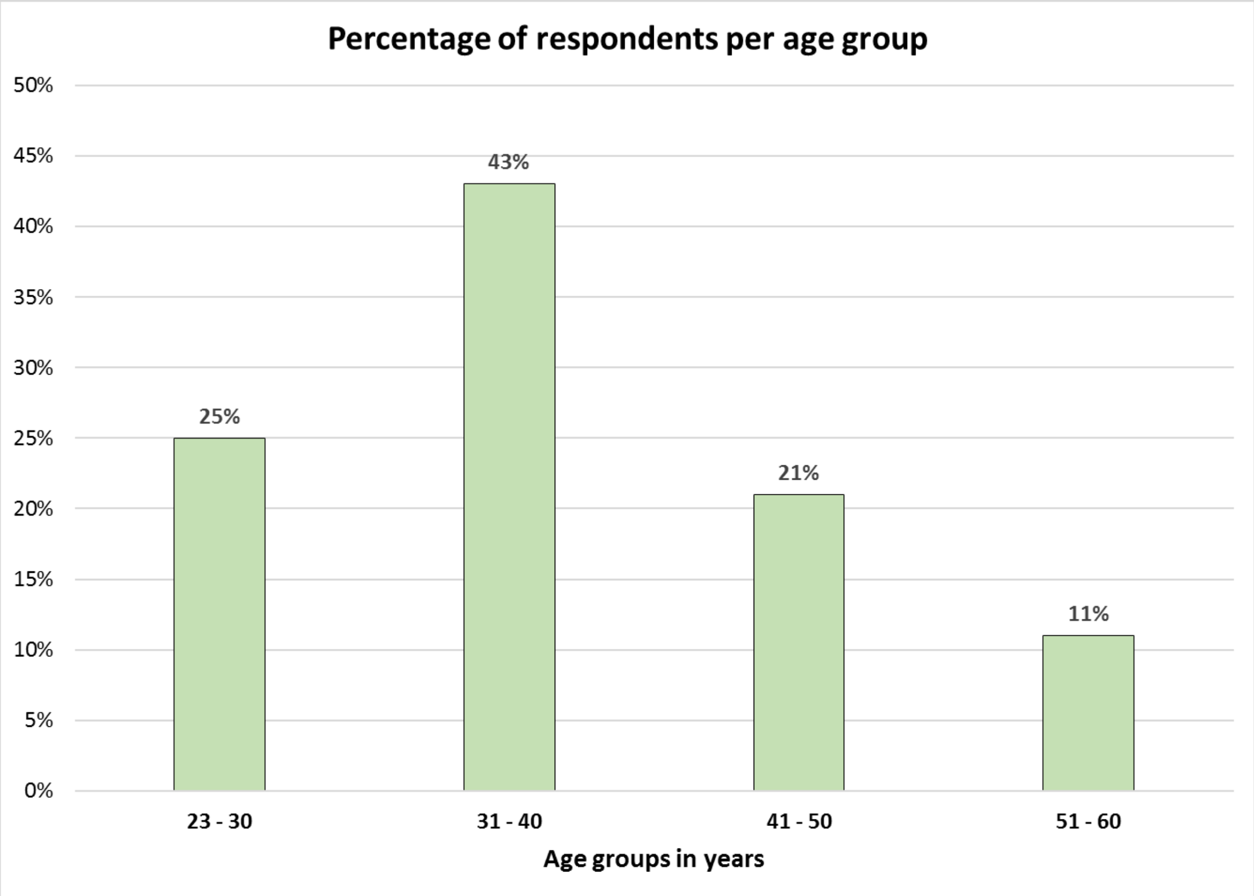


Graph 6.1 Respondents' country of origin

Graph 6.1 illustrates that the respondents were diverse and came from 19 different countries. The majority of the respondents were from the UK, India and the Philippines.

Age

Question 2 aimed to ascertain the age distribution of respondents. This is reflected in Graph 6.2.

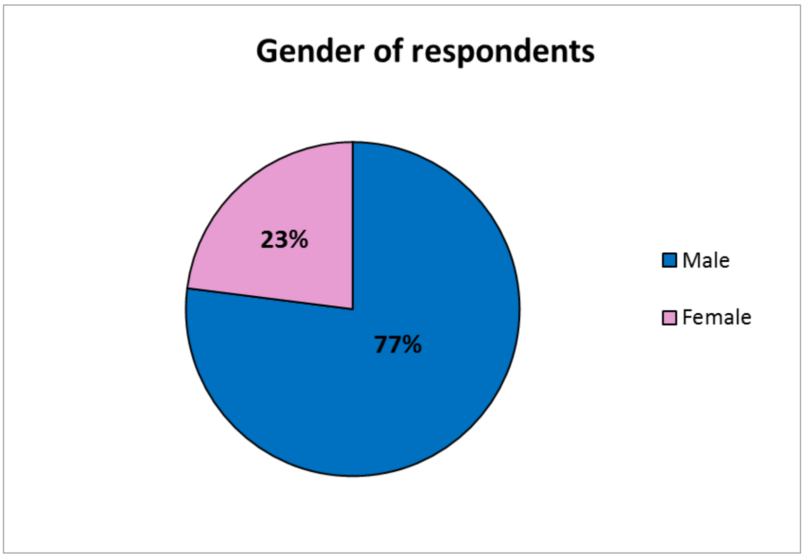


Graph 6.2 Age distribution of respondents

Graph 6.2 indicates the percentage of the respondents in the different age groups. A total of 25% of the respondents were between the ages of 23 and 30. The majority of respondents (43%) were between 31 and 40 years of age, and 21% of respondents between 41 and 50. Only 11% were between 51 and 60 years of age.

Gender

Question 3 of the questionnaire requested the respondents to indicate their gender. This is reflected in Graph 6.3.

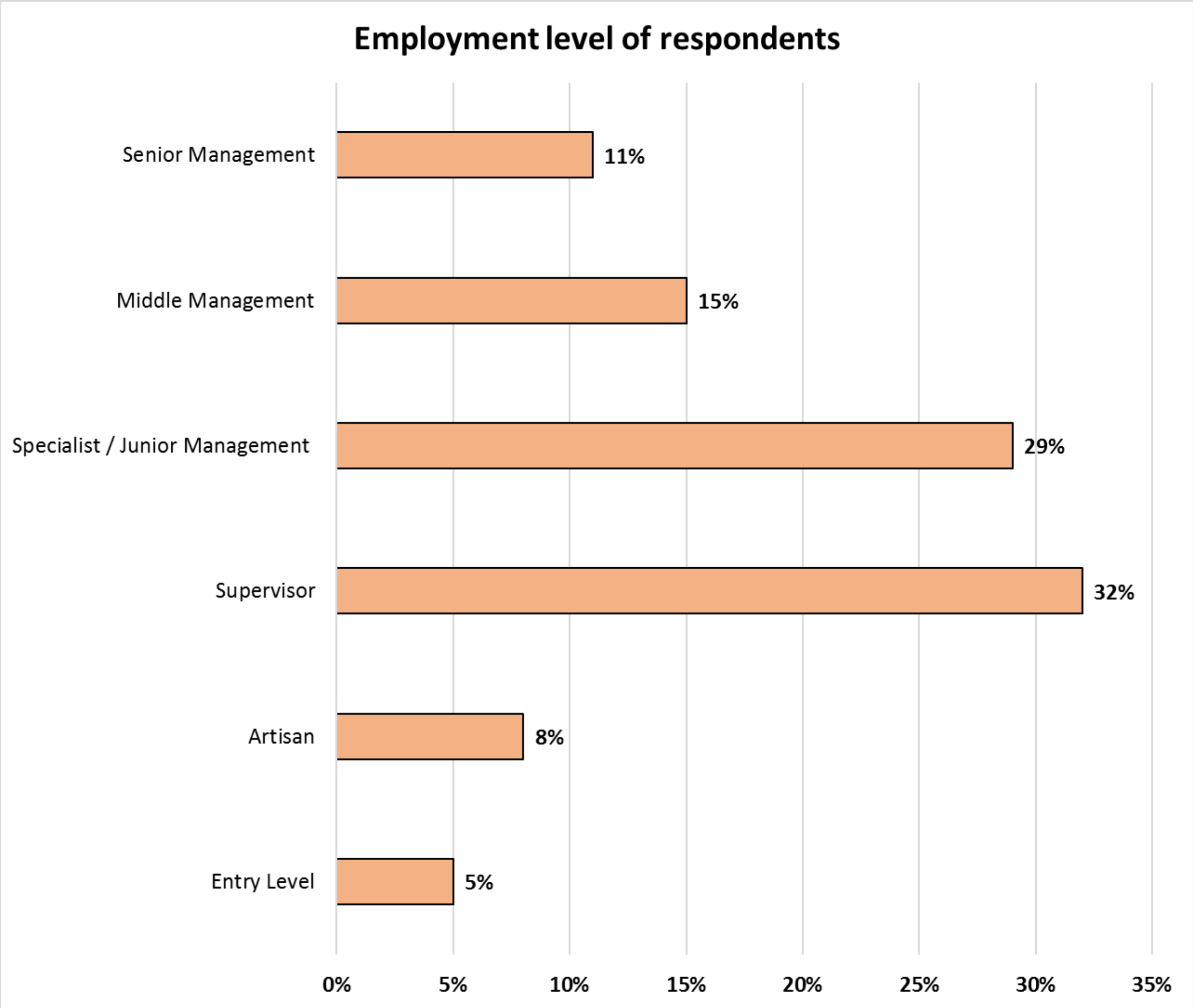


Graph 6.3 Gender of respondents

Graph 6.3 illustrates that 77% of the respondents were male and 23% female.

Employment level in current organisation

Question 4 of the questionnaire requested the respondents to indicate their current employment level in GASCO. This is presented in Graph 6.4.

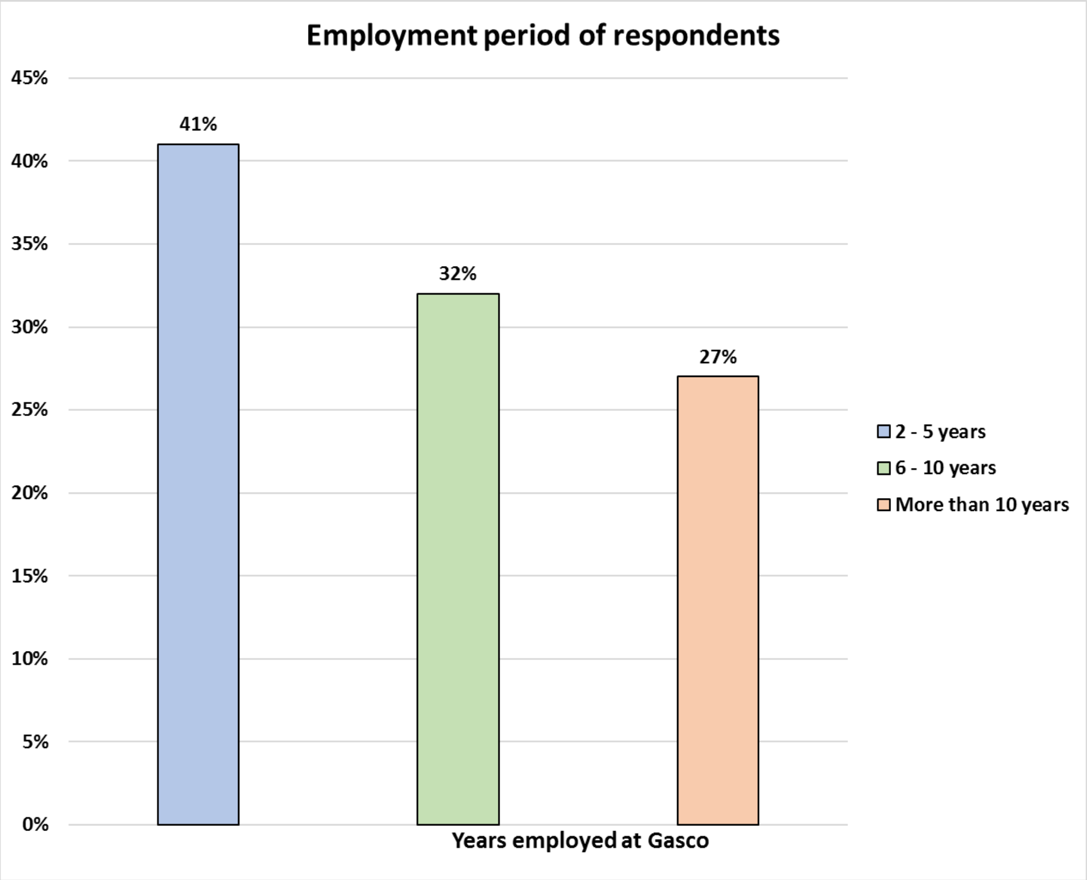


Graph 6.4 Respondents' employment level

Graph 6.4 indicates the respondents' employment level. The majority of respondents (32%) were on a supervisor level, 29% on a specialist/senior engineer or junior management level. Middle management represented 15% of respondents and 11% were in senior management positions. Eight per cent (8%) of respondents were employed as artisans. The minority of the respondents (5%) were entry-level employees.

