

**Managing Knowledge Transfer: Two Cases of Knowledge
Transfer in Saudi Arabia and Qatar**

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Roy Lee

Innovation, Management and Policy

Alliance Manchester Business School

The University of Manchester

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ABBREVIATIONS

AC:	Absorptive Capacity
CAQDAS:	Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis
CEO:	Chief Executive Officer
DBA:	Doctorate of Business Administration
E&I:	Energy and Industry
GCC:	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
HR:	Human Resource
KBV:	Knowledge Based View
KM:	Knowledge Mangement
KSA:	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
KT:	Knowledge Transfer
LNG:	Liquid Natural Gas
LTS:	Long Term Strategy
MNC:	Multinational Company
NDS:	National Development Strategy
OL:	Organisational Learning
PCP:	Personal Carerr Plan
PDP:	Personal Development Plan
PhD:	Doctor of Philosophy
PNG:	Persona Non Grata
QNV:	Qatar National Vision
RBV:	Resource Based View
ROI:	Return on Investment
RSAF:	Royal Saudi Air Force
UAE:	United Arab Emiates
UK:	United Kingdom
US:	United States
USD:	United State Dollar

DEFINITIONS

Expatriate	A Western manager living outside their own native country with or without permanent residency rights.
Knowledge Transfer	The focussed process through which on individual sends and another individual receives knowledge.
Localisation	A state policy of replacing Expatriates with qualified National labour.
National	A national is a citizen of the GCC country by birth or naturalisation.

ABSTRACT

The University of Manchester
Roy Lee
Degree of Doctor of Business Administration - DBA

Managing Knowledge Transfer: Two Cases of Knowledge Transfer in Saudi Arabia and Qatar

2017

This Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) thesis is about identifying the key factors which affect knowledge transfer between individuals in private sector companies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. A DBA differs from a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in its application to live issues rather than the mainly theoretical academic approach in the PhD; is normally business based; and has the potential to make improvement to practice. It is widely recognised that knowledge transfer is fundamental to organisational success and in providing a source of strategic competitive advantage. Middle East countries offer Western businesses growth potential but it is often associated with Localisation of jobs. Successful knowledge transfer could be an important differentiator in achieving Localisation.

The aim of this exploratory study was to investigate knowledge transfer between Western Expatriates and Nationals to provide an understanding of the strategic context; to identify the individual key factors involved; to create practitioner guidelines; and to contribute to the academic literature. A qualitative field study, adopting multiple case research design, was used to investigate one company in Saudi Arabia and 2 companies in Qatar. Semi-structured interviews with 31 individuals, based on an existing conceptual framework, were the primary source of data. Direct observation and documentary evidence were secondary sources of data. This study appears to be the first to investigate and compare Expatriate and National knowledge transfer experience in two GCC countries.

The main findings were that individual knowledge transfer was being undertaken in the strategic context of Saudisation and Qatarisation. Like other studies, organisational culture and leadership positively and negatively affected knowledge transfer. The positive motivators for Nationals appear to be money, recognition, ambition and self-fulfilment. Their negative motivators seem to be a sense of entitlement and under-confidence. For Expatriates, positive motivators were largely absent whilst a fear of conflict and job insecurity were key negative factors. Expatriate job insecurity led to a Deter-Defer-Delay strategy for knowledge hiding which extends the literature of this emerging concept. Mutual cultural stereotyping also appears to inhibit individual knowledge transfer.

The overall practitioner conclusion is that companies should consider how to demonstrate commitment to Localisation through locally adapted policies and leaders should provide commitment and time for knowledge transfer. Nationals need to be selected with values aligned to the company and expectations managed. Expatriates need to be selected and trained to be more culturally aware; have more job security and more organisational support. Future research into Expatriate Deter-Defer-Delay strategies and the testing of the revised conceptual framework, on a longitudinal basis, in other GCC countries, is recommended.

DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in the thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.

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- My company for sponsoring this research.

DEDICATION

This Doctorate of Business Administration thesis is dedicated to my wife, Sue, and children: Matthew, Daniel and Rachel.

1. CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

One trillion...

...United States Dollars (USD) (about £689 billion) is the estimate of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) defence spending opportunity in the next 10 years (ATKearney, 2013).

Two trillion...

...revenue passenger kilometres (each kilometre a paying passenger flies) per year is the estimate of Middle East civil airline traffic by 2034; with a £620 million market for over 3,300 aircraft (Boeing (2016a); Leahy (2016)).

These are large, attractive business opportunities for aerospace and defence companies such as the one sponsoring this Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) research. A DBA differs from a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) “in the former’s use of current knowledge and its application to live issues as the basis for the research, rather than the mainly theoretical academic approach in the PhD, and is normally business based” (Manchester, 2016:8). The University of Manchester requires that this thesis should make an original contribution to knowledge “which will also be relevant to a business, government or not-for-profit organisation, and have the potential to make significant improvement to practices” (Manchester, 2016:8).

My sponsor is a multinational company (MNC), referred to hereafter as Aerospace MNC, which provides aerospace, defence and security goods and services to GCC countries. It is a private sector employer in several GCC countries and is seeking to grow its market share throughout the region. However, one of the challenges it faces is the recent greater focus in the GCC on industrialisation of work and the Localisation of high skilled jobs to create youth employment opportunities (Jovovic (2013); Anderson (2014); Dehoff et al. (2014)). Localisation is defined here as a state policy of replacing Expatriates with qualified National labour. In this research, Expatriates are defined as Western managers living outside their own native country

with or without permanent residency rights. Nationals are defined as a citizen of the GCC country by birth or naturalisation.

An increasing demand for Localisation in the GCC presents a business problem for Western aerospace and defence companies: How do they successfully deliver Localisation to win new business? One of the possible answers is to transfer the technical and management knowledge required to undertake complex production processes and deliver support services into local companies. But to do so requires experienced personnel to share practical skills and know-how with inexperienced locals. This, in turn, leads to the question: What are the factors which affect knowledge transfer (KT) between Expatriates and Nationals in GCC countries?

This study seeks an answer to that question through exploratory research of KT in three different companies, in two different industries, in two GCC countries: Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Exploratory research is appropriate because I am investigating a new problem in a region where little previous research has been done and I am seeking to answer a “what” question (Yin, 2009). Its advantages are: flexibility and adaptability to the emerging findings and requiring limited research resources. However, it is also recognised that exploratory research could be perceived as having a lack of rigour with its openness to bias and small sample sizes. Nevertheless, as a practitioner-researcher, exploratory research is suitable for me and my sponsoring company’s purpose of better understanding areas for improving KT practice in the GCC.

1.2. Practitioner-Researcher

As a practitioner, I have spent considerable time in the GCC (including both Saudi Arabia and Qatar) supporting industrialisation and pursuing aerospace sales opportunities. From experience, my company and others are not always successful in delivering industrialisation and Localisation of jobs because of company policies and practices, the people involved in the process and the innate cultural differences. If companies are to be successful in GCC Localisation and achieve sales growth they need to improve their practice. My motivation for undertaking this research was to obtain a deeper understanding of the factors which affect KT in the GCC to help solve a contemporary business problem; provide professional development; and

satisfy my personal curiosity. This was done in the role as a reflective, practitioner-researcher.

A practitioner is someone who is an expert in their field. A reflective practitioner is someone who has a questioning approach; one who consciously reflects and analyses their actions from an observer perspective; draws upon theory; and relates it to practice as part of a process of learning, change and improvement (Scaife (2014); Schon (1984)). The process includes: focussing on and involving practice; linking between experiences, ideas from different fields, theories, literature and research; including any and all of people's behaviours, values, attitudes, and the social and cultural context (Scaife, 2014). Reflective practitioners function in professional situations, in my case the complex aerospace and defence sector.

The complexity of aerospace and defence arises not only from its highly technical equipment but also its global, regulatory and political nature. In this environment there is always a need for practitioners to learn new skills and find new ways to act independent of established policies and processes to gain an advantage. One way to achieve this is to build upon being a reflective practitioner to become a practitioner-researcher. A practitioner-researcher is different from an academic researcher in that a practitioner-researcher is an 'insider' with professional, process, personal and value-based knowledge; the research is often looking into their own or their colleagues' practices; and the research is about improvement (Fox et al. (2007); McGhee et al. (2007); Reed and Procter (1995)).

However, being an insider can raise questions about objectivity, distance and whether practitioner-researchers can really produce good research. One response could be to ignore or fail to reveal insider knowledge. But, that would be unethical and counterproductive, especially as the purpose of undertaking this research is to improve my company's practice and develop myself as a reflective practitioner. Embracing the view of Reed and Procter (1995:5) that "Practitioner Researchers are people who are part of the world that they are researching in a way that an academic researcher cannot be" whilst recognising the challenges of practitioner-research has been crucial to this study. As a reflective practitioner-researcher I have tried to be constantly aware of the impact of myself (and my background) upon the research process. I have also had to recognise and deal with the constraints of practitioner

research such as: complex inter-personal demands; part-time research and full-time job; organisational politics, sensitivities and controversial perspectives (Dadds (1998); Robson (2011)).

Organisational politics and sensitivities had an impact on this research with non-disclosure agreements requiring data anonymity, the thesis to be embargoed and publication to be restricted. These limitations could lead to the findings to be seen as ‘weak’ research from a purist perspective, but as Reed and Procter (1995:27) observe this can be countered by: “adopting a committed stance towards *improving* practice, from the outset of the research” and the strength of practitioner-research lying in “the integration of research with practice”.

This study will be relevant to practitioners in Aerospace MNC and other aerospace and defence companies, by providing a greater understanding of individual KT in the GCC and guidelines on such topics as:

- a) Organisational responses to the GCC context and Localisation;
- b) Leadership actions to facilitate KT between Expatriates and Nationals;
- c) Selecting, encouraging and supporting Nationals to participate in KT;
- d) Selecting, encouraging and supporting Expatriates to participate in KT;
- e) Recognising and addressing Expatriate fear of losing their job and adopting deter-defer-delay KT avoidance strategies.

Guideline is defined here as “a general rule, principle, or piece of advice” (OED, 2017) as opposed to mandatory policy or procedure.

In addition to benefitting practitioners, the research will also be relevant to academics by providing:

- a) Confirmation of the existing KT literature on the importance of organisational culture, leadership commitment, the motivations of the sender and receiver, and their relationships; but in a GCC context.
- b) Extension of the emerging literature on knowledge hiding and identification of Expatriate deter-defer-delay KT strategies.
- c) A practitioner-researcher led field study which contextualises KT in two case studies and between cultural different individuals.

- d) A revised conceptual framework for future research into KT at the individual level in different international contexts.

1.3. Business Context

The importance of intra-organisational KT to achieve higher sales, improve profitability and strategic competitive advantage (SCA) is well understood in the academic literature (Barney et al. (2011), Colbert (2004), Wan et al. (2011)). However, this practitioner-focussed research was positioned to study the KT factors between Expatriates and Nationals to meet Localisation commitments rather than directly achieve higher sales or profitability. Expatriates can range from construction workers, labourers, and domestic workers at the bottom of the workforce to technicians, globally mobile executives and entrepreneurs at the top. They are not a unified social group with a common identity and shared interests (Punshi and Jones, 2016).

Through improved understanding of the factors which affect Expatriate to National KT in the GCC, Western aerospace and defence companies will be better placed to develop their strategies, demonstrate their industrialisation commitment, deliver on their Localisation promises and thereby increase their competitive advantage in winning and growing their businesses in these highly lucrative markets. For Aerospace MNC it will provide a better understanding of the KT factors experienced in one market (Saudi Arabia) and how they might differ in a new market within which they are trying to grow sales (Qatar). The strategic contexts of Saudi Arabia and Qatar will be discussed in Chapters Five and Six respectively.

1.3.1 Gulf Cooperation Council

This research centres on two GCC member countries in the Middle East. The Middle East is a broad region without prescribed borders but describes a broader historical and cultural area (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2016). Within the Middle East, the GCC consists of: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Qatar and United Arab Emirates (UAE). It is a regional political cooperation organisation of countries occupying part of the Arabian Peninsula which have similar history, environment, language, culture, economic and political systems based on Islamic beliefs.

GCC economies rely heavily on oil and gas; they have a rapidly growing and well educated youth population; and they rely heavily on Expatriate labour, predominantly low level workers but also white collar management (Alhejji and Garavan (2016); Sikimic (2016)). Expatriate proportions of GCC national populations range from 32% in Saudi Arabia to 87% in Qatar and 89% in the UAE (Figure 1-1). However, there is an increasing focus on Localisation and KT in the GCC to provide high skilled, private sector jobs for highly educated youths, to diversify away an oil based economy and to reduce reliance on Expatriates (Anderson (2014); Dehoff et al. (2014); Jovovic (2013)).

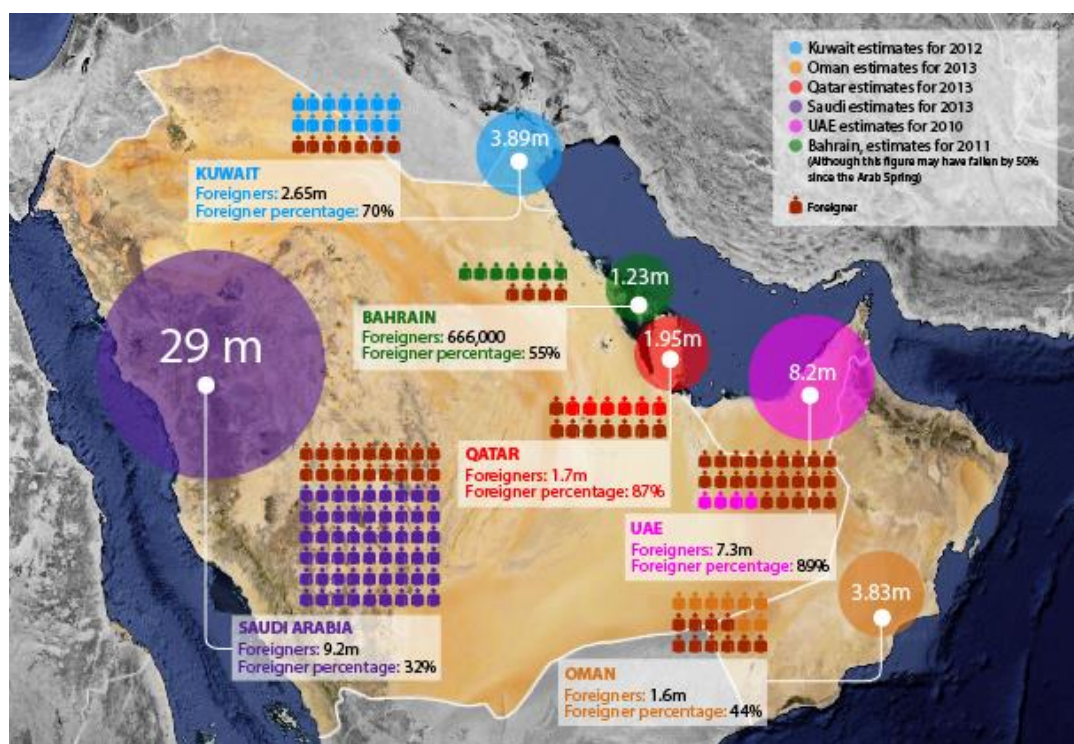


Figure 1-1. GCC Expatriate Populations (Sikimic, 2016)

GCC diversification is intended to create private sector jobs, increase sustainable growth and establish a non-oil economy. Each GCC country is implementing national development plans with a view towards improving education, developing new industries and creating services that can employ high-skilled labour (Callen et al. (2014); Galanou and Farrag (2015); IEA (2015); IEA (2016)). Creating employment opportunities through industrialisation, Localisation and growing the knowledge sector are particularly important for GCC countries. In participating in

these initiatives, aerospace and defence companies need to develop strategies, policies and competencies in KT. This research is focussed on one of the elements of GCC Localisation: KT. Understanding how to create, sell and deliver successful Localisation packages is vital for aerospace and defence practitioners if they are to be successful in the lucrative GCC.

1.3.2 The Business Opportunity

In the next 20 years it is estimated that the GCC has a market worth £620 million for over 3,300 civil aircraft (Boeing, 2016a). In the defence sector it has been estimated that the total spending will be £730 billion over the next 5 years (IHS, 2014). Similarly, ATKearney estimate that between 2013 and 2025, GCC countries will spend about £800 billion on defence and with a 35% industrialisation requirement that would mean £84 billion reinvested in the region, creating 280,000 advanced jobs (ATKearney, 2013). For the purpose of this study, due to sponsoring company focus, Saudi Arabia and Qatar were selected as the two GCC countries in which to research KT in support of industrialisation and Localisation. Both programmes have changed significantly in recent years.

In the past, aerospace and defence companies satisfied industrialisation in the GCC through offset. In Europe offset agreements are largely prohibited but in the GCC they are a cornerstone of national policy. Countries generally have several reasons for imposing offset or industrialisation requirements, sometimes to compensate for their own national lost industrial opportunity but mostly to achieve something they would otherwise have been unable to obtain such as: acquiring new technologies and production capabilities; economic diversification; new skills and knowledge; employment creation or new capability (ATKearney (2013); Markowski and Hall (2014)). However, to accrue the apparent benefit of industrialisation, countries often have to pay a higher price than an “off-the-shelf” purchase and there is little evidence the policy creates sustainable economic development or employment (Brauer and Dunne (2005), Josefchak and Mantin (2013), Matthews (2014)). Such arrangements have also been controversial (fraught relationships, conflicting priorities, higher price, and corruption (including United Kingdom (UK) Serious Fraud Office investigations)) and their effectiveness has been difficult to prove (Matthews (2014); Markowski and Hall (2014)).

Whilst the term offset is a term generally applied to defence contracts, it equally applies to the civil aerospace sector, where the term industrialisation is used to reflect use of domestic content or licensing of technology. For the purposes of this research, the more generic term 'Industrialisation' will be used to describe offset or industrial participation packages in either the civil or defence sectors.

To date, major GCC industrialisation programs have focused on indirect industrialisation, mainly through off-the-shelf purchases, capital investments, and joint ventures in sectors such as electronics, pharmaceuticals, petrochemicals, healthcare, education, shipbuilding, and aquaculture. Exporting and importing governments take industrialisation seriously and it can open up difficult to access markets (Dehoff et al., 2014) and all GCC countries have ambitious industrialisation aspirations (PWC, 2012). As an example, according to Saudi Arabia's Economic Offset Program by the end of 2006, 36 companies had been established, often on a 50-50 joint venture basis between foreign companies and Saudi investors, with the creation of 6,500 jobs and a total capitalisation of £3 billion as a result of direct industrialisation. However, that is compared to Saudi Arabian military capital expenditures of about £100 billion between 1988 and 2006 (Al-Ghairy and Hooper (2014); ATKearney (2013); Oxford_Business_Group (2016b)).

1.4. Literature

This practitioner-researcher study was undertaken within the field of KM as the construct to be investigated was KT. KM is not universally accepted as an academic discipline and is considered by many authors to multi-disciplinary in nature. This presents a challenge for a practitioner-researcher to clearly define and position the research; to describe the project boundaries, main theories and conceptual frameworks; and to develop a feasible and deliverable management research project (Creswell (2014); Serenko and Dumay (2015)). In recognition of the broad multi-disciplinary nature of the field, it was important at the outset to define the boundaries of the research.

As the aim of the project was to study the factors which affect KT between Expatriates and Nationals, within the context of Localisation in Saudi Arabia and Qatar, the main academic disciplines for this research were: strategic management to explain the purpose for transferring knowledge (the what) and organisational

learning (OL) to explain the process of transferring knowledge (the how). However, as the research was exploratory, further literature was subsequently required to underpin and explain the emerging findings, this was in the form of cultural and motivation within the construct of OL. This concept-centric literature review logic flow is shown in Figure 1-2 and presented in Chapters Two and Chapter Three.

As a reflective practitioner-researcher, I initially approached the academic literature to discover what research and theories may help improve KT practices. It was disappointing. It appears most KT studies have been carried at an inter-organisational level in the 'West' (United States, United Kingdom, Australia, Canada) and more latterly in Asia (China, Malaysia, Singapore, South Korea) with few in the GCC (Galanou and Farrag (2015); Jensen and Szulanski (2004); Ribiere and Zhang (2010); Wang and Noe (2010)). Furthermore, management in the Arab world has also received very little attention in the literature (Berger et al. (2015); Iles et al. (2012)).

The few studies that have been undertaken into GCC KT have been mainly undertaken by local researchers and published in lower rated journals (Alatawi et al. (2012); Seba et al. (2012)). Whilst they have addressed the factors of KT, most research has been focussed on national or company policy and processes. Little of the GCC KT literature addresses the individuals, the motivations of the Expatriates and Nationals, the organisational or cultural context or how leadership may affect the outcome of KT. Therefore, there was a clear need to undertake research to gain the understanding to answer my business problem and improve practice. To do this I sought an appropriate research methodology, one which was practice focussed, field-based and could assess the individual motivations of Expatriates and Nationals.

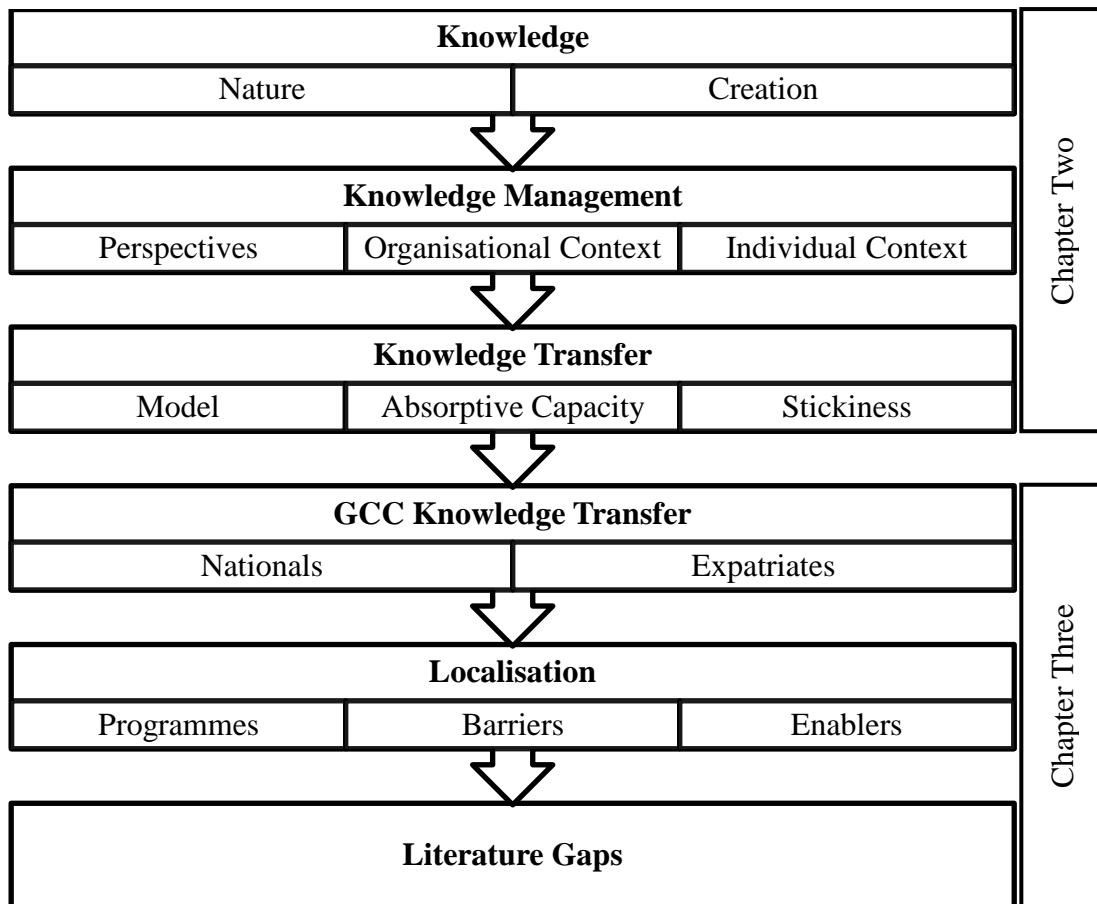


Figure 1-2. Literature Review Logic Flow

1.5. Research

1.5.1 Research Focus

The focus of this KT research is at the individual as opposed to the organisational level. However, as Figure 1-3 shows the individual level (micro-foundation) and organisation level (macro-foundation) are inextricably linked. There are links between macro–macro (arrow 4); macro–micro (arrow 1); micro–micro (arrow 2); and micro–macro (arrow 3). The arrows represent the causal mechanisms that produce the observed associations between phenomena: a macro-level (organisation level) phenomenon, located in the upper right-hand corner (e.g. organisational KT) is explained through the aggregation of the actions of individuals (e.g. the knowledge activities in which individuals engage). These actions follow from specific individual level context which in turn are influenced by organisational-level context (upper left-hand). This research is focussed on understanding the organisational

context under which influences individual context and thereby influences the KT activity.

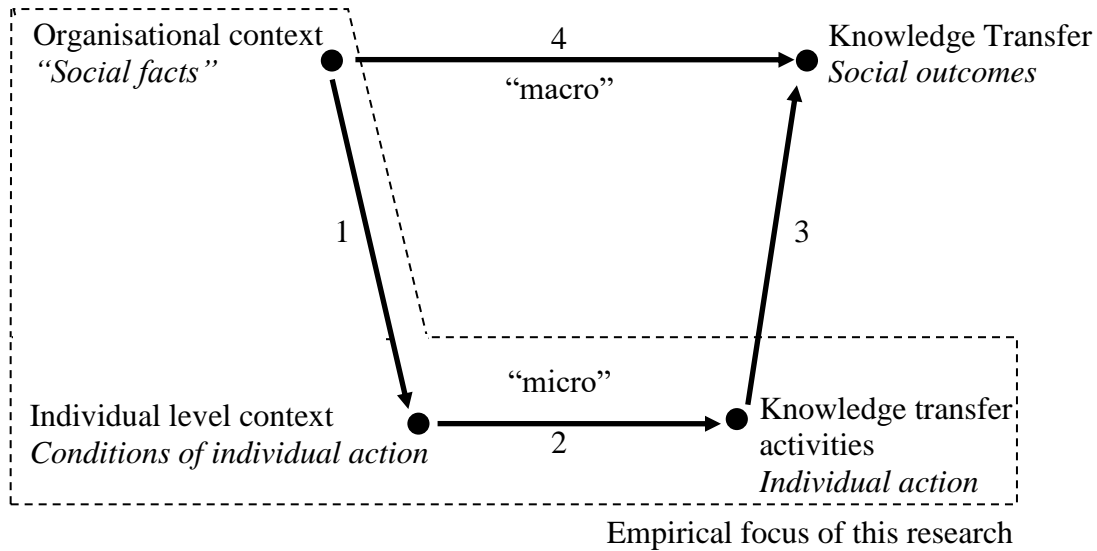


Figure 1-3. Research Focus
(Adapted from Coleman (1990) (*italics*) and Minbaeva et al. (2012))

Until the last decade, individual level KM and KT had been largely overlooked in the literature. However, it has recently received more attention and focus in strategic management and OL (Barney and Felin (2013); Minbaeva et al. (2012); Storbacka et al. (2016); Teece (2007); Volberda et al. (2010)). Whilst KM and KT were recognised as vital to achieve SCA, most of the seminal papers focussed at the organisational level: Cohen and Levinthal (1990); Grant (1996); Foss and Pedersen (2002); Lyles and Salk (1996); Zahra and George (2002). The main focus of recent individual level research has been to understand how individual level factors impact organisations. Its purpose is to provide theoretical and empirical explanations at a level of analysis lower than that of the phenomenon (in this case KT) itself (Felin et al., 2015).

Whilst individual level research is becoming more common it is not without its critics. Criticism includes it being an unnecessary distraction from organisational level research and the importance of the structure/institution; macro factors are more important than micro ones; it emphasises individual action over social context and

process; and it is just a reinvention of other disciplines which study individual level behaviour (such as psychology, human resources (HR), or micro-organisational behaviour) (Barney and Felin (2013); Felin et al. (2015)). Despite these criticisms there is nevertheless a growing call for research at the individual level (Barney and Felin (2013); Felin et al. (2015); Volberda et al. (2010)), and as my business issue can only be addressed by investigating KT at an individual level, that is the focus of my research.

1.5.2 Research Problem

The purpose of this business focussed research is to better understand individual KT in countries attractive to aerospace and defence companies, who need to improve KT and be seen to be delivering Localisation. It also seeks to close some of the identified literature gaps by investigating intra-organisational KT between Nationals and Expatriates in industrial companies in two GCC countries. The criterion for the selection of this problem was to meet both academic and business contributions.

From a business perspective, the criteria were: the problem was to have a business relevancy and was to provide practitioners with a better understanding of an issue and how it might be addressed. This problem was relevant to Aerospace Inc's planning to deliver new business; form a joint venture company and employ Nationals in Qatar; and improve its understanding of its current practices in Saudi Arabia to improve existing activities. As the primary focus was on Qatar the knowledge that would be transferred to Nationals in a joint venture company would be administrative practice as opposed to practical (engineering, maintenance) which would be undertaken by the end customer.

The research would also provide some new insight into current practice and experience which would help practitioners in other companies. From an academic perspective, the criterion was for the research problem to contribute to the field of KM and close a gap where little research carried out on KT from in the GCC. The boundaries of this business based research were intra-organisation KT from Western Expatriates to Nationals in two GCC countries (Aerospace Inc in Saudi Arabia and Chem Co and Gas Co in Qatar (see Table 1-1)).

1.5.3 Research Aim

The aim of this study was to explore KT between Expatriates and Nationals in two GCC countries to provide greater understanding of the factors involved to inform aerospace and defence companies seeking to grow their business in that region.

1.5.4 Research Objectives

The objectives of the research were:

- a) To explore the strategic context for KT in the GCC;
- b) To identify the key factors that influence KT from Expatriates to Nationals in Saudi Arabia and Qatar;
- c) To create practitioner guidelines for Aerospace MNC to improve KT in Qatar and Saudi Arabia;
- d) To contribute to the academic literature on intra-organisational KT in the GCC.

1.5.5 Research Questions

To achieve these objectives, the following research questions were developed:

- a) What is the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar?
- b) What do companies do in response to the strategic context?
- c) What are the key extrinsic factors of individual KT?
- d) What are the key intrinsic factors of individual KT?
- e) What are the key individual preferences for engaging in KT?

1.6. Methodology

In the KM literature there is a preponderance of quantitative studies, mainly aimed at American journals. Michailova and Mustaffa (2012) observe that methodologically KM research is biased in favour of quantitative examinations and there is an under-representation of qualitative and mixed methods studies in a variety of geographical contexts. There has also been a prevalence of KM papers focussed on developing new frameworks/models and testing concepts at an organisational level. KT can be challenging to measure and “The most appropriate approach depends on the goals of the research and the empirical context” (Argote and

Fahrenkopf, 2016:153). Whilst there are few studies into KT in the GCC, those studies that do exist are also dominated by quantitative studies, particularly questionnaires and surveys. Moreover, many of these were only with senior managers or HR managers which does not provide an insight into the individual KT processes between Expatriates and Nationals. They also fail to offer recommendations for practitioners. To address the paucity of literature and research methodologies which could reveal the motivations of individuals, this exploratory research was undertaken using a qualitative multiple case study approach in a field-based environment.

Country	Company	Description
Saudi Arabia	Aerospace Inc	Subsidiary of Aerospace MNC. Established in the 1960s, it is one of the largest private sector employers of Saudis. Aerospace Inc provides equipment and services almost exclusively to the Saudi Arabian government and partners with local companies in the aerospace, defence, security and electronic sectors.
Qatar	Chem Co	Subsidiary of a state-owned Parent Company in the Energy and Industrial sector. Chem Co is a multinational joint venture between Industries Qatar and a French company. Established in 1974 and supplies polyethylene products.
	Gas Co	Subsidiary of a state-owned Parent Company in the Energy and Industrial sector. Gas Co is a multinational joint venture between Industries Qatar and a South African company. Established in 2007 and supplies diesel and naphtha products.

Table 1-1. Case Study Companies

In addition to providing practical insight into the KT in the GCC, this approach will partially close this gap in the literature and is supported by authors such as Ewers (2013), Minbaeva et al. (2014) and Spraggon and Bodolica (2012) who suggest there is merit in empirical research which would provide greater contextualisation of KT and how it varies between companies and teams. More specifically Michailova and Mustaffa (2012) propose that future GCC research should focus on subsidiaries of several MNCs or on several subsidiaries located in one or a few contextually similar host countries. Research into the role of Expatriate attitudes and behaviour in KT in technology-intensive industries, such as aerospace, is also recommended by Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014) as fruitful areas for analysis. Therefore, this research will be of interest to academics and practitioners alike; the approach is summarised in Figure 1-4.

The first stage was to define the research aim, objective and questions. Secondly, a literature review was undertaken to understand the relevant literature, identify gaps and select an appropriate conceptual framework with which to answer the research question. The next stage was to develop the research method, undertake a pilot study, refine the method and select case study organisations. The fourth stage was undertaking research in the selected case study organisations followed by within-case and cross-case analysis of the findings. The final stage was to draw practitioner and theoretical conclusions from the research.

Despite the lack of suitable academic literature and the pervasiveness of quantitative methods, a conceptual framework was found in the literature which could be adapted to answer my research questions. Given the business focus of this study, and being less concerned with developing theory than applying it to a practical problem, an existing KT framework was chosen. Whilst it has been developed and used in a different context and was quantitative, it was easily adaptable. For this research the Minbaeva et al. (2012) framework was selected and as described in Chapter Four. Its focus was on intra-organisational and individual level KT; it was a simple model that would be easy to operationalise for the GCC context. It also had the advantage of addressing some of the potential areas for future research identified from the literature review; it could also be adapted and used within the confines of the research resources and timescales.

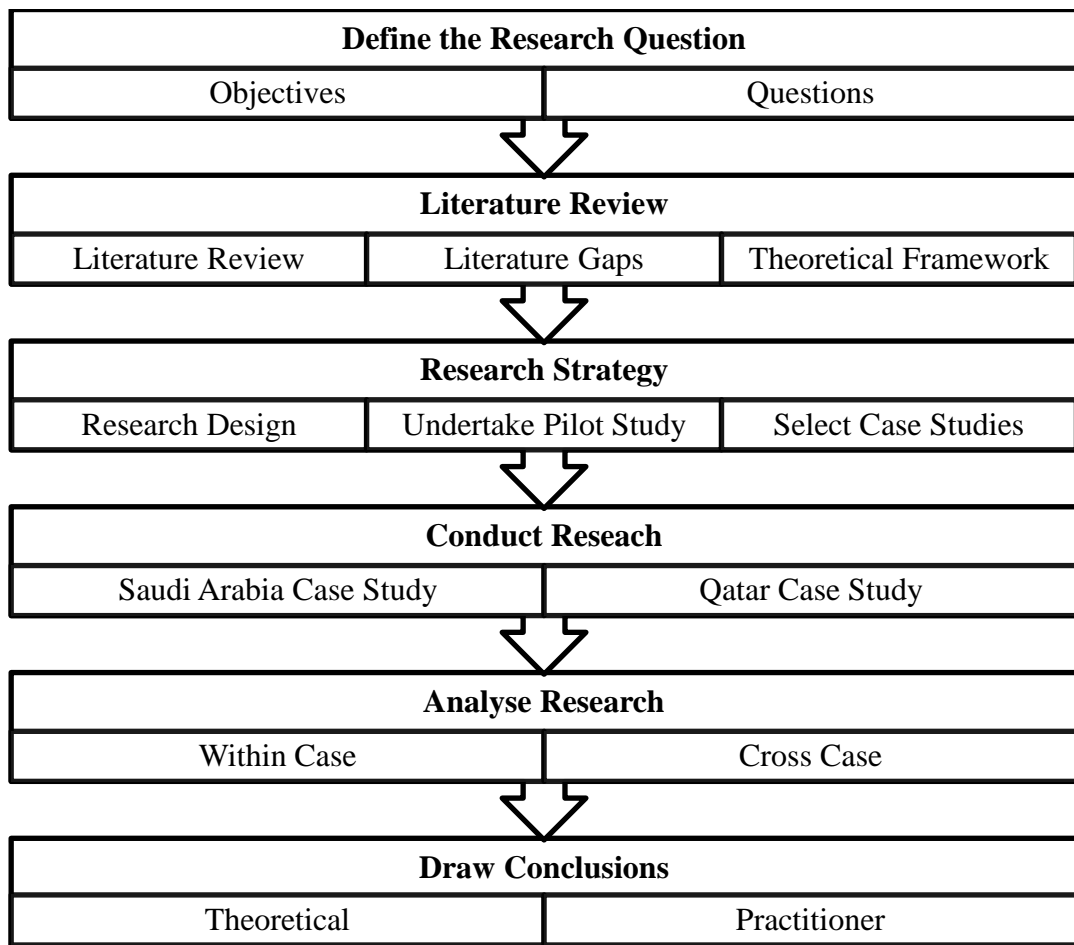


Figure 1-4. Research Approach

In undertaking the fieldwork and operationalising the conceptual framework, a case study approach was chosen because I wanted to investigate a real-life, contemporary event in-depth. The sampling strategy was purposive and convenient. Semi-structured interviews and direct observation were the primary source of data. However, these were used in conjunction with other sources of data: use of key informants, document analysis, and previous business experience. Throughout the fieldwork a research journal was kept which captured thoughts, ideas and emerging concepts. Whilst access to company documentation was mostly prohibited in all companies for intellectual property and competitive reasons, a number of open-source internal and external documents, including the company websites, were used to support analysis and conclusions. Finally, the practitioner-researcher has significant experience in Aerospace Inc, which provided unique access to the

company and the opportunity for close observation, contextualisation and comparison with the other case companies.

1.7. Thesis Structure

This thesis comprises of seven chapters as shown in Table 1-2.

Chapter	Title
One	Introduction
Two	Literature Review – Knowledge Transfer
Three	Literature Review – GCC Context
Four	Research Methodology
Five	Saudi Arabia Case Study Analysis and Findings (Aerospace Inc)
Six	Qatar Case Study Analysis and Findings (Chem Co and Gas Co)
Seven	Discussion
Eight	Conclusion

Table 1-2. Thesis Structure

Chapter One provides an introduction to the research. The chapter’s aim is to orientate and set the scene for the remainder of the thesis. It includes a description of the business context; a summary of the theoretical context; a statement of the research aim, objectives and questions; and an explanation of the research design and relevance. It concludes by describing the thesis structure.

Chapter Two provides a theoretical foundation for the research with a thorough review and analysis of KM literature. It explores and analyses the current literature on KM, and intra-organisational KT.

Chapter Three explores and analyses the current literature on KT in the GCC and the context of Localisation. It concludes by describing the literature gaps and presenting the conceptual framework for this research. The literature review establishes the boundaries of this research and sets the basis for the subsequent case studies.

Chapter Four describes the research methodology. It firstly discusses the research paradigm, its ontology and epistemology. It then explains the research methodology and justification for the selection of a qualitative approach. The research strategy

and design is described. The selection of a case study method is explained and a detailed presentation of the research design, including sampling, interview process and data analysis is presented. The criteria for judging and confirming the rigor of the research is provided, alongside the ethical considerations employed.

Chapter Five reports the key findings from the research in Saudi Arabia and presents the within case study analysis.

Chapter Six reports the key findings from the research in Qatar. It presents the within case study analysis from the two Qatar companies.

Chapter Seven presents the cross-case analysis, detailed discussion and interpretation of the research findings.

Chapter Eight provides a conclusion to the thesis. It provides an overall summary of the research, its findings and interpretation. It provides a revised conceptual framework and presents the main theoretical, methodological and practitioner contributions of the research. It finishes by explaining the limitations of the research for academics and practitioners but also offers areas for further study.

1.8. Summary

This Introduction chapter presented the research context, focus and methodology for this DBA thesis. It explained how the research and thesis would be relevant to business practices and make an original contribution to knowledge. Firstly, it described the business context, explaining the reasons why studying KM in the lucrative GCC was important for aerospace and defence companies. The GCC, and in particular Saudi Arabia and Qatar, were growth opportunities but also came with demands for industrialisation and Localisations of jobs. The Chapter then discussed the theoretical context on the research, summarising the KT literature and its context in the GCC. The Chapter then explained the research aim, objectives and questions which were focussed on both business and academic benefits. It described the relevance of the research and finished with a description of the thesis structure.

The next Chapter provides a detailed literature review of KM and KT.

2. CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW – KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a theoretical foundation for the research through review and analysis of KM literature. This practitioner-researcher study was undertaken within the field of knowledge management (KM) as the construct to be investigated was KT. KM is not universally accepted as an academic discipline but it is acknowledged as an amalgamation of research in several fields such as: anthropology; computer science and management information systems; finance; general management; strategy; HR; marketing; organisational studies; psychology; and technology and innovation (Easterby-Smith et al. (1998); Baskerville and Dulipovici (2006); Serenko et al. (2010); Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2011); Fteimi and Lehner (2015)).

In recognition of the broad multi-disciplinary nature of the field, it was important at the outset to define the boundaries of the research and literature review. It was not planned to be an exhaustive nor so narrow as to be a purposive sample. But to ensure the literature review and the research project was manageable, it was selective to ensure the research was grounded in theory; the relevant context, concepts, variables and relationships were identified; and the significance of the problems and practitioner gaps were understood. As the aim of the project was to study the factors relevant to KT between Expatriates and Nationals, within the context Localisation in Saudi Arabia and Qatar, there were certain academic fields which were therefore generally excluded from the literature review: computer science and management information systems; finance, and technology and innovation. The main academic disciplines for this research were: strategic management to explain the purpose for transferring knowledge (the what) and OL to explain the process of transferring knowledge (the how). However, as the research was exploratory, further literature was subsequently required to underpin and explain the emerging findings, this was in the form of cultural and motivation within the construct of OL.

Strategic management was important because of the challenge faced by aerospace and defence companies seeking to gain SCA in lucrative but challenging GCC environments with significant Localisation policies. Strategic management is concerned with the integration of a firm's policies, goals, resources, products,

organization and marketplace (Arend and Levesque, 2010). Much of international strategy is also concerned with issues of knowledge and learning, particularly with a focus on firms gaining knowledge about foreign market environments; the challenge of transferring and using knowledge; and the management of international alliances and joint ventures (Lane et al. (2001); Lyles and Salk (1996) Hotho et al. (2015:85)).

The formulation of the strategy for firms either seeking to enter the GCC market or move within it to another one, is based on questions such as: what is considered 'value' by the GCC customer? What would differentiate our company from our competitors in the GCC? What skills and capabilities should be developed in a GCC subsidiary or joint venture? To answer these questions companies need an understanding of the strategic environment in which they will operate and the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation's resources such as financial; raw materials and inventory; production; and information technology. This research will consider the strategic contexts in Saudi Arabia and Qatar and link them to the development, through KT, of one organisational resource: people.

The link between management strategy and organisational resources will be analysed through OL concepts as the challenge faced by aerospace and defence companies is in developing Nationals to support their Localisation initiatives. OL is "a dynamic process of creation, acquisition and integration of knowledge aimed at the development of resources and capabilities that contribute to better organizational performance" (López et al., 2005:228). This learning can be done on four levels: individual, group, organisation, and inter-organisational. To answer the research questions this study focussed on the individual level.

This Chapter explores, analyses and assesses the current literature on KM, KT and the strategic context for KT in the GCC. The literature review establishes the boundaries of this research, identifies gaps in the current literature and sets the foundations for the subsequent case studies and discussion. It begins by briefly discussing the concept of knowledge and then in more detail assesses KM, in particular with respect to theories of the firm and OL. Elements of OL such as culture and motivation are explored as basis for analysing individual action in the case studies. The chapter then proceeds to assess KT, including models, barriers and

enablers and the sender-receiver characteristics. It continues with exploring the literature on KT and the context of Localisation in the GCC. It then provides a summary of the strategic context in Saudi Arabia and Qatar, including socio-economics, national visions and development plans. Subsequently, it identifies the gaps in the literatures and describes the conceptual framework that will be used in conducting the study.

2.2. Knowledge

2.2.1. Definition

In the KM field agreeing how to define ‘knowledge’ has been challenging. It is a broad notion with many definitions of knowledge and even in some seminal papers on KT such as Cohen and Levinthal (1990) and Szulanski (1996) a clear definition is absent. However, having a definition of knowledge, if not an epistemological debate about justified true belief, is important as this study is focussed on its transfer. Knowledge has been considered as data and information, a state of mind, object, process or capability (Alavi and Leidner, 1999). It can be the combination and application of an organisations’ tangible resource (Alavi and Leidner, 2001) and it is related to human action (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995).

A representative summary of some of the definitions of knowledge is provided in Table 2-1. However, none of these are entirely satisfactory for this research into KT between individuals. Knowledge is more than just data, information or a process; whilst information can be knowledge, knowledge is more than just information – it contains know-how (Wang and Noe, 2010). Therefore, knowledge is defined here as: facts, information, skills and know-how obtained through learning and experience.

2.2.2. Nature of Knowledge

Like a definition of knowledge, the nature of knowledge has also been much debated. There is little general agreement about the nature or typology of knowledge; there are many different types, qualities (shallow or deep) and dimensions (complex or simple) described (de Jong and Ferguson-Hessler (1996); Grant (1996); Winterton et al. (2006)).

Authors	Definition of Knowledge
Alavi and Leidner (1999)	Knowledge is a justified belief that increases an entity's capacity for taking effective action
Clark (2001)	Body of fact and principles
Davenport and Prusak (1998)	A fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information
De Long and Fahey (2000)	A product of human reflection and experience
Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995)	Justifying information with beliefs and commitment
Wang and Noe (2010)	Information processed by individuals including ideas, facts, expertise, and judgments relevant for individual, team, and organisational performance
Zander and Kogut (1995)	Information and know-how

Table 2-1. Representative Summary on Knowledge Definitions

The typologies of knowledge depend on things such as: epistemology (a priori or a posteriori); academic field (physics or psychology); educational structures (academic or vocational); national culture (individualistic or collective); and the subject itself (individual or organisational). It is also separate from, and generally a precursor to, skills and competence, with the former being the ability to perform a task proficiently through practice and the latter being the ability to perform a task efficiently and successfully through application of knowledge, skills, experience and motivation. A summary of various typologies of knowledge is provided in Table 2-2.

Polanyi (1967) categorised it as explicit and tacit and these two categories form the basis of much KM research. Explicit knowledge is that which has been codified, documented, stored on a database, is readily accessible and can be shared and communicated easily. Tacit knowledge is individual, personal, context specific

Authors	Typologies of Knowledge
Bhagat et al. (2002) De Long and Fahey (2000)	Human, Social, Structured
Blackler (1995)	Embodied, Embedded, Embrained, Encultured, Encoded
de Jong and Ferguson-Hessler (1996)	Situational, Conceptual, Procedural, Strategic
Gorman (2002)	Information, Skills, Judgement, Wisdom
Jensen et al. (2007)	Know-what, Know-why, Know-how, Know-who
Grant (1996)	Subjective vs objective; implicit vs tacit; personal vs prepositional; procedural vs declarative
Hayes and Walsham (2003)	Codified and Relational
Nickols (2000)	Explicit, Tacit, and Implicit
Sensky (2002)	Embedded and Embodied
Spender (1996)	Conscious, Objectified, Automatic, Collective

Table 2-2. Representative Summary on Knowledge Categories

and based on experience and direct action. Tacit knowledge can also be divided into two dimensions: technical and know-how. Know-how consists of beliefs, ideals and values which are difficult to articulate (Nonaka, 1994). As Bollinger and Smith (2001:9) suggest, tacit knowledge is “in a person’s head and difficult to describe and transfer”.

However, the two forms of knowledge are inextricably linked, as explicit knowledge is codified from tacit and tacit improved through exposure to explicit. Essentially, they summarise the same issue that knowledge exists in different forms and needs to be managed and transferred using a number of different strategies. For instance, information or structured, objectified, encoded, explicit knowledge can be transferred through formal training, collaborative workspaces, manuals and procedures. Whereas, skills, judgement, know-how, automatic, tacit knowledge is best transferred through individual conversations, mentoring, workplace shadowing and communities of practice.

Notwithstanding much debated definitions and typologies, knowledge can also be ambiguous, in that it is not well understood by either the sender or the receiver. Ambiguity may arise from the perceived usefulness of the knowledge being shared across boundaries, particularly intra-organisational. Organisations or individuals may not see the linkages or value the transfer of knowledge. This can often be the

case when the knowledge being shared is complex, defined here as the scale of interactions among the components of a specific knowledge being shared, or where senders struggle to explain how something is done and the receivers struggle to see its worth in their context – knowledge distance (Cummings and Teng, 2003). As will be discussed later, knowledge distance exists between senders and receivers in the GCC, where the senders are the Expatriates and the receivers are the Nationals.

2.2.3. Knowledge Creation

Knowledge can be created through the conversion of tacit and explicit knowledge. One of the seminal KM concepts is by Nonaka (1994:18) who proposes four different modes of knowledge conversion: “(1) from tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge, (2) from explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge, (3) from tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge, and (4) from explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge.” Commonly known as the SECI model (Socialisation, Externalisation, Combination and Internalisation) – Figure 2.1, it provides an approach to explain how organisational knowledge is created. Organisational knowledge creation being different to individual knowledge creation in that it “takes place when all four modes of knowledge creation are ‘organizationally’ managed to form a continuous cycle” Nonaka (1994:20).

These four modes of knowledge creation also correspond to a location where that knowledge is created, a shared space, or as Nonaka and Konno (1998) describe it “ba”. This shared space (physical or virtual) can exist at many levels. For instance, the individual enters the ba of teams, teams the organisation and the organisation the market. A summary of the relationship of the concepts of SECI and ba is provided in Table 2-3. Socialization is the process of creating tacit knowledge through shared experience and is the dimension relevant to this study. It involves the conversion of tacit knowledge through interaction between individuals. The key to acquiring tacit knowledge is shared experience. Originating Ba is primary ba from which the knowledge creation process begins and represents the socialisation phase. It involves the physical, face-to-face shared experiences which are central to conversion and transfer of tacit knowledge. It is the phase relative to this research.

SECI	Ba	Relationship
Socialisation	Originating	Face-to-face
Externalisation	Interacting	Peer-to-peer
Internalisation	Exercising	On-the-site
Combination	Cyber	Group-to-group

Table 2-3. Relationship between SECI and Ba Concepts
(Developed from Nonaka and Konno (1998))

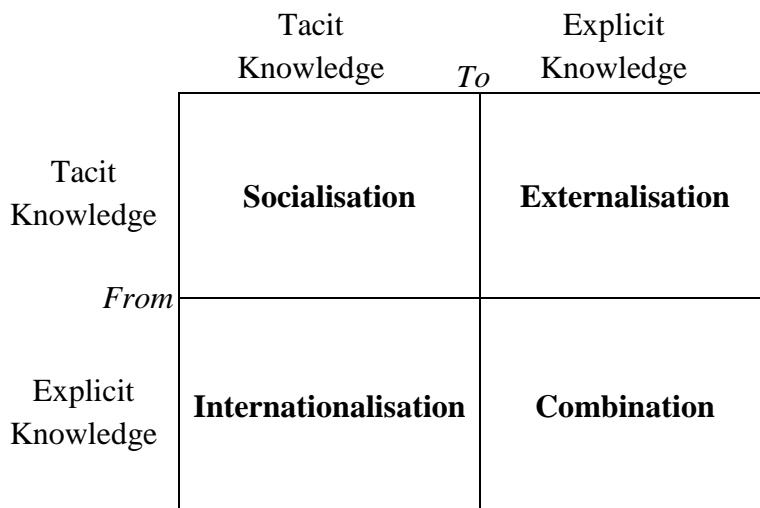


Figure 2-1. Modes of Knowledge Creation
(From Nonaka (1994:19))

However, whilst the work of Nonaka is central to much KM research it is not without some criticism. It has been accused of being too philosophical, abstract and existential. It does not provide a framework for research nor does it recognise the limitations of a simple four box, linear process model (Spender, 2015). It has been described as second generation KM thinking by Snowden (2002) who calls for a third generation approach which incorporates Nonaka's ideas but also acknowledges the chaotic complexity of KT which individuals can create and also manage. Whilst this may be true, Nonaka's concepts are still highly prevalent and influential in academic and business KM literature.

2.3. Knowledge Management

2.3.1. Definition

Also a much debated question is the definition of KM which often depends on the field of study and the lack of a coherent academic field. A summary of some of the available definitions of KM is provided in Table 2-4. However, as observed by Dalkir and Liebowitz (2011) and Spender (2015) KM is multi-faceted, there are no agreed definitions and the debate is unwinnable. But not defining KM could be a fundamental error for a practitioner-research project, especially as not developing a working definition of KM can be seen as the first deadly sin for practitioners engaged in KM projects (Fahey and Prusak, 1998). As this is a business focussed study and the intention is to understand how KT practices can be improved to deliver SCA in the GCC, any definition of KM should include elements of capturing, transferring and using knowledge for business benefit. Therefore, this definition is adequate for the purposes of this research:

“Knowledge management is the deliberate and systematic coordination of an organization’s people, technology, processes, and organizational structure in order to add value through reuse and innovation. This is achieved through the promotion of creating, sharing, and applying knowledge as well as through the feeding of valuable lessons learned and best practices into corporate memory in order to foster continued organization learning.” (Dalkir and Liebowitz, 2011:4)

Like knowledge itself, the elements of KM have been variously categorised. It has been categorised as comprising of people, processes and technology (Spender and Scherer, 2007); human beings, organisation and technology (Lehner and Haas, 2010); creating, storing, retrieving, and transferring knowledge (Alavi and Leidner, 1999); and content, people, processes, technology and structure (Edwards, 2015). It is evident from these descriptions that KM is about managing organisational KM resources, but to do so effectively requires a knowledge-friendly culture where individuals are not inhibited from KT; a change in motivational practices; and senior management support (Davenport et al., 1998). This research will focus on these activities and particularly individuals motivation to transfer knowledge because it has been shown to be “an intangible critical success factor for virtually all knowledge management projects” (Davenport et al., 1998:53).

Authors	Definition of Knowledge Management
Alavi and Leidner (2001)	Largely a process involving various activities: creating, storing/retrieving, transferring and applying knowledge.
Bennett and Gabriel (1999)	Knowledge capture, storage, dissemination
Davenport et al. (1998)	A set of practices aimed at the storage, distribution and exploitation of the organisations knowledge.
Jennex (2008)	Helping organisations make sense of what they know, to know what they know, and to effectively use what they know.
Spender (2015)	Managing the relationship between knowing and acting in organizational contexts, part of which is managing the processes of knowing and learning towards organizational ends

Table 2-4. Representative Knowledge Management Definitions

2.3.2. Knowledge Management Perspectives

Research into KM could be undertaken in respect to many different academic fields and approaches. KM is multidisciplinary in nature and could draw upon Strategic Management; International Business Management, Organisational Science, HR Management, Education and Training; Engineering & Technology; Computer Science, Psychology to name but a few. This is a double-edge sword in that it provides considerable scope for the theoretical foundation of the research but also creates a problem with limiting the theoretical boundary. As this research seeks to understand the organisational context and the individual factors involved in KT from Expatriates to Nationals, it will draw upon Strategic Management, International Business Management, and Organisational Science.

