

Adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa

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ABSTRACT

With globalisation, expatriate assignments to developing locations such as Africa are increasing. The purpose of this research was to investigate the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa and used a qualitative methodology. It is based on the Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) framework of international adjustment and applied to an African context. The findings indicate that expatriates experienced adjustment challenges with regard to adapting to local living conditions, ability of family to adjust to new environment, adapting to a new culture and language, interacting effectively with host country nationals, lack of support from organisation, adapting to work related challenges, inadequate preparation prior to departure and had crime, corruption and security concerns. The study found that Pre-departure preparation, organisational support, family-spouse challenges, cross-cultural training, interacting with host country nationals, adapting to a foreign culture and language are all general aspects that expatriates have had adjustment challenges with. However, South African expatriates working in Africa, expatriates faced many location difficulties in one or more of a following areas: limited housing options, limited education options, rudimentary medical facilities, climate and physical conditions, Infrastructure, communications, disease and sanitation, physical remoteness, political and social environment, recreation facilities, availability of goods and services, heightened exposure to bribery and corruption, crime, safety and security issues. Expatriates face intensely challenging living conditions and quality of life issues. South African companies need to have a greater appreciation for the conditions endured by expatriates in African countries and offer better support.

Key Words: globalisation, expatriate, adjustment, Africa, culture

DECLARATION

I, Sharmintha Dhrampal, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Sharmintha Dhrampal

Signed at

On the day of 2013

DEDICATION

This research report is dedicated with love and gratitude to my husband Pradesh, son Shaneel and daughter Shivali.

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I wish to acknowledge my parents Mr Dhrampal Ramnarain and Mrs Thikshu Devi Ramnarain for their encouragement and support. I wish to acknowledge my wonderful family for their unconditional love and support during this process. I am ever grateful for the sacrifices made by my wonderful husband, Pradesh Chanderpaul. Without his love and support, I would not have been able to do this. I am also grateful to my awesome children, Shaneel and Shivali Chanderpaul, for their love and understanding during this process.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this research is to investigate adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa. It focuses on the adjustment experiences of expatriates and is based on the Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) framework of international adjustment.

1.2 Context of the study

“The increase in globalisation of business has led to more employees being sent on foreign assignments than ever before, with every indication that the use of expatriates will continue to expand in the future” (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011, p. 22). It is widely understood that using expatriate employees effectively on international assignments is a critical success factor for companies (Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002). However expatriate failure rates are high. The literature indicates that the “failure rate of expatriates have been reported to range anywhere between 10% and 80%, costing companies between U.S.\$ 40,000 and U.S.\$ 1 million for each failed assignment” (Vogel, Van Vuuren, & Millard, 2008, p. 33). “In addition to the quantifiable costs of expatriate failure, there are additional costs associated with lost opportunities, reduced productivity, and damaged relationships that, in the long run, could cost the company much more” (Johnson, Lenartowicz, & Apud, 2006, p. 526). Hiltrop and Janssens (1990) also refer to psychological costs for the expatriate who fails to complete the assignment abroad. They may suffer a “loss of self-esteem and self-confidence” in their ability, and “the loss of prestige among peers” (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985, p. 39). Furthermore, “early return is not necessarily an accurate measure of expatriate failure because ineffective expatriates might also remain overseas and do even more harm to their firms” (Johnson, et al., 2006, p. 526). “Failure rates are said to increase further when repatriation failure rates (individuals who return from overseas assignments but

then leave their firms within 1 year) are considered” (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011, p. 22) citing McGinley (2008).

“International assignment can be extremely challenging” (Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003, p. 213) and some of the reasons for the high failure rate can be attributed to expatriate adjustment. International assignments involve expatriates physically moving to a foreign country, often accompanied by the family, adapting to foreign culture and language barriers, adapting to a different climate, changes in job responsibilities and a different organisational/corporate culture. “The combination of physically moving to a foreign country with the family and learning to adapt to a new culture creates unique family demands associated with expatriate assignments (Margaret A. Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen, & Bolino, 2012, p. 1303). Political systems, economic and legal systems and religion in the foreign country are also different.

There have been various research articles dedicated to expatriate adjustment and various factors identified as influencing expatriate adjustment. Expatriates have adjustment challenges relating to the foreign culture, interacting with host nationals, developing effective working relationships with host country, family adjustment and spouse employment opportunities in the foreign country (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012, p. 1303). International assignments “can also involve dealing with unfamiliar norms related to the general culture, business practices, language, living conditions, weather, food, health care, daily customs and political systems” (J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 292).

Takeuchi (2002) attributed high failure rates to the problem of the expatriate successfully adjusting to the foreign culture as well as spouse adjustment. Aycan (1997) indicated that “a successful adjustment was a function of not only the expatriate manager's personal characteristics, but also of organisational (both parent and local) support and preparation for expatriation”. Hechanova (2003) proved the “importance of factors such as interpersonal skills, self-efficacy, role discretion, role ambiguity, role conflict, frequency of interaction with host nationals, culture novelty, and family adjustment for the development of expatriate adjustment (Hechanova, et al., 2003, p. 229).

Furthermore, expatriate failures “happen because of non-adjustment of the expatriates in the new country due to several reasons like culture shock, family issues, spouse problems, personal dissatisfaction and lack of organisational commitment” (R. Gupta, Banerjee, & Gaur, 2012)3559. “the key challenges faced by expatriates are acceptance by the organisational members; and cultural fitment in the host nation” (N. Gupta, Dasari, & Dasari, 2012, p. 7). Tung (1998) has attributed expatriate failure to the inability of the spouse and/or expatriate to adjust, or other family problems. Black & Gregersen (1991b) and Tung (1981) have confirmed in their study that spouse's inability to adjust to the foreign environment is the most common reason for premature return of expatriates. Vogel, et al. (2008) research indicated that the preparation, support and training of expatriates, their spouses and children for international assignments can reduce the possibility of a failed expatriate assignment.

Cultural issues, referred to as cross-cultural adaptation, are often mentioned in the literature. A study on cultural adaptation of Business Expatriates in the Host Marketplace suggests that “business expatriates' adaptation to the host marketplace is associated with their successful cultural adaptation to the host society in general” (Jun, Gentry, & Hyun, 2001, p. 375). “The perceived distance from the host country culture, better known as cultural distance is also considered to be an important factor in the expatriate's overall cross-cultural adjustment” (Gupta Banerjee:3561) and “some countries may be harder to adjust to than others” (Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005, p. 605). The distance in culture is referred to as “cultural distance” (Hofstede, 1983), “culture novelty” (J.S. Black, et al., 1991), “cultural toughness” (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985), or “culture barriers” (Torbiörn, 1982). “The greater the culture novelty of the host country, the more difficult it would be for the expatriate to adjust in the foreign location” (black et al 1991)

Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) refers to Cultural toughness as the ““toughness” of the culture of the country to which the future expatriate is to be assigned”; the authors cite Torbiörn (1982) who found that “expatriates expressed high levels of dissatisfaction in their overseas assignment for India/Pakistan, Southeast Asia, the Middle-East, North Africa, East Africa, and Liberia in the areas of job

satisfaction, levels of stress and pressure, health care, housing standards, entertainment, food, and skill of co-workers. Also, greater cultural barriers were reported for South-east Asia, Japan, Africa, and the Middle East than for other world regions”.

When expatriates go on international assignments to a foreign country, most of these expatriates initially do not know how to behave appropriately and effectively in the host culture (J.S. Black & Mendenhall, 1990; M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985). “When expatriates face host-country nationals and their different behavioural norms and expectations, tension may rise. Some expatriates may insist on using their own standards to judge others’ behaviour. However, as time goes on, successful expatriates will presumably start to realise that the assumptions that guided behaviour at home are no longer applicable “ (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1990, p. 20). “A period of learning about the country’s business and social norms is necessary before personal and job productivity can occur” (J.S. Black & Mendenhall, 1991, p. 225):225.

Before moving overseas, the expatriate and family might worry about the language difference, unfamiliar accommodation, unknown shopping outlets and brand names, adequacy of schools, leaving friends and family and getting around using public transportation. However, developing¹ locations, such as Africa, Middle East, Latin America and some parts of Asia, present harsher living conditions for some or all of a following areas: Housing accommodation, climate and physical conditions, lack of education facilities, lack of medical facilities, Infrastructure, communications, disease and sanitation, physical remoteness, pollution, political violence and repression, political and social environment, cultural and recreation facilities, availability of goods and services (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a).

“Expatriate assignments are increasing to developing locations (such as Africa)” (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a). Africa has vast economic

¹ A “developing” country/location is a country/location whose economy is growing and as a consequence, is becoming a target location for global companies that are expanding their markets and / or manufacturing or production locations (Brookfield Developing Locations Spotlight Report, 2012)

potential and most African countries are endowed with an abundance of natural resources. According to Africa Development Indicators report (The World Bank, 2011b), “Sub-Saharan Africa has an unprecedented opportunity for transformation and sustained growth”(The World Bank, 2011a, p. 1). “African countries received \$72 billion in foreign direct investment in 2008, which is five times the amount received in 2000. While lower than China’s investments (\$92.4 billion), this amount exceeds that received by other emerging markets such as Brazil (\$45.1 billion)” (Hatch, Becker, & van Zyl, 2011, p. 3).

Africa has many challenges as well, some of which are: high levels of unemployment and underemployment; high levels of poverty; lowest levels of human capital in the world; weak governance and large-scale corruption; conflict and violence (The World Bank, 2011b). According to the World bank, if Africa addresses its long-term development challenges, Africa could be on the brink of an economic take-off, much like China 30 years ago and India 20 years ago (The World Bank, 2011b, p. 130).

However, not much is known about expatriate adjustment in Africa, specifically adjustment of South African expatriates working in Africa. Sub-Saharan Africa is the focus of this study. Research has mainly been done from a Western perspective, mainly focused on North American and European expatriates. Off late, studies have been done on Asian (Japanese, Korean and Chinese) expatriates. From a cultural perspective, African culture differs from other cultures in the way Africans construct meanings, negotiate social contexts and make sense of their environment (Darley & Blankson, 2008, p. 380) citing (Ahiauzu, 1986). Working in Africa, requires expatriates to have a greater sensitivity to African culture and an understanding of African cultural realities/milieu/nuances. Hofstede’s (1983) dimensions of national culture will be related to African nations to understand differences in culture.

There is a need to conduct expatriate adjustment research in Africa. This study will investigate the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa. It will focus on adjustment experiences of expatriates through the lens of the expatriates themselves and will use the Black, et al. (1991) framework of international adjustment as a basis.

1.3 Problem statement

1.3.1 Main problem

To investigate the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa.

1.4 Significance of the study

Various articles and studies exist on the expatriate adjustment experience, mainly focused on North American and European expatriates (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005; J.S. Black, et al., 1991; Margaret A. Shaffer, Harrison, & Gilley, 1999; M.A. Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, & Ferzandi, 2006). Off late, studies have been done on Asian (Japanese, Korean and Chinese) expatriates (R. Gupta, et al., 2012). However, the only known related topics of expatriates working in Africa are: 'Cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment: A study of western expatriates in Nigeria' (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011) and 'Cross-cultural training of European and American managers in Morocco' (El Mansour & Wood, 2010). Only one study has been done from a South African perspective focusing on 'Preparation, support and training requirements of South African expatriates' (Vogel, et al., 2008), however the study was not restricted to Africa.

Although much has been written on expatriate adjustment, training and development in general, little is known about the adjustment challenges of expatriates working in Africa. Even less is known about the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa. Whilst South Africa is part of the African continent, this study hopes to provide a South African perspective on the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa.

This study fills a gap in that no research currently exists specifically on adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa, specifically Sub-Saharan Africa.

Brookfield Global Relocation Services (Brookfield GRS) is now producing a Developing Locations Spotlight Report in addition to the Global Relocation Trends Survey report in response to the growth of assignments into developing locations, which is a growing challenge for global companies. This report is focused across all developing locations such as the BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India and China), many parts of Africa and Asia, parts of Central Europe and Latin America as well as the South Pacific.

The study will be of interest to the stakeholders identified in Table 1.

Table 1: Stakeholders and Benefits

Stakeholders	Benefits
Current or prospective expatriates and their families working in Africa	Will provide recommendations to improve expatriate and family adjustment when working in Africa
Current or prospective companies (Managers and Human Resources) working in Africa	Will provide recommendations to companies on improving expatriate adjustment
Academics	Will provide recommendations to Academics to tailor cross-cultural training courses aimed at corporate expatriates. Will provide recommendations for further research to academics and will highlight potential areas of interest

1.5 Delimitations of the study

This study will focus on the experiences of South African expatriates and repatriates who have worked (within the last three years) or are currently

working in Africa. The study will be limited to countries in Sub-Saharan Africa excluding South Africa.

Furthermore, this study will focus on the experience of expatriates from an individual rather than organisation perspective. The specific area of focus is on the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa. It focuses on international adjustment specifically in Africa rather than domestic adjustment (within South Africa). The study will not focus on South African expatriates that intend to/are working outside of Africa. The study is not exclusively limited to South African companies and allows for South Africa expatriates working for any MNC or South African company.

The study will only focus on the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa and will not focus on other expatriate related subjects and challenges such as repatriation, withdrawal, expatriate effectiveness, performance and alternatives to conventional expatriate assignments.