Employment duration in current organisation

Question 5 aimed to ascertain the respondents' number of years employed as an expatriate with current employer (GASCO). This is presented in Graph 6.5.



Graph 6.5 Respondents' employment period

Graph 6.5 represents the employment period of respondents. A total of 41% had been employed between two and five years, 32% between 6 and 10 years, and the remaining 27% for more than 10 years.

6.2.2 Section B: Work-related adjustments

Question 6 of the questionnaire consisted of 19 items addressing the work-related challenges the expatriate workforce of GASCO were facing.

Table 6.1 present the overall response for each of the 19 work-related adjustment challenges.

Table 6.1: Work-related adjustments

6. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.						
SUPPORT	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.1 I was well prepared on what to expect prior to arriving in my new work environment.	15%	12%	30%	5%	32%	5%
6.2 I was well informed of my employer's expectations before I departed from my home country.	7%	40%	14%	6%	29%	3%
6.3 The selection process was fair.	4%	12%	32%	13%	32%	7%
6.4 I was provided with adequate training to fulfil my new employment roles and responsibilities.	10%	38%	26%	14%	7%	5%
6.5 I was equipped with the necessary tools to enable me to perform my job.	12%	23%	29%	22%	10%	5%
6.6 My line manager was very helpful in assisting me to adjust to the new environment.	8%	39%	28%	13%	6%	7%
6.7 I received sufficient performance feedback from my line manager.	34%	17%	27%	8%	9%	5%
6.8 Good work is being recognised in my organisation.	8%	39%	5%	15%	28%	5%
6.9 I am experiencing job satisfaction in my new role.	11%	11%	31%	13%	28%	6%
6.10 Workforce diversity is well managed within my organisation.	7%	7%	13%	39%	30%	4%
6.11 My new colleagues were welcoming and helpful.	8%	9%	15%	32%	30%	5%
6.12 Company information (like policies and procedures) are easily accessible.	6%	6%	6%	37%	26%	19%
6.13 I often feel overloaded with a heavy workload.	7%	12%	31%	25%	18%	8%
6.14 I have received continuous social support from my supervisor.	18%	38%	28%	8%	5%	3%
6.15 I have received continuous social support from my colleagues.	7%	11%	17%	32%	28%	4%
6.16 I feel secure in my position at the current organisation.	9%	39%	16%	7%	24%	5%
6.17 I have often considered resigning from my current employer.	14%	28%	31%	15%	8%	4%
6.18 My organisation has repatriation support functions in place.	9%	39%	26%	17%	6%	3%
6.19 Overall, I feel satisfied with the level of support my organisation provided me in adjusting to my new working environment.	33%	19%	26%	7%	11%	4%

Table 6.1 shows the following: According to Question 6.1, only 5% of respondents strongly agreed that they had been well prepared on what to expect prior to arriving at

their new work environment (Abu Dhabi). Only 3% (Question 6.2) of the respondents strongly agreed that they had been well informed of their employer's expectations before departing from their home country.

In total 32% of the respondents agreed (Question 6.3) that the expatriate assignment selection process was fair, while 38% disagreed (Question 6.4) that they had been provided with adequate training to fulfil their new role. Only 5% (Question 6.5) strongly agreed that they had received the necessary tools to perform in the new job.

Question 6.6 revealed that 151 respondents (39%) disagreed that their new line managers assisted them in adjusting to their new work environment. In Question 6.7 132 respondents (34%) strongly disagreed that they received sufficient performance feedback from their line managers. An outstanding 39% of the respondents also disagreed (Question 6.8) that good work was recognised in their current organisation (GASCO), which contributed to the response in Question 6.9 of 31% slightly disagreeing that they were experiencing job satisfaction in their new roles.

On a positive note, Question 6.10 showed that 39% of the respondents slightly agreed that the workforce diversity was well managed in their current organisation, together with the 30% who agreed that their new colleagues were welcoming and helpful (Question 6.11). Only 6% of the respondents disagreed that company information such as policies and procedures were easy accessible, whereas the majority either agreed (26%) or slightly agreed (37%) in Question 6.12.

For Question 6.13, 31% slightly disagreed that they felt burdened with a heavy work overload. The importance of social support was stressed in the literature review, so Question 6.14 indicated that only 3% of the respondents strongly agreed that they had received social support from their supervisors, whereas 32% slightly agreed in Question 6.15 to have received continuous social support from their colleagues.

Thirty-nine per cent of the respondents disagreed in Question 6.16 that they felt secure in their current organisation, while 5% strongly agreed to feeling secure. Surprisingly though, only 4% strongly agreed that they often considered resigning from their current employer (Question 6.17). Question 6.18 showed that 39% of the respondents disagreed that their current organisation had repatriation support functions in place.

Finally, Question 6.19 indicated that 33% of the respondents strongly disagreed that they felt satisfied with the overall support functions their current organisation (GASCO) had provided them in order to adjust to their new working environment. Only 4% strongly agreed that they were satisfied with the overall support function.

6.2.3 Section C: Personal-level adjustments

Question 7 of the questionnaire consisted of 15 items addressing the personal challenges the expatriate workforce of GASCO were facing. Table 6.2 presents the overall average response for each of the 15 personal adjustment challenges.

Table 6.2: Personal-level adjustments

7. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.						
ORIENTATION	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.1 My family and I received cultural training pertaining to the new environment before leaving our home country.	48%	21%	20%	4%	6%	1%
7.2 The selecting processes used by my organisation ensured a suitable match.	6%	5%	19%	40%	17%	13%
7.3 My employer managed all logistical arrangements (e.g. flights and transportation)	5%	5%	8%	17%	38%	27%
7.4 I was provided intermediate accommodation when we arrived in UAE.	4%	4%	9%	37%	39%	8%
7.5 I received assistance with securing a permanent residence.	4%	11%	39%	38%	5%	4%
7.6 I received assistance with furniture shipment from our home country.	19%	59%	6%	3%	9%	4%
7.7 My employer provided Arabic language tuition for my family.	28%	32%	34%	5%	1%	0%
7.8 My employer assisted with schooling arrangements for my children.	15%	42%	31%	4%	5%	2%
7.9 My employer assisted with obtaining work permits.	7%	6%	4%	22%	26%	35%
7.10 My employer provided assistance with employment opportunities for my spouse/partner.	16%	60%	17%	3%	5%	0%
7.11 I was supplied with tax advice and guidance.	17%	32%	27%	21%	3%	0%
7.12 My family was supported with a social welfare programme.	15%	59%	16%	2%	7%	0%
7.13 My employer supplied me with a social buddy to assist with the adaptation.	42%	41%	6%	4%	6%	0%
7.14 I am experiencing a good work-life balance within my current Organisation.	7%	7%	18%	39%	19%	9%
7.15 Overall I am satisfied with the assistance my employer provided my family.	10%	38%	19%	12%	15%	6%

According to Question 7.1, the majority of the respondents (48%) strongly disagreed that their family members had received cultural training pertaining to their new environment. However, 40% slightly agreed in Question 7.2 that the selection process used by the organisation had ensured a suitable match. Furthermore, 38% agreed and 27% strongly agreed in Question 7.3 that their organisation had managed all their logistical arrangement such as flights and transportation. A total of 39% agreed in Question 7.4 that their organisation had provided intermediate accommodation upon initial arrival in the UAE, and 38% slightly agreed to having received assistance in securing a permanent residence (Question 7.5). Question 7.6 indicated that 59% disagreed to having received assistance from their organisation to ship their furniture from their home country to Abu Dhabi.

None of the respondents strongly agreed that their current employer had provided Arabic language tuition for their family, and only 1% agreed, where most of the respondents disagreed to this in Question 7.7. Only 2% of the respondents strongly agreed that their employer had assisted with children's schooling arrangements in Question 7.8.

Question 7.9 indicated that 35% of the respondents strongly agreed that their employer had assisted with obtaining work permits. However, 60% disagreed that their employer had provided assistance with employment opportunities for their spouses or partners in Question 7.10. In Question 7.11 none of the respondents strongly agreed to having received tax advice and guidance as opposed to the 32% who disagreed to having received tax advice and guidance in their new host country.

A total of 59% of the respondents disagreed in Question 7.12 that their family had been supported with a social welfare programme, while 42% strongly disagreed (Question 7.13) that their employer had supplied them with a social buddy system to assist with the adaption. Question 7.14 revealed that 39% of the respondents slightly agreed to experience a good work–life balance within their current organisation. According to the final question, 7.15, only 6% strongly agreed that they were satisfied overall with the assistance their employer had provided their family, while 38% disagreed that they were satisfied with the overall adjustment support their families had received.

6.2.4 Section D: Development of a new identity

Question 8 of the questionnaire consisted of 11 items addressing the extent to which respondents had formed a new identity in their foreign setting. Table 6.3 presents the overall average response for each of the 11 items.

Table 6.3: New identity development

8. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.						
SKILLS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
8.1 I have developed additional skills to improve my work performance.	4%	2%	21%	27%	28%	18%
8.2 I have gained new knowledge pertaining to my job and profession.	7%	2%	40%	18%	17%	17%
8.3 I have gained new cultural knowledge and understanding.	6%	3%	14%	29%	30%	18%
8.4 I have improved my interpersonal skills (such as listening skills, communication skills, etc.).	7%	8%	16%	36%	18%	16%
8.5 I have improved my ability to manage my emotions (such as anxiety, anger, depression, shame, guilt, etc.).	7%	12%	30%	19%	26%	7%
8.6 I am a more independent person than when I first started at my current employer.	8%	5%	6%	35%	32%	14%
8.7 I have improved my ability to think of innovative ideas.	7%	8%	9%	32%	34%	11%
8.8 I have developed mature interpersonal relations in terms of tolerance and acceptance of personal differences.	7%	6%	5%	33%	36%	13%
8.9 I have gained more knowledge about my personal stability and integration.	9%	9%	29%	20%	19%	13%
8.10 I have discovered a better understanding of my purpose in the work environment.	7%	7%	36%	19%	24%	7%
8.11 I have improved my confidence levels since I started working at my current employer.	6%	10%	21%	29%	22%	12%

Table 6.3 shows that 28% of the respondents agreed to have developed additional skills to improve their work performance (Question 8.1), 40% slightly disagreed that they had gained new knowledge pertaining to their profession (Question 8.2), 30% agreed to having gained new cultural knowledge and understanding (Question 8.3) and 36% slightly agreed that their interpersonal skills such as communication and listening had improved (Question 8.4). Question 8.5 revealed that 30% of the respondents slightly disagreed to having developed the ability to manage emotions, while Question 8.6 revealed that 35% slightly agreed to being more independent compared with when they had first started at their current employer.

Only 7% of the respondents strongly disagreed to having improved their ability to think of innovative ideas according to Question 8.7, while the majority agreed. The responses to Question 8.8 indicated that 36% of the respondents believed to have developed mature interpersonal relations with regard to tolerance and acceptance of personal differences.

Question 8 of the questionnaire also showed that only 9% of the respondents disagreed to the statement that they had gained knowledge about their personal stability and integration (Question 8.9), while 36% slightly disagreed that they had discovered a better understanding of their purpose in the work environment (Question 8.10). Finally, 29% of the respondents slightly agreed that they improved their confident levels since they started working at their current employer (Question 8.11).