Approaches to understand the response of organisations to the GCC environmental context of Localisation the research draws upon on several perspectives such as a Resource Based View (RBV) and a Knowledge Based View (KBV) of the firm emphasising the creation of intangible knowledge based on people and relationships to achieve SCA (Nonaka (1994); Grant (1996)).

Since the late 1980s, the RBV of the firm has been the dominant paradigm of strategic management research. Strategic management is concerned with the integration of a firm's policies, goals, resources, products, organisation and marketplace (Arend and Levesque, 2010). An important aim of strategic management research is to understand the links between action and reaction, in measurable outcomes of management decisions, to better identify those strategies which deliver a firm SCA. The quest for SCA is at the heart of strategic management (Fahy, 2000). SCA is defined here as providing a company with above-average returns on investment, increased shareholder value and greater market strength. Greater market strength is what aerospace and defence companies are seeking to achieve by supporting Localisation, through KT, in the GCC

Resources are important to any organisation if it is to achieve SCA. Barney (1991) and Alvarez and Marin (2013) emphasises the need for resources to be imperfectly imitable. Difficult to imitate, unique knowledge-based resources and capabilities maybe the most important contributor to SCA (Barney et al. (2011); Colbert (2004); Wan et al. (2011)). The knowledge-based resources are the organisation's know-how and skills, the routines and management systems which are often intangible and act as a barrier to entry.

Development, storage and transfer of knowledge are becoming a strategic asset (Jones and Mahon, 2012). The KBV of the firm places KM and its exploitation at the centre of business strategy. However, whether it is a distinct strategy or a subset of RBV or of other theories is keenly debated. Some authors such as Cao and Xiang (2012) see KBV as distinct whilst others see it as a development of RBV, or an extension of organisational theory, evolutionary economics or just a process (Eisenhardt and Santos (2002); Grant (1996); Grant (1997)). Eisenhardt and Santos (2002) believe KBV is founded on the theories of OL and dynamic capabilities.

Grant (1996:109) argues that firms can be conceptualized as "an institution for integrating knowledge". He contends, given certain assumptions, that KBV can explain the rationale for a firm, its capabilities, and its ability to form strategic alliances or partnerships to achieve mutual SCA. He suggests the difference between KBV and other theories is this focus on exploiting knowledge for a firm's output or product. In defining knowledge he refers to several of the characteristics of resource

in RBV theory but concludes that the role of the firm is integration of the knowledge within people to produce goods and services. He also suggests that the main mechanisms for integrating individual's knowledge are: direction, sequencing, routine and transfer (Grant, 1997). For this research, in the context of GCC Localisation, the KBV concept of integrating individual knowledge and managing its transfer are seen as key responses to the environmental context to achieve SCA.

2.3.3. Organisational Learning

KM and OL are inextricably linked and the difference between the two may be simply described as knowledge is the content and learning is the process to acquire it. OL has variously been defined as “a change in the organization's knowledge that occurs as a function of experience” (Argote, 2013b:31) or “the study of the learning processes of and within organizations” (Easterby-Smith and Lyles, 2011:3). For the purpose of this research OL will be defined as “a dynamic process of creation, acquisition and integration of knowledge aimed at the development of resources and capabilities that contribute to better organizational performance” (López et al., 2005:228). OL is vital for understanding how organisational capabilities improve performance improvement and contribute to achieving SCA (Argote (2013b); Campbell and Armstrong (2013)).

OL is generally divided into two areas: learning as a technical process and learning as a social process. Organisations which adopt a technical process perspective emphasise the identification, collection, storage and distribution of information and see knowledge as a resource, something that is owned and can be disseminated through a knowledge management system. Organisations which adopt a social process perspective emphasise human interaction and consider knowledge as something people do (Neve, 2015). The social perspective is generally concerned with both tacit and explicit knowledge, where accessibility depends on access to the knowledge source (Liu et al., 2013).

For this research, the social process is most important as this underpins the KT between Expatriates and Nationals. The concepts of individual learning through social interaction; tacit knowledge being important for SCA; the need to consider contextual factors; and organisational adaptation to the environment are key aspects in understanding the barriers and enablers to KT between nationals and Expatriates

in the GCC. In tacit KT “the importance of context cannot be overemphasized” (Boyle et al., 2012:363). The external environmental context includes “elements outside the boundaries of the organization such as competitors, clients, educational establishments, and governments. The environment can vary along many dimensions, such as volatility, uncertainty, interconnectedness, and munificence” (Argote, 2013b:33). The external context of this research will be discussed in the Localisation section of chapter 3 and findings chapters (Chapters 5 and 6).

2.3.4. Organisational Context

An organisation is generally a social community within which organisational knowledge is shared (Nonaka (1994); Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995); Spender (1996)). Organisational context has an impact on KT including the tasks and the tools; the recruitment methods; training programmes and performance feedback; the rewards, recognition and culture. Organisation culture at its most basic level represents a pattern of tacit and shared group assumptions that work and are worth sharing with new members. Culture can exist at organisation, team and individual level and implies an element of stability and integration (Schein, 2010). De Long and Fahey (2000:113) argue “organizational culture is widely held to be the major barrier to creating and leveraging knowledge assets.” Training structures and processes in organizations affect KT. Two dimensions of training are especially relevant for OL: a) training conducted individually or in a group; b) opportunities for members to observe experts performing tasks. Through observing experts performing tasks, trainees can acquire tacit knowledge and learn the norms of behaviour.

2.3.5. Individual Context

The individual context of KM is at the centre of this study and the cultural differences between Expatriates and Nationals could be a significant barrier to KT. A country’s unique context conditions the KT across industries, companies and employees. This unique context relates to the factors that influence KT at an organisational and individual level. For instance, whilst Qatar is a Muslim country in the Middle East that does not mean its culture is the same as Oman, Saudi Arabia, Syria or Iraq. In addition to having different National and regional cultures, it also has different laws, governance and educational systems (a different path) which

affects how much knowledge is transferred, received and used to achieve the desired outcome (Ewers, 2013).

Previous studies have shown that KT across cultural boundaries creates additional challenges for learning in multinational and global organisations. “People’s willingness to ask questions that reveal their ‘ignorance’, disagree with others in public, contradict known experts, discuss their problems, follow others in the thread of conversation - all these behaviors vary greatly across cultures” (Wenger et al., 2002:118). It has been noted that in collectivist societies, such as the GCC, offence leads to shame and loss of face, employer/employee relationships are perceived in moral terms (like a family link), hiring and promotion decisions take account of the employee’s in-group, management is the management of groups (Hofstede, 2001). However, collectivist cultures may be more predisposed to KT for the benefit of others and the organisation (Witherspoon et al., 2013). Whilst there is some criticism of Hofstede’s model of national culture, such as his limited methodology, assumption and assertion, and one nation homogeneity (McSweeney, 2002), it nevertheless remains the predominant model and will be used as the basis of describing the impact of culture in this research.

The distinction between individualism and collectivism is undoubtedly the most frequently applied criterion in cross-cultural studies. Individualism describes the tendency of people to place personal goals ahead of the goals of a larger social group, such as the organisation. Conversely, individuals in collectivistic cultures tend to give priority to the goals of the larger collective or group they belong to Hofstede (2001). GCC countries are considered collectivist societies; whereas Western countries (where Western aerospace and defence companies are mainly based) tend to be individualist. Using the tools available at Hofstede (2016) to identify the differences between the GCC and UK/US cultures suggests that the most significant cultural disparities are in the Power Distance, Individualism, and Uncertainty Avoidance, as shown in Figure 2-2. The explanation and implications of these national cultural differences are summarised in Table 2-5.

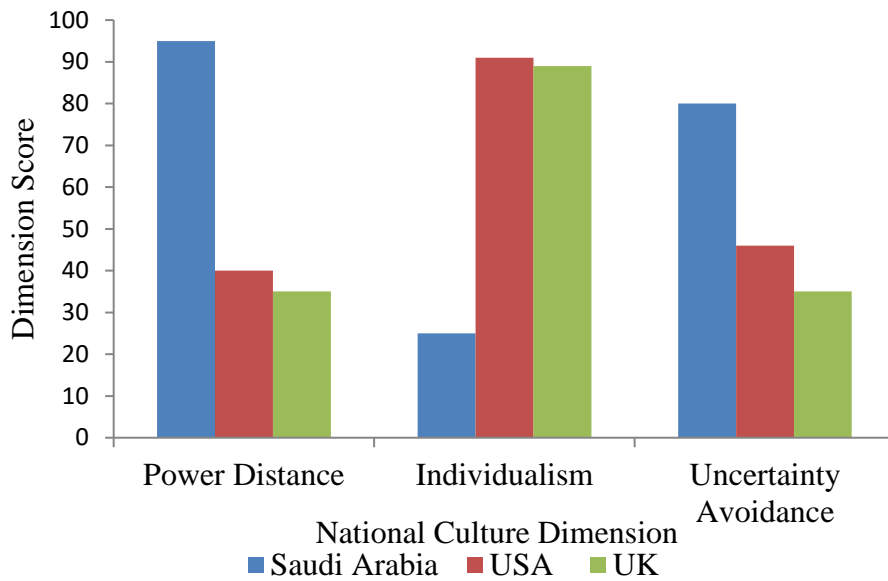


Figure 2-2. National Culture Differences
(Developed from Hofstede (2016))

Based on Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, cultural distance is a popular concept and method of measuring the extent to which cultures are similar or different. Developed by Kogut and Singh (1988), it offers a simple quantitative tool to assess the cost of entry and likelihood of success of organisations transferring knowledge and capabilities to foreign markets. The concept is not without disparagement, being based on a criticised Hofstede concept, some researchers believe unsupported hidden assumptions and questionable methodology undermine the validity of the construct and challenge its theoretical role and application (Shenkar, 2001). Whilst the tool will not be used in this study due to the qualitative approach, the concept is worth briefly describing. Cultural distance recognises that a country’s cultural attributes determine how people interact with one another and with organisations. Differences in religious beliefs, race, social norms, and language are capable of creating distance between two countries and two individuals (Ghemawat, 2001).

Cultural distance increases the operational difficulties that emerge from a lack of understanding of the norms and values and hinders KT (Inkpen and Tsang (2005); Mowery et al. (1996)). Cultural distance between foreign organisations may lead to misunderstandings that can limit the transfer of knowledge (Björkman et al. (2007); Lyles and Salk (1996)). A meta-analysis of KT literature also noted that cultural

distance was an intricate factor, revealing that it appeared to show KT between intra-organisational transfer business units was more difficult than inter-organisationally between culturally different companies (although the sample was small) (van Wijk et al., 2008). In response to this counter-intuitive finding, they suggested “More (qualitative) research is needed to further our understanding regarding why cultural distance is more detrimental to transferring knowledge within firms than between different firms” (van Wijk et al., 2008:845). This research will help to close that gap.

Cultural Dimension	UK/USA	Saudi Arabia (GCC)
Power Distance: the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally	People strive to equalise the distribution of power and demand justification for inequalities of power	People are comfortable with the inequities of the power distance with centralised power, benevolent autocrat and subordinate being told what to do
Individualism: the degrees to which there is a preference for a loosely-knit social framework	Individuals are expected to take care of only themselves and their immediate families	People have a close long-term commitment to the member 'group', be that a family, extended family, or extended relationships. Loyalty in a collectivist culture is paramount, and over-rides most other societal rules and regulations
Uncertainty Avoidance: the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity	People maintain a more relaxed attitude in which practice counts more than principles	People maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour. There is an emotional need for rules; security is an important element in individual motivation.

Table 2-5. National Culture Difference
(Adapted from Hofstede (2016))

2.3.6. Motivation

Whilst societies in general can be collectivist or individualist there is not necessarily a homogeneous national culture. Similarly, Expatriates and Nationals do not all have homogeneous motivation. Motivation is individual, based on circumstances and can

change. Although Foss and Pedersen (2002) neglected motivational issues entirely in their analysis of KT, understanding individual motivation is important because it has been argued that “Managing motivation, especially balancing intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, is an important and hard-to-imitate competitive advantage” (Osterloh and Frey, 2000:544). However, because many of the previous studies into KT have been at the organisational level individual motivation has been ignore or generalised. For this research an understanding of the concepts of individual motivations is important if we are to discover the barriers and enablers to KT in the GCC.

Motivation is defined as a reason for acting or behaving in a particular way. Motivation of the sender and receiver has been recognised as one of the main factors which can affect KT (Szulanski (1996); Argote et al. (2003); Ribiere and Zhang (2010); Lawson and Potter (2012)). In terms of literature on motivation, similar to culture there are some seminal concepts such as: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg’s two-factor theory (Hendriks, 1999).

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory focuses on people being motivated by unsatisfied needs and that there is a hierarchy starting from physiological needs (food, sleep, breathing) through safety, belonging, self-esteem and self-actualisation (creativity, spontaneity and morality) (Maslow, 1954). The lower down the unsatisfied need, the more likely a person is to abandon a higher up need. Herzberg’s two-factor theory is perhaps more influential and suggests people are influenced by two factors: motivation and hygiene. However, it has been heavily debated and criticised for conceptual and methodological issues; and its misinterpretation and use in management and business research (Sachau, 2007).

A number of researchers have found that the motivation of the sender to transfer knowledge is important (Szulanski (1996); Minbaeva (2007); Easterby-Smith et al. (2009)). It has been argued that fear of losing ownership, a position of privilege, superiority, resentment, lack of rewards and unwillingness to devote time to KT are causes for poor motivation (Szulanski, 1996). Strategies for poorly motivated receivers can include: “foot dragging, passivity, feigned acceptance, hidden sabotage, or outright rejection in the implementation and use of new knowledge” (Szulanski, 1996:31).

Extrinsic (external) motivation is something that organisations can easily control and incentivise. Managers can influence and link individual performance to organisational goals through financial rewards such as salary, bonus and promotion (Minbaeva (2008); Neve (2015)). It has been suggested that being extrinsically motivated means having needs satisfied by power and compensation (Minbaeva et al., 2012). Individuals are extrinsically motivated if they can satisfy their need indirectly with something that is valued and obtainable, thereby motivating them to send or receive knowledge (Osterloh and Frey, 2000).

Intrinsic (internal) motivation is something that organisations cannot easily control. Managers find it difficult to influence intrinsic motivation as it is voluntary and includes such things as a commitment to the work itself, helping others, doing something meaningful, satisfying personal values (Bonache and Zárraga-Oberty (2008); Neve (2015)). It has been suggested that being intrinsically motivated is having internal needs satisfied by undertaking an activity for its own sake rather than external rewards (Minbaeva et al., 2012). Whilst individuals are intrinsically motivated when an activity is undertaken for one's immediate need satisfaction, it has also been noted that extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are in a dynamic relationship, they are not additive but interactive (Osterloh and Frey, 2000).

It has also been proposed that poor motivation might be mutually destructive: “the lack of motivation to teach may dampen the enthusiasm for learning, and vice versa” (Easterby-Smith et al., 2009:679). Therefore, rewards and incentives, not just monetary, but also recognition and status, are important components of motivating senders and receivers (Argote et al., 2003). This is particularly relevant in the GCC where Nationals have been viewed as unmotivated to work in the private sector (Mellahi (2007); Rees et al. (2007); Forstenlechner et al. (2012)). It has been argued that an understanding of what motivates individuals is important to understanding the factors involved in KT between Expatriates and Nationals. The next section discusses KT and the barriers and enablers in the GCC.

2.4. Knowledge Transfer

2.4.1. Definition

In much of the KM literature, KT tends to be synonymous with knowledge sharing and the concepts are blurred (Edwards (2015); Paulin and Suneson (2012)).

However, Wang and Noe (2010) seek to differentiate between knowledge sharing, transfer and exchange. They argue sharing is providing task information and know-how to others to solve problems; transfer as the sharing of knowledge by the sender and acquisition of knowledge by the receiver (although more often at the organisational rather than individual level); and exchange as both knowledge sharing and knowledge seeking by individuals. King (2009) clarifies it further: transfer involves the focused and purposeful communication of knowledge from a sender to a known receiver whilst sharing is less-focused dissemination, such as through a repository, to people who are often unknown to the contributor. For the purposes of this research transfer and sharing are considered different concepts and the term transfer used.

Over the last few decades scholars have been unable to agree on a definition of KT. A representative summary of definitions of KT is provided in Table 2-6. For the purposes of this research, KT will be defined as the focussed process through which one individual sends and another individual receives knowledge.

2.4.2. Knowledge Transfer Models

Existing research recognises that KT is fundamental to organisational success and in providing a source of SCA (Ang and Massingham (2007); Argote and Ingram (2000); Asmusen et al. (2013); Kim et al. (2008); Lehner and Haas (2010); Osterloh and Frey (2000); Spraggon and Bodolica (2012); Wang and Noe (2010)). Previous studies suggests that KT is one of the most important factors in providing higher sales growth, profitability and sustained SCA through the deployment of products, technology and knowledge (Jensen and Szulanski (2004); Martinkenaite (2011)). However, KT is complex because even when explicit, knowledge is often interwoven in documents, tools and processes and these require interpretation. It is often the know-how and not necessarily the know-what that is important.

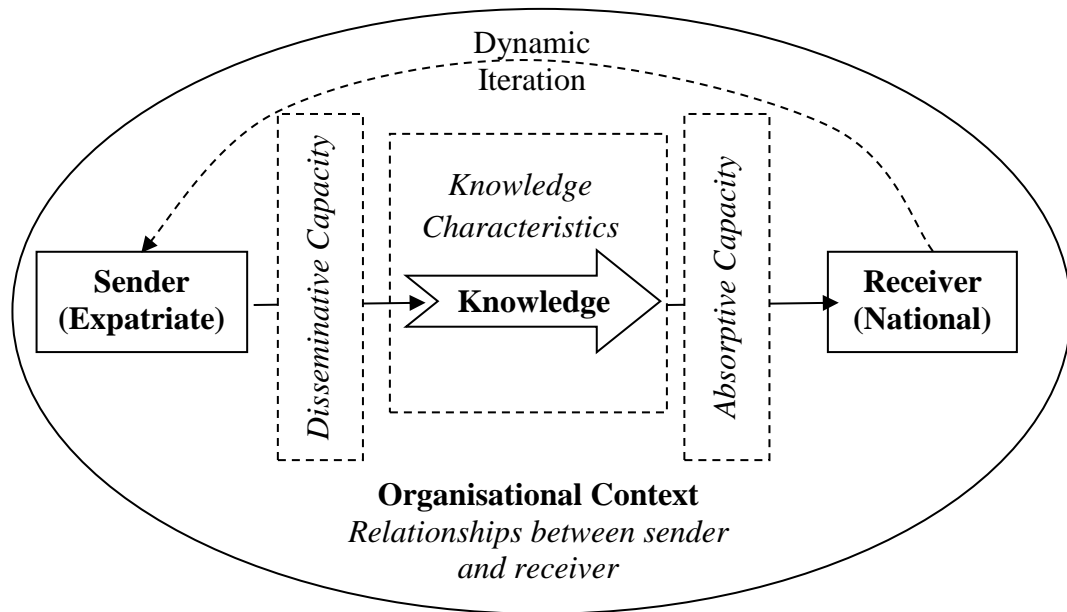
Organisational strategies to enable KT include actively managing it (pushing it forward) or allowing individuals to seek out knowledge for themselves. KT can be intra-organisational (shared within a firm amongst people, teams, business units and foreign subsidiaries) or inter-organisational (shared between different firms). Previous research has argued that whilst intra and inter-organisational KT has some similar challenges such as the capabilities and motivation of the senders and

receivers, the tacit nature of the knowledge and the relationships between the senders and receivers, inter-organisational KT has additional challenges such as more varied boundaries, more complex transfer processes, greater business barriers and National cultural obstacles (Inkpen and Tsang (2005); Easterby-Smith et al. (2008b)). However, intra-organisational KT in the GCC also has some unique context due to the in-flow of global knowledge through Expatriate workers and the sector-specific capability, skill gaps and employment dynamics of local labour (Ewers, 2013).

Authors	Definition of Knowledge Transfer
Argote and Ingram (2000)	A process by which one group is affected by the experiences of another
Kumar and Ganesh (2009)	The activities in exchanging knowledge (explicit and tacit) during which one agent receives and applies the knowledge of another.
Minbaeva et al. (2003)	A process that covers several stages starting from identifying the knowledge over the actual process of transferring the knowledge to its final utilization by the receiving unit
Martinkenaite (2011)	The process, the context and the outcome of inter-organizational learning
Szulanski (1996)	A process of dyadic exchanges of knowledge between the source and recipient units consisting of four stages: initiation, implementation, ramp-up and integration.
van Wijk et al. (2008)	The process through which organizational actors – teams, units, or organizations – exchange, receive and are influenced by the experience and knowledge of others

Table 2-6. Summary of Knowledge Transfer Definitions

The most common model for describing KT is a conduit one, where the ‘message’ is sent from a sender to a receiver through a communications channel. However, KT is a more complex, dynamic and protracted process (Szulanski et al., 2016) so for this research a simple 4 element model (Minbaeva, 2007) has been selected to conceptualise the KT activity, however it has been adapted by this practitioner-researcher to reflect the dynamic nature of the process (Figure 2-3).



In Bold – elements of knowledge transfer

In Italics – barriers/determinants associated with the four elements of knowledge transfer

Figure 2-3. Knowledge Transfer: A Dynamic Schematic Diagram
(Adapted from Minbaeva (2007))

The model describes the transmission of knowledge from the sender to the receiver within an intra-organisational context. That transfer is affected by the sender's disseminative capacity, the knowledge characteristics, the absorptive capacity of the receiver and the relationships between the sender and the receiver. The dynamic iteration of the process recognises that failure in the process will result in it being repeated, perhaps many times until the sender can explain or the receiver can understand the knowledge. Failure in the KT process can occur for several reasons such as individual capacity and the knowledge characteristics, but also the duration of the KT process, delays in knowledge application and therefore forgetfulness, and the feedback review mechanisms in place to check understanding and skilful use of the knowledge.

2.4.3. Knowledge Transfer Barriers and Enablers

Studies of the effectiveness of KT have shown that the characteristics of the sender, receiver and organisational context are important. Knowledge is transferred by individuals through their interpersonal interactions, which are driven by their

motivations and capability. Understanding KT only by considering the organisational level misses the importance of individual action (Foss (2007); Minbaeva (2007); Minbaeva et al. (2012)). Context, culture, power, priorities and governance structures all affect how knowledge is represented, stored, transferred and applied (Cummings and Teng (2003); Easterby-Smith et al. (2008a); Jennex (2008); Nousala et al. (2007)). Characteristics which affect KT include the motivation of the sender and receiver; and the strength and quality of the relationships (Argote et al. (2003); Ribiere and Zhang (2010); Lawson and Potter (2012)).

Factors which affect the motivation of the sender and receiver include trust (benevolence or competency based), common cultures, vocabularies, frames of reference, meeting times and places, status and rewards (Bratianu and Orzea (2010); Levin and Cross (2004); Park (2011); Witherspoon et al. (2013)). Factors which affect the quality of the relationship include causal ambiguity and how arduous it is (Szulanski (1996); van Wijk et al. (2008)). In the GCC there is potentially great distance between context and culture but also other individual issues remain important such as trust, communication, reward, and management support (Al-Alawi et al. (2007); Al-Busaidi et al. (2010); Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Alharbi and Singh (2013)). As this research focuses on understanding the barriers and enablers to KT between Expatriates (sender) and Nationals (receiver) individual characteristics will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.4.4. Sender Characteristics

Two of the most important characteristics of the sender are motivation and capability (Argote et al. (2003); Ribiere and Zhang (2010); Szulanski (1996)). Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation has been discussed previously in the chapter, so this next section will focus on capability. Disseminative capacity is defined as the ability and motivation of senders to transfer knowledge where and when it is needed within the organisation (Minbaeva and Michailova, 2004). It has also been called dispatching capacity and distributive capability with slightly varying definitions but with the same intent (Whitehead et al., 2016). The relationship between sender disseminative capacity and KT has some support in previous studies which focussed on the role of

the Expatriate in KT and is consistent with conceptual research on repatriates' KT (Oddou et al., 2013).

However, even with disseminative capacity, a sender still may not transfer knowledge. A sender may be reluctant to share crucial knowledge for fear of losing ownership, a position of privilege, superiority; they may resent not being adequately rewarded for sharing hard-won success; or they may be unwilling to devote time and resources to support the transfer (Szulanski, 1996). In these circumstances, senders have a number of strategies for withholding knowledge.

Recently, investigators have begun to examine the effect of knowledge hiding in the KT process but it is underrepresented in the literature and based on a few small case studies (Connelly et al. (2012); Serenko and Bontis (2016); Webster et al. (2008)). None of the KT hiding research has been conducted in the GCC or with Expatriates. Knowledge hiding is defined as “an intentional attempt by an individual to withhold or conceal knowledge that has been requested by another person” (Connelly et al., 2012:65). It is distinct from other concepts such as hoarding (which is the act of accumulating knowledge which may or may not be transferred in the future); hostility (which is outright defiance of the process); partial transfer; and ignorance (Husted and Michailova (2002); Husted et al. (2012); Witherspoon et al. (2013)). It is also distinct from disengagement in KT where individuals are neither actively communicating their knowledge, nor motivated to protect it (Ford and Staples, 2008) and absence of KT which may be by mistake, accident, or ignorance. Knowledge hiding is an intentional attempt to withhold or conceal knowledge and is detrimental to company and individual performance (Connelly et al. (2012); Evans et al. (2015)).

There are several reasons why individuals may hide knowledge: political gain; territoriality or attachment to the knowledge; psychological ownership; interpersonal dynamics; organisational culture; personal characteristics and emotional intelligence (de Geofroy and Evans (2017); Webster et al. (2008)). Other reasons could include the characteristics of the knowledge (implicit knowledge is easier to hide than explicit); leadership styles and organisational commitment (Husted et al. (2012)); or sheer laziness (Connelly et al., 2012); and job insecurity (Serenko and Bontis, 2016)). Whilst job insecurity has had significant attention in organisational and psychological studies with respect to the social contract an employee has with their

employer, it is relatively understudied in the knowledge management literature. Job insecurity is defined as “perceived powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation” (Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt, 1984:438) and can result in a reduction in effort, likelihood of leaving the job or a resistance to change. Job insecurity can lead to a reduction in KT effort and knowledge hiding/hoarding (Michailova and Husted, 2003). However, fear of losing a job does not always result in knowledge hiding, it has also been found to increase KT where employees believed that their job situation would actually be strengthened by KT, as active participation would improve their visibility and perceived usefulness (Ardichvili et al., 2006).

Methods of knowledge hiding include: Playing dumb (where the hider pretends to be ignorant of the relevant knowledge); evasive hiding (where the hider makes a misleading promise of a complete answer in the future with no intention to actually provide it); and rationalized hiding (where the hider offers a justification for failing to provide requested knowledge by suggesting he or she is unable to provide it) (Connelly et al., 2012). The impact on knowledge hiding on KT is not only the absence of transfer but it also a level of reciprocity, the distrust created leads to a cycle of further hiding and distrust amongst the senders and receiver (Černe et al. (2014); Serenko and Bontis (2016)).

2.4.5. Receiver Characteristics

It is now well established from a variety of studies that the characteristics of the receiver include lack of Absorptive Capacity (AC) or lack of retentive capacity, and lack of motivation and trust (Szulanski, 1996). It may be the result from the receiver being unable to comprehend, value and exploit the new knowledge because their pre-existing knowledge base. It may also be because the receiver believes a sender “may want to harm them, they will be cautious in admitting the extent of their own lack of knowledge and reluctant to learn from any transferred knowledge, regardless of its tacitness, for fear that it might be wrong or misleading” (Levin and Cross, 2004:1481). Lack of receiver motivation could be as a result of reluctance to accept knowledge from outside the receiver group or organization (not invented here syndrome) and may result in foot dragging, passivity, feigned acceptance, hidden sabotage, or outright rejection in the implementation and use of new knowledge

(Szulanski, 1996). Motivation has been previously discussed in Section 2.3.7.4. Therefore, here, AC will be discussed.

Most research in intra-firm KT emphasizes the importance of AC of the knowledge recipients (Tang et al., 2010). However, the few studies which focus on individual KT characteristics also emphasise the importance of AC. But, it has been suggested that “Because knowledge is personalized, in order for an individual's or a group's knowledge to be useful for others, it must be expressed in such a manner as to be interpretable by the receiver” (Alavi and Leidner, 2001:110). Whilst the sender might have good social knowledge and deep technical expertise they also need a well-developed capability to communicate. “This ability to articulate and translate the knowledge he or she has will minimize misunderstanding and duplication of the KT, thus helping to transfer knowledge faster in the organization” (Tang et al., 2010:1592).

AC does not fully address this capability of the sender, who does not have to absorb the knowledge but transmit it. Recently, some studies have focussed on this neglected area of KT, disseminative capacity as a counterpart to AC. AC has become an important construct in organisational theory, international management and strategic research (Kim and Inkpen (2005); Volberda et al. (2010)). Although it has also been called a reified concept: something which is abstract has been made more concrete, ideas and theories have been objectified (turned into things) by a researcher who have then forgotten that they have done so (Lane et al., 2006). In their seminal paper, Cohen and Levinthal (1990:128) defined AC as “the ability of the firm to recognize the value of new, external information, assimilate it, and apply it to commercial ends”. Zahra and George (2002:186) defined AC as “a set of organizational routines and processes by which firms acquire, assimilate, transform, and exploit knowledge to produce a dynamic organizational capability”.

Cohen and Levinthal (1990) consider the ability of a firm to innovate and be successful depends on its level of prior related knowledge (basic skills, shared language, background knowledge, exposure to the most recent developments) to exploit new knowledge. This prior related knowledge is both at an individual and company level. However, a company's AC is not just the sum of individual's AC but a product of the firm's ability to transfer knowledge within and across boundaries

(Cohen and Levinthal, 1990). Zahra and George (2002:198) argue that the Cohen and Levinthal approach “concentrated on acquiring and exploiting external knowledge but not emphasizing its dynamism; and was an unidirectional approach, not emphasizing fluidity and multidirectionality”. They proposed a reconceptualisation of AC as a dynamic capability to enhance a company’s knowledge creation and competitiveness. Their reconceptualisation is one of the most popular and consistently used AC models. However, whilst the Zahra and George concept of AC highlights the need for a social integration mechanism it does not discuss how the knowledge can be transferred or indeed the broader factors that influence KT such as those between the senders and receivers.

Todorova and Durisin (2007) suggest that the Zahra and George model is a derivative of the original Cohen and Levinthal concept. They proposed a third, hybrid model that reintroduces some of Cohen and Levinthal’s language, dispenses with some of Zahra and George’s concepts and introduces feedback loops. They argue that the Zahra and George model is too sequential in nature and that acquisition, the first step in the Zahra and George model, does not fully explain the need to recognize and value the new external knowledge that is to be acquired. These are valid observations and support this practitioner-researcher’s experience that KT is not sequential but cyclic in nature as the sender and the receiver progress along the KT journey together.

AC is influenced by a number of internal and external factors. Internal factors include the prior knowledge base, individual absorptive capacity, the level of education and academic qualifications of employees, the diversity of their backgrounds, the particular role played by gatekeepers, organisational structures, levels of cross-functional communication, organisational culture, company size, organisational inertia, investment in R&D, and HR management (Daghfous (2004); Minbaeva et al. (2014)).

External factors are a combination of the external knowledge environment and the company's position within the relevant knowledge networks (Daghfous, 2004). In terms of AC and an individual’s behaviour and motivation in international business, the issue of context becomes important: “motivational issues vary with certain

contextual factors, such as culture, mindset, history, and religion” (Minbaeva et al., 2014:58).

2.4.6. Sender – Receiver Relationship

The sender cannot just share the knowledge and a receiver cannot just adopt the shared knowledge as their own. KT must be adapted for the specific context, culture and circumstances. This is the responsibility of the sender. However, adaptation is not a panacea, it can cause stickiness itself, as Jensen and Szulanski (2004) found it can significantly increase stickiness, potentially through insufficient adaptation, either in timing, content or scale. In international settings other researchers have found similar stickiness factors: organisation context, social context, relationship context (Riusala and Smale (2007); van Burg et al. (2014)); cultural intelligence, knowledge-seeking behaviour, trust and shared vision (Ismail, 2015); commitment, and high staff turnover (Smale and Suutari, 2011).

The sender often has the power in relation to the receiver and this can affect the efficacy of KT. Power relations are defined here as one person having the power in the relationship to give or withhold the desired knowledge from another. So, to enable successful KT, firms need to establish the correct intra-organisational relationships; create the opportunity for and develop social ties (defined here as the weak, strong or absent connection between people for transferring information and knowledge); and establish the mechanisms and structures (defined here as the processes, media and forum used to share knowledge) that facilitate KT (Chang et al. (2012); Lawson and Potter (2012)).

Knowledge stickiness is defined as difficulty experienced in the KT process (Szulanski (1996); Szulanski (2000)). Knowledge stickiness considers explicit knowledge as easier to acquire than tacit, and that the latter is therefore stickier. Whilst Szulanski (1996) is best known for using this term he acknowledges its root in work by Arrow in the 1960s, Teece in the 1970s and von Hippel in the 1990s. Knowledge stickiness can occur because of the characteristics of knowledge (tacitness, uncodifiable, and complexity); the characteristics of the sender (lack of motivation or trustworthiness); characteristics of the receiver (lack of motivation, lack of absorptive capacity or lack of retentive capacity) but according to Szulanski

(1996) the causal ambiguity of the knowledge and or arduous nature of the relationship (characteristics of the context) are the most significant factors.

Causal ambiguity results from not understanding the casual connections between actions and results, such as “When the precise reasons for success or failure in replicating a capability in a new setting cannot be determined even *ex post*” (Szulanski, 1996:31). Causal ambiguity could be caused by the tacit nature of the knowledge, the difficulty in articulation, not understanding some of its features when applied in a new context or the new inter-relationships. An arduous relationship is defined as “one which is laborious and distant” (Szulanski, 1996:32). It occurs when differences strain communication, cooperation, sharing and learning. The success of KT depends upon the intimacy of the overall relationship and ease of communication between the sender and the receiver. An arduous relationship between sender and receiver makes overcoming knowledge stickiness more difficult because interaction, personalised communication, observation, and practice may become more difficult (Szulanski et al., 2016).

Many companies employ strategies to overcome knowledge stickiness such as communities of practice, best practice forum, databases and wiki. But, for KT to be successful it requires a shared context and this can be difficult in multinationals or with culturally different partners. Wang and Noe (2010) suggest, despite considerable investment in the development of knowledge management systems, a failure to facilitate KT is often because of neglecting the organisational and personal contexts. As Jennex (2008) observes, culture and context affect how knowledge is represented, stored, transferred and applied. Nousala et al. (2007) contend the environment strongly affects KT and, similarly individuals involved in KT must be selected not only for their technical competence but also their soft skills such as international experience, teaching ability, cultural awareness and motivation (Choi and Johanson (2012); Chang et al. (2012))

Current research suggests that knowledge stickiness is best overcome through interaction between the sender and receiver; through personalised communication; receiver observation of the knowledge in use; and receiver practice (Szulanski et al., 2016). Through interaction the sender can provide their own perspective and implicit rules and assumptions and better externalise their tacit knowledge (Nonaka

(1994); Riusala and Smale (2007)). Personal communication better enables KT because it permits selective articulation, flexibility of format and customisation (Alavi and Leidner (2001); (Szulanski et al., 2016)). Through practice observation individuals without a shared language can acquire tacit knowledge through observation, imitation and emulation. As Nonaka (1994:19) observes apprentices learn “not through language but by observation, imitation, and practice”. This is the same as on-the-job training in businesses. Finally, through receiver practice individuals acquire tacit knowledge through action and practice, where people move to act on knowledge (Argote and Fahrenkopf (2016); Nonaka (1994))

2.5. Summary

This chapter presented a literature review of KT. It set the background of the research within the strategic management concepts of RBV and KBV. It provided a definition and analysis of the concepts of knowledge, KM and KT. It also discussed KY in the context of organisations and individuals. Culture and motivation as perspectives on KT was analysed. The chapter continued by analysing KT models and the barriers and enablers. In doing so it identified disseminative capacity, AC, knowledge stickiness, causal ambiguity and an arduous relationship as barriers to KT.

The next chapter presents a literature review of the GCC context for KT.

3. CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW – GCC CONTEXT

3.1. GCC Knowledge Transfer

KT in the GCC is important to all of the countries as they attempt to realise their national visions and develop knowledge based economies (Al-Asfour and Khan (2013); Sohail (2012)) The primary business processes by which both explicit and tacit knowledge is transferred to Nationals is through training programmes; on-the-job training and coaching by Expatriates. However, there has been limited KT research in the GCC (Alatawi et al. (2012); Jensen and Szulanski (2004); Ribiere and Zhang (2010); Wang and Noe (2010)). Indeed, in their review of the literature, Alatawi et al. (2012) found no knowledge management research had been undertaken in 14 Arab countries and only 8 articles in GCC countries.

A 2016 search of the University of Manchester online library database¹ for KT or sharing in the title for any of the GCC countries found only 3 articles. However, this is mainly because the few studies that have been undertaken into GCC KT have been undertaken by local researchers and published in non-peer reviewed journals. Nevertheless, KT research in the GCC is beginning to show that it is important for economic growth and diversification. However, analysis of this research shows it is limited and focussed on single countries (predominantly Saudi Arabia and UAE); concentrates mainly on Nationals and typically uses survey methods (Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Al-Alawi et al. (2007); Seba et al. (2012); Skok and Tahir (2010)). This is summarised in Table 3-1 and indicates that there is a gap in the GCC KT literature for an investigation of KT in two GCC countries (Qatar being novel); the aerospace and defence industry in Saudi Arabia; at an individual level (Expatriates being relatively novel) and using a qualitative approach.

Further analysis shows that this GCC KT literature also largely neglects to establish its research in a strategic context, principally focussing on organisational and individual factors impacting KT. This is a gap in the literature which this research will attempt to close using the Localisation literature, which finds similar barriers

¹ Includes: Primo Central (a cross-disciplinary resource that details millions of e-resources, such as journal articles, e-books, and digital collections from sources such as Web of Knowledge, JSTOR, MEDLINE, ScienceDirect and publishers such as Elsevier, Springer and Wiley)

and enablers to those programmes, as has been found in the KT literature. A summary of the available research into GCC KT factors is provided in Table 3-2. Analysis of this literature for the most common issues reveals that: motivation, culture and leadership are the most important factors affecting KT. In terms of KT from Expatriates to Nationals, and in support of the broader KT literature, one of the few studies that covered both sender and receiver noted the individual factors were: abilities and motivation of Expatriates; abilities and motivation of Nationals; and the relationship between Expatriates and Nationals (Bonache and Zárrega-Oberty, 2008).

Authors	Country	Organisation	Methodology
Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011)	Saudi Arabia	Telecommunications	Questionnaire, 378 respondents
Al-Alawi et al. (2007)	Bahrain	Police force	Questionnaire, 231 respondents
Al Attar and Shaalan (2017)	UAE	Electrical Engineering	Questionnaire, 174 respondents
Al-ESia and Skok (2014)	UAE	Construction	Questionnaires, 40 respondents
Al-Busaidi et al. (2010)	Oman	Petrochemical	Questionnaire, 104 respondents
Ahmad and Daghfous (2010)	UAE	Health, Hotel, IT, Insurance	Interviews, 13 MNCs
Alharbi and Singh (2013)	Saudi Arabia	Chemical, Petroleum, Electronics,	Questionnaire, 147 respondents
Alrawi et al. (2013)	UAE	Industry and private sector	Questionnaire, 112 respondents
Arif and Hassan Bin Shalhoub (2014)	Saudi Arabia	Private sector	Delphi
Ewers (2013)	UAE	Finance sector	Questionnaire, 300 respondents
Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014)	Middle East	None	Theoretical framework
Nour (2013)	Middle East	None	Secondary data source analysis
Seba et al. (2012)	UAE	Police Force	Questionnaire, 319 respondents
Skok and Tahir (2010)	UAE	Construction	Questionnaire, 31 respondents
Yeo and Marquardt (2015)	Saudi Arabia	Petrochemical, Telecommunications	Interviews, 54 people

Table 3-1. Summary of GCC KT Literature

Main Element	Knowledge Transfer Factor	Country	Authors
Organisational Commitment	Organisational structure Physical layout of the organization	Bahrain UAE	Al-Alawi et al. (2007) Al-Esia and Skok (2014) Seba et al. (2012)
	Organisational culture	UAE Oman	Alrawi et al. (2013) Al-Busaidi et al. (2010)
	Communication and Information flow	Saudi Arabia Bahrain UAE	Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011) Al-Alawi et al. (2007) Alhussain and Bixler (2011) Alrawi et al. (2013)
	Knowledge transfer policies and structure	Saudi Arabia UAE	Al Mutairi and Jameel Qureshi (2014) Al-Esia and Skok (2014) Alhussain and Bixler (2011)
	Management commitment of funds, time and resource	UAE Middle East	Ahmad and Daghfous (2010) Arif and Hassan Bin Shalhoub (2014) Seba et al. (2012) Skok and Tahir (2010)
	Leadership	Saudi Arabia UAE	Alrawi et al. (2013) Arif and Shalhoub (2014) Seba et al. (2012) Yeo and Marquardt (2015)
	Trust & Confidentiality	UAE Saudi Arabia Bahrain	Ahmad and Daghfous (2010) Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011) Al-Alawi et al. (2007) Al-Esia and Skok (2014) Alrawi et al. (2013) Seba et al. (2012) Yeo and Marquardt (2015)

Main Element	Knowledge Transfer Factor	Country	Authors
	Lack of education	UAE	Skok and Tahir (2010)
	Expatriate fixed & short-term contracts	UAE	Al Attar and Shaalan (2017) Al-Esia and Skok (2014) Skok and Tahir (2010)
Intrinsic Motivation	Status and power	UAE	Al-Esia and Skok (2014)
	Self-doubt and self-centeredness	Saudi Arabia	Yeo and Marquardt (2015)
	Competence	UAE Middle East	Ahmad and Daghfous (2010) Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014)
	Employee attitudes	Middle East UAE Saudi Arabia	Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014) Seba et al. (2012) Yeo and Marquardt (2015)
Social Engagement	Social integration, socialisation	UAE Middle East	Al Attar and Shaalan (2017) Ewers (2013)
	Team cohesion/spirit & strong social networks	Saudi Arabia UAE	Al-Esia and Skok (2014) Skok and Tahir (2010) Yeo and Marquardt (2015)
	Culture of verbal, informal communication	UAE	Al-Esia and Skok (2014) Skok and Tahir (2010)
	Individual culture	Middle East UAE	Al-Esia and Skok (2014) Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014) Skok and Tahir (2010)

Table 3-2. Summary of GCC KT Factors

3.1.1. Culture

Previous studies have shown that KT across cultural boundaries creates additional challenges and a lack of understanding of the norms and values and hinders KT (Inkpen and Tsang (2005); Mowery et al. (1996); Wenger et al. (2002)). Culture is a significant barrier to KT in the GCC (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Alhussain and Bixler (2011)). Organisation culture affects KT both positively and negatively, in that it can promote or hinder KT (Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Alrawi et al. (2013); Ewers (2013)). Al-Esia and Skok (2014) reported that organisational culture has a negative impact on KT, revealing itself in three ways: lack of supporting KT policies (temporary Expatriate contracts and employee salaries), the organisation layout (lack of areas for social engagement) and poor HR management of cultural policies (lack of teambuilding and social networking activities).

However, individual culture has perhaps an even greater effect on KT; with Arab KT attitudes differing amongst different co-worker groups and that the stereotyping of Expatriates is a barrier to KT. This stereotyping is based on the Expatriate's nationality as well as perceived performances. It results in the exclusion of Expatriates from National's in-groups; lower levels of performance, increased cultural distance and poor KT (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Bonache et al. (2016)). This also has a counterproductive effect on KT with Expatriates, due to heavy cultural emphasis on status, power and strong social networks and informal communications, all of which are difficult to achieve with Expatriates (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Yeo and Marquardt (2015)) As Al-Esia and Skok (2014:7) describe KT "seems to be used as a pawn or power card in order to achieve status and power". However, this cultural stereotyping is not a one-way street. Nationals are also negatively stereotyped by Expatriates with regard to skills and competencies, work ethics, cultural disposition, and perceived effectiveness of the process (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner, 2010).

In the GCC trust is one of the most important social factors (Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Al-Alawi et al. (2007); Seba et al. (2012)). A central theme in Arab culture is trust and whilst Arab peer to peer trust did not seem to be an issue for Al-Busaidi et al. (2010), trust takes time to build up with Expatriates (Al-Esia and Skok, 2014) and a lack of trust can be a significant barrier to effective KT (Yeo and

Marquardt (2015); Youssef et al. (2017)). Similarly, reciprocity is also another factor linked closely to trust. Reciprocity is the practice of sharing things with others for mutual benefit. Reciprocity plays an important role in Arab culture, particularly during the formation of relationships and social networks, sharing values and attitudes that underpin social interaction and exchanges based on mutual trust and obligation (Abosag and Lee (2013); Berger et al. (2015); El-Said and Harrigan (2009)). A relationship based on trust and reciprocity is likely to promote KT (Inkpen and Tsang (2005); Osterloh and Frey (2000); Reagans and McEvily (2003)). One solution to overcome this issue has been proposed by Ahmad and Daghfous (2010:163) who suggest it “requires a comprehensive understanding of the sustainable competitive advantage and long-term superior performance offered by KM practices” and that once it is better understood and articulated traditional and cultural barriers to KT can be overcome.

3.1.2. Motivation

As previously discussed, motivation of the sender and receiver has been recognised as one of the main factors which can affect KT (Szulanski (1996); Argote et al. (2003); Ribiere and Zhang (2010)). Studies in the GCC have found extrinsic and intrinsic motivation to be key factors, although there is some disagreement about the importance of one over the other and whether Expatriates and Nationals have the same motivations. As Ali (1993:67) commented: “With regard to incentive systems, participants indicate that motivation comes from interpersonal transactions, social relations and from an opportunity to get paid for helping others”

Like with other studies, extrinsic motivation in the GCC is heavily focussed on salary and rewards (Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Al-Busaidi et al. (2010); Al-Alawi et al. (2007)). The lack of incentives was found to be a barrier to KT by Alhussain and Bixler (2011) and Al Attar and Shaalan (2017); whilst rewards and recognition was found to be crucial for reinforcing positive attitude and behaviour towards KT (Yeo and Marquardt, 2015). However, such rewards did not motivate equally, Punshi and Jones (2016) found that job title, size of office, and other grade-related benefits, were disproportionately greater drivers of Nationals than Expatriates. Meanwhile, counter to most research into KT, Seba et al. (2012) reported that rewards did not to have any significant impact on attitudes to KT in the

UAE police force but that might be the result of socially acceptable self-reporting in response to the questionnaires.

Like the broader KT literature, intrinsic motivation was also important in encouraging KT however it was much less prevalent than extrinsic motivations. The intrinsic motivations of Nationals appear to be status and power (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014)). There was little research into Expatriate motivation but self-doubt in response to the complex social and political dynamics appears to affect their willingness to transfer knowledge (Yeo and Marquardt, 2015). This results in knowledge hoarding (Al-Alawi et al., 2007) and knowledge hiding due to job insecurity; “if training a local worker means training his or her potential replacement, then knowledge transfer could mean losing their job as well” (Ewers, 2013:131).

3.1.3. Leadership

Leadership and senior management support to KT by setting the agenda, providing a vision, demonstrating the values has been identified as an important factor. (Argote (2013b); Davenport and Prusak (1998); Teece (2007)). In the GCC, leadership has been found to be equally important, if not more so in its hierarchical organisational structure and patronage culture (Al-Busaidi et al., 2010); Alhussain and Bixler (2011); Seba et al. (2012)). In their investigation of the private sector in Saudi Arabia, Arif and Shalhoub (2014) concluded that leadership was the most significant effect on employee engagement in KT whilst Seba et al. (2012) suggest that it is necessary for leaders to engage in knowledge sharing itself to motivate employees. However, leadership can also have a negative impact on KT: as the lack of recognition and support for some employee groups can be perceived as discriminatory and demotivating (Yeo and Marquardt, 2015); whilst too much focus spent on controlling the time and resources spent on KT can also send the wrong message to employees (Ahmad and Daghfous (2010); Al Attar and Shaalan (2017); Seba et al. (2012)).

3.1.4. Wasta

GCC organisational culture reflects the economic, political, legal and historical environments and the socio-cultural characteristics of the workforce and society. It

is characterised by familial businesses, autocratic but consultative ownership, a focus on interpersonal relationships within an ethical framework, and a collectivist, networked culture. It is a group-oriented, hierarchical, masculine society with a low on future orientation (Al Harbi et al. (2016); Iles et al. (2012)). Collectivism provides a strong cohesive social framework which influences individuals and the organisation. Individuals avoid responsibility and risk, preferring a stable lifestyle over rewarding but challenging work. They prioritise friendships and personal considerations over organisational goals and performance (Ali (1993); Ali and Al-Owaihan (2008); Galanou and Farrag (2015)).

In studying the strategic decision making process in 140 Qatar public and private organisations, Galanou and Farrag (2015) found that strategic decision making and innovation were both positively and negatively affected by Qatari culture. Qatari executives are mostly pseudo-participative as Arabic culture teaches individuals to comply with authority, honour elders, and respect and listen to parents. The management style of Qatar managers tends to be centralised, authoritarian, and dominated by one powerful individual. Leaders are often appointed on age and seniority, not capability (Iles et al., 2012). Although their research only focussed on a limited number of Western cultural values and did not cover motivational factors or the impact of the organisational context on strategic decision making, it does provide a valuable insight into Arab business culture which also influences KT.

The findings of Galanou and Farrag (2015) reflect the Arab power distance perspective articulated by Hofstede and other aspects of Arab business culture which relies heavily on mutual interdependence and collectivism. There is a greater sense of responsibility towards the family and in-group interests take priority over an individual's needs and goals. "Individuals tend to place personal and political relationships above work procedures and performance" (Al Harbi et al., 2016:9). Similarly, business relations stem from social relations and social relationship building is especially important for Western companies seeking SCA in the GCC (Berger et al., 2015). This personal, political and business relationship is based on what Ramady (2016:vii) calls "like the proverbial elephant in the room": *wasta*.

Wasta has been variously described as "nepotism, intercession, mediation, connections, or clout" (Punshi and Jones, 2016:116); "a process whereby one may

achieve goals through links with key persons” (Smith et al., 2012:335); “the ability to use family or tribal affiliations to gain unmerited favour” (Forstenlechner et al., 2012:408); and “a source of nepotism, cronyism and corruption” (Berger et al., 2015:462). Wasta is a common and accepted practice in the Arab world. In a Saudi Arabia case studies, Aldossari and Bourne (2016:31) found that “Wasta was one of the main factors of career success” and Saudi Nationals thought is significantly more important than qualifications, competence and knowledge to achieve promotion. Wasta is an accepted practice in Saudi Arabia and managers often rely on family and friendship relationships to get things done, both for themselves and their organisation (Al Harbi et al., 2016).

In the GCC, the business systems are largely characterised by an interlocking structure that stretches across, and between, networks in families, organizations and political life (Metcalf, 2007). It is “intrinsic to the operation of many valuable social processes and is central to the transmission of knowledge and the creation of opportunity” (Iles et al., 2012:473). But, it is important to recognise that that wasta is just an extreme form of Western networking or pulling strings, similar to other informal influences like *guanxi*, *jeitinho*, *svyazi* in other countries (Smith et al., 2012). However, as it does present challenges for Western Expatriates engaged in KT in the GCC and they need to recognise “the significant impact of Wasta and its influence on business interaction” (Berger et al., 2015:457)

3.1.5. Expatriates in Knowledge Transfer

There have been few studies into Expatriate engagement in KT and as this is an important element of this research, it bears a brief, specific discussion. Previous studies have shown that Expatriates have a strategically important role to play in transfer of the knowledge, skills, practices and values (Bonache and Zárraga-Oberty (2008); Minbaeva and Michailova (2004)). It has been noted that the use of Expatriates can be an effective method for transferring tacit technical know-how as well as value-based management and organisational knowledge and enhancing individual and organisation performance (Lyles and Salk (1996); Riusala and Smale (2007)). However, Boyle et al. (2012) argue the role of Expatriates in the transfer of knowledge in MNCs on international assignment is not clear and Riusala and Smale (2007:35) suggest that “Expatriates need to be especially competent not only

in translating complex and uncodifiable forms of knowledge, but also ultimately in teaching this knowledge to a host country audience that may lack the ability or motivation to absorb it.”

Whether Expatriates are deployed from a parent company into a subsidiary or employed directly factors which affect KT from Expatriates to National include the disseminative capacity (willingness, attitudes and behaviour) of the Expatriate (Chang and Smale (2013); Bonache and Zárrega-Oberty (2008)) and their previous experience and ability to consider different perspectives when presenting new knowledge (Reagans and McEvily, 2003). In addition, Chang et al. (2012) suggest they must be willing to lose face, power and prestige; cope with cultural difficulties and develop social ties. Expatriate disseminative capacity was affected by low quality of social interactions between Expatriate and Nationals; Expatriate being perceived as lacking credibility; and the language barrier (Chang and Smale, 2013).

Company strategies and processes need to be developed to overcome these barriers and minimise cross-cultural conflicts between Expatriates and Nationals (Al-Alawi et al. (2007); Al-Busaidi et al. (2010); Bonache et al. (2016)). As well as carefully selecting Expatriates who have the disseminative capacity, ability and cultural competencies is one step. Another is to also select Nationals who have a high level of emotional intelligence, and training Nationals in relation to specific national stereotypes and manage the diversity within the organisation (Bonache et al., 2016). As Minbaeva and Michailova (2004) note KT is a reciprocal, collaborative endeavour that relies as much on the knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of receiver as the sender and these are established not only by the organisation but also by the strategic context.

3.2. GCC Localisation

3.2.1. Definition

Localisation is the strategic context for KT in the GCC. There are a number of terms used in the literature for the concept of states protecting their identity, culture and economy: Indigenisation, Nationalisation and Localisation. These concepts are national strategies deployed to exert independence and greater local control over the political and socio-economic environment (Wilson, 1990). In the past, they were sometimes seen as post-colonial responses with states assuming control of natural

resources and industries; or limitations being placed on foreign ownership or quotas being set for citizen partnership and employment. These national strategies can also be seen in a wider globalisation context, where business and organisations start to operate internationally thereby increasing trade and cultural exchange, as reactions to globalisation. However, Localisation does not have to be seen as competing with or contrary to globalisation but responding to the greater world interconnectedness and local political realities (Voisey and O’Riordan, 2001).

The terms are used variously geographically, with the different words used in Asia, Africa or the Middle East. They also often have sub-concepts such as: Africanisation, Arab-isation or Gulf-isation. For the purpose of this research these terms will be considered essentially the same and the term more often seen in the GCC will be used: Localisation. Localisation in its simplest form could be consider “a local citizen is filling a job” (Potter, 1989:29) but that does not lead to effective or long-term Localisation. For Localisation to be effective for the country, organisation and individual it needs to provide meaningful jobs for knowledgeable locals. In this study Localisation is defined as: the policy of replacing Expatriates with qualified National labour (Potter (1989); Forstenlechner (2009); Iles et al. (2012); Swailes et al. (2012)).