The study will not adopt a longitudinal approach. The findings will be based on the experiences of South African expatriates obtained during the interviewing process of the qualitative methodology. This introduces subjectivity.

Also, the study will be limited to expatriates working at companies (corporate expatriates) rather than self-initiated expatriates or entrepreneurs.

There will be no delimitation to specific sectors of business. The study results will be applicable to all industries.

1.6 Definition of terms

Expatriate	Any person who works outside of their native country.
MNC	Multinational corporation
Host country	The country to which the expatriate is assigned.
Home country	The native country of the expatriate

MNE	Multinational Enterprise
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1.7 Assumptions

The following assumptions have been made regarding the study:

Respondents will have the required knowledge and will be willing to share experiences and clearly articulate answers to questions.

Since the research has been “expatriate-centric”, it has not included other stakeholders such as spouses/family members, parent company, and host country nationals. Based on this approach, it was not possible to test certain aspects of the Black, et al. (1991) model such as Organisation socialisation, Organisation selection mechanisms and criteria, Organisation culture novelty and mode of adjustment, and these aspects were consequently excluded.

A cross sectional rather than a longitudinal study will be done. This may have its limitations since adjustment is a dynamic process, the antecedents and consequences cannot be empirically determined in a cross sectional qualitative study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This section contains a literature review on the key themes of relevance to the study. Firstly, the expatriate adjustment literature is reviewed. The literature focuses on the Black, et al. (1991) framework of international adjustment and discusses the dimensions and determinants included in the model. The stages of adjustment, interaction adjustment, four pillars of expatriate management as well as cross-cultural training are discussed. Thereafter, the adjustment challenges of working in Africa are discussed. This includes a background on Africa and a discussion on the challenges of working in developing locations and African cultural diversity. Hofstede's (1983) dimensions of national cultures applicable in the Sub-Saharan context are discussed. Finally, the key points from the literature are summarised and the research question is posed.

2.2. Definition of topic or background discussion.

Globalisation can be defined as “the shift towards a more integrated and interdependent world economy” (Hill, 2011, p. 6), and includes globalisation of markets and the globalisation of production. The two factors driving globalisation are the decline in trade and investment barriers since World War II and technological change, specifically dramatic improvements in communication, information processing and transportation technologies (Hill, 2011). Since the collapse in communism, policies in many nations have shifted towards a free market economic system. Lowered trade barriers, deregulation and privatisation have increased international expansion.

A multinational corporation (MNC) or multinational enterprise (MNE) is “any business that has productive activities in two or more countries”(Hill, 2011, p. 20). The global workforce that works abroad in emerging regions where globalisation or markets or production takes place is referred to as expatriate

manager. Expatriates are citizens of one country who are working in another country (Hill, 2011, p. 609).

“When moving to a foreign country, an individual leaves a familiar setting and enters an unfamiliar one” (J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 301). Moving to a foreign country “often involves changes in the job the individual performs and the corporate culture in which responsibilities are executed; it can also involve dealing with unfamiliar norms related to the general culture, business practices, living conditions, weather, food, health care, daily customs and political system – plus facing a foreign language on a daily basis” (J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 292). Religion, economic and legal systems are also different. “The change theories dictate that movement from known into unknown territory breeds anxiety and fear” (N. Gupta, et al., 2012, p. 8). Cultural adaptation is “a social cognitive process that reduces uncertainty and an affective process that reduces anxiety; the outcomes of cultural adaptation include psychological well-being and satisfaction as well as social competence”(Jun, et al., 2001, p. 370).

A definition of culture “is that culture consists of patterns of behaviours that are acquired and transmitted by symbols over time, which become generally shared within a group and are communicated to new members of the group in order to serve as a cognitive guide or blueprint for future actions” (J.S. Black & Mendenhall, 1990, p. 120) citing Kluckhohn and Kroeberg (1952). “If people who have different culturally based behaviours and beliefs interact, difficulties arise because faulty attributions are made about the motives and meanings of the others' behaviours since the attributions are based on the attributor's own cultural norms and worldview” (J.S. Black & Mendenhall, 1990, p. 120) citing Bochner (1982).

Similarly, Hofstede (1983) defines culture as the collective “mental programming” of the human mind which distinguishes one group of people from another. “This programming influences patterns of thinking which are reflected in the meaning people attach to various aspects of life and which become crystallised in the institutions of a society”. A useful model for understanding differences between national cultures is Hofstede's (1983) dimensions of

national cultures: power distance, Individualism-collectivism, Uncertainty avoidance and Masculinity-femininity.

Acculturation refers to “the process by which group members from one cultural background adapt to the culture of a different group” (R. L. Tung, 1998, p. 126) Four types identified of interactions or orientations have been identified between people from two different cultural groups; integration, assimilation, separation and marginalisation (Berry & Kalin, 1995). This is discussed further in Interaction Adjustment.

This study will explore the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa.

2.3. Adjustment Challenges of South African Expatriates working in Africa

2.3.1. Literature on Expatriate Adjustment

As organisations are increasingly affected by the trend in globalisation, employees are often called on to take part in global work experiences, with organisations relying heavily on international assignments to compete globally (Chen, Kirkman, Kim, Farh, & Tangirala, 2010; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012). Global expansion has increased a firm’s opportunities for increasing profitability. Firms that operate internationally expand the market for their products, realise location economies by locating value creation activities where they can be performed most efficiently, realise greater cost economies from experience effects, and earn a greater return by leveraging skills developed in foreign markets by transferring them to other parts of the organisation (Hill, 2011).

The employees called on to take part in international assignments are referred to as expatriates. Corporate expatriates have been defined as employees who are relocated to another country, by their organisation, on an temporary basis, usually for several years, to complete a specific task or accomplish an organisational goal (Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004). They are

said to have relocated from their native (home) country to a foreign (host) country. The duration of expatriate assignments are typically more than a year in duration.

According to the latest Global relocation trends Survey Report (2012b), the main objectives for international assignments are filling a technical skills gap; filling a managerial skills gap; building international management expertise/career development; launching new endeavours; technology transfer and developing local business relationships.

Expatriate cross-cultural adjustment is the process of adaptation to living and working in a foreign country (J.S. Black, et al., 1991). It refers to the degree of fit or “psychological comfort and familiarity that individuals feel with a new environment” (J Stewart Black, 1990, p. 122) or “degree of comfort or absence of stress associated with being an expatriate” (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 257). Extensive research has been carried out over the past decades focusing on challenges experienced by expatriates when relocating to a foreign country, expatriate selection and training (Ayman, 1997; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005; N. Gupta, et al., 2012; Harrison, et al., 2004; Mol, Ph Born, & van der Molen, 2005; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999; M.A. Shaffer, et al., 2006; Takeuchi, 2010). Furthermore, the antecedents and consequences (i.e. cause and effect) of expatriate adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005; Hechanova, et al., 2003) are also better understood. However, “transitions to international assignments continue to be frequent and fraught with difficulties” (Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, & Ren, 2012, p. 399). Empirical research supports a positive relationship between expatriate adjustment and job performance (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005; Selmer, 2006); and may affect their careers. Furthermore, Hechanova, et. al. (2003) indicates that adjustment impacts other work-related outcomes such as strain, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, performance and turnover intent.

However expatriate failure rates are high. The literature indicates that the “failure rate of expatriates have been reported to range anywhere between 10% and 80%, costing companies between U.S.\$ 40,000 and U.S.\$ 1 million for each failed assignment” (Vogel, et al., 2008, p. 33). “Research suggests that between 16-40 % of all American employees sent abroad to developed nations

return from their assignments early, and almost 70% of employees sent to developing nations return from their assignment return home early” (Hill, 2011, p. 609). “In addition to the quantifiable costs of expatriate failure, there are additional costs associated with lost opportunities, reduced productivity, and damaged relationships that, in the long run, could cost the company much more” (Johnson, et al., 2006, p. 526). Hiltrop and Janssens (1990) also refer to psychological costs for the expatriate who fails to complete the assignment abroad. They may suffer a “loss of self-esteem and self-confidence” in their ability, and “the loss of prestige among peers” (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985, p. 39). Furthermore, “early return is not necessarily an accurate measure of expatriate failure because ineffective expatriates might also remain overseas and do even more harm to their firms” (Johnson, et al., 2006, p. 526). “Failure rates are said to increase further when repatriation failure rates (individuals who return from overseas assignments but then leave their firms within 1 year) are considered” (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011, p. 22) citing McGinley (2008).

In a seminal study of a number of U.S., European and Japanese MNCs, Tung (1981), reported a high proportion of US managers returning home early from an overseas assignment compared with managers from Europe and Japan. According to her research the main reasons for expatriate failure of U.S.² MNCs were the inability of the spouse to adjust, the inability of the manager to adjust or other family problems.

To mitigate the risks of expatriate failure, recent trends have shown that organisations are developing alternative modes of expatriate assignments. Other than the traditional international expatriate assignment, there are other alternatives including short-term assignments, one-way permanent moves, commuter assignments, international business travel, virtual assignments, rotational and flexible assignments (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012b; Collings, Scullion, & Morley, 2007).

² U.S. refers to the United States of America

Black, et al. (1991) in their seminal study, provided a comprehensive theoretical framework or model of international adjustment (Figure 1). This model “has instigated and galvanised a large body of evidence. It is the most influential and often-cited theoretical treatment of expatriate experiences, and it can be considered a context-specific reflection of the stressor-stress-strain sequence” (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 257).

This model made two contributions to the body of knowledge; firstly, this model confirmed the multi-dimensional nature of adjustment (i.e. general, interaction and work adjustment) and identified a variety of its determinants, such as role variables, family experiences, organisational support, individual skills and cross-cultural training. Secondly, this model also included both anticipatory (pre-assignment) and in-country inputs to adjustment. Various aspects of the model have been confirmed empirically by various scholars over time (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005; Hechanova, et al., 2003; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999).

Aycan (1997) proposed another conceptual model identifying the antecedents and consequences of expatriate adjustment. In this, adjustment was identified as a multidimensional phenomenon comprising psychological (psychological well-being and satisfaction with different aspect of the new life), sociocultural (effective functioning in social and cultural life) and work (effectiveness on job and positive work attitudes) adjustment. However, this research is based on the Black, et al. (1991) model.

Most of the literature on expatriate adjustment was mainly theoretical and qualitative in nature (Aycan, 1997; J.S. Black, et al., 1991; Harrison, et al., 2004; Mark Mendenhall & Gary Oddou, 1985) to date there have been meta analytic studies (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005; Hechanova, et al., 2003; M.A. Shaffer, et al., 2006).

Takeuchi (2010) raised some criticisms on expatriate adjustment research to date. Firstly, it has been “predominantly expatriate-centric and has neglected other stakeholders... such as spouses/family members, parent company, and host country nationals” (Takeuchi, 2010, p. 1041). Secondly, many studies of

expatriate adjustment have adopted the stressor-stress-strain perspective in studying the antecedents and consequences of expatriate adjustment. For example, “antecedents such as role ambiguity or role conflict are typically considered as stressors, which cause stress or lack of adjustment which is in turn considered to lead to strain or negative consequences such as lower performance or higher premature return intentions” (Takeuchi, 2010, p. 1041). “Research on expatriate experiences seems to have evolved into reliance on a comfortable paradigm and well-worn road” (Harrison, et al., 2004, p. 240), Takeuchi (2010) called for new theoretical perspectives on expatriate adjustment.

2.3.1.1. Framework of International Adjustment

Expatriate cross-cultural adjustment comprises three main dimensions, as described by (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 257):

- Cultural or general adjustment is the comfort associated with non-work factors such as general living conditions, local food, transportation, entertainment, facilities and health care services in the host country. This is referred to as cultural adjustment in the rest of the report;
- Interaction adjustment is the comfort associated with interacting with host country nationals both inside and outside of work; and
- Work adjustment is the comfort associated with the assignment job or tasks

The determinants of adjustment, both the anticipatory (pre-assignment) and in-country, are discussed in the following sections. Firstly, the determinants of anticipatory adjustment are discussed thereafter the four in-country factors: individual, organisational, job, non-work factors are discussed. The non-work factors of family-spouse adjustment and culture novelty are discussed in detail because of their significance.