6.3 Inferential statistics

According to Kern (2012:3), inferential statistics attempts to draw conclusions that reach beyond the data observed. It satisfies specific questions raised prior to the study, but specifies the level of certainty regarding the conclusions.

Agreed and disagreed responses were combined for Sections B (work-related adjustment), C (family-related adjustment) and D (forming a new identity). Pearson's chi-squared test was applied, using a significance level of 0.05. The equality of proportions was tested, at 1 degree of freedom, and the p-values calculated based on the chi-squared distribution. Where $p<0.05$, a significant difference exists. The frequencies of the 'disagree' and 'agree' columns indicate in which direction most respondents leaned.

Table 6.4 Pearson's chi-squared test results for work-related adjustment

Support	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Df**	**p**
6.1 I was well prepared on what to expect prior to arriving in my new work environment.	225	166	1	0.003*
6.2 I was well informed of my employer's expectations before I departed from my home country.	239	152	1	0.000*
6.3 The selection process was fair.	188	203	1	*0.448*
6.4 I was provided with adequate training to fulfill my new employment roles and responsibilities.	292	99	1	0.000*
6.5 I was equipped with the necessary tools to enable me to perform my job.	248	143	1	0.000*
6.6 My line manager was very helpful in assisting me to adjust to the new environment.	291	100	1	0.000*
6.7 I received sufficient performance feedback from my line manager.	303	88	1	0.000*

Support	Disagree	Agree	Df	p
6.8 Good work is being recognised in my organisation.	203	188	1	*0.448*
6.9 I am experiencing job satisfaction in my new role.	205	186	1	*0.337*
6.10 Workforce diversity is well managed within my organisation.	107	284	1	0.000*
6.11 My new colleagues were welcoming and helpful.	129	262	1	0.000*
6.12 Company information (like policies and procedures) are easily accessible.	70	321	1	0.000*
6.13 I often feel overloaded with a heavy workload.	195	196	1	*0.960*
6.14 I have received continuous social support from my supervisor.	329	62	1	0.000*
6.15 I have received continuous social support from my colleagues.	140	251	1	0.000*
6.16 I feel secure in my position at the current organisation.	251	140	1	0.000*
6.17 I have often considered resigning from my current employer.	286	105	1	0.000*
6.18 My organisation has repatriation support functions in place.	292	99	1	0.000*
6.19 Overall, I feel satisfied with the level of support my organisation provided me in adjusting to my new working environment.	303	88	1	0.000*

*indicates significance difference at level 0.05

Table 6.4 shows that, in Question 6.1, a significant proportion of respondents indicated that they had not been well prepared on what to expect prior to arriving at their new work environment. This applies to most of the findings (e.g., Question 6.2 on being well informed, Question 6.4 on getting adequate training, Question 6.5 on being equipped with the necessary tools, Question 6.6 on the line manager being helpful, etc.). These aspects show that respondents were not adequately prepared for their new work environment. The exceptions, where there were no significant differences between the proportion of respondents who disagreed vs. those who agreed, occurred at Questions 6.3, 6.8, 6.9 and 6.13 (respectively referring to whether the selection process was fair, good work was recognised by the organisation, job satisfaction was experienced, and whether respondents felt overloaded).

Table 6.5 Pearson's chi-squared test results for personal-level adjustment

Orientation	Disagree	Agree	Df	p
7.1 My family and I received cultural training pertaining to the new environment before leaving our home country.	348	43	1	0.000*
7.2 The selecting processes used by my organisation ensured a suitable match.	114	277	1	0.000*
7.3 My employer managed all logistical arrangements (e.g. flights and transportation) effectively.	70	321	1	0.000*
7.4 I was provided intermediate accommodation when we arrived in UAE.	63	328	1	0.000*
7.5 I received assistance with securing a permanent residence.	212	179	1	*0.095*
7.6 I received assistance with furniture shipment from our home country.	331	60	1	0.000*
7.7 My employer provided Arabic language tuition for my family.	368	23	1	0.000*
7.8 My employer assisted with schooling arrangements for my children.	346	45	1	0.000*
7.9 My employer assisted with obtaining work permits.	65	326	1	0.000*
7.10 My employer provided assistance with employment opportunities for my spouse/partner.	361	30	1	0.000*
7.11 I was supplied with tax advice and guidance.	297	94	1	0.000*
7.12 My family was supported with a social welfare programme.	352	39	1	0.000*
7.13 My employer supplied me with a social buddy to assist with the adaptation.	352	39	1	0.000*
7.14 I am experiencing a good work–life balance within my current organisation.	128	263	1	0.000*
7.15 Overall, I am satisfied with the assistance my employer provided my family.	262	129	1	0.000*

*indicates significance level 0.05

Table 6.5 shows significant differences in proportions of agreement for all the findings, except Question 7.5 on securing a permanent residence. Most of the respondents agreed that the selection process had produced a suitable match (Question 7.2). The findings further confirmed that the organisation assisted respondents with logistical aspects (e.g., finding accommodation, Question 7.4; obtaining work permits, Question 7.9; finding work–life balance, Question 7.14).

The organisation had not, however, assisted with aspects such as cultural training prior to leaving the home country (Question 7.1), appointing a social buddy (Question 7.13 where the disagreed responses were overwhelming), providing Arabic language tuition (Question 7.7), assistance with the schooling needs of children (Question 7.8), finding employment for spouses (Question 7.10) and providing support with the social welfare programme (Question 7.12). These findings support those of the descriptive statistics related to a lack of adequate support for personal adjustments.

Table 6.6 Pearson's chi-squared test results for forming a new identity

Skills	Disagree	Agree	Df	p
8.1 I have developed additional skills to improve my work performance.	105	286	1	0.000*
8.2 I have gained new knowledge pertaining to my job and profession.	190	201	1	*0.578*
8.3 I have gained new cultural knowledge and understanding.	89	302	1	0.000*
8.4 I have improved my interpersonal skills (such as listening skills, communication skills, etc.).	119	272	1	0.000*
8.5 I have improved my ability to manage my emotions (such as anxiety, anger, depression, shame, guilt, etc.).	190	201	1	*0.578*
8.6 I am a more independent person than when I first started at my current employer.	73	318	1	0.000*
8.7 I have improved my ability to think of innovative ideas.	90	301	1	0.000*
8.8 I have developed mature interpersonal relations in terms of tolerance and acceptance of personal differences.	73	318	1	0.000*
8.9 I have gained more knowledge about my personal stability and integration.	186	205	1	*0.337*
8.10 I have discovered a better understanding of my purpose in the work environment.	194	197	1	*0.879*
8.11 I have improved my confidence levels since I started working at my current employer.	146	245	1	0.000*

*indicates significance level 0.05

Table 6.6 shows that the majority of respondents indicated they had formed a new identity (developed additional skills, Question 8.1; gained new cultural knowledge, Question 8.3; improved their interpersonal skills, Question 8.4; improved confidence levels, Question 8.11). The aspects where there was no significance relationship was gaining new knowledge on their professions (Question 8.2), managing emotions (Question 8.5), gaining new knowledge about personal stability and integration (Question 8.9) and discovering a better understanding of one's own purpose in the work environment (Question 8.10).

6.4 Responses to the focus group discussion

As indicated before, the draft expatriate mentoring plan was presented to a focus group for interrogation and discussion. The following responses were captured:

I. The proposed expatriate mentoring plan should not only apply to the newly appointed expatriate employees, but to all expatriate employees changing roles within the organisation.

II. The mentoring objectives must be aligned to the employee's Personal Development Plan (PDP) and job-specific roles and responsibilities.

III. Questions rose with regard to the purpose of the secondary mentor. It was clarified that the secondary mentor would have no official responsibility and only serve as a support function if the primary mentor is absent.

IV. It is not sufficient that only the mentee's direct line manager is part of the mentoring committee. The suggestion was made that the mentee's second line manager (two levels up) should also form part of the mentoring committee. This will ensure more involvement of the mentee's direct line manager and monitoring of the line manager's mentoring responsibilities.

V. The frequency of the mentoring committee meetings need to be stipulated.

VI. This mentoring plan must be brought into play during very early stages of the employment process and form part of the GASCO employee introduction programme.

VII. The tax advice section can be deleted, since the UAE is a tax-free country.

VIII. A mentee's direct line manager needs to have defined responsibilities; hence mentees need to evaluate their direct line manager.

IX. Remedial actions for the line manager need to be stipulated to ensure continuous improvement if need be.

The suggestions from the focus group discussion were captured as part of the final expatriate mentoring plan for the company.

6.5 Summary

Chapter 6 presented and discussed the research findings from the empirical part of the study. The chapter provided the descriptive statistics to the various questions of the questionnaire. It also included an inferential interpretation of the findings and the feedback from the focus group discussion. This enabled the compilation of the final mentoring plan for the company (Annexure B).

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented, analysed and discussed the findings from the empirical part of the investigation. Chapter 7 presents the conclusions and recommendations that have originated from this investigation. Future research directions are also suggested.

7.2 Conclusions

As indicated before, the response rate of the qualitative section of the study was 55%. The respondents represented 19 countries, most were between 31 and 40 years of age, and the vast majority (77%) were male. This shows that GASCO seems to employ individuals from a variety of countries, mostly younger males. The majority of expatriates were also employed at a supervisory level and had been employed between two and five years.

Related to the work-related challenges, the following emanated: respondents had generally not been well prepared prior to their arrival (also supported by the inferential statistics). This included knowing the employer’s expectations before departing their home country. According to Kawai and Mohr (2015:591), proper preparation of individuals is essential prior to departure, as this can reduce confusion and frustration. Only 7% of respondents agreed that they had been provided with adequate training to fulfil their new employment roles and responsibilities, while 38% disagreed to having received adequate training. Training of the newly joined expatriate employee is key to ensure the success of an expatriate assignment (Abdullah & Jin, 2015:549).

Around 39% of respondents disagreed that their new line managers had assisted them in adjusting to their new work environment, and 34% strongly disagreed that they had received sufficient performance feedback from their line managers. Furthermore, 38% disagreed to having received social support from their supervisors. Related to receiving social support from work colleagues, 32% of respondents slightly agreed and

28% agreed with the statement. This shows a lack of proper assistance from line managers.

As little as 5% of the respondents strongly agreed that they felt secure in their current position, while 39% disagreed to feeling secure. According to Imran, Majeed and Ayub (2015:840), job security is an important variable that directly affects employee organisational satisfaction and level of commitment. If employees feel secure, they are more likely to be more productive and more satisfied. Thirty-three per cent of the respondents strongly disagreed that they felt satisfied with the overall support from the company, and 4% strongly agreed that they were satisfied with the overall support function.

Related to personal-level adjustments the findings revealed that only 6% of the respondents strongly agreed that they were satisfied with the overall assistance their families had received from the organisation, while 38% disagreed that the organisation had provided them with sufficient family assistance upon arriving in the new living environment. The finding of this section was confirmed by the inferential statistics. Below are some of the predominant findings:

- The majority of the respondents (48%) strongly disagreed that their family members received cultural training pertaining to their new environment.

- 59% of the respondents disagreed to having received assistance from their organisation to ship their furniture from their home country to Abu Dhabi.

- Only 1% of respondents agreed that Arabic language tuition had been provided for their families.

- Only 2% of the respondents strongly agreed that their employer had assisted with children’s schooling arrangements in the new country, while 42% disagreed.

- 60% disagreed that their employer had provided assistance with employment opportunities for their spouses or partners.

- 59% of the respondents disagreed that their families were supported with a social welfare programme, and 42% strongly disagreed that their organisation had supplied the family with a social buddy system to assist with the adjustment.

The findings thus show that personal-level challenges were not sufficiently attended to, which can contribute to failed expatriate assignments. In this regard, the literature (see Briscoe & Schuler, 2004; Cole & Nesbeth, 2014; Lee, 2007; McNulty, 2012; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001) highlights the importance of expatriate family adjustment and satisfaction to prevent failed expatriate assignments. Sarkiunaite and Rocke (2015:28) confirm that problems related to the adjustment of spouses and children can have negative implications for expatriates. Similarly, Zhu *et al*. (2006) found that up to 85% of expatriate assignment fail because of family dissatisfaction.