3.2.2. Localisation Literature

Research into GCC Localisation programmes is underrepresented in the academic literature (Rees et al. (2007); Forstenlechner (2008); (Forstenlechner, 2009)). Rees et al. (2007) observed that in August 2005, an internet search for the words ‘Emiratization’, ‘Saudization’ and ‘Omanization’ resulted in 38,000, 24,000, and 12,000 hits respectively. Using the same terms in a general database of international academic business and management literature resulted in no published papers for the term Emiratization and only two papers for Saudisation and Omanization.

A similar Google search in December 2016 for ‘Emiratisation’, ‘Saudisation’ and ‘Omanisation’ found a significant growth in internet hits in just over a decade (there was no difference using a ‘z’ instead of a ‘s’). Searching for Qatarisation reveals many less hits than the other Localisation terms. A search of The University of Manchester library revealed that the terms were still largely absent in the titles of peer reviewed journals. The results are shown in Table 3-3. Whilst this simple

enquiry is quite a narrow approach to searching for Localisation (or its alternative terms) in the academic literature it is nevertheless indicative of an under-researched and under-reported geographical location – most likely because of the privacy, cultural, language and access issues in GCC countries.

Localisation Term	Google Internet ‘Hits’	The University of Manchester Peer Review Journal Returns
Emiratisation	258,000	4
Omanisation	215,000	0
Saudisation	164,000	1
Qatarisation	36,000	0

Table 3-3. Summary of Localisation Database Search

Whilst there has been limited research into GCC Localisation compared to areas such as Asia, what research has taken place has mostly been conducted in Saudi Arabia and the UAE. Moreover, it focuses predominantly at a state level, with surveys or interviews conducted with managers. Where a broader sample is analysed it has tended to be by survey of under 25 years old male Nationals. It is not representative of the National population, neglects females and has little data from Expatriates. Nevertheless, authors such as Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner, Forstenlechner, Goby, Harry, Mellahi, Metcalfe and Rees have published in Association of Business Schools (ABS) journals rated as 3: journals publish original and well executed research papers and are highly regarded. Whilst others such as Al-Asfour, Al Dorsary and Swailes have published in ABS journals rated as 2: journals in this category publish original research of an acceptable standard. In addition to these researchers, the insight provided by other authors in books, minor journal articles, reports and magazines provide useful insights.

3.2.3. GCC Localisation Programmes

Whilst this research is focussed on KT between Expatriates and Nationals in companies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar it is nevertheless important to set the context within which those companies (and potential market entrants) operate. Localisation

policies and programmes are essential elements of wider GCC national visions and development strategies created in response to globalisation and national needs. These visions and development plans all have similar themes such as: economic, human and social development with a strong element on society and education. The GCC national visions are summarised in Table 3-4. A consistent theme in the economic and human development categories is the creation of meaningful private sector jobs for nationals. For instance, through Emiratisation, the UAE aims to increase the current number of nationals working in the private sector by tenfold by the year 2021 (UAE, 2016). Whilst in Saudi Arabia the National Transformation Programme aim to create more than 450,000 jobs in the non-government sector by the year 2020 (NTP, 2016). But the desired economic diversification and Localisation requires KT and skills upgrading (Sohail (2012); Al-Asfour and Khan (2013)).

3.2.4. GCC Localisation Drivers

GCC Localisation is in part a response to globalisation. Globalisation can be considered as “an accelerating set of processes involving flows that encompass ever-greater numbers of the world’s space and that lead to increasing integration and interconnectivity among those spaces” (Ritzer, 2007:1). It can be conceived in three dimensions: political, cultural and economic, (Babones, 2007). All three affect the GCC, such as from a political perspective monarchies and governments are under threat from radical islamists, internal youth disaffection, and religious/sectarian divisions. From a cultural perspective, Islamic values and traditions are under threat from the pervasiveness of Western culture, widely experienced through travel and technology.

However, economic globalisation has had a somewhat different impact on the GCC. Whilst the region has benefitted from exploiting its natural resources in support of globalisation, it has not been the beneficiary of work relocation – the GCC is not a low-cost market with a low wage economy. The work has largely passed them by and this is a problem when natural resources are diminishing and the other globalisation dimensions are destabilising the region and nations. The tension between MNCs seeking to exploit globalisation, low cost economies and, as

GCC Country	National Vision	National Development Strategy	Priorities	References
Bahrain	Bahrain 2030	National Development Strategy (2015-2018)	Competitiveness, sustainable development, skilled employment, economic growth, and social fairness	Bahrain (2016)
Kuwait	Kuwait 2035	Kuwait Development Plan (2015-2020)	Economic, Human and Social Development	Kuwait (2016)
Oman	Oman Vision 2020	Ninth Five-Year Development Plan (2016-2020)	Human and economic development; diversification, living standards	Oman (2016)
Qatar	Qatar National Vision 2030	Qatar National Development Strategy (2011-2016)	Human, Social, Economic and Environmental development	QNV2030 (2013) QNDS (2011)
Saudi Arabia	Saudi Vision 2030	National Transformation Program; Tenth development Plan (2015-2018)	Vibrant society based on Islamic tradition; thriving economy; responsible government	KSA (2016) NTP (2016)
UAE	UAE Vision 2021	Various Emirates such as: Dubai Plan 2021	Cohesive Society and Preserved Identity; Competitive Knowledge Economy; Education System; Sustainable Environment	UAE (2016) Dubai (2016)

Table 3-4. Summary of GCC National Visions and Development Strategies

Levitt (1983) argues, converge commonality through technology could be considered at odds with GCC governments seeking to localise high technology industries. However, whilst globalisation may work for some MNCs selling Coca Cola or McDonalds, where lowest cost is not the main driver, governments are willing to pay a premium for Localisation of other products such as aerospace and defence. It may also make business sense for MNCs, as the two strategies may not be entirely incompatible. As Enright (2000:303) argues that “globalization of competition is completely consistent with the localization of competitive advantage in some industries and activities”.

In the GCC, Localisation is therefore partly a response to globalisation and is a strategy associated with economic growth; diversification; economic independence; national security; rising costs; over employment in the public sector; higher educational attainment; and increased expectations of Nationals (Al Dosary (2004); Al-Lamki (1998); Mellahi et al. (2011); Al Muftah (2016); Rees et al. (2007)). As Dedousis and Rutter (2016:303) argue: “Localisation is a multi-dimensional, systemic issue involving the interacting factors within and outside organizations. Providing an expansion on those factors, Scott-Jackson et al. (2015) propose Localisation having government, organisation and individual objectives on an economic, social, political basis. At an organisational level they include: talent management; cheapest most suitable resource; use local talent to best effect; demonstrate local citizenship and supporting government principles. At an individual level they include: maximise salaries; gain education and experience; maximise personal growth, pride and status; and contribute to national interests.

In the last 50 years, but accelerating in the last 30 years, the population of the GCC has been growing but there has also been an ever-increasing requirement for and reliance on Expatriates to provide the knowledge and skills necessary to cope with economic development, particularly oil and gas industries. The influx and reliance on Expatriates poses a cultural, social, economic and security threat to states and Nationals. Too many Expatriates can dilute the Islamic culture, influence social norms, prolong over-reliance on state benefits and create unrest due to youth unemployment and resentment (Al Muftah, 2016).

In response to the impact of increasing Expatriate workforces, sponsorship schemes, quotas, curbs on citizenship and other restrictions were initially used but they failed as both public and private sectors preferred to retain Expatriates rather than employ under-educated and unmotivated Nationals. As part of the response to Expatriate dependency; increasingly educated populations; youth unemployment; progressive female emancipation; and in readiness for a post-oil economy GCC countries developed strategies to deliver sufficient job opportunities. The introduced Localisation policies are: Bahrainisation, Emiratisation, Kuwaitisation, Omanisation, Qatarisation and Saudisation (Al-Lamki (1998); Alshiekh (2015); Kapiszewski (2016); Metcalfe (2007)).

3.2.5. GCC Localisation Barriers

There are several common themes that emerge as barriers to Localisation. A large amount of discussion both in the academic literature and the broader media discusses GCC Nationals as preferring to work in the public sector; as demanding; having a sense of entitlement; and not possessing the right skills. However, the private sector also preferred recruiting Expatriates and holds several negative cultural stereotypes about Nationals which are hindering Localisation. In his study of Saudi Arabia, Mellahi (2007) found that there were four main barriers: a disparity in wage expectations between locals and Expatriates, the cultural disposition of Nationals to manual work, the ability of employers to control Expatriate workers, and the inability of Nationals to socially integrate in the multicultural work environments. As Albayrakoglu (2010:41) observes Expatriates “were less expensive to employ, easier to lay off, and often considered to be more efficient and obedient”.

These findings are similar to those found by Al-Lamki (1998) but in Oman he also found a lack of awareness about private sector opportunities, factors related to language, experience requirements and the relatively unfavourable working conditions in the private sector. Other factors include more difficult to fire Saudi Nationals; Nationals have inadequate qualifications and Nationals are less willing to change job locations (Ramady, 2013); low motivation to work and vocational training inferior to university qualifications Torofdar and Yunggar (2012); private sector views on National work ethics and perceived effectiveness (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010)); and it is cheaper to employ Expatriates, who will work

longer hours (Alshanbri et al., 2015). The main barriers to GCC Localisation has been summarised as: Attitudes to the Private Sector, Education and Training, and Cultural Norms.

3.2.5.1. Attitude to the Private Sector

The attitude of GCC Nationals to the private sector was the most discussed barrier to Localisation in the literature. Nationals prefer working in the public sector: higher wages at middle and low-level positions; greater job security and working conditions; shorter working hours and longer holidays; higher prestige; and better chances of promotion. These benefits are attractive to Nationals with large extended families and often other business interests. As a Saudi Ministry of Economy and Planning official report stated: “The year 2014 witnessed a significant and unprecedented increase in the number of Saudis not interested in jobs by 297%.” The reason for which was stated as youths shunning low skilled jobs inconsistent with their education and qualifications (Al-Thumairi and Al-Deraa (2015:40). The Qatar government also recognises that currently it’s private sector employers are “discouraged by the skill level, work attitudes and motivation of new Qatari entrants into the labour market” (QNDS, 2011:149).

This was supported by Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2012) who suggest the main barriers for UAE Nationals were low salary and long working hours. This not only plays to a national Emirati stereotype but may not be true in all GCC countries (such as Saudi Arabia or Oman) but also reinforces the stereotypical prejudices of Expatriates. Nevertheless, interview evidence suggest there is some merit in the view in the UAE: “nationals don’t really need the money but they need the image of having a highly paid job” (Forstenlechner, 2009:141) and “We are a rich country – Thank God – and the government pays well because it can afford to do so. It is our right as nationals to have jobs that pay well” (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner, 2012:617).

Conversely, from also researching Emiratisation, Goby (2015) argues that a National’s high salary expectation might not be such an issue as many other authors suggest. Goby contends that the debate should not be whether Nationals are demanding or not, but about whether they should be required to lower private sector pay and accept conditions in their high economic environment which are attractive

to Expatriates but not Nationals. From the literature, it appears high salary and benefits expectation are an issue but that it is not just pride and public-sector comparators, but also the private sector being unable to compete and through seeking profitability offer lower (but still attractive) wages to more highly skilled Expatriates.

This preference for working in the public sector was also found in a 2015 survey of Qatari youth, with 60% of Qatari youths wanting to work for the Government (including 49% who wanted to work in Defence and Security) with only 41% considering a role in the Oil and Gas sector. For Qatari graduates (of which 30% are studying business and economics) a preference for working in the public sector rises to 80% (Benchiba-Savenius et al., 2016a). However, a similar survey in Saudi Arabia found only 31% of Saudi youth expressing a preference for the public sectors whilst 52% expressed an interest in the Oil and Gas sector (Benchiba-Savenius et al., 2016b). This maybe reflects Saudi Arabia being further along the Localisation journey than Qatar, the difference in the youth demographics and the greater differential between private and public-sector benefits in Qatar. As Ramady (2013) observes of Saudisation, the younger generation has indicated its willingness to accept positions that have been traditionally rejected by their fathers, such as jobs at hotels, restaurants, barber-shops and other direct services to customers. From my personal experience in Saudi Arabia and Qatar, I have seen Saudi Nationals in such roles, but never Qataris. Nevertheless, the motivations to work of the surveyed Saudi and Qatari youths are similar as shown in Table 3-5.

Rank	Saudi Arabia	Qatar
1	Money	Money
2	Help Country/Society	Help Country/Society
3	Make Family Proud	Work-life balance
4	Personal Development	Making Family Proud
5	Excitement	Challenge

Table 3-5. Motivation to Work Factors

(Adapted from Benchiba-Savenius et al. (2016a) and Benchiba-Savenius et al. (2016b))

These motivators are supported by Lim (2014) who surveyed and interviewed Emirati and Saudi youths. Like the motivators in Table 3-5, UAE youth preferred extrinsic motivators: higher salary, status and promotion. However, in contrast Saudis youths were found to value intrinsic motivators most and preferred jobs that were interesting and challenging, offered variety and career development to help them reach their full potential. Saudi respondents explained that the tangible rewards associated with having a job with high salary, status and promotion were not desired for their own sake or to meet egocentric needs but as a means to achieve some form of greater good. This is at odds with much of the literature and may be a result of the small Saudi sample which was limited to university graduates working in the engineering and business fields. Also, the questionnaires were self-administered and interviews conducted by phone which opens the possibility of the results being unrepresentative of true motivations.

Private sector companies struggle to offer higher wages or as attractive and comparable benefits package as the public sector. For instance, given profit and efficiency requirements for the private sector, even in the GCC, it is difficult for the private sector to compete when the Qatari government can increase public sector pay in general by 60%, and for the military by 120% as it did in 2011 (Sambridge (2011); DohaNewsTeam (2011)). From a private sector perspective, the attitudes of Nationals, real or perceived, affect company and Expatriate expectations. Expatriates who have low expectation of Nationals' commitment, time-keeping and capability. There is also a reluctance to employ Nationals, as disciplining them is difficult and offending their sensibilities possible career limiting (Forstenlechner, 2009). This is compounded by the intervention of powerful families on role, office space or working hours on behalf of their family members. Management in the GCC is greatly influenced by culture, Islam, and the role of "wasta"/"piston"(connections/pull), as well as by national and global politics (Iles et al., 2012). One last barrier is Expatriates' fear for their jobs, as Rees et al. (2007:47) "... Expatriates could not be expected to embrace Emiratization as it was ultimately aimed at removing them from the workforce."

3.2.5.2. Education and Training

In the GCC there is a gap in the level of education, training and skills of Nationals in the workplace, both public and private – but in the public sector this is less exposed. This is despite the vast amount of money spent on education and training by GCC countries and the rapid rise in university graduates; for instance in 2012 Saudi Arabia spent 25% of its budget on education and training (Ramady, 2013). There has been a traditional focus on humanities and religious studies (Forstenlechner and Rutledge, 2010) and a “common theme in the literature is one of poor employee motivation and skills gaps in the local workforce” (Swales et al., 2012:358). Forstenlechner (2009) in his study of Emiratisation found that National skills and competencies (real or perceived) were poor. Similarly, GCC education and training has been considered not to be market driven and based on private sector needs (Williams et al., 2011); that Nationals opt for religious studies in favour of sciences; jobs are allocated irrespective of merit or subject specialisation (Rutledge et al., 2011); and a lack of vocational training and development of appropriate work ethics (Torofdar and Yunggar, 2012).

3.2.5.3. Cultural Norms

Whilst cultural norms have parallels with the attitudes to the private sector, one of the peculiar barriers in the GCC is a sense of entitlement. Reflected in a need for higher salary and status, this sense of entitlement was described by Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010); Forstenlechner (2008) and Forstenlechner and Rutledge (2010) in the UAE but can be seen as a concurrent, if not explicit theme, in other research. This sense of entitlement is one of the factors which lead to cultural stereotyping by the private sector and Expatriates. It occurs because of the cultural distance between Nationals and Expatriates, especially in the private sector workplace where Nationals are often in the minority or there may be resentment for Nationals taking Expatriate jobs (Goby, 2015). It is also reinforced when lower entry standards are applied for Nationals to achieve quotas (Forstenlechner (2009)). However, for Localisation to be successfully, private companies and Expatriates need to close the culture gap and under the typical communication barriers: lack of a common language, strong accent; the wrong style, being uncommunicative; having inappropriate emotional displays or just general rudeness (Goby et al., 2015).

Finally, given the demographics in the GCC, Rutledge et al. (2011) suggest that another barrier to Localisation is the structural and cultural issues of females who have similar tertiary level qualifications but are under-represented.

A summary of some of barriers to Localisation from research in the GCC is provided at Table 3-6.

3.2.6. GCC Localisation Enablers

In the academic literature, there has been less research or recommendations on enablers to Localisation than barriers; although clearly an enabler could just be considered the positive statement of a barrier by insertion of a verb: introduce, improve, increase etc. Given the challenges of Localisation such as recruiting Nationals to meet targets, costs, attitudes and skills there remains a good reason for private companies to localise their workforce: the desire to obtain goodwill from the host government and improve the chance of winning lucrative future contracts (Forstenlechner and Rutledge, 2010). Therefore, if Localisation as a government policy and a private sector strategy is going to be successful, there are several opportunities that need to be realised to overcome the barriers. These have been summarised as: Education and Training; Attitudes to the Private Sector; Leadership Commitment and Cultural Norms.

3.2.6.1. Education and Training

The most consistent enabler described by researchers to improve Localisation was improving the education and skills of Nationals. To overcome the barriers to employment in the private sector there is a need to have a comprehensive education, skills and expectations setting programme with professional as well as academic skills (Harry (2007); Swailes et al. (2012); Al-Asfour and Khan (2013)). In reviewing Omanisation, Swailes et al. (2012:369) argue that “Successful localization requires an active collaborative participation between government and private organizations”. They identified a need to improve employability by aligning education and training to make Nationals ready for the private sector.

Main Element	Factor (Barrier)	Country	Authors
Strategic Environment	Inefficient quota systems for Nationals replacing Expatriates and recruitment of unsuitable candidates	GCC Qatar	Scott-Jackson et al. (2015) Williams et al. (2011)
	Views on woman in the workforce	Qatar Saudi Arabia	Alshanbri et al. (2015) Williams et al. (2011)
	Poorly aligned language, education, skills and training	Oman Qatar Saudi Arabia UAE	Al-Lamki (1998) Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014) Alshanbri et al. (2015) Goby et al. (2015) Ramady (2013) Rutledge et al. (2011) Torofdar and Yunggar (2012) Williams et al. (2011)
	Inequitable distribution of wealth	Qatar	Williams et al. (2011)
	National Wage structure (government versus private sector)	Oman Saudi Arabia UAE	Al-Lamki (1998) Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010) Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014) Ramady (2013)
	Reduced competitiveness	Saudi Arabia	Ramady (2013)
	Threat of terrorism and treatment of Expatriates	Saudi Arabia	Ramady (2013)
	Public policies and legal framework	UAE	Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014)
Organisational Commitment	Preference for prestige rather than performance	Qatar Saudi Arabia	Alshanbri et al. (2015) Williams et al. (2011)
	Top management commitment	UAE	Rutledge et al. (2011)

Main Element	Factor (Barrier)	Country	Authors
Extrinsic Motivation	High salary expectations of Nationals	Oman Saudi Arabia UAE	Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2012) Rutledge et al. (2011) Torofdar and Yunggar (2012) Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2012)
	Longer Working hours in private sector	Oman UAE	Al-Lamki (1998) Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2012) Rutledge et al. (2011) Swales et al. (2012)
	Private sector job (in)security (for Nationals)	Oman	Swales et al. (2012)
	Expatriates resisting see it as a threat and hinder development	GCC UAE	Rees et al. (2007) Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2012)
Intrinsic Motivation	Sense of entitlement and unrealistic expectations, own value and promotion merit	GCC UAE	Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010) Scott-Jackson et al. (2015)
	Low motivation/preparedness to work,	GCC Saudi Arabia	Scott-Jackson et al. (2015) Torofdar and Yunggar (2012)
	Lack of confidence	GCC	Scott-Jackson et al. (2015)
Engagement in Social Interaction	Stereotypical perceptions	GCC UAE	Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010) Goby et al. (2015) Rees et al. (2007) Rutledge et al. (2011) Scott-Jackson et al. (2015)
	Cultural norms	UAE	Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014) Goby et al. (2015)
	Nationals reluctant to integrate into multi-cultural work environment	Saudi Arabia	Ramady (2013)

Table 3-6. Summary of Barriers to GCC Localisation

This is supported by Alshabari et al. (2015) who proposed enhancing Saudi Nationals' skills and the education systems to enable Saudisation. There is also a need to provide vocational as well as orientation of Nationals to the private sector with work ethics and values that are conducive to a modern multicultural work environment (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2012); Torofdar and Yunggar (2012)). However, most of these studies focussed on the strategic level and government policy. Few researchers focussed at an organisational level or on what companies should do. An exception are Forstenlechner (2009) and Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014) who argue that in the UAE, companies successful in Localisation use intensive on the job and off the job training programmes for Nationals.

3.2.6.2. Attitudes to the Private Sector

The second most consistent enabler was to change the attitudes of Nationals to the private sector, particularly with respect to wage and benefits expectations. Greater cooperation was required between the government, public and private sectors to create the right employment prospects. Governments need to set policies which encourage Nationals to join the private sector. Torofdar and Yunggar (2012) suggest in Saudi Arabia that the attractiveness of working in the private sector must be increased by minimising the wage differential between the public and private sectors, with pension plans similar to those available in the public sector. In the UAE, Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2012) recommend changes in employment conditions such as shorter working hours but also more importantly "A wage policy for Emiratis who work in the private sector needs to be developed with the aim of achieving a minimum level of consistency of wage levels between the public and private sectors" (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner, 2014:185).

3.2.6.3. Leadership Commitment

A third enabler to Localisation was found to be government and organisational senior leadership commitment (Rees et al. (2007); Forstenlechner (2009)). As Rees et al. (2007:51) argue: "If Emiratization and similar nationalization initiatives within the GCC are to achieve the objective of reducing the reliance on a non-local workforce, then political and organizational leaders not only have to be committed to nationalization but also have to convince others of this commitment". Given the

track record of Localisation across the GCC, politicians also need to convince organisations and practitioners of the merits and long-term sustainability of Localisation, especially where there is a small National workforce such as the UAE or Qatar.

3.2.6.4. Organisational

In the private sector, HR policies and practices need to be adapted to support Localisation. This includes developing attraction strategies, developing a company that has a strong brand/status; and a reputation for links to education and meeting the training of needs Nationals. Private companies need to introduce more Western policies and practices with tailored performance management and rewards modified for the local cultural and business needs. Policies such as senior Nationals mentoring, promoting and disciplining local employees, rather than Expatriates were seen as key enablers. Scott-Jackson et al. (2015) describe Localisation as a talent management process, where organisations need to plan, recruit, train, monitor and retain more effectively. Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014) recommend organisations have a special department for Nationals' career planning; whilst Rees et al. (2007) suggest that monitoring of Localisation should include not only objective measures but also more qualitative measures such as employees' attitudes to ensure organisations are planning appropriately.

3.2.6.5. Cultural Norms

One of the major barriers to Localisation is the cultural distance between Nationals and Expatriates, their work ethics and mutual stereotyping (Forstenlechner (2009); Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014); Rees et al. (2007)). There is some evidence that GCC Nationals educated outside of the GCC are more inclined to work in the private sector and that eliminating some of the nepotism (through wasta) would also increase participation. In addition to governments providing the education and orientation for Nationals to make them ready for the private sector; organisations and individuals also have a role to play (Albayrakoglu, 2010). Organisations need to create a climate of diversity, respect and understanding. Nationals and Expatriates also have to take responsibility, particularly Expatriates who need to recognise and accommodate the communication preferences amongst Nationals and ensure

interpersonal communication is effective Goby et al. (2015). A summary of main enablers to GCC Localisation is provided in Table 3-7.

3.3. Literature Gaps

Whilst there has been considerable recent research into KT in Asia, particularly China, there has been little in the GCC (Jensen and Szulanski (2004); Ribiere and Zhang (2010); Wang and Noe (2010)). Therefore, there is merit in empirical research in the GCC which would provide greater contextualisation of KT, how it varies between companies and teams (Spraggon and Bodolica (2012); Ewers (2013); Minbaeva et al. (2014)). Whilst Connelly et al. (2012) suggests that a better understanding of the interpersonal relationships between the sender and receiver of knowledge would add to the emergent literature on knowledge hiding. This research into KT between Expatriates and Nationals in the GCC will help to partially close these gaps in the literature.

The few studies that have been undertaken into GCC KT have been mainly undertaken by local researchers and published in non-peer reviewed journals (Alatawi et al. (2012); Seba et al. (2012)). Those studies that have been undertaken and reported in peer-review journals have been generally focussed on one country and at national or organisation level (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Al-Alawi et al. (2007); Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014)). Whilst they have addressed barrier and enablers to KT, more research has been focussed on policy and processes.

Little of the GCC KT literature addresses the individual level, the motivations of the Expatriates and Nationals, the organisational or cultural context or how leadership may affect the outcome of KT. Research into all of these areas will close some of the gaps in the GCC KT literature. This approach to researching GCC KT is supported by Riusala and Smale (2007) (attitudes and behaviours); Skok and Tahir (2010) and Yeo and Marquardt (2015) (cultural influences); and Alrawi et al. (2013) and Seba et al. (2012) (leadership).

Main Element	Factor (Enabler)	Country	Authors
Strategic Environment	Develop the education and skills of the Nationals targeting those employers need	Oman Saudi Arabia UAE	Alshanbri et al. (2015) Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014) Forstenlechner (2009) Swales et al. (2012) Torofdar and Yunggar (2012)
	Experiential learning and awareness-building initiatives	UAE	Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014) Goby et al. (2015)
	Creation of new jobs for Saudi Nationals in the private sector.	Saudi Arabia UAE	Alshanbri et al. (2015) Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014) Torofdar and Yunggar (2012)
	Create company reputation or strong links with education providers and attraction strategies for Nationals	UAE	Forstenlechner (2009)
	Provide: self-development techniques, time management, problem solving, decision-making, leadership, motivation and communication	UAE	Forstenlechner (2009)
Organisational Commitment	Design an employment proposition that includes motivators	GCC	Scott-Jackson et al. (2015)
	Demonstrate top management commitment	Saudi Arabia UAE	Goby et al. (2015) Rees et al. (2007)
	Consider the initiative from emotional perspective	Saudi Arabia	Rees et al. (2007)
	Create a positive diversity climate for all employees	UAE	Goby et al. (2015)
Extrinsic Motivation	Combat Expatriate sabotage of nationalisation	Saudi Arabia	Rees et al. (2007)
Intrinsic Motivation	Shape attitudes and expectations of Nationals	Oman	Swales et al. (2012)
	Provide a clear sense of purpose	GCC	Scott-Jackson et al. (2015)
	Change young person's belief in state provision of benefits	Oman	Swales et al. (2012)
Engagement in Social Interaction	Raise Expatriate awareness of National preference for familiar and culturally acceptable communications strategies	UAE	Goby et al. (2015)

Table 3-7. Summary of Enablers to GCC Localisation

There was also a lack of lessons for practitioners seeking to enable KT between Expatriates and National. Some authors such as Alharbi and Singh (2013); Alrawi et al. (2013) and Goby (2015) simply summarised their findings without providing recommendations for practitioners. Other authors provided managerial suggestions but these were often too generic, focussed on organisation and technology or government policy (Ahmad and Daghfous (2010); Nour (2013); Torofdar and Yunggar (2012)). There were some authors, however, who did make clear recommendation for practitioners. For instance, Al-Alawi et al. (2007) made six specific proposals for improving KT including on leadership and recognition. Seba et al. (2012) suggested four items practitioners should improve, including trust and organisational structure. Whilst Yeo and Marquardt (2015) made recommendations across 3 levels (individual, group and organisational) including introducing a blame free culture and learning opportunities being more closely aligned to KT. Nevertheless, overall, there are few recommendations for practitioners working at the individual level or focussed on improving motivation for KT.

As was seen in the last section, there is duplication between the barriers and enablers to KT and Localisation in the GCC. Therefore, studying KT will also help to close some of the gaps in the GCC Localisation literature, particularly in Qatar. Similar to GCC KT, there is a paucity of literature on GCC Localisation but understanding how different contextual factors affect KT is at the core of international business studies (Minbaeva et al., 2014). Swailes et al. (2012:368) report that: “we did not find any literature that looks at localization through the eyes of Nationals.” A focus on Expatriates as key stakeholders in Localisation and further research into the scope and strategies for dealing with their resistance is recommended by Rees et al. (2007). Whilst in making their recommendations for future Qatar research, Williams et al. (2011:202) suggested it was important that it focussed on: “the motivation of nationals and...the practices in Qatar that support cultural aspirations, counter traditional practices, and reduce barriers to localization”. This research will also partially close these gaps in the Localisation literature.

3.4. Summary

This chapter presented a literature review of the GCC context for KT. It described the current state of KT research in the GCC – which identified trust, communication, motivation and culture as the most common barriers to effective KT. It discussed

leadership, wasta and the role of Expatriate in KT. Localisation, as the driver for KT in the GCC, was analysed; barriers and enablers discussed; and the gaps in the literature were identified.

The next chapter describes the research methodology.

4. CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the research methodology. It firstly discusses previous research methodologies in the KM field. It then focuses on the practitioner-researcher's world view, the ontology and epistemology, and justifies the selection of subjectivism and interpretivism. This is followed by describing the selection of the research strategy, the general research plan, justifying the choice of qualitative over quantitative and mixed method. The chapter then explains the research design, the framework for data collection and analysis; it discusses and justifies the case study approach.

The chapter continues with a detailed description and explanation of the research methods, including: unit of analysis, case selection, sample, conceptual framework, interview guide, document analysis and direct observation. Further description and discussion is provided on the approach to data analysis, criteria for judging and confirming the rigor of the research and ethical considerations employed in conducting the study. The chapter concludes with reflection on the pilot project that was undertaken as a precursor to this research.

4.2. Previous Research Methods

Many different methods have been used for investigating KM and these have varied across the academic disciplines. In much of the KM literature there is a preponderance of quantitative studies, mainly aimed at American journals. Michailova and Mustaffa (2012) observe that methodologically KM research is biased in favour of quantitative examinations and there is an under-representation of conceptual, qualitative and mixed methods studies in a variety of geographical contexts. Where qualitative research has been undertaken the use of frameworks and case studies is favoured as their major advantages are to understand the depth, context and complexities of the phenomena being studied.

In their assessment of 11 major KM and intellectual capital peer-reviewed journals Serenko et al. (2010) found that across 2,175 articles and 3,109 authors the use of a framework or model was the most popular research approach, followed by case studies but these were in decline. Most significantly, "field studies have been virtually non-existent" constituting only 0.33% of research methods (Serenko et al.,

2010:15). In his more recent meta-analysis of 108 scientometric studies of KM, Serenko (2013:794) concluded that over 160 frameworks have been introduced and thousands of conceptual articles had been written but that there was a need to “improve the impact of academic KM research on the state of practice” and “researchers should refrain from conceptual studies in favor of empirical investigations that employ under-represented methods, such as field studies...”. These findings are supported by Fteimi and Lehner (2015) who undertook a contents analysis study of 755 European Conference on Knowledge Management publications. They found that frameworks and models occurred with a frequency probability of 57% of the 20 research methods, whilst field studies had a frequency count of 2 in the 755 publications (0.003%).

In the GCC, research into KM, KT and Localisation is also dominated by quantitative studies, particularly questionnaires and surveys (Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Alharbi and Singh (2013); Al-Lamki (1998); Lim (2014); Seba et al. (2012)). However, many of these were only with senior managers or HR managers (Alshabri et al. (2015); Ewers (2013); Swailes et al. (2012); Rutledge et al. (2011)). Given the difficulty in accessing the public and private sector in the GCC, literature reviews, secondary data analysis and theory reconceptualisation were popular (Goby et al. (2015); Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014); Rees et al. (2007); Torofdar and Yunggar (2012)).

In relation to geographical context only one article covered more than two countries (Lim, 2014) although the two countries were the most numerous in GCC KT and Localisation research: Saudi Arabia (Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Alshabri et al. (2015); Torofdar and Yunggar (2012); Yeo and Marquardt (2015)) and UAE (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014); Ewers (2013); Rees et al. (2007); Seba et al. (2012)). Finally, within the literature, when the private sector was investigated the most popular industries were petrochemical, telecommunications, finance, and hotels (Al-Busaidi et al. (2010); Alharbi and Singh (2013); Ahmad and Daghfous (2010); Yeo and Marquardt (2015)).

Therefore, from a practitioner-researcher perspective there is a methodological gap in the literature. To better understand KT between Expatriates and Nationals in the GCC, there is a need for a qualitative, field-based study using semi-structured

interviewees to develop two cases studies in two different countries. This view is supported by Argote (2013:204) who suggests “Studies that examine the micro processes through which knowledge transfers within and across firms are likely to be fruitful” and “knowledge transfer in an international context would also make important contributions”. Michailova and Mustaffa (2012) propose that future GCC research should focus on subsidiaries of several MNCs or on several subsidiaries located in one or a few contextually similar host countries. Research into the role of Expatriate attitudes and behaviour in KT in technology-intensive industries such as aerospace is also suggested by Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014) as fruitful areas for future analysis. Whilst, Yeo and Marquardt (2015) recommend future comparative studies between GCC countries as these could further identify specific contextual and cultural factors. Finally as this research has a business focus and features fieldwork; a qualitative approach would also bring an additional benefit of countering the recent decreasing trend in practitioner contributions and field studies to the KM literature.

4.3. Ontology and Epistemology

There are different ontological and epistemological positions, paradigms or worldviews which impact research methodology (Mason (2002); Creswell (2014)). Ontology is concerned with reality and how it can be understood. Epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge and how it can be obtained. The worldview of the practitioner-researcher drives the approach to research, be that quantitative, qualitative or mixed-method. Whilst this section is not intended to be an in-depth review of the philosophy of social research, it is nevertheless important to set the context of this research and the practitioner-researcher’s worldview.

4.3.1. Ontology

Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality and whether social entities can be considered as objective entities with a reality of their own or whether they are constructions and perceptions of the individuals within the entity. These two positions are generally referred to as objectivism and subjectivism (constructivism) respectively (Saunders et al. (2009); Bryman and Bell (2011)).

Objectivism is a paradigm which “asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors” (Bryman and Bell, 2011:21). From an organisational or cultural perspective, these entities are seen to exist in their own right with their own rules, regulations and hierarchies. These exist external to the individuals inside them and therefore can be seen as having an objective reality of their own.

Subjectivism (Constructivism) is a paradigm which “asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors” (Bryman and Bell, 2011:22). From an organisational and cultural perspective, these entities do not exist in their own right but are constantly in flux and produced by social interaction, perceptions and actions of the individuals within the entity (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.3.2. Epistemology

Epistemology is concerned with what should be considered as acceptable knowledge in the field of study. The debate centres around whether social entities should be studied under the same principles of natural sciences or whether they are subject to interpretation to understand individual behaviour (Bryman and Bell, 2011). There are several different epistemological paradigms, but this section will focus on the most common: positivism and interpretivism.

Positivism is an approach to that adheres to the tenet that knowledge can only be gained through observation and the adoption of the methodologies of natural sciences. The principles of positivism include: true knowledge can be only be confirmed via the senses; the purpose of theory is to generate hypotheses for testing and assessment; knowledge is derived through gathering facts and research must be conducted value free. Research should be done through an objective approach, the researcher being impartial, neutral and value free. There is a strong preference for quantifiable findings, mathematical modelling, statistical analysis and seeking generalisations. (Bryman and Bell, 2011)

Positivism is often criticised because researching in a social context is different from researching in a laboratory; social research inherently has values and experiences within it. Interpretivism adopts a different approach to positivism in that rather than

trying to explain human actions, interpretivism attempts to understand them. Interpretivism, which has many variations, is concerned with shared meanings, in how people interpret and understand social events. It involves the researcher seeking to obtain knowledge by interpreting the subjective meaning of the social action and integrating human interest into a study. In a social context, there are often several different viewpoints and data cannot be based on facts alone. Interpretivism aims to understand the meaning behind social actions through a consideration of a subject's unique point of view. Research should be done in the real social settings, in peoples own world, and with researcher reflexivity to recognise that observations and interpretation are affected by researchers' assumptions, beliefs, and values. (Bryman and Bell, 2011)

4.3.3. Justification for Selection

The context of this research and the practitioner-researcher's worldview is one of subjective interpretivism. To recap, the aim of this research is to:

explore KT between Expatriates and Nationals in two GCC countries to provide greater understanding of the factors involved to inform aerospace and defence companies seeking to grow their business in that region.

The research is seeking to understand what knowledge is shared and how it is shared between Expatriates and Nationals in the specific context of private sector industrial companies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Interpretivism is therefore an appropriate position for this research because it accepts a socially constructed outcome and that the reality of KT in the companies will be interpreted by the employees from their own perspective. This employee interpretation will be done through interacting with the world and therefore cannot be understood independently of the people that make sense of that reality. Finally, as the relationship between the subject and the practitioner-researcher will be interactive and participative, interpretivism recognises that there is social interaction between the researcher/interviewee and that the practitioner-researcher requires reflexivity in recognising personal views and biases. This reflexivity is not only required during the interview process but equally in developing the research question and objectives; in selection or rejection of the academic literature, its analysis and presentation; and the choice of research methods.

As shown in the summary of the main paradigms in Table 4-1, the different philosophical perspectives lead to different research methodologies, strategies and methods.

Assumption	Question	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontological	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular, separate from the researcher	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by the participants
Epistemological	What is the relationship of the researcher to that researched?	Researcher is independent from that being researched	Researcher interacts with that being researched

Table 4-1. Main Paradigms Assumptions
(Adapted from Collis and Hussey (2009))

4.4. Research Strategy

Having established subjectivist interpretivism as my ontological and epistemological position, the next step is to define my research strategy. A research strategy is a “general plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research questions” (Saunders et al., 2009:600). However, some authors such as Creswell (2009) use the concept of research design to mean the same. For the purposes of this research, the concept of research strategy has been used to describe the overarching approach to the research. The principal research strategies are Quantitative (or fixed), Qualitative (or flexible) and Mixed Method (or multi-strategy) (Creswell (2009); Robson (2011)). The choice of one of these strategies is guided by the researcher’s paradigm and the research objectives.

4.4.1. Quantitative

Quantitative methods are from a post-positive epistemological position and are focused on measuring and analysing a phenomenon statistically to infer a relationship to a theory. This measurement and analysis is most often done through a deductive experiment (by measuring the impact of changing one variable) or survey (numerical description of a sample). Most often is also involves testing of a hypothesis (Bryman and Bell (2011); Robson (2011); Creswell (2009)). Good quantitative research is characterised as having reliability (consistency of the measure) and validity (measure what supposed to measure).

The advantages of quantitative research are generally that: hypotheses can be constructed and tested; findings can be generalised to the population; patterns and predictions can be made about populations; experiments/surveys can be constructed to eliminate confounding influences; precise, numerical data collection can be quickly and cheaply obtained and analysed; and it often has more credibility with audiences. However, the disadvantages of quantitative analysis are generally that: it can have an artificial and unwarranted sense of precision and accuracy; it does not capture the contextual subtleties and relationships of the phenomenon or individual behaviours/thoughts/feelings; and the focus on hypothesis testing can result in missing phenomenon which may lead to other theories being created (Bryman and Bell (2011); Robson (2011)).

4.4.2. Qualitative

Qualitative methods are from a variety of epistemological positions such as postmodernism, interpretivism, critical theory, social constructionism as well as post-positivism. Consequently, there are many different types of qualitative research methods but they generally emphasise an inductive approach, the ways in which individuals interpret the world and reality is a changing consequence of an individual's creation (Bryman and Bell (2011); Robson (2011)). Qualitative methods include: grounded theory; case studies and ethnographies. The characteristics of good qualitative methods include: multiple data collection techniques; flexible approach to the research; rigorous data collection and multiple layers of analysis.

The advantages of qualitative analysis are generally that: it provides contextual depth and detail of the phenomena being studied; it creates openness and active participation in individuals and allows them to express their feelings and experiences; and it encourages reflection in the researcher to recognise their assumptions, roles and biases. However, the disadvantages of qualitative analysis are generally that: it often deals with small sample sizes therefore it is difficult to generalise; it is difficult to replicate qualitative research because of its subjective nature and potential lack of transparency; it can be time consuming and costly; and it depends greatly on the skills and experience of the researcher to obtain, analyse and interpret data (Bryman and Bell (2011); Robson (2011)).

4.4.3. Mixed Method

Mixed methods could be considered the “third paradigm” and having the advantage of drawing upon the best of quantitative and qualitative method whilst mitigating their weaknesses (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Harrits (2011) contends that it is not a paradigm in itself but remains grounded in the existing paradigms. This is one of the problems with mixed method research in that some contend that quantitative and qualitative methods are separate paradigms with different, incompatible epistemological bases. However, many authors argue that the methods are not incompatible but can be a complimentary creation (Creswell (2009); Bryman and Bell (2011); Robson (2011)).

The mixed methods approach combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques and methods to gain a better understanding of the research question than one single approach (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004); Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007)). There are generally three mixed method strategies: non-sequence concurrent; sequential – qualitative first; and sequential – quantitative first (Creswell, 2009). The characteristics of good mixed methods include all of the aspects of quantitative and qualitative research plus a clear articulation of the reason for choosing the strategy, the priority given to the methods and how they complement each other.

The advantages of mixed methods approach are generally that: it can improve the validity of findings through better triangulation; obtain a more complete picture of the findings; address complexity and context; aid hypotheses development by helping to refine the research question; assist in instrument testing and development; and help better explain the findings. However, the disadvantages of mixed methods are generally that: quantitative and qualitative methods often have different timing issues and this can affect research progress; quantitative and qualitative methods are not always properly integrated and used only to ‘dress-up’ the results; integration of the methods, findings and interpretation is often incomplete and superficial; it depends greatly on the skills and experience of the researcher to obtain, analyse and interpret data (Bryman and Bell (2011); Robson (2011)).

4.4.4. Justification for Selection

In selecting my research approach I considered my research problem, personal experience and audience (Creswell, 2009). I also considered my personal ontology and epistemological position. In considering my research questions, I was seeking to understand the key factors of a phenomenon in a sample group which had been little studied and there were few theoretical models. I was seeking to understand the detail, richness and contextual depth of the phenomena. As a qualitative method is exploratory it is better placed than quantitative methods to achieve this outcome. Similarly, whilst mixed methods would provide the contextual depth, it retains an element of quantitative analysis of a large sample which does not help me answer my research questions.

Additionally, whilst trained in quantitative approaches, my personal experience and preference was in a more creative and flexible approach, conducting open-ended interviews and observations rather than extensive surveys and statistical analysis. A qualitative approach also allowed for a more literary-style of writing which again was my preference. Finally, whilst my academic audience would be comfortable with all three kinds of research strategies, with the more prestigious journals preferring quantitative, my practitioner audience would be more comfortable with the literary style engendered by a qualitative approach. Therefore, I decided to use the latter.

4.5. Research Design

A research design “provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data” (Bryman and Bell, 2011:40). Creswell (2009) considers there to be three research designs: quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods, but using my definition these are strategies and have been discussed in the previous section. Similarly, Saunders et al. (2009) use the term research strategy to describe what I consider to be research designs: experiment, survey, case study, action research, grounded theory, ethnography and archival research. Bryman and Bell (2011) provide a slightly different set of research designs: experimental; social survey; longitudinal; comparative and case study. However, given the philosophical and research strategy for this study, not all of these designs are appropriate. Whilst there is no hard and fast rule, which means a particular research design can or cannot be incorporated in

to a research strategy, there are some general principals around the deductive (testing of a theory using empirical research) and inductive (theory development from empirical research) nature of the approach.

As my chosen research strategy is a qualitative one and the purpose of my research is to understand in detail the key factors in successful KT between Expatriates and Nationals in two industrial companies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar the most appropriate research design is case study. A case study is an appropriate research design because it is most suitable to understand the depth and describe the complex, contextual processes involved in intra-organisational KT phenomena.

4.5.1. Case Studies

A case study is an in-depth, intensive investigation of a real-life, contemporary event where there are many points of interest that rely on multiple sources of evidence, which should converge. (Yin (2009); Bryman and Bell (2011)). Specifically, “A case study is an empirical inquiry that: investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and with its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomena and context are not clearly evident”. A case study inquiry “copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result; relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result benefits from the prior development of theoretical positions to guide the data collection and analysis.” (Yin, 2009:18)

There are basically four basic types of case studies (Saunders et al. (2009); Yin (2009)) based on 2 dimensions:

- a) Single Case (Holistic) – typically used for critical, unique, revelatory or longitudinal cases. It requires careful definition of the unit of analysis and it is difficult to generalise from a single holistic case. It is also open to the criticism of artificiality and skepticism of its empirical worth.
- b) Single Case (Embedded) – typically used for cases similar to the single holistic case but this time with a number of different units of analysis within the cases (i.e. different departments within an organisation). Having sub-units of analysis provides the opportunity for more extensive analysis. There

is a risk however, that focus on the sub-units detracts from the holistic aspect of the larger case.

- c) Multiple Case (Holistic) – typically used for exploring replication of a theoretical framework where more than one case shows literal replication (provides similar results) or theoretical replication (provide conflicting results for known reasons). This type of case study is more powerful and less open to the criticism of single case studies.
- d) Multiple Case (Embedded) - typically used for exploring replication of a theoretical framework where more than one case shows literal replication (provides similar results) or theoretical replication (provide conflicting results for known reasons) but with sub-units of analysis provides the opportunity for more extensive analysis. Similar to the multiple holistic case, this type of case study is more powerful but also requires more resource to analyse the embedded sub-units.

In this study the research design chosen was Multiple Case (Embedded) and the case study design adopted was from Yin (2009) as shown in Figure 4-1.

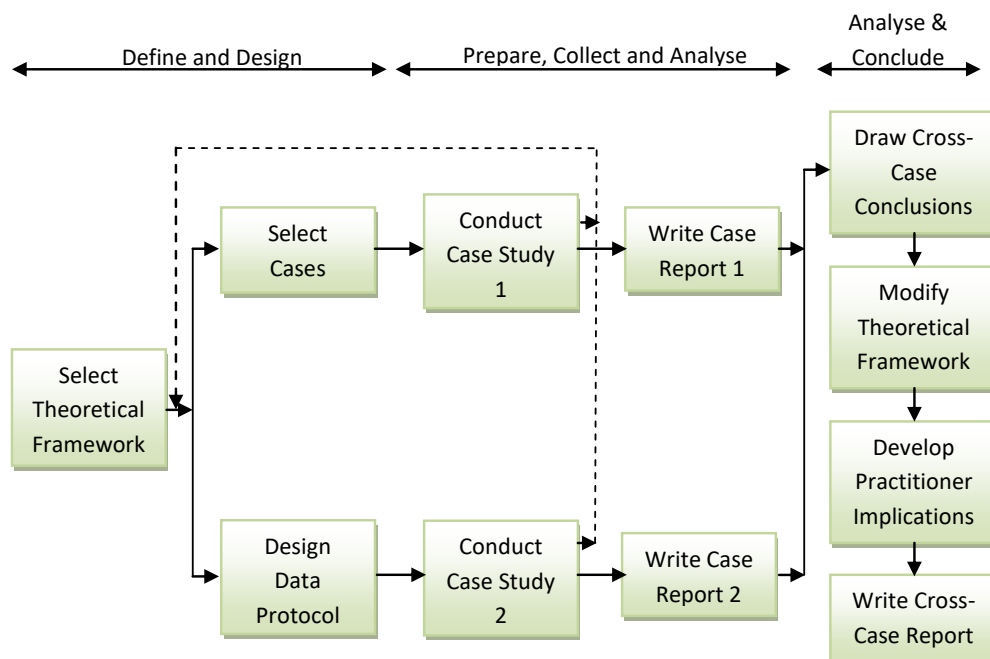


Figure 4-1. Case Study Design
(Adapted from Yin (2009:57))

4.5.2. Justification for Selection

In selecting a Multiple Case (Embedded) research design I considered my objectives which were to: a) explore the strategic context for KT in the GCC; b) identify the key factors that influence KT from Expatriates to Nationals in Saudi Arabia and Qatar; c) create practitioner guidelines to improve KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar; and d) contribute to the academic literature on intra-organisational KT in the GCC. As a case study investigates a real-life, contemporary event in depth and context it is the most suitable research design to achieve these objectives. Selection of a Multiple Case research design was also suitable because I was seeking to understand factors within a company in Saudi Arabia and 2 companies in Qatar and not a specific unique or typical company. I was seeking to be able to generalise somewhat, to improve the conceptual framework and create guidelines for practitioners seeking to knowledge share in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Therefore, whilst I wanted to understand in depth what knowledge was transferred, why and how; I also needed more than a single case.

Using two case studies gave me stronger evidence and potential for strengthening my findings and conclusion than a single case study. I selected one case from my own company in Saudi Arabia and two cases from the Energy and Industry sector in Qatar, which provided me with an opportunity to discuss in-case and cross-case findings, contrast potentially different strategies to KT in the two countries and three companies, fill potential gaps and reach more generalisable conclusions than a single case study.

Whilst the use of this research design is better than a single case study, it would have been better to have more than two cases to increase the generalisability and potential practitioner usefulness but within the constraints of this doctoral research and resources available that was not practical. It is also recognised that sacrificing generalisability beyond two countries limited potential academic interest (low generalisability) and publication opportunities although this may be somewhat offset by the practical insights gained (Linton, 2012).

4.6. Research Methods

A research method is “a technique for collecting data” (Bryman and Bell, 2011:41). The selected case study design requires a researcher with the appropriate skills and experience in the research methods chosen. Case studies offer the opportunity to use a variety of research methods, both quantitative and qualitative ones, including: interviews; document analysis; archival review; surveys; direct and participant observation and artefacts analysis (Creswell (2009); Yin (2009)). In this study semi-structured interviews, document analysis and direct observation was used to gather the data to create two cases studies. However, these were used in conjunction with other sources of data: use of key informants (one in each company), research journal, and previous business experience. The use of several types of data gathering methods improved the triangulation (corroboration) of the same facts (Yin (2009); Bryman and Bell (2011)).

4.6.1. Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis is the major entity that is being analysed in the research. It can be individuals, groups, organisations, towns or countries. In the case of this research the unit of analysis is at the individual level. This is because the aim of this research is to explore KT between Expatriates and Nationals in two GCC countries to provide greater understanding for aerospace and defence companies seeking to grow their business in that region. Although this is a study of individual level KT, it also includes organisational context and the practitioner guidelines to be produced are to enable businesses to better facilitate KT between Expatriates and Nationals in the GCC.

4.6.2. Case Selection

In developing the two case studies, it was important to choose a sample (set of subjects from a population) that best represented the case population, setting and phenomena that offered the possibility of generalisation – although statistical generalisation is not the intent of this research (Miles and Hubermann (1994); Miller and Salkind (2002)). There are generally three types of sampling: random, stratified or purposive. Random sampling is the most rigorous method, with each individual in the entire population having an equal chance of selection. Stratified sampling involves choosing a random sample from a group where a characteristic is known

and the sample is stratified on that variable. Purposive sampling focuses on a specific sub-group of interest in a population as representative or typical of the population but it is less statistically reliable (greater sampling errors and biases) than the other methods.

Qualitative research tends to be purposive, focused on a small number of subjects, not wholly pre-defined as the research process can lead to different interviewees (Miles and Huberman (1994); Miller and Salkind (2002); Robson (2011)). Considering a small number of subjects, sample size is another key element of research design. The larger the sample, or literal case replications, the better able the researcher is to generalise to the population. However, in qualitative research the aim is not usually to demonstrate the statistical probability of the samples representativeness or generalisability to the population but is more concerned with describing specific circumstances within a specific context - which may be applicable to other contexts (Yin (2009); Robson (2011)).

Conducting research in private companies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar was not what I expected to do at the start of this research process. I do not think I (or circumstances or my sponsor) could have made my research more difficult for myself because of my chosen countries and case companies. The countries where I planned to undertake my research changed several times during the first two years of the DBA programme with fluctuating sponsor priorities and events. On reflection, it would have been better to try to distance this research from the sponsoring company's business needs, but then it is a DBA and not a PhD.

Having settled on Saudi Arabia and Qatar, which in themselves are difficult to visit, access to case study companies was the next challenge. This had several false dawns in Qatar. Whilst my preference for industrial companies reflects my sponsor, my experience of finding two in Qatar was difficult with few contacts in the country. Through a lucky coincidence, contact was made with an Expatriate, who recommended two companies who finally agreed, under strict confidentiality to participate. It was not planned, it was convenient and this has had an impact on the type of case studies, breadth of data and overall generalisability of the findings. It was only slightly less difficult to gain access to Aerospace Inc, a subsidiary of my sponsoring company, who were as equally focussed on protecting business

information, maintaining reputation and being culturally sensitive as the Qatar companies were.

All the companies studied made it a mandatory requirement for me to sign a confidentiality agreement, limit access to this thesis and gain the companies' permission to publish in a journal. These restrictions were a concern throughout the process and it may have influenced my broader analysis and writing process. On reflection, I have learnt that gaining access to companies is difficult; it takes more time than implied in the perfect research schedule; and it requires persistency, patience, compromise, and negotiation skills – something which would be worthwhile including in any research training package.

In this research, the sampling strategy was purposive, in that I selected the sample population primarily to enable me to satisfy my research objectives. As the focus of the research was to understand KT from Expatriate to Nationals in Qatar, and the knowledge that Aerospace MNC would be transferring would be largely administrative and management practices, the sample population was Western Expatriate managers and Nationals in graduate management or management-trainee positions. The sample was also convenient as the most suitable and available interviewees within the selected companies were interviewed (Miles and Huberman (1994); Robson (2011)). All of the interviewees were in administrative, non-technical roles such as: Finance, Procurement, Marketing, HR, and Information Technology.

The reason for this selection was that in Qatar access to industrial sites was prohibited and the KT in technical roles was almost entirely from non-Western Expatriates. In Qatar non-Western Expatriates account for the majority of the population, such as: Indian 24%, Nepalese 17%, Pilipino 9%, Egyptian 8% and Bangladeshi 6% (Snoj, 2013). Non-Western Expatriates were not a population that aerospace and defence companies would typically use on secondment to GCC countries – they would normally send experienced Western Expatriates. Furthermore, particularly in Qatar, most Nationals aspired to or were recruited into administrative and management roles so the sample was more representative of the likely business environment and therefore create most useful practitioner guidelines.