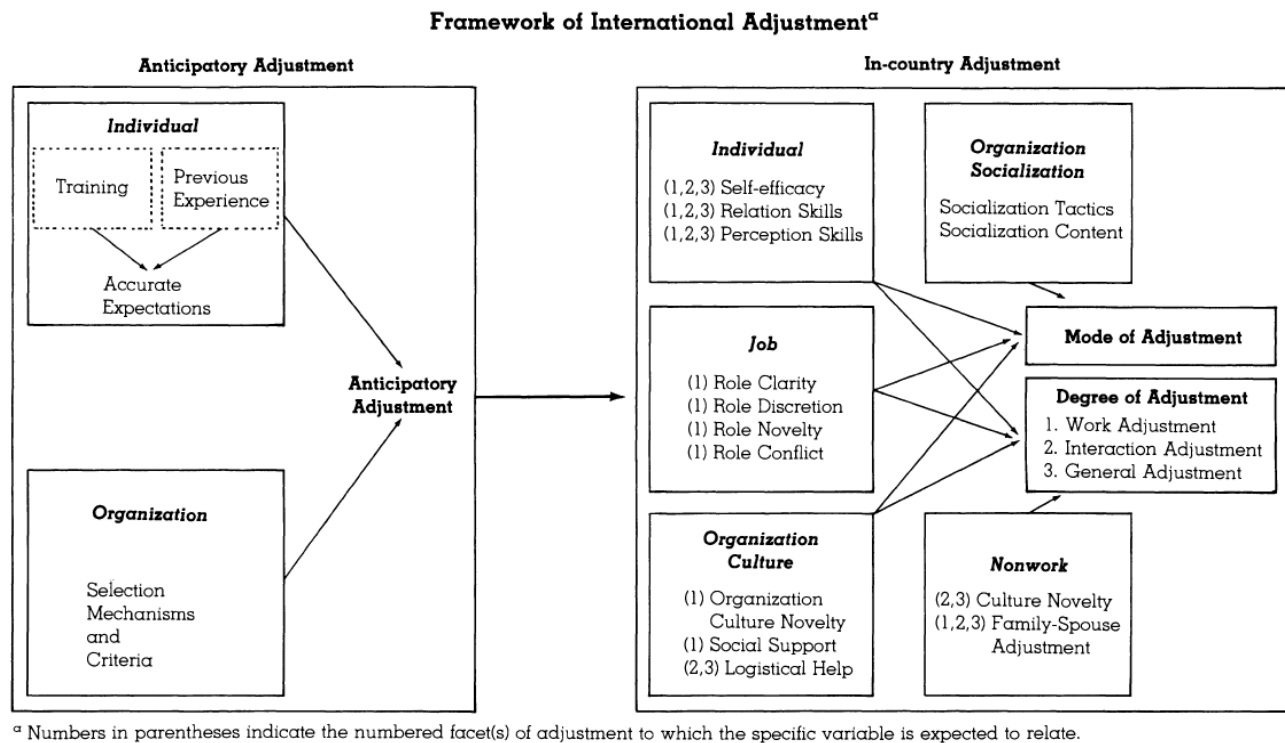


Figure 1: Black, Mendenhall and Oddou's Framework of International Adjustment Source: Black et al. (1991)

2.3.1.2. Anticipatory Factors

Adequate preparation, relevant previous experiences, pre departure cross-cultural training and fluency in the host country language help to facilitate the formation of accurate expectations, which is critical for “effective anticipatory and actual adjustment” (J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 305). “The more accurate expectations individuals can form, the more uncertainty they will reduce and the better their anticipatory adjustment will be” (J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 305). As a result there are fewer surprises, negative emotional reactions and lessened culture shock experienced. Expatriates will exhibit more appropriate behaviours and attitudes, and adjustment will be smoother and quicker. Accurate expectations are required in the following areas: host country, the host-country nationals, general culture, the job and organisational culture (J.S. Black, et al., 1991).

Cross-cultural training provides expatriates “with useful information for reducing uncertainty associated with the impending relocation and for forming accurate

expectations about living and working in the prospective host country” (J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 306), “decreases the interpersonal conflicts and misunderstandings, and increases the accuracy and efficiency of communication” (Aycan, 1997, p. 446).

Previous international experience also facilitates accurate expectations. “When people travel to foreign countries, they learn the behaviours, customs, and norms of those cultures through direct experience or through observation of the host nationals’ behaviours” (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011, p. 25) citing Bandura (1997). Moreover, expatriates with extensive prior international experiences are likely to develop more “comprehensive cognitive frameworks or templates known as schemata”, which helps them to adjust the foreign culture (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011, p. 25) citing Fiske & Taylor(1984). However, Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al. (2005) in their meta-analytic study of the antecedents and consequences of expatriate adjustment noted that “contrary to conventional wisdom and some academic arguments, the accumulated evidence shows that prior overseas assignments are only minimally helpful for present adjustment” (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 272).

2.3.1.3. Individual Factors

Individual factors refer to specific individual factors required to be effective in a foreign environment. The Black, et al. (1991) model includes self-efficacy, relation skills and perception skills.

These factors based on the three dimensions of expatriate acculturation defined by Mendenhall and Oddou (1985), refer to Table 2: firstly, the self-dimension, which “encompasses skills that enable the expatriate to maintain mental health, psychological well-being, self-efficacy, and effective stress management”; secondly, the relationship dimension, which consists of “the array of skills necessary for the fostering of relationships with host nationals”; and thirdly the perception dimension, which entails “the cognitive abilities that allow the expatriate to correctly perceive and evaluate the host environment and its actors”(J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 294).

**Table 2: Three dimensions of expatriate acculturation, Source:
Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985**

Self-Orientation	Others-Orientation	Perceptual-Orientation
Stress Reduction	Relationship skills	Flexible Attributions
Reinforcement	Willingness to	Broad Category Width
Substitution	communicate	
Physical Mobility	Non-verbal	High tolerance for
	communication	ambiguity
Technical Competence	Respect for others	Being non-judgemental
Dealing with Alienation	Empathy for others	Being open-minded
Dealing with Isolation		Field independence
Realistic Expectations prior to departure		

Self-efficacy is the belief “in one’s own ability to execute plans of action” (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 260) or the “ability to believe in oneself and one's ability to deal effectively with the foreign surroundings, even in the face of great uncertainty” (J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 307). Black, et al. (1991) indicated that expatriates with high overall self-efficacy persist in exhibiting newly learned behaviours despite negative feedback.

Relational skills provide a significant way of “increasing the cues individuals receive about what is expected and how they are doing regarding those expectations” (J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 308). Relation skills “enhance the expatriate’s ability to interact with host nationals” (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985, p. 41). When individuals interact with host nationals, they can receive signals on what is appropriate in the host culture and how they are doing; these skills can assist in reducing the uncertainty associated with the foreign environment (J.S. Black, et al., 1991). Perceptual skills also provide an important way of understanding why foreigners behave the way they do; making correct attributions about the reasons or causes of host nationals' behaviour without being judgemental and allowing the expatriate to predict how host nationals will behave in the future thus reducing uncertainty with the foreign environment. The greater individuals' perceptual skills, the easier it is for them

to understand and correctly interpret the host culture (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985).

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al. (2005) meta-analytic study confirmed the importance of self-efficacy and relational skills in predicting expatriate adjustment. Their findings however, indicated that self-efficacy did not facilitate cultural adjustment, which is contrary to Black et al. (1991). Similarly, Hechanova, et al. (2003) empirically confirmed the importance of factors such as interpersonal skills and self-efficacy for expatriate adjustment.

Scholars have referred to different terms for the individual's ability to adapt and adjust to cultural diversity. Cognitive flexibility refers to "the degree to which the global work requires role incumbents to adjust their thought patterns and scripts to effectively interact with people and adapt to situational demands across cultures" Shaffer, et al. (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012, p. 1300). Cross-cultural competence in international business has been defined as "an individual's effectiveness in drawing upon a set of knowledge, skills, and personal attributes in order to work successfully with people from different national cultural backgrounds at home or abroad" (Johnson, et al., 2006, p. 530). It consists of three dimensions: affective, cognitive and behavioural. Individuals undergo behavioural adaptation to enable them to interact effectively with people from different cultures. "It differs from previous definitions in that it focuses on how an individual uses the knowledge, skills and attributes that he/she possesses, rather than on the knowledge, skills and attributes in their own right" (Johnson, et al., 2006, p. 530). Cultural flexibility is "the ability to orient oneself to a new cultural setting" (Aycan, 1997, p. 441). Cultural flexibility involves a lack of prejudice with respect to other's opinions and behaviours, and a willingness to change one's own behaviours when necessary (Torbiorn, 1982). Cultural flexibility and conflict resolution facilitate all three aspects of adjustment in expatriates (Aycan, 1997) (Black (1990).

Shaffer, et al. (2006) investigated the effects of stable personality traits (the Big Five) on expatriate adjustment. These traits are conscientiousness, emotional stability, agreeableness, intellectance and extraversion or surgency. Refer to Figure 2 for a description of the traits. The study found that emotional stability

and intellectance impacted work adjustment, agreeableness impacted interaction adjustment and extraversion impacted cultural adjustment.

Figure 2: Big Five Personality Traits

Trait	Description
Extraversion or	Surgency (drive), self-efficacy, Energy, Assertiveness
Conscientiousness	Dependability, Personal integrity, Need for achievement
Agreeableness	Cheerful and optimistic, Nurturance (sympathetic, helpful), Sociability
Emotional stability	Self-confidence, Self Esteem, Self control
Intellectance	Curious and inquisitive, Open minded, Learning oriented, Openness to experience

Other career attitudes such as a global mind-set or cosmopolitanism (M.A. Shaffer, et al., 2006; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012) are also crucial for individuals selecting to pursue global work. Cosmopolitanism “is the tendency to view one’s own traditions, culture, and patterns of behaviour as no better than other distinct traditions, cultures, and behaviours” (M.A. Shaffer, et al., 2006, p. 114). It is the opposite of ethnocentrism, which is the “propensity to view one’s own cultural traditions and behaviours as right and those of others as wrong”(J Stewart Black, 1990). Ethnocentric attitudes preclude accurate perceptions of behaviours of host country nationals (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985).

2.3.1.4. Organisational Factors

Organisational factors refer to both the parent company and host or foreign office. It includes the foreign office organisational culture novelty and co-worker support as well as logistical support from parent company.

Social support from co-workers in the foreign provides expatriates with information about suitable norms and behaviours in the work environment,

reduces uncertainty emanating from the foreign environment and assists adjustment. Logistical support from the parent company makes critical resources available to the expatriate at times of necessity, and assists adjustment. (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005). Aycan (1997) indicates that expatriation is a stressful event, and organisational support with housing, schooling, medical insurance, work permit, spousal employment work transfer etc. reduces stress and uncertainties and facilitates adjustment. Shaffer, et al. (1999), in their study confirmed that “logistical support and co-worker support were significant positive predictors of adjustment” and suggested that “firms seeking to enhance the effectiveness of their expatriates should attempt to foster a supportive organisational culture both at home and abroad” (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999, p. 573).

Scholars have suggested the need for mentors (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999; Takeuchi, 2010). Shaffer, et al. (1999) suggested a “dedicated home-office support staff, ideally comprised of highly experienced expatriates...acting as mentors for international assignees” (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999, p. 573). According to Mendenhall and Oddou (1985), a trusted host country mentor can assist expatriates adjusting by helping them understand expectations and attitudes in the new culture, both in the work environment and outside of work. Host country nationals may act as mentors to “teach expatriates the ropes” (Takeuchi, 2010, p. 1057) and on-site mentoring positively impacts expatriate socialisation, job attitudes and intention to complete assignment of junior expatriates (Feldman & Bolino, 1999).

Feldman and Bolino (1999) research, which used Hofstede's typology of national cultures, suggested that the international context of the overseas assignment affects how much on-site mentoring expatriates should receive; “particularly in cultures that are collectivist and where there are large power distances and strong uncertainty avoidance, multinational corporations have to pay even greater attention to ensuring that new expatriates receive sufficient amounts of high-quality mentoring assistance” (Feldman & Bolino, 1999, p. 69).

Zhuang, et al. (2012) study found that the assistance provided by mentors, from both the home and the host countries, facilitates expatriate adjustment in the host country i.e. multiple-mentor support networks might better assist expatriate adjustment. Mentorship offers three functions: psychosocial support, role modelling and career development (Zhuang, et al., 2012). The authors found that the “psychosocial support and role modelling functions of home country mentors facilitate expatriates’ general adjustment and office interaction adjustment better than those of host country mentors” whilst “the career development functions of host country mentors are more strongly related to expatriates’ work adjustment than those of home country mentors” (Zhuang, et al., 2012, p. 11).

2.3.1.5. Job Factors

Expatriate assignments typically involve major changes in job responsibilities and the organisational context in which the job is performed (Gregersen & Black, 1992), involve new operations, novel means of completing tasks, and increased responsibilities (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005). They are often marred by policy and procedural conflicts with between parent companies and foreign operations (Gregersen & Black, 1992). Job factors which influence the ability of the expatriate to adjust to the new environment include role clarity which refers to the “exact understanding of position requirements”; role discretion which refers to “decision-making autonomy”; role novelty which refers to “differences between host and native country work roles”; and role conflict which refers to “incompatible cues regarding job expectations”(Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 260).

2.3.1.6. Non-work factors

Non-work factors involve aspects of the foreign environment other than job, includes culture novelty and family/spouse adjustment.

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al. (2005) conducted a meta-analytic study of antecedents and consequences of expatriate adjustment and concluded that

non-work variables experienced outside an expatriate's job, such as culture novelty and spouse adjustment, are extremely potent in predicting adjustment. They concluded that with regard to culture novelty, "smaller perceived differences between host and native cultures foster adaptation, especially to overseas living conditions" and for married expatriates, "that spouse adjustment was the single most critical variable in predicting all three dimensions of expatriate adjustment" and overall "the results supported the long-suggested central role of family in the psychological mechanisms of internal work role transitions" (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 272).

These factors are discussed further in the following sections.