Related to Section D on forming a new identity the following emanated: 28% of the respondents agreed to having developed additional skills to improve their work performance, and 30% agreed to having gained new cultural knowledge and understanding. Only 7% of the respondents strongly disagreed to having improved their ability to think of innovative ideas, while the majority agreed. Finally, 29% of the respondents slightly agreed that they had improved their confident levels since they started working at GASCO; hence the majority of respondents seemed to have formed a new identity with regard to improved skills, knowledge and attitudes.

The conclusions of the study support the need for an expatriate mentoring plan for GASCO. This is captured under the recommendation section.

7.3 Recommendations: Expatriate mentoring plan for GASCO

In light of the literature review of this study, as well as the data analysis and findings of the empirical study, Annexure B proposes the expatriate mentoring plan for the company.

The proposed expatriate mentoring plan for GASCO consists of 15 sections to ensure all the core mentoring needs are sufficiently covered. The plan starts with the mentee's details and mentoring objectives, followed by those of the appointed mentor, to ensure a suitable mentee–mentor match. The plan also makes provision for the appointment of a secondary mentor and additional mentoring committee members. After the identification of all the role players, the mentee's short-, medium- and long-term career goals can be identified and recorded.

The next phase of the mentoring plan involves identifying the work- and family-related mentoring needs. Section 8 is where all the mentee's needs will be taken into consideration and the actual mentoring plan with target dates will be drafted. Finally, the proposed mentoring plan for GASCO makes provision for the evaluation of the mentor, mentee and mentee's line manager, with space for remedial actions, if required (see Annexure B).

7.4 Suggested future research

This investigation revealed the need for customised mentoring plans for expatriate employees upon arrival at their new environment. However, pre-departure training for expatriate employees and their family needs to be explored and investigated to further assist with the reduction of high expatriate failure rates.

REFERENCES

Abate, C.P. & Eddy, E.R. 2008. Mentoring as a learning tool: Enhancing the effectiveness of an undergraduate business mentoring program. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning,* 16 (4): 363-378.

Abdullah, D.N. & Jin, C.S. 2015. Determining the types of training and development support for expatriates. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 172: 548-554.

Abu Dhabi. 2014. Abu Dhabi Government Information. Ministry of Economy, Department of Economic Development and Statistics Centre. Available from: http://www.scad.ae/en/Pages/ThemesReleases.aspx?ThemeID=6 Accessed on 21 October 2015.

Adelman, M.B. 1988. Cross-cultural adjustment: A theoretical perspective on social support. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 12 (1): 183-204.

Adler, N.J. 1993. Competitive frontiers: Women managers in the triad. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 23 (2): 3-23.

Adler, N.J. 2008. International dimensions of organizational behavior, 5th ed. USA: South West, Thomson Learning.

Adler, S.J. & Zhu, C.J. 2005. Corporate culture and expatriate selection strategies in MNCs: Are they related? Some empirical evidence. Department of Management Working Series, Working Paper 52/05 July.

ADNOC – GASCO. 2014. Company performance and revenue report. Available from: http://www.gasco.com.sa/files/uploads/attachment/Gasco_English_Annual_Report-0.pdf Accessed on 21 October 2015.

Al Qubaisi, N.J. (njalqubaisi@gasco.ae). 2015. GASCO: Human resource sector. [E-mail to:] Dreyer, T.F. (tdreyer@gasco.ae). 2 September.

Allen, T.D., Eby, L.T. & Lentz, E. 2006. The relationship between formal mentoring program characteristics and perceived program effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology,* 59: 125-153.

Anderson, G. 1990. Fundamentals of educational research. London: The Falmer Press.

Anderson, B.A. 2005. Expatriate selection: Good management or good luck? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16: 567-583.

Anderson, V. 2004. Research methods in human resource management. Wiltshire: The Cromwell Press.

Andreason, A. 2002. Ensuring the success of expatriate managers. *Journal of Business and Public Affairs*, 3 (2): 21-26.

Andreason, A. 2003. Expatriate adjustment to foreign assignments. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 13 (1): 42-60.

Andreason, A. 2008. Expatriate adjustment of spouses and expatriate managers: An integrative research review. *International Journal of Management*, 25 (2): 382-395.

Arab Oil and Gas. 2015. Dubai International Convention and Exhibition Center. Demonstrating robust growth. Available from: http://www.ogsonline.com/uae-oil-gas-sector.php Accessed on 07 July 2015.

Arezki, R., Rota-Graziosi, G. & Senbet, L. 2013. Capital flight risk. *Finance & Development,* 50 (3): 26-28.

Armstrong, M. 2010. Armstrong's essential human resource management practice: A guide to people management, 11th ed. United States, Great Britain: Kogan Page.

Arnett, J.J. 2002. The psychology of globalization. *American Psychologist*, 57 (1): 774-783.

Austin, A., Chapman, D., Farah, S., Wilson, E., & Ridge, N. 2014. Expatriate academic staff in the United Arab Emirates: The nature of their work experiences in higher education institutions. *High Education,* 68 (4): 541-557.

Baird, L. & Meshoulam, I. 2008. Managing two fits of strategic human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, 13 (1): 116-128.

Banyhamdan, K.M.T., Harrim, H. & Al-Qutop, M.Y. 2012. Transforming an organization into a spiritual one: A five-pathway integrated framework. *International Journal of Business Management*, 7 (11): 74-86.

Bardhan, N. 2013. Constructing the meaning of globalization: A framing analysis of the PR strategist. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 25: 391-410.

Barnett, R.C. & Marshall, N.L. 1992. Worker and mother roles, spillover effects, and psychological distress. *Women and Health*, 18 (2): 9-36.

Barrick, M.R., Bradley, B.H., Kristof-Brown, A.L. & Colbert, A.E. 2007. The moderating role of top management in team interdependence: Implications for real teams and workgroups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50 (3): 544-557.

Bartlett, C. & Ghoshal, S. 1987. Managing across borders: New strategic requirements (Part 1). *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 28 (4): 7-7.

Bedi, P., Lakra, P. & Gupta, E. 2014. Workforce diversity management: Biggest challenge or opportunity for 21st century organizations. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 16 (4): 102-107.

Beitler, M. 2005. Expatriate training and support. Available from: www.mikebeilter.com. Accessed on 11 October 2016.

Benson, G.S. & Pattie, M. 2008. Is expatriation good for my career? The impact of expatriate assignments on perceived and actual career outcomes. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 19 (9): 1636-1653.

Berry, D.M. 2003. An evaluation of mentoring to develop a strategy for facilitating the objectives of the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998). Unpublished D Tech Thesis, Port Elizabeth Technikon, Port Elizabeth, South Africa.

Bhagwati, J. 2004. In defense of globalization. New Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Biemann, T. & Andresen, M. 2010. Self-initiated foreign expatriates versus assigned expatriates: Two distinct types of international careers? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25: 430-448.

Black, J.S. 1988. Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19 (2): 277-294.

Black, J.S. & Stephens, G.K. 1989. The influence of the spouse on American expatriate adjustment and intent to stay in Pacific Rim overseas assignments. *Journal of Management*, 15 (1): 529-544.

Black, J.S., Gregersen, H.B. & Mendenhall, M.E. 1992. Global assignments: Successfully expatriating and repatriating international managers. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bock, W.C. 2014. The impact of expatriate school leaders in the United Arab Emirates Education System, University of South Africa. Available from http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/14138/thesis_bock_wc.pdf?sequence=1 Accessed on 10 September 2016.

Boone, C. & Hendriks, W. 2009. Top management team diversity and firm performance: Moderators of functional-background and locus-of-control diversity. *Management Science*, 55 (2): 165-180.

Bouquillon, E.A., Sosik, J.J. & Lee, D. 2005. 'It's only a phase': Examining trust, identification and mentoring functions received across the mentoring phases. *Mentoring and Tutoring,* 13 (2): 239-258.

Bradley, G. 2010. The 'maid phenomenon': Home/school differences in pedagogy and their implications for children in two international schools in the Middle East. DEd dissertation, University of Bath, England.

Brewster, C. 1993. The paradox of adjustment: UK and Swedish expatriates in Sweden and the UK. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 4 (1): 49-62.

Brief, A.P. 2008. Diversity at work. Cape Town: Cambridge University Press.

Brinkman, R.L. & Brinkman, J.E. 2002. Corporate power and the globalization process. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 29 (9): 730-752.

Briscoe, D. & Schuler, R. 2004. International human resource management, 2nd ed. London: Routledge.

Brock, M. & Siscovick, I. 2007. Global integration and local responsiveness in multinational subsidiaries. Some strategy, structure and human resource contingencies. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 45 (1): 353-373.

Brockbank, A. & McGill, I. 2006. Facilitating reflective learning through mentoring and coaching. London: Kogan Page.

Brockbank, A. & McGill, I. 2007. Facilitating reflective learning in higher education, 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Brockbank, A., McGill, I. & Beech, N. 2002. Reflective learning practice. Aldershot: Gower Publishing.

Brown, A. 1995. Organisational culture. London: Pitman Publishing.

Brown, K. 2001. Mentoring and the retention of newly qualified language teachers. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 31 (1): 69-88.

Brynard, P. & Hanekom, S. 2005. Introduction to research in public administration and related academic disciplines. Pretoria: JL Van Schaik Publishers.

Brynningsen, G. 2009. Managing expatriates on international assignments. *Otago Management Graduate Review*, 7 (1): 1-17.

Burns, N. & Grove, S.K. 2003. Understanding nursing research, 3rd ed. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Company.

Butt, G., 2001. Oil and Gas in the UAE. Available from: https://books.google.co.in/books?hl=en&lr=&id=QcMz3zV0qAMC&oi=fnd&pg=PA231&dq=UAE+gas+industries&ots=WgM4XfnpWs&sig=wd5-ciU0kocM9VjOHTgf7OxhuZ0#v=onepage&q=UAE%20gas%20industries&f=false Accessed 05 July 2016.

Cai, D.A. & Rodriguez, J.I. 1996. Adjusting to cultural differences: The intercultural adaptation model. *International Communication Studies*, 7 (1): 22-39.

Caligiuri, P., Phillips, J., Lazarova, M., Tarique, I. & Burgi, P. 2001. The theory of met expectations applied to expatriate adjustment: The role of cross-cultural training. *International Journal of Human Resources Management*, 12: 357-372.

Caligiuri, P.M. 2000. Selecting expatriates for personality characteristics: A moderating effect of personality on the relationship between host national contact and cross-cultural adjustment. *Management International Review*, 40 (1): 61-80.

Cameron, K.S. & Quinn, R.E. 2011. Diagnosing and changing organizational culture, 3rd ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cannella Jr., A., Park, J.H. & Lee, H.U. 2008. Top management team functional background diversity and firm performance: Examining the roles of team member colocation and environmental uncertainty. *Academy of Management Journal*, 51 (4): 768-784.

Carnoy, D.M. 1999. Globalization and educational reform: What planners need to know. Paris: UNESCO.

Cartus. 2007. Emerging trends in global mobility: Policy and practices survey. Available from: http://www.cartus.com/RefDesk/Document.aspx?regid=1&mid=8&sid=24&cid=1429 Accessed on 10 October 2016.

Caruth, G.D. 2013. Demystifying mixed methods research design: A review of the literature. *Melvana International Journal of Education*, 3 (2): 112-122.

Cascio, W. 1998. Managing human resources – Productivity, quality of work life, profits. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Chang, W. 2005. Expatriate training in international nongovernmental organizations: A model for research. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4 (4): 440-461.

Chao, G.T. 1997. Mentoring phases and outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 51(1): 15-28.

Chen, M.F., Tzeng, G.H. & Tang, T.I. 2005. Fuzzy MCDM approach for evaluation of expatriate assignments. *International Journal of Information Technology & Decision Making*, 4 (2): 277-296.

Chickering, A.W. & Reisser, L. 1993. Education and identity, 2nd ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Church, A.T. 1982. Sojourner adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 9 (1): 540-572.

Clutterbuck, D. 2001. Everyone needs a mentor, 3rd ed. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Clutterbuck, D. 2005. Establishing and maintaining mentoring relationships: An overview of mentor and mentee competencies. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3 (3): 2-9.

Clutterbuck, D. & Lane, G. 2005. The situational mentor. London: Gower.

Clutterbuck, D. & Megginson, D. 1999. Mentoring executives and directors. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Clutterbuck, D. & Ragins, B.R. 2002. Mentoring and diversity: An international perspective. Oxford: Butterworth.