4.6.3. Sample

It is recognised that this research had a small sample size. As previously discussed small sample sizes may be considered insufficient to make findings generalisable (if that is the purpose of the research). But, there is no agreed definition of what determines a small sample size. Indeed, as Crouch and McKenzie (2006) observe a small sample size is often shorthand for less than 20 respondents but that the notion of ‘sample’ may not be an appropriate concept if the respondents are not drawn from a ‘target population’. They argue that in some qualitative interviews “if anything is being “sampled”, it is not so much individual persons “of a kind”, but rather variants of a particular social setting (the real object of the research in question) and of the experiences arising in it” (Crouch and McKenzie, 2006:493).

It is also recognised that qualitative research is labour intensive and analysing large quantities of data is time consuming and impractical. Which leads to the concept of saturation where the collection of new data does not provide any further insights into the research topic (Mason, 2010). However, it could be argued that new insights could always be found in additional data, so saturation needs to be viewed as the point where it is counter-productive to gather anymore data. Charmaz (2006:114) suggests that "25 [interviewees are] adequate for smaller projects" and that a small study with modest claims might achieve saturation quicker than a study that is aiming to describe a large phenomenon.

In justifying a small sample size, Marshall et al. (2013) suggest there are typically three methods: firstly, to cite recommendations by qualitative methodologists; secondly, to act on precedent by citing sample sizes used in studies with similar research problems and designs; and thirdly, internal justification by demonstrating saturation within a dataset. However, in their analysis of 83 Information Systems KM studies, they found qualitative researchers presented ranges for appropriate sample size but failed to explain any rationale or justification for their selection. From their analysis they found that typically, single case studies should generally contain 15 to 30 interviews (Marshall et al., 2013:20). However, whilst this aligns with the guidance of Creswell (2014:239) in response to ‘how many participants’ his initial retort is: “there is no specific answer to this question”.

In this research, the sample size in each case company was targeted 15 per company depending on availability and senior manager recommendation. Whilst my research supervisors suggested a greater number of interviewees the justification for this selection was that the target sample size was a compromise with my sponsoring company wanting me to conduct interviews in Saudi Arabia and Qatar; difficult to access case companies, individual participants willingness and resource constraints (particularly the cost of undertaking interviews in the GCC and personal workload commitments). During access negotiation, it was agreed that 12 people in each company would be made available for interview to provide flexibility and contingency to accommodate no-shows due to work commitment or a change of mind.

The cases study data was collected by interviewing 31 (4 no-shows and 1 withdrew prior to interview) people involved in KT within the three companies, including managers and assistant staff, male and female, Nationals and Expatriates. A manager is defined as: a permanent job holder responsible and accountable for an activity and its deliverables, including management of employees. An assistant is defined as: a National employee reporting to a manager; being coached under a personal career plan to assume an Expatriate job under a Localisation process. A National is defined as: a citizen of the country by birth or naturalisation. An Expatriate is defined as: a person living outside their own native country with or without permanent residency rights. The interviews in Aerospace Inc were conducted in May/June 2016; the interviews in Chem Co and Gas Co were conducted in May 2015.

The interview sample size and categories is shown in Table 4-2. In further considering these sample sizes in relation to this exploratory study, in Aerospace Inc 12 interviews accounts for 0.0024% of the employees, arbitrarily doubling the interviewees to 24 makes the sample size 0.0048% - not appreciably increasing its representativeness of the population. Similarly, in the Qatar case study (Chem Co and Gas Co) the sample size was 19, which represents 0.0095% of the population.

	Saudi Arabia	Qatar		
	Aerospace Inc	Chem Co	Gas Co	Total
Manager/Director	9	5	7	18
Professional/Trainee Staff	3	4	3	13
Male	12	7	6	25
Female	0	2	4	6
National	6	7	5	20
Expatriate	6	2	5	11
Total Interviewees	12	9	10	31
Initial Target	12	12	12	36

Table 4-2. Interview Sample Sizes by Category

The interviewees were selected and recommended by a senior manager in each of the case study companies. This was because of the sensitivity of conducting the research in these companies, countries and with Nationals. The interviewees were also pre-briefed by a senior manager on the research and interview process, permission to participate was obtained from the interviewee's manager and agreement to participate was obtained from the interviewees. Whilst this pre-selected approach does impact the validity and generalisability of the findings in such a small KT community it was not be possible to be random and senior management sponsorship was essential. However, the impact of this pre-selection will be returned to in the analysis and discussion. The list of interviewees is provided in Table 4-3.

4.6.4. Fieldwork

Conducting research in the GCC and in private companies is uncommon, challenging and sensitive (Harry (2007); Forstenlechner (2009); Swailes et al. (2012)). The approach to contacting potential cases and undertaking field work was challenging for a number of reasons, including: a) Saudi Arabia and Qatar are Arab

Company	Position	Role	Expatriate or National
Aerospace Inc	Commercial Trainee 1	Trainee	Saudi
	Commercial Trainee 2		
	Procurement Trainee 1		
	HR Manager	Manager	
	Commercial Manager		
	Deputy Vice President Industrialisation	Director	
	Learning and Development Manager	Manager	Expatriate
	Commercial Manager 1		
	Commercial Manager 2		
	Training Director	Director	
	Vice President Industrialisation		
	Programme Director		
Chem Co	Marketing Trainee	Trainee	Qatari
	Marketing Assistant	Assistant	
	Human Resources Assistant		
	Information Technology Assistant		
	Information Technology Manager	Manager	
	HR Manager		
	Qatarisation Director	Director	
	Training Manager	Manager	Expatriate
	Finance Manager		
Gas Co	Commercial Assistant	Assistant	Qatari
	HR Assistant		
	Business Development Assistant		
	Business Development Manager	Manager	
	Strategy Manager		
	HR Resource Manager	Manager	Expatriate
	Finance Manager		
	Production Manager		
	Operations Director	Director	
	Engineering Director		

Table 4-3. List of Interviewees

countries with different business culture and language; b) I had no direct personal or business relationships with any Qatari Nationals or companies; c) whilst I had personal and business relationships with my sponsoring company's subsidiary in Saudi Arabia agreeing access was still challenging because of concerns about confidentiality and National sensitivities; and d) I was based in the UK with limited access to visit and spend time in Saudi Arabia and Qatar.

Finding suitable private, technology-based companies in Qatar was a difficult and protracted process, especially being based in the United Kingdom. Help was sought from various organisations including the British Embassy Qatar; Qatar British Business Forum; British Chamber of Commerce Qatar and Qatar University. From a list of potential contacts, telephone calls were made and opportunities discussed. Several meetings were held in Qatar and agreement was reached with one telecommunications company to undertake the research. But, within a month of that agreement, and two weeks before the fieldwork was to begin, the sponsor left the company, approval was withdrawn and the case selection process began again.

The two Qatar companies which finally agreed to participate were both accessed through a 'friend-of-a-friend' Expatriate with responsibility for Localisation in the Parent Company. However, obtaining formal agreement and access was still complicated, with face-to-face meetings, telephone calls and emails over several months. The process involved: providing a synopsis of the research proposal; the semi-structured questionnaire; the ethics document requesting informed consent; a draft interview schedule; and obtaining authority from the Chief Executive Officer. It resulted in my signing a non-disclosure agreement (after my sponsoring company legal department's review) which: limited my access to Head Office areas only; provided anonymity for the industry sector, Parent Company, case companies and individuals; prevented use of any non-public or inadvertently obtained confidential information; and required prior approval from the Expatriate sponsor for publication. Both Expatriate sponsors have now left the case companies. Overall, it took 18 months to find the two case companies in Qatar. For Saudi Arabia, it took 6 months, even within my own company, to obtain authority to undertake the research.

Having overcome the issue of gaining access to companies willing to participate in the study, there was then the issue of physically gaining access to the company Head

Offices and interviewees in Qatar. Sponsoring company authority and funding to travel to Qatar was required. In Qatar, travel to and from Chem Co and Gas Co was by taxi during rush hour which necessitated adequate planning to ensure timely arrival. At both companies, Head Offices, which were modern office buildings, I had to sign-in at security and then wait to be escorted throughout the building. On some occasions I was obliged to wait for over 2 hours before my escort arrived; this then required rescheduling of missed interviewees. Everybody was unfailingly courteous. For Aerospace Inc, it was less problematic as I had access to interviewees in the UK and on the telephone. My experience and observation of the work environment was based on previous visits.

4.7. Conceptual Framework

4.7.1. Knowledge Transfer Frameworks

To explore the key factors in intra-organisational KT between Expatriates and Nationals in private sector companies requires the use of a researcher developed or existing conceptual framework. In research into KT in the GCC, a ‘framework-free’ approach is often adopted by researchers such as: Alhussain and Bixler (2011) Alatawi et al. (2012); Al-Asfour and Khan (2013); Arif and Shalhoub (2014). In the research into Localisation in the GCC, ‘framework-free’ is also adopted by researchers such as Rees et al. (2007); Forstenlechner (2009); Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010); Williams et al. (2011) and Swailes et al. (2012). However, given the research questions and methodology, I have chosen to use an existing KT framework to undertake this study. This will provide a sound basis for operationalisation and the semi-structured interview questionnaire.

There are numerous KT models and frameworks but most focus on a particular aspect of intra-organisational KT. In their review of KT models Ward et al. (2009) reviewed 193 papers/reports and identified 28 different models which they subjected to thematic modelling. They identified 5 common components of KT: “(1) problem identification and communication; (2) knowledge/research development and selection; (3) analysis of context; (4) knowledge transfer activities or interventions; (5) knowledge/research utilization”. Theoretical frameworks which focus on analysis of context and knowledge transfer activities are most important to this research (Ward et al., 2009:160).

To find an appropriate theoretical model to answer the research questions required the development of a set of selection criteria. These were: 1) intra-organisational KT model; 2) focus at individual level; 3) simple concepts and construction; 4) easy to operationalise for GCC research. The assessment of various conceptual frameworks against these criteria is shown in Table 4-4.

4.7.2. Conceptual Framework

For my research I selected the Minbaeva et al. (2012) framework. This was considered the most appropriate, as there was not one 'perfect' qualitative, individually focussed, GCC road-tested framework, and it met all of my selection criteria. Its focus was on intra-organisational and individual level KT; it was a simple model that would be easy to operationalise for the GCC context. It also had the advantage of addressing some of the potential areas for future research identified from the literature review; it could also be adapted and used within the research timescales.

The Minbaeva et al. (2012) framework (Figure 4-2) is concerned with how the KT factors are perceived by the individual and the impact of that perception on the KT process. This approach to understanding KT from an individual perspective is one that supports my research objectives. The framework has some pedigree as it is a development of previous models developed by Minbaeva and various research colleagues, reported in articles such as: Minbaeva et al. (2003); Minbaeva (2007) and Minbaeva (2008). As at December 2016, the original 2003 article has 1092 citations, the 2007 article has 302, the 2008 article has 99 citations and the 2012 article has 58 citations (on Google scholar).

In adopting the Minbaeva et al. (2012) for this research, an individual's perceived organisational commitment to KT explains the extent to which individuals believe that the Sender and Receiver organisations value the KT. An individual's external motivation to transfer knowledge means that there is sufficient external incentive (money, promotion, recognition) to make engagement in KT beneficial to the individual. Individual internal motivation to transfer knowledge describes the individuals own deep seated internal needs to participate in the KT process and

Conceptual Frameworks		Criteria			
Authors	Paper Title	Model	Level	Concept and Construction	Operationalisation
Argote et al. (2003)	Managing Knowledge in Organizations: An Integrative Framework and Review of Emerging Themes Argote et al. (2003)	Intra-organisational	Organisation	6 factors across 2 dimensions	Too many factors to easily operationalise
Cummings and Teng (2003)	Transferring R&D knowledge: the key factors affecting knowledge transfer success	Intra-organisational	Organisation	9 key factors across 4 broad contextual domains	Too many factors to easily operationalise
Easterby-Smith et al. (2008b)	Inter-Organizational Knowledge Transfer: Current Themes and Future Prospects	Inter-organisational	Organisation	13 key factors across 4 broad contextual domains	Too many factors to easily operationalise
Gilbert and Cordey-Hayes (1996)	Understanding the process of knowledge transfer to achieve successful technological innovation	Intra-organisational	Organisation	4 stages	Yes
Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014)	Expatriate knowledge utilization and MNE performance: A multilevel framework	Inter-organisational	Individual & Organisation	10 factors across 2 domains	Too many factors to easily operationalise
Minbaeva et al. (2012)	Linking HRM and Knowledge Transfer via Individual Level Mechanisms	Intra-organisational	Individual	4 factors	Yes
Zahra and George (2002)	Absorptive Capacity: A Review, Reconceptualisation, and Extension	Intra-organisational	Organisation	10 components across 4 dimensions	Too many factors to easily operationalise

Table 4-4. Potential Research Framework Analysis

mediate their perception of the organisational commitment. Finally, individual engagement in social interaction for the purpose of KT focuses on the individual's choice to become involved in and use social interactions established by the firms for KT.

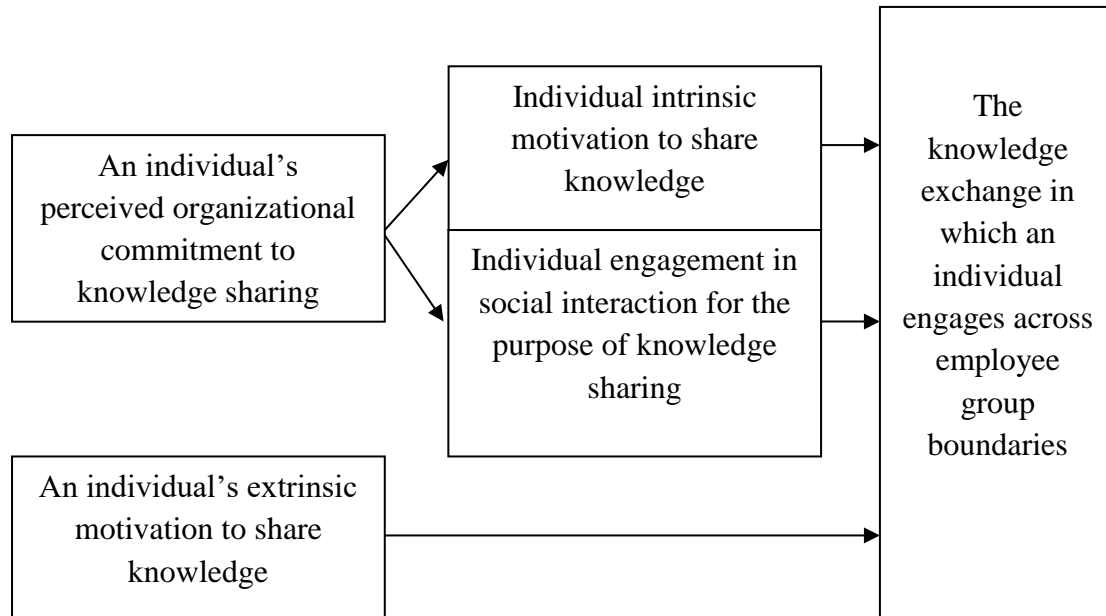


Figure 4-2. Conceptual Framework
(Adapted from Minbaeva et al. (2012))

However, the framework had to be adapted to suit the methodology and context of this research. The framework was adapted from a quantitative, statistical research design to one of qualitative, case studies. However, this was easily done turning the constructs and items from the framework into questions for a semi-structured interview guide. The adaptation of the framework for a qualitative approach and its practitioner deployment in the GCC (rather than Denmark) will add to theoretical knowledge. The advantages and disadvantages of this framework as shown in Table 4-5.

4.7.3. Semi-Structured Interview Guide

Operationalisation of the conceptual framework was done by developing open-ended interview questions to understand the nature of the shared knowledge and the intra-organisational relationships. Operationalisation of the conceptual framework was in the form of a semi-structured interview guide to facilitate the interview process. The use of a semi-structured interview guide and face-to-face interviews was successfully

used by Forstenlechner (2009) in researching Emiratisation. The interview guide was based on the research question, literature review and derived from the chosen conceptual framework. This follows the Miles and Hubermann (1994:36) view of creating an interview guide basing it on the “conceptual focus, research questions and sampling criteria”.

Advantage		Disadvantage	Potential Mitigation
Intra-organisational		Quantitative	Translate statistical constructs and items into semi-structured questionnaire for use in GCC
Individual level focus		Deployed in Denmark	Simplify language in questions for Qataris and Expatriates
Simple concepts and construct		Does not address what type of knowledge is being transferred	Insert questions on what knowledge is transferred
Easy to operationalise		Does not address cultural issues	Insert questions on cultural differences
Focuses on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation			

Table 4-5. Suitability of Conceptual Framework

After introductory pleasantries, signing of the interview consent form (by email for telephone based interviews) and an explanation of my role and purpose, the first question in the interview guide asked the interviewee to talk about themselves for 2-3 minutes providing some details about their personal background, role in the company and involvement in KT. This permitted the interviewee a soft start, allowing them to talk about something they knew before answering more specific questions. It also enabled me to understand their role in the company and KT process and therefore adapt my style and questions.

The remaining key questions focused on the conceptual framework and the five main elements: Knowledge Exchange; Intrinsic Motivation; Engagement in Social Interaction; Perceived Organisational Commitment; and Extrinsic Motivation. The relationship between the interview guide and the constructs of the conceptual framework are shown in Table 4-6.

The initial interview guide is provided at Appendix 1 and this was used during the initial interviews in Chem Co. As interviewing was predominantly with Saudi and Qatari nationals, who have different language, education, culture and experience of responding in interviews, careful development of the interview guide was crucial. It required vigilant creation and analysis to ensure internal validity and measurement validity. During the interviews in Chem Co, several themes emerged (such as: culture and values; formal recognition, general barriers) which were used to update the Interview Guide in the latter interviews in Chem Co, Gas Co and Aerospace Inc (Appendix 2).

The typical difficulties with operationalising a conceptual framework lie in measuring KT success; firm characteristics such as AC, motivation; the nature of knowledge such as tacitness and ambiguity; and the intra-organisational relationships such as power and trust. These factors are not easily directly measurable by research as they are mainly internal to and defined by the organisation and/or the individual.

However, as the intention of this research was not to create a scale or index for a quantitative analysis of strictly defined variables, the words, phrases, tone of voice and expressions of the interviewees provided a measure of the meaning. Moreover, as the research was seeking depth of understanding and not statistical definition, this approach was considered appropriate.

4.7.4. Interviewing

The use of a semi-structured interview guide and interviewing technique was tested and revised during a Pilot Project in my sponsoring company. However, this was undertaken with a limited number of colleagues who share the same language and culture. The results of this Pilot Project nevertheless refined my approach particularly in how to phrase questions to make them more understandable in context, to be more discursive and accepting of the diversions the interviewees

Conceptual Framework Construct	Semi Structured Guide Questions
Knowledge Exchange	Knowledge Exchange
To what extent have you gained knowledge from your colleagues in other departments?	To what extent have you gained knowledge from your colleagues? What sort of knowledge was it? How useful was the knowledge?
To what extent have you used knowledge from colleagues in other departments?	How have you used knowledge gained from colleagues?
To what extent have colleagues in other departments gained knowledge from you?	What knowledge do you think colleagues have gained from you?
To what extent have colleagues in other departments used knowledge from you?	How have your colleagues used knowledge gained from you?
Intrinsic Motivation	Intrinsic Motivation
To what extent is increased value for me enough to motivate KT?	How important is KT to you? Why? To what extent is increased value for you enough to motivate KT?
To what extent is increased value for my department enough to motivate KT?	To what extent is increased value for your department enough to motivate KT?
To what extent is increased value for my company enough to motivate KT?	To what extent is increased value for your company enough to motivate KT?
Engagement in Social Interaction	Engagement in Social Interaction
To what extent do you use the following media when you transfer knowledge to other people in your company?	How do you transfer and share knowledge with your colleagues? What sort activities are you involved in when sharing knowledge?
To what extent do you use the following media when searching for knowledge?	What sort of KT activity works best for you? What sort of KT activity doesn't work best for you?
Perceived Organizational Commitment	Perceived Organisational Commitment
Knowledge sharing is valued by my company	How much do you think KT is valued by your company?
Uncovering and leveraging existing knowledge is highly valued by my company	How much do you think existing knowledge is valued by your company?
Acquiring and leveraging new knowledge is highly valued by my company	What sort of knowledge is highly valued in your company?
Extrinsic Motivation	Extrinsic Motivation
How would you prefer to be rewarded for transferring your knowledge in the future?	How will you be rewarded for KT by the company?
How would you prefer to be rewarded for using your knowledge in the future?	How would you prefer to be rewarded for KT?

Table 4-6. Relationship between Conceptual Framework and Interview Guide

sometime took. This is supported by Hochschild (2009) who suggests it is important to remain flexible and open to inconsistency in such interviews, not to stick rigidly to preconceived frameworks which may differ from the interviewees. It was also important to cover the most important topics early in the interview due to the time available in interviewing (Yin, 2012). This was particularly true when I interviewed Saudi and Qatari nationals.

It was also crucial to recognise the implications of conducting interviews and international fieldwork per se. I considered issues such as: access to companies and individuals, the language, culture, attention span, ability to think abstractly and patterns of social interaction. In preparing to conduct the interviews I considered: my researcher interview training; pilot project experience; the impact of my background, social and business status; as well as the language, nationality and status of the interviewee. I dressed in a business suit but without tie as this seemed to be the accepted norm in the companies and always introduced myself by explaining my company, the reason for their sponsorship and my relationship to Alliance Manchester Business School. All of the interviews were conducted in English and lasted on average 60 minutes.

I thought through the setting, length, structure and depth of the interview questions. For Aerospace Inc, interviews were either held on the company premises in the UK or via telephone. For Chem Co and Gas Co, interviews were held on company premises in Qatar, either in conference rooms or managers' offices (except for one which was held in a hotel cigar lounge). The interviews were kept to an hour maximum and allowed for an initial polite chat about football, the weather, Universities or England to break the ice. It was important not to 'get right down to business' with Nationals. Finally, of particular importance, was the need to apply the courtesy norms relevant to the interviewee and remain vigilant for interviewer and interviewee bias (Malhotra et al., 1996).

In preparation for cross-cultural interviewing, I discussed interview styles and techniques with two Saudi Arabian nationals on secondment to my sponsoring company in the UK. The advice from these discussions was that whilst Arabs will be willing to share information, it was important first to build a relationship, preferably in an informal group setting before conducting one-to-one interviews. They also

advised that Arabs do not like to be wrong and prefer to hide the negatives of a situation; they lacked confidence and worried about what will be reported back to their senior managers. This was evidenced during the interviews by some interviewees commenting that they would not say anything negative about their company

This is supported by the findings of Welch and Piekkari (2006) and Zahra (2011) who suggest investing time in building relationships, trust, rapport and a shared contextual understanding to increase the validity of the data. Therefore, I ensured all interviewees understood they were being interviewed with senior management sponsorship and I attempted to build rapport through discussing my family and business background and experiences in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. As additional preparation I also undertook Saudi Arabia and Qatar cultural awareness training using my sponsoring company's online facilities.

This was particularly crucial for interviews conducted with females, who all wore traditional Arabic dress: abaya (full-length, black garment that covers the whole body except the head, feet, and hands) and niqaab (veil that covers the face and entire head but with a place cut out for the eyes). However, there was no specific preparation for Qatar Expatriate interviewing: Australian, Egyptian, French, South African and British. For Aerospace Inc, there was less opportunity to build the relationship and trust but this was somewhat offset by sharing a similar company contextual understanding. Finally, I also recognized that my approach would impact upon the data gathering and I needed to reflect on how reliable and valid an "information gathering instrument" I was (Miles and Huberman, 1994:38).

For the interviews themselves I chose the elite interviewing approach because I wanted to establish what difficult to access interviewees thought of the KT process and reconstruct some of the events (Tansey, 2007). Whilst the interviewees were not Chief Executive Officers or government ministers, some of the Expatriates and Nationals were senior managers and I also considered the approach appropriate for the more junior interviewees as these were difficult to access on language, culture and organisational grounds. Adopting an elite interviewing approach allowed me to understand the perceptions of the interviewees; get their help in interpreting the personalities involved; understand the wider context and outcomes.

However, there were some pitfalls with elite interviewing, such as the small sample not being representative of the wider population; the information on the actual KT process could be less reliable by not obtaining it from all employees involved; and the power relation between the interviewee and interviewer may have an impact on the findings; and the questioning had to avoid contradiction or sounding critical (Richards (1996); Rubin and Rubin (2012)). To counter some of these issues I conducted the interviews in a friendly, respectful and professional manner. For the telephone interviews I adapted my approach being aware of some of the limitations such as: the difficulty of building rapport; missing the body language and knowing the environment the interviewee is calling from (such as free from distractions). I listened more carefully taking cues from the voice and intonation and to build rapport I used email and pre-interview telephone calls as recommended by Rubin and Rubin (2012).

In reflecting upon each interview and listening to the digital recording, I considered my manner and questioning style and adjusted it during future interviewees. Early on I found that depending on the interviewee's initial rapport, body language and concentration (or otherwise with mobile phone in hand) I tended to pre-judge the likely outcome, worth and interview duration. This bias I had to both remind myself of before starting the interview and sometimes during it. In listening back to the early interview recordings I also found that I had a tendency to fill in the (uncomfortable) silences whilst the interviewee was thinking of an answer by offering response options/choices rather than wait for a response. Once I realised I was doing this, I stopped but some of the early interviews may have been 'contaminated'. I also found that in interviewing Nationals I was always cognisant of the different cultural norms and I know I did not always press for more detail, where perhaps I did with an Expatriate.

In analysing the data, I also reflected upon the possible reasons for answers and statements being made and who made them. The data from the interviewees was triangulated between interviewees and with limited documentary evidence to increase its internal validity wherever possible. In addition to the formal interviews, several follow-up interviews and informal discussions were held with key informants in each of the case study companies (learning and development managers). These key informants were Expatriates and provided additional insight, contextual data and review/feedback of their company case studies.

4.7.5. Document Analysis

Documents are an important source of secondary qualitative data, most useful for triangulation (Yin (2009); Bryman and Bell (2011)). Documents can include personal, public and official written material such as letters, memos, emails, journals and reports. It can also include websites, newspaper articles, television and radio recordings and transcripts. Gathering documents had the advantage of being unobtrusive, relatively quick and easy, providing context and potentially other ideas. However, gathering documents also has the disadvantage of it being not useful and a distraction, its quality may be low and its purpose may be misleading. Therefore the criteria for evaluating the documentary data had to consider its authenticity, credibility, representativeness and its meaning (Saunders et al. (2009); Bryman and Bell (2011)).

In this research, public documents such as reports and in-house magazines were collected from the companies where practical. Some company organisational policies and training manuals were reviewed 'on-site' but none were retained for deeper analysis, this was agreed to protect the company's confidentiality but it was at the expense of triangulation. Nevertheless, this research compromise was necessary to gain access to individuals in difficult to reach companies. Broader company data and public policy statements on Localisation and KT was gathered from a number of open-source internal and external documents, including the company websites, using a variety of searches and sources to create a more detailed and richer picture of the companies. The documents gathered were generally analysed and used to corroborate statements made in the semi-structured interviews, to try and confirm factual statements.

4.7.6. Direct Observation

Direct observation was a key method of obtaining qualitative data (Creswell (2009); Saunders et al. (2009)). Non-participatory, unstructured observation was used throughout this study when the practitioner-researcher was on the company premises in Qatar. Non-participatory observation is defined as the practitioner-researcher did not participate in the research setting. Unstructured observation is defined as observations were recorded in detail, on an opportunity basis, to help improve the

analysis and narrative. It is the opposite of structured or systematic observation which uses explicitly formulated rules (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

Non-participatory, unstructured observation was undertaken whilst the practitioner-researcher was on the organisations' premises, including reception, workspaces, meeting rooms and refreshment areas in the two case companies in Qatar. In undertaking direct observation, 4 – 5 days were spent in each of Chem Co and Gas Co observing and interacting with Expatriates and Nationals (including formal and informal lunches). The practitioner-researcher observed, by watching and listening to individual interactions, as well as the physical environment. The organisations employees were aware the practitioner-researcher was conducting research into KT.

Detailed descriptive and reflective field notes were taken of the interactions in formal and informal settings in a research journal which logged thoughts, ideas and emerging concepts. Although the general observational material was not systematically coded in the same way as the interview data, it was used to compliment and triangulate the data from semi-structured interviews. However, the practitioner-researcher constantly considered the difficulties in interpreting human behaviour and the potential for the practitioner-researchers own biases to influence the analysis.

For Aerospace Inc, in Saudi Arabia, the practitioner-researcher was unable to undertake direct observation of the company environment during the research process. But this was mitigated by the practitioner-researcher having had previous experience of the company site and working environment. It was therefore possible, although open to bias, to use previous observational data to compliment and triangulate the data from semi-structured interviews in Aerospace Inc.

4.7.7. Data Analysis

Data analysis was undertaken through accurately coding the data, revising the coding, creating a matrix, interpreting and analysing (Nadin and Cassell, 2004). The recorded interview transcripts were transcribed by the practitioner-researcher, rather than an agency, to improve accuracy, triangulation, reflection and participant anonymity. The data was carefully coded using the semi-structured interview guideline to produce a synthesis of the findings which was both time consuming and open to practitioner-researcher interpretation in terms of assigning items to codes or creating new codes

with the accompanying subsets. Codes were considered important if it was mentioned by at least 2 of the interviewees. Appropriate quotes were selected from the interviewees which provided the most suitable example for the code and the data was displayed on one page in a conceptually clustered matrix which is suitable for less complex cases with few individuals and an existing conceptual framework (Miles and Huberman, 1994). However, the choice of clusters and the quotes to use was subject to the practitioner-researcher interpretation and regular reflection was required to check for bias. Also, to achieve presentation on a single page required further selection of codes and quotes, which may have led to a “too reductionist” approach (Nadin and Cassell, 2004:281).

To assist with the thematic coding approach and overcome issues such as researcher overload from the large amount of qualitative data collected, computer-assisted qualitative data analysis (CAQDAS) was used. The selected software package was NVivo 10, which was The University of Manchester standard package. The use of a computer software package such as NVivo has advantages and disadvantages (Gibbs (2002); Mason (2002); Robson (2011)).

Advantages of using a computer software package include: organized, single location storage & retrieval system; quick, easy and consistent coding; detailed consideration data and fine-grain analysis; assistance with construct and internal validity; and choice of data display. Disadvantages of using a computer software package include: proficiency is time consuming; reticence to change themes once selected; software coding idiosyncrasies can drive analysis; and a focus on coding rather than interpretation. Despite the potential disadvantages of using NVivo, the benefits of being able to manage the large amount of data, code it thematically and present is coherently were considered more important. Also, despite using NVivo as an analysis tool, coding, thematic and interpretation decisions remain those of the researcher. Therefore, NVivo remained a tool rather than the purpose of the research.

4.7.8. Rigour

The quality of case study research and subsequent findings are commonly tested using concepts such as:

- 1) credibility (corroborating with the organizational members); transferability (applicability of findings to other contexts); dependability (research audit trail) and confirmability (self-criticism and analysis is grounded in the data) (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).
- 2) internal validity (establish causal relationships); external validity (generalisability of findings); measurement validity (correct instruments used) and reliability (repeatability of data collection process) (Gill and Johnson (2010); Yin (2009)).
- 3) reliability (consistent approach); validity (accuracy of findings) and generalisability (applicability to new cases) (Creswell, 2009).

Distilled to two overarching criteria by Robson (2011) of validity and generalisability, it is clear that whilst there are many variations on the theme of the quality of qualitative research they are all saying much the same thing, qualitative research must be able to demonstrate certain similar characteristics to be considered trustworthy

A further alternative to the criteria that are generally applied to the quality of the case study research *process*, Lincoln and Guba (1990) propose that the *product* of case study research should also be considered from a quality perspective. The quality of the product being assessed as being: elegant, creative, open, independent, craftsmen-like, courageous and egalitarian. However, for the purposes of this research and thesis the quality of the product has been left to the judgment of the examiners and focus was applied to the quality of the research process.

In this research, the criteria used to determine the quality of the process are those proposed by Yin (2009). These are: construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability.

Construct validity requires the identification of the correct operational measures for the phenomena and cases being studied. To demonstrate the construct validity of this research: a) used multiple sources of evidence (interviews, observation, documents); b) established a chain of evidence using contemporary field notes, interview recording, practitioner-researcher recording transcription, NVivo analysis and thematic coding; and c) had the draft case studies reviewed by key informants in each company (the senior sponsoring managers) although only the sponsor in Aerospace Inc responded as the Chem Co and Gas Co managers left their business before responding.

Internal validity seeks to establish the causal relationship between the phenomena being studied. To demonstrate the internal validity of this research Nvivo coding was used to: a) establish patterns from the multiple data sources; and b) build explanations and using verbatim quotations to support arguments. External validity seeks to establish the generalisability of the research findings. To demonstrate the external validity of this research replication logic was used (Yin, 2009). This was achieved through a multiple case study approach whereby the first case study informed areas of interest in the second case study, which was complimentary. However, there was no expectation to be able to generalise this research to a wider country or GCC population.

Reliability seeks to demonstrate the operationalisation of the study is repeatable and the same results achieved. To demonstrate the reliability of this research: a) a case study protocol was used for data collection to ensure standardisation; b) all interviews were fully transcribed by the practitioner-researcher and both recording and transcript loaded into NVivo; and c) a structured, logical NVivo database was developed to store data (interview, observed, documents).

4.8. Ethical Issues

Ethical issues are an important consideration in undertaking social research. Ethical issues can apply to obtaining informed consent; protecting participant's anonymity; integrity of the research; and protecting The University of Manchester and participating organisations from accusations of misconduct. Ethical issues can arise during identifying the research question; in the data collection; in the analysis and interpretation and in the writing and publication (Creswell, 2009). This research complied with The University of Manchester ethics principals that "The dignity, rights, safety and wellbeing of human participants must at all times be considered, respected and safeguarded. This includes research subjects, their tissue, organs or personal data" (Manchester, 2014) . This research was reviewed and authorised by The University of Manchester Research Ethics Committee.

Informed consent was obtained from each interviewee prior to the interview and the process for maintaining anonymity was discussed (see Appendix 3). The principal of informed consent is that individuals involved in research should be allowed to agree or disagree with being involved in the light of sufficient information to make that

decision. Informed means all the relevant facts are presented and the individual understands them. Consent means the individual is able to make a judgment and is not coerced or influenced in making a decision (Homan, 1991). This was a crucial aspect in interviewing Saudi and Qatari Nationals.

However, I learnt during early interviews that I needed to position the use of the Interview Consent Form more carefully with Nationals than Expatriates. Whilst a requirement of Alliance Manchester Business School to obtain consent for ethical reasons, this did not sit comfortably with some Nationals who either refused to participate if they had to sign the form or deferred signing the form until the end of the interview and then decided if they were happy. Also, the use of the digital recorder created some issues, mainly with Expatriates who were not willing for their comments to be recorded despite the assurance of anonymity. This made note taking crucial, but rapport and engagement was lost, as was much of the detail – hand written notes became self-screening as I could only catch what I thought was important and therefore maybe missed a nuance or the verbatim quote.

Privacy and anonymity were an important consideration in this research. Privacy emphasises an individual's control of the information about herself (Boddy (2008); (Homan (1991))). Protecting interviewee anonymity was crucial to achieving the trust and relationship to obtain credible and truthful evidence. Privacy and anonymity were maintained by making no reference to an individual's name during the analysis or in the thesis. Participating companies were allocated a codename to assure their confidentiality in this thesis. Data was stored on a password controlled computer and only available to the practitioner-researcher. Sensitive data about the case firms revealed during the interviews was not included in the analysis. However, such anonymity did hinder the reporting in the case studies as a difficult balance had to be struck between quotations with clearly identifiable specific sources, which provided evidence of rigour, whilst also maintaining anonymity – which is jeopardised by such individual specificity. In writing this thesis I had serious doubts about maintaining anonymity whilst acquiescing to my supervisor's insistence that the source of each quotation was clearly identified for attribution confidence and academic rigour. For instance, quoting a source with a specific nationality, job title and company more clearly identifies that individual to informed readers. Listing interviewees in this

chapter and identifying sources in the case studies was only agreed upon after compromising on a 5-year thesis publication embargo.

Finally, integrity of the research was vital. Throughout the design, fieldwork and analysis consideration was given to factors such as project worthiness; researcher competence; reciprocity; honesty and trust; data ownership; use of results; and conflict and trade-offs. To address these issues I followed the advice of Miles and Huberman (1994): being aware of my ethical position; anticipating issues; making preliminary agreement with organisations; documenting and reflecting on issues; and regularly checking my progress and position.

4.9. Pilot Project

In preparation for this research, a pilot project was undertaken with the purpose of conducting a small-scale piece of empirical research in KT. I followed the advice of Robson (2011:405) who suggests “Pilot if at all possible” to understand some of the problems of converting research design into reality. The pilot project objectives were to develop: a) practical experience of problem formulation, research design, data collection and analysis, fieldwork methods, report-writing and oral presentation; b) an understanding of the problems of gaining research access and logistical planning for future fieldwork; and c) research ideas and promote the preparation of a well-specified research proposal and case study method.

My sponsoring company was chosen as the pilot case study. It was recognised that this was a poor proxy for a GCC company, interviewees who do not have English as a first language, but it was convenient. Through this pilot project I increased my understanding of KT process; practiced my qualitative research method; learnt more about the case study method; elite interviewing and the practicalities of fieldwork. I also found that my original conceptual framework (Massingham, 2010) was unlikely to be suitable to answer my research question. Whilst the findings and framework were attractive, the underpinning method had some issues and my pilot project research suggested the model may not best suited to my purpose.

My reflection and learning from this pilot project was: a) to further narrow the research question; b) undertake a further review of the literature to find a potentially more suitable conceptual framework, c) further experience and refinement of my method

(sample, instrumentation, interpretation); and d) further contemplation of potential case firms.

4.10. Summary

This chapter provided a description of the research methodology. It firstly discussed the practitioner-researcher's world view and justified the selection of the epistemology of interpretivism. Interpretivism was an appropriate philosophy for this research because it accepts socially constructed outcomes; that the reality of KT in the companies will be interpreted by the employees from their own perspective; and the relationship between the subject and the practitioner-researcher will be interactive and participative. It then continued by describing the selection of the research strategy, justifying the choice of qualitative because of epistemological position; the objective to understand the detail, richness and contextual depth of the phenomena; and as a qualitative method is exploratory, it is better placed than other methods to achieve this outcome.

The chapter then explained the research design and justified the case study approach. It was considered that as a case study investigates in depth a real-life, contemporary event it was the most suitable research design. Selection of a Multiple Case research design was also considered suitable because I was seeking to understand factors within companies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar and not a specific unique or typical company. The section on the research methods provided a detailed description and explanation of the research methods. The unit of analysis was described as the organisations being studied.

The case selection described the choice of the cases that best represented the population, setting and phenomena. The implications and justification for the sample size was discussed and it was explained that the sample was purposive and the interviewees were chosen by company senior managers. The chapter then explained the approach to fieldwork and the challenges faced in gaining access to companies, particularly in Qatar. The selection criteria for the conceptual framework were explained and the process for creating and updating the semi-structured interview guide based on the framework was discussed. The approach to gathering documentary evidence and direct observation was also described.

The final part of the chapter discussed the approach to data analysis including coding the data, creating a matrix, interpretation, and the benefits of using CAQDAS. A detailed explanation of the criteria used to determine the quality of the research process was given. This was followed by a description of the approach to ethical issues such as informed consent, confidentiality, and integrity. Finally, the chapter concluded with reflection on the pilot project and reflected on how that learning was incorporated in the main research.

The next chapter presents the results of the application of this research methodology from the Aerospace Inc case study.

5. CHAPTER FIVE: SAUDI ARABIA CASE STUDY ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS (AEROSPACE INC)

5.1. Introduction

On 20 May 2017, Saudi Arabia announced a £85 billion defence deal, potentially rising to £230 billion over the next 10 years, with the US (Holland and Mason (2017); Wilts (2017)). This was just 2 days after the Saudi Government announced the creation of a new defence industrial conglomerate: Saudi Arabia Military Industries with the ambition for it to contribute £2.9 billion to GDP, have defence exports worth £1 billion and employ 40,000 Nationals (Forrester, 2017). The defence deal with the US included Raytheon establishing a business unit in Riyadh to develop local defence, aerospace and security capabilities; Lockheed Martin undertaking final assembly and completion of 150 Black Hawk helicopters in Saudi Arabia and General Dynamics localising design, manufacture and support of armoured combat vehicles (Holland and Mason (2017); Torchia (2017); Wilts (2017)).

Saudi Arabia is and will remain a very attractive and lucrative aerospace and defence market. In addition to the April 2017 defence deal announcement, in 2016, the Saudi Arabian national airline ordered 63 new civil aircraft from Airbus and Boeing, the Boeing deal alone was worth £6.4 billion (Finn, 2016c). Compared to the period 2006-2010, military imports into Saudi Arabia increased by 275% in the period 2011-2015 (Perlo-Freeman et al., 2016). In 2014 Saudi Arabia was the world largest defence equipment importer and is expected to remain so with compound annual growth rate of 3.9 per cent with military industrialisation obligations greater than \$43 billion by 2021 (Finn (2016c); Kimla (2013); Moores (2015)).

KT from Expatriates to Nationals is going to be important in the successful military industrialisation. This Saudi Arabia case study explores the key factors in KT in one company currently operating in the Saudi Arabian aerospace and defence sector. Using the Minbaeva et al (2012) model it explores the process of the KT of administration functions from Western Expatriates to Saudi Nationals within the Saudisation process. The first section briefly summarise the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia as explained in Chapter 2. It then provides a brief background to the company and its KT strategies and policies. It continues by describing the research findings from interviews with male Expatriates and Saudi nationals under the

categories: perceived organisational commitment; extrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation and engagement in social interaction.

The case study reveals that whilst the commitment of senior leadership is a positive factor, the extrinsic motivation of money and status were considered more important by the interviewees. They also considered one-to-one interaction as the most positive enabler in the process of KT followed by involvement in 'everything' and safe responsibility. However, barriers to KT were found to be the application of company processes, customer influence, Expatriate job insecurity and the sense of entitlement in Saudi nationals.

5.2. Aerospace Inc Background

This Saudi Arabia case study comprises of one company - Aerospace Inc - that is a subsidiary of an international aerospace and defence company. The parent company, Aerospace MNC, provides high-technology aerospace, defence and security solutions in over 40 countries. Established in the 1960s, Aerospace Inc is responsible for all aspects of Aerospace MNC's operations in Saudi Arabia. It has over 5,000 employees, of which over 60% are Saudi nationals (over 90% in some departments such as HR), which demonstrates the progress made in the last 15 years, when in the early 1990s it was only 15%. It is one of the largest private sector employers of Saudis; whilst the majority of its Expatriate workforce is Western, predominantly European. Aerospace Inc provides equipment and services almost exclusively to the Saudi Arabian government and partners with local companies in the aerospace, defence, security and electronic sectors. It has been successful in participating in In-Kingdom Industrial Participation projects to transfer high-technology manufacturing and repairs operations to Saudi Arabian companies (Aerospace_Inc (2016e); Aerospace_Inc (2016h)).

5.3. What is the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia?

5.3.1. Saudi Arabia Geography and Culture

Saudi Arabia is four fifths of the Arabian Peninsula (Figure 5-1), the 13th largest country in the world and its natural resources are: petroleum, natural gas, iron ore, gold and copper (CIA (2016); KSA_Embassy (2016)). Saudi Arabia has a long history with a traditional Arabic and Islamic culture which differs from one province to another. Saudi Arabia's history spans over nearly three centuries and the current

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has an inherited monarchy, with one ruling family. (SaudiTourism (2016); UKSACB (2016)).



Figure 5-1. Saudi Arabia Map
(Adapted from CIA (2016))

5.3.2. Saudi Arabia Economy

The economy of Saudi Arabia is dominated by oil and gas, which accounts for about 90% of export earnings and 80% of government revenues. Saudi Arabia is the world's largest crude oil producer, 2nd largest oil exporter and 9th largest producer of natural gas. The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Saudi Arabia is about £1,100 billion (about 25% share of the total Arab GDP) compared with the UK GDP of about £1,600 billion. However, despite this high GDP, in 2015 Saudi Arabia had a budget deficit of about -20% of GDP (ranked 5th worst in the world) compared to the UK at -4.6% of GDP. This was a result of the current (2015-2016) oil price decline; Saudi Arabia requires oil to be about \$100 per barrel to balance its budget. This high dependency on a variable oil price is one of the main drivers for Saudi Arabia to create a knowledge economy, alternative revenue sources and adopt a Localisation policy (CIA (2016); KSA_Embassy (2016)).

Saudi Arabia is the world's 15th richest country (per capita income) and as the world's largest oil producer has a predominantly oil based economy (80% of revenue). Despite this economic position, Saudi Arabia seeks to diversify its markets and reduce unemployment in its large youth population through a series of National Development Plans. There are currently 1 million unemployed Saudi nationals with another 8 million predicted over the next 20 years (Jannarty (2012); UN (2012); CIA (2016)).

To diversify its economy and address youth unemployment, Saudi Arabia plans to invest £1.6 trillion including £160 billion in new high technology industries (Waldman, 2016). It will continue with its affirmative action policy of 'Saudisation' – creating jobs in these industries for educated Saudi Nationals to replace Expatriates. Its National Vision 2030 describes focusing on a privatisation programme and developing long-term partnerships with friendly countries for KT and trade. However, more significantly for aerospace and defence companies, it describes Localisation of the defence industry (KSA (2016); Mustafa (2016a)). Saudi Arabia's aim is grow its defence industrial sector from seven companies and two research centres, and "to localise over 50 percent of military equipment spending by 2030" (KSA, 2016:48).

Aerospace and defence companies such as Boeing, Lockheed Martin and Northrop Grumman all express their commitment to creation of jobs, technology transfer, KT and industrialisation in the GCC and particularly Saudi Arabia. Specifically, Boeing aims to "support Saudi plans to develop technological capability, create jobs, promote Saudization and create and capture new markets" (Boeing, 2016b:3). Northrop Grumman states that they have an "active knowledge transfer program and are a model for the transition of capabilities to the Saudi military forces. The program is also a shining example for maximizing Saudi employment – approximately 60% of the 1800 employees are Saudi nationals" (NG, 2016). Lockheed Martin "are focused on developing partnerships that sustain long-term jobs for Saudi people in the security, aerospace and commercial sectors" (Lockheed_Martin, 2013). Being successful at industrialisation and Localisation can lead to new contracts and markets in the GCC. One such example is Lockheed Martin securing a £22 billion order as part of the May 2017 defence deal which included "developing local capabilities through technology and skills transfer" and providing for "localization efforts" (Lockheed_Martin, 2017). As Hedges (2016) observes with a view to Saudi Arabia industrialisation: "Lessons

can and should be learned from BAE Systems, Boeing and GE, which have all successfully contributed to the development of capabilities within Saudi Arabia”.

5.3.3. Saudi Arabia Population and Workforce

In mid-2016 the population of Saudi Arabia was about 31.7 million; making it the 47th most populated country in the world. Saudi Nationals account for about 63% of the population. The Saudi Arabian median age is 26.8 years compared to a UK median age of 40.4 years. Saudi Arabia has a youth dependency ratio of 41.7%. The youth dependency ratio is the ratio of the youth population (ages 0-14) per 100 people of working age (ages 15-64). A high youth dependency ratio indicates that a greater investment needs to be made in schooling and other services for children. The UK has a youth dependency ratio of 27.6% and the US 28.6% (CIA (2016); GASTAT (2016)).

Saudi Nationals make up about 47% of the total workforce. The largest portion of Saudis work in the government sector which represents 66% of the total employed Saudis: males about 53% and females about 13%. In 2016, the unemployment rate of Saudis was 12.1% unemployment; by comparison UK was about 5%. The WorldBank (2016) reports Saudi youth unemployment (15-24 year olds) in 2014 was at 29.5% although this is masked by about 84% of the 4.3 million Saudi Nationals in that age group being still in school or undergoing training. Demographically, 49% of the Saudi Arabia population is under the age of 24 and the majority of them are becoming better educated and expecting worthwhile, meaningful and fulfilling jobs. In late 2016, 20-24 year old Saudi males accounted for 47.7% of the unemployed population whilst Saudis with Bachelor degrees accounted for 57.5% (GSASTAT (2016); Arab_News (2016)).

The disparity in the Saudi Arabian policy of educating its large youth population and the lack of appropriate job opportunities is recognised by the government. In the Ministry of Economy and Planning’s Saudi Economic Report in 2014, it was observed that further increases in unemployment may be caused by the growing expenditure on education and training, and the rising number of graduates, versus the structure of the Saudi labour market where most of the current jobs filled by Expatriates do not require high skills. As the report states: “the challenge in the labour market lies in ...direction of investments in the private sector to create high skill jobs commensurate with

education level of the Saudi labor force and absorption of skilled national labor in the economy” (Al-Thumairi and Al-Deraa, 2015:45).

5.3.4. Saudi Arabia Long Term Strategy and Development Plans

The Saudi Arabian Long Term Strategy (LTS) is a framework aimed at achieving a comprehensive socioeconomic vision for the Saudi Arabian economy by 2024. It is being delivered through successive five-year development plans. The challenges Saudi Arabia faces are: raising the standard of living and improving the quality of life of nationals; achieving sustainable development; enhancing competitiveness; and regional and Arab integration. In attempting to achieve sustainable development, Saudi Arabia needs a highly qualified and productive workforce. However, despite the investment in education and training of Saudi Nationals, there is still a shortage of suitable labour in the private sector which results in the continued recruitment of Expatriates and makes Saudisation of the workforce a continuing challenge (LTS (2016); SIDF (2016)).

To achieve the LTS, the Saudi Arabian Tenth Development Plan (2015-2019) intends to accelerate the transition to a knowledge-based economy through, amongst many other things: encouraging the private sector to invest in production of goods and services with high-knowledge content; encouraging the private sector to adopt a strategy for reduction of Expatriate labour; and obliging private sector companies, which execute government projects, to employ Saudi citizens (MEP (2010); MEP (2015)). The Tenth Development Plan aims for Saudi Arabia to enter into contracts to maximise KT and Localisation benefits from international cooperation agreements and programmes; by effective implementation and follow up of technology transfer provisions in the Economic Offset Programme; and by providing more incentives to joint ventures and foreign direct investment in KT and Localisation (MEP, 2015).

5.3.5. Saudisation

Saudi Arabia faces high unemployment, high birth rates and potential political instability (Randeree, 2012). Saudi Arabia has Localisation and a knowledge-based economy at the heart of its Vision 2030, LTS and Tenth Development Plan (KSA, 2016). It is an important issue in Saudi Arabia as the country seeks to deal with an increasing youth unemployment rate. Saudi Arabia aims to reduce unemployment

from about 12% to 7% by 2030, which will require about 1.3 million jobs to be created (GSASTAT (2016); Rashad and Paul (2016)). However, it is a very significant challenge because as recent as January 2016, after 3 years of increases, the rate of employment of Saudis in the private sector fell by 38% whilst Expatriates increased by 60%. Saudi Arabia has an enormous challenge to create meaningful jobs in the private sector through Saudisation.

Saudisation is the Saudi Arabian government policy which seeks to provide sufficient jobs with suitable wages to employ all Saudis. The Saudisation policy, launched in 1992, aims to replace Expatriate labour with Saudi labour. The Saudi Arabia Long Term Strategy predicts that through the Saudi development plans, it would be possible to reduce Expatriate labour by an average annual rate of 2.0% through Saudisation (LTS, 2016). Variously the Ministry of Labour have set Saudisation targets of 30% (2003) and 70% (2007) but improvement in unemployment reduction and Saudisation has been uneven (MOL (2009)). A comparison of Saudisation ratios for 2013 and 2014 shows a substantial improvement in the water, manufacturing industries, financial activities, communications sectors whilst a decline in others such as electricity, mining, health and transport ((Al-Thumairi and Al-Deraa, 2015)).

In 2011, the Saudis introduced the Nitaqat scheme to give the Saudisation strategy more emphasis. It combines incentives to encourage firms to hire Saudi Nationals and sanctions (such as withdrawal of government services including renewing work permits for Expatriates or fees for redundant Expatriates) for those that do not. However, other Saudi policies conflict with Saudisation and the Nitaqat scheme in that the government has expanded higher education which discourages Nationals away from vocational training and it has also expanded public sector recruitment to ease social and political pressures.

As some researchers have noted, Nationals are disinclined to take low-skilled jobs; vocational training is seen as inferior and lower ranking than a diploma or university qualification; and tradition, social and family ties hinder the work mobility. This is sometimes known as the 'mudir syndrome', which is a concept of honour in work which means that only a position of authority, status and respect is acceptable (Champion (2003); Al-Asfour and Khan (2013)). This National culture, values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour are also reflected in other reports that Saudisation has

also been opposed by the business community because Nationals are seen as costly, unwilling to engage in low-skilled tasks; lacking the skills and training; and less efficient and productive than Expatriates (Bel-Air (2014); Alshiekh (2015); Alshabri et al. (2015); Sadi (2015)). It results in companies undertaking small scale programmes just to achieve the required quota (Sadi, 2013).

The next section explores how one case company has responded to this Saudisation context.

5.4. What do companies do in response to the Saudi Arabia strategic context?

5.4.1. Knowledge Transfer Strategies and Policies

The KT strategies and policies of Aerospace Inc are guided by the Saudi Arabia LTS and the five-year Development Plans. The Saudi Arabia LTS predicted that through the Development Plans it would be possible to reduce Expatriate labour in Saudi Arabia by an average annual rate of 2.0% through Saudisation. It aimed to achieve this by Saudis entering into contracts to maximise KT and indigenisation benefits from international cooperation agreements and programmes; by effective implementation and follow up of technology transfer provisions in the Economic Offset Programme; and by providing more incentives to joint ventures and foreign direct investment in KT and indigenisation (MEP, 2010).

Aerospace Inc has a strong track record in supporting Saudisation and developing Saudis through KT from Expatriates. In launching its 2017 strategy, the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) Aerospace Inc said “Our strategy strongly support Saudi Arabia’s Vision 2030 and National Transformation Programme 2020” (Aerospace_Inc, 2016b:2) and Vice President Transformation observed that there is “Renewed focus upon key objectives linked to Saudisation and Industrialisation” (Aerospace_Inc, 2016b:7). The importance Aerospace Inc places on KT transfer is perhaps best illustrated by the strap-line to one of its marketing posters for its most important aircraft sales campaigns. Instead of extolling the aircraft’s capability, survivability, interoperability or lethality, underneath an image of the aircraft is: “62% of *Aerospace Inc* employees are Saudis and the *aircraft* is a key catalyst for technology and know-how transfer to the kingdom” (Aerospace_Inc, 2016c).

Aerospace Inc has won the Saudi Arabia Ministry of Labour Award for Excellence for its Saudi training and development programs. Aerospace Inc's motivation for developing Saudi Nationals is twofold: its commitment to the country and its commitment to current and future business. Aerospace Inc's commitment to the country is to bring Saudis into management, technical and other positions to prepare them to be the future leadership of Saudi Arabia. It states that Saudisation is "focussed on the transfer of expertise to the Saudi people as much as it is the transfer of technology to Saudi industries" (Aerospace_Inc, 2016h). In terms of current and future business, Aerospace Inc seeks the support of all Company employees "to assist in this process and make it a success, as through successful Saudisation we will secure a long term future in KSA [Kingdom of Saudi Arabia] for our entire workforce" (Aerospace_Inc, 2016g).