2.3.1.7. Family-Spouse Adjustment

As previously mentioned, adjustment of the spouse is significantly related to the adjustment of the employee during international assignments (R. Tung, 1981). The impact of the international transfer is more severe on the spouse than on the expatriate: while the expatriate retains his company and job structure, the spouses of expatriates frequently must give up their friends, job and career; for them, the hardest task of all is creating a meaningful life overseas. The spouse often becomes more immersed in the culture than the expatriate and the challenges for successful adjustment are both different and greater. She has to deal with the foreign culture on a daily basis in her duties of running the household, shopping for groceries etc. (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1990). In her survey of U.S. MNC executives, Tung (1981) found that these executives believed that a spouse's inability to adjust to the foreign host culture was the number one reason for expatriate failures. Spouse adjustment as a significant predictor of expatriate adjustment and/or significant relationships existing between expatriate and spouse cross-cultural adjustment have been shown (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005; J. Stewart Black, 1988; J.S. Black & Gregersen, 1991a, 1991b; J Stewart Black & Stephens, 1989; R. Gupta, et al., 2012; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999; Takeuchi, et al., 2002). Hechanova, et al. (2003) proved that family and spouse adjustment were strongly correlated with expatriate general and interaction adjustment and

weakly correlated with work adjustment. Hechanova, et al. (2003) suggested that given the importance of family adjustment, organisations should provide assistance and support to expatriates and their families, which could include spouse counselling, spouse career support, relocation support, spouse's job search and spouse language training.

"Managing family problems that arise during the international assignment is still a challenge for expatriates" (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012, p. 1294). The authors name spouse job/career for dual-career expatriate couples as a concern and work–family conflict as another problematic family issue for many expatriates. Family concerns are also a critical issue even in the case where family usually remains in the home country, although they avoid problems associated with family relocation, both the expatriate and the family experience strains that result from separation (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012).

Collings, et al. (2007), in their study of changing patterns of global staffing indicate that there is some evidence to suggest that "families are less willing to accept the disruption of personal and social lives associated with international assignments than was the case in the past" (Collings, et al., 2007, p. 201). The major barriers to future global mobility in many different countries is dual-career problems and disruption to children's education; this poses considerable restrictions on the career development plans of multinationals (Collings, et al., 2007).

The results of Vogel, et al. (2008) research indicated that South African multinational enterprises (MNEs) are not providing the preparation, support and training required by their expatriates and their spouses and children.

2.3.1.8. Culture Novelty

Cultural novelty is the perceived distance between the home and host country culture (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999). "The greater the difference between the culture of the host country compared to the home country, the more difficult would be the international adjustment" (J.S. Black, et al., 1991, p. 312). Differences between host and home cultures create greater uncertainties and

more severe adjustment problems as the changes in thought processes and behaviour patterns for the expatriate are more pronounced (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985). Culture Novelty (J.S. Black, et al., 1991) is also referred to as “cultural distance” (Hofstede, 1983), “cultural toughness” (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985) or “culture barriers” (Torbiorn, 1982).

Torbiorn (1982) found that expatriates expressed high levels of dissatisfaction in the areas of job satisfaction, levels of stress and pressure, health care, housing standards, entertainment, food, and skill of co-workers for their overseas assignment in following countries: India/Pakistan, Southeast Asia, the Middle-East, North Africa, East Africa, and Liberia. Greater cultural barriers were reported for South-east Asia, Japan, Africa, and the Middle East than for other world regions (Torbiorn, 1982).

Cognitive dissonance can be created, when the culture of the home country may be different from the host country, and the host nationals might expect the expatriate to “behave in ways dissimilar to their upbringing and value system” (N. Gupta, et al., 2012, p. 8). According to Rod (2012), in a different cultural context, “when we are misunderstood, or unable to connect or communicate, we can become frustrated. In certain situations we can even experience that our values are being “stepped on.” Our own cultural programming is so strong, and not always visible to ourselves, that our strong response (offended sensibilities) can surprise us. In all of these instances we run the risk of responding inappropriately and overreacting given the context we are in” (Rod, 2012, p. 31).

According to Pires, Stanton and Ostenfeld (2006) in culturally distant countries, minority ethnic communities³ in the host country can play a role in alleviating the incidence of expatriate culture shock. Expatriates who are able to benefit from easier culinary adaptability, to communicate in their native language, and to embrace similar substitutes for their interests and activities in the host country,

³ Ethnic identity is an individual's natural identification with an ethnic group. The basis for this shared identity or similarity of a group of people is commonly based on one or more characteristics (including: a long shared history; a cultural tradition, including family and social customs sometimes religiously based; a common geographic origin, language, written or oral literature and religion; and often being a minority (Pires, Stanton and Ostenfeld, 2005).

are more likely to adjust to a new culture. Existing expatriate networks can facilitate learning from the experience of other expatriates and occasional socialisation with others sharing similar problems. (Pires, et al., 2006).

According to Selmer (2006), the traditional assumption in literature on expatriate adjustment is that “the greater culture novelty of the host country, the more difficult it would be for the expatriate to adjust” (Selmer, 2006, p. 1209). The author in his study based on regression analysis examined the three sociocultural variables: general, interaction and work adjustment. The findings, although highly tentative, indicate that “is as difficult for business expatriates to adjust to a very similar culture as to a very dissimilar culture” (Selmer, 2006, p. 1210).

2.3.1.9. *Stages of Adjustment*

Black (1988) accepted that adjustment occurred in four phases often referred to as the U-curve, based on the work done by Lysgaard (1955), Oberg (1960) and Torbiorn (1982). The U-curve framework has been used to describe the cross-cultural adjustment process of expatriates within a host culture. The U-curve relates the time path of an expatriate’s adjustment to a host country’s culture, refer to Figure 3.

The four stages of adjustment are as follows:

- The honeymoon stage during which the expatriate finds everything exciting and is interested in everything that they come across in the new host country.
- The culture shock stage is when the reality sets in and the expatriate starts becoming frustrated by their new environment and the differences from the home country.
- During the adjustment stage the expatriate starts to accept and adapt to the cultural differences, begins to find their rhythm for daily living in the host country and learns how to get things done.

- The mastery stage is reached when the expatriate masters the host country conditions and starts to function equally well as if they were at home.

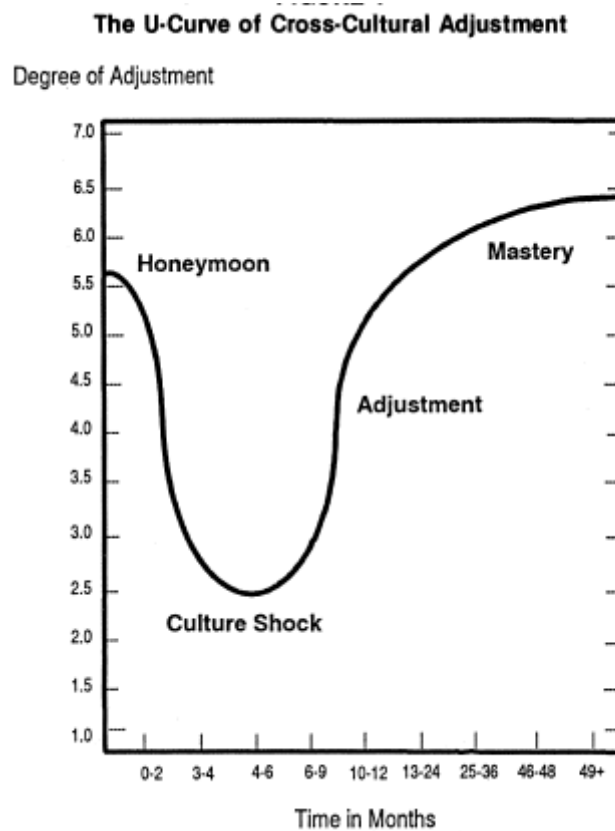


Figure 3: U-shaped adjustment curve Source: Black and Mendenhall (1991)

2.3.1.10. Interaction Adjustment

Four types identified of interactions or orientations have been identified between people from two different cultural groups; integration, assimilation, separation and marginalisation (Berry & Kalin, 1995). These are reflected in Table 3.

Table 3: Four modes of interaction between people from different cultures Source: Berry and Kalin (1995)

Interaction Mode	Description
Integration	Attraction to other culture and preservation of

	own cultural norms
Assimilation	Attraction to other culture but non-preservation of own cultural norms
Separation	Preservation of own cultural norms but non-attraction to other culture
Marginalisation	Non- preservation of own cultural norms and non-attraction to other culture

Berry and Kalin (1995) indicated that integration was the most optimal form of interaction between people from two cultures, while marginalisation was the most dysfunctional mode. Between these two extremes are assimilation and separation. Under integration, the better elements of both the home and host country cultures are preserved, combined and expanded; under marginalisation, the expatriate either rejects or is rejected by both the home and host country cultures; under assimilation, the expatriate unilaterally adapts to the host culture; under separation, the expatriates retains their distinct culture (R. L. Tung, 1998).

2.3.1.11. Expatriate Management

The effective management of expatriates requires attention to four areas namely selection of expatriates, preparation for the international assignment, performance management during the assignment, and repatriation process after the assignment (Caligiuri & Colakoglu, 2007).

Selection of Expatriates

The process of expatriate assignment begins with expatriate selection which “plays a crucial role in determining the success or failure of the assignment” (N. Gupta, et al., 2012, p. 9). However the expatriate selection process is flawed, despite the evidence that a variety of skills are necessary for success in an overseas assignment, MNCs focus only on one selection criterion: technical competence (Collings, et al., 2007; Pires, et al., 2006). According to Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) domestic performance does not equate to overseas performance, a manager who performs well in a domestic setting may not be able to adapt to managing in a different cultural setting. Instead of

selecting expatriates solely on the basis of their technical competence, greater consideration should also be given to the various traits that will enable expatriates to function effectively in multiple contexts (M.A. Shaffer, et al., 2006). “Expatriates who are emotionally stable, who are outgoing and agreeable, and who are high in openness to experience seem to function better than others” (M.A. Shaffer, et al., 2006, p. 122). The authors suggest that the selection of individuals with appropriate specific cross-cultural competencies (i.e., strong task and people orientations and non-ethnocentric attitudes) should also be a priority, for organisations that want to minimise training and relocation costs. Many MNCs fail to acknowledge the importance of psychosocial factors (i.e. personality characteristics, family situation and language skills) and best practices in the selection of expatriates (i.e. self-selection and family involvement) in determining the success of expatriates (Caligiuri & Colakoglu, 2007).

Also, many of the companies did not follow a systematic selection procedure resulting in a lot of subjectivity in expatriate selection (Caligiuri & Colakoglu, 2007). Tungli and Peiperl (2009) found that family’s willingness to go features low in the selection criterion whereas family related problems are one of the foremost reasons for premature departure. Improving expatriate selection procedures is an important consideration for reducing expatriate failure rates.

Preparation for International Assignments

“Cross-cultural training is an important ingredient of successful expatriate assignments” (N. Gupta, et al., 2012, p. 9). This is discussed further in Cross-cultural Training section.

Performance management of expatriate

According to Caligiuri and Colakoglu (2007), the goals of the expatriate and MNC must be aligned and linked with the performance management practices of expatriates. The organisation must provide the expatriate with clear objectives and expectations to reduce ambiguity surrounding the expatriate assignment.

Another issue that relates to managing the performance of expatriates is that the foreign office should make expatriates feel welcome and not feel `out of

sight, out of mind' from a head office perspective (Caligiuri & Colakoglu, 2007). Mentoring also assists expatriate adjustment and performance and has been discussed previously in Organisational Factors section.

Repatriation process and practices

Managing the repatriation process and retention of expatriate employees remains a great challenge for the organisations (J.S. Black & Gregersen, 1991c; Collings, et al., 2007; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012). Yet research suggests that many MNCs continue to adopt an ad-hoc approach toward the repatriation process and that many expatriate managers continue to experience the repatriation process as falling far short of expectations (Collings, et al., 2007, p. 201). Many expatriate employees are either leaving their international assignments early or quitting their organisations after they repatriate (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012). North American research indicates that 20% of all managers who complete foreign assignments wish to leave their company on return (Collings, et al., 2007). According to Collings, et al. (2007), many organisations have failed to develop repatriation policies or programmes which effectively assist the career progression of the expatriate even though it is generally accepted that retention of expatriates is a growing problem and that the costs of expatriate turnover are considerable. Repatriates can support organisational learning by accelerating the knowledge transfer from host countries to headquarters and vice versa; and MNCs should provide opportunities for repatriates to use the knowledge and skills they gained during international assignments. However, most MNCs do not have repatriation practices in place, they have a hard time retaining their repatriates, and thus, may lose this valuable source of global competence to their competitors (Caligiuri & Colakoglu, 2007).

Kraimer, et al. (2012) in their study found out through an international employee identity and identity strain process why repatriates often leave their firms after coming home. They explained that repatriates who had become highly embedded in their expatriate job assignments experienced higher rates of turnover when they returned home. "Home may not have changed, but it is not the same place, because repatriates themselves have changed after having

been expatriates. Those who take international assignments often feel fundamentally different after returning. Yet they may not see their development reflected in their treatment by their firms” (Kraimer, et al., 2012, p. 413).

Collings, Scullion, & Morley (2007) indicate that HR managers, in conjunction with line managers, must begin by defining appropriate objectives for the expatriate assignment. “The achievement of these objectives will be improved if the individual expatriate is selected and supported through a congruent set of HR policies throughout the expatriate cycle” (Collings, et al., 2007, p. 210). Appropriate compensation, performance management systems and most importantly repatriation policies will also assist in the achievement of assignment’s objectives.