Cochran, W.G. 1953. Sampling techniques. New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Cohen, A.B. 2012. Many forms of culture. *American Psychological Association,* 64 (3): 194-204.

Cole, N. & Nesbeth, K. 2014. Why do international assignments fail? Expatriates families speak. *International Studies of Management and Organisation*, 44 (3): 66-79.

Collins, C.J. 2000. Strategic Human Resource Management and knowledge creation capability. Examining the black box between HR and Firm Performance. University of Maryland: College Park.

Cooke, F.L. & Saini, D. 2012. Managing diversity in Chinese and Indian organizations: A qualitative study. *Journal of Chinese Human Resource Management*, 3 (1): 16-32.

Cooke, F.L. & Saini, D.S. 2010. Diversity management in India: A study of organizations in different ownership forms and industrial sectors. *Human Resource Management*, 49 (3): 447-500.

Copeland, A.P. & Norell, S.K. 2002. Spousal adjustment on international assignments: The role of social support. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 26 (3): 255-272.

Creswell, J.W. 2014. Research design – Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches, 4th ed. Lincoln: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J.W. & Plano, C.V. 2011. Designing and conducting mixed methods research, 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Crocitto, M., Sullivan, S. & Carraher, S. 2005. Global mentoring as a means of career development and knowledge creation. *Career Development International*, 10 (6/7): 522-587.

Cullen, J.B. & Parboteeah, K.P. 2010. International business strategy and the multinational company. New York: Routledge.

Culture, Leadership & Organizations. 2004. The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies. London: Thousand Oaks.

Dass, P. & Parker, B. 1999. Strategies for managing human resource diversity: From resistance to learning. *Academy of Management Executive*, 13 (2): 68-80.

De Matteo, J.S. & Russell, J.E. A. 2000. Employment assistance needs of accompanying spouses following relocation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 50 (1): 291-307.

Denscombe, M. 2007. The good research guide for small-scale social research projects, 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Deresky, H. 2000. International management: Managing across borders and cultures, 3rd ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Deresky, H. 2002. International management: Managing across borders and cultures, 4th ed. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Dessler, G. 2013. Human resource management, 13th ed. Florida, USA: Pearson.

Dicken, P. 2011. Global shift: Mapping the contours of the world economy, 6th ed. London: Sage Publishing.

Dickie, C. & Soldan, Z. 2008. Diversity management. Prahran, VIC: Tilde University Press.

Dixon, R. & Bonfield, D. 2013. Handbook for manufacturing mentors and PTE mentees. *Mentoring Education*, 1: 1-12.

D'Netto, B. & Sohal, A. 1999. Human resource practices and workforce diversity: An empirical assessment. *International Journal or Manpower*, 20 (8): 530-547.

Doherty, N., Dickmann, M. & Mills, T. 2011. Exploring the motives of company backed and self-initiated expatriates. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22: 595-611.

Douglas, C.A. 1997. Formal mentoring programs in organizations: An annotated bibliography. Greensboro: Centre for Creative Leadership.

Duppada, S. & Aryasri, R.C. 2011. Human Resources transformation beyond boundaries in outsourcing business model – Expatriate benchmarking. *The Electronic Journal Information Systems Evaluation*, 14 (2): 204-215.

Dyes, R.A. 2009. Expats account for 87 per cent of UAE's workforce. Emirates 24/7 News, 23 November. Available from: http://www.emirates247.com/eb247/economy/uae-economy/expats-account-for-87-per-cent-of-uae-s-workforce-2009-11-23-1.21107 Accessed on 22 June 2015.

Edwards, T. & Walsh, J. 2009. Foreign ownership and industrial relations. The evolution of the modern workplace. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ehrich, L.C. & Hansford, B. 1999. Mentoring: Pros and cons for HRM. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources,* 37 (3): 92-107.

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P.D. & Rhoades, L. 2001. Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 86 (1): 42-51.

Elegbe, J.A. 2010. Talent management in the developing world: Adopting a global perspective. England: Gower Publishing.

Elmadssia, T. 2011. Specificities of the cultural adaptation of French and German Firms to the Tunisian Context. *International Business Research,* 4 (3): 201-210.

Ensher, E.A., Heun, C. & Blanchard, A. 2003. Online mentoring and computer-mediated communication: New directions in research. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 63: 264-288.

Evren, K. 2006. The impact of multinational corporations on international relations. Master's thesis, Middle East Technical University, Middle East.

Feldman, D.C. & Bolino, M.C. 1999. The impact of on-site mentoring on expatriate socialization: A structural equation modeling approach. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10 (1): 54-71.

Feldman, D.C. & Thomas, C. 1992. Career management issues facing expatriates. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23 (1): 271-293.

Ferner, A., Almond, P., Colling, T., Edwards, T. & Carmen-Muller, M. 2004. The dynamics of central control and subsidiary anatomy in the management of human resources: Case study evidence from US multinational corporations in the UK. *Organization Studies*, 25 (3): 363-391.

Ferris, G., Frink, D. & Galang, C. 1993. Diversity in the workplace: The human resource management challenge. *Human Resource Planning*, 16 (1): 41-51.

Fielding, N.J. & Fielding, J.L. 1986. Linking data. Qualitative Methods Series No. 4. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Fontaine, G. 1997. Skills for successful international assignments to, from and within Asia and the Pacific: Implications for preparation, support and training. *Management Decisions*, 35 (8): 631-642.

Forret, M.L., Turban, D.B. & Dougherty, T.W. 1996. Issues facing organizations when implementing formal mentoring programmes. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 17 (3): 27-30.

Forstenlechner, I. 2010. Exploring expatriates' behavioural reaction to institutional injustice on host country level*. Personnel Review*, 39 (2): 178-194.

Forster, N. 2000. Expatriates and the impact of cross-cultural training. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 10 (3): 63-78.

Francesco, A.M. & Gold, B.A. 2005. International organizational behavior, 2nd ed. Upper Saddle River: Pearson-Prentice-Hall.

Frey, L.R., Botan, C.H. & Kreps, G.L. 2000. Investigating communication: An introduction to research methods, 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Friday, E. & Friday, S.S. 2002. Formal mentoring: Is there a strategic fit? *Management Decision,* 40 (2): 152-157.

Gabel, M. & Bruner, H. 2003. An atlas of the multinational corporation. New York: The New Press.

Gani, A. & Tan, W. 2005. Expatriate development for Asia-Pacific: A study of training contents and methods. *International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management*, 5 (1): 41-57

GASCO, HR Department Internal Publication. 2015. United Arab Emirates: Abu Dhabi.

GASCO, Learning and Development intend. 2014. United Arab Emirates: Abu Dhabi.

Geber, H. & Nyanjom, J.A. 2009. Mentor development in higher education in Botswana: How important is reflective practice? *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 23 (5): 894-911.

Geiersbach, N. 2010. The impact of international business on the global economy. *Business Intelligence Journal*, 3 (2): 119–129.

Gentry, W.A., Weber, T.J. & Sadri, G. 2008. Examining career-related mentoring and managerial performance across cultures: A multilevel analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 72: 241-253.

Ghoshal, S. & Bartlett, C. 1990. The multinational corporation as an interorganizational network. *Academy of Management Review*, 15 (4): 603-625.

Gibb, S. 1999. The usefulness of theory: A case study in evaluating formal mentoring schemes. *Journal of Human Relations*, 52 (8): 1055-1075.

Gibson, M.A. 2001. Immigrant adaptation and patterns of acculturation. *Human Development*, 44 (1): 19-23.

Gibson, S.K. 2004. Being mentored: The experience of women faculty. *Journal of Career Development*, 30 (3): 173-188.

Global Relocation Trends Survey Report. 2011. Sponsored by Brookfield Global Relocation Services. Available from: http://www.brookfieldgrs.com/ Accessed on 27 September 2016.

Gmür, M. & Thommen, J.P. 2006. Human resource management. Zürich: Versus.

Goldin, I. (2010). Globalisation and risk for business: Implications of an increasingly interconnected world. London: Lloyd's.

Grant-Vallone, E. & Ensher, E.A. 2001. An examination of work and personal life conflict, organizational support, and employee health among international expatriates. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 25 (1), 261-278.

Gupta, A. 2013. Re-entry of expatriate and multinational development. *Intellectual Property Rights*. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.4172/2375-4516.1000103 Accessed on 13 Augustus 2016.

Hall, E. 1971. Beyond culture. New York: Anchor/Doubleday.

Hamilton, B.A. & Scandura, T.Q.A. 2003. E-mentoring: Implications for organizational learning and development in a wired world. *Organizational Dynamics*, 31: 388-402.

Hansen, Z.N.L. & Rasmussen, L.B. 2016. Mentorship of expatriates in transnational companies. *Journal of Global Mobility*, 4 (2): 176-201.

Hansford, B.C, Ehrich, L.C. & Tennent, L. 2004. Formal Mentoring Programs in Education and other Professions: A Review of the Literature. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40 (4): 518-540.

Hansford, B.C, Tennent, L.C & Ehrich, L.C. 2002. Business mentoring: Help or hindrance? *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 19 (2): 101-115.

Harris, H. & Brewster, C. 2004. An integrative framework for pre-departure preparation. International HRM. Contemporary Issues in Europe. 3rd ed. London: Routledge.

Hartl, K. 2004. The expatriate career transition and women managers' experiences. *Women in Management Review,* 19 (1): 40-51.

Harvey, M. 1995. The impact of dual-career families on international relocations. *Human Resource Management Review*, 5 (3): 223-244.

Harvey, M. 1996. Addressing the dual career expatriation dilemma. *Human Resource Planning,* 19 (4): 18-32.

Harvey, M. & Moeller, M. 2009. Expatriate managers: A historical review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 11 (3): 275-296.

Harvey, M. & Wiese, D. 2002. Global dual-career couple mentoring: A phase model approach. *Human Resource Planning*, 21 (1): 33-48.

Harzing, A. & Christensen, C. 2004. Expatriate failure: Time to abandon the concept? *Career Development International*, 9 (7): 616-626.

Haslberger, A. 2005. Facets and dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation: Refining the tools. *Personnel Review,* 34 (1): 85-109.

Haslberger, A. & Brewster, C. 2008. The expatriate family: An international perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* 23 (3): 324-346.

Headlam-Wells, J., Craig, J. & Gosland, J. 2006. Encounters in social cyberspace: E-mentoring for professional women. *Women in Management Review*, 21 (6): 483.

Hechanova, R., Beehr, T.A. & Christiansen, N.D. 2003. Antecedents and consequences of employees' adjustment to overseas assignments: A meta-analytic review. *Applied Psychology*, 52 (1): 213-236.

Heenan, D.A. & Perlmutter, H.V. 1979. Multinational organizational development: A social architectural approach. New York: Addison-Wesley.

Hegstad, C.D. & Wentling, R.M. 2004. The development and maintenance of exemplary formal mentoring programs in Fortune 500 companies. *Human Resources Development Quarterly,* 15: 421-448.

Hennink, M.M. 2007. International focus group research: A handbook for the health and social sciences. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hill, C.W.L. 2005. International business: Competing in the global marketplace, 5th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Hiltrop, J. & Jansen, M. 1990. Expatriation: Challenges and recommendations. *European Management Journal*, 8 (1): 19-27.

Hippler, T., Brewster, C. & Haslberger, A. 2015. The elephant in the room: The role of time in expatriate adjustment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26 (15): 1920-1935.

Hofstede, G. 2001. Culture's consequences. Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Holtbrügge, D. & Ambrosius, J. 2015. Mentoring, skill development, and career success of foreign expatriates. *Human Resource Development International*, 18 (3): 278-294.

Huang, T.J., Chi, S.C. & Lawler, J.J. 2005. The relationship between expatriate's personality traits and their adjustment to international assignments. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16 (1):1656-1670.

Hunt, D.M. & Michael, C. 1983. A career training and development tool. *Academy of Management Review*, 8 (3): 475-785.

Imam, M.J. 2009. Globalization: Desire and contempt for it in Muslim societies. Paper presented at the Valedictory Conference in Honour of Prof. T Bande, organized by the

Centre for Peace Studies and Department of Political Science, Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto, 15 January.

Imran, R., Majeed, M. & Ayub, A. 2015. Impact of organizational justice, job security and job satisfaction on organizational productivity. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*, 9 (3): 840-845.