Whilst the recruitment context for Saudi Nationals is not highly competitive, there are many more potential Saudi employees than vacancies, attracting and retaining a suitably qualified Saudi is a challenge. To attract appropriately skilled Saudis, Aerospace Inc has established a University Collaboration, Research and Development Steering Board to ensure that the Company develops and maintains close links with partner universities and helps students develop before they enter the labour market. Aerospace Inc also sponsors students at King Saud University and was a founding sponsor of Alfaisal University, which focuses on training Saudis in engineering and business management. For the past 25 years it has funded Saudi academics participation in programmes designed to stimulate advances in research. It provides financial and organisational support allowing Saudi academics to study at European universities and academic institutions. Since the programme began over 400 Saudi academics have benefited from the scheme (Aerospace_Inc, 2016e).

Aerospace Inc has also partnered with the Saudi Arabian government to create national occupational skill set standards and their resulting training curriculum. It holds and sponsors career events in Saudi Arabia and Europe, where the focus of the latter is on undergraduate and graduates studying at European universities. At one such event, Aerospace Inc Vice President HR restated "the importance the company places on contributing to the Kingdom through Saudisation and successful training and localisation programmes" (Aerospace_Inc, 2015).

Aerospace Inc has a structured development programme based on Aerospace MNC's policies and processes, but tailored for Saudi Arabia. In Saudi Arabia, training includes: task related exercises, management programmes and broader business areas such as: safety, ethical conduct, and in the promotion of cross-cultural understanding. A 70:20:10 model is used where 70% of learning is on-the-job KT; 20% through broader exposure and mentoring and 10% through formal learning programmes such as classroom-based or online-based learning. Aerospace Inc claim that their productivity is “nearly three times the national average, thanks in-part to a wide range of training and development programmes” (Aerospace_Inc, 2016e). In the employment terms and conditions for Expatriates there is an obligation to assist in transferring knowledge and developing Saudi employees.

Saudi Nationals are helped to develop English language skills; they are provided with specific functional competency development based on their role; and provided with management & leadership development as future leaders through the Talent Programmes. The training and development provides accreditation through internationally recognised awarding bodies and institutions. Saudi Nationals have a Performance Development Review every six months to capture and monitor performance, ongoing development needs and career aspirations.

For Saudi Graduates who join Aerospace Inc, they are placed onto the Graduate Development Framework related to their specific discipline which is like the Aerospace MNC programme. It supports the transition from an academic to a work environment through on-the-job learning as well as training courses. It also includes the opportunity for secondments at other business locations such as the Parent Aerospace MNC. Such schemes exist in business functions such as commercial, procurement and finance. As the Vice President Finance commented “Training and development sits at the heart of Aerospace Inc's Saudi Arabia's strategy and we are taking significant strides to develop our people and identify our next generation of Finance leaders” (Aerospace_Inc, 2016a:5). For mid-career Aerospace Inc Nationals, there is also a further development programme called Mustakbal (Arabic for “the future”) which over a two year period prepares Nationals for senior leadership positions, including opportunities to work overseas in Aerospace MNC and achieve Level 5 management leadership qualifications from the Chartered Institute of Management (Aerospace_Inc, 2016c). The importance of these development

programmes was emphasised by the CEO Aerospace Inc, when he commented that “These sorts of programmes are very important to Aerospace Inc. These students are trained in a global environment, allowing them to gain international experience which, in turn, supports our business objectives of technology transfer and knowledge transfer and localisation” (Aerospace_Inc, 2016d:4).

To further help with attraction, recruitment and retention, the employment package of Aerospace Inc is aimed at meeting Saudi expectations and needs. The employment packages, depending on grade and role, consists of: competitive basic salary; living (housing) allowance; transportation allowance; schooling allowance; annual bonus; profit sharing scheme; health insurance coverage for the employee and dependants; and learning & development opportunities (Aerospace_Inc, 2016f). .

5.4.2. Perceived Organisational Commitment

An individual’s perception of organisational commitment to KT is a key factor in determining how much an individual engages in KT across employee-group boundaries. The more highly valued KT is perceived to be the more employee engagement is likely to occur (Minbaeva et al., 2012). This section discusses employee’s perceptions of Aerospace Inc’s commitment to KT in terms of leadership, policies and procedures and customer influence.

Aerospace Inc considers itself to be highly committed to KT as part of its Localisation programme. It has dedicated policies, procedures and programmes aimed at encouraging KT between Expatriates and Nationals. On its website, Aerospace Inc states that training initiatives, which include KT from Expatriate to Nationals, are designed to support the Localisation of jobs and Vice President HR is quoted as saying “The localization of jobs and Saudisation are two of the company’s most important strategic objectives” (Aerospace_Inc, 2015).

5.4.3. Leadership

There was general agreement amongst all interviewees that senior leadership was a key enabler for successful KT. Particularly amongst the Saudi managers, they recognised the need for leadership (from both Expatriates and Saudi senior managers) to set both the direction and the pace of KT:

“Knowledge transfer is more about a top down approach, rather than relying on our EE [European Expatriate] colleagues to drive Saudisation for us”²

“It something that has to be driven by the senior management through the organisation”³

There was strong documentary evidence on the company’s website, in in-house magazines and in general press releases that the senior leadership team was personally committed to supporting the transfer of knowledge to Saudis within Aerospace Inc and local suppliers. As one Saudi trainee observed:

“Aerospace Inc cares about you, they want to increase your knowledge”⁴

But, other interviewees had a less positive perception about the effectiveness of the senior leadership. Whilst there were headlines about the success of KT and the increasing percentage of Saudis employed there was also concerns about the lack of individual recognition and incentives:

“I can’t think of any recognition that the company gives me for my development”⁵

“We don’t incentivise knowledge transfer or Saudisation. We’re told it’s our job, it’s our duty, that there will be opportunities, but there’s no real incentive”⁶

There were also some concerns about the quality and consistency of approach with which KT was applied in Aerospace Inc:

“If you were to talk to the management board they are capability challenged [within the Company]. They are not entirely happy with how knowledge transfer is going at the moment, they can see progress being made... but it’s about having enough people on the same page and pulling in the same direction to make it happen”⁷

5.4.4. Policies and Procedures

Aerospace Inc has a myriad of policies and procedures for selection, recruitment and development of Expatriates and Nationals. These are adapted from a global

² Saudi Human Resources Manager, Aerospace Inc

³ Ibid.

⁴ Saudi Commercial Trainee, Aerospace Inc

⁵ Saudi Procurement Trainee, Aerospace inc

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ Expatriate Learning and Development Manager, Aerospace Inc

governance framework provided by Aerospace MNC. These policies and procedures are well documented and managed by a significant HR department in Saudi Arabia. They have been successfully used over many years to grow and develop Aerospace Inc's workforce. One of the most successful policies was the secondment of Saudis on the 2 year Graduate Development Scheme to the United Kingdom for 6 months rotations (as described in paragraph 4.3.2). Both Expatriates and Saudis recognised the benefit of this experience to broaden the horizons of the individual and make them more aware of Aerospace MNC's culture:

“I draw a distinction between those that have spent a lot of time with Brits, they've been to the UK [United Kingdom], and they have an experience of what the UK is like versus those individuals who've not be out of the country”⁸

But it was also observed that not all departments or senior managers within Aerospace Inc take this proactive approach:

“Not all graduates get to go to the UK [United Kingdom] on placement because some functions don't want to spend money on their graduates. They think short-term and are trying to save money, they are more strict. In my function the VP [Vice President] has a wider view that you need to give the guys a chance to learn and experience the UK”⁹

Similarly, it was the perception of the majority of the interviewees that policies and procedures such as the Graduate Development Framework, Performance Development Review, and Reward and Recognition are either not adequate or being adequately applied to effectively enable KT across the company. The inadequacy arose from whether policies were fit for purpose to respond to both Expatriate and Nationals differing needs. Inadequate application arose from the competency of the individuals responsible for managing the procedures and a tendency to ignore them when convenient or misapply them under operational or customer pressure.

“I have sat with a VP [Vice President] in Saudi. I asked them what he thought the main blockers to Saudisation were. Number one was HR [Human Resource] competency, the way they run Saudisation, the process, a lot of it is not clear”¹⁰

⁸ Expatriate Commercial Manager 2, Aerospace Inc

⁹ Saudi Commercial Trainee 1, Aerospace Inc

¹⁰ Saudi Commercial Manager, Aerospace Inc

From an Expatriate perspective, the believed Aerospace Inc's priority was on firstly finding someone willing to relocate to Saudi Arabia and then secondly someone with the requisite knowledge and competency to perform their duties. It appeared little emphasis was made to ensure an Expatriate was also capable of transferring that knowledge:

“The company's process doesn't touch on things like not everybody is capable by nature, he wasn't born to pass knowledge, he was good at absorbing it but not necessarily at giving it. Otherwise everyone would be a teacher, teaching people stuff”¹¹

“I do look over the years and think why the hell did you put Joe Bloggs out there because he's a right arrogant such and such, he shouts of people. He goes out there and does he fit that culture, no. Do we ever do any cultural profiling of the expats that we send out there? So, they might not necessarily from a skill point of view, technical skills point of view, tick 95% of the box but this guy ticks 100% of all the cultural skills. Can he coach and develop and transfer the knowledge? Yes”¹²

From a National perspective, there was a similar issue with a quantity rather than quality approach. The perception amongst Expatriates and Saudis that in an effort to fill quotas not enough time was being spent on recruiting the right people, with the right attitude and capacity to participate in KT:

“[Aerospace Inc] is still wrestling with the legacy of the quantity approach rather than the quality approach in some of the areas of the business. They were successful in getting lots Saudi Nationals in over such a short period of time but the legacy is that some of the functions now have the capability that is less than expected and that has an impact on the wider business”¹³

“...you can either deliver it statistically, you kick some people outside the organisation to get inadequately trained Saudi, lacking a lot of the competencies and skills that you need. Then he'll deliver a poor job that will cost you something later on. Then you've created a lifetime issue, you've promoted this guy into this role when he's not ready”¹⁴

The overall approach to more effective application of policies and procedures to KT and Saudisation was summarised by one Saudi manager:

“Firstly, choose the right expat with a track record. The second thing is the process and be clear on what is expected from the people and how they are

¹¹ Saudi Procurement Trainee, Aerospace Inc

¹² Expatriate Commercial Manager 2, Aerospace Inc

¹³ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

¹⁴ Saudi Human Resources Manager, Aerospace Inc

going to be rewarded if they do it right. Three select the right people [Saudi]”¹⁵

5.4.5. Customer Influence

Linked directly to selecting the right Nationals with the attitude and capability to absorb knowledge is the influence Aerospace Inc’s customer plays in the process. Aerospace Inc provides and supports many products in Saudi Arabia; however, it only has one customer: the Armed Forces. Whilst it is focussed on transferring knowledge to Nationals as part of Saudisation, most of the managers interviewed commented the influence the customer wields in terms of driving the Saudisation process. This manifests itself within Aerospace Inc as the customer constantly reviewing the progress of Saudisation, setting recruitment targets for individual departments and directing that certain individuals are either employed or promoted within departments. This in turn directly affects the success of KT.

The influence of the customer was seen as a legacy of the previous failure of Aerospace Inc to meet all of its knowledge and capability transfer commitments and the increasing focus within Saudi Arabia to find meaningful, non-oil based - employment for rapidly growing and well-educated youth population. For some it is an enabler:

“We get a lot of pressure from the Royal Saudi Air Force and the Ministry of Defence. It’s a good challenge to have. Our job is to transfer capability to the local workforce”¹⁶

“Definitely taking it more [Saudisation] contractual obligations, RSAF [Royal Saudi Air Force] pushing hard, pushing the agenda of the Kingdom, creating indigenous capability, know-how and creating jobs.”¹⁷

“...very passionate about Saudisation in the military, in the RSAF, they are very, very passionate about it”¹⁸

However, for other managers the customer’s influence was seen as unusual and a barrier to both effective KT and genuine business benefit by putting the wrong people in to the wrong jobs:

¹⁵ Saudi Commercial Manager, Aerospace Inc

¹⁶ Expatriate Learning and Development Manager, Aerospace Inc

¹⁷ Saudi Deputy Vice President Industrialisation, Aerospace Inc

¹⁸ Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace Inc

“...the culture results in a lot of influence been exerted on the company to employ individuals who are often related to people with significant Wasta. So, you would often come under pressure to employ people. On the face of it individuals who were not ideal so perhaps you would bypass the normal criteria of assessment, and the proper assessment selection process”¹⁹

“...that’s due to many aspects linked to the pressure on the nation, the way we do things with our customer to please him by sorting out people and having deals to sort out something else that isn’t directly related, by doing favours. The fact is the customer interferes in your management of your people, even the people who don’t interface with the customer”²⁰

Wasta was never mentioned by Nationals and from the senior Expatriate perspective, its importance is sometimes overstated:

“Wasta? Some people play on it but it is becoming less and less important”²¹

No documentary or observational evidence was found to support customer influence or the impact of wasta. However, as recent as April 2017, Director – KSA & Operations blogged, following a visit of the RSAF, that:

“What impressed me was the understanding from our visitors of the Saudi Government’s Vision 2030; and how the Saudi armed forces, the Royal Saudi Air Force and they themselves will play a very important role in it. The importance of industrialisation, technology transfer, long term relationship with the UK and Aerospace Inc certainly hit home with a number of people who presented on the visit.”²²

5.5. What are the key extrinsic factors of individual KT?

Extrinsic motivation is another key factor through which individual-level KT is affected. Individuals are extrinsically motivated to share knowledge when their needs are satisfied through primarily money but also through more power, recognition or promotion (Minbaeva et al., 2012). This section discusses the extrinsic factors which affect KT in Aerospace Inc. Notwithstanding one Saudi national view that:

“In terms of rewards and incentives the company gives very little. There is little recognition of the success of knowledge transfer”²³

¹⁹ Expatriate Learning and Development Manager, Aerospace Inc

²⁰ Saudi Commercial Manager, Aerospace Inc

²¹ Expatriate Vice President Industrialisation , Aerospace Inc

²² Aerospace_Inc (2017)

²³ Saudi Commercial Trainee 1, Aerospace Inc

In Aerospace Inc, the extrinsic enablers are primarily money, promotion and responsibility and the barriers are Expatriate job insecurity and operational imperative.

5.5.1. Money

Money, or rather the prospect of earning more money, appeared to be a primary motivator for Saudi trainees to participate in KT. There was no direct monetary reward for KT but rather the consequence of successfully gaining more knowledge was an opportunity to progress in their careers and gain promotion. There was no evidence of money being motivating factor for Expatriates, the latter only discussed money as a motivator in relation to Saudis and never themselves. Aerospace Inc has a globally standardized salary and benefits package based on job grade and location. In Saudi Arabia Expatriates are on various tax-free or tax-normalised schemes depending on their circumstances and personal choice. Expatriates are discouraged from disclosing or discussing salaries. Saudis are paid on a local scale, benchmarked within Aerospace Inc and locally to reflect national conditions.

All of the Expatriate managers considered money to be the main motivator for Saudi nationals, as one of them summarised it:

“The general motivation of Saudi Nationals, without any doubt whatsoever, is money and status. They are obsessed with money and they are obsessed with status.”²⁴

Saudi trainees were particularly vocal about their desire to earn money:

“I don’t want to leave however the payment is something essential for people, payment is essential for people and if you pay me less than others, people will leave.”²⁵

“If you spend two or three years in Aerospace Inc and you find yourself stuck in the same place that you started with people outside the company moving ahead, they’re getting more salary. So you think why my waste my time because you have responsibility, you have family, you need to buy house, you need to buy car. If I am sticking to Aerospace Inc only for the training and the knowledge and you don’t cover the salary and the other money things I think there is more logic to go to another company”²⁶

However, one Saudi trainee did recognise the value of the KT and the training provided by Aerospace Inc. But, he also cautioned that this benefit had a shelf-life

²⁴ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

²⁵ Saudi Procurement Trainee, Aerospace Inc

²⁶ Saudi Commercial Trainee 1, Aerospace inc

and once Saudis had gained the know-how from Aerospace Inc they were an attractive proposition for other Saudi companies who are willing to pay a higher salary for a more highly capable Saudi:

“Training is something essential. It is like money but in a different way. If I was working for another company I would get paid more but I have to deduct from that salary my training”²⁷

“I think if you prepare me and train me why do you leave me to [join] others? Give me the right thing that I deserve. I’m not talking about management positions; just give him the right thing that he deserves”²⁸

A high attrition of Saudi trainees at the end of their training, especially graduates was confirmed by Expatriate managers, who also confirmed there was no commitment required by graduates to stay with Aerospace Inc at the end of their 2 years of training, they were free to leave.

There was some tangential evidence based on the employees packages on Aerospace Inc’s website for the importance of money as a KT motivating factor for Nationals *and* Expatriates its importance but it was not strong. For Nationals, Aerospace Inc offer “a competitive compensation and benefits package for Saudi employees. This package is designed to attract, retain and motivate competent and talented employees.” (Aerospace_Inc, 2016f)

5.5.2. Status

For Saudis to significantly increase their salaries above a standard annual increment and therefore earn more money whilst staying in Aerospace Inc, they need to be promoted. Achieving promotion generally requires demonstration of having the necessary competences and behaviours; both of which are obtained through successful KT with Expatriates during structured and unstructured on-the-job activities. However, promotion for Saudis is not only about money, it is also about status. All of the interviewees agreed that status is a significant motivator for Saudis. In terms of a driver for KT to develop the necessary competencies and behaviours it was potentially equal to or more important than money:

“...status is number one, seniority, status, recognition. Status of being seen as someone who is very influential and having a job title and so forth. Again, its

²⁷ Saudi Commercial Trainee 2, Aerospace Inc

²⁸ Saudi Commercial Trainee 1, Aerospace inc

human instinct, it's not right or wrong. But it's almost accentuated, more prevalent in Saudi nationals.”²⁹

“What motivates a Saudi national the most is status, status is a big one. Money almost comes below status but money is very, very important. Status of having a senior title, having the influence is so important.”³⁰

“...[it's] the theory of the Mudir syndrome, they do believe the majority of them that they should be the managers.”³¹

For some Expatriate managers, the requirement to satisfy the Saudi need for status (and money whilst remaining within global salary guidelines) has resulted in an imbalance in the proportion of managers to professional grades. This is causing problems for the business in terms of too many managers and too few workers; managers' roles being undermined (managers performing professional tasks but with the title of manager); managers having no staff to manage and therefore not developing leadership skills; and an increasing burden on the Expatriate professional workforce who have to 'pick up the slack':

“We have a very top-heavy management organisation, to give you an example, the HR organisation now there's no resemblance to what was here 20 years ago. For a workforce of about 4000 there's 150 people working in HR, there's a VP [Vice President] and about five grade twos, and 30 plus executives, is just nonsense really. And that's one of the fundamental problems.”³²

5.5.3. Expatriate Job Insecurity

Every manager (both Saudi and Expatriate) cited as the most important barrier to successful KT MNC and the majority of the Expatriates are European. There were few if any non-western Expatriates. The majority of the Expatriates in management or administrative roles were recruited from within Aerospace MNC and transferred from another business unit to Aerospace Inc. Some join Aerospace Inc on short, typically 3 year contracts; others have been in Saudi Arabia for over 20 years with their family and children. In joining Aerospace Inc, Expatriates sign new terms and conditions of employment which includes a commitment to transfer knowledge and train Nationals. However, this seems to only become apparent on contract signature.

²⁹ Expatriate Programme Director, Aerospace Inc

³⁰ Expatriate Commercial Manager 2, Aerospace Inc

³¹ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

³² Ibid.

A random review of job vacancies on the Aerospace Inc website reveals no mention of Saudisation or the requirement for KT. Moreover, whilst Expatriates may recognise their role in KT, developing Saudis and supporting Saudisation, they are still reticent and fearful:

“Brits in Saudi are more sensitive about sharing knowledge because they fear Saudisation.”³³

“The concept of doing yourself out of a job, a lot of people find difficult to accept and cope with.”³⁴

But one Director, with responsibility for Industrialisation, saw it differently:

“Expatriates are recruited to do Saudisation, know Saudisation is going on and it’s in their contract of employment. They all get it and they know they are at risk, they all signed up to be committed to knowledge transfer... biggest challenge for expats is to start to see the role is changing and coming to an end, expats need to get used to change.”³⁵

For Expatriates, the fear of losing their job, re-starting their career elsewhere, changing their lifestyle, uprooting their family with children in school, or diluting their long-term financial plans is a reality. It results in the Expatriate not being fully motivated or engaged in KT. The Expatriate withholds knowledge, minimises the opportunities for Saudis to participate in activities or encourages the Saudi to seek opportunities elsewhere:

“The worst thing I’ve seen is perhaps where people are given non-jobs or not being given the ability to get involved in anything. People create work for them to do supplementary to what actually the normal role should do”³⁶

However, in Aerospace Inc these tactics are generally in vain, as interviewees talked of Saudisation being imposed by both the organisation and the customer. But, this imposition also carries issues where Saudis are not ready for the role and therefore Aerospace Inc diminishes its overall capability. Moreover, although counter-intuitive to Expatriates, engaging in and being seen to be good at KT may contribute to staying in a job in Saudi Arabia:

³³ Saudi Commercial Manager, Aerospace Inc

³⁴ Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace Inc

³⁵ Expatriate Vice President Industrialisation , Aerospace Inc

³⁶ Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace Inc

“Longevity is achieved by being seen as a good KT practitioner. One who can do Saudisation the best will get to stay longer.”³⁷

The Saudi and Expatriate managers also pointed to the policies and practices of Aerospace Inc exacerbating the job insecurity. Whilst Aerospace Inc is part of a global MNC, from which the majority of the Expatriates were recruited, there was no guarantee of employment within the Aerospace MNC should an Expatriate transfer knowledge, be replaced by a Saudi and lose their job. Aerospace Inc only commits to best endeavours to find an alternate job within Saudi Arabia or Aerospace MNC. However, as one manager observed, this was also true if you were being repatriated at the end of your contract even if you were not subject to Saudisation. Nevertheless, this ‘best endeavours’ approach contributes to the job insecurity and sense of fear:

“For an expat, human nature would be: I enjoy working in this environment, I enjoy being here. But in blunt terms it [knowledge transfer] potentially could mean that I am a redundant. The reality is that there are usually 99 cases out of 100 where there are opportunities for people, but I don’t think it is articulated as well as it could be.”³⁸

“There is no guarantee of employment, they offer assistance like they do when somebody is displaced or made redundant. So, you can go through job search process and the company will try to find job opportunities for you within the same unit or elsewhere within the company. So, it can be quite a threat and disincentive to this lifestyle you are living.”³⁹

“The company does not give the people the proper assurance that there that other jobs elsewhere. It has a commitment to the customer in writing that you going to do Saudisation, why don’t you commit to your expats?”⁴⁰

5.5.4. Time

Another barrier to effective KT between Expatriates and Nationals was time. Several of the Expatriate managers highlighted that Expatriates did not always have sufficient capacity or the time to share their knowledge. This was mainly attributed to an operational imperative to deliver on the task rather than spend time training. As a public company with shareholders and demanding military customers, Aerospace Inc’s leadership is under severe pressure to deliver increasing profitability and higher

³⁷ Expatriate Vice President Industrialisation , Aerospace Inc

³⁸ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

³⁹ Expatriate Commercial Manager 2, Aerospace Inc

⁴⁰ Saudi Human Resource Manager, Aerospace Inc

levels of output - as well as drive Saudisation. This was further exacerbated by fewer capable Expatriates being required to do more of the work as the Expatriate population was replaced. One talked of it being like the 80:20 rule, where 80% of the work was now being done by 20% of the staff:

“In terms of capability, knowledge and understanding and background as a general sweeping generalisation, the Expatriates are more capable in discharging the roles than the equivalent Saudi Nationals. With one or two significant exceptions. Particularly at lower grade levels, administrative levels what you do notice is an increasing reliance upon an increasingly small number of expats. The pressure is increasing on the expats as the Saudi national percentage increases, because there is a capability gap between Saudi National and expat.”⁴¹

“At the moment the challenge is to get people to have the time and inclination and to step away from their operational role to actually sit down with the teams and try to develop them”⁴²

However, this view was countered by a Saudi director who thought:

“Expatriate culture is more important in stopping knowledge transfer, rather than operational tempo. EE [European Expatriate] has to be qualified in terms of knowledge, needs to be able to communicate, but also has to have a cultural sensitivity”⁴³

5.6. What are the key intrinsic factors of individual KT?

Intrinsic motivation is another factor which influences individual KT. Intrinsic motivation occurs when an individual undertakes KT for its own sake rather than extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic motivation is seen to have a positive effect on KT across employee groups (Minbaeva et al., 2012). This section discusses the intrinsic motivations of employees in Aerospace Inc to share knowledge. Intrinsic motivation to share knowledge was considered by interviewees to be the most important factor in KT.

5.6.1. Self-fulfilment

Self-fulfilment was seen by Saudis and Expatriates as a key intrinsic motivator for KT. Amongst Saudis, there were those that were motivated to share knowledge and learn,

⁴¹ Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace Inc

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³ Saudi Deputy Vice President Industrialisation, Aerospace Inc

whilst there were others who were less motivated to engage in the process; but that was seen as no different to any other group of people:

“...a great deal depends on the individual quite frankly. I have dealt with people who haven’t been very good. But one who came with me from my last job, came into this organisation here and has absolutely flourished to the extent that he is probably going to be the next generation of senior management.”⁴⁴

“... the Saudi has to be willing to learn, asking the right questions. Knowledge can be injected into your mind but you need to show interest, work very hard and ask questions”.⁴⁵

For those Saudis who are fully engaged in the KT process there were those that did so because they were driven by extrinsic factors such as money and status, but others were genuinely motivated by personal development and self-fulfilment:

“I like to have the opportunity to challenge myself to achieve.”⁴⁶

“I want to learn. There’s lots I can learn from Brits and I can do well in this company. I can improve and be better.”⁴⁷

Although it was not mentioned by Nationals during interviews, there was one piece of documentary evidence which support Nationals not only being engaged in KT for personal gain but also supporting national goals. In relation to Aerospace Inc’s Saudisation level currently of 62%, Head of Engineering said:

“This is a significant source of pride for us as Saudi Nationals. Collectively, we are helping drive our nation’s key objectives towards technology transfer and localization, this which are at the heart of our business’ strategy”⁴⁸

For Expatriate managers, there was a similar sense of self-fulfilment in sharing knowledge and developing Saudi Nationals. Some Expatriates got a sense of satisfaction for sharing their knowledge, developing their teams and seeing Saudis flourish. However, most did also admit to a certain amount of self-interest:

“It is also rewarding to seen their [Saudi national] ability progress, to come on leaps and bounds. When they are able to get the opportunity to do that.”⁴⁹

⁴⁴ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

⁴⁵ Saudi Deputy Vice President Industrialisation, Aerospace Inc

⁴⁶ Saudi Commercial Trainee 2, Aerospace Inc

⁴⁷ Saudi Procurement Trainee, Aerospace Inc

⁴⁸ Saudi Head of Engineering, Aerospace Inc (Aerospace_Inc, 2016c:8)

⁴⁹ Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace Inc

“What motivates me personally sometimes is self-interest, bringing on somebody’s ability to take on accountability and responsibility to discharge their own job. So you can get productivity”⁵⁰

There was some minor documentary evidence to support the potential importance of self-fulfilment on the Aerospace Inc website, where they appeal to this motivator by stating their programmes are “designed to help our people reach their full potential” and “you will have every opportunity to improve your skills and enhance your career” (Aerospace_Inc, 2016e).

5.6.2. Sense of Entitlement

A sense of entitlement in Saudis was highlighted as a barrier to effective KT from Expatriates. This sense of entitlement was seen partly as a result of the process of Saudisation and partly as a result of culture. Saudi Arabian royal decrees, Aerospace Inc processes, customer influence and individual experience has created an expectation in Saudis that they will be provided with a good job, high salary, rapid promotion and exalted status. Historically and culturally, many of the lower paid, more menial jobs in Saudi Arabia are undertaken by Asians (or slaves until 1962). Saudis have enjoyed the benefits of an oil-rich Saudi economy, highly-paid government jobs and family businesses:

“A lot of Saudi Nationals think you just turn up to work and get promoted. There’s a lot of outward looking at other people but not much inward looking at themselves.”⁵¹

“...some have families have their own business interests and have independent wealth. Literally you will see some of them turning up in the Porsche and they’re an administrator. And some of those types of people that can be quite difficult to manage. They’re not that interested really in learning”⁵²

“Saudis have a sense of entitlement and a blasé approach because of the legislation. But in my experience it is not different to anywhere else in the world where there is positive action, South Africa, Turkey, Mexico, even America.”⁵³

⁵⁰ Expatriate Commercial Manager 2, Aerospace Inc

⁵¹ Expatriate Learning and Development Manager, Aerospace Inc

⁵² Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

⁵³ Expatriate Vice President Industrialisation , Aerospace Inc

5.6.3. Fear of Conflict

If a sense of entitlement in Saudis was a barrier to effective KT, an intrinsic sense of fear in Expatriates had a similar affect. In addition to job insecurity and finding the time to share knowledge, many Expatriates also fear saying or doing the wrong thing and thereby upsetting a Saudi. As all Expatriates observed, upsetting a Saudi can have a terminal effect on an Aerospace Inc career:

“In the Saudi culture they put great store in never wanting to lose face. So, if you back them into a corner and they have nowhere to go and they are seen by their own compatriots to have been pushed into a corner they usually react quite badly”⁵⁴

“...you can find that you have to tread quite carefully around your approach to some of the Saudi nationals because people have found themselves, if your relationship breaks down to the point where someday as a personal grudge against you, they’ll take that influence to somebody else who has the ability to influence your personal employment. You are eventually PNG’d [Persona Non-Grata] and removed from the role.”⁵⁵

“You can one day come in and find a letter on your desk saying thank you very much, you are no longer required.”⁵⁶

Expatriate managers talked about the threat of being “PNG’d”. This was Aerospace Inc shorthand for receiving a letter stating that you were Persona Non-Grata in Saudi Arabia – an unacceptable or unwelcome person in the country. It was part of Aerospace Inc mythology but each interviewee was able to talk about someone they had known or heard about who had left the company and country – sometimes within days, including their family. In these circumstances Aerospace Inc is supportive in helping the individual out as much as practicably possible but it is not easy to quickly find another job and it can be very disruptive if family relocation is involved.

However, remote the reality of being PNG’d was, it was nevertheless a barrier to KT because some Expatriates were reluctant to be honest with their advice and assessment; to have difficult conversations and point out mistakes; or to share knowledge in open forums with Saudis:

“... and that’s exaggerated again that at the back of some expats minds that if you do try to do the right things and sometimes it is a case of doing the right thing for the business but it doesn’t look if it’s the right thing for individuals

⁵⁴ Expatriate Commercial Manager 2, Aerospace Inc

⁵⁵ Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace Inc

⁵⁶ Ibid.

who are well-connected and therefore have a key to people of power with the customer or in the business.”⁵⁷

“...having difficult conversations is not an easy thing to do. Saying to someone you’re not coming in on time, it is something I can help you with, or you just need to knuckle down and do those things, pull your socks up or however you want to phrase it, it’s a very difficult conversation to have.”⁵⁸

“So you have to pluck up courage to give them the opportunity to let them fail in some areas as well succeed. But to give some of them the opportunity to fail is very difficult particularly when you can’t afford for an Arab to lose face.”⁵⁹

However, as one Saudi manager noted, whilst the threat of being PNG’d was genuine it was also partly self-inflicted by Aerospace Inc. He said that as an organisation he believed that Aerospace Inc feared the influence of their customer and the threat of not getting new orders. He has not observed this fear in the behaviour of other organisations, particularly American ones, with the same customer. He said:

“We never say no very often to the customer, that is probably one of the issues. So when somebody says no it’s very odd and he gets PNG’d. So a new guy comes in and his first priority is not to say no because he knows that if he says no his career can be impacted and even if the company sorts him another job, his family will be disrupted”⁶⁰

Moreover, the fear of being PNG’d may be a reflection on under-confidence or just an excuse in the Expatriate. Difficult conversations can be held and people can work through them. But, whilst a Director might be confident, lower level staff may not be:

“You need a personal approach, I’ve been more direct than most. I never got hung up on prospect of being PNG’s or failing out with Saudi peers. The company will find me another job or give me a big cheque. You have to get comfortable with it so you can have the difficult conversations.”⁶¹

“The Western culture is low conflict. EEs [European Expatriates] worry about criticising Saudis, being rude. We need strong leadership in middle management.”⁶²

⁵⁷ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

⁵⁸ Ibid.

⁵⁹ Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace Inc

⁶⁰ Saudi Commercial Manager, Aerospace Inc

⁶¹ Expatriate Vice President Industrialisation, Aerospace Inc

⁶² Saudi Deputy Vice President Industrialisation, Aerospace Inc

5.7. What are the key individual preferences for engaging in KT?

The level of social interaction between members of different employee groups has a significant positive effect on the level of KT. However, it is not necessarily the opportunity or type of social interaction that drives the KT but rather the individual's engagement – “whether or not they decide to use them for KT depends on their perceptions of what is important and what behaviours are desired” Minbaeva et al. (2012:393). This section discusses the engagement in social interaction of employees in Aerospace Inc to share knowledge.

Social interaction is a key element of KT. The Saudi culture is a social one, where conversations are imperative. In transferring knowledge, a variety of opportunities exist at work, both formal and informal. For Saudi Nationals formal training courses were the least popular way in which to share knowledge, the major enablers were one-to-one interaction, involvement and taking responsibility. But, there was also some cultural stereotyping that was a major barrier to this interaction.

5.7.1. One-to-One Interaction

Given the nature of the KT between Saudis and Expatriates, which was mainly job focussed know-how, a major enabler to the process was one-to-one interaction. Aerospace Inc claim that Nationals will “learn from some of the best minds in the world” (Aerospace_Inc, 2016e). Both Nationals and Expatriates preferred, if there was sufficient time and opportunity, to work on tasks together so that process and nuance can be shared, practical examples used and the Saudi can do the work under Expatriate supervision:

“You’ve got to talk with them on a personal level; you have to build a relationship with them”⁶³

“The people generally prefer knowledge transfer to be face-to-face; they prefer less to be given documents to read. The best way to do it is quite labour-intensive, it takes more time, but generally speaking it’s better received”⁶⁴

“I think storytelling goes down very well. Say why people are doing it rather than just the what and the how. Take them on a journey and the story behind it”⁶⁵

⁶³ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

⁶⁴ Expatriate Learning and Development Manager, Aerospace Inc

⁶⁵ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

5.7.2. Involvement

Closely related to one-to-one interaction was involvement as a key enabler to KT. Successful KT was seen not just to be a conversation or show-and-tell, but practical involvement in all aspects of the work. The Saudis knowledge needed to be increased in both the theoretical aspects of the work and the practicalities of how to plan to meet a deadline, what the process steps are and why it's presented in a certain way. There was also an element for many in understanding Aerospace Inc cultures, expectations and behaviours which were best experienced by involvement and doing:

“Seeing it, touching it, trying it, is the best way rather than just being told about it. It's the experiential stuff is the most impactful, makes the biggest difference”⁶⁶

“...if you going to work you have to experience things yourself and try to do them by yourself.”⁶⁷

5.7.3. Safe Responsibility

Similar to involvement, as an enabler for KT was a preference expressed by most interviewees for Saudis to take some level of responsibility for tasks or projects. There was common agreement amongst interviewees though that responsibility should be undertaken in a safe manner – a non-blameworthy environment. Saudi trainees particularly believed that being responsible but not accountable for a task was a good way to learn. This was also potentially a face-saving technique:

“...you are given responsibility but you will not be penalised for any mistakes because I am doing a real job that any permanent employee does. At the end of that I am not going to approve it until my line manager has checked and approved it”⁶⁸

“...much better by doing practical jobs and you're not penalised so you don't have things that make you worry that you're going to do something bad. If you are less confident in yourself and your job it will be fine because by the end of a job your manager will correct you and will see you do the right thing”⁶⁹

⁶⁶ Expatriate Learning and Development Manager, Aerospace Inc

⁶⁷ Saudi Commercial Trainee 2, Aerospace Inc

⁶⁸ Saudi Commercial Trainee 1, Aerospace Inc

⁶⁹ Saudi Procurement Trainee, Aerospace Inc

Whilst Saudi trainees prefer safe responsibility, both Saudi and Expatriate managers believe that this can be an issue as relieving the Saudi of accountability and blameworthiness because it reduces the pressure and a learning opportunity. It was about creating a balance and just treating Nationals like any other member of the team:

“...starting as early as possible, not creating a culture of failure, but creating a balance, not just saying it’s all right to fail”⁷⁰

“...guys coming to just shadow don’t feel the responsibility, don’t feel the pressure to learn, because if something goes wrong tomorrow it’s not my problem”⁷¹

“The trick I found is to make sure that they are in a proper job where they are delivering something that’s a proper role. The role with enough oversight that allows them recourse and a coaching opportunity with a colleague or a line manager that is close who can influence what they’re doing. But it is no different to how you would manager in the UK”⁷²

5.7.4. Cultural Stereotyping

Given the preference of all interviewees for one-to-one interaction and involvement, a key barrier to KT through social interaction appeared to be individual culture. Whilst it is apparent, recognised and accepted that Saudis and European Expatriates have significantly different cultures; in the workplace this manifested itself in preconceptions, misconceptions and bias towards the KT process. As one Expatriate director summarised it:

“For Saudis the most important thing is faith, family, country, and then their job. Expatriates it is their job and family. There is a misalignment of values. You have to find the right balance by being engaged, focussed on them and trusted by them.”⁷³

Expatriates mainly expressed views about Saudis having different priorities, being work-shy or poor attitude towards learning. These views were not always expressed as criticisms but merely observations and something that had to be considered in the KT process:

⁷⁰ Expatriate Learning and Development Manager, Aerospace Inc

⁷¹ Saudi Commercial Manager, Aerospace Inc

⁷² Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace Inc

⁷³ Expatriate Vice President Industrialisation , Aerospace Inc

“As a people they can be quite indolent, ones are good can be very, very good but they just have different priorities to us. They just do things differently; they just have a different approach to things.”⁷⁴

“...they just have a different work ethic and it is something that goes back centuries really. The Arabic does not value effort...”⁷⁵

“...it was noticeable with them [Saudis] that work was a secondary thing and that personal life and family life was the primary thing. Even at quite senior levels. So, there’s a balance between trying to impose British values and work ethic type approach, it doesn’t work.”⁷⁶

However, it was also recognised by Expatriates that these views were a generalisation and that a significant difference can be found in Saudis who have travelled outside of the country and exposed to Western culture:

“Any perception they’ve got of what the Brits are like is driven from what they’ve read, what they’ve seen on the TV or from a third-party. And there is a distinction”⁷⁷

“In particular guess with the Saudis you’ve got different types. Some are more Westernised in their approach and certain individuals may be more extreme in their views on their approach to things.”⁷⁸

From a Saudi perspective there was frustration with some of the preconceptions held by Expatriates as a result of living on compounds, not really understanding Saudi culture and not being open-minded:

“... [Expatriates] live on a compound which looks like an American penitentiary from the outside”⁷⁹

“...the perception that they have, they don’t probably believe but they inherit about Saudis. They talk and they talk a lot and the share perceptions and views. So, somebody comes in new and you’ll come to work day one fully loaded with views. They don’t have to make judgements or test things themselves because they believe whatever they have been told, so they behave with their perceptions”⁸⁰

⁷⁴ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

⁷⁵ Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace Inc

⁷⁶ Expatriate Learning and Development Manager, Aerospace Inc

⁷⁷ Expatriate Training Director, Aerospace Inc

⁷⁸ Expatriate Commercial Manager 2, Aerospace Inc

⁷⁹ Saudi Commercial Manager, Aerospace Inc

⁸⁰ Ibid.

In contrast to the views that the individual cultures and biases significantly impact the effective of KT because Saudi and European Expatriates are so different in approach, style and nature, one Expatriate provided a different perspective:

“When you compare and contrast Saudi nationals it’s no different to being back in the UK [United Kingdom]. You always get a variation in standards and capabilities throughout the organisation and that’s no different among Saudis as it is amongst nationals in the UK. In any large organisation you’ll see the differences”⁸¹

5.8. Summary

In summary, this Saudi Arabia case study established the strategic context for KT from Expatriates to Nationals in Saudi Arabia, describing the need for KT as part of government Localisation policies to address a large, highly educated youth population and a need to move away from an oil-based economy. Using the Minbaeva et al (2012) model it explored the factors driving KT from Western Expatriates to Saudi Nationals in one company in the aerospace and defence sector: Aerospace Inc. It described the research findings from a series of interviews with male Expatriates and Saudis under the categories: perceived organisational commitment; extrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation and engagement in social interaction. Aerospace Inc has a successful track record of developing Saudi Nationals through KT from Expatriates. Through this research several enablers and barriers to KT were identified, described in the case study and summarised in Table 5-1.

The enabling factors for KT were clear organisational commitment provided by Aerospace Inc’s leadership. At an individual level, the extrinsic factors of money and status were factors for Saudi Nationals and these appeared to be more significant than intrinsic factors such as self-fulfilment and ambition in the KT process. In participating in the process, one-to-one interaction, involvement in everything and the delegation of safe responsibility were considered the most important factors in engaging Saudis in KT.

Barriers to KT included Aerospace Inc’s application of policies and the influence of its customers in the Saudisation process in particular. Extrinsic barriers to KT were most evident in Expatriates unwilling to share knowledge due to job insecurity as a result

⁸¹ Expatriate Commercial Manager 1, Aerospace inc

of the Saudisation process and having the time to share knowledge due to operational pressures. Saudi Nationals were unable to make the most of the KT opportunity due to a sense of entitlement. Finally, there was also some evidence that individual culture differences also affected the success of the KT.

Together these results provide key insights into KT in a Saudi Arabia company, the next chapter moves on to present the findings from the Qatar case study.

Knowledge Transfer Factors		Factor	Applicability	Comments
Perceived Organisational Commitment	Enablers	Leadership	Both	“Knowledge transfer is more about a top down approach” “It something that has to be driven by the senior management”
	Barriers	Policies and Processes	Both	“...main blockers to Saudisation were... the way they run Saudisation, the process, a lot of it is not clear”
		Customer Influence	Both	“We do get challenged by the customer if we have an expat who has been here for a while”
Extrinsic Motivators	Enablers	Money	Saudi National	“... motivation of Saudi Nationals, without any doubt whatsoever, is money...”
		Status	Saudi National	“Status is number one, seniority, status, recognition. Status of being seen as someone who is very influential”
	Barriers	Expatriate Job Insecurity	Expatriate	“Brits in Saudi are more sensitive about sharing knowledge because they fear Saudisation”
		Time	Expatriate	“At the moment the challenge is to get people to have the time and inclination”
Intrinsic Motivators	Enablers	Self-fulfilment	Both	“I like to have the opportunity to challenge myself to achieve”
	Barriers	Sense of Entitlement	Saudi National	“A lot of Saudi Nationals think you just turn up to work and get promoted”
		Fear of Conflict	Expatriate	“You can one day come in and find a letter on your desk saying thank you very much, you are no longer required”
Engagement in Social interaction	Enablers	One-to-One Interaction	Both	“The people generally prefer knowledge transfer to be face-to-face”
		Involvement	Both	“Seeing it, touching it, trying it, is the best way rather than just being told about it”
		Safe Responsibility	Saudi National	“...you are given responsibility but you will not be penalised for any mistakes”
	Barriers	Cultural Stereotyping	Both	“As a people they can be quite indolent, ones are good can be very, very good but they just have different priorities to us” “They don’t have to make judgements or test things themselves because they believe whatever they have been told”

Table 5-1. Knowledge Transfer Barriers and Enablers in Aerospace Inc

6. CHAPTER SIX: QATAR CASE STUDY ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS (CHEM CO AND GAS CO)

6.1. Introduction

On 14 June 2017, Qatar announced a £9.4 billion deal with the US for 36 F-15 aircraft (Ajmera and Stone (2017); (Mehta (2017))). This was in addition to a June 2016 spend of £3 billion on warships from Fincantieri and £460 million on 24 Apache helicopters from Boeing; and a December 2015 spend of £5 billion on 24 Rafale aircraft from Dassault (Kington (2016); Mustafa (2014); Mustafa (2016b); Perlo-Freeman et al. (2016)). Although Qatar does not have an established aerospace and defence industry or a formal defence offset policy, it does have an expectation that local companies will benefit from joint ventures and partnership as part of aerospace and defence deals. It also welcomes indirect Industrialisation in advanced Research and Development, education and aerospace (Anderson and Burton, 2016).

As a market for aerospace and defence companies, Qatar remains attractive. In the civil aerospace sector, Qatar Airways is expanding its global destinations and currently has 320 aircraft on order valued at £48 billion. In October 2016, Qatar Airways placed an additional order for up to 100 Boeing aircraft in a deal worth an estimated £14.9 billion (Ambrose (2016); Johnsson et al. (2016)). In the defence sector, compared to the period 2006-2010, military imports into Qatar increased by 279% in the period 2011-2015 (Perlo-Freeman et al., 2016). Qatar's defence budget is expected to grow from £2.5 billion in 2015 to £4.5 billion in 2020 (IHS (2015); SDI (2015)). Therefore, KT between Expatriates and Nationals in Qatar will be of interest of western aerospace and defence practitioners and a better understanding may lead to SCA in current and future deals.

This Chapter presents the analysis of KT in two Qatar companies (Chem Co and Gas Co) that are subsidiaries of a state-owned Parent Company in the Energy and Industry (E&I) sector. As a significant contributor to Qatar's Gross Domestic Product, the E&I sector has an objective to "recruit and develop Qataris to a standard comparable with their counterparts around the world, particularly in view of the increased diversity and complexity of activities in the Energy and Industry Sector in Qatar and the diversity in Qatar's economy" (E&I_Sector, 2015). It manages this through the Strategic

Qatarisation Plan in which all subsidiaries are progressing towards a target of 50 per cent national workforce. The E&I sector's plan defines Qatarisation as "the identification and development of quality, competent Qatari male and female employees to assume permanent established positions" (E&I_Sector, 2015). Companies are challenged to achieve a sector target of 50% Qatarisation. Progress towards that target and company commitment to developing Qataris is recognised annually through Qatarisation Awards.

The Parent Company of Chem Co and Gas Co states Qatarisation is "primarily dedicated to building an effective pipeline of competent and highly engaged, male and female staff, managers and leaders in [Parent Company], consistent with the Human Development Pillar of the Qatar National Vision 2030" (Parent_Company, 2016). The Parent Company supports subsidiaries to apply a performance based training and development programme to prepare Qataris to assume permanent positions held by Expatriates. The role of Expatriates in supporting the Qatarisation process is to transfer knowledge and develop the Qatari National for their role. Expatriates are recognised as vital in the successful development of Qataris with those high performing Expatriates who have contributed and successfully transferred knowledge considered valuable members of the workforce and are found alternative roles in the Parent Company or other subsidiaries. (E&I_Sector (2015); IBP (2016); Parent_Company (2016)).

The Qatar case study explores the enablers and barriers to KT in two similar subsidiaries of a Parent Company in the E&I sector. Using the Minbaeva et al (2012) model it explores the process of the KT of administration functions from Western Expatriates to Qatari Nationals within the Qatarisation process. It provides a brief background to the companies and their KT strategies and policies. It then describes the research findings from interviews with male and female Expatriates and Qataris under the categories: perceived organisational commitment; extrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation and engagement in social interaction.

The case study reveals that whilst the commitment of senior leadership and reward/recognition are positive factors, the intrinsic motivation of Qatari self-fulfilment and personal ambition were considered important by the interviewees. They also considered one-to-one interaction as the most positive factor in the process

of KT followed by involvement in everything and safe responsibility. However, barriers to KT were found in the job insecurity experienced by Expatriates and the sense of entitlement, under confidence and fear of failure in Qataris.

6.2. Chem Co and Gas Co Backgrounds

Established in the 1970s, Chem Co is a multinational joint venture between Industries Qatar and a French company. The workforce of Chem Co comprises of about 1300 employees of whom 125 are under training or on scholarships. Middle management accounts for about 35% of the workforce and staff about 63%. Females make up only 3% of the employees but about 25% of the middle management. Of the full-time employees about 80% are Expatriates from over 30 countries, although Qatari Nationals (including under training and on scholarships) can be calculated as a percentage of the full-time employees to give the 2014 Qatarisation achievement of 30%. Gas Co is also a multinational joint venture between Industries Qatar and a South African company; it was more recently established than Chem Co, being just over 10 years old. The workforce of Gas Co comprises of about 700 employees, with 36 different nationalities and Qatari Nationals making up the majority of the workforce at 43.5% in 2014. Females make up 9.5% of the workforce with about 60% of them in management positions (ChemCo (2015b); GasCo (2016)).

6.3. What is the strategic context for KT in Qatar?

The strategic context for KT in Qatar has been described in Chapter 2, Sections 2.7.8 to 2.7.12. Briefly, Qatar is the world's 2nd largest natural gas exporter and has a high oil and gas dependency which accounts for 62% of government revenues. Qatar has a population of about 2.4 million with Nationals accounting for about 12%. It has an average youth population, with about 26% of Nationals being under 24 years old, of those the majority are in education. It therefore has a highly educated workforce for which it needs to provide suitable employment. Qatar has the world's lowest unemployment rate at 0.3%.

Qatar has a national vision, long term strategy and development plans which includes sustaining its own development; providing for a high standard of living less dependent on oil and gas; establishing advanced educational systems and increasing the participation of Qataris in the workforce. It has a Localisation policy called

Qatarisation which seeks to develop a capable and motivated Qatari workforce for sustainability and national leadership.

6.3.1. Qatar Geography and Culture

Qatar is a peninsula in the Persian Gulf (Figure 6-1); comparable in size with the island of Cyprus; and with resources of natural gas and oil (CIA (2016); QatarEmbassy (2015)). Similar to Saudi Arabia, Qatar has a long history with a traditional Arabic and Islamic culture. It has an inherited monarchy and the leading families control most of Qatar’s resources. Family, tribal authority and tradition is at the heart of the Qatar culture. In transforming the country, Qatar intends to uphold its traditions and achieve continuity, including: “observing the fundamental principles of Islam, maintaining the inherited status and prestige of the leading families and preserving the family unit as the core of society” QNDS (2011:20). As an Arab nation it has strict religious and traditional customs such as its clear expectations about dress standards, the relationship between men and women, and alcohol and drugs. The large extended families, kinship and tribal authority determine youth behaviour.



Figure 6-1. Qatar Map
(Adapted from CIA (2016))

6.3.2. Qatar Population and Workforce

In November 2016, the population of Qatar was about 2.4 million making it the 146th most populated country in the world and just smaller than Greater Manchester in the UK. However, Qatari Nationals only account for about 278,000 people (12%) in the current population which is comparable with the population of the town of Bolton in the UK. The Qatari median age is 32.8 years compared to a UK median age of 40.4 years, with about 26% under 24 years old, like the UK. Qatar has a youth dependency ratio of 18.6%, which is less than the UK and reflects the differing challenge it faces to Saudi Arabia which has a much higher youth dependency ratio (CIA (2016); QatarStatisticsSector (2016)).

It has a mix of ethnic origins, mainly Arab (40%), followed by India, Pakistan and Iranian. Overall, the population is divided 75% males and 25% female due the high number of single male Expatriate workers in industry. Seventy percent of the population is aged between 25-54 years, with 83% of them male, again skewed by the Expatriate labour. Qatar has the second highest net migration rate in the world. However, despite its population growth, unlike Saudi Arabia, Qatar is also challenged by declining fertility rates amongst Nationals. This decline in fertility affects both the future available National workforce; the social cohesion of Qatar; and its foundation on large, extended families. (CIA (2016); QatarStatisticsSector (2016))

At 0.3%, Qatar has the world's lowest unemployment rate. In March 2015, the economically active workforce of 1.8 million was mainly non-Qatari male Expatriates. Economically active is defined as: employed, seeking work for the first time or unemployed with previous employment. For every Qatari National employed there are 15 non-Qataris (QatarStatisticsSector (2015); QatarStatisticsSector (2016)). More than half of the Qatari Nationals in the workforce were in high skilled positions and 47% of Qatari males and 72% of Qatari females were in senior positions (including: legislators, senior officials, professionals, technicians and associate technicians) (Al Muftah (2016); Finn (2016b); QatarStatisticsSector (2016)). This is a different employment mix to Saudi Arabia where there are insufficient public sector managerial roles for the educated population who are required to undertake work considered more manual and menial.

Whilst most of employment opportunities are in the private sector, about 84% of Qataris work in the public sector and prefer to do so citing lower status, lower wages, longer hours and unsocial hours as their main reasons for shunning private sector jobs. The Qatar public sector pays the average highest wages (typically five times that of an Expatriate in the private sector) and accounts for a quarter of Qatar's expenditure. In 2011, salaries for Qatari Nationals were higher than those for Nationals in other GCC countries, in some case 25% higher for similar roles in similar sectors. In Qatar there was also a 98% gap between the salary of Qatari Nationals and Expatriates (Sambridge (2011); Bahtia (2012)). In 2015, the Hay Group reported: "The top 50 paying companies in Qatar pay 52 per cent higher salaries than the rest of the market average, plus they also pay a premium of 53 per cent to Nationals. This means the overall premium for Nationals is almost 120 per cent over and above the full market average" (Bahtia (2015a), Bahtia (2015b)).

6.3.3. Qatar Economy

The Qatar economy is dominated by oil and gas, which accounts for 92% of export earnings and 62% of government revenues. The GDP of Qatar is about £200 billion compared with the UK GDP of about £1,600 billion. In 2015, Qatar had a budget revenue surplus of about 4%% of GDP (8th in the world) compared to the UK at -4.6% of GDP (160th in the world). The Energy and Industry (E&I) sector accounts for 68% of Qatar's revenue, with its main exports being liquefied natural gas (LNG), petroleum products and fertilizers. This research was conducted in two companies in the E&I sector. Qatar is the 14th largest crude oil producer, the 4th largest producer of natural gas, and the 2nd largest liquid natural gas (LNG) exporter in the world (EIA (2014); CIA (2016); QatarStatisticsSector (2016)). In 2015, the UK imported 93% of its LNG from Qatar (DUKES, 2016); the dominance of Qatar in the LNG market and its economic wealth provides it with significant soft power and international influence (Ulrichsen, 2014).

Qatar is the world's richest country (per capita income), with the smallest economically active national population, high oil and gas revenue dependency and an ambitious vision to transform the country in a knowledge-based economy. In 2015 Qatar was the only GCC member not to have a budget deficit. Like Saudi Arabia,

Qatar has a knowledge-based economy at the heart of the Qatar National Vision (QNV) 2030.

6.3.4. Qatar National Vision and National Development Strategy

The Qatar National Vision (QNV) 2030 aims to transform Qatar into an advanced country by 2030, capable of sustaining its own development and providing for a high standard of living less dependent on oil and gas. Like other GCC country national visions, the QNV 2030 defines the long-term goals and objectives, rather than the process of reaching the outcomes. It provides the framework within which national strategies and implementation plans have been developed – in Qatar’s case: National Development Strategy 2011-2016.