2.3.1.12. Cross-cultural Training

Cross-cultural training is an important ingredient of successful expatriate assignments (N. Gupta, et al., 2012); and accelerates expatriates’ adjustment (Waxin & Panaccio, 2005). Cross-cultural training is effective in developing important cross-cultural skills, in facilitating cross-cultural adjustment, and in enhancing job performance (J.S. Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Furthermore, Eschbach, et al. (2001) showed that integrated cross-cultural training, that includes both pre-departure training and on-assignment training, reduces the severity of culture shock, reduces the time to adjust and become proficient in the new culture and increases performance and effectiveness of expatriates (Eschbach, et al., 2001). Cross-cultural training enables the individual to learn both content and skills that will facilitate effective cross-cultural interaction by reducing misunderstandings and inappropriate behaviours. It seeks to foster an appreciation for the host country’s culture. The belief is that understanding a host country’s culture will help the individual to empathise with the culture, which will enhance his/her effectiveness in dealing with host country nationals.

Black & Gregersen (1991b) and Tung (1981) have confirmed in their study that spouse's inability to adjust to the foreign environment is the most common reason for premature return of expatriates. Spouse adjustment as a significant

predictor of expatriate adjustment and/or significant relationships existing between expatriate and spouse cross-cultural adjustment have been shown (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005; Hechanova, et al., 2003; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999). According to Tungli and Peiperl (2009) language training is provided more often than the cultural training as pre-departure training provided for expatriates although most of the adjustment issues arise out of cultural differences.

Tung (1981) suggested that the training method should be chosen according to the type of assignment and should be depend upon two determinant factors: the degree of similarity between the culture of home and the host culture, and the degree of interpersonal interaction between the expatriate and host country national. In his seminal work, Gertsen (1990) indicated that cross-cultural training can be classified according to two dimensions: method (conventional and experimental) and orientation (general culture and specific culture). With regard to method: in the conventional method, information is transmitted through a unidirectional communication i.e. lecture-type; in the experimental method, the trainer gets the trainees to participate by simulating real life and hands on situations. With regard to orientation: in general culture orientation, the training emphasis is based on the notion of culture in general and aims at sensitizing participants to the notion of culture; Whilst specific culture orientation, focuses on one specific culture and aims at making trainees more competent in that particular culture.

Both Waxin and Panaccio (2005) and Okpara and Kabongo (2011) have shown that pre-move cultural training has a positive effect on adjustment to international assignments and that experimental types of training are the most effective ones. Furthermore, the effectiveness of cross-cultural training is clearly influenced by the magnitude of expatriates' prior international experience (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011; Waxin & Panaccio, 2005) and the larger the cultural distance between the country of origin and the host country, the more pronounced are the effects of cross-cultural training (Waxin & Panaccio, 2005).

The results of Vogel, et al. (2008) research indicated that South African multinational enterprises (MNEs) are not providing the preparation, support and training required by their expatriates and their spouses and children.

Cross-cultural training is required in both the home and host country Mendenhall and Stahl (2000). Aside from pre-departure home country training, Mendenhall and Stahl (2000) also advocated host-country real-time training, global mindset training, and CD-ROM/internet-based training. Black, et al. (1992) indicated that pre-departure training would be more effective if it were continued in the host country, considered to be the ideal place for learning a new culture. Expatriates should receive training on host country culture, history, politics, economy, religion and social and business practices. It is important that the manager, spouse and family are all given training. Language training in the host country language can help build rapport with local employees and improve manager's effectiveness.

Of late, companies have started recognizing the importance of cross-cultural training, including training for the spouse and family. According to the Global Relocation Trends Survey report (2012b), companies continue to recognise the importance of cross-cultural training and 81% of respondent companies indicated that cross-cultural training was available for some or all assignments, 37% noted that it was available for all assignments, 60% of respondents make the benefit available for the assignee and the entire family. In the latest report (2012), 85% of respondents indicated that cross-cultural training was a good or great value. Technology based training tools are also becoming more popular, 36% of respondents indicated that web based or CD based cross-cultural training tools were available.

2.3.2. Adjustment Challenges of expatriates working in Africa

2.3.2.1. Background on Africa

Africa is a diverse continent, consisting of 53 countries in total, 48 of which are included within Sub-Saharan Africa, which is the focus of this study. The

population of Sub-Saharan Africa was estimated at 841 million people in 2009 (The World Bank, 2011b). Africa has a diverse mix of ethnic groups and languages, there are an estimated 1,500 languages grouped into six linguistic families (Hatch, et al., 2011).

While it is understood that Africa is not a homogeneous entity and that countries have different starting points, it is true to say that there are still many overarching problems and trends that apply to the continent generally. These include(The World Bank, 2011b):

- High levels of unemployment and underemployment, particularly in urban areas. Economic growth has not translated to productive jobs and more earning opportunities for Africa's labour force, especially for the 7 million to 10 million young Africans who enter the labour force every year.
- Uneven growth, with about 20 fragile and conflict-affected states (FCS)⁴ seemingly trapped in persistent poverty.
- High levels of poverty and rising food prices. Even redistributed growth and productive employment may not be enough for the chronically poor, who suffer from food insecurity and undernourishment.
- Lowest levels of human capital in the world.
- Weak governance and large-scale corruption (9 of the bottom 17 countries in Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index are in Africa)
- Conflict and violence due to horizontal and vertical inequality between groups, ethnic fractionalisation, political repression, electoral crisis, legacies of colonialism, superpower rivalry, and competition for natural resources
- Poor performance of security and justice institutions

⁴ Fragile and conflict-affected states

According to Africa Development Indicators report (The World Bank, 2011b), Sub-Saharan Africa has an unprecedented opportunity for transformation and sustained growth. Until the outset of the global economic crisis, economic growth had averaged 5 percent a year for a decade. Even though growth declined as a consequence of the global financial crisis, it had rebounded within a year (2010). The poverty rate has been declining at about 1 percentage point a year, and progress on the Millennium Development Goals⁵, while insufficient to reach the 2015 targets in many countries, has been substantial.

Africa's private sector is increasingly attracting investment. The sector is also creating an emerging African middle class of hundreds of millions of consumers. Returns to investment in Africa are among the highest in the world (The World Bank, 2011a). African countries are increasingly relying on the private sector as the engine of growth. Private capital flows are higher than official development assistance (and foreign direct investment is higher than in India). China, India, and others are also investing large sums in Africa. However, at 15 percent of GDP, the private investment rate is about half of Asia's. Africa's growth could be faster and more widespread (and abject poverty eliminated) if it could address its most fundamental challenges, improving governance and increasing public sector capacity (The World Bank, 2011b). There is current dynamism and optimism on the continent and World Bank anticipates that Africa could be on the brink of an economic take-off, much like China was 30 years ago, and India 20 years ago.

Refer to Appendix B for some interesting facts on Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank Africa Development Indicators Factoids 2011).

⁵ Millennium Development Goals are a United Nations (UN) initiative established in 2000 and consists of 8 international development goals. These goals are: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, Achieve universal primary education, Promote gender equality and empower women, Reduce child mortality, Improve maternal health, Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases, Ensure environmental sustainability and Develop a global partnership for development

2.3.2.2. Challenges of Developing Locations

“The increase of assignments into locations that would be considered “developing” is a growing challenge for global companies” (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a, p. 3). In response Brookfield Global Relocation Services is now producing a Developing Locations Spotlight Report in addition to the Global Relocation Trends Survey report. They define “developing” “as a country or location whose economy is growing and as a consequence, is becoming a target location for global companies that are expanding their markets and / or manufacturing or production locations” (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a, p. 3). Aside from the BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India and China), these characteristics bring other locations into the fold: many countries in Africa and Asia, parts of Central Europe and Latin America as well as the South Pacific.

According to the Developing Locations Report (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a, p. 5), characteristics that mark a location as developing include places where:

- Housing options are limited (or non-existent)
- Education options are limited (or non-existent)
- Power and water supply infrastructure is unreliable
- Medical facilities are rudimentary
- Transportation is difficult
- Language barriers are significant
- Security is a challenge
- Cultural differences are vast
- Governmental or regulatory environment is difficult to navigate
- Currency restrictions complicate day-to-day transactions

“The reasons for assignments in developing locations are much the same as for any assignment location, and include business expansion, joint ventures and market growth. For some companies, developing locations make up the majority

of their assignment locations, this is typical for oil and gas, mining and construction industry companies seeking natural resources or participating in infrastructure projects. In these industries, expatriates are needed to provide local leadership, perform skill-based work, provide project-based expertise, train local employees and support skill development” (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a, p. 6).

Family considerations are the most prevalent challenge for assignments in developing locations. For assignments to developed locations, it is usually an expectation that the family accompany the expatriate for a long term assignment. However, this is not always the case for assignments to developing locations. Most often, respondents are not accompanied by family. “For expatriates taking assignments in developing locations, there are two other options: assignments that are designed for short term stays for the expatriate, who returns to the home location regularly to reconnect with family, or the family relocates to a third location for the duration of the assignment, typically a city that is close enough to the expatriate’s site to allow for weekend visits” (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a, p. 9).

Spouse considerations are particularly challenging in developing locations. Whilst the accompanying working spouses in developed countries may take a break from work during the assignment period, the impact for assignments to developing locations is different. In locations where it is possible to assimilate to some degree into the host culture, to explore new areas, to take classes or engage in the host community, all of these opportunities provide a spouse with potentially enjoyable experiences of the host country. “For the most part, these options are not available to spouses on assignments to developing locations. Language and cultural barriers, security concerns and lack of western-style activities frequently preclude spouses from participating in a full range of activities’ (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a, p. 16).

The use of premiums and allowances to incentivise or compensate assignees for the circumstances of international assignments are not usually offered to developed locations anymore. However, for assignments to developing locations, foreign service premiums are commonplace as well as hardship

premiums, which can include a compensation incentive as well as rest and relaxation leave (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a, p. 11).

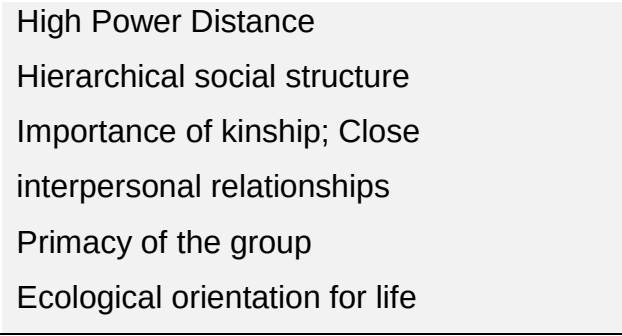
Appendix C provides a comparison in practices between developed and developing locations.

2.3.2.3. Cultural Diversity of Africa

Africa is a vast continent with rich cultural diversity: from the Arab North to the culturally diverse west (with a further Anglophone-Francophone dichotomy and strong ethnic division) to the east with a seeming dominance of Swahili language but obvious cultural differences; from the ever volatile Congo Basin (and its deep-rooted ethnic strifes and wars) to the relatively more stable south (Gbadamosi, 2003). Working in Africa, requires expatriates to have a greater sensitivity to African culture and an understanding of African cultural realities. African culture differs from other cultures in the way Africans construct meanings, negotiate social contexts and make sense of their environment (Darley & Blankson, 2008).

To use the term “African culture” is inaccurate because there is no monolithic, homogenous African culture, due to the strong national differences. Nonetheless, there are some cultural dimensions common to the sub-region (Grzeda & Assogbavi, 1999). These commonalities include: a hierarchical social structure, the importance of kinship, the primacy of the group, time orientation (Safavi and Tweddell, 1990) cited by (Darley & Blankson, 2008), the driving norms of human interdependence, virtue of symbiosis and reciprocity (Mangaliso, 2001) cited by (Darley & Blankson, 2008), the belief in ancestry and existence of a supreme being, and the value attached to the extended family (Mwamwenda, 1999) cited by (Darley & Blankson, 2008). Refer to Figure 4 for African cultural values.

Cultural Values
Collectivism
Traditional values and community
Respect for elders



- High Power Distance
- Hierarchical social structure
- Importance of kinship; Close interpersonal relationships
- Primacy of the group
- Ecological orientation for life

Figure 4: African Cultural values

Darley and Blankson (2008) provide some generalisations about African culture with some caveats. These caveats are firstly, that the dimensions may not be relevant or comprehensive enough to capture the essence of African cultural milieu and secondly, rapid urbanisation threatens the traditional African culture. Subject to the caveats given above, the following generalisations are given about African culture:

First, the innate African human character is imbued with both good and evil. The African is perceived good when his/her actions conform to customs and traditions of the community. Thus, doing good and being of good character are essential ingredients of the African personality.

Second, in terms of man and nature orientation, man must live in harmony with the universe, obeying the natural, moral and mystical order. In addition, religion is an integral part of the entire culture and permeates the African way of life.

Third, in terms of time orientation, the African takes a circular view of time, where the past and present are more important than the future. The focus is on the past and present. Also, emphasis is on fulfilment of social obligations and using time in social contexts takes precedence over the use of time in other contexts.

Fourth, African culture reflects a collateral relational orientation that supports respect of elders and sense of community. African culture recognises respect for elders and a relevant trait is the upholding of group rights.

Fifth, in terms of activity orientation, the cognitive style is oriented toward synthesis, and the African thought system reflects a high degree of harmony among elements within the system, the use of symbols, and proverbial social thought.