Jabbour, C.J.C., Gordono, F.S., De Oliviera, J.H.C., Martinez, J.C. & Battiselle, R.A.G. 2011. Diversity management: Challenges, benefits, and the role of human resource management in Brazilian organizations. Equality, diversity, and inclusion. *An International Journal*, 30 (1): 58-74.

Jackson B., La Fasto F., Schultz, H. & Kelly, D. 1992. Diversity. *Human Resource Management Journal,* 31 (1): 21-34.

Jones, D., Pringle, J.K. & Shepherd, D. 2000. ‘Managing Diversity’ meets Aotearoa/New Zealand. *Personnel Review*, 2 (3): 364-380.

Jonsen, K., Schneider, S. & Maznevski, M. 2011. Diversity – A Strategic Issue. In S. Groschl (ed.). *Diversity in the workplace – Multi-disciplinary and international perspectives*. UK: Gower Farnham.

Joshi, A. & Roh, H. 2009. The role of context in work team diversity research. A meta-analytic review. *Academy of Management Journal,* 52 (3): 599-627.

Kawai, N. & Mohr, A. 2015. The association between role ambiguity, role novelty & expatriates’ job outcomes: The moderating effects of organizational & supervisor support. *British Journal of Management*, 4 (1): 589-597.

Kern, S.E. 2012. Inferential statistics, power estimates, and study design formalities continue to suppress biomedical innovation. Available from: http://pathology.jhu.edu/department/research/sk-statistical_formalities_harm_biomedical_innovation-2013.pdf Accessed on 15 June 2017.

Kim, E.A. 2007. HRD Strategies for expatriate development: Review of current strategies and potentials of expatriate mentoring, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign.

Kim, K. & Slocum, J.W. 2008. Individual differences and expatriate assignment effectiveness: The case of U.S. based Korean expatriates. *Journal of World Business*, 43 (1): 109-126.

Kim, S. & Egan, T. 2010. Establishing a formal cross-cultural mentoring organization and program. *Journal of European Industrial Training,* 35 (1): 89-105.

Kirton, G. & Greene, A.M. 2005. The dynamics of managing diversity: A critical approach. Elsevier: Oxford.

Kochan, T., Berukova, K., Ely, R., Jacson, S., Joshi, A., Jehn, K. & Thomas, D. 2003. The effects of diversity on business performance: Report of the diversity research network. *Human Resource Management*, 42 (1): 3-21.

Kolb, D.A. 1994. Experiential learning: Experience as a source of learning and development. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Publishing.

Kolb, A. & Kolb, D. 2009. The learning way: Meta-cognitive aspects of experiential learning. *Simulation Gaming*, 40: 297-327.

Kolb, D., Boyatzis, R. & Mainemelis C. 1999. Experiential learning theory: Research and new directions. *Management Learning*, 33 (1): 5-33.

Kostova, T., Roth, T. & Dacin, M.T. 2008. Institutional theory in the study of MNCs: A critique and new directions. *Academy of Management Review*, 33 (4): 994-1007.

Koteswari, V.B. & Bhattacharya, M.S. 2007. Managing expatriate stress. *Delhi Business Review*, 8 (1): 89-98.

Kothari, C.R. 2004. Research methodology – Methods and techniques. India: New Age International Publishers.

Kotter, J. P., & J. L. Heskett. 1992 Corporate Culture and Performance. New York: The Free Press.

Kraimer, M.L., Wayne, S.J. & Jaworski, R.A. 2001. Sources of support and expatriate performance: The mediating role of expatriate adjustment. *Personnel Psychology*, 54 (1): 71-99.

Kram, K.E. 1985. Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life. Glenview: Scott Foresman.

Kramar, R. 2013. Beyond strategic human resource management: Is sustainable human resource management the next approach? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 25 (8): 1069-1089.

Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. 2001. Organizational behaviour, 5th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Kumar, R. 1996. Research methodology. Melbourne: Longman Australia.

Kumar, R. 2005. Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners, 2nd ed. London: Sage Publications.

Kutlay, S. Welcoming speech, April 15, 2014, Abu Dhabi.

Lauring, J. 2013. International diversity management: Global ideals and local responses. *British Journal of Management*, 24 (2): 211-224.

Lave, J. & Wenger, E. 1991. Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

LeBaron, M. 2003. Communication tools for understanding cultural differences. Available from: http://www.beyondintractability.org/essay/communication_tools/ Accessed on 28 September 2016.

Lee, H. 2007. Factors that influence expatriate failure: An interview study. *International Journal of Management*, 24 (3): 403-413.

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. 2010. Practical research: Planning and design. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Lewis, G. 2006. The mentoring manager – Strategies for fostering talent and spreading knowledge. Johannesburg: Pitman Publishing.

Linehan, M. & Scullion, H. 2001. European female expatriate careers: Critical success factors. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 25 (8): 392-418.

Littrell, L.N., Salas, E., Hess, K.P., Paley, M. & Riedel, S. 2006. Expatriate preparation: A critical analysis of 25 years of cross-cultural training research*. Human Resource Development Review*, 5 (3): 355-388.

Luecke, R. & Ibarra, H. 2004. Coaching and mentoring. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Luthans, S. & Farner, P. 2002. Expatriate development: The use of 360-degree feedback. *Journal of Management,* 21 (10): 780-793.

Maertz, C.P., Hassan, A. & Magnusson, P. 2009. When learning is not enough: A process model of expatriate adjustment as cultural cognitive dissonance reduction. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 108: 66-78.

Mäkelä, K., Andersson, U. & Seppälä, T. 2012. Interpersonal similarity and knowledge sharing within multinational organizations. *International Business Review*, 21 (3): 439-451.

Malek, M.A., Budhwar, P. & Reiche, B.S. 2014. Sources of support and expatriation: A multiple stakeholder perspective of expatriate adjustment and performance in Malaysia. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26 (2): 324 - 352

Mannix, E. & Neale, M. 2005. What differences make a difference? The promise and reality of diverse teams in organizations. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest,* 6 (2), 31-55.

Marquardt, M.J. 2002. Building the learning organization: Mastering the five elements for corporate learning. Palo Alto: Davies-Black Press.

Maurer, R. 2013. Survey: Companies fail to train managers for overseas assignments. Available from: https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/hr-topics/global-hr/pages/fail-train-managers-overseas-assignments.aspx Accessed on 29 August 2016.

Mazrouei, H.A. & Pech, R.J. 2014. Expatriates in the UAE: Advance training eases cultural adjustments. *Journal of Business Strategy*, 35 (3): 47-54.

Mazrouei, H.A. & Pech, R.J. 2015. The expatriate as company leader in the UAE: Cultural adaptation. *Journal of Business Strategy,* 36 (1): 33-40.

McKimm, J., Jollie, C. & Hatter, M. 2007. Mentoring: Theory and practice: Preparedness to practice. *Mentoring Scheme*, 2: 1-16.

McMahon, A.M. 2010. Does workplace diversity matter? A survey of empirical studies on diversity and firm performance, 2000-09. *Journal of Diversity Management*, 5 (2): 37-48.

McNulty, Y. 2012. Being dumped in to sink or swim: An empirical study of organizational support for the trailing spouse. *Human Resource Development International,* 15 (4): 417-434.

Megginson, D. 2000. Current issues in mentoring. *Career Development International,* 5 (4): 256-260.

Megginson, D., Clutterbuck, D., Garvey, B., Stokes, P. & Garrett-Harris, R. 2006. Mentoring in action: A practical guide, vol 1, 2nd ed. London: Kogan Page.

Mercer. 2011. Worldwide Survey of International Assignment Policies and Practices. New York.

Meyer, M. & Fourie, L. 2004. Mentoring and coaching: Tools and techniques for implementation. Randburg: Knowres.

Meyer, M. & Mabaso, J. 2004. Mentoring as a way to transfer learning and accelerate empowerment. Available from: http://www.workinfo.com/free/downloads/33.htm Accessed 19 September 2015.

Mezias, J.M. & Scandura, T.A. 2005. A needs-driven approach to expatriate adjustment and career development: A multiple mentoring perspective. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 36 (1): 519-538.

McCaughey, D. & Bruning, N.S. 2005. Enhancing opportunities for expatriate job satisfaction: Human resource strategies for foreign assignment success. *Human Resource Planning*, 28 (4): 21-29.

Milkovich, G.T. & Newman, J.M. 2007. Compensation, 9th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Milliken, F. & Martins, L. 1996. Searching for common threads: Understanding the multiple effects of diversity in organizational groups. *Academy of Management Review*, 21 (2): 402-433.

Minbaeva, D.B. 2007. Knowledge transfer in multinational corporations. *Management International Review*, 47(4): 567-593.

Mondy, R.W. & Noe, R.M. 2005. Human resource management, 9th ed. USA: Pearson Education.

Morley, M., Burke, C. & Finn, G. 2004. Irish expatriates in Moscow. Exploratory evidence on aspects of adjustment. International HRM. Contemporary Issues in Europe, 3rd ed. London: Routledge.

Morley, M. & Collings, D. 2004. Contemporary debates and new directions in HRM in multinational corporations: Introduction. *International Journal of Manpower*, 25 (6): 487-499.

Mouton, J. 1996. Understanding social research. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Ngo, H.Y., Turban, D., Lau, C. & Lui, S.Y. 1998. Human resource practices and firm performance of multinational corporations: Influences of country origin. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9 (4): 632-652.

Nicholson, N. 1984. A theory of work role transitions. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 29 (2): 172-191.

Noe, R.A. 2013. Employee training and development, 6th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Noe, R.A., Hollenbeck, J.R., Gerhart, B. & Wright, P. 2011. Fundamentals of human resource management, 4th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Novinger, T. 2001. Intercultural communication. Austin: University of Texas Press.

Nunes, F.S. & Simion, C.S. 2014. Transfer of knowledge in multinational corporations (MNC's) on international projects. *Journal of Advanced Management Science*, 2 (3): 228-231.

Ong, A.S.J. & Ward, C. 2005. The construction and validation of a social support measure for sojourners. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 36 (6): 637-661.

O'Leary, Z. 2004. The essential guide to doing research. London: Sage Publications.

Oun, M.A. & Bach, C. 2014. Qualitative research method summary. *Journal of Multidisciplinary Engineering Science and Technology*, 5 (1): 252-258.

Ozbilgin, M. 2005. International human resource management, theory and practice. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Ozbilgin, M., Syed, J., Faiza, A. & Torunoglu, D. 2012. International transfer policies and practices of gender equality in employment to and among Muslim majority countries. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 19 (4): 345-369.

Packard, B.W. 2003. Web-based mentoring: Challenging traditional models to increase women's access. *Mentoring & Tutoring*, 11 (1): 53-65.

Pandey, P. & Pandey, M.M. 2015. Research methodology: Tools and techniques. Romania: Bridge Center.

Parise, M. R., & Forret, M. L. 2008. Formal mentoring programs: The relationship of program design and support to mentors' perceptions of benefits and costs. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72 (1): 225-240.

Patrick, A.H. & Kumar, R.V. 2012. Managing workplace diversity. *Issues and Challenges*, 1: 1-15. Available from: http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/2158244012444615 Accessed on 25 May 2016.

Pegg, M. 1999. The art of mentoring. *Industrial and Commercial Training,* 31 (4): 36-141.

Peiperl, M., Levy, O. & Sorell, M. 2014. Cross-border mobility of self-initiated and organizational expatriates. *International Studies of Management Organisations*, 44 (3): 44-65.

Pieters, J. 2013. IZA Research Report No. 58: Youth employment in developing countries. Available from: http://legacy.iza.org/en/webcontent/publications/reports/report_pdfs/iza_report_58.pdf Accessed on 25 May 2016.

Pines, A. & Maslach, C. 1978. Characteristics of staff burnout in mental health settings. *Hospital and Community Psychiatry*, 29 (1): 233-237.

Point, S. & Dickmann, M. 2012. An analysis of multinational corporations' official wording. *Branding International Careers*, 30: 18-31.

Pokharel, B. 2016. Triumph over failure of expatriate in an international assignments from the international human resource management perspective. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 11 (5): 310-314.