Qatar recognises that its oil and gas resources will eventually run dry and so it needs to build an economy that is sustainable and can respond, one that is knowledge-based (QNV2030 (2013); QNDS (2011)). In terms of Human Development, Qatar is establishing advanced educational systems and increasing the participation of Qataris in the labour force. However, it also recognizes the continuing need for Expatriate labour as the Qatari national population will never be large enough to fill all roles. To create a capable and motivated Qatari workforce, with increased and diversified National participation, the QNV 2030 proposes: “Incentives for Qataris to enter professional and management roles in business, health and educational sectors” whilst recruiting the right mix of Expatriate labor, protecting their rights, securing their safety, and retaining those who are outstanding among them.” (QNV2030, 2013:10).

To achieve the QNV 2030, Qatar has produced a National Development Strategy (NDS) 2011-2016 which describes success as largely depending on having the right incentives and regulatory policies such as creating a high-productivity, high-wage economy and rebalancing immigration policies with labour market reform (QNDS, 2011). To achieve the QNV 2030 will require a capable and motivated Qatari workforce. The NDS recognises that currently Qatar private sector employers are “discouraged by the skill level, work attitudes and motivation of new Qatari entrants into the labour market” (QNDS, 2011:149). So, the challenge is to upgrade education, training and skills to those needed by private industry and involve private industry in the process. It also requires motivation of young Qataris to take advantage of the education and training opportunities and to “improve skills in the private sector to

promote a more diversified economic role for Qataris.” (QNDS, 2011:149-151). To achieve this the NDS states that “Mechanisms, such as on-the job training opportunities, will be put in place to facilitate skills transfer between high-skilled foreign employees and promising Qataris” (QNDS, 2011:151).

6.3.5. Qatarisation

Qatar youth unemployment (15-24 year olds) in 2014 was 0.3% and therefore the Saudi Arabian issue of gainfully employing a growing youth population is less important (Williams et al. (2011); WorldBank (2016)). Qatar is less concerned about youth unemployment and more focussed on developing a capable and motivated Qatari workforce for sustainability and national leadership. This is supported by Randeree (2012) who suggests Qatar is more focussed on competitiveness, economic growth and social reform. Qatar has a small national population and a falling fertility rate, so will always have the need for an Expatriate workforce (Al Muftah, 2016). As Gray (2013:224) states ‘Western business people affected by Qatarization routinely say that they treat the policy (of Qatarization) as a form of taxation . . . Business people running smaller firms where there is no Qatarization requirement typically do not recruit Qataris at all’. Nevertheless, Qatar still has a need for Qatarisation, to create the managers and leaders of future private enterprises.

Qatarisation was introduced in 2000 and is often used as short-hand for the Qatar NDS commitment to develop a competent, motivated and sustainable Qatari workforce through a series of programmes such as education and training. However, the word Qatarisation does not appear in the QNV 2030 and it only appears twice in the NDS – in the ‘Nurturing a healthy population’ section. Qatarisation is not mentioned in the ‘Fostering a capable and motivated workforce’ section nor in any of the workforce targets such as: “Increase the proportion of Qataris in the private sector from 5% to 15%” (QNDS, 2011:152). Nevertheless, the concept of Qatarisation is in widespread use in most Qatar companies and the reward for demonstrating success is the award of government contracts.

Following a website search of major Qatar companies, some claim they have achieved or aim to achieve the government’s target of 50% of their workforce being Qatari (The Qatar Foundation, (QF, 2015); Qatargas, (Qatargas, 2015); Qatar National Bank (QNB, 2015)). Al Muftah (2016) reports some companies stating they have achieved

85% Qatarisation in their senior management positions but that in private companies it was around 10%. For most private Qatari companies 50% nationals is an unrealistic goal given that Qatari nationals only comprise 12% of the population. As Oxford Strategic Consulting found if all the senior leadership roles in Qatar companies were to be occupied by Qataris then “a very large proportion of Qataris (80%) would need to be developed as leaders, compared to approximately 10% in most other countries” (Oxford_Strategic_Consulting, 2015:4).

As Sheik Mohammed Al Thani, a previous Qatari Minister for Economy and Trade, states the system of imposing hiring quotas on private-sector companies is flawed. It has caused a malaise amongst some citizens, who feel entitled to jobs in the private sector. It makes it difficult to sack them and Nationals have little incentive to perform at their best. Additionally, this malaise is exacerbated by Nationals being set lower expectations and patronage networks not hiring the best people based on their competence (Al Thani, 2012). Similar to Saudi Nationals, Qataris view employment in the private sector is poor, stating low wages and status, whilst business believe employing Qataris would adversely affect productivity and profitability. As noted by Al Muftah (2016:285) there is increasing animosity between Expatriates and Nationals with many “Qatari Nationals believe that Expatriates are prejudiced against them, which helps to undermine the Qatarization programme.”

6.4. What do companies do in response to the Qatar strategic context?

6.4.1. Knowledge Transfer Strategy and Policies

The KT strategies and policies of Chem Co and Gas Co are guided by the QNV 2030 and the E&I sector’s five-year strategic Qatarisation plan. The QNV 2030 aims to increase the participation of Qataris in the labour market whilst the E&I sector’s five-year plan aims to support this by achieving a quality national workforce. The E&I sector’s plan defines Qatarisation as “the identification and development of quality, competent Qatari male and female employees to assume permanent established positions” (E&I_Sector, 2015). This is expected to be achieved through engagement, training and development. Companies are challenged to achieve a sector target of 50% Qatarisation. Progress towards that target and company commitment to developing Qataris is recognised annually through Qatarisation Awards. Both the QNV 2030 and

the E&I sector's plan recognise the essential role of Expatriates as partners in the Qatarisation process.

Chem Co and Gas Co have strong pedigrees in supporting Qatarisation and developing Qataris through KT by Expatriates. Both companies have been recognised over numerous years for their commitment and success in engagement, learning and development of Qataris by winning several E&I sector Qatarisation Awards. Their motivation for transferring knowledge to Qataris is threefold, commitment to: the country, the E&I sector and Qatari Nationals. "For the Future of Qatar" is a headline on Chem Co's website.

Chem Co's website which emphasises supporting Qatar to reach its full potential of being a proud nation and becoming a world class nation (ChemCo, 2016). Gas Co highlights its commitment to Qatarisation through its "constant efforts to develop and appoint competent, capable and confident Qataris across the organisation" (GasCo, 2016). The CEO of Chem Co has stated: "National leadership is one of the driving forces of Chem Co and gives the company its cultural identity. Supporting National and sector employment objectives through direct employment of Qataris makes our company stronger" (ChemCo, 2015a). The Qatarisation strategies of both of the companies consist of: attraction, recruitment, development and retention.

Whilst this case study focuses on the KT element of the development stage, it is worth, for context, briefly highlighting the effort made in attraction, recruitment and retention. As some Expatriate managers observed:

"If you're going to do knowledge transfer it starts with the selection of candidates. HR must do a very extensive job profile and job recruitment process and really take care of who is going to join the business. Out of 100 people maybe only 10 to 15 will have any interest."⁸²

"The first thing you need to do in the selection process is set high standards and make sure you get the right Qatari people. You must interview them properly, get to understand their drivers. You really need motivated people not only the ones that are turning up to show off and look for status."⁸³

Unfortunately, the process does not always match ideal and reflects a general issue with Qatarisation:

⁸² Qatari Strategy Manager, Gas Co

⁸³ Expatriate Production Manager, Gas Co

“Fresh graduates are so eager but they get put into a job they don’t want to do. Parent company puts them anywhere they need a role. As they mature they realise what they want and leave or swap jobs. Parent company is a number crunching exercise, meeting Qatarisation quotas.”⁸⁴

In a competitive recruitment environment, both Chem Co and Gas Co are focussed on attracting Qataris from an early stage in the process with education initiatives in schools and universities, internships and professional development. The educational partnerships of Chem Co are aimed at enhancing the cooperation between education and industry, leading to knowledge exchange, information transfer and stimulation of research and innovation. In 2015, it had over a dozen strategic partnerships with schools and universities, more than 100 community outreach programmes and supported Qatar University’s College of Engineering’s programmes such as: Life is Engineering, Engineering Week, CENG Computing Contest, Senior Design Contest, Wooden Bridge, Digital Cube, and Mechanical Design Day. Chem Co has a scholarship programme for undergraduate Qatari students; a one-year apprenticeship programme for engineering graduates; and an internship programme for about 50 students for eight weeks over the summer holidays (ChemCo (2015a); ChemCo (2016)).

Similarly, Gas Co sponsors bi-monthly student seminars at a local University to “help build the national education capacity required to deliver a knowledge economy” (GasCo, 2014:72). It also sponsors various university and technical school graduation ceremonies and recognition awards. Selected Qataris interested in a career in the E&I sector are provided with scholarship opportunities in UK and Qatar. More widely, they sponsor education excellence programmes, summits and national school competitions throughout Qatar. Gas Co has a summer training programme for high school students; an internship programme for university and college undergraduates (GasCo, 2016).

To further help with attraction, recruitment and retention, the employment packages of both companies are aimed at meeting Qatari expectations and needs. The employment packages consist of: an attractive basic salary, regular salary increments, annual bonuses and allowances (for retention, social, transportation, mileage, location, housing); loans and grants (for marriage, furniture and cars); educational assistance;

⁸⁴ Expatriate Human Resource Manager, Gas Co

medical coverage and annual leave with an annual leave bonus. On top of this, in 2014, the companies provided over more than 50,000 and 21,000 hours of training to their Qatari employees respectively (ChemCo (2014a); ChemCo (2014b); ChemCo (2016); GasCo (2014)).

This case study focuses on the KT from Expatriates to Qatari graduates in an administrative/managerial context. Both companies work hard to recruit engineering graduates and consider themselves to be highly committed to KT. On its website, Chem Co states it will achieve its mission through "...a developed talented workforce" (ChemCo, 2016). Like Gas Co, it has won several industry awards for this commitment and activity. Employee's perceptions in both companies are supportive of the self-image of commitment to KT. They have dedicated policies, procedures and programmes aimed at encouraging KT between Expatriates and Qatari.

To ensure successful KT between Expatriates and Qatari Nationals, Chem Co and Gas Co have structured seven or eight stage programmes dedicated to developing Qataris through KT. Individual personal development, KT and experience are programmed and managed through Personal Development Plans (PDP) in Chem Co and Personal Career Plans (PCP) in Gas Co. These blended programmes generally including: self-study, theoretical and vocational training, on-the-job training, assignment and projects managed and supervised by an Expatriate. Chem Co states their goal as "to provide you with training, guidance and mentorship from our experienced employees" (ChemCo, 2016). Development programmes are reviewed every 6 months and successful KT targets and capability milestone completion is rewarded with salary increases. Both companies adopt the concept of a LEAD programme but with slightly different meanings. In one it stands for Learn-Engage-Achieve-Do (LEAD) whilst in the other company it refers to Leadership Excellence through Awareness and Development. Nevertheless, in both companies the goal of the personal development programmes is to prepare a Qatari to assume a specific job held by an Expatriate - Qatarisation. The remainder of this case study focuses on the individual-level KT activity between Expatriates and Qatari Nationals.

An individual's perception of organisational commitment to KT is a key factor in determining how much an individual engages in KT across employee-group boundaries. The more highly valued KT is perceived to be the more employee

engagement is likely to occur (Minbaeva et al., 2012). This section discusses employee's perception of Chem Co's and Gas Co's commitment to KT.

6.4.2. Leadership

In addition to the external focus on engagement with the Education sector and raising the profile of the companies through event sponsorship and community projects, there was overwhelming agreement amongst all interviewees that KT from Expatriates to Qataris was highly valued by their company. This was evidenced by comments from Qataris and Expatriates about the leadership team. Senior Qatari leadership involvement was seen as vital in setting the right environment and signalling commitment to KT. This was most prominent in the managers that were interviewed and was less recognised by the more junior Qatari trainees. Whilst having good KT policies and procedures in place was seen as essential by most employees, the critical role played by the senior leadership was particularly raised by interviewees who had direct, regular contact with the senior leaders. One such interviewee stated his CEO was the key to driving the right behaviour and summarised his success as:

“Five years ago we were a championship team, fighting for promotion, now we're up with the Man Uniteds and Liverpools or the bigger companies in the E&I sector”⁸⁵

Another Chem Co Expatriate manager noted his CEO had two objectives above any which were: safety and Qatarisation; which he drove hard. Similar another CEO had personally introduced an award (OSCAR), voted on by everyone on the development programme, to recognise successful KT which included a double bonus for the best Expatriate manager.

“It's kind of like a competition and a fun thing to do. The CEO pushed for it. This is one thing how Gas Co values the knowledge transfer.”⁸⁶

There was evidence to support these views of the Chem Co and Gas Co CEO's commitment to KT on the websites. Furthermore, in both companies, considerable effort is expended by CEOs and senior leadership teams to engage the Qatari workforce on a regular basis. This includes town hall meetings where Qatari Nationals are encouraged to discuss company targets and objectives but also to discuss concerns,

⁸⁵ Expatriate Training Manager, Chem Co

⁸⁶ Qatari Business Development Manager, Gas Co

challenges opportunities to KT and Qatarisation. But, this also highlights one of the issues with organisational commitment to KT.

In Chem Co and Gas Co KT is so heavily focussed on Qatari Nationals and preparing Qataris to take on Expatriate roles that it is a one-way process. Both Qataris and Expatriates recognise the Company's commitment to KT, but they also recognise that it is focussed on one goal: Qatarisation. The companies are not committed to KT for the improvement of all employees, and thereby the businesses themselves, but on the KT to Qataris alone for the benefit of Nationals, the company and the country. This is not necessarily a negative observation but recognition that KT is being undertaken for a singular purpose and thereby has its limitations and difficulties, particularly for Expatriates. As one Qatari manager summarised the approach to Expatriates:

“The section here is hiring you because of what you know, hiring you because you have that technical knowledge, you have that technical competence, you have all the skills that require you to do the job. This is what they believe logically: why would I invest in you when I have already brought you over, have hired you, you should be able to do all that job.”⁸⁷

6.4.3. Company Culture

A further enabler to KT cited by many of the Qatari National and Expatriates was the company culture. This was perhaps best epitomised at Chem Co where it considered itself a family. In terms of encouraging engagement in social engagement and KT, a culture of openness, job satisfaction and reward was fostered by the senior management. As of 2014, more than 25% of Chem Co employees had been with the company for more than 10 years and employee satisfaction was measured at 91% (ChemCo, 2015b). The impact of the company culture and 'family' atmosphere on KT was seen through the willingness of Qataris Nationals and Expatriates to engage support and share as commented on by many interviewees:

“...probably the company that I've worked for that most resembles a family because of the length of service of a lot of the people, the attitude of the majority of people”⁸⁸

⁸⁷ Qatari Information Technology Manager, Chem Co

⁸⁸ Expatriate Training Manager, Chem Co

“...commitment of people to actually help other people from day one and I’ve always thought people would be made very welcome to come here”⁸⁹

“Chem Co different atmosphere and it’s a different atmosphere between other companies”⁹⁰

This view of Chem Co as a family is supported by how the company brands itself. Banners at the entrance to their headquarters proclaim ‘Welcome to the Chem Co family’ and sections on their website are entitled: ‘The Chem Co Family’; ‘Looking after the Chem Co family’; and ‘Developing the Chem Co family’ (ChemCo, 2016).

6.5. What are the key extrinsic factors of individual KT?

Extrinsic motivation is another key factor through which individual-level KT is affected. Individuals are extrinsically motivated to share knowledge when their needs are satisfied through primarily money but also through more power, recognition or promotion (Minbaeva et al., 2012). This section discusses the extrinsic factors which impact on the KT process in Chem Co and Gas Co. The extrinsic motivators for Qatari Nationals to engage in KT were recognition followed by promotion with increased responsibility and finally money. Recognition was also the extrinsic motivator for Expatriate interviewees, but they avoided discussing other factors most likely due to a reluctance to talk openly about such a sensitive matter. Many Qataris and some Expatriates identified Expatriate job insecurity as the main barrier to KT.

6.5.1. Recognition

The majority of the Qatari Nationals and Expatriates considered recognition to be their main extrinsic motivator but this was not overtly linked to KT. Recognition was more directly linked to achievement or contribution, which is a tangential benefit of the KT process. In general, there were 2 types of recognition in regular use: formal and informal. In Chem Co the formal recognition was mainly centred on the Qatarisation Day where:

“...over 100 people will receive special thank you awards for what they’ve done throughout the year”⁹¹

This annual recognition event was mentioned by most interviewees. At this event all Qatari employees are invited to an off-site conference where they are provided with

⁸⁹ Qatari Marketing Assistant, Chem Co

⁹⁰ Qatari Human Resources Manager, Chem Co

⁹¹ Expatriate Training Manager, Chem Co

motivational presentations and panel discussions with the senior Qatari management. Individual Qatari success is recognised. As the press announcement for the 2015 event states: “Outstanding Qatari employees were awarded for their valuable contributions and efforts and for being motivators and role models for their colleagues” (ChemCo, 2015a). As Qatari interviewees observed:

“It’s positive for the company and it’s positive for us as well because we are happy to see the management because we need to improve, we need to improve the company and the production and its productivity”⁹²

However, this is an exclusive event, solely for Qatari Nationals. So, whilst Qatarisation Day is successful at engaging and recognising Qatari development and success, through its exclusivity it fails to recognise the contribution of the Expatriates.

In Gas Co there is a more overt formal recognition of KT achievement: an award called OSCAR. This recognises outstanding achievement of both Qatari trainee and Expatriate manager. OSCAR awards are evaluated on seven criteria: trainee progress; knowledge application, team working, communication and responsiveness; punctuality; safety awareness and interest in learning. By evaluating both trainees and their managers it is intended to incentivise and recognise the effort of both:

“... we are trying to make the connection between the manager and the trainee so they can share knowledge, because you know if I am for example, in a good relationship between me and my manager it means that we have good success and I will build to achieve”⁹³

Whilst some Expatriates do get formal recognition:

“...even at my age I still like to have a certificate and shake the CEO’s hand and him saying thank you for your help”⁹⁴

But mostly they get a personal thank you from the CEO or senior leadership team. This informal type of recognition is highly valued by Expatriates and Qatari Nationals alike:

“...most important recognition thing for me is first of all appreciation”⁹⁵

⁹² Qatari Marketing Trainee, Chem Co

⁹³ Qatari Human Resources Assistant, Chem Co

⁹⁴ Expatriate Training Manager, Chem Co

⁹⁵ Qatari Information Technology Assistant, Chem Co

“So this will motivate me: actually to show that I have been appreciated by the management and they’re giving me the respect that I deserve.”⁹⁶

However, it was also recognised by at least one Qatari manager that informal recognition can eventually turn into platitudes:

“...saying thank you for my work first time, second time, or the third time but for the fourth time it might mean nothing”⁹⁷

6.5.2. Promotion

Promotion, progression or becoming a job holder was seen as important for all Qatari Nationals and a central driver for KT. A study in 2015 found that 16% of Qatari National employees had been promoted within the last 12 months and that there was intense competition for well-qualified Qatari Nationals (Bahtia, 2015a). Most of the Qatari trainees talked about the need to work hard to develop themselves and to gain knowledge from their Expatriate managers so that they could complete their development programme and assume the role of a job holder:

“...we need to be promoted quickly”⁹⁸

“I am ambitious and need to work hard and have responsibilities by myself.”⁹⁹

Similarly, Qatari managers talked about their need to succeed and achieve further promotion to become the Company’s future leaders. But the Expatriates interviewed made no comments on promotion as a motivator, this was probably due to the nature of their employment and that they had been recruited for a particular role and were on fixed-term contracts. However, anecdotally they discussed colleagues who had been promoted and given a new contract if they had done particularly well at transferring knowledge to a Qatari National. There was no direct evidence from Expatriate managers interviewed that they had been promoted or offered a new contract under these circumstances.

⁹⁶ Ibid.

⁹⁷ Qatari Human Resources Manager, Chem Co

⁹⁸ Qatar Human Resources Assistant, Chem Co

⁹⁹ Qatari Marketing Assistant, Chem Co

6.5.3. Money

Whilst no Qatari said they did not need their salary, several made comments that reconfirmed the National and cultural stereotypes that all Qataris are rich, do not need to work, or do not need to participate in personal development and KT:

“Lots of Qataris just get a diploma and don’t push on because they get enough money to run a household so think why should I bother?”¹⁰⁰

“Why bother when they can get QR20,000 per month [£4,000 per month] at 18 years old”¹⁰¹

“Everything is about grade, status and money.”¹⁰²

“Qatar has the money; Qatari workers turn up in Bentleys and Lamborghinis”¹⁰³

But, as several interviewees observed:

“One more thing, most of the expats have an idea that Qataris are rich, that they don’t need to work but it’s not everyone like that.”¹⁰⁴

“Money from my point of view is a major thing. If I completed my tasks, I closed my [PCP] milestone and will get a higher grade and my salary will increase this much. I have to build up my salary, I have to finish these tasks and complete milestones”¹⁰⁵

Although few Qataris cited salary as the principal motivator, it still plays an important part in the KT process. During the 2 to 3-year development programme, Qataris are assessed bi-annually on progress and performance. Above expectation assessments attract a promotion and 7.5% salary increase, whilst a satisfactory assessment attracts a promotion and a 5% salary increase. It is a way to encourage and motivate the trainees to engage in the process and ensure they seek out knowledge to ensure they complete their programmed tasks. Although once a full-time manager, after completing the development programme, it sometimes comes as a shock as one Qatari manager commented:

¹⁰⁰ Qatari Commercial Assistant, Gas Co

¹⁰¹ Qatari Business Development Manager, Gas Co

¹⁰² Expatriate Human Resource Manager, Gas Co

¹⁰³ Expatriate Operations Director, Gas Co

¹⁰⁴ Qatari Marketing Assistant, Chem Co

¹⁰⁵ Qatari Human Resource Assistant, Gas Co

“I am doing double the work now, when you’re a trainee you have two evaluations, you peek over to learn. If you want to do things as a post holder they say no this is your office, this is your job description, this is your one pay rise”¹⁰⁶

There is some evidence on the websites of both Chem Co and Gas to support the importance of money to the Qatari and therefore, tangentially as a motivator for KT. For instance, on the Gas Co website they says:

“Our remuneration rewards and recognition program has been designed to attract the best talent... Developed after a thorough market analysis with extensive research about prevailing market conditions, local culture and needs of potential employees” (GasCo, 2016)

6.5.4. Expatriate Job Insecurity

Cited by the majority of interviewees, a major barrier to successful KT was an Expatriates’ fear of losing their job. All Expatriates who are employed in the E&I sector are told they will be involved in KT and that their role may be Qatarized in the future. However, most Qataris interviewees explained that the companies have a policy that any Expatriate that successfully transferred knowledge, and was replaced by the Qatari, would not be terminated but found another role. Comments included:

“It is always explained to them, any expats that come. It is your responsibility, a Qatari will come and it is your responsibility to coach and develop the Qatari. If that happens you will be found a new role or a job in another company”¹⁰⁷

“If the mentor is successful at transfer knowledge we will take care of them, no way will we move an expat from his position for a lower grade or nowhere, he will get promoted or he will move to another company”¹⁰⁸

“He will not be terminated. In other companies yes but not in this company, never happen. That is one of the important things about Chem Co that is different. If we choose Qatari for this position that means the expat, it is good for the expat either to move to another department with something better is position or for higher position.”¹⁰⁹

¹⁰⁶ Qatari Strategy Manager, Gas Co

¹⁰⁷ Qatari Human Resource Assistant, Gas Co

¹⁰⁸ Qatari Qatarisation Director, Chem Co

¹⁰⁹ Qatari Information Technology Manager, Chem Co

This is not just a policy in Chem Co and Gas Co, but the whole E&I sector: “Expatriates contributing to the plan are valued and their employment in the energy and industry sector will continue” (Hukoomi, 2015).

But it was also acknowledged that job insecurity existed in both these companies as it did in most other Qatari Companies. As some Qataris stated:

“To be honest as a Qatari we have faced some problems to share knowledge with overseas employees. To be honest because you know the job is going to be Qatarized, so they share knowledge with me and they worry about that the guy they are transfer knowledge with is going to take their job”¹¹⁰

“Most the expats are fearful. Even though they know of the policy. I see it that they have come to a new company, they have made friends and they have a routine and settled lifestyle. They don’t want to change it... But if they are shifted to another company they might be given a lower position or salary grade or get to work for a manager that is not being fair to them. All these elements together they will try to avoid Qatarisation”¹¹¹

Several Expatriates agreed with these comments, suggesting it was a “big fear factor” which influences the level of focus and motivation for KT. The threat of losing their jobs was not seen as an issue for the Expatriates interviewed in Chem Co and Gas Co. But, as Westerners they potentially have a different perspective on their employment prospects compared to non-Western Expatriates. Western Expatriates tend to be better qualified, more confident and more likely to treat Qatar as a temporary work location rather than a permanent one. Even if they did not want another job in the sector or Qatar, following successful development of a Qatari, an Expatriate might get 3 months’ severance pay and 2 months’ salary bonus so 5 months tax free salary is quite a safety net for a confident professional to find another job. As Expatriate managers commented:

“I think this is a global fear in Qatar, it’s pretty normal, that maybe tomorrow you will lose your job”¹¹²

“Coaches tactic are to delay training and Qatarisation so they stay longer”¹¹³

¹¹⁰ Qatari Human Resources Assistant, Chem Co

¹¹¹ Qatari Strategy Manager, Gas Co

¹¹² Expatriate Finance Manager, Chem Co

¹¹³ Expatriate Human Resources Manager, Gas Co

“Qatarisation has failed for one reason in many companies and that is because the job holder is from the sub-continent, mainly India, and they are not incentivised to be coaches or mentors”¹¹⁴

Non-Western Expatriates were not made available for interview in either company, but from comments made by several Qatari and Expatriate interviewees, a possible explanation for the fear of losing their jobs in non-Western Expatriates was that they are generally less well qualified and in the more junior roles that are most often targeted for Qatarisation. They are also most likely to have a different relationship with the company and country. Most non-Western Expatriates have made long-term commitments to Qatar, often raising their families in the country, with little prospect of similarly paid employment in their home country. KT and thereby losing their jobs is a greater threat for non-Western Expatriates.

Job insecurity impacts KT in a number of ways and the Expatriate avoidance strategies can be summarised as: deter, defer, and delay. The Expatriates deter their new trainee at the start of the process by telling them how difficult the job is and it is beyond their capability with the expectation that the Qatari will quickly give up and move to another role. The Expatriates defer the KT process by avoiding transferring knowledge with the promise of doing all the work for the trainee with the expectation that the Qatari never learns anything and then is exposed as not ready for the role. Finally, the Expatriates delay the KT process by only providing minimal knowledge to the trainee thereby slowing down the process with the expectation that the Qatari will become bored or frustrated and move to another role. These KT avoidance strategies are evidenced by comments such as:

“They could give you some information but it’s not all the information, its general information and after that you will face many problems with the managers because you will do things wrong and you will have problems with the normal work that you do”¹¹⁵

“I’ll try to get you a warning letter, I would try to push you as much and as far away from this job as possible just to protect my job”¹¹⁶

¹¹⁴ Expatriate Production Manager, Gas Co

¹¹⁵ Qatari Human Resources Assistant, Chem Co

¹¹⁶ Qatari Learning and Development Assistant, Gas Co

“If I am very good and I will teach you to do my job in six months in means I’m fired. I will make it take years, I will drag it out for as long as possible.”¹¹⁷

6.6. What are the key intrinsic factors of individual KT?

Intrinsic motivation is another factor which influences individual KT. Intrinsic motivation occurs when an individual undertakes KT for its own sake rather than extrinsic rewards. Intrinsic motivation is seen to have a positive effect on KT across employee groups (Minbaeva et al., 2012). This section discusses the intrinsic motivations of employees in Chem Co and Gas Co to share knowledge. Intrinsic motivation to transfer knowledge was considered by interviewees to be the most significant factor in KT. All interviewees considered intrinsic motivation to be more important than perceived organisational commitment or extrinsic motivation. Within intrinsic motivation it was also clear from the interviewees that KT was less about increased value for the department or the company and mostly about increased value for individuals: self-fulfilment and ambition.

6.6.1. Self-Fulfilment

Self-fulfilment was seen as a leading intrinsic motivator for KT. It can be best summarised through the following statements from several Qatari managers and trainees:

“First of all in order to share knowledge you need to have that feeling inside that you would like to learn something”¹¹⁸

“I want to seek the knowledge; I want to seek the experience. I don’t want a position in a grade and salary. I want to learn. What can I give”¹¹⁹

“What motivates me to share knowledge is self-esteem. I want to know more. I want to know more from expats, from people with experience”¹²⁰

A Qatari National has to want to learn for KT to be successful. Notwithstanding the extrinsic motivators, it was evident from the interviews that all of the Qataris and Expatriates recognised the deeply individual aspect of KT. The Qatari interviewees described their personal desire to gain knowledge, the enjoyment they got from KT and the benefits it would eventually bring them. These benefits included: greater self-

¹¹⁷ Qatari Human Resource Manager, Chem Co

¹¹⁸ Qatari Human Resources Manager, Chem Co

¹¹⁹ Qatari Marketing Assistant, Chem Co

¹²⁰ Qatari Strategy Manager, Gas Co

esteem; demonstration of their capability to themselves, the company, their friends and their family (particularly in the case of female interviewees); and contribution to Qatar's future. There was also recognition, also espoused by the QNV 2030, that education was ultimately most important. As described earlier, further education engagement and course sponsorship was a key recruitment tool. It was evident that for some Qataris their commitment was less to their companies and more towards what opportunity, if they performed well, the companies offered for further education. As explained by several managers:

“[Qataris] have to be motivated and they have to get training which they think is quality similar to their friends if they see their friends are going off being sponsored for European universities. They do not trust training in Qatar even if it is provided by Europeans. They think they will get a second-rate service with second rate teachers and not all the right information if it is provided in Qatar. They want to go to the Europe and get European training and European on-the-job experience”¹²¹

“A lot of trainees and post-holders do leave the company to further their education... .. this is a good point and this is a very good point because it's not used to be like this. Salary was the most important thing to people but what I can see now is that the further education and its value and its more important. They're starting to think that the education will get the salary, not vice versa”¹²²

The opportunities for self-fulfilment are heavily emphasised by Chem Co and Gas Co:

“Qatari employees are also given the opportunity to reach their full potential through training, mentoring and coaching.” (ChemCo, 2016)

“... ensuring that young Qatari professionals can continue developing skills, acquiring knowledge and ready themselves for the next big step in their professional growth. This is done by recognizing their potential, identifying gaps and providing the essential support to take on higher positions and bigger responsibilities.” (GasCo, 2016)

For the Expatriates, whilst it was part of their role to develop Qataris, their intrinsic motivation to share knowledge came mainly from enjoying the experience of the process transferring the knowledge itself and helping the Qatari Nationals to develop. As two Expatriate managers said:

¹²¹ Expatriate Production Manager, Gas Co

¹²² Qatari Learning and Development Assistant, Gas Co

“I just love helping and I love to see people achieving what they do”¹²³

“The reward for me was establishing a really good relationship and enriching myself... up skilling myself in the process of training someone else.”¹²⁴

6.6.2. Ambition

Closely linked to self-fulfilment as an intrinsic motivator was ambition. In addition to a Qatari Nationals’ ambition for themselves there was also an ambition for their country:

“... [HR manager] told us constantly is to be future leaders not just in company but the country”¹²⁵

“... you know I want to give back to the community itself, the country”¹²⁶

Individual ambition stemmed partly from self-fulfilment but also from societal and family pressure to be seen to be contributing to Qatar’s national vision, to be seen to be successful and be seen to be a future leader. As two Expatriates noted:

“... [Qataris] care about power and position and how important you are”¹²⁷

“Peer pressure and family pressure to have a great job title. Peer pressure to have a job to support national vision”¹²⁸

But, this negative view of a Qatari National’s ambition is belied by comments made by several Qataris managers about the new entrants into their companies:

“...these people are young and they are saying like I want your job, this is what I want”¹²⁹

“I have the ability to prove to other Qataris that we can reach that level that we want to be. I want to work hard just having a normal job, I want to make it to the top”¹³⁰

There was some support for this in the documentary evidence, for instance in Chem Co they appeal to this ambition by saying that by:

¹²³ Expatriate Training Manager, Chem Co

¹²⁴ Expatriate Engineering Director, Gas Co

¹²⁵ Qatari Human Resources Assistant, Chem Co

¹²⁶ Qatari Strategy Manager, Gas Co

¹²⁷ Expatriate Finance Manager, Chem Co

¹²⁸ Expatriate Operations Director, Gas Co

¹²⁹ Expatriate Finance Manager, Chem Co

¹³⁰ Qatari Commercial Assistant, Gas Co

“...exposing you to a wide range of stimulating roles and responsibilities across the business. In this way, we hope you will gain valuable, hands-on experience, along with a chance to be identified as a high-potential employee.” (ChemCo, 2016)

Whilst Qatari Nationals were positive about their own intrinsic motivation they anecdotally described experiences of other Qataris who were less motivated to learn and share knowledge. The three most commonly described, but not self-attributed, intrinsic barriers to KT amongst the Qataris were: under-confidence, a sense of entitlement and a fear of failure.

6.6.3. Under Confidence

Qataris were described by both Qataris and Expatriates as under-confident in KT because they believed their English Language was too poor or their education was insufficient for them to comprehend the concepts being shared. Whilst some Expatriates commented that you had to understand that English is not their first language and therefore nuances can cause difficulties, much of the evidence was anecdotal from Qataris describing other Qataris. From the interviewees in both companies there was little evidence that the Qatari Nationals were under-confident – they all had a good level of English (many proud of their International English Language Testing System scores) and understood the concepts of KT. Though all the interviewees in this study had a graduate level of education (including graduates of American universities) and had been selected to participate in the interview process.

Expatriate managers also highlighted the under-confidence of Qataris to engage in the KT process and that they:

“Need to adopt a more Western approach to knowledge sharing, take more responsibility from Day 1. Trainees hide behind the coach, they are just looking for the next grade, no pressure”¹³¹

This was echoed by one Qatari trainee who observed that:

“...if you are just standing here and you’re waiting for the knowledge to come to you will not achieve anything. So, the first part you have to have the courage, you have to be, you want to learn in that case you will go, you ask and you will get the information you need”¹³²

¹³¹ Expatriate Human Resources Manager, Gas Co

¹³² Qatari Learning and Development Assistant, Gas Co

6.6.4. Self of Entitlement

Linked to under-confidence is also a sense of entitlement, which is another barrier to KT. It was particularly mentioned by Qatari females in reference to male colleagues. They expressed an opinion that unlike their male colleagues, Qatari females were more open and eager to participate in KT because Qatari males lived with a sense of entitlement and therefore did not work as hard to gain knowledge because they believed they would get the rewards of recognition, promotion and job-holder responsibility regardless of how much effort they put in. This was supported by several males who commented:

“Here in Qatar everyone can get a job, everybody can be a manager or achieve, we have 300,000 Qataris so it’s easy to get a job even if you don’t know anything”¹³³

“Human nature tends towards laziness if not pushed to work hard. In Qatar there is no risk of me losing my job so why should I work hard?”¹³⁴

“...strong culture of entitlement, bit at odds with taking time with learning and sharing. Constant struggle to ensure they have the knowledge for their target job. They are smart, get it intellectually but take time to get experience”¹³⁵

Conversely, Qatari females believed they had more to prove to themselves, their families and their male colleagues because of the Arabic culture.

“Women are more ambitious. We were locked up and weren’t allowed to go to university and work. Now we are allowed and educated, so when you come from a family where women do not study, once you’ve been locked up in jail you just want to expand. Men from once you are born you can go wherever you want, do whatever you want. It’s a cultural thing”¹³⁶

“...for different reasons for me to join here it’s not that easy from my culture side. My father, my husband, it’s not that easy to join Gas Co. I’m doing it for this town, the whole country”¹³⁷

“Men are less committed overall and have a bigger ego. Women are ambitious, driven, passionate; they are workers, more responsible”¹³⁸

However, from the interviews in Chem Co and Gas Co, with male Qatari managers and trainees there was no outwardly discernible difference in attitude to KT.

¹³³ Qatari Human Resources Assistant, Chem Co

¹³⁴ Qatari Business Development Manager, Gas Co

¹³⁵ Expatriate Operations Director, Gas Co

¹³⁶ Qatari Commercial Assistant, Gas Co

¹³⁷ Qatari Learning and Development Assistant, Gas Co

¹³⁸ Expatriate Human Resources Manager, Gas Co

Nevertheless, whilst there was no evidence of an open sense of entitlement, Qatar itself, and perhaps therefore by default Qatari male Nationals, has an open sense of entitlement. For example, the Qatar Public Works Authority responsible for the planning, construction and delivery of all infrastructure projects in Qatar has a slogan on its website and posted on hoardings throughout the country which says: “Qatar Deserves The Best” (Ashghal, 2016).

This sense of entitlement and not having to put in much effort to get anything is perpetuated by the government. Qataris do not pay for their utilities, education, health care, and sometimes even basic foodstuffs like oil and rice are provided free. This entitlement bubble was illustrated by one Qatari female:

“I never noticed that everything is provided or guaranteed in a way like I’ve never noticed unless I travelled. When I travelled even small things that I’d never used to pay attention to it or to do. Like let’s say going to a supermarket. I’ve never tried to put my things in a bag, there’s always the guy who does it for me. Honestly, when I went to London it was like “okay, go and help yourself”¹³⁹

6.6.5. Fear of Failure

Linked to under-confidence and sense of entitlement was a perception that Qataris had a fear of failure or loss of respect. Expatriates also have a more general fear: not upsetting a Qatari and losing their job. Again, interviewees talked anecdotally, but referred to Qataris not engaging in KT so as to prolong training and avoid having to take on the responsibility of a job holder. Whether genuine or perceived the KT process and development of Qataris reinforces this belief. It is policy and practice in both companies that during the years under training a Qatari cannot be blamed for any mistakes. As one Qatari manager explained about trainees:

“...in this period he will not be responsible, he will be supported and he cannot be responsible for making any mistakes”¹⁴⁰

“Although I am not responsible, we need to know that the developpee he is not responsible for any mistakes they did, if he did a mistake his coach is blamed, he will take the blame”¹⁴¹

¹³⁹ Qatari Strategy Manager, Gas Co

¹⁴⁰ Qatari Qatarisation Director, Chem Co

¹⁴¹ Qatari Learning and Development Assistant, Gas Co

“Where I can afford failure I allow it, give responsibility through coaching. Individuals need to experience learning failure. They don’t want to lose face, dishonour, so you need to understand the value structure and then use that in the way that you allow room for failure” ¹⁴²

But there are also other issues at play as described by Expatriate managers:

“Many expats are fearful of being open and frank with a trainee because the trainee will whine and complain and the mentor will get fired. Only way to protect yourself is to agree systematically on the deliverable, agree understanding and document actions and issues” ¹⁴³

“You cannot discipline Qataris so you are always operating in fear. We have to look after ourselves, should we take this problem on or not, shrug shoulders and do whatever you have to do” ¹⁴⁴

So, whilst on the one hand the policy of blamelessness helps to mitigate the Qatari fear of failure, it also perpetuates a self-belief that they are not ready to take responsibility, they are not good enough. It also allows those Qataris who choose not to participate in KT to absolve themselves of personal responsibility as they are blameless and it is always someone else’s fault (their Expatriate manager) if they learn nothing and achieve little. Conversely, fear exists within the Expatriate to address issues in case they get fired, are also genuine. This leads to both the Qatari and Expatriate sometimes taking the route of least resistance: insufficient delegation of responsibility.

There were only a few examples where this issue had been addressed head-on, with an Expatriate manager who systematically agreed with his trainee on a monthly basis which competencies would be developed, what opportunities provided, what PCP tasks were to be completed and what the deliverable was. This was then documented and provided to the HR department for the record. Another said:

“Need to be forthright and upfront. Provide lots of encouragement. Need to set targets for the week, month. Involve in all meetings, get them to do the stuff” ¹⁴⁵

¹⁴² Expatriate Engineering Director, Gas Co

¹⁴³ Expatriate Engineering Director, Gas Co

¹⁴⁴ Expatriate Human Resources Manager, Gas Co

¹⁴⁵ Expatriate Human Resources Manager, Gas Co

6.7. What are the key individual preferences for engaging in KT?

The level of social interaction between members of different employee groups has a significant positive effect on the level of KT. However, it is not necessarily the opportunity or type of social interaction that drives the KT but rather the individual's engagement – “whether or not they decide to use them for knowledge transfer depends on their perceptions of what is important and what behaviours are desired” Minbaeva et al. (2012:393). This section discusses the engagement in social interaction of employees in Chem Co to share knowledge.

Social interaction is a key element of KT in Chem Co and Gas Co. The Qatari culture is a social one, where conversations are essential. In both transferring and seeking knowledge, a variety of opportunities exist, both formal and informal. However, for Qatari Nationals formal training courses were the least popular way in which to gain knowledge. This low preference for training courses should not be confused with their popularity as a way to gain a qualification and broader life-experience. Training courses, particularly further education courses at Universities outside of Qatar are a key enabler to the recruitment and retention of Qataris but they are not the preferred vehicle for learning about a particular job. By far the most popular KT process was one-to-one interaction.

6.7.1. One-to-One Interaction

Personal relationships are central in Qatar and one-to-one interaction was the KT engagement strategy preferred by all interviewees. As one Expatriate described it:

“It's the worst sort of training for ROI [Return on Investment] but it's amazing to spend time with someone to see them develop.”¹⁴⁶

All of the Qatari employees expressed a preference for one-to-one interaction with their manager. They gained most benefit from sitting next to their manager and participating in on-the-job training, observing what the manager did, how they did it and being able to take notes and ask questions.

“The best way is for the mentor to give them one-to-one, because really most of the Qataris they will not go to find the knowledge, no, not all of them, most

¹⁴⁶ Expatriate Finance Manager, Chem Co

of them they are waiting for the information to come to them, most of them”¹⁴⁷

“My old manager would get me to sit next to her and watch her do things, even in my breaks when I didn’t have a lot to do. She told me to just get a chair and sit next to me and you can watch me work”¹⁴⁸

However, the effectiveness of this approach is dependent on the Expatriates’ willingness to share knowledge (fear of losing their job) and the Qatari’s willingness to learn (intrinsic motivations).

6.7.2. Involvement

The second most popular KT enabler, a step removed from one-to-one interaction, was involvement. It was common practice for Qatari trainees to be invited to most meetings and copied on every email by their manager. This was to give them exposure not only to the meeting/email content but exposure as to how to behave in a meeting and how to write an email. As Qataris expressed it:

“At first I entered any meeting and I sit and think I don’t understand anything. I was sitting and listening, but meeting by meeting I started to understand what they are thinking and doing”. (Qatari trainee)

“...first thing I do is involve them with me, bring them into the meetings, at least I’ll put him as a CC on the emails or at least BCC in order to give them the opportunity to see how it works”¹⁴⁹

“...involve in confidential things so he will see how things and these people are talking and he will become more confident”¹⁵⁰

6.7.3. Safe Responsibility

After one-to-one interaction and involvement, a strong preference was also expressed by Qataris for careful delegation of responsibility. Most interviewees discussed taking responsibility as part of the KT process, either managers delegating it or trainees seeking it. The general consensus amongst interviewees was that being given responsibility for a task after having had it explained was what worked best for them.

¹⁴⁷ Qatari Qatarisation Director, Chem Co

¹⁴⁸ Qatari Strategy Manager, Gas Co

¹⁴⁹ Qatari Human Resource Manager, Chem Co

¹⁵⁰ Qatari Human Resource Assistant, Chem Co

It was clear from the Qataris that despite working in a blameless process, and the perception that they feared failure and some were lazy, in fact Qataris enjoyed taking ‘safe’ responsibility – where they understood the task thoroughly, felt supported by their manager and were given positive encouragement. As Qatari trainees said:

“...my coach is giving me responsibility and he’s giving me this feeling that you can do it. This feeling gives me the belief that I can do it, that I can do it so I will try my best to do it, really do it” ¹⁵¹

“You will get comments that you cannot put the same standard on a Qatari and a none Qatari. I totally disagree and have chosen to disagree with that. I have set a standard and maintained that standard. Initially it creates unhappiness but the individual eventually realises it’s for his own embetterment. But if you set a low standard at beginning you set yourself up for failure.” ¹⁵²

6.7.4. Cultural Stereotyping

But, the bias and behaviour of individuals was a major barrier to KT through social engagement. This is summarised in the following statements from Expatriates:

“I’ve seen people come here and try to work the way they work in the UK with the same mentality and the same language and having the same expectations, the same deadlines, the same everything that they had in the UK” ¹⁵³

“...they are quite different but they respect the fact that I respect them” ¹⁵⁴

Whilst Cultural Stereotyping is a barrier to KT because it limits social interaction and understanding, the best way to overcome that barrier is for the Qataris and Expatriates to recognise, respect and resolve the differences. In Chem Co this is most often done through the quarterly evaluation meeting, where progress is assessed. If differences cannot be resolved then most often the Expatriate is changed for another one to ensure the Qatari continues to develop.

One interviewee’s concluding comment sums the cultural dimension and difficulties for Expatriate social engagement:

¹⁵¹ Qatari Learning and Development Assistant, Gas Co

¹⁵² Expatriate Engineering Director, Gas Co

¹⁵³ Expatriate Training Manager, Chem Co

¹⁵⁴ Ibid.

“Qataris themselves they’re sensitive, if you say, he will become angry, this is normal, you need to deal with them 100% with respect”¹⁵⁵

Whilst the company culture was one of the enablers to KT, differences in the individual culture between Qataris and Expatriates were considered a barrier. Whilst no interviewees reported specific issues resulting from individual cultural differences, many spoke anecdotally of real or perceived attitudes and behaviours preventing genuine social engagement and KT. From a Qatari National perspective the comments centred mainly on Expatriates’ pre-conceived ideas such as:

“Perception is important, when the coach is getting a new assistant they already have a perception of Qatari, they know what Qataris are like, sometimes some expats have already made up their minds”¹⁵⁶

“...Qataris don’t like to work, expats were discussing that people don’t want to come on time, just want to sit and do nothing and chat. But it’s a small centre of Qataris that are like that, there is a lot who want to work, that are looking for work, for work to do.”¹⁵⁷

As two other Qataris succinctly put it:

“You cannot just say that Qataris are like this and the British like this and even you can’t say all Qataris are like anything, you cannot just generalise.”¹⁵⁸

“...for me any person who has the perception about the whole nation is an idiot.”¹⁵⁹

From an Expatriate perspective there was a general cautiousness, although few were willing to talk openly. Those that did said they found Qataris who had been educated in American or European universities to be the most easy to work with:

“Culturally, always have to be cautious around nationals. Males who have been to a Western university are better”¹⁶⁰

“In general, there a difference between those who are foreign educated... [they] understand the non-Arab culture and therefore cope better. Expectations and understanding of expectations of deadlines works better with Western educated individuals.”¹⁶¹

¹⁵⁵ Qatari Qatarisation Director, Chem Co

¹⁵⁶ Qatari Human Resources Manager, Chem Co

¹⁵⁷ Qatari Marketing Assistant, Chem Co

¹⁵⁸ Qatari Human Resources Manager, Chem Co

¹⁵⁹ Qatari Marketing Assistant, Chem Co

¹⁶⁰ Expatriate Human Resources Manager, Gas Co

¹⁶¹ Expatriate Engineering Director, Gas Co

It was acknowledged by all the interviewees that there are some cultural differences that prevent successful KT; Qataris and Expatriates do not generally share all the same social or work values (such as the importance of time keeping, meeting deadlines, work-life balance).

6.8. Summary

This Qatar case study explored the enablers and barriers to KT in two subsidiary companies in the Energy and Industry (E&I) sector. Using the Minbaeva et al, (2012) model it explored the process of KT from Western Expatriates to Qatari graduates within the Qatarisation process. It described the research findings from a series of interviews with male and female Expatriates and Qataris under the categories: perceived organisational commitment; extrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation and engagement in social interaction. Chem Co and Gas Co have successful track records of developing Qatari Nationals through KT from Expatriates. Through this research several enablers and barriers to KT were identified, described in the case study and summarised in Table 6-1.

The enabling factors for KT were clear organisational commitment provided by the CEOs through visible leadership and recognition of success. At an individual level, extrinsic factors such as recognition, promotion and money were major factors, but intrinsic factors such as self-fulfilment and ambition were more important motivators to participate in the KT process. In participating in the process, one-to-one interaction, involvement in everything and the delegation of safe responsibility were considered the key factors in engaging Qataris in KT.

Barriers to KT were most evident in Expatriates unwilling to share knowledge due to job insecurity as a result of the Qatarisation process. This manifested itself in Expatriates employing strategies to deter, defer, and delay KT. Similarly, Qataris were unable to make the most of the KT opportunity due to under confidence, a sense of entitlement and a fear of failure. Finally, there was also some evidence that individual culture differences also affected the success of the KT. Together these findings provide key insights into individual level KT in private companies in Qatar.

In the next chapter these findings from Qatar, and those from the previous chapter on Saudi Arabia, are discussed.

Knowledge Transfer Factors		Factor	Applicability	Comments
Perceived Organisational Commitment	Enablers	Leadership	Both	“Five years ago we were a championship team, fighting for promotion, now were up with the Man Uniteds”
		Company culture	Both	“Chem Co is a family and it’s a different atmosphere”
	Barriers	None		
Extrinsic Motivators	Enablers	Recognition	Both	“...most important recognition thing for me is first of all appreciation”
		Promotion	Qatari National	“...we need to be promoted quickly”
	Barriers	Expatriate Job Insecurity	Expatriate	“...I would try to push you as much and as far away from this job as possible just to protect my job”
Intrinsic Motivators	Enablers	Self-fulfilment	Both	“First of all in order to share knowledge you need to have that feeling inside that you would like to learn something”
		Ambition	Qatari National	“...these people are young and they are saying like I want your job, this is what I want”
	Barriers	Sense of Entitlement	Qatari National	“Qatar Deserves The Best”
		Fear of failure	Qatari National	“... he cannot be responsible for making any mistakes”
Engagement in Social interaction	Enablers	One-to-One Interaction	Both	“...first thing I do is involve them with me, bring them into the meetings”
		Involvement	Both	“...what will motivate me is if I see the management giving me a greater responsibility”
		Safe Responsibility	Both	“...it’s amazing to spend time with someone to see them develop.”
	Barriers	Cultural Stereotyping	Both	“...for me any person who has the perception about the whole nation is an idiot.”

Table 6-1. Knowledge Transfer Barriers and Enablers in Chem Co and Gas Co

7. CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION

7.1. Introduction

Opening the UK-GCC Public Private Partnership Conference on 19 April 2017, the UK Secretary of State for International Trade observed that “knowledge and expertise are some of the UK’s chief exports” and that “From the Qatar National Vision to Saudi Vision 2030, every country here today is embarking on an ambitious journey.” Fox (2017). In this chapter, I compare and contrast the findings which emerged from the Saudi Arabia and Qatar case studies which could exploit UK knowledge and enable those journeys. The chapter is divided into six main sections, each of which presents the results relating to the research questions. Firstly, the chapter begins with a summary of the findings in relation to the research questions. Secondly, it discusses the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Thirdly, it continues by discussing what companies do to facilitate KT in response to their strategic context. Fourthly, it discusses the key extrinsic factors of individual KT. Fifthly, it discusses the key intrinsic factors of individual KT and finally, the key individual preferences for engaging in KT.

7.2. Key Findings Summary

This study set out with the objectives to explore the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar, identify the key factors that influence KT from Expatriates to Nationals, and, as it is a DBA, create practitioner guidelines to improve KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. To achieve these objectives 5 research questions were developed:

- a) What is the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar?
- b) What do companies do in response to the strategic context?
- c) What are the key extrinsic factors of individual KT?
- d) What are the key intrinsic factors of individual KT?
- e) What are the key individual preferences for engaging in KT?

To explore the strategic context of KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar government documents and websites were used to explore the geography, population, economic challenges. From these circumstances national visions and development plans have been created which, in turn, leads to their need for KT from Expatriates to Nationals. The documentary evidence was consistent with the literature on the strategic context

for Localisation and need for KT from Expatriates in the GCC. However, whilst there were common reasons for the national visions and development plans throughout the GCC, such as developing a knowledge economy to replace an oil dependency and to provide meaningful employment for an educated youthful population, there were also differences between Saudi Arabia and Qatar which has not been clearly identified and described in the literature. The key difference was the size of the youth population and employment prospects for individuals in the two countries which influence the responses to Localisation. For Western companies it suggests that treating GCC countries as one homogenous entity and adopting a single approach for enabling KT for Expatriates to Nationals may be inappropriate.

A qualitative case study method was used to answer the research questions in Aerospace Inc in Saudi Arabia and Chem Co and Gas Co in Qatar. To understand the factors that affect KT from Expatriates to Nationals a conceptual framework from Minbaeva et al. (2012) was adopted and adapted. The focus this framework was on intra-organisational and individual level KT.

The findings in Aerospace Inc in Saudi Arabia generally confirm the KT literature on KT and Localisation but suggest that *wasta* (influence); Expatriate job insecurity and cultural stereotyping are potentially more important factors in KT than previously observed. The findings from Chem Co and Gas Co in Qatar also generally confirm the KT and Localisation literature but support the findings from Aerospace Inc about the importance played by Expatriate job insecurity. There was little direct evidence of the importance of *wasta* and cultural stereotyping in Chem Co and Gas Co. In Qatar, company leadership and culture appears to have more of a positive impact than Saudi Arabia, this supports the importance placed on leadership in the KT literature. In none of the companies did trust arise as a significant factor, which is a key theme in the KT literature. This was potentially masked by, or exhibited through, other findings such as fear of conflict and cultural stereotyping. In both Saudi Arabia and Qatar one-to-one interaction and safe responsibility was the preferred method of KT.

A summary of the overall findings is provided in Table 7-1.

Research Questions	Key Findings			Reflections
	Literature	Saudi Arabia	Qatar	
		Aerospace Inc	Chem Co and Gas Co	
What is the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar?	Oil dependency; Create a Knowledge Economy; Educated youth population; Localisation; Inefficient quota systems; Poorly aligned education, skills and training; National Wage structure	Oil dependent; Large Youth population and unemployment; National vision & development plans; Knowledge Economy; Saudisation	Oil & gas dependent; Small workforce; Small youth population; Zero unemployment; National vision: Knowledge Economy Qatarisation	The strategic contexts Saudi Arabia and Qatar reflect those typically found in the literature in GCC countries. Both Saudi Arabia and Qatar have visions to move away from an oil dependent economy to a knowledge economy. However, their population/workforce needs are different and this creates different drivers for KT. This largely reflects the GCC Localisation and KT literature.
What do companies do in response to the strategic context?	Organisational Structure; Policies; Management commitment; Leadership; Recruitment of unsuitable candidates; Company culture	Customer Influence Leadership Time Policies and Processes	Leadership Company culture Policies and Processes	There was little evidence for organisational structure having a role to play in KT. Company policies were seen as key enablers to KT, not only in the transfer itself but in attraction and recruitment. But, as observed in the literature, Localisation targets led to a numbers not quality game and that reduced effectiveness of KT. As described in the literature, management commitment through leadership was a key factor in all case companies, but it was not always consistent. Company culture was also important in Chem Co and Gas Co to encourage KT. It differed to the culture in Aerospace Inc, which was more Western and operationally focussed.