African culture promotes the principle of reciprocity which is reflected in the concept of 'Ubuntu' as applied in organisational behaviour in Southern Africa. Ubuntu "emphasises the principle of helping others as a way of helping oneself, collective activity and well being rather than individualism, unification rather than division, respect for elders and sharing" (Mufune, 2003, p. 21) cited by Darley and Blankson (2008).

Relating to Hofstede's (Hofstede, 1983) cultural dimensions, most sub-Saharan African countries exhibit high power distance, tend to be collectivistic, exhibit intermediate uncertainty avoidance and reflect slight femininity. The cultural dimensions for East Africa, West Africa and South Africa have been compared in Figure 5, source <http://geert-hofstede.com/east-africa-etketzsm.html>, last accessed 31 January 2013.

Power distance refers to the extent to which members of a society accept that power is distributed unequally in a society. Most sub-Saharan African countries exhibit high power distance. Authority is inherent in one's position within a hierarchy. Authority is assigned on the basis of age and experience (Grzeda & Assogbavi, 1999). East Africa and West Africa scored 64 and 77, respectively, compared with 49 for South Africa. East and West Africa score high on this dimension (score of 64, 77 respectively) which means that people accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. Hierarchy in an organisation is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralisation is popular, subordinates expect to be told what to do and the ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat. South Africa scores 49 on this dimension which means that people to a larger extent accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification.

Individualism-collectivism refers to the relative importance of the interests of the individual versus the interests of the group. Most sub-Saharan African countries

tend to be collectivistic. The interest of the group takes precedence over individual interest. East Africa and West Africa scored 27 and 20 and are considered collectivistic. This is manifest in 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. The society fosters strong relationships where everyone takes responsibility for fellow members of their group. In collectivist societies 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. South Africa, with a score of 65 is an Individualistic society. This means there is a high preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of themselves and their immediate families only. In individualistic societies offence causes guilt and a loss of self-esteem, the employer/employee relationship is a contract based on mutual advantage, hiring and promotion decisions are supposed to be based on merit only, management is the management of individuals.

Uncertainty avoidance captures the degree to which individuals in a culture feel threatened by ambiguous, uncertain, or new situations. Most sub-Saharan African countries exhibit intermediate uncertainty avoidance, with preference for structure and consistent routine. African culture recognises preservation of customs. East Africa and West Africa scored 52 and 54, respectively and have a high preference for avoiding uncertainty. Countries exhibiting high uncertainty avoidance maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. In these cultures there is an emotional need for rules, innovation may be resisted, security is an important element in individual motivation. South Africa scores 49 on this dimension and also has a preference for avoiding uncertainty.

Masculinity-femininity or goal orientation pertains to the extent to which "traditional" male orientations of ambition and achievement are emphasised over "traditional" female orientations of nurturance and interpersonal harmony.

Cultures differ on what motivates people to achieve different goals. Cultures of the aggressive goal behaviour type (masculinity) value material possessions, money, status, success and assertiveness whereas cultures of the passive goal behaviour type (femininity) value social relevance, quality of life and welfare of others. Most sub-Saharan African countries show characteristics that reflect slight femininity. They value social relevance and welfare of others. East Africa and West Africa scored 44 and 46 respectively, and are considered relatively feminine. In feminine countries the focus is on “working in order to live”, managers strive for consensus, people value equality, solidarity and quality in their working lives. Conflicts are resolved by compromise and negotiation. Incentives such as free time and flexibility are favoured. Focus is on well-being, status is not shown, an enjoyable work environment and good work relations are strong motivators. South Africa scores 63 on this dimension and is thus a masculine society. In masculine countries people “live in order to work”, managers are expected to be decisive and assertive, the emphasis is on equity, competition and performance and conflicts are resolved by fighting them out.

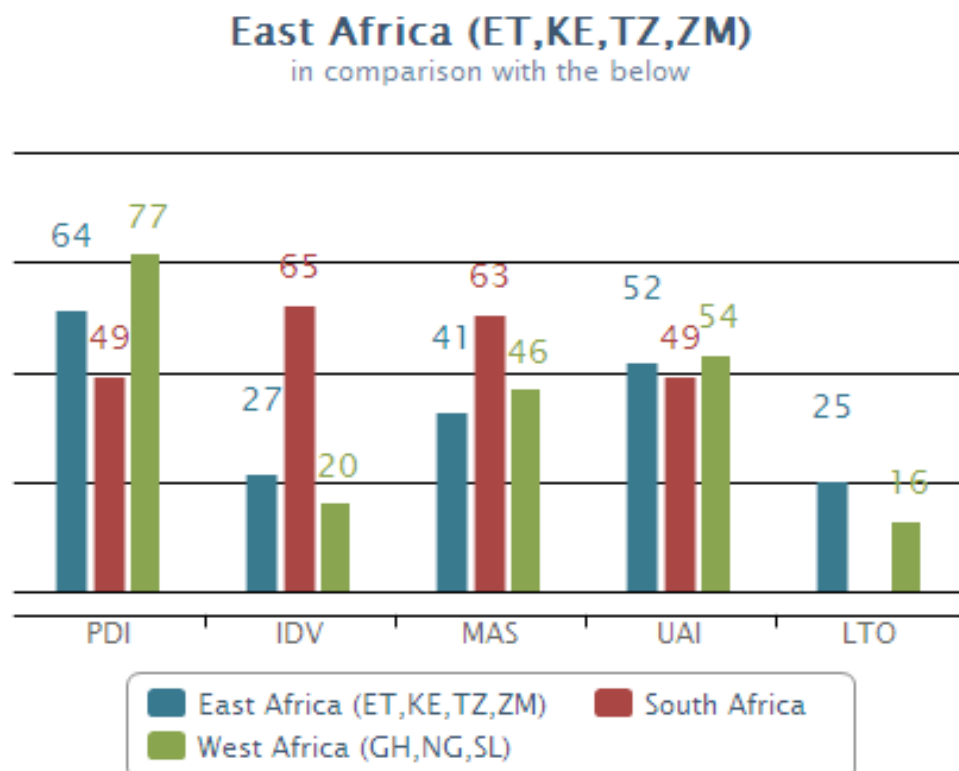


Figure 5: Cultural Dimension Indices⁶ Source: <http://geert-hofstede.com/east-africa-etketzgm.html>

Blunt and Jones (1997) cited by (Grzeda & Assogbavi, 1999) have shown that current western notions of leadership are not widely applicable in Africa (and East Asia). The major reasons have to do with significant differences in values concerning authority, group loyalties and interpersonal harmony. Grzeda and Assogbavi (1999) add further that in most African countries, the quality of life, and the value attached to personal time exceed any desire to accumulate wealth. Positive interpersonal relationships are valued above money. These characteristics, along with the priority assigned to satisfying social needs, result in cultures with predominantly feminine dimensions.

Gbadamosi (2003) makes recommendations for African managers (this is also applicable to expatriate managers in Africa):

- The African manager should be more interested not only in the career advancement and job environment of employees but also be more humane by caring about non-work activities that might affect employee performance
- Work relationships are especially important to African employees
- Culture has an overbearing influence in understanding commitment; the African manager must understand the realities of culture in managerial practice. Socio-cultural factors will always be an essential component to consider for successful management practice.

2.3.3. Research Question

What are the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa?

⁶⁶ For East Africa: ET refers to Ethiopia, KE is Kenya, TZ is Tanzania, ZM is Zambia
For West Africa: GH refers to Ghana, NG refers to Nigeria and SL refers to Sierra Leone

2.4. Conclusion of Literature Review

In general, there has been extensive research done on expatriate adjustment and adaptation, implications of this for the selection and training of expatriates, expatriate performance, expatriate failure on international assignments and expatriate return challenges. There is some literature on the challenges of working in Africa, however, very little is known about the adjustment challenges of expatriates working in Africa. Even less is known about the adjustment of South African expatriates working in Africa.

2.4.1. Research Question:

What are the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa?

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section describes the methodology that was followed to address the research question in the Literature Review section. A qualitative methodology was used. This chapter discusses the research methodology/paradigm, population and sample, research instrument, procedure for data collection as well as data analysis. Limitations of the study, validity and reliability are also discussed.

3.1 Research methodology /paradigm

This study used a qualitative methodology to answer the research questions. “Qualitative research is concerned with developing explanations of social phenomena” and aims to “help us to understand the world in which we live and why things are the way they are” (Hancock, 2007, p. 2). Given the nature of the research question, qualitative research is most applicable to this research. Qualitative research is concerned with finding the answers to questions which begin with: why? how? in what way? Quantitative research, on the other hand, is more concerned with questions about: how much? how many? how often? to what extent? (Hancock, 2007)

Wahyuni (2012) explains that research paradigms address the philosophical dimensions of social sciences. “A research paradigm is a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs as to how the world is perceived which then serves as a thinking framework that guides the behaviour of the researcher” (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 69).

The paradigm relevant to this research is Interpretivism (Constructivism).

Interpretivists believe that reality is constructed by social actors and people’s perceptions of it. “They recognise that individuals with their own varied backgrounds, assumptions and experiences contribute to the on-going construction of reality existing in their broader social context through social interaction” (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 71). Because these human perspectives and

experiences are subjective, social reality may change and can have multiple perspectives. Interpretivist researchers prefer to interact and to have a discussion with the participants in the study so that they can understand the social world from the experiences and subjective meanings that people attach to it. Interpretivist researchers also prefer to work with qualitative data which provides rich descriptions of social constructs and use a narrative form of analysis to describe specifics and highly detailed accounts of a particular social reality being studied. “The experiences and values of both research participants and researchers substantially influence the collection of data and its analysis” (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 71).

Hancock (2007) nicely summarises the features of qualitative research, refer to Table 4:

Table 4: Features of Qualitative Research Source: Hancock 2007

Features of Qualitative Research
Qualitative research is concerned with the opinions, experiences and feelings of individuals producing subjective data.
Qualitative research describes social phenomena as they occur naturally. No attempt is made to manipulate the situation under study as is the case with experimental quantitative research.
Understanding of a situation is gained through a holistic perspective. Quantitative research depends on the ability to identify a set of variables.
Data are used to develop concepts and theories that help us to understand the social world. This is an inductive approach to the development of theory. Quantitative research is deductive in that it tests theories which have already been proposed
Qualitative data are collected through direct encounters with individuals, through one to one interviews or group interviews or by observation. Data collection is time consuming.
The intensive and time consuming nature of data collection necessitates the use of small samples.
Different sampling techniques are used. In quantitative research,

sampling seeks to demonstrate representativeness of findings through random selection of subjects. Qualitative sampling techniques are concerned with seeking information from specific groups and subgroups in the population.

Criteria used to assess reliability and validity differ from those used in quantitative research

3.2 Research Design

The research design included the methodology and paradigm, determining the population and sample, identifying the research instrument, procedure for data collection, data analysis and interpretation. The research design was based on a qualitative methodology and conducting semi-structured interviews with respondents. This has been explained in the following sections. A summary of the steps taken by the researcher are also provided in Figure 6.

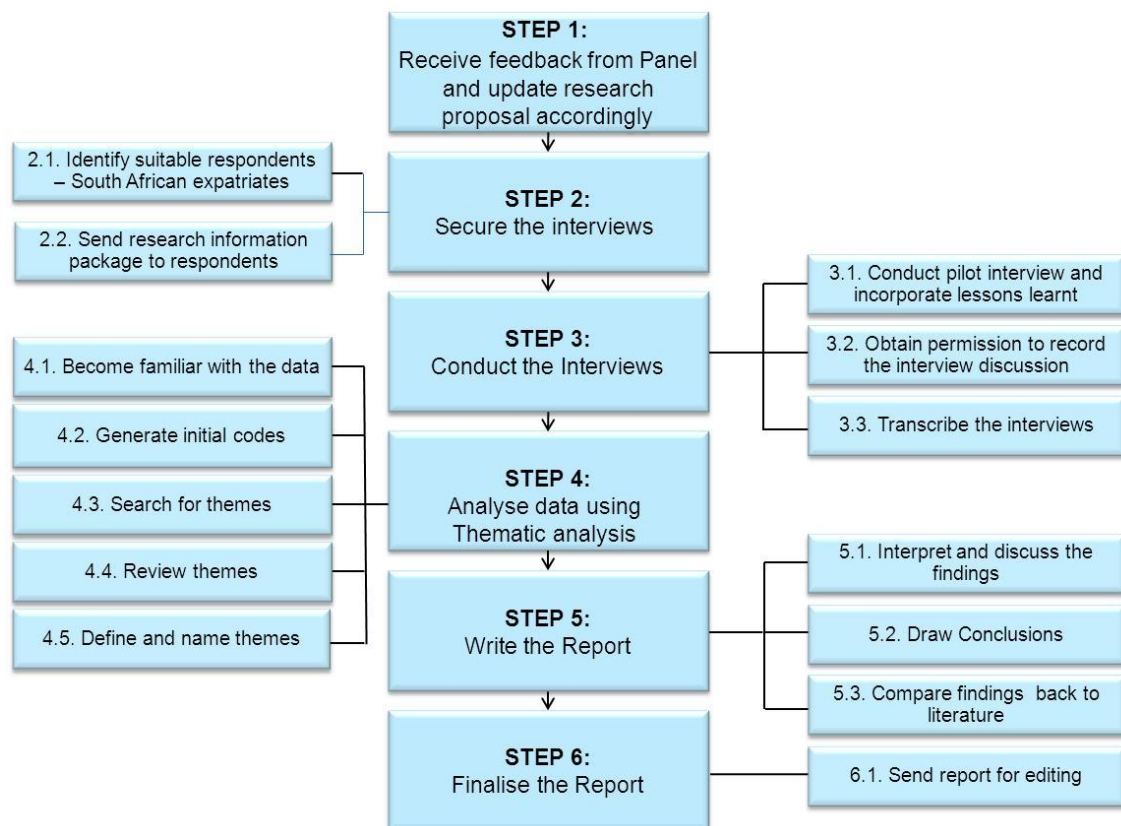


Figure 6: Steps taken in performing the research

3.3 Population and sample

3.3.1 Population

The population consists of the South African expatriates who have previously worked (within the last three years) or are currently working in Africa, specifically Sub-Saharan Africa.