Pollock, D.C. & Van Reken, R.E. 1999. Third culture kids: The experience of growing up among worlds. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Pollock, R. 1995. A test of conceptual models depicting the developmental course of informal mentor-protégé relationships in the workplace. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 46 (2): 144-162.

Posavec, T. 2014. The influence of pre-departure training on expatriate adjustment on non-standard international assignment: The moderating effect of spouse adjustment. Slovenia: University of Ljubljana.

Price, M., Herod, R. & Burns-Green, C. 2012. Benefits challenges and trends for expatriates and internationally mobile employees. Available from: https://www.imercer.com/uploads/GM/webcasts/expatriate-benefits-webcast-120328a.pdf Accessed on 16 August 2016.

Punnett, B.J. 1997. Towards effective management of expatriate spouses. *Journal of World Business*, 23 (3): 243-257.

Purgal-Popiela, J. 2011. Adjustment of expatriates and their spouses as a challenge for international human resource management. *Journal of Intercultural Management*, 3 (1): 27-43.

Ragins, B.R., Cotton, J.L. & Miller, J.S. 2000. Marginal mentoring: The effects of type of mentor, quality of relationship, and program design on work and career attitudes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43 (6):1177-1194.

Ragins, B.R. & Kram, K.E. 2007. The roots and meaning of mentoring. The handbook of mentoring at work: Theory, research and practice. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Rakowska, A., 2006. Cultural barriers in the transfer of knowledge in global organizations. In T. Listwan & S. Witkowski (eds). *Success in human resources management. Human capital in international organizations*.

Ramani, H., Gruppen, L. & Kachur, E.K. 2006. Twelve tips for developing effective mentors. *Medical Teacher,* 28 (5): 404-408.

Ratnam, V. & Chandra, V. 1996. Sources of diversity and the challenge before human resource management in India. *International Journal Manpower*, 17 (5): 76-108.

Reynolds, A.A. 2005. An examination of the goodness-of-fit between the expatriate adjustment model and self-selecting expatriates. *Journal of Economic and Administrative Science*, 21 (2): 52-67.

Rhoades, L. & Eisenberger, R. 2002. Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (1): 698-714.

Richardson, J. & McKenna, S. 2006. Exploring relationship with home and host countries. A study of self-directed expatriates. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 13 (1): 6-22.

Rickard, K. 2004. E-mentoring and pedagogy: A useful nexus for evaluating online mentoring programs for small business? *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning,* 12 (3): 383-401.

Robertson, R. & Khondker, H.H. 1998. Discourses of globalization: Preliminary considerations. *International Sociology*, 13 (1): 25-40.

Rosethorn, H. 2012. Bernard Hodes Group. Diversity and inclusion – Fringe or fundamental? Available from: https://www.cipd.co.uk/Images/diversity-and-inclusion_2012-fringe-or-fundamental_tcm18-10844.pdf. Accessed on 7 October 2016.

Rose, B.R. & Scandura T.A. 2004. Gender differences in expected outcomes of mentoring relationships. *The Academy of Management Journal,* 37 (4): 957-971.

Rose, R.C., Ramalu, S.S. & Uli, J. 2010. Expatriate performance in international assignments: The role of cultural intelligence as dynamic intercultural competency, *International Journal of Business and Management,* 5 (8): 76-85.

Ryan, G. 2012. Persistence in expatriate academic assignments in the UAE: A case study. PhD dissertation, North Central University, Arizona.

Sakho, H. 1999. The role of expatriate managers in global economic restructuring: Some key components and restraints. *CIBS Research Papers in International Business*, No. 15-99.

Salkind, N.J. 2011. Exploring research, 7th ed. New Jersey: Pearson Education.

Sarkiunaite, I. & Rocke, D. 2015. The expatriate experience: The factors of international assignment success. *Transformations in Business & Economics*, 14(34): 20-47.

Scandura, T.A. & Williams, E.A. 2001. An investigation of the moderating effects of gender on the relationships between mentorship initiation and protégé perceptions of mentoring functions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 59 (1): 342- 363.

Scandura, T.A., Tejeda, M.J. & Werther, W.B. 1996. Perspectives on mentoring. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal,* 17 (3): 50-56.

Schein, E.H. 1992. Organizational culture and leadership, 2nd ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schulze, S. 2009. Mentoring novice researchers in higher education: A 'communities of practice' perspective. *Koers*, 74 (1): 117-137.

Schwartz, S.J., Unger, J.B., Zamboanga, B.L. & Szapocznik, J. 2010. Rethinking the concept of acculturation. *Implications for Theory and Research,* 65 (4): 237-251.

Schweyer, A. 2004. Talent management systems: Best practices in technology solutions for recruitment, retention and workforce planning. Toronto: John Wiley & Sons.

Selmer, J. 1999. Career issues and international adjustment of business expatriates. *Career Development International*, 4 (2): 77-87.

Selmer, J. 2005. Cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment in China: Western joint venture managers. *Personnel Review*, 34 (1): 68-84.

Selmer, J. & Fenner, C.R. 2009. Job factors and work outcomes of public sector expatriates. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 19 (1): 75-90.

Shaffer, M.A. & Harrison, D.A. 2001. Forgotten partners of international assignments: Development and test of a model of spouse adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 238-254.

Shaffer, M.A., Harrison, D.A. & Gilley, K.M. 1999. Dimensions, determinants, and differences in the expatriate's adjustment process. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30 (3): 557-581.

Shaffer, M.A., Harrison, D.A., Gregersen, H., Black, J.S. & Ferzandi, L.A. 2006. You can take it with you: Individual differences and expatriate effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91 (1): 109-125.

Shaules, J. 2007. Deep culture: The hidden challenges of global living. New Zealand: Reservoir Hill.

Shen, J., Chanda, A., D'Netto, B. & Monga, M. 2009. Managing diversity through human resource management: An international perspective and conceptual framework. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20 (2): 235-251.

Sherman, R., Voight, J., Tibbetts, J., Dobbins, D., Evans, A. & Weidler, D. 2000. Adult educators' guide to designing instructor mentoring. Pelavin Research Institute. Available from: https://archive.org/details/ERIC_ED454410 Accessed on 24 May 2017.

Shumsky, N.J. 1993. Keeping track of global managers. *The Human Resources Professional*, 5 (4): 6-10.

Singh, V., Bains, D. and Vinnicombe, S. 2002. Informal Mentoring as an Organisational Resource, *Long Range Planning*, 35: 389-405.

Sippola, A. & Smale, A. 2007. The global integration of diversity management: A longitudinal case study. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18 (11): 1895-1916.

Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM). 2008. 2007 state of workplace diversity management. Available from: https://www.shrm.org/about-shrm/news-about-shrm/Documents/The%20State%20of%20Diversity%20Managment%20surevey%20report.pdf Accessed on 16 August 2016.

Stahl, G.K., Chua C.H., Caligiuri, P., Cerdin, J.L. & Taniguchi, M. 2009. Predictors of turnover intentions in learning-driven and demand-driven international assignments: The role of repatriation concerns, satisfaction with company support, and perceived career advancement opportunities. *Human Resource Management*, 48 (1): 89-109.

Statistical Yearbook of Abu Dhabi. 2015. Available from: file:///C:/Users/Tommy/Desktop/CUT%20Masters/Research%20Proposals/Research%20Proposal%20Rev%2012/SYB%202015%20labour%20structure%20En.pdf Accessed 15 January 2016.

Sturgeon, T.J. 2013. Global value chains and economic globalization – Towards a new measurement framework. Available from: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/54610/4463793/Sturgeon-report-Eurostat Accessed 11 July 2015.

Sullivan, P. 2015. How to ensure your expat leaders transition successfully. A guide for human resource leaders. Available from: http://osullivanfield.com/expat-transitions/successful-expats-a-guide-for-hr/ Accessed 04 June 2016.

Suutari, V. & Brewster, C. 2001. Expatriate management practices and perceived relevance. *Personnel Review*, 30 (1): 554-577.

Tabroon, A., Macaulay, S. & Cook, S. 1997. Making mentoring work. *Training for Quality*, 5 (1): 6-9.

Taglieber, J. 2001. Mentoring as a factor of organisational attractiveness amongst South African graduates. Master’s dissertation, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth, South Africa.

Takeuchi, R., Shay, J.P. & Li, J. 2008. When does decision autonomy increase expatriate managers' adjustment? An empirical test. *Academy of Management Journal*, 51 (1): 45-60.

Tanake, T., Takai, J., Kohyama, T., Fujihara, T. & Minami, H. 1997. Effects of social networks on cross-cultural adjustment. *Japanese Psychological Research*, 39 (1): 12-24.

Teddlie, C. & Tashakkori, A. 2009. Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences. Los Angeles: Sage.

Tharenou, P. 2008. Disruptive decisions to leave home: Gender and family differences in expatriation choices. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 105 (2): 183-200.

Tharenou, P. & Caulfield, N. 2010. Will I stay or will I go? Explaining repatriation by self-initiated expatriates. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53 (5): 1009-1028.

The Economist. 2005. Women in business. The conundrum of the glass ceiling. Why are women so persistently absent from top corporate jobs? 21 July. Available from: http://www.economist.com/node/4197626 Accessed 16 April 2016.

Thorne, C. 2011. The impact of educational reforms on the work of the school principal in the United Arab Emirates. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 39: 172-185.

Toh, S.M. & Denisi, A. S. 2005. A local perspective to expatriates success. *Academy of Management Executive*, 19 (1): 132-146.

Toit, L. & Jackson, L. 2014. Personality and work success among expatriate educational leaders in the United Arab Emirates. *Middle Eastern & African Journal of Educational Research*, 7 (1): 58-73.

Tregaskis, O., Edwards, T., Edwards, P., Ferner, A. & Marginson, P. 2010. Transnational learning structures in multinational firms. *Human Relations*, 63 (4): 471-499.

Trompenaars, F. & Hampden-Turner, C.T. 2004. Managing people across cultures. UK: Oxford.

Tung, R.L. 1982. Selection and training procedures of U.S., European, and Japanese multinationals. *California Management Review*, 25 (1): 57-71.

Tungli, Z. & Peiperl, M. 2009. Expatriate practices in Germany, Japanese, U.K. and U.S. multinational companies: A comparative survey of changes. *Human Resource Management*, 48 (1): 153-171.

Umaru, A., Hamidu, A.A. & Musa, S. 2013. Globalization and its impact on the performance of the Nigerian economy. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business*, 8 (2): 1-16.

United Nations (UN). 2010. World investment report: Investing in a low carbon economy. New York: United Nations.

Van den Born, P & Peltokorpi, V. 2010. Language policies and communication in multinational companies. *Journal of Business Communication,* 47 (2): 97-118.

Van der Heijden, J.A.V., Van Engen, M.L. & Paauwe, J. 2009. Expatriate career support: Predicting expatriate turnover and performance. *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 20 (4): 831-845.

Van Vliet, V. 2014. Organizational culture model by Edgar Schein. Available from: http://www.toolshero.com/leadership/organizational-culture-model-schein/ Accessed on 25 November 2016.

Verma, A. & Walsworth, S. 2007. Globalization, human resource practices and innovation: Recent evidence from the Canadian workplace and employee survey. *Industrial Relations,* 46 (2): 222-240.

Vögel, A.J. 2006. Guidelines for the preparation of expatriates on international assignments in South African Multinational Enterprises. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria.

Vögel, A.J. & Van Vuuren J.J. 2008. Factors influencing the preparation, support, and training of South African expatriates. *Acta Commercii*, 8 (1): 80-89.

Vygotsky, L. 1978. Interaction between learning and social development: Mind and society. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Waldeck, J.H., Orrego, V.O., Plax, T.G. & Kearney, P. 1997. Graduate student/faculty mentoring relationships: Who gets mentored, how it happens, and to what end. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Communication Association, 19-23 November, Chicago, IL.

Wanberg, C.R., Welsh, E.T. & Hezlett, S. 2003. Mentoring research: A review and dynamic process model. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management,* 22: 39-124.

Wang, M. & Takeuchi, R. 2007. The role of goal orientation during expatriation: A cross-sectional and longitudinal investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93 (5): 1437-1445.

Wang, X. & Kanungo, R. N. 2004. Nationality, social network and psychological well-being: Expatriates in China. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15 (4): 775-793.

Weigand, R.A. 2007. Organizational diversity, profits and returns in U.S. firms. *Problems and Perspectives in Management,* 5 (3): 69-83.