What are the key extrinsic factors of individual KT?	Rewards and incentives; Expatriate contracts; Lack of Education.	Money Expatriate Job Insecurity	Recognition Promotion Expatriate Job Insecurity	Confirming the literatures, rewards and incentives were a key factor in all companies. Money appeared most important, followed by promotion, however it seems less important than intrinsic motivators. Expatriate insecurity featured as a significant barrier in Saudi Arabia and Qatar but is little represented in the literature. Lack of education was found to manifest itself anecdotally as under confidence and fear of failure as intrinsic factors.
What are the key intrinsic factors of individual KT?	Responsibility; Status and Power; Wasta; Self Doubt; Self Centeredness; Competence; Trust; Individual Culture	Status Self-fulfilment Sense of Entitlement Fear of conflict	Self-fulfilment Ambition Sense of Entitlement Fear of failure	Intrinsic factors appear to be most important in literature and this study. Self-fulfilment, status and power drive National KT activity but it is held back by under-confidence and fear in both Expatriates and Nationals. Trust is a highly discussed factor in the literature but was little discussed in any of the case companies and is therefore a contradiction. But, lack of trust manifested itself in Expatriates in fear of conflict.
What are the key individual preferences for engaging in KT?	Team spirit and cohesion; Social Integration; Verbal communication; Expatriate adjustment.	One-to-One Interaction Involvement Safe Responsibility Cultural Stereotyping	One-to-One Interaction Involvement Safe Responsibility Cultural Stereotyping	Lack of evidence in both cases for team social integration confirms the literature. National's preference for one-to-one interaction and involvement supports verbal communication evidence. Cultural differences affect KT, most importantly Cultural Stereotyping.

Table 7-1. Key Findings Summary

7.3. What is the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar?

The first research question sought to determine the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Strategic context sets the boundaries and lays the foundations for KT such as government policy, educational institutions and national culture (Argote, (2013b); Boyle et al. (2012); Ewers (2013)). Despite having such significant oil and gas reserves both Saudi Arabia and Qatar recognise the need to begin to diversify from a dependency on petro-chemicals. For Saudi Arabia and Qatar the strategic context for KT is their imperative to create meaningful employment for their increasingly educated workforces in industries other than oil and gas. They have similar national visions and development plans to grow knowledge economies and replace Expatriates with qualified National labour (Forstenlechner (2009); Randeree (2012); Sohail (2012); Al-Asfour and Khan (2013)). However, they have different challenges, Saudi Arabia needs to resolve its large youth unemployment problem, Qatar needs to prepare its youth to be future leaders of the country.

Saudi Arabia is a large GCC country with a population of about 31.7 million people, of which about 49% under 24 years old and about 30% of those youths unemployed (WorldBank (2016)). Its socio-economic vision is to develop Nationals, raise their efficiency and move towards a knowledge-based economy. It has invested heavily in education and training; foreign companies are incentivised to transfer knowledge and localise jobs as part of a Saudisation policy (KSA, 2016). To diversify its economy and address youth unemployment, Saudi Arabia plans to invest £160 billion in new high technology industries (such as aerospace and defence) and continue with its affirmative action policy of 'Saudisation' – creating jobs in these industries for educated Nationals to replace Expatriates (Waldman, 2016).

Saudi Arabia has a knowledge-based economy at the heart of its Vision 2030 and successive five year development plans including the accelerating the transition through: directing national and foreign investments towards high technology content; encouraging the private sector to adopt a strategy for reduction of Expatriate labour; and obliging private sector companies, which execute government projects, to employ Saudi citizens (MEP (2010); MEP (2015)). It also remains an attractive and lucrative aerospace and defence market. In defence alone, Saudi Arabia is estimated to be the biggest military market with compound annual growth rate of 3.9 per cent with military industrialisation obligations greater than \$43 billion by 2021 (Kimla, 2013).

It is vital that Western companies seeking to be successful in Saudi Arabia recognise and respond to its strategic context.

In contrast to Saudi Arabia, Qatar is a small GCC country with a population of about 2.4 million people, of which about 26% are under 24 years old, and it has the world's lowest unemployment rate at 0.3% (QatarStatisticsSector (2016)). Unlike Saudi Arabia and other GCC countries, whose national visions are seeking to address an growing youth unemployment rate, Qatar's vision is to transform into an advanced country by 2030, capable of sustaining its own development and providing a high standard of living. Therefore, QNV 2030 is not primarily seeking to create jobs to solve youth unemployment but to create a capable, motivated and sustainable workforce; one that is ready to lead the country in the future. To achieve this, Qatar needs to establish and encourage KT, in partnerships and joint ventures, from knowledgeable Expatriates to Nationals. It is doing this through its Qatarisation policy and its attempt to encourage Qataris to join the private sector. Qatar has a national plan to invest in education and training; introduce incentives and policies to rebalance the labour market; and develop a competent, motivated and sustainable Qatari workforce through improving skills in the private sector (QNV2030, 2013). This is a different challenge for Western companies; it is not so much about creating as many jobs as possible to recruit Nationals but creating about the right jobs to enable management know-how to be transferred.

Despite the different drivers for national visions and Localisation, the challenges to Qatarisation and Saudisation are similar and reflect common issues in the GCC Localisation literature: wage expectations; preference for government clerical jobs; education, skills and readiness for work in the private sector are inadequate; the ability of companies to control Expatriate workers; and the inability of nationals to socially integrate in the multicultural work environments (Al-Lamki (1998); Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010); Mellahi (2007); Torofdar and Yunggar (2012)). Although there are more employment opportunities in the private sector, both Saudis and Qataris prefer to work in the government sector citing lower wages, low skilled menial jobs, longer hours and unsocial hours as their main reasons for shunning the private sector (Al-Thumairi and Al-Deraa (2015); Benchiba-Savenius et al. (2016a); GASTAT (2016); QatarStatisticsSector (2016)). The most significant challenge for the government of Saudi Arabia is that there are not enough government jobs and they

cannot create enough private sector jobs quickly enough or attractive enough to meet Nationals' expectations. For Western companies, the challenge is to attract, train and retain Saudi Nationals into their organisations to undertake non-managerial work and encourage them to participate in KT. In Qatar, the government's challenge is to similarly create private sector jobs, although on a significantly smaller scale to Saudi Arabia. For Western companies in Qatar, their challenge is also to attract and retain Nationals, but in a more competitive recruitment marketplace, and provide Qatari Nationals with a route to management positions more quickly than they might in Saudi Arabia.

For practitioners in Western aerospace and defence companies it presents a very different strategic environment in which to operate, grow their businesses and transfer knowledge. In Saudi Arabia, to support Saudisation, companies may decide to focus on creating many employment opportunities at all levels of the business and develop KT policies and processes to suit all types of work and abilities. In Qatar, with a much smaller youth population, supporting Qatarisation might be achieved by creating fewer higher quality management jobs, with KT policies and processes which develop the leaders of the future.

7.4. What do companies do in response to the strategic context?

The second research question was how do companies respond to the strategic environment and encourage KT from Expatriates to Nationals? Aerospace and defence companies seeking to achieve SCA in the GCC need to commit to and succeed at Localisation because it will provide difficult to imitate, unique knowledge-based resources that maybe an important contributor to SCA (Barney et al. (2011); Colbert (2004)). In response to a country's strategic context, and to facilitate KT from Expatriates to Nationals, companies require the right processes, organisational culture and leadership. Whilst these are important in their own right, having good processes and strong leadership directly affects KT, they are also important because an individual's perception of organisational commitment to KT is a key factor in determining how much an individual will engage in KT across employee-group boundaries. The more highly valued KT is perceived to be by the organisation the more employee engagement is likely to occur (Minbaeva et al., 2012).

7.4.1. Policies and Processes

There are many similarities between the KT strategies and policies of the companies studied in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. All three companies explicitly state their commitment to their respective national visions, development plans and Localisation programmes. This confirms the observations of Scott-Jackson et al. (2015) about showing commitment to Localisation and appears to be an important point for practitioners: make sure you publicise your support for Localisation. Aerospace Inc, Chem Co and Gas Co have each won awards in their respective countries for engaging, training and developing Nationals. For Aerospace Inc, the motivation for supporting these programmes is its commitment to the country and its desire to maintain current and win future business. An example of Aerospace Inc's level of obligation to support Saudisation can be seen in its agreement to create "10,000 skilled jobs" in Saudi Arabia as part of its sale of aircraft in 2007 (House_of_Commons, 2010:EV94). However, limited progress has been made, the planned manufacturing and final assembly was not transferred to the country. Whilst 62% of Aerospace Inc's workforce is Saudi (Aerospace_Inc, 2016e) it has yet to create large employment opportunities in the wider aerospace and defence industry.

For Chem Co and Gas Co, their motivations are heavily focussed on the country, the E&I sector and Qatari Nationals. Whilst there may be intent in Chem Co and Gas Co to grow their businesses, there is more of an emphasis on KT from Expatriates to National than operations – as there is in Aerospace Inc. This is probably because Aerospace Inc is a Western private company; with largely Western Expatriate leadership; with an overseas Western parent company; and operating in a competitive business sector. Whilst Chem Co and Gas Co are private joint venture companies, they have Qatari leadership; they are majority owned by a government parent company; and operate in a less competitive business environment. Qatari companies can possibly function with greater largesse and benefaction to Qatari Nationals. This is consistent with the difference in a Western and Arabic business culture (Iles et al. (2012); Galanou and Farrag (2015)).

In supporting national visions, development plans and Localisation, the case companies have strategies which include attraction, recruitment, development and retention. The aspect of development through KT will be discussed later, but it is

important to briefly discuss the attraction, recruitment and retention strategies of the case companies as these have some influence on the KT process itself. Aerospace Inc struggles to attract and recruit suitably qualified Saudi Nationals even though the recruitment environment is not difficult because there are so many Saudi youths. Aerospace Inc has difficulty in recruiting nationals because Saudis are not attracted by private companies who pay less than the government sector and have a perception of being a more demanding workplace. This confirms a similar challenge that has been found in the literature, where Nationals have been shown to have a preference for working in the public sector: higher wages; greater job security; shorter working hours and longer holidays; higher prestige (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2012); Benchiba-Savenius et al. (2016a)). To attract appropriately skilled Saudis, Aerospace Inc has established a University Collaboration, Research and Development Steering Board to ensure that the company develops and maintains close links with partner universities and helps students develop before they enter the labour market. It also sponsors students at King Saud University holds and sponsors career events (Aerospace_Inc, 2015). Aerospace Inc, and other, practitioners need to continue to build upon these attraction and recruitment strategies and deploy them in Qatar.

Chem Co and Gas Co operate in a much more highly competitive recruitment environment, with a much smaller pool of Qatari youths who similarly are attracted to highly paid, less demanding government jobs. Both companies focus heavily on publicity and engagement of Qataris from an early stage with schools and university initiatives and outreach programmes, graduation and award sponsorships and internships (ChemCo (2016); GasCo (2016)). For instance, in 2014, Chem Co had more than 100 community outreach programmes and nearly 100 internships (ChemCo, 2015a). In preparation for future business in Qatar, Aerospace Inc has adopted a similar early engagement approach in 2015 by conducting a number of Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) workshops in six Qatari and two International schools in Doha, involving over 500 children. Practitioners in Aerospace Inc need to increase broaden their investment and engagement in Qatar to raise the profile of the company and compete against state-owned competitors.

These early engagement and attraction strategies are key to future successful KT activities, as several managers in the case companies observed that it starts with the selection of candidates, developing extensive role profiles, setting high standards and

conducting proper interviews. A key recruitment and retention strategy is the salary and benefits package offered to Nationals. It plays an important part in the extrinsic motivation to participate in KT. In both Saudi Arabia and Qatar, the employment packages of the case companies were focussed on meeting National's expectations and local government competition. For aerospace and defence company practitioners, reviewing attraction, recruitment and retention policies is an important enabler for Localisation. It is also important that practitioners adapt them for the strategic context to ensure successful KT. Transferring Western benefits packages and working conditions would not seem to be a successful strategy and there was some evidence in Aerospace Inc it was unsuccessful in retaining Nationals after training and KT was complete.

7.4.2. Organisational Culture

Organisational culture has a significant impact on the success of KT (Alavi and Leidner (2001); Argote (2013a); Davenport and Prusak (1998); Nonaka and Konno (1998)). Organisational culture affects what individuals consider to be acceptable conduct (Webster et al., 2008) and their motivation to participate in KT (Foss et al. (2010); Nonaka and Konno (1998)). To facilitate KT, organisational culture needs to ensure compatibility between the goals and values of the individuals and offer support to the communication process (Bonache and Zárrega-Oberty (2008); Witherspoon et al. (2013)); it needs to be knowledge friendly and positively orientated (Davenport and Prusak, 1998); and it should engender trust, communication and provide appropriate rewards (Al-Alawi et al., 2007).

Whilst no interviewees in Aerospace Inc, Chem Co or Gas Co were asked specifically about the company culture and its affect on KT, there was some evidence from direct observation that there was a difference between the Saudi and Qatari companies. Perhaps befitting the influence of Aerospace MNC, Aerospace Inc seemed more 'business-like' and busy. Whilst employees were only observed in a Head Office environment, the pace of work and urgency seemed greater in Aerospace Inc than in the Qatar companies. Also, perhaps it reflected the different leadership teams; Aerospace Inc's being predominantly Western with decades of experience in managing European operations, and Chem Co and Gas Co being Qatari with an Arabic approach to business and people.

This was epitomised by Chem Co which considered itself a family. This view of Chem Co as a family is supported by how the company brands itself. Banners at the entrance to their headquarters proclaim ‘Welcome to the Chem Co family’ and sections on their website are entitled: ‘The Chem Co Family’; ‘Looking after the Chem Co family’; and ‘Developing the Chem Co family’ (ChemCo, 2016). The impact of the company culture and ‘family’ atmosphere on KT was seen through the willingness of Qataris Nationals and Expatriates to engage, support and share. This in part confirms the observations of Davenport et al. (1998) that KT requires a knowledge-friendly culture where individuals are not inhibited from KT. Practitioners would benefit from considering how to facilitate a ‘family’ atmosphere or knowledge-friendly culture if not at the organisational level, at least the team level.

In terms of ensuring compatibility between the goals and values of the individuals and offering support to the communication process (Bonache and Zárraga-Oberty (2008); Witherspoon et al. (2013)) there was some evidence on company websites and in literature of shared goals and values. In Aerospace Inc, its commitment to “training of local nationals” Aerospace_Inc (2016h) and Aerospace MNC culture (vision, mission and values) are clearly stated. Similarly, Chem Co and Gas Co articulate their commitment to Qatarisation and values/mission/visions on their websites and in their corporate reports (ChemCo (2016); GasCo (2016)). But there was little evidence from the interviews that the organisational culture in any of the companies impacted individual KT. Moreover, it is difficult to assess whether any companies’ published goals and values are actually embodied by its employees. Practitioners would benefit from considering how to align Western goals and values with Arabic culture and business practices to better engender KT.

7.4.3. Leadership

Leaders must provide vision and personal commitment in terms of time and resource to facilitate KT (Forstenlechner (2009); Nonaka and Konno (1998); Volberda et al. (2010)). Organisational leaders need to establish the organisational structure and response to a country’s strategic environment. They also need to act as role models, explain what is required of individual KT and offer support (Seba et al. (2012); Youssef et al. (2017)). In Aerospace Inc, some interview and documentary evidence suggested positive leadership commitment to KT as a means to develop Nationals and

achieve Saudisation (Aerospace_Inc (2016e); Aerospace_Inc (2016h); Aerospace_Inc (2016i)). Press releases announced successful programmes and achievement; individuals spoke about KT being driven by senior management and CEO leadership. There was similar evidence in Chem Co and Gas Co where interviews, websites and local press spoke to success and achievement of KT because of Qatari leadership. The evidence of CEO commitment in both cases supports the findings of Nonaka et al. (2006) and Serenko et al. (2007) who suggest KT leadership is about providing a vision and clearly communicating the value of KT.

In Chem Co and Gas Co the Qatari leadership's recognition of KT was a particularly important element of demonstrating their commitment and encouraging employee engagement. In both companies there were specific award ceremonies recognising achievement (mainly of Nationals) with Gas Co going one step further than Chem Co by introducing an award voted on by all employees recognising the success KT between Expatriates and Nationals, even resulting in a bonus for the best Expatriate. In contrast, there was no such reward or recognition in Aerospace In, where one Saudi commented:

“Recognising Saudisation and knowledge transfer, trying to jog my memory, from a reward perspective I can't think of any”¹⁶²

It appears the perception of individuals in Aerospace Inc is that their leadership is not as committed to KT as the publicity may suggest. This supports the findings of Rees et al. (2007) who argues that leaders must not only be committed to KT but also convince others of their commitment and Seba et al. (2012) who suggests that it is necessary for leaders to engage in knowledge sharing itself to motivate employees. Practitioners, seeking to operate in Saudi Arabia or Qatar, should consider the impact of leadership commitment and perception on KT. From this research, it appears to be an important factor in companies which are hierarchical, authoritarian and dominated by one powerful individual to whom others look for direction (Iles et al., 2012).

This perceived difference between the commitment of the leadership in Aerospace Inc and Chem Co/Gas Co may reflect the origin and culture of that leadership. In Aerospace Inc, the Western leadership consisted of middle aged, white males who had spent over 30 years in one company, in one part of the UK. They were institutionalised

¹⁶² Expatriate Learning and Development Manager, Aerospace Inc

in Aerospace MNC and this institutionalisation was reinforced in Aerospace Inc by the Expatriates involved in KT being from the same company. This may change as Saudisation increases and Nationals are recruited and promoted in to Aerospace Inc leadership positions. The increasing Saudi leadership will bring a more Arabic culture and focus on KT and Saudisation. However, this will have implications for Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc in terms of the parent-child relationship and commercial expectations.

In Chem Co and Gas Co the leadership was Qatari supported by a senior leadership team of male and female Expatriates from Europe and US. Whereas the leadership of Aerospace Inc appeared to be more focussed on operational output, were rewarded for commercial success and were only on secondment; the Qatari leadership seemed to be more focussed on the Qatari national vision and developing Nationals. This not only affected individual's perception of leadership commitment to KT but also organisational processes and culture. Aerospace Inc adapted Aerospace MNC processes and brought UK culture; in Qatar the CEOs appeared more able to pick and mix Arabic and various Western practices to suit their purposes. In Qatar, there was an evident pride in their companies and their countries; there appeared to be a genuine leadership focus on being the best and doing best by their Nationals. Western companies seeking to be successful in Saudi Arabia and Qatar need to consider the nationality and culture of their leaderships teams to ensure the right mix and focus on commercial and Localisation success.

However, the leadership commitment manifested itself, in all the companies it was mostly a one-way process, toward the Nationals. The leadership commitment in Aerospace Inc, Chem Co and Gas Co was focused on developing Nationals; there was little or no investment in or recognition of the development of Expatriates. This has implications for the commitment of Expatriates to KT and may explain one of the reasons KT is not always successful. Expatriates feel under-valued and under-appreciated. Practitioners should consider the impact of leadership commitment on KT and assist particularly Western leaders to more openly and effectively demonstrate commitment. Leaders need to balance their focus on operational output with KT so that the perception of Expatriates and Nationals of organisational and leadership commitment is positive. This is similar to the findings of Al-Alawi et al. (2007). Nonetheless, despite the importance of leadership, the evidence from this research

does not support the conclusion of Arif and Shalhoub (2014) that leadership had the most significant effect on employee engagement in KT. There was evidence that leadership was an important factor in KT but it does not appear to be more important than extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

7.4.4. Time

In addition to having KT processes, organisational and leadership commitment in response to the strategic environment, companies also need to provide sufficient time for individuals to engage in KT. In their survey of Siemens in the UAE, Al Attar and Shaalan (2017) found that time was the most significant barrier to knowledge transfer. Providing time was not only important to participate in the process but also to build the relationship and communication channels between the Expatriate and National (Al Attar and Shaalan (2017; Al-Esia and Skok (2014)). Affording time for KT is not only a function of the organisational culture but also its leadership. If leaders do not provide sufficient time and space for KT it is less likely to be successful, or worse too much focus spent on controlling the time and resources can send the wrong message to employees (Ahmad and Daghfous (2010); Seba et al. (2012); Szulanski (1996)). The operational pressure of having to complete tasks for a demanding management, to satisfy a demanding customer, was a factor preventing effective KT from Expatriates to Nationals in Aerospace Inc. Expatriates did not have sufficient capacity or the time to share their knowledge.

However, this only manifested itself in Aerospace Inc, there was no reference to having insufficient time for KT in Chem Co or Gas Co. In fact, from direct observation in these two companies it appeared that there was little operational pressure. Perhaps this was partly due to the environment being a headquarters rather than an industrial site. But this was also true for Aerospace Inc. It may be more likely that a different management style, focus on the national vision and a different company culture had a role to play in time being devoted to KT in Qatar. It is also suggested from the documentary evidence and interviewee comments on management commitment to KT that the Qatar companies value it more and, therefore, devote more time to it. Supporting to the recommendation from Seba et al. (2012), Western practitioners should ensure that in both Saudi Arabia and Qatar sufficient time is devoted to KT; that individuals are encouraged to formally schedule KT in addition to informal

opportunities and that Leaders are encouraged to balance operational imperatives with KT processes.

7.4.5. Customer Influence

From interviews in Aerospace Inc it was found that its customer played a role in how individuals perceived the company's commitment to KT. No such evidence Qatar or the stronger influence of the state-owned parent company. In reviewing the GCC KT literature, no data was found on the effect of customers on an organisation's or individual's KT processes. It is likely that in Aerospace Inc this is a result of the distinct nature of its relationship with a single customer: the Saudi Arabian military. From interview evidence, it appears that in Aerospace Inc its customer has significant control over recruitment, training and promotion of Saudi Nationals. This appears to be because the customer (with its National leadership) is very focussed on Saudisation. This manipulation by the customer should not be a surprise, as in the GCC, the business systems are largely characterised by an interlocking structure that stretches across, and between, networks in families, organisations and political life (Metcalf, 2007). The influence is effectively *wasta*, or perhaps an extreme form of corporate *wasta*, where government goals are achieved through links with key persons with influence (Forstenlechner (2008); Smith et al. (2012)).

Customer influence in Aerospace Inc was seen as a barrier to effective KT because it sometimes resulted in Nationals being recruited without the appropriate skills or motivation to enable KT; it encouraged a belief that Nationals would be promoted without gaining all the knowledge they needed; and it discouraged the Expatriates to be open and honest with Nationals because they feared the influence that Saudis could wield within Aerospace Inc and the customer. This is similar to the impact of *wasta* as identified by Aldossari and Bourne (2016) and Al Harbi et al. (2016) who found it was one of the main factors in career success and Saudi Nationals thought it significantly more important than qualifications, competence and knowledge to achieve promotion. As several Expatriate managers stated the culture of *wasta* sometimes resulted in employing the wrong individuals because they are related to people with significant influence.

Unlike Aerospace Inc, from the interview evidence there appears to be no significant customer influence in KT or Qatarisation in Chem Co or Gas Co. However, this may

be partly because, unlike Aerospace Inc, which is a privately owned subsidiary of a Western multinational, the Qatar case companies are majority state owned and the *wasta* experienced by Aerospace Inc may be naturally embedded in the leadership and management. Moreover, whilst not a customer, there was certainly influence exerted by the Qatari parent company on Chem Co and Gas Co to employ more Qataris, replace Expatriates and meet 50% Qatarisation targets. Furthermore, Chem Co and Gas Co are managed by a Qatari leadership team who themselves have *wasta* (unlike many of the Aerospace Inc leadership team) and they create a different Qatari company culture. From the evidence in Qatar, for Aerospace Inc and other Western companies, there may be less customer interference to contend with than in Saudi Arabia. However, this may be misleading because of the different nature of the companies (Western owned or Qatari owned) and the different sectors in which the case studies were undertaken.

7.5. What are the key extrinsic factors of individual KT?

The third research question was: what are the key extrinsic factors of individual KT? Motivation of the sender and receiver has been recognised as one of the main factors which can affect KT (Argote et al. (2003); Easterby-Smith et al. (2009); Ribiere and Zhang (2010)) Extrinsic motivation is something that organisations can fairly easily control and incentivise. Managers can influence it and link individual performance to organisational goals through financial rewards such as salary, bonus and promotion (Minbaeva (2008); Neve (2015)). It has been suggested that being extrinsically motivated means having needs satisfied indirectly by something obtainable like power and compensation ((Minbaeva et al., 2012) (Osterloh and Frey, 2000)). In this study extrinsic motivators for Nationals were found to be mainly money and recognition. This support the findings of Yeo and Marquardt (2015) and Punshi and Jones (2016) who found GCC National extrinsic motivators to include: salary, recognition, job title and office size. For Expatriates in the GCC there is little research into their extrinsic motivation, however, two authors have suggested job insecurity affects Expatriates and results in knowledge hiding (Al-Alawi et al., 2007); (Ewers (2013)). This study found the single most important Expatriate motivation was a fear of losing their jobs as a result of Localisation.

7.5.1. Money

A lack of rewards (money and bonuses) is a cause for poor motivation to engage in KT (Minbaeva (2008); Neve (2015); Szulanski (1996)). In both Saudi Arabia and Qatar money was found to be the primary motivator to work (Benchiba-Savenius et al. (2016a); Benchiba-Savenius et al. (2016b); Lim (2014)). Money arose as a motivational factor for KT in Aerospace Inc, Chem Co and Gas Co but there was no direct payment for the activity. Rather it was a means to an ends for Nationals, participating in KT would result in promotion and more responsibility and therefore more money. Expatriates discussed money as an important factor for Saudis and Qataris but never themselves. Nationals also talked about money but never in reference to Expatriates and, in the case of Qataris, rarely themselves as individuals. In Aerospace Inc, Saudis are paid on a local scale, benchmarked within Aerospace MNC and locally to reflect Saudi Arabia conditions. But it was evident from Aerospace Inc interviews that this was not seen as sufficient by Saudis. Nationals commented on wanting to be appropriately valued and rewarded as they perceived Nationals in other companies were paid more money. Similarly, managers recognised the motivation of money in Saudi Arabia and Qatar, one calling it an obsession and another achieving a higher salary as a preoccupation.

But, there was a difference between Qataris and Saudis, Qataris appear to be generally better paid and more independently wealthy than Saudis. Money is important as a status symbol in Qatar but it has less impact on their standard of living as it does for Saudi Nationals. However, Chem Co and Gas Co do use money as a motivator for Qataris to participate in the KT process during the 2 to 3-year development programme. At bi-annual progress and performance reviews above expectation assessments attract a 7.5% salary increase, whilst a satisfactory assessment attracts a 5% salary increase. Performance reviews contain a defined list of KT milestones demonstrated through task achievements. This finding supports many previous studies into GCC KT that financial rewards were a motivating factor for KT (Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Alhussain and Bixler (2011); Alrawi et al. (2013); Yeo and Marquardt (2015)).

However, there appeared to be no such direct financial motivation in Aerospace Inc. National performance development reviews were not directly linked to KT or

incrementally rewarded for success. In Aerospace Inc, money as a motivator for KT was less about the process and more about the outcome: promotion and its subsequent salary increase. For practitioners, understanding the importance of money as a motivator for KT (either directly or indirectly) is important. Practitioners need to consider how salary and benefits packages need to be adapted for local condition and expectations. For Aerospace MNC, the application of global salary bands may be insufficient to recruit and retain Qataris and, more importantly, motivate them to participate in KT. Aerospace MNC and other western companies should also consider how to use the practice in Chem CO and Gas Co of linking KT to performance development reviews.

7.5.2. Recognition

Previous studies have shown that recognition is an important component of motivating senders and receivers (Argote et al. (2003); Riege (2005) Yeo and Marquardt, 2015). In Chem Co and Gas Co, Expatriates and Nationals all considered recognition to be an important extrinsic motivator. For Qatari Nationals recognition was about personal appreciation from the senior leadership team. However, much like money, from the evidence gathered it appears recognition was a tangential benefit of participating in the KT process, recognition for a job well done. It was rarely linked to the activity of KT itself. It was also predominantly informal, with a simple thank you or certificate of appreciation. The major exception to this was in Gas Co where the CEO instigated a formal recognition of KT achievement: an award called OSCAR. This recognises outstanding achievement of both Qatari and Expatriate in transferring knowledge. By peer evaluating both Expatriate and National KT success it was intended to incentivise and recognise the effort of both.

Unlike the Qatari companies, the view of interviewees in Aerospace Inc was that there was no or little recognition for participating in KT. This difference is most likely a reflection of the leadership styles in the companies, with the collectivist nature of Chem Co and Gas Co producing an emphasis (although predominantly on Nationals) of recognition and a focus on the people. In Aerospace Inc, the emphasis was more on doing a good job, achieving a task and not the relationship or process of KT. Practitioners in Saudi Arabia and Qatar would do well to consider how to link recognition directly to KT and ensure that both Nationals and Expatriates are equally

appreciated. This supports a similar practitioner recommendation of Al-Alawi et al. (2007). Adoption of something similar to the Gas Co OSCAR would be a good starting point.

7.5.3. Expatriate Job Insecurity

There has been little research into Expatriate motivation in the GCC but self-doubt in response to the complex social and political dynamics appears to affect their willingness to transfer knowledge (Yeo and Marquardt, 2015). It has also been established by previous studies that job security (or insecurity) is a motivating factor in KT (Davenport et al. (1998); Serenko and Bontis (2016); Swailes et al. (2012)) but it is an under-reported phenomena, especially in the GCC. The negative motivation manifests itself as apprehension or fear that KT may reduce or jeopardise someone's job security (Rees et al. (2007); Riege (2005)). If an individual fears losing power, status or their job as a result of transferring knowledge they are less likely to transfer it. Conversely, if an individual has confidence in the organisation and themselves that KT can be good for their careers, they are more likely to transfer it. As the strategic context for KT in Aerospace Inc, Chem Co and Gas Co was Localisation, which is aimed explicitly at replacing Expatriates with Nationals, there was no apprehension, it was a fact and *raison d'être* for the KT activity. Similar to other studies into knowledge hiding, this fact sometimes resulted in Expatriates developing strategies for not transferring knowledge (Al-Alawi et al. (2007); Skok and Tahir (2010)).

There was overwhelming agreement from the Expatriates and Nationals interviewed in Saudi Arabia and Qatar that the most important barrier to successful KT was an Expatriates' fear of losing their job as a result of transferring their knowledge and being replaced by a National. This supports the finding of Al Attar and Shaalan (2017) who found 28% of respondents to their survey said job insecurity was a barrier to knowledge transfer. Expatriates in Aerospace Inc, Chem Co and Gas Co are all recruited knowing they have a duty to transfer knowledge to Nationals but many fear to do so as they do not want to lose their job having committed to leaving their home country and moving their families. Typical interviewees talked about Expatriate sensitivity to Localisation; doing yourself out of a job; being fearful and reluctant to move to another company where they might be given a lower position or salary.

In Aerospace Inc, Chem Co and Gas Co there was a commitment by the companies to help Expatriates who are replaced by Nationals. In Qatar, this extends to the E&I sector Qatarisation plan: “Expatriates contributing to the plan are valued and their employment in the energy and industry sector will continue” (Hukoomi, 2015). However, this commitment is not believed by Expatriates or fully demonstrated by the companies. There was a ‘best endeavours’ approach in all three companies to find alternative roles but there was no guarantee. So, for Expatriates, the fear of losing their job, re-starting their career elsewhere, changing their lifestyle, uprooting their family with children in school, or diluting their long-term financial plans results in the Expatriate not being fully motivated or engaged in KT. As Rees et al. (2007:47) note in the UAE “... Expatriates could not be expected to embrace Emiratisation as it was ultimately aimed at removing them from the workforce.

Consequently, Expatriates avoid transferring knowledge; minimise the opportunities for Nationals to participate in activities; give Nationals non-jobs; slow the KT process to a minimum; or encourage the Nationals to seek opportunities elsewhere. From the interviews in Saudi Arabia and Qatar, it is possible to summarise the KT avoidance strategies used by Expatriates into three forms: Deter, Defer, Delay. Expatriates deter Nationals at the start of the KT process by telling them how difficult the job is with the expectation that they will give up and move to another role. Expatriates also defer the process by avoiding transferring knowledge with the promise of doing all the work for the National with the expectation that the National is shown not to be ready for the role. Finally, the Expatriates delay the KT process by sharing minimal knowledge with the National thereby slowing down the process with the expectation that the Qatari will become bored and move to another role.

The Expatriate Deter–Defer–Delay strategies found in this study mirrors some of the emergent research on knowledge hiding. Knowledge hiding is defined as “an intentional attempt by an individual to withhold or conceal knowledge that has been requested by another person” (Connelly et al., 2012:65) and reflects the territoriality reason for knowledge hiding proposed by Webster et al. (2008). But, it also appears to be novel and adding to the literature on knowledge hiding, in that these KT avoidance strategies have not been identified in previous studies in the GCC or elsewhere. Whilst previous studies show methods of hiding include playing dumb, evasion and rationalisation (Connolly 2012) the Deter–Defer–Delay strategies do not

match those strategies entirely. In this research, there was no evidence of Expatriates ever playing dumb or pleading knowledge ignorance, that would not be credible, but in deterring and deferring KT Expatriates do rationalise the reasons for not transferring knowledge. In delaying the KT they also adopt a partial KT strategy (Husted and Michailova (2002); Husted et al. (2012) rather than full-blown evasion, which would not survive long as a strategy in the GCC.

These Deter-Defer-Delay KT avoidance strategies might help Expatriates mitigate their job insecurities but they do not help the Nationals. It creates a level of distrust between the Expatriates and Nationals which supports the observations of Černe et al. (2014) and Serenko and Bontis (2016). Indeed, because Expatriates are giving the impression of doing their best to transfer knowledge, assessments by company leadership could give a false impression of the progress and success of KT. This false impression of KT success may occur because the company leadership assume that Expatriates are positively motivated to transfer knowledge and the process appears to be successful from an Expatriate perspective. However, given the effectiveness of Deter-Defer-Delay strategies, any failure in KT might therefore be wrongly attributed to Nationals (such as recruiting the wrong individuals, educational attainment, self-confidence, sense of entitlement and fear of failure). The Deter-Defer-Delay strategies could give a false impression of knowledge being transferred by Expatriates to Nationals but in reality the opposite is true. For practitioners, awareness of knowledge hiding by Expatriates, and in particular the Deter-Defer-Delay strategies, is important to ensure the correct policies are established and the correct review processes are implemented to constantly monitor KT, challenging both Expatriate and National progress and statements.

7.6. What are the key intrinsic factors of individual KT?

The fourth question in this research was what are the key intrinsic factors of individual KT? Intrinsic motivation is something that organisations cannot easily control. Managers find it difficult to influence intrinsic motivation as it is voluntary and includes such things as a commitment to the work itself, helping others, doing something meaningful, satisfying personal values (Bonache and Zárraga-Oberty (2008); Neve (2015)). In the GCC, the main intrinsic motivations of Nationals appear to be status and power (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014)) but in some research even these motivations are not enough to work in the private

sector (Mellahi (2007); Rees et al. (2007); Forstenlechner et al. (2012)). There appears to be little research into the intrinsic motivations of Expatriates.

7.6.1. Status and Ambition

A strong relationship between status, ambition and motivation in the KT process has been reported in the literature (Argote et al. (2003); Bratianu and Orzea (2010); Park (2011); Witherspoon et al. (2013)). However, in the GCC, status appears to be even more important for Nationals (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014); Riege (2005)). In his survey of Emirati and Saudi youths Lim (2014) found status to be one of the most important motivators. Similar findings were found by Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010); Forstenlechner (2008) and Forstenlechner and Rutledge (2010). As Al-Esia and Skok (2014:7) describe KT, it “seems to be used as a pawn or power card in order to achieve status and power”. This is sometimes known as the ‘mudir syndrome’, which is a concept of honour in work which means that only a position of authority, status and respect is acceptable (Champion (2003); Al-Asfour and Khan (2013)).

Status was an important factor in motivating Saudi Nationals to participate in KT. But, like extrinsic factors, KT was the means to an end; participating in KT did not provide status but a route to promotion and status. All of the interviewees agreed that status and seniority was a significant motivator for Saudis. In terms of a driver for KT to develop the necessary competencies and behaviours it was equal to or more important than money. Status included job title, office space and influence. However, contrary to the literature and findings in Aerospace Inc, status never directly arose as a motivating factor for Qataris in Chem Co or Gas Co. This is perhaps misleading because status is very much as the centre of who and what Qataris are. Indeed, whilst the word status may never have been mentioned it is inextricably linked to promotion and money for Qataris; linked to being a manager.

Having the title of manager and having a high salary is important to Qataris as these are symbols of status. It was also apparent from observations in both Chem Co and Gas Co that each Qatari had their own office. Unlike in Aerospace Inc where there were a greater proportion of open plan offices, in Qatar each National had their own spacious office. Having an office was a status symbol and this confirms the observations of Punshi and Jones (2016) on the importance of title and office space.

Therefore, for practitioners, it is important to recognise that for Saudi and Qatari Nationals status is important and that whilst not directly linked to KT, for it to be successful, the process and outcome needs to result in achievement of status. Practitioners should consider how to include status in the KT and Localisation, perhaps the use of the word manager (or assistant manager) in a job title instead of leader or supervisor would make a difference to a National.

Linked to status as an intrinsic motivator for KT was ambition; however, whilst there was some evidence of ambition for personal gain in Saudi Arabia and Qatar, Qatari Nationals in particular also had ambition for their country. Additionally, for Qataris it appears that ambition was also not just a personal motivator but was also driven from societal and family pressure to be seen to be contributing to Qatar's national vision; to be seen to be successful; and be seen to be a future leader. Western companies seeking to operate in Qatar need to consider how to address the ambition of individuals for themselves and for their country. The process of KT needs to be clearly linked to both, providing motivation for Nationals to demonstrate progress and success. However, whilst Qataris were positive about their own intrinsic motivation to participate in KT, they anecdotally described experiences of other Qataris who were less motivated to learn and share knowledge. The three most commonly described, but not self-attributed, barriers to KT amongst the Qataris were: a sense of entitlement, under-confidence and a fear of failure.

7.6.2. Sense of Entitlement

A sense of entitlement as a negative KT motivational factor has been reported by Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2010); Forstenlechner (2008); Forstenlechner and Rutledge (2010) and Mellahi (2007). It manifests itself in knowing that government policy is driving Localisation and that there is great competition in the private sector to recruit Nationals. There is a complacency in Nationals that they are entitled to a job and do not have to work hard for it. In both Saudi Arabia and Qatar a sense of entitlement in Nationals was seen as a barrier to successful KT. In both countries it was seemingly a result of the national visions, Localisation programmes, policies and culture. For example, the Qatar Public Works Authority, which is responsible for the planning and delivery of all infrastructure projects in Qatar, has a slogan on its hoardings throughout the country which says: "Qatar Deserves The Best" (Ashghal,

2016). In both Saudi Arabia and Qatar there is a great state dependency with many Nationals obtaining government funded or government subsidised utilities, education, health care and basic foodstuffs like oil and rice. This sense of entitlement was perhaps best illustrated by one Qatari female who had a surprising experience of having to pack her own supermarket shopping whilst in London.

In Saudi Arabia the national vision, Aerospace Inc behaviour, customer influence and individual experience has created an expectation in Nationals that they will be provided with a good job, high salary, rapid promotion and status. This has potentially resulted in some Nationals not believing they need to participate in KT and develop themselves because they will get what they rightly deserve. There was some evidence from managers that the sense of entitlement means Nationals feel they can just turn up and they will get promoted. Similarly, but potentially more exaggerated because of the population dynamics in Qatar, in Chem Co and Gas Co there was also some evidence that a sense of entitlement was an impediment to KT. It was considered that whilst Nationals are smart enough to engage in KT their motivation was tempered by anyone being able to a job, even if they do not know anything.

Although female Nationals were only interviewed in Qatar, and therefore there is no evidence from Saudi Arabia, there was some strong comments about male Qatari's sense of entitlement from Qatari females. They seemed to believe that Qatari males lived with a sense of entitlement and therefore did not work as hard to gain knowledge because they believed they would not get the rewards of recognition, promotion and status regardless of how much effort they put in. Practitioners need to consider how to mitigate the sense of entitlement Nationals have about employment, promotion and status to ensure they effectively engage in KT. One of the key issues for practitioners in Saudi Arabia will be with the employment of more females, addressing the issues experienced by females in Qatar, especially perceive unfairness or discrimination. Western companies and practitioners have an opportunity to bring western policies and practices to counter discrimination and this could be a discriminator. However, practitioners must be cautious about introducing Western policies into an Arabic culture – it could be counter-productive.

7.6.3. Under Confidence and Fear of Failure

Under confidence and a fear of failure was a theme which occurred in interviews in Chem Co and Gas Co but did not occur in the interviews in Aerospace Inc. In Qatar, Nationals were anecdotally described as under-confident in KT because they believed their English Language was too poor or their education was insufficient for them to comprehend the concepts being shared. However, from the interviews there was no impression of this, all of the Qataris spoke English well enough to be interviewed and discuss the concepts of KT. This was maybe because the interviewees were graduates and if non-graduates had been interviewed the evidence may have been supported the anecdotes.

In Qatar, linked to under-confidence was a perception that Qataris had a fear of failure. However, this may also be consider as perhaps a fear of a loss of respect and be equally applicable to Saudi Arabia. Chem Co and Gas Co interviewees again talked anecdotally, but referred to Qataris not engaging in KT so as to prolong training and avoid having to take on the responsibility of a permanent position. Particularly during training, in all case companies, there was a policy of blamelessness for Nationals. As several managers noted Nationals are not responsible for mistakes whilst under training and Nationals know that their managers will be blamed for what mistakes occur. This policy of blamelessness, which is similar to the need for blame free KT as described by Yeo and Marquardt (2015), helps to mitigate the Nationals fear of failure but it also perpetuates a self-belief that they are not ready to take responsibility, they are not good enough. It also allows those Nationals who choose not to participate in KT to absolve themselves of personal responsibility as they are blameless and it is always someone else's fault if they learn nothing and achieve little. Practitioners should seek ways to provide Nationals with confidence building activities during the KT process and encourage Expatriates to provide Nationals with opportunity to take safe responsibility.

7.6.4. Fear of Conflict

Expatriates have a fear of conflict; they are fearful of challenging Nationals and being direct with them. This is a result of the cultural difference between Expatriates and Nationals and the impact of *wasta* (Al-Alawi et al. (2007); Al-Busaidi et al. (2010); Bonache et al. (2016); Forstenlechner et al. (2012)). Expatriate fear of conflict was

mostly evident in Aerospace Inc where Expatriates spoke about the fear of saying or doing the wrong thing and thereby upsetting a Saudi. In Chem Co and Gas Co there was also some evidence of this fear in the Expatriate interviews, several spoke off the record about always having to tread carefully, being cautious of what they said and how they said it. In Chem Co and Gas Co more Expatriates did not want their interviews recorded compared to Aerospace Inc. This is perhaps an indication of their fear. Several Expatriates expressed the impact of their fear of undue National influence: people are reluctant to have open and difficult conversations with Nationals; you cannot discipline Nationals and the only way to protect yourself is to agree and document actions.

In Saudi Arabia and Qatar this Expatriate fear arises from two issues: respect and *wasta*. Arabs do not want to lose face; gaining and retaining respect is crucial. Previous studies have shown that KT across cultural boundaries creates additional challenges. “People’s willingness to ask questions that reveal their ‘ignorance’, disagree with others in public, contradict known experts, discuss their problems, follow others in the thread of conversation—all these behaviors vary greatly across cultures” (Wenger et al., 2002:118). It has also been noted that in collectivist societies offence leads to shame and loss of face; and hiring and promotion decisions take account of the employee’s in-group (Hofstede, 2001). Any criticism of their performance or capability is a loss of respect for Nationals. This loss of respect and upsetting a Saudi or Qatari with access to influence can have a terminal on an Expatriate’s career. As several Aerospace Inc Expatriates observed Nationals put great store in not losing face and if your relationship breaks down they can get you fired.

Being “PNG’d” was Aerospace Inc shorthand for receiving a letter stating that you were *Persona Non Grata* in Saudi Arabia – an unacceptable or unwelcome person in the country. Despite the Aerospace Inc mythology about being PNG’d in reality it appeared a rare event. Nevertheless, fear of conflict, upsetting a National and being PNG’d was a barrier to KT. Practitioners should therefore consider mitigation strategies such as providing Expatriates with training and coaching in having difficult conversations with Nationals; by providing safe escalation conflict escalation routes; no blame job swaps to separate individuals; and providing Nationals with senior National mentors who could provide more cultural aware guidance and context.

7.7. What are the key individual preferences for engaging in KT?

The fifth question in this research was what are the key individual preferences for engaging in KT? For Expatriates and Nationals there was a preference for one-to-one interaction, involvement and safe responsibility. This supports much of the literature on KT, in that it is related to human action (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995); requires hands-on learning, observation, dialogue and interactive problem solving (Riege, 2005); and experiential learning (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014); Goby et al. (2015)). Barriers to KT and knowledge stickiness have been shown to be overcome through interaction between the sender and receiver; through personalised communication; receiver observation of the knowledge in use; and receiver practice (Szulanski et al., 2016). Through interaction the sender can provide their own perspective and implicit rules and assumptions and better externalise their tacit knowledge (Nonaka (1994); Riusala and Smale (2007)). Personal communication better enables KT because it permits selective articulation, flexibility of format and customisation (Alavi and Leidner (2001); (Szulanski et al., 2016)).

7.7.1. Interaction and Involvement

In Saudi Arabia and Qatar the KT activity preference of both Expatriates and Nationals was for one-to-one interaction in a workplace setting. It was about developing a personal relationship. Knowledge was considered best transferred through working together so know-how and nuance could be shared, even if this was just a matter of the National sitting next to the Expatriate and observing. As interviewees in Saudi Arabia and Qatar commented KT needs to be done on a personal level, through face-to-face conversations or job shadowing. This supports the finding of both the general and GCC specific KT literature.

Practitioners should consider how best to enable personal relationship building and facilitate one-to-one interaction in Saudi Arabia and Qatar which might include cultural awareness training for both Expatriates and Nationals. Perhaps the most important action practitioners could take is allied to a barrier mentioned earlier: time. One-to-one interaction is a time-consuming activity and unless Expatriates are provided with sufficient spare capacity and time to transfer knowledge then the results will always be less than satisfactory for the Expatriate and frustrating for the National.

Closely related to one-to-one interaction was a preference expressed by Nationals for involvement. Successful KT was seen not just to be a conversation or show-and-tell, but practical involvement in all aspects of the work. Nationals wanted to be invited to meetings, be included on emails and be given projects to complete. They wanted to be immersed in everything, learn how to behave as much as learn what to do. Like involvement, a preference was expressed by most National interviewees to take some level of responsibility for tasks or projects. There was common agreement amongst many interviewees though that responsibility should be undertaken in a safe manner – in a non-blameworthy environment. Whilst this could be seen as an extension of involvement, it was something more specific, allied to under-confidence, Nationals wanted to be involved but free from a loss of face and fear of failure. When Saudi and Qataris are undergoing training or development it was policy in all companies for the individual not to be blamed or any mistakes made – any mistakes were the responsibility of the Expatriate supervisor or manager. This also helped with the fear of failure and need to maintain ‘face’.

Trainees in particular said they enjoyed taking ‘safe’ responsibility – where they understood the task thoroughly, felt supported by their manager and were given positive encouragement. However, there is also a risk with this approach in that the National never truly takes accountability and can sometimes prolong training to avoid taking responsibility. Some managers recommended that a balance is needed to be struck between treating them differently because they were a National and treating them like any other member of the team. Therefore, practitioners should seek to ensure that the process of KT is not just a show and tell, but ensure companies accept and provide opportunities for Nationals to be involved as much as possible in all aspects of the business and provided with opportunities to take safe responsibility.

7.7.2. Culture

It has been argued by many authors that culture is a significant barrier to KT (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Alhussain and Bixler (2011); Inkpen and Tsang (2005); Mowery et al. (1996); Wenger et al. (2002)). Prior studies have noted that organisational culture can affect KT both positively and negatively (Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Alrawi et al. (2013); Ewers (2013)) and that the cultural distance between Expatriates and Nationals, their work ethics and mutual stereotyping also impacts KT

(Forstenlechner (2009); Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner (2014); Rees et al. (2007)). Cultural stereotyping can be two-way; Nationals can negatively stereotype Expatriates and vice-versa. National stereotyping of Expatriates by Nationals was based on the Expatriate's nationality as well as their perceived performance. It resulted in the exclusion of Expatriates from National's in-groups; lower levels of performance; increased cultural distance (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Bonache et al. (2016)). KT was also inhibited due to heavy cultural emphasis on 'wasta', status, power and strong social networks and informal communications, all of which are difficult to achieve with Expatriates (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Yeo and Marquardt (2015)).

Whether unconsciously or otherwise, it was evident from the interviews in Saudi Arabia and Qatar that one of the most important barriers to KT was cultural stereotyping. In both countries, and in all case companies, it was apparent and accepted that Expatriates and Nationals have significantly different cultures. However, despite this mutual recognition it still manifested itself in preconceptions, misconceptions and bias towards the KT which practitioners and leaders seemed to be unable to mitigate. This supports much of the previous studies into GCC KT (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Bonache et al. (2016); Yeo and Marquardt (2015)). Whilst a positive company culture was one of the enablers to KT, differences in the culture between individual Qataris and Expatriates were considered a barrier. Whilst no interviewees reported specific issues resulting from individual cultural differences, many spoke anecdotally of real or perceived attitudes and behaviours preventing genuine social engagement and KT. From a Qatari National perspective the comments centred mainly on Expatriates' pre-conceived ideas such as Nationals being lazy, unmotivated, rich, status conscious which reflect previous studies to include skills and competencies, work ethics, cultural disposition, and perceived effectiveness of the process (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner, 2010). But, as some Qataris pertinently observed, you cannot just generalise. Similar, whilst some of these views did arise in interviews, particularly in Aerospace Inc, it was also recognised by some Expatriates that these views were a generalisation and that a significant difference can be found in Saudis, for instance, who have travelled outside of the country and exposed to Western culture and that:

“As a general rule young Saudis, they get a pretty bad rap. In some cases it actually deserved but there are those that are our world-class.”¹⁶³

In Qatar, discussing cultural stereotypes was sensitive. From an Expatriate perspective there was a general cautiousness; few were willing to talk openly. Those that did said they found Qataris who had been educated in American or European universities to be the easiest to work with. There is some evidence that GCC nationals educated outside of the GCC are more inclined to work in the private sector and that eliminating some of the nepotism (through *wasta*) would also increase participation. In addition to governments providing the education and orientation for Nationals to make them ready for the private sectors; organisations and individuals also have a role to play (Albayrakoglu, 2010).

Indeed, Qatar is not an easy place for Expatriates to work, in 2015 Qatar ranked 34th out of 39 countries for Expatriate experience due to tolerance for diversity and the lack of integration with the local culture (HSBC, 2015). Similarly, Qataris have an extremely hierarchical culture, including the dominance of certain tribes and families within tribes. There is also the perceived relative importance of non-Qataris: skilled Westerners; Arabs from other countries; with the lowest position occupied by the Asians (with Indians placed slightly higher than the Bangladeshis and Sri Lankans) (Malecki and Ewers, 2007). Similar to the recommendation of Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011), Western company practitioners need to focus their efforts in addressing the cultural stereotyping and cultural distance between Expatriates and Nationals in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. This could be informally through social engagement or formally through specific cultural awareness training. However, it should be recognised that this topic amongst all the factors is perhaps the most challenge to change.

It is appropriate here to briefly discuss the topic of trust. In previous GCC studies trust was one of the most important factors affecting KT (Al-Adaileh and Al-Atawi (2011); Al-Alawi et al. (2007); Ahmad and Daghfous (2010); Seba et al. (2012); Youssef et al. (2017)). It is also central to much other KT research (Bratianu and Orzea (2010); Ismail (2015); Park et al. (2014); Witherspoon et al. (2013)). However, contrary to the literature, trust as a factor was never mentioned in Aerospace Inc, Chem Co or Gas

¹⁶³ Expatriate Commercial Manager 2, Aerospace Inc

Co. There could be a number of reasons for this. Firstly, it was not considered an important factor by the interviewees, where Nationals had no reason not to trust Expatriates. Secondly, it was implicit in some of the other concepts discussed such as fear of conflict, *wasta*, job insecurity. Thirdly, it was not mentioned by Nationals because it was impolite and socially unacceptable to say they did not trust their Expatriate colleague and for Expatriates, there was distrust but it was just left unsaid. Nevertheless, this contradiction with the literature merits investigation in future research.

7.8. Summary

In this chapter, I discussed the findings which emerged from the case studies. Firstly, the chapter summarised the findings in relation to the research questions. Secondly, it discussed the strategic context for KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar which was Localisation resulting from a need for a diversified economy and employment for a youthful population. However, there were different Localisation drivers which practitioners need to consider when developing KT policies and processes. The chapter continued by discussing what the case companies do to facilitate KT in response to their strategic context, including: recruitment and training policies; company culture and leadership. It was argued that there were different qualities shown by the Western leadership in Aerospace Inc and the Qatari leadership in Chem Co and Gas Co with regards to demonstrating a commitment to KT. Western leaders should consider adapting their style and behaviour to more closely align with Arabic practices.

The chapter discussed the key extrinsic factors of individual KT suggesting these were mainly money and recognition for Nationals but that for Expatriates job insecurity led to hiding knowledge through a Deter-Deter-Delay strategy. It also suggested that intrinsic motivation was centred on status and ambition for Nationals but that was moderated by a sense of entitlement and under-confidence. For Expatriates, no positive motivating factors were found but a fear of conflict was highlighted as possibly preventing effective KT transfer to Nationals. This was exacerbated for both Expatriates and Nationals by their cultural distance. Nevertheless, despite this cultural distance it was reported that one-to-one interaction, involvement and safe responsibility were the preferred modes for KT.

The next chapter provides a conclusion to the thesis.

8. CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSION

8.1. Introduction

Understanding the factors which influence KT between Expatriates and Nationals in the GCC remains highly relevant to practitioners. As Starr and Garg (2017) note in their assessment of current aerospace and defence trends: “Evolving from an export and transactional business model to a “localization” approach requires defense companies to improve some of their skills and develop new ones”. In the previous chapter I discussed the findings from the case studies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar which highlighted several areas for improvement.

In this final chapter, I present the conclusions from my DBA research. Section Two provides a short overview of the research and a brief summary of my findings. Section Three describes the research contribution to practice whilst Section Four presents the contribution to theory. Section Five presents a review and revision of the conceptual framework. Section Six provides reflections on the research process whilst the final section describes the limitations of this research and directions for future research.