The full population of South African expatriates that have worked, or are currently working in Sub-Saharan Africa is not known.

3.3.2 Sample and sampling method

The intensive and time consuming nature of individual interviews necessitates the use of small samples (Hancock, 2007). For this research, approximately 14 individual semi-structured interviews were conducted. Preferably, all respondents should have had a minimum of three months expatriate experience working on the continent of Africa. If they have already returned from the assignment, it should not have been more than three years before.

In quantitative research, sampling seeks to demonstrate representativeness of findings through random selection of subjects, however qualitative sampling techniques are concerned with seeking information from specific groups and subgroups in the population (Hancock, 2007). The specific group of interest in this research is South African expatriates who have previously worked or are currently working in Africa. Ideally, the sample should fulfil all of the following criteria:

- South African expatriates that have worked or are currently working in any country in Sub-Saharan Africa;
- South African expatriates that have worked or are currently working for any MNC or South African company i.e. not only South African companies;

- Expatriates at any position in the company are eligible i.e. not necessarily only those in management positions;
- South African expatriates across all industries are considered i.e. there is no focus on a specific industry.

Ideally, the sample of respondents should show a spread across Sub-Saharan countries, industries, gender, marital status and family accompaniment.

3.4 The research instrument

According to DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006), interviews can provide rich and in-depth information about the experiences of individuals. The most suitable method of collecting the data for this research is the individual (one to one) semi-structured Interviews, where the interviewer and respondents engage in an interview. Semi-structured interviews involve a series of open-ended questions based on the topic areas the researcher wants to cover. The open-ended nature of the question defines the topic under investigation but provides opportunities for both interviewer and interviewee to discuss some topics in more detail to gain a better understanding (Hancock, 2007). The interviewer develops and uses an interview guide which provides a clear set of instructions for interviewers and contains the list of open-ended questions and topics that need to be covered during the conversation, usually in a particular order. The interviewer follows the guide, but may stray from the guide when he or she feels this is appropriate, in order to get a better understanding into the topic. The main feature of an interview is to “facilitate the interviewees to share their perspectives, stories and experience regarding a particular social phenomena being observed by the interviewer” (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 73).

Cohen and Crabtree (2006) indicate that the benefits of semi-structured interviews are that questions can be prepared ahead of time, which allows the interviewer to be prepared and appear competent during the interview. Semi-structured interviews also allow informants the freedom to express their views in their own terms; the interviews can provide reliable, comparable qualitative data.

DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006) indicated that it is necessary for the interviewer to rapidly develop a positive relationship with the interviewee during semi-structured interviews. This is referred to as building rapport. The process of establishing rapport is an essential component of the interview and involves creating trust and respect for the interviewee. It also involves establishing a safe and comfortable environment in which the personal experiences of the interviewees can be shared (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

Individual (one to one) semi-structured Interviews were used as the research instrument. Refer to Appendix A for the interview questions. Aside from demographic questions, 3 open-ended questions were asked. Further probing questions were asked using the dimensions and determinants identified in the Black, et al. (1991) model. This also provided opportunities to discuss some topics in more detail to gain a better understanding. During the interviews, interviewees were encouraged to share their perspectives, stories and experience on a given set of issues.

3.5 Procedure for data collection

According to Hancock (2007), qualitative data are collected through direct interaction with individuals on a one to one basis or in a group setting. However, data collection is time consuming. The intensive and time consuming nature of data collection necessitates the use of small samples and usually provides a richness of data and deeper insight into the phenomena under study.

The interview process included designing the information pack, interview questions and developing the interview guides as well as conducting the interviews. An information pack was sent beforehand to prospective candidates in an email. It consisted of a covering letter to the respondent and the interview questions (refer to Appendix A). The covering letter introduced the researcher, briefly explained the purpose of the research and requested the participation of the respondent. Candidates were assured that their information would be kept confidential and treated with respect and anonymity. This was followed by a

telephone call to confirm receipt of letter and to book the appointment for the interview with the respondent.

Where potential respondents were not unavailable, alternative arrangements were made. Only 2 respondents were not locally available because they were currently on assignment in Africa. In this instance, the interview was conducted with each respondent via telephone.

Wahyuni (2012) suggests that probes should be prepared and used in the interviews; this helps to keep the discussion flowing and clarify discussion points. Furthermore, the questions should be tested and prior to conducting the formal interview, the researcher should hold mock interviews with colleagues to fine-tune the research instrument. As a result, some expression and words could be changes to make the questions clearer. Often the structure of the questions is reordered to improve the flow of the discussion (Wahyuni, 2012). The researcher followed these guidelines once ethics clearance and permission had been obtained to commence with the research and interviews.

Wahyuni (2012) indicates that the interview should be framed by a briefing before the interview commences, and a debriefing afterwards. At the start of the interview, the researcher briefly explained the context and the aim of the interview and emphasised the confidentiality, anonymity and the voluntary nature of the study. The interviewees gave verbal consent to the researcher to proceed with the interview. Each interview lasted between 30-45 minutes. The participant's consent for recording the interview was obtained at the start of the interview. Digital recorders were used to record the interview discussion.

Ethical issues related to the interview process were considered (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). These included reducing the risk of unanticipated harm; protecting the interviewee's information; effectively informing interviewees about the nature of the study, and reducing the risk of exploitation.

3.6 Data analysis and interpretation

Analysis of data in a research project involves summarising the mass of data collected and presenting the results in a way that communicates the most important features and “the big picture” i.e. the major findings (Hancock, 2007). By nature, qualitative data is subjective, interpretative, descriptive, holistic and copious. Performing data analysis on qualitative data basically involves dismantling, segmenting and reassembling data to form meaningful findings in order to draw inferences (Wahyuni, 2012). A common approach to the interpretation of meanings from textual data is using content analysis. Content analysis is a procedure for the categorisation of verbal or behavioural data, for purposes of classification, summarisation and tabulation. Qualitative content analysis which is done through identifying patterns and themes within data is termed thematic analysis (Wahyuni, 2012). In practice, qualitative content analysis uses a coding method. Coding simply means labelling.

According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis provides a flexible and useful research tool, which can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complex account of data. Braun and Clarke (2006) have provided a step by step guide to doing thematic analysis consisting of six phases. Refer to Table 5 for more detail.

Table 5: Phases of Thematic Analysis Source: Braun & Clarke (2006)

Phase	Description of process
Familiarising yourself with your data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and rereading the data, noting down initial ideas.
Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.

Reviewing themes	Checking in the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells; generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
Producing the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

Braun and Clarke (2006) indicate that thematic research is a relatively straightforward form of qualitative analysis, and does not require the same detailed theoretical and technical knowledge that other approaches do. However, they warn against potential pitfalls when doing thematic analysis such as: firstly, failure to actually analyse the data; secondly, using the questions on the research instruments as the themes; thirdly, weak or unconvincing analysis where the themes do not appear to work or there is too much overlap between themes or the themes are not internally coherent and consistent; fourthly, mismatch between data and analytic claims made about it; or fifthly, mismatch between theory and analytic claims. These pitfalls were factored into the data analysis process of this research.

During the data analysis phase, consideration was given to data storage and security, transcribing recorded interviews and cleaning data. Transcribing was seen as the initial step in data analysis.

3.7 Limitations of the study

“One common criticism levied at qualitative research is that the results of a study may not be generalisable to a larger population because the sample group was small and the subjects were not chosen randomly” (Hancock, 2007, p. 3). The quantitative tradition believes that research should rely heavily on reliability and validity to ensure its replicability and generalisability. Hancock (2007) argues that the original research question may have sought insight into a specific subgroup of the population, not the general population because the subgroup is “special” or different from the general population and that specialness is the focus of the research. The small sample may have been necessary because very few subjects were available. In such studies, generalisability of the findings to a wider, more diverse population is not an aim (Hancock, 2007).

The limitations of the study are contained in Table 6:

Table 6: Limitations and Implications for research

Possible Limitations	Implications for research
Lack of generalisability of Qualitative Methodology	Research question sought insight into a specific subgroup of the population, not the general population because the subgroup is ‘special’ or different from the general population and that specialness is the focus of the research. Generalisability of the findings to a wider, more diverse population is not the aim of this research.
Interviews as research instrument not providing richness of data and deeper insight	Research guide and schedule had to be reworked based on findings from the pilot.
Smallness of the sample	The intensive and time consuming nature of

	individual interviews necessitated the use of small samples. For the research, 14 individual semi-structured interviews were conducted.
Obtaining the minimum number of interviews given the time constraints	All possible alternatives were discussed with potential respondents in order to secure interviews. This included telephonic interviews when respondents were not locally available.
Interviews were done only with expatriates. Certain aspects of the Black, et al. (1991) model was not tested	The study attempted to test the Black, et al. (1991) model of adjustment. Since this study was done from the perspective of the expatriates it was not possible to test certain aspects of the model such as Organisation socialisation, Organisation selection mechanisms and criteria, Organisation culture novelty and mode of adjustment, and these aspects were consequently excluded.
Problems encountered with Thematic analysis	Analysis and proper identification of themes was presented to supervisor.

3.8 Validity and reliability

Wahyuni (2012) argues that the traditional concepts of reliability and validity do not fit perfectly into the qualitative research landscape and cannot be practically used as criteria to assess qualitative research. Qualitative research seeks to produce credible knowledge of interpretations on organisation and management accounting processes and understandings, with an emphasis more on uniqueness and contexts.

“Researchers need alternative models appropriate to qualitative designs that ensure rigor without sacrificing the relevance of the qualitative research” (Krefting, 1991, p. 215). Guba's (1981) model, for assessing the trustworthiness of qualitative data, is based on four aspects of trustworthiness that are relevant to both quantitative and qualitative studies: truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. Refer to Table 7. The model defines different

strategies of assessing these criteria for qualitative and quantitative approaches. These strategies are important to researchers in designing ways of increasing the rigour of their qualitative studies and also as a means of assessing the qualitative research.

Table 7: Criteria for qualitative and quantitative approaches

Criterion	Qualitative Approach	Quantitative Approach
Truth value	Credibility	Internal validity
Applicability	Transferability	External validity
Consistency	Dependability	Reliability
Neutrality	Confirmability	Objectivity

3.8.1 External validity/Transferability

Transferability refers to the level of applicability into other settings or situations; it is the ability to generalize from the findings to larger populations. Research meets this criterion when the findings fit into contexts outside the study situation that are determined by the degree of similarity or goodness of fit between the two contexts (Krefting, 1991). Lincoln and Guba (1985) noted that transferability is more the responsibility of the person wanting to transfer the findings to another situation or population than that of the researcher of the original study; they argued that as long as the original researcher presents sufficient descriptive data to allow comparison, he or she has addressed the problem of applicability.

Criteria for determining transferability are: Nominated sample, Comparison of sample to demographic data, Time sample, Dense description.

3.8.2 Internal validity/Credibility

Credibility deals with the accuracy of data to reflect the observed social phenomena; it is concerned with whether the study actually measures or tests what is intended. Truth value asks whether the researcher has established confidence in the truth of the findings for the subjects or informants and the

context in which the study was undertaken (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It establishes how confident the researcher is with the truth of the findings based on the research design, informants, and context. Truth value is perhaps the most important criterion for the assessment of qualitative research.

Criteria for determining credibility are: Prolonged and varied field experience, Time (sampling), Reflexivity (field journal), Triangulation, Member checking, Peer examination, Interview technique, Establishing authority of the researcher, Structural coherence and Referential adequacy.

3.8.3 Reliability/Dependability

Dependability concerns taking into account all the changes that occur in a setting and how these affect the way research is being conducted; whether the findings would be consistent if the inquiry were replicated with the same subjects or in a similar context. According to Krefting (1991), unlike the relatively controlled experimental environment, the qualitative field setting may be complicated by extraneous and unexpected variables. The key to qualitative work is to learn from the informants rather than control for them. Moreover, instruments that are assessed for consistency in qualitative research are the researcher and the informants, both of whom vary greatly within the research project. Qualitative research emphasizes the uniqueness of the human situation, so that variation in experience rather than identical repetition is sought.

Dependability can be achieved by a detailed explanation of the research design and process to enable future researchers to follow a similar research framework. It should be noted that the application of the research model by a future researcher is not necessarily targeted at getting a similar result. Enhancing dependability can be achieved by presenting detailed and step-by-step explanation of the research processes undertaken, as well as providing the main instruments used to gather empirical data, e.g. the list of interview questions. All aspects of the research have been documented; this includes the consistency matrix, interview questions, transcripts and research steps.

Criteria for determining dependability are: Dependability audit, Dense description of research methods, Stepwise replication, Triangulation, Peer examination, Code-recode procedure.