Welmond, M. 2002. Globalization viewed form the periphery: The dynamics of teacher identity in the Republic of Benin. *Comparative Education Review,* 46 (1): 28.

Welsh, S. 2004. Mentoring the future: A guide to building mentor programs that work. Toronto: Global Book Publisher.

Wentling, R.M. & Palma-Rivas, N. 2000. Current status of diversity initiatives in selected multinational corporations. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 11 (1): 35-60.

Werner, J.M. & DeSimone, R.L. 2012. Human resource development, 6th ed. USA: Mason.

Wilkinson, D. & Birmingham, P. 2003. Using research instruments: A guide for researchers. London: Routledge Falmer.

Williams, K. & O'Reilly, C.A. 1998. Demography and diversity in organization. A review of 40 years of research. *Research in Organizational Behavior,* 20 (1): 70-140.

Wils, T., Saba, T., Waxin, M.F. & Labelle, C. 2011. Intergenerational and intercultural differences in work values in Quebec and the United Arab Emirates, 66 (3): 445-469. Available from: http://www.riir.ulaval.ca/riir/sites/riir.ulaval.ca/files/2011_66-3_7.pdf Accessed on 26 March 2017.

World Investment Report. 2015. United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. New York and Geneva: United Nations. Available from: http://unctad.org/en/PublicationsLibrary/wir2015_en.pdf Accessed on 14 April 2015.

Wright, P.C., Geroy, G.D. & Baker, N. 1996. Managing expatriates: A system approach. *Management Decision*, 34 (10): 32-42.

Wright, P.M. & McMahan, G.C. 1992. Theoretical perspective for strategic human resource management. *Journal of Management,* 18 (2): 295-320.

Würtz, E. 2005. A cross-cultural analysis of websites from high-context cultures and low context cultures. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 11 (1), article 13.

Yu, T., Cannella Jr., M. & Albert, A. 2009. Rivalry deterrence in international markets: Contingencies governing the mutual forbearance hypothesis. *Academy of Management Journal,* 52 (1): 127-147.

Zachary, L. 2005. Creating a mentoring culture: The organizations guide. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Zhang, M. & Fan, D. 2014. Expatriate skills training strategies of Chinese multinationals operating in Australia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 52 (1): 60-76.

Zhu, W., Luthans, F., Chew, I.K.H. & Li, C. 2006. Potential expats in Singaporean organizations. *The Journal of Management Development*, 25 (8): 763-776.

Zhuanga, W.L., Wu, M. & Wen, S.L. 2013. Relationship of mentoring functions to expatriate adjustments: Comparing home country mentorship and host country mentorship. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24 (1): 35-49.

ANNEXURE A: QUESTIONNAIRE

Central University of Technology, Free State

This questionnaire relates to your experiences, as an expatriate, in adapting to your new work and personal environment. The completion of the questionnaire is anonymous and your willingness to assist is highly appreciated.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

Please indicate your response by making a circle.

1. Please provide your country of origin…………………………………………

2. Please indicate your age……………………………………

3. Please indicate your gender.

1.	Male
2.	Female

4. Indicate your position with your current employer:

1.	Entry level (Grade 7 – 9)
2.	Artisan (Grade 10 – 11)
3.	Supervisor (Grade 12 – 14)
4.	Specialist / Senior engineer / Junior management (Grade 15)
5.	Middle management (Grade 16 – 17)
6.	Senior management (Grade 18 – 20)

5. For how many years have you been employed as an expatriate by your current employer?

1.	2 to 5 years
2.	6 to 10 years
3.	More than 10 years

SECTION B: WORK-RELATED ADJUSTMENTS

6. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.1	I was well prepared on what to expect prior to arriving in my new work environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.2	I was well informed of my employer's expectations before I departed from my home country.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.3	The selection process was fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.4	I was provided with adequate training to fulfil my new employment roles and responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.5	I was equipped with the necessary tools to enable me to perform my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.6	My line manager was very helpful in assisting me to adjust to the new environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.7	I received sufficient performance feedback from my line manager.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.8	Good work is being recognised in my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.9	I am experiencing job satisfaction in my new role.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.10	Workforce diversity is well managed within my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.11	My new colleagues were welcoming and helpful.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.12	Company information (like policies and procedures) is easily accessible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.13	I often feel overloaded with a heavy workload.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.14	I have received continuous social support from my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.15	I have received continuous social support from my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.16	I feel secure in my position at the current organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.17	I have often considered resigning from my current employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.18	My organisation has repatriation support functions in place.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.19	Overall, I feel satisfied with the level of support my organisation provided me in adjusting to my new working environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION C: PERSONAL-LEVEL ADJUSTMENTS

7. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.1	My family and I received cultural training pertaining to the new environment before leaving our home country.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.2	The selecting processes used by my organisation ensured a suitable match.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.3	My employer managed all logistical arrangements (e.g. flights and transportation) effectively.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.4	I was provided intermediate accommodation when we arrived in the UAE.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.5	I received assistance with securing a permanent residence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.6	I received assistance with furniture shipment from our home country.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.7	My employer provided Arabic language tuition for my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.8	My employer assisted with schooling arrangements for my children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.9	My employer assisted with obtaining work permits.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.10	My employer provided assistance with employment opportunities for my spouse/partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.11	I was supplied with tax advice and guidance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.12	My family was supported with a social welfare programme.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.13	My employer supplied me with a social buddy to assist with the adaptation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.14	I am experiencing a good work-life balance within my current organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.15	Overall, I am satisfied with the assistance my employer provided my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION D: DEVELOPMENT OF A NEW IDENTITY

8. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
8.1	I have developed additional skills to improve my work performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.2	I have gained new knowledge pertaining to my job and profession.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.3	I have gained new cultural knowledge and understanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.4	I have improved my interpersonal skills (such as listening skills, communication skills, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.5	I have improved my ability to manage my emotions (such as anxiety, anger, depression, shame, guilt, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.6	I am a more independent person than when I first started at my current employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.7	I have improved my ability to think of innovative ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.8	I have developed mature interpersonal relations in terms of tolerance and acceptance of personal differences.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.9	I have gained more knowledge about my personal stability and integration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.10	I have discovered a better understanding of my purpose in the work environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.11	I have improved my confidence levels since I started working at my current employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you for your participation!

ANNEXURE B: EXPATRIATE MENTORING PLAN FOR GASCO

GASCO – Expatriate Mentoring Plan

Section 1: Expatriate GASCO employee (mentee) details

Required information	Mentee response
Full names	
Employee number	
Country of origin	
Religion	
Age	
Gender	
Marital status	
Department	
Previous department in GASCO	
Employment level	
Job title	
Line manager	
Employment period	
Previous expatriate experience *(Yes / No)*	
If yes, indicate years	
Did your family relocate to Abu Dhabi?	
Number of dependents	
***Please attach complete CV**	

Section 2: SMART mentoring objectives

#	**SMART mentoring objectives** *To be aligned with PDP and job specifics*
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	

Section 3: Appointed mentor

Primary mentor

Names	Employee number	Reasoning (Taking mentee details in Section 1 in consideration)

Secondary mentor *(Only to serve as support function during absence of primary mentor)*

Names	Employee number	Reasoning (Taking mentee details in Section 1 in consideration)

Section 4: Additional mentoring committee members

Names	Employee number	Reasoning
		Mentee direct line manager
		Mentee 2nd line manager *(2 levels up)*

Section 5: Mentee career goals

#	**Short-term career goals** *(6 months)*
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

#	**Medium-term career goals** *(2 years)*
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

#	**Long-term career goals** *(5 years)*
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

Section 6: Mentoring requirements to support work-related adjustments

#	Work-related mentoring needs	Required ✓
1	To be informed of the employer's expectations.	
2	To attend formal training courses.	
3	To be equipped with the necessary tools to enable performance.	
4	To be formally introduced to all staff and co-workers.	
5	To receive sufficient performance feedback from the line managers to be recorded on a monthly basis for the initial six months of employment. Thereafter quarterly performance feedback needs to be recorded.	
6	To be involved in teambuilding with the new immediate colleagues within first month of joining.	
7	To receive all company information (such as policies and procedures).	
8	Line managers need to monitor initial workload management.	

Section 7: Mentoring needs to support personal/family-related adjustment

#	Family-related mentoring needs	Required ✓	Not required X
1	To receive cultural training pertaining to the new environment.		
2	Assistance to secure a permanent residence upon receiving temporary accommodation.		
3	Furniture shipment from home country.		
4	Arabic language tuition.		
5	Schooling arrangements for the children.		
6	Employment opportunities for spouses/partners.		
7	To be enrolled in social welfare programme.		
8	Social buddy system to assist with the adaptation.		

Section 8: Publish final development plan with target dates
**This plan must also include the quarterly mentoring committee meetings*

#	Item description	Target date	Achieved	Completion date
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				

Section 9: Formal evaluation of mentor

Mentor's name: ______________________
Mentor employee number: ______________________
Mentee name: ______________________
Mentee employee number: ______________________

Mentee signature: ______________________
Date: ______________________

#	Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4
1	The mentor was accessible and available.				
2	The mentor communicated regularly with me.				
3	The mentor assisted me in meeting my employer's expectations.				
4	My mentor assisted me with my career queries.				
5	My mentor ensured I was equipped with the necessary tools to perform my job.				
6	My mentor assisted me in achieving my current career goals.				
7	My mentor provided constructive feedback.				
8	My mentor is aware of development offerings and identified valuable opportunities to improve my competency.				
9	My mentor assisted with valuable information for me and my family to culturally adjust in Abu Dhabi.				
10	My mentor assisted with my family's adjustment in Abu Dhabi.				
11	My mentor demonstrated a reasonable concern towards me.				
12	My mentor's behaviour is an example of professionalism.				
14	I learned at least one important lesson about my career from my mentor.				
15	I recommend my mentor for future professional or personal development activities.				
16	Overall, my mentor was an asset and a benefit to me and my family.				
17	I anticipate an extended future relationship with my mentor.				

Comments:

Section 10: Formal evaluation of mentee

Mentee name: ______________________________
Mentee employee number: ______________________________
Mentor name: ______________________________
Mentor employee number: ______________________________

Mentor signature: ______________________________
Date: ______________________________

#	Questions	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Agree 3	Strongly Agree 4
1	The mentee was willing to learn.				
2	The mentee communicated regularly with me.				
3	The mentee respected my time and professional responsibilities.				
4	The mentee made use of feedback provided throughout the mentoring relationship.				
5	The mentee demonstrated a reasonable interest/concern towards me in my quest to offer assistance.				
6	The mentee's behaviour and attitude were generally professional and courteous.				
7	I recommend the mentee for further professional or personal development activities.				
8	Overall, my mentee participated in most mentoring activities.				
9	The mentee completed his/her assignments on the set target dates.				
10	I anticipate an extended future relationship with the mentee.				

Comments:

Section 11: Formal evaluation of mentee's line manager

Line manager name: ______________________________
Line manager employee number: ______________________________
Mentee name: ______________________________
Mentee employee number: ______________________________

Mentee signature: ______________________________
Date: ______________________________

#	Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4
1	The line manager was accessible and available.				
2	The line manager communicated regularly with me.				
3	The line manager ensured I know what is expected of me.				
4	My line manager assisted me with my career queries.				
5	My line manager ensured I was equipped with the necessary tools to perform my job.				
6	My line manager assisted me in achieving my current career goals.				
7	My line manager provided constructive feedback.				
8	My line manager's behaviour is an example of professionalism.				
9	My line manager introduced me to all members of our team and other departments.				
10	My line manager ensures work is distributed equally within the team.				
11	My line manager treats everybody equally fair in our department.				
12	Overall, I am satisfied with the support I received from my line manager.				

Comments:

Section 12: Remedial actions for mentee

#	Remedial Actions	Target Date
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		

Section 13: Remedial actions for mentor

#	Remedial Actions	Target Date
1		
2		
3		
4		

Section 14: Remedial actions for line manager

#	Remedial Actions	Target Date
1		
2		
3		
4		

Section 15: Signatures

Role player	Names	Employee number	Date	Signature
Mentee				
Primary mentor				
Secondary mentor				
Mentee line manager				
Mentee 2nd line manager				
Mentor line manager				