8.2. Research Overview

This study explored KT between Expatriates and Nationals in Saudi Arabia and Qatar to provide a greater understanding for my Sponsor Company, Aerospace MNC, and practitioners in general, seeking to respond to the strategic context of Localisation and grow their businesses in the GCC. It was an important question to answer because the business opportunity for Aerospace MNC (and other companies) in Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the remainder of the region is multi-billion pound but highly competitive. The opportunity also comes with the need to support Localisation and the employment of Nationals; demonstrating commitment and delivery of KT in support of Localisation was a prerequisite for most contracts. The findings from this research could therefore have the potential to make significant improvement to practices and business winning. A summary of the research objectives and their attainment is provided in Table 8-1.

Research Objectives	Outcome		
To explore the strategic context for KT in the GCC	Saudisation and Qatarisation provide the socio-economic diversification and youth employment (although youth employment challenge differs) context		
To identify the key factors that influence KT from Expatriates to Nationals in Saudi Arabia and Qatar	Organisation	Organisational Culture Leadership commitment, time and recognition	
	Extrinsic Motivation	Positive: Money Recognition	Negative: Expatriate Job Insecurity
	Intrinsic Motivation	Positive: Ambition Self-Fulfilment	Negative: Sense of Entitlement Under confidence (fear of failure) Fear of conflict (Wasta)
	Social Engagement	One-to-one engagement Involvement Safe responsibility Cultural stereotyping	
To create practitioner guidelines for Aerospace MNC to improve KT in Qatar and Saudi Arabia	Practitioner guidelines created for Aerospace MNC to improve: external and internal Localisation and KT processes; leadership practices; extrinsic and intrinsic motivators for Expatriates and Nationals.		
To contribute to the academic literature on intra-organisational KT in the GCC	Comprehensive and consolidated review of GCC KT and Localisation literature Two new GCC KT case studies, especially in Qatar Expanded knowledge hiding with Expatriate Deter-Defer-Delay strategies Updated conceptual framework		

Table 8-1. Summary of Research Objective Attainment

From an academic perspective, my research also makes an original and substantial addition to knowledge. Drawing from Petre and Rugg (2010:14), it provides “a re-contextualization of an existing model” by showing its applicability to a new situation and it has shown how a theoretical principle “can be applied in practice... and what its limitations are”. However, these should not be considered too bold a statement. My research has been primarily concerned with answering a business question from Aerospace MNC. The findings of the study are limited to only two countries in the GCC and the findings do not imply that all Expatriates, Nationals, or companies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar have the same issues. For instance, my findings should not be taken as evidence for widespread Expatriate knowledge hiding; that all Nationals are motivated by status and money and that cultural distance occurs in all workplaces. Nevertheless, within the bounds of this practitioner-researcher led, business focused exploratory study it has met Aerospace MNC’s and The University of Manchester’s requirements.

8.3. Contribution to Practice

This research was sponsored by my company to address a real business issue. Aerospace MNC was seeking to grow its business in Qatar and therefore wanted to understand the context and factors involved in KT between Expatriate and Nationals, what practices might be transferable from Saudi Arabia, and as a secondary need, what improvement opportunities might exist in its current Saudi Arabian practices. Therefore, the contribution to practice is naturally focussed on Aerospace MNC, which is the parent company of Aerospace Inc, but the findings of this research provide several important recommendations for practitioners in Aerospace MNC, Aerospace Inc and other companies in general. Practitioner guidelines (a piece of advice) for Aerospace MNC to consider when adapting and developing policies for Qatar or other GCC countries, and Aerospace Inc in Saudi Arabia have been provided in Table 8-2.

Firstly, there are several effective practices that Aerospace MNC should adopt and adapt from Aerospace Inc and transfer to Qatar. These include early and broad engagement with the wider Qatari educational community. It was evident in both Saudi Arabia and Qatar that all the case companies invested in reaching out to potential National employees and sponsoring education events. Aerospace MNC

Revised Conceptual Framework	Practitioner Guidelines <i>(Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc in italics)</i>
Strategic Context	<p>Develop policies which treat the ability to deliver KT as part of Localisation as a differentiator <i>Revise and review MNC Operational Framework, Industrialisation Strategy, Capture Manager directives and Bid Review processes to ensure that Localisation and KT are considered customer Hot Buttons and prioritised as a key differentiator.</i></p> <p><i>Business Development practitioners should revise the Capture Management stakeholder processes to include a specific action to identify the key government and customer individuals with Industrial responsibility or influence.</i></p> <p><i>Business Development practitioners should revise the Capture Management stakeholder processes to include a specific action to develop and deliver key messages on Industrialisation and KT.</i></p> <p><i>Procurement practitioners should ensure sub-contracts placed on the supply chain include a commitment to support Localisation and KT.</i></p> <p><i>Commercial practitioners should ensure contracts with joint venture partners include the appropriate commitment from National partners to engage in and promote KT.</i></p> <p><i>HR practitioners should create training and career pathways to develop competent and experienced Localisation and KT transfer professionals.</i></p>
	<p>Develop external stakeholder strategies which influence national education and training policies <i>Business Development practitioners should revise the Capture Management stakeholder processes to include a specific action to identify the key government and customer individuals with responsibility or influence on national education and training policy.</i></p> <p><i>HR practitioners should, for each country, undertake a Nationals skills gap analysis against the Localisation requirement and develop a KT strategy to be used as part of the influencing strategy to develop appropriately skilled and motivated Nationals.</i></p> <p><i>Communications practitioners should identify the key media outlets and produce draft template 'press notices' to support influencing strategy.</i></p>
	<p>Engage with schools and universities early as part of an integrated attraction and recruitment campaign <i>Business Development practitioners should revise the Capture Management stakeholder processes to include a specific action to identify the key schools and university staff for engagement activities.</i></p>

Revised Conceptual Framework	Practitioner Guidelines <i>(Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc in italics)</i>
	<p><i>HR practitioners should develop country specific attraction and recruitment campaigns which include science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) workshops; sponsorship of competitions and prizes; and engagement of universities staff and students.</i></p> <p><i>HR practitioners should include in a budget in joint ventures for sponsoring Nationals to attend Western universities.</i></p> <p><i>Functional managers should identify, develop and earmark individuals capable and willing to participate in school and university engagements either as STEM Ambassadors or mentors.</i></p>
Cultural Distance	<p>Develop integrated policies and processes which sets the right tone and the right culture for KT</p> <p><i>HR practitioners should develop country specific reward, recognition and training policies which establishes the context for KT, expected behaviours and Expatriate-National relationships. These policies need to recognise cultural distance but not favour one individual over another. The policies need to be transparent and fair.</i></p>
	<p>Develop programmes which provide opportunities for Nationals to experience Western culture, particularly through secondments to Western parent companies</p> <p><i>HR practitioners should develop programmes and budgets, as part of the MNC and Inc training and continuous professional development policies, to provide Nationals with opportunities to work in Europe and the US.</i></p> <p><i>Functional managers should introduce as part of the personal development review process a specific requirement to identify Nationals with the potential, attitude and competencies to benefit from international secondment.</i></p> <p><i>Functional managers should also produce a list of suitable international development roles.</i></p>
	<p>Provide Expatriates with culturally awareness and one-to-one interpersonal skills training</p> <p><i>HR practitioners should undertake a review of current cultural awareness training and decide if optional online training is suitable pre-departure preparation.</i></p> <p><i>HR practitioners should review the opportunity for and cost of more formal initial and follow-up cultural awareness training. A follow-up should be undertaken 12 months into an international assignment to refresh behaviours and address any issues arising from practical experience.</i></p> <p><i>HR practitioners should undertake an assessment of an Expatriates suitability to engage in KT with Nationals and conduct one-to-one interpersonal skills training to improve Expatriate expectations, behaviours and success rate.</i></p>

Revised Conceptual Framework	Practitioner Guidelines <i>(Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc in italics)</i>
	<i>Functional managers should introduce as part of the personal development review process a specific requirement to identify Expatriates with the potential, willingness and competencies to undertake KT roles. These individuals should be tagged on the Personal Systems, alongside their Overseas Preference marker.</i>
Extrinsic Motivation	<p>Publicise Localisation strategy and benefits to Nationals and Expatriates</p> <p><i>Leaders should publicise and visibly demonstrate, internally and externally, their commitment to Localisation and KT.</i></p> <p><i>Leaders should ensure sufficient time is allocated in their diaries to promote and support KT.</i></p> <p><i>Leaders should champion KT through deeds and words, both internally and externally. Make KT a standard agenda item at all Town Hall meetings.</i></p> <p><i>Functional managers should adapt and communicate the Localisation strategy for their specific areas and undertake workshops with their teams to sell the benefits and help solve local challenges</i></p>
	<p>Adopt KT review processes which seek out Expatriate deter-defer-delay KT avoidance strategies</p> <p><i>Functional managers should include Expatriate KT performance as part of the annual performance development process and set it as a key performance indicator.</i></p> <p><i>HR practitioners should introduce a mandatory performance development review criteria for KT. They should also provide functional managers with advice and training on how to identify and resolve KT avoidance strategies.</i></p>
	<p>Introduce strategies for balancing operational pressures by creating time for KT</p> <p><i>Leaders should provide time for KT. Appropriate focus on KT and its impact on quality, schedule and cost should be provided during the Contract Statue Review process.</i></p> <p><i>Functional managers should ensure that project schedules include an appropriate KT float and allowance is made for Nationals learning.</i></p>
	<p>Champion, commit funds and effectively resource to KT</p> <p><i>Leader should demonstrate commitment to KT by identifying and visibly allocating appropriate money and resources.</i></p> <p><i>Functional managers should ensure that project budgets include an appropriate KT float and allowance is made for Nationals learning.</i></p>

Revised Conceptual Framework	Practitioner Guidelines <i>(Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc in italics)</i>
	<p>Provide transparency on Localisation and the KT process and ensure policies are fair to both Nationals and Expatriates <i>HR practitioners should publish and publicise Localisation and KT policies.</i></p> <p>Make greater efforts to recognise and reward Expatriates and Nationals for successful KT <i>Leaders should recognise and reward Expatriates and Nationals equally for successful KT</i> <i>HR practitioners should introduce a formal award for KT, one which recognises the joint effort of the Expatriate and National</i></p>
Intrinsic Motivation	<p>Ensure that Nationals benefits packages reflect local expectations and competition <i>HR practitioners should review the MNC policies on grades and benefits package, adapting them to reflect specific country, cultural, recruitment and retention needs. An MNC wide policy based on the Towers Watson Global Grading System may not meet Nationals expectations or requirements and demotivate them.</i></p> <p>Assign an appropriate National job title, with high level of status. <i>HR practitioners should review the MNC policies on grades and job titles, adapting them to reflect specific cultural needs. Whilst the MNC links the title of Director to a specific grade, this link does not hold in other companies or countries. Flexible towards job title and recognising the needs of Nationals for status should be considered.</i></p> <p>Introduce strategies for minimising the impact (perceived or real) of Wasta on Nationals attitude and intrinsic motivations <i>Expatriate and National Leaders should visibly recognise and reward performance rather than patronage when dealing with Nationals</i> <i>Expatriate Leaders should demonstrate greater independence from customer influence on their strategic and operational decision making.</i> <i>HR practitioners should develop and publicise reward, recognition and review processes which transparently demonstrate a commitment to performance.</i></p> <p>Provide Expatriates with training and confidence to have difficult conversations with Nationals <i>Expatriate Leaders should demonstrate their willingness to have difficult conversations with Nationals. They should also provide Expatriates with a route to safe escalation.</i> <i>National Leaders should provide Expatriates with mentoring and coaching on how to discuss Nationals' performance shortfalls without creating confrontation or face-loss.</i></p>

Revised Conceptual Framework	Practitioner Guidelines <i>(Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc in italics)</i>
	<i>HR practitioners should provide Expatriates with specific guidance and training on National performance reviews.</i>
Social Interaction	Attract and recruit Nationals with the right behaviours and values aligned to the company <i>HR practitioners should develop a set of questions and tasks to be used during the recruitment and assessment centre process which provides an opportunity for Nationals to demonstrate their behaviours to better understand their fit with MNC values.</i>
	Select Expatriates for their ability and willingness to engage in KT <i>Functional managers should, through the functional review process, recommend individuals for secondment based on their performance as coaches and track-record of KT in the UK as well as their ability to perform a specific task. HR practitioners should review all secondment recommendations for coaching capability and hold formal assessment centres.</i>
	Develop training and personal development programmes which incorporate National confidence building opportunities <i>Functional managers should identify projects and opportunities for Nationals to take safe responsibility and encourage Expatriates to involve and delegate to Nationals. HR practitioners should include in the training and development policies opportunities for and recognition of individual mini-project work.</i>
	Organise and physically structure to promote KT by having more open plan office space and the ability for employees to work collaboratively <i>Functional managers should organise their departments to maximise open plan working, turning individual offices into meeting rooms; creating casual break-out areas; providing sufficient space for social interaction (over coffee). Functional managers should create project teams which foster collaboration through targeted objective setting</i>

Table 8-2. Practitioner Guidelines

should invest early in engaging with local universities; sponsoring educational events and competitions; and supporting Qatar government Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics initiatives through deployment of parent company ambassadors in Qatar. In this way, Aerospace MNC can establish a presence in Qatar prior to any contract award and build its reputation in supporting the QNV 2030 and Localisation through education. It will also aid future recruitment having a brand presence.

Secondly, another good practice that Aerospace MNC should transfer from Aerospace Inc is the highly structured training programme which includes undergraduate, postgraduate and professional qualifications sponsorship. Practitioners need to adapt and, potentially increase, these opportunities in Qatar as Western education and qualification is highly regarded and highly desirable. It could be a differentiator for practitioners in Aerospace MNC to be able to link existing home nation university and professional body relationships with similar Qatar institutions. It would also be a key differentiator for Aerospace MNC to be able to transfer to Qatar the opportunity for Nationals to undertake secondments in MNC to increase their cultural awareness and broader understanding of the company. This was not evident in the Qatar case companies, and they too would benefit from such a secondment opportunity with their joint venture partners.

In addition to the transfer of good practice from Saudi to Qatar, there are also some broad recommendations for practitioners in both Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc which would improve KT between Expatriates and Nationals and, therefore increase the chance of Localisation success. Both organisations, and indeed other Western aerospace and defence companies, should treat the ability to deliver KT to Nationals as the cornerstone of their strategy to achieve SCA. Practitioners should not treat Localisation as a numbers game. To achieve SCA in Qatar (and Saudi Arabia) practitioners should create and maintain difficult to imitate, unique KT capabilities. A key policy priority for Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc should therefore be to recruit the right National for the right reasons – not just tick boxes.

Effectively supporting Localisation and being good at KT could be a key differentiator for Aerospace MNC in Qatar but this requires company-wide organisational commitment and process change. Aerospace MNC in Qatar and Aerospace Inc in

Saudi Arabia need to be organised and physically structured to promote KT. Practitioners should review organisational structures to ensure Nationals have more senior, experienced Nationals in their hierarchy or available as mentors to provide culturally sensitive guidance or admonishment, to avoid the issue of wasta and Expatriate fears. Practitioners should ensure that office spaces are open plan to facilitate better group integration and breakdown the cultural barriers.

In addition to transferring or managing KT polices and processes in Qatar, Aerospace MNC practitioners should focus on an integrated process that includes: early and broad Nationals engagement, recruitment, training and retention which set the right tone and the right culture. Moreover, this is not to enforce either a Western or an Arabic culture, or even Aerospace MNC's global values, but an appropriate mix to achieve the right results. Taken together, these findings support a strong recommendation to ensure appropriate polices, processes and support for KT are reviewed and revised as a priority for Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc. This should be done by using the revised framework discussed in Section 8.5. The revised framework provides practitioners with a model against which they can ensure they have an integrated set of processes covering external strategic environment, cultural distance, intrinsic motivations, extrinsic motivation and social interaction/engagement opportunities to deliver the best possible KT outcome.

Another strong recommendation for Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc is that leaders and practitioners should show true commitment and set the right tone to enable KT. Leaders should commit funds and devote time and resource to KT in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. In the GCC, which has a strong hierarchical cultural, it is perhaps more vital than in Western companies for both Expatriate and National leaders to set an example. This is not just in words but also in deeds. Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc leaders should review policies and ensure they recognise the individual barriers to KT such as: sense of entitlement, self-doubt or job insecurity and not just apply their own values. Leaders and practitioners should display behaviours and develop policies to engender the right culture, trust and transparency. In both Qatar and Saudi Arabia, leaders need to ensure greater effort is made to recognise and reward Expatriates and Nationals for successful KT, not just Nationals. Specifically, in Saudi Arabia, leaders in Aerospace Inc should reflect upon how operational pressure impacts KT, it is recommended that they should create both time and space for KT.

A further recommendation is that Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc need to select Nationals with the right behaviours and values better aligned to the company, rather than just educational qualifications, or worse, patronage or customer enforced. Nationals do not have the same values as Expatriates or the MNC. They have strong extrinsic motivation for rewards and incentives and are used to larger and broader benefits packages than Expatriates or the MNC corporate, global policy. This research suggests that Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc should better adapt corporate policies to reflect Nationals expectations.

Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc should also review their policies for selecting and recruiting Expatriates; it should not be just based on can they do the job and are they willing to relocate, but can they transfer knowledge. Expatriates should be selected and trained to be more culturally aware, with strong one-to-one interpersonal skills; and the ability to develop relationships with Nationals; and be willing to share knowledge. An important practical implication of this is that it may take longer or be more expensive to find the right Expatriate, but in terms of KT this effort will bear fruit. It will also make for a more satisfied Expatriate workforce and make Expatriate adjustment easier. Whilst Expatriates know they are subject to Localisation and have a responsibility to participate in KT, some Expatriates remain in denial. Practitioners should recognise this individual reality and develop policies to ensure Expatriates are constantly reminded of their responsibilities through their personal development reviews.

The most significant barrier to an Expatriates engaging with KT was the fear of losing their job and adopting deter-defer-delay KT avoidance strategies. This was found in both Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Therefore, practitioners should be aware of the potential false impressions that may be given by Expatriates, their knowledge hiding strategies, and ensure that reviews are rigorous enough to deal with the issues. A reasonable approach for Aerospace MNC and Aerospace Inc to tackle this issue would be to improve the dissemination of Localisation policy; more publicly demonstrating the benefits of KT to Expatriates; and that KT success can lead to greater longevity in country.

8.4. Contribution to Theory

This research has been exploratory and primarily concerned with understanding the context and individual factors involved in KT from Expatriates to Nationals in two cases in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Notwithstanding the exploratory nature of this study, the findings offer some insights into KT and it makes three main contributions to the current theory and literature.

Firstly, the study has been one of the initial attempts to investigate KT between Expatriates and Nationals in private companies in Qatar and an aerospace company in Saudi Arabia. It also appears to be the first study to investigate and compare the experience of Expatriates and Nationals in two different GCC countries. Before this study, evidence of KT in Qatar was particularly scarce and there is limited literature on KT in the GCC in general (Ribiere and Zhang (2010), Wang and Noe (2010)). What exists is mainly quantitative, based on surveys of Nationals and focussed at an organisational or government policy level. This qualitative research has taken up the challenge of researchers to provide greater contextualisation of KT between companies and individuals, and do so in the GCC.

Secondly, the contribution of this study has been to confirm the existing KT literature in the context of the GCC but also extend it with evidence of Expatriates' knowledge hiding, an emerging KT theme. The findings support the extant literature on importance of organisational culture, leadership commitment, the motivations of the sender and receiver, and their relationships in the process of KT. But, it provides a GCC specific context and corroborates the findings of other GCC researchers who found that intrinsic motivation and the cultural biases of the senders and receivers were more important factors than the organisation or leadership (Al-Esia and Skok (2014); Gonzalez and Chakraborty (2014); Yeo and Marquardt (2015)). It supports previous findings that attitudes, expectations and sense of entitlement were important National motivations; whilst revealing that for Expatriates the main negative motivation was job insecurity. The analysis of KT in this research has extended our knowledge of Expatriate motivation and the identification of the deter-defer-delay strategies will be of interest to future researchers and practitioners.

Thirdly, this practitioner-led research has made a contribution to KT by conducting a qualitative field study using semi-structured interviews; practitioner-led and field

studies are noted by researchers as being in decline and largely absent from recent literature (Serenko et al. (2010); Fteimi and Lehner (2015)). It has been undertaken at the individual level as called for by several researchers (Barney and Felin (2013); Volberda et al. (2010)). It used a theoretical framework that had been developed for investigating the microfoundations of KT in a European country and was operationalised for use in the GCC. This research has highlighted some of the difficulties in undertaking field studies in the GCC (access, confidentiality and socially acceptable answers), provided some examples of how these can be overcome (cultural awareness training and confidentiality agreements). It has also proposed an updated conceptual framework (developed from Minbaeva et al. (2012)) which incorporates the finding of this research to a framework which can be used by researchers to investigate the individual factors of KT in non-Western contexts where different cultures are involved in the KT process.

8.5. Conceptual Framework

In Chapter 4, the reasons for selecting the Minbaeva et al. (2012) conceptual framework were described. It was considered the most appropriate, as there was not one 'perfect' qualitative, individually focussed, GCC road-tested framework, and it met all of my selection criteria. Its focus was on intra-organisational and individual level KT; and it was a simple model that would be relatively easy to operationalise for the GCC context. It also had the advantage of addressing some of the potential areas for future research identified from the literature review. However, given its operationalisation, road-test in the GCC, and the individual KT factors identified, the original conceptual framework (Figure 8-1) has some strengths and weaknesses which are summarised in Table 8-3.

In reviewing the strengths and weaknesses of the original conceptual framework there are two amendments which should be made to make the framework useful for practitioners in the GCC and future research. The missing elements are the strategic context and cultural distance within which KT occurs. From this research there is a need to reflect the impact of the GCC Localisation context on KT and the impact of the cultural differences between the Expatriates and Nationals. This research also suggests that the simplicity of the original conceptual frameworks' relationships from perceived organisational commitment, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and social interaction is more complex in an environment other than

Strengths		Weaknesses	
Academic	Practitioner	Academic	Practitioner
Addresses intra-organisational KT	It is a simple concept and construct to understand	Quantitative operationalisation in original use	Too simple and does not reflect the complex inter-dependencies
Focuses at an individual level	Practitioners can investigate each 'box'	Deployed only in one country - Denmark	Focus on an individual's perceived organisational commitment to KT reduces importance of Leadership
Focuses on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation	Policies and process can be easily created to address each 'box'	Does not address cultural issues	Does not address the cultural issues found in multinational businesses
It is a simple concept and construct to understand		Does not address the external strategic environment	Does not address the wider strategic context & influences on KT
Easy to operationalise		It does not address what type of knowledge is being transferred	

Table 8-3. Strengths and Weaknesses of Original Conceptual Framework

Denmark. Strategic context and cultural distance have a multifaceted impact on individual intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and social interaction which subsequently impacts the effectiveness of KT across the Expatriate-National group boundaries. Therefore, the conceptual framework has been revised as shown in Figure 8-2

Practitioners may find this revised framework useful, alongside the generic practitioner guidelines, in the development and adaptation of KT policies and procedures. Aerospace Inc practitioners are currently reviewing the framework against their existing operating model to identify any potential gaps or previously unconsidered relationships. The revised framework could be used to ensure that an integrated set of policies and procedures were developed and none of the individual elements are missing. Practitioners would also gain insight from understanding that

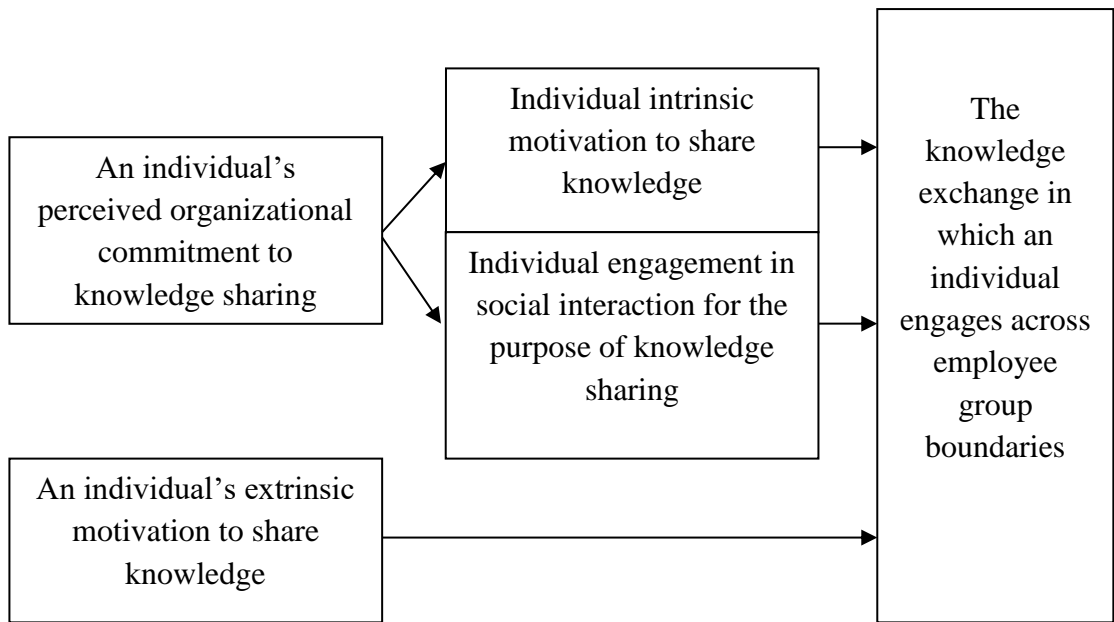


Figure 8-1. Original Conceptual Framework
(Adapted from Minbaeva et al. (2012))

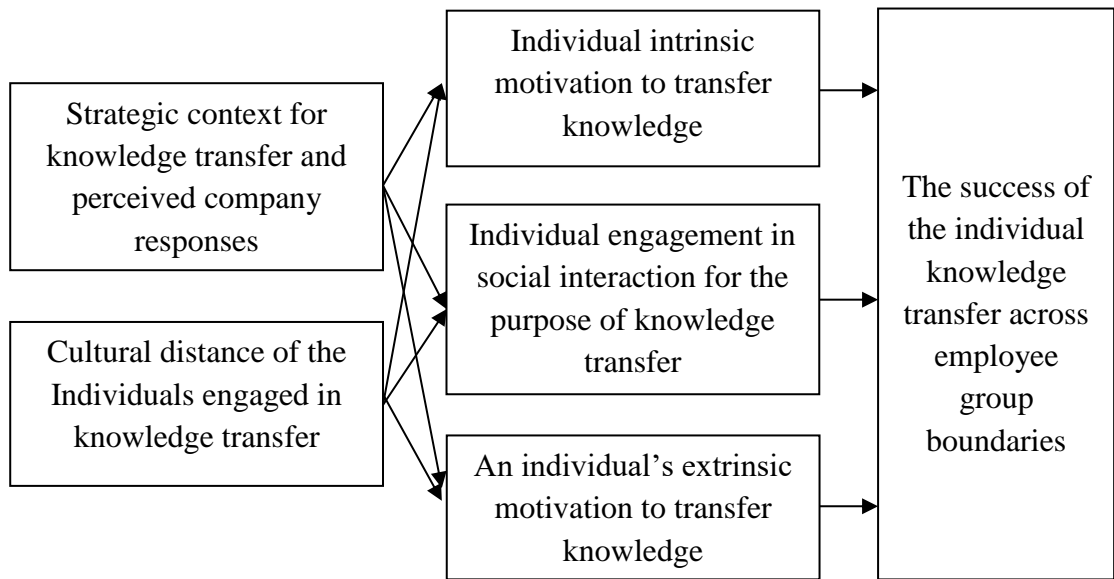


Figure 8-2. Revised Conceptual Framework

they need to place appropriate importance on the strategic and cultural context as they both affect intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and social interaction for KT. Practitioners can also use the framework to ensure they are placing the appropriate emphasis on Expatriate and National motivation and engagement. However, the

framework is not static or proposing there is equal balance between the elements. For instance, the strategic environments and Localisation drivers are different in Saudi Arabia and Qatar. Whilst the intrinsic motivation of Nationals is similar, there are some subtle differences and preferences between Saudis and Qataris. Therefore, practitioners should not consider the framework a balanced, one-size fits solution. Practitioners should use the revised framework to understand what is important in their particular context and adjust practice accordingly. Similar to practitioners, researchers would also benefit from using this revised conceptual framework as described in Section 8.7. To assist this, based on the practitioner-researcher experience from application in the field, potential operationalisation of the revised conceptual framework is provided in Table 8-4.

8.6. Reflections

8.6.1. The Practitioner-Researcher

In Chapter 1, I discussed the concept of reflective practice and the practitioner-researcher. A reflective practitioner is someone who consciously reflects, draws upon theory and relates it to practice as part of a process of learning and improvement. The expectations of The University of Manchester on completing a DBA is that a practitioner will have gained the strengths of reflection; analysis; knowledge of current business models and theories; and the ability to put these into practice in a real world. I believe through this research I have obtained these capabilities.

My motivation for undertaking this activity was to obtain a deeper understanding of the factors which affect KT in the GCC to provide personal and professional development, and help solve a contemporary business problem for my sponsoring company. I believe I have achieved both but not without overcoming several challenges. One of the most significant was undertaking a DBA over five years, part-time, with the first two years dedicated to research skills training. Whilst this was important, it seemed there was a greater emphasis on completing and passing the coursework rather than on preparing specifically to undertake business research. Nevertheless, whilst this training did delay ‘getting on with it’, it proved

Conceptual Framework Construct	Semi Structured Guide Questions
Strategic Context	
Strategic context for knowledge transfer and perceived company response	Why is KT important for your company?
	What government policies are driving KT?
	How does your company respond to government KT initiatives?
	What KT policies does the company have? How successful are they?
Cultural Distance	
Cultural distance of the individuals engaged in knowledge transfer	What are the cultural differences between the individuals engaged in KT?
	How do cultural differences impact the KT process?
	How does the company support cultural integration to facilitate KT?
	What cultural training have you received? How has it helped?
Intrinsic Motivation	
Individual intrinsic motivation to transfer knowledge	How important is KT to you? Why?
	What motivates you to engage in KT?
	To what extent are increased benefits for you enough to motivate KT?
	What prevents you from engaging in KT?
	To what extent is increased value for your team/company/country enough to motivate KT?
Engagement in Social Interaction	
Individual engagement in social interaction for the purpose of knowledge transfer	What sort activities are you involved in when transferring knowledge with your colleagues?
	What activities do you prefer to engage in to send or receive knowledge? (Enablers)
	What activities do you not prefer to engage in to send or receive knowledge? (Barriers)
	What extent have you gained knowledge from your colleagues? (National)
	What sort of knowledge was it? How useful was the knowledge? (National)
Extrinsic Motivation	
An individual's extrinsic motivation to transfer knowledge	How does the company recognise or reward KT between individuals?
	How would you prefer to be recognised or rewarded for transferring knowledge?
	How much do you think KT is valued by your company?
	What more could the company do to encourage KT?
	How important is leadership support for KT? Why? How?

Table 8-4. Revised Conceptual Framework Operationalisation

invaluable in opening my eyes to research methodology options and the rigour of doctoral level study.

Like many part-time researchers, it was also a significant challenge to remain motivated and retain a work-family-DBA balance over such as prolonged period. Motivation came and went, positivity came from making real progress with securing company access and completing fieldwork; negativity came from changing business circumstances, completing coursework and transcribing interviews. I cannot claim to have resolved the work-family-DBA balance, each was more dominant than the other at certain times; planning had to be flexible, with several weeks off from the DBA being a regular occurrence. Sometimes to the frustration of my supervisor, I could not always deliver to a straightforward plan, work or family just got in the way. It also made re-engaging with the research, recapping where I had left off a constant theme. However, I do think I have obtained an even better appreciation of time management and prioritisation, which will be of benefit to my work-family (minus DBA) balance in the future.

I found undertaking the analysis and exploring the available theories and models energising. During this research I acquired valuable primary and secondary analysis skills which I will be able to use as a practitioner in the future. I gained these from my training, reading and field study experience. Indeed, doing the DBA has been a unique experience and one which has contributed to personal and professional growth. I have learned more about the most popular qualitative and quantitative research methods; I have engaged in research that involved primary data collection and analysis; and had the practical experience of conducting semi-structured interviews with a diverse group of individuals. I have obtained a much deeper knowledge about these data collection methods and myself as a practitioner-researcher.

As a practitioner I had some basic business secondary research skills before engaging in this study. However, these have now improved significantly and they will make me a more critical and effective manager in the future. Specifically, through my literature review, I have gained an enhanced ability to prioritise secondary data which will save me time and increase my effectiveness. I have also gained a more critical approach to secondary data, being more sceptical and less accepting of what is presented in business documents, academic papers or trade journals. This more critical

mindset will prove to be highly beneficial my data-rich, information-poor professional life.

It was also fascinating to rediscover old forgotten concepts and discover new challenging ones. It was particularly interesting to explore the literature beyond the boundaries of my previous academic experience, such as organisational learning. Whilst I did not find one theory or model which answered the business issue I was trying to solve, it was rewarding and encouraging discovering other ideas which could help me and my company in the future. However, the challenge, as for many researchers was to remain focussed on gathering enough literature and not constantly expanding the boundaries out of curiosity or analysis paralysis. I believe I am now better informed and prepared to put some of these theories into practice.

As a reflective practitioner-researcher I have tried to be constantly aware of the impact of myself (and my background) upon the research process. I recognised I was not an impartial observer in this research process, particularly when investigating Aerospace Inc. I was aware of the personal and political sensitivities of analysing and criticising my colleagues and company; there was potential for unconscious bias and I needed to remain reflective and vigilant during the process to ensure I remained as objective as possible. Anonymity helped but also hindered as it was difficult to present convincing, triangulated observations. This was also true in Chem Co and Gas Co; however, as I was not an insider in the companies I also felt I had a level of freedom and distance which felt more like objective research. As a practitioner-researcher undertaking an investigation of your own company is more challenging than in another one. It carries more risk and, from my perspective, was less rewarding. I found research in a new company and new country much more stimulating.

It is just unfortunate that, after 5 years, I will not be able to put my findings, guidelines and revised framework directly into practice to solve the original business issue. My company no longer has any immediate need to support Localisation through KT in Qatar as it has not won any contracts and I have moved to another department which has a fire-wall preventing me from working with or talking to Aerospace Inc. Nevertheless, it has been a worthwhile journey. I have achieved my objective of personal development and the strengths of reflection, analysis and knowledge of

current business models and theories. My company has also gained valuable insight for itself and guidelines for KT in the wider GCC.

8.6.2. Sponsor Company

In June 2012, Aerospace MNC had a business issue (successfully supporting GCC Localisation through greater in-country Industrialisation and the Localisation of high skilled jobs) which they agreed I could research through the DBA. In June 2017, the original business issue remains largely the same; there is still a need to support GCC Localisation through KT from Expatriates to Nationals. However, after 5 years, much else has changed. Since agreeing to fund this research the individual sponsors have either changed jobs or left the company. The company has restructured and business priorities have changed. Aerospace Inc has achieved nearly 60% Saudisation of their 5,400 employees, with some professional functions 100% Saudised. There is less of an impetus in Aerospace Inc to significantly change current practices to increase this further.

In terms of Qatar, that was not the original target country for this research. In 2012, Aerospace MNC was pursuing a multi-billion pound sales opportunity with another GCC country. That would have required establishing a wholly new subsidiary and local joint ventures to meet Industrialisation and Localisation targets. That contract failed to materialise. The business and research focus then switched briefly to Bahrain before diverting to Qatar. Aerospace MNC has been pursuing a multi-billion pound sales opportunity in Qatar since 2010, and I have been working on the same opportunity since 2013. As of June 2017, that contract has too failed to materialise and although hope remains of a future contract, there is no immediate need to implement these findings in Qatar. This is disappointing and disheartening but the realities of the aerospace and defence business, and a part-time research schedule.

Nevertheless, all has not been in vain. This research and practitioner guidelines still have the potential to make significant improvement to current Aerospace Inc practices in Saudi Arabia. Aerospace Inc is now focussed supporting Saudi Arabia's aim to grow its defence industrial sector and to localise over 50 percent of military equipment spending by 2030. It plans to do this through enabling local joint venture companies to: undertake aircraft assembly; manufacture, repair and overhaul of equipment; provide pilot and maintenance training; and deliver supply chain management

services. Aerospace Inc will play a significant role in the expansion of the recently announced defence industrial conglomeration: Saudi Arabia Military Industries. Aerospace Inc Director Kingdom Saudi Arabia & Operations re-emphasised the importance of these plans in a blog in April 2017 on: “I’ve mentioned previously the importance of industrialisation, technology and knowledge transfer. Our focus on this is all about the whole customer, not only the Royal Saudi Air Force, but the customers in the various ministries, companies and importantly the public who all have a say on defence and our enduring relationship with KSA” (Aerospace_Inc, 2017).

To better enable knowledge transfer, Aerospace Inc should implement the guidelines in the joint venture companies where Expatriates will be transferring technical and management knowledge to Nationals in companies other than Aerospace Inc. In effect, replace Qatar companies with Saudi Arabia joint venture companies. Aerospace Inc may find that successfully implementing KT in these new companies will be different to doing so internally. Aerospace Inc may not be able to rely upon existing policies and practices, or indeed senior Nationals to champion KT and coach junior employers. Aerospace Inc may have to adapt and develop new KT processes and practices for a new team of Expatriates and Nationals.

Indeed, Aerospace Inc practitioners have already reviewed the findings and guidelines contained in this thesis. They recognise some of issues they perhaps already knew but had maybe forgotten, or necessity had overtaken, (such as recruiting Nationals and Expatriates with the right experience and attitudes; recognising and rewarding good KT behaviour in Nationals and Expatriates; and providing an attractive benefits package that meets Nationals’ intrinsic motivation). They are also considering how to act upon new insights to improve business outcomes (such as ensuring operational pressures do not adversely affect the time available for KT; encouraging National leaders to act as role models and demonstrate commitment to KT; and establishing review procedures which seek out Expatriate KT avoidance strategies). Moreover, beyond Aerospace Inc, the MNC is still pursuing sales opportunities in the GCC (and the broader Middle East) where the guidelines could be applied in the future.

8.6.3. Other Organisations

The research findings and guidelines are equally applicable to all Western aerospace and defence practitioners seeking to adapt and implement KT practices in the GCC.

As discussed in Chapter 1, many companies are selling aircraft and equipment into the GCC and seeking SCA through Localisation. On reflection, all aerospace and defence companies would benefit from having a greater understanding of the factors which affect KT between Expatriates (be they American, British, French or German) and Nationals. Aerospace and defence companies should pay particular attention to treating KT as a differentiator. Companies would profit from recruiting the right Expatriates and Nationals; practitioners would benefit from focussing on developing integrated learning processes using the revised conceptual framework; leaders would gain from demonstrating commitment to KT and establishing a facilitating organisational structure; and governments would benefit from ensuring incentives generate appropriate investment and focus.

For Chem Co and Gas Co in particular, they would benefit from programmes which provide opportunities for Nationals to experience western culture, particularly through secondments to the joint partner parent company. Practitioners need to make greater efforts to recognise and reward Expatriates *and* Nationals for successful KT, not just Nationals. They would also find value from selecting Nationals with the right behaviours but perhaps most importantly, select Expatriates more carefully, develop practices which find and mitigate Expatriate knowledge hiding strategies.

8.6.4. The Methodology

My choice of qualitative research clearly affected the findings; they were less generalisable and open to accusations of interpretation. But, the qualitative approach provided a depth and richness of data; the flexibility to discover emerging factors during the process; react to new ideas and concepts; and to interact with interviewees to obtain a better understanding of the phenomena being investigated. However, this also had the drawback of creating some interesting holes down which to chase rabbits and I had to be disciplined to remain focussed, where appropriate, on the semi-structured interview guide.

My choice to create two case studies using predominantly interview data impacted the type of data obtained. It was detailed and plentiful but this in itself was an issue as transcription and codification was a laborious task which required constant self-checking to ensure everything was captured verbatim and the coding was not predisposed to reflect the themes I wanted to promote. Perhaps the most significant

issue with potential bias was with the interviews themselves. Having prepared as best I could for interviewing Nationals and Expatriates, nothing can prepare you for the vagaries of human nature – except experience. However, after completion of the interviews I believe I am now a better practitioner-researcher, able to use simpler language and concepts to help the interviewees answer the questions. I have also learnt more about Expatriate and National motivation; this will help me in future research and business dealings.

Having case studies of KT in private companies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar is not what I expected at the start of this process. I do not think I (or circumstances or my sponsor) could have made my research more difficult for myself. The countries where I planned to undertake my research changed several times during the first two years of the DBA programme with fluctuating sponsor priorities. On reflection, it would have been easier to have taken my supervisor's advice and just expand on my pilot project, studying KT in my division of Aerospace MNC. But that would not have been without its own political and sensitivity challenges. It also was not the business issue my sponsor needed addressing. It may have been easier and more practical but it would not have been sponsored.

Having settled on Saudi Arabia and Qatar, which in themselves are difficult to visit, access to case study companies was the next challenge. The requirement by all companies for me to sign confidentiality agreements, limit access to this thesis and gain the companies' permission to publish in a journal was restrictive and a concern throughout the process. I have learnt that gaining access to companies is difficult; it takes more time than scheduled; and it requires persistence, patience, compromise, and negotiation skills – something which would be worthwhile including in any research training package.

Whilst the general KT theme remained a constant during the research development phase, the research focus flexed between inter- and intra-organisational KT; between UK multi-national and local companies in emerging economies; to specific companies in specific sectors in specific countries (variously UAE, Saudi Arabia and eventually Qatar); and between a policy, organisational or individual unit of analysis. The result of this process was eventually a theoretically and practically interesting and rewarding piece of research but it was not wholly as a result of careful planning.

8.7. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

8.7.1. Limitations

Although this research was carefully planned, executed and the objectives were achieved; given the methodology and business environments there are several limitations that impact the rigour of the findings and conclusions. These limitations are typical of the disadvantages of qualitative approach: it is difficult to operationalise, generalise and replicate because of its subjective nature. Qualitative research depends on the context, skills and experience of the researcher to obtain, analyse and interpret data (Bryman and Bell (2011); Robson (2011)).

KT is difficult to operationalise and measure. Therefore, establishing construct validity and demonstrating the correct instruments were used is also a challenge. However, as Argote and Fahrenkopf (2016:153) observe: “The most appropriate approach depends on the goals of the research and the empirical context”. As the goals of this exploratory research were to understand the strategic context for and identify the key factors involved in KT a previously developed conceptual framework, which had been developed from similar research, was operationalised for this study. It produced results consistent with the literature and construct validity was achieved as described in Chapter 3. However, as the key informants in Chem Co and Gas Co were no longer employed by the companies when the case studies were ready for review these did not receive feedback. The senior Expatriates left the business as part of significant Parent Company restructuring as a result of low oil prices. Some authors estimate 1,000 professional Expatriates left the business in 2015 and that there have been up to 30% staff reductions (Finn (2016a); Oxford_Business_Group (2016a)).

It is also recognised that it is difficult to generalise from the qualitative data obtained within this research. Nevertheless, the qualitative approach gave a depth of answers and nuance which a quantitative approach would not have provided. The multiple case study approach did provide some external validity; it gave me stronger evidence and potential for strengthening my findings and conclusion. The reliability of the results could also be challenged but as described in Chapter 3 protocols and analysis was carefully managed to improve research reliability. Moreover, as the intent of this exploratory research was to understand in more detailed the factors involved in KT

and provide some practitioner guidelines, the intent was not intending to generalise to any population or achieve easy replicability (Yin, 2009).

Finally, the sample size was small (31 interviewees), convenient and purposive; only 3 case companies in specific industrial sectors in only 2 countries. But, for qualitative research this is not unusual (Miles and Huberman (1994); Miller and Salkind (2002)). Selecting a small number of Expatriates and Nationals in management and administration disciplines in a few companies limits the generalisability to other technical disciplines and companies. The purposive sampling and culture of the interviewees could also lead towards socially acceptable answers which needed to be corroborated with other interviewees or evidence.

To overcome these limitations, there are several areas for future research.

8.7.2. Future Research

To overcome some of the limitations described in the previous paragraph, to further theoretical understanding and to provide further practitioner guidelines, future research might usefully focus in particular on a quantitative analysis; or mixed method approach; on increasing the sample size and being randomised; on spending more time in the case companies observing behaviour and agreeing access to further documentary evidence. This would increase the rigour of the research by further improving the construct, internal and external validity of these results. Surveys have been extensively used in various GCC studies and have generally been considered successful. A mixed methods approach, using the survey data to focus further qualitative analysis would also be a useful strategy.

Without further research into KT in the GCC it will not be possible to generalise these findings and develop a comprehensive set of guidelines for companies, or indeed governments, focussed on Localisation. Whilst it is recognised (and experienced by this practitioner-researcher) that access to organisations in the GCC is difficult; more research, reported in peer-reviewed journals, into the barriers and enablers to KT in private companies would enhance the theories and provide practitioners with more useful data. However, this should also be tied in with research into how these barriers and enablers differ due to the strategic context of the country and/or industry. For instance, how different are they in Oman and UAE compared to Saudi Arabia and

Qatar? Whilst there is evidence of different motivations in the public and private sectors, are there are differences between different private sectors such as Transport, Telecommunications and Petro-Chemical companies? Are Aerospace Inc, Chem Co and Gas Co typical or atypical of private companies in the GCC?

It is also important to test the revised conceptual framework (Figure 8-2) in several different contexts to validate the importance of an individual's cultural biases. This does not necessarily need to be in a GCC context but could be tested in any environment where there is a significant cultural difference between the knowledge sender and receiver. There are a number of avenues which may be fruitful to test this updated conceptual framework such as expanding the sample size within the existing cases companies; broadening case studies in other public and private sector companies; and expanding the interviewees to high school leavers or technical functions instead of graduates in administrative and managerial roles.

Another avenue for further study would be research into the success of Expatriates using the deter-defer-delay strategies to hide knowledge. Knowledge hiding is under under-represented in the literature and based on a few small case studies (Connelly et al. (2012); Serenko and Bontis (2016); Webster et al. (2008)). This research is novel in describing the concept in the context of the GCC; adding two more case studies to the literature; and expanding the theoretical understanding. However, it would be beneficial for future research to further investigate knowledge hiding in the GCC; to explore if the deter-defer-delay strategies are common in other industries; to determine how successful the strategies are; and what companies do to counter the hiding.

It would also be invaluable to undertake longitudinal research into the barriers and enablers to KT in the GCC to observe if these change over the next 10 years. Longitudinal studies provide more powerful evidence and are good are understanding trends. It would be particularly interesting to academics and useful to practitioners to understand, for instance, if National intrinsic motivational factors change in response to government socio-economic policy changes or when private companies change their KT polices. A longitudinal study into the impact of national visions, development plans and Localisation polices on the outcomes of KT and the motivations of the individuals would make a significant contribution to knowledge.

8.8. Conclusion

This Chapter provided a conclusion to my DBA research which differed from a PhD in being business based and in its application to live issues. The live business issue was a need for aerospace and defence companies to better understand how to meet the increasing demands in the GCC for Localisation of jobs and improve KT from Expatriates to Nationals. The research explored KT between Expatriates and Nationals in three companies in Saudi Arabia and Qatar to provide a greater understanding of KT for practitioners seeking to grow their business in the GCC. It achieved the intended research objectives and answered the research questions.

The study found that the case companies responded to the strategic environment for Localisation by deploying policies to support the engagement, recruitment, and development of Nationals. But the research found that the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations of the Expatriates and Nationals appeared to have a greater impact on the effectiveness of KT than organisational commitment. The cultural distance between Expatriates and Nationals also hindered the social engagement necessary for KT. For Expatriates in particular, fear of losing their jobs forced them to adopt strategies for avoiding transferring knowledge.

Consequently, this research contributed to academic knowledge by being one of the first investigations of KT between Expatriates and Nationals in private companies in Qatar and an aerospace company in Saudi Arabia; it confirmed and extended the KT literature; and provided a revised conceptual framework for future research. For Aerospace MNC and practitioners it provided a greater understanding of KT factors in the GCC; guidelines for improving KT and a framework for developing integrated policies and procedures.

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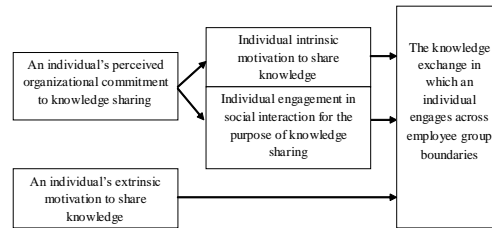
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Initial Semi-Structured Interview Guide

Introduction

- Who am I?
- What I am doing & ethics form (sign)
- Purpose of the interview



Please tell me briefly – 2-3 minutes - some details about your personal background, role in the company and your involvement in knowledge transfer?

Knowledge Exchange

To what extent have you gained knowledge from your colleagues?
What sort of knowledge was it? How useful was the knowledge?
How have you used knowledge gained from colleagues?
What knowledge do you think colleagues have gained from you?
How have your colleagues used knowledge gained from you?

Intrinsic Motivation

How important is knowledge transfer to you? Why?
To what extent is increased value for you enough to motivate knowledge transfer?
To what extent is increased value for my department enough to motivate knowledge transfer?
To what extent is increased value for my company enough to motivate knowledge transfer?

Engagement in Social Interaction

How do you transfer and share knowledge with your colleagues?
What sort activities are you involved in when transferring knowledge?
Training, Mentoring, Meetings, Project groups, Conferences, seminars, workshops?
What sort of knowledge transfer activity works best for you?
What sort of knowledge transfer activity doesn't work best for you?

Perceived Organisational Commitment

How much do you think knowledge transfer is valued by your company?
How much do you think existing knowledge is valued by your company?
What sort of knowledge is highly valued in your company?

Extrinsic Motivation

How will you be rewarded for transferring or using your knowledge by the company?
How would you prefer to be rewarded for transferring or reusing your knowledge?
Increments/bonuses? by promotion? by recognition? by increased responsibility?

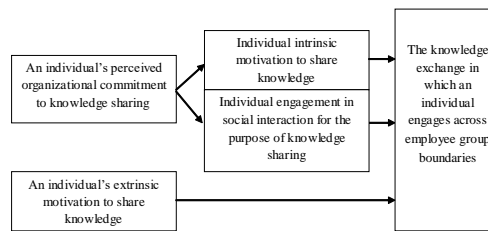
Close

Any questions?
Thank You

Appendix 2: Developed Semi-Structured Interview Guide

Introduction

- Who am I?
- What I am doing & ethics form (sign)
- Purpose of the interview



Please tell me briefly – 2-3 minutes - some details about your personal background, role in the company and your involvement in knowledge transfer?

Knowledge Exchange

To what extent have you gained knowledge from your colleagues?

What sort of knowledge was it? How useful was the knowledge?

How have you used knowledge gained from colleagues?

What knowledge do you think colleagues have gained from you?

How have your colleagues used knowledge gained from you?

Do you think different culture and values affect knowledge transfer?

Intrinsic Motivation

How important is knowledge transfer to you? Why?

To what extent is increased value for you enough to motivate knowledge transfer?

To what extent is increased value for my department enough to motivate knowledge transfer?

To what extent is increased value for my company enough to motivate knowledge transfer?

To what extent is increased value for Qatar/Saudi Arabia enough to motivate knowledge transfer?

Engagement in Social Interaction

How do you transfer and share knowledge with your colleagues?

What sort activities are you involved in when transferring knowledge?

Training, Mentoring, Meetings, Project groups, Conferences, seminars, workshops?

What sort of knowledge transfer activity works best for you?

What sort of knowledge transfer activity doesn't work best for you?

What do you think are the barriers to knowledge transfer – generally in Qatar/Saudi Arabia?

Perceived Organisational Commitment

How much do you think knowledge transfer is valued by your company?

How does the company recognize good knowledge transfer?

How much do you think existing knowledge is valued by your company?

What sort of knowledge is highly valued in your company?

Extrinsic Motivation

How will you be *recognised* for transferring or using your knowledge by the company?

How would you prefer to be *recognised* for transferring or reusing your knowledge?

Increments/bonuses? by promotion? by recognition? by increased responsibility?

Close

As a final thought, what would you recommend I consider in researching Qatarisation/Saudisation and knowledge transfer?

Any questions?

Thank You

Appendix 3: Informed Consent Form

MANCHESTER
1824

The University
of Manchester

Managing Knowledge Transfer: Two Cases of Knowledge Transfer in Saudi Arabia and Qatar

Participant Information Sheet

You are being invited to take part in a research study into knowledge transfer in companies in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries as part of my Doctorate in Business Administration. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Thank you for reading this.

Who will conduct the research?

Roy Lee

Alliance Manchester Business School, The University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL

Title of the Research

Intra-Organisational Knowledge Transfer: Two Cases of Expatriates and National Knowledge Transfer in Saudi Arabia and Qatar

What is the aim of the research?

- To explore the strategic context for knowledge transfer in the GCC and its deployment in practice;
- To identify the key factors that influence knowledge transfer from Expatriates to local nationals in Saudi Arabia and Qatar;
- To create practitioner guidelines to improve knowledge transfer in Saudi Arabia and Qatar;
- To contribute to the academic literature on intra-organisational knowledge transfer in the GCC.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen as a participant in this study because of your experience in knowledge transfer in Saudi Arabia and Qatar.

What would I be asked to do if I took part?

You would be asked to participate in a recorded interview which will be used to understand the processes and factors involved in knowledge transfer.

What happens to the data collected?

The information and data gathered from the interview will be analysed and combined with other data to create a case study of knowledge transfer. It will be used anomalously as part a doctoral thesis and journal articles.

How is confidentiality maintained?

Confidentiality will be maintained by coding the interview transcript to keep it anonymous. The interview recording and transcript will be kept on a computer secured with a password. The recording and transcript will be destroyed at the end of the doctoral research programme.

What happens if I do not want to take part or if I change my mind?

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself

Will I be paid for participating in the research?

No, there is not payment for taking part in this research.

What is the duration of the research?

The interview should last between 60-90 minutes.

Where will the research be conducted?

A suitable meeting room in your workplace or by telephone/videoconference.

Will the outcomes of the research be published?

The outcomes of the research will be potentially published in a Doctoral thesis and in academic journals. The information will be anonymised.

Criminal Records Check (if applicable)

N/A.

Contact for further information

Roy Lee

+44(0)7432715134

roy.lee@postgrad.manchester.ac.uk

What if something goes wrong?

If you want to make a formal complaint about the conduct of the research you should contact the Head of the Research Office, Christie Building, University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester, M13 9PL.

Managing Knowledge Transfer: Two Cases of Knowledge Transfer in Saudi Arabia and Qatar

CONSENT FORM

If you are happy to participate please complete and sign the consent form below

**Please Initial
Box**

1. I confirm that I have read the attached information sheet on the above project and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask questions and had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason

I agree to take part in the above project

Name of participant

Date

Signature

Name of person taking consent

Date

Signature