3.8.4 Objectivity/Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the extent to which others can confirm the findings in order to ensure that the results reflect the understandings and experiences from observed participants, rather than the researcher's own preferences. It is the degree to which the findings are a function solely of the informants and conditions of the research and not of other biases, motivations, and perspectives. In addition to triangulation methods, (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) suggest using an 'inquiry audit' to enhance confirmability. Documentation on data and progress of research therefore should be carefully kept in the form of research memos and interim summaries as parts of the research working book. This research record serves to provide an audit trail which enables an examination of both the research process and research outputs by tracing out the step-by-step the course of the research. Peer assistance to cross check the coding development and application can also be aimed at confirmability.

Criteria for determining confirmability are: Confirmability audit, Triangulation, Reflexivity.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a demographic profile of the respondents, thereafter, the core themes that have emerged using thematic analysis are presented.

4.2 Demographic profile of respondents

The chapter describes the respondent's demographic profile, which inevitably influences the responses obtained. The demographic profile of respondents is contained in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristic	Number	Percent
Age		
30-39	4	28.5
40-49	6	43
50-59	4	28.5
Gender		
Male	12	86
Female	2	14
Race		
Black	4	28.6
White	7	50
Asian	3	21.4
Coloured	0	0
Type of Industry		
Electricity	1	7.1
Mining	5	35.7
Food and Beverage	1	7.1
Consulting	1	7.1

Aviation	1	7.1
Financial	1	7.1
Government	2	14.3
Telecommunication	2	14.3
Job Position		
Executive	4	28.6
Senior	4	28.6
Middle	5	35.7
Junior	1	7.1
Family Accompaniment		
No family (single/Divorced)	4	28.5
Accompanied by family	4	28.5
Not accompanied by family	5	36
Split family	1	7
Number of African Countries worked in		
1	6	42.9
2-3	1	7.1
4 or more	7	50

Fourteen respondents were interviewed. The average age of respondents was 44 with majority of the respondents being White males. Only two females were interviewed. Majority of the respondents were from the mining industry. Four respondents had no family (either single or divorced), four were accompanied by family, five were not accompanied by family and one respondent had a split family (i.e. family separated).

During the research design process it was anticipated that the respondents would be evenly spread across the different racial groups as well as gender. However, this did not materialise during the process of identifying suitable candidates. Whilst it was expected that face-to-face interviews would be conducted with all respondents, this preferred method was used for all interviews except for two where interviews were conducted via telephone due to

respondents being on assignment in Africa when the interviews were being conducted.

4.3 Results pertaining Research Question

In response to the research question of “What are the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa?”, thematic analysis was used to analyse the data collected from the interviews.

The steps of thematic analysis involved getting familiar with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes and lastly defining and naming themes. The core themes that emerged are presented in Table 9. The themes are centred on general living conditions, family adjustment, culture and language adjustment, interacting with host country nationals, lack of support from organisation, work adjustment, inadequate preparation prior to departure and crime, corruption and security concerns. These themes are described in Table 9.

Table 9: Core Themes

Theme	Description
Adapting to general living conditions	This includes housing, food, traffic and transportation infrastructure, climate, entertainment and recreation and diseases.
Ability of family to adjust to new environment	This involves adjustment of spouse and children. The key challenges of schooling for children, medical facilities and spouse comfort are discussed.
Adapting to a diverse African culture and language	This includes cultural aspects and includes religion, norms, customs and conventions as

	well as perception of time. It also includes language barriers that impact communication with host country nationals both inside and outside of work.
Interacting effectively with host country nationals	This includes interacting with host country nationals both inside and outside of work and developing relationships with host country nationals. Acceptance by host country nationals, expatriates socialising with host country nationals versus expatriates and ethnocentrism are also discussed.
Lack of support from organisation	This includes logistics support, support during the assignment, cross-cultural training, unrealistic expectations from head office, career support including repatriation concerns and renewal of work permits.
Adapting to work related challenges	This includes work related issues such as role clarity, prevalence of in-groups, perception of time and lack of systems and processes. Job related factors such as role clarity, authority and decision making are also discussed.
Inadequate preparation prior to departure	This includes preparation and training prior to relocating and having accurate expectations prior to departure.
Crime, corruption and security concerns	This includes bribery and corruption, kidnapping and ransoms, civil wars and instability, crime, safety and security issues.

4.4 Summary of the results

The chapter describes the respondent's demographic profile, which inevitably influences the responses obtained. To summarise, the average age of respondents was 44 with majority of the respondents being White males. This research's purpose to investigate the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa. The findings indicate that expatriates experienced adjustment challenges with regard to adapting to local living conditions, ability of family to adjust to new environment, adapting to a new culture and language, interacting effectively with host country nationals, lack of support from organisation, adapting to work related challenges, inadequate preparation prior to departure and had crime, corruption and security concerns. These will be discussed and explained in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings of the research are discussed and explained, and related to the literature review. The findings are tested against Black, et al. (1991) framework of international adjustment.

Please note that all respondents' names have been withheld for purposes of anonymity and will be referred to as "Respondent X".

5.2 Demographic profile of respondents

Age

In terms of age, four respondents were between the ages of 30 and 39, six respondents were between the age of 40 and 49 and four were between the age of 50 and 59. The average age of respondents was 44.

Gender

From a gender perspective, majority of the respondents were Male. There were twelve males and two females.

Race

From a race perspective, four respondents were black, seven were white and three were Asian. Majority of the respondents were white and there were no coloured respondents.

Industry

Majority of the respondents were from the mining industry. Five of the respondents were from the mining industry followed by two each from the telecommunications industry and government. There was one respondent each

from the Electricity, Food and Beverage, Aviation, Consulting and Financial Industries.

Job Position

Majority of respondents were at middle management level. Four respondents were at executive level, four at senior level, five at middle management level and one junior management level.

Family Accompaniment

In terms of family accompaniment i.e. those respondents that were accompanied by a spouse and /or children, four respondents had no family (either single or divorced), four were accompanied by family, five were not accompanied by family and one respondent had a split family (i.e. family separated).

Countries worked in Africa

Regarding the number of countries that the respondents had worked in, six had worked in only one country, one had worked in three countries and seven had worked in four or more countries. The countries that respondents had worked in Sub-Saharan Africa include Mozambique, Kenya, Nigeria, Uganda, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Botswana, Namibia, Malawi, Tanzania, Ghana, Mali, Senegal, Malawi, Angola, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Swaziland, Rwanda, Gabon, Ivory Coast and Mauritania.

Of all of the respondents, four were still on assignment in Africa, whilst ten had returned from assignment in Africa. Of the four respondents still on assignment, one has been on assignment for three months, another for nine months and the other two respondents had been on assignment for more than 1.5 years. The two respondents with least time on assignment of three months and nine months) are in the culture shock and adjustment phases respectively in the expatriate adjustment lifecycle, further influencing the feedback received.

During the research design process it was anticipated that the respondents would be evenly spread across the different racial groups as well as gender.

However, this did not materialise during the process of identifying suitable candidates. Whilst it was expected that face-to-face interviews would be conducted with all respondents, this preferred method was used for all interviews except for two where interviews were conducted via telephone due to respondents being on assignment in Africa when the interviews were being conducted.

5.3 Adapting to General Living Conditions

This includes housing, food, traffic and transportation infrastructure, climate, entertainment and recreation and diseases. Medical facilities and schooling are discussed in the Ability of family to adjust to new environment section.

Respondents indicated the following differences in living conditions as issues for adjustment: accommodation, food and water, traffic, climate, entertainment and recreation, disease, medical facilities and schooling.

With regard to general living conditions, the findings indicate that respondents found living conditions in Africa very challenging because of limited housing options, unfamiliar food, limited choices for food, poor quality of the water, traffic congestion, poor transportation infrastructure and locals' driving practices, extremely hot and humid climate, limited entertainment and recreation options, prevalence of diseases, inadequate medical facilities and services and limited schooling options.

Although these challenges with regard to general living conditions have been frequently mentioned by respondents, the researcher was only able to find expatriate adjustment literature related to general living conditions and culture toughness/distance/novelty which impacted adjustment, at a high level. Previous academic research and studies have not delved deeply into these areas offering academic theory and postulating hypothesis in this regard. Specifics regarding expatriate adjustment and accommodation, food, traffic and transportation infrastructure, climate, entertainment and recreation and diseases have not been explored in the literature. Perhaps, the most relevant

reports referring specifically to these issues are the Global Relocation Trends Survey Report (2012b) and the Developing Locations Report (2012a).

Takeuchi, et al. (2002) identified significant spillover effects between the work and non-work domains in the expatriate cross-cultural adjustment process. Specifically, expatriates' degree of cross-cultural adjustment to living conditions in the foreign country had positive relationships with general and job satisfaction, both of which had a negative relationship to expatriates' intention to terminate the assignment prematurely (Takeuchi, et al., 2002). This means that the challenges with living conditions could impact expatriate (and family) quality of life, and if severe enough could negatively impact general and job satisfaction influence expatriates' intention to terminate the assignment prematurely.

5.3.1 *Housing*

In general, the findings indicate that expatriates working in the remote locations, and living in camps or compounds experienced more demanding and harsher living conditions than the expatriates living and working in the cities. The accommodation in the camps, usually pre-fabricated buildings, was very basic compared to the accommodation in the city where the senior expatriates typically lived in comfortable, upmarket apartments and houses.

The respondents living in the cities, typically senior expatriates with families, were provided with houses that could be regarded as 'lavish' by any standards, with household staff consisting of servants including maid, butler, cook, gardener, driver etc.

The expatriates working at remote locations had limited housing options. Depending on whether expatriates are single or with families, they live in single quarters or prefabricated houses in the villages but most often in the camps or compounds. Most of the expatriates working at remote locations were not accompanied by family. One respondent complained:

"I was in a motel room, which is a room which had a single bed, little side table, wardrobe and a bath and toilet. No kitchen. I had to eat at the

canteen. I soon made a lot of noise not to stay there and ended up getting a 3 bed pre-fab house, where I could cook and do anything”

This was also noted that for assignments to developing locations, respondents most often are not accompanied by family (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a).

5.3.2 Food and Water

The findings indicate respondents experienced challenges with unfamiliar food, limited choices for food and poor quality of the water.

In most African countries, respondents found food a challenge. They found the cuisine to be different, certain food items were not (or rarely) available, and none of the familiar brands that they were used to such as Ouma rusks were available. Even the chocolate bars were different!

According to respondent F, food was always a challenge because you didn’t always get fresh produce like fruit and vegetables, if you did, it was generally imported and very expensive and also highly treated with pesticides. Furthermore, you could never just go to the market or supermarket and get whatever you need.

“In places like the DRC, Rwanda and Mali they didn’t have huge supermarkets and if they did have frozen food, it would be hugely expensive and you would never know how old it is anyway”

Food in certain locations, such as Mali, was a problem. Respondent F said that when she lived in Mali, they used to import a lot of food at huge expense, especially meat. In countries such as these, companies would send shipments of food which the expatriates had to pay for.

“The (local) meat would be hanging up outside in this 50 degree heat with flies sitting on it. It was never ever cold. They (local Malians) didn’t have fridges....its the seventh poorest country in Africa....so people used to buy big blocks of ice and keep their things on the ice”

Another problem, in the villages and compounds, was the lack of variety of food, according to respondent J:

“At the canteen in the village where I lived, they cooked 30 tons of rice a month. Every day, it would be rice and chicken (or what looks like chicken but doesn’t taste like chicken) or Nile perch⁷. You have a choice of 2 meals per sitting. Although it is edible you can get sick”

Another respondent said that expatriates got sick from eating the local bread, they found out that sorghum had been added to the flour. Expatriates were often hesitant to try the local cuisine, not knowing what ingredients were added to the food!

Some expatriates were quite enterprising, starting up shops, selling familiar favourites from the home country e.g. boerewors⁸ and sirloin steak, at a price, off course.

The quality of water is also poor; expatriates would have to drink bottled water. Bottled water also had to be used to rinse the mouth after brushing teeth, forgetting to do so could result in extreme diarrhoea for the next few days.

5.3.3 Traffic and Transportation Infrastructure

The findings indicate that respondents experienced challenges with traffic congestion, poor transportation infrastructure and locals’ driving practices. One or more of these issues were mentioned by all respondents and made using the roads a terrifying experience for them.

Almost all of the respondents complained about the traffic. According to respondent I:

“Traffic is a nightmare generally in Africa. Traffic is a big issue especially in the capital cities, because of the (poor) road infrastructure”

⁷ Nile perch is a big fish

⁸ Boerewors is a traditional South African sausage

Almost all of the respondents also complained about the driving practices in the host country and locals' blatant disregard of the rules of the road. Many respondents related their horrific experiences. Respondent M said:

“Driving was a shock. There is no adherence to law. Traffic in Lagos was very bad”

Lagos, Nigeria, is regarded as having the worst traffic in the world.

Respondent C, related his experience in Ghana:

“They (locals) just follow their own rules. For a 2 lane, they make 5 lanes. Taxis are the biggest hold up...if you think South Africa's taxi's drive badly you must see what it's like there... If you driving behind a car and another car is overtaking, you must go off the road so that they can come past you. And you don't even get upset or anything because that's how it works there. We stay about 5 – 7kms from the airport and it takes us 2 hours to get home during peak time. So, I bought a bicycle, I made a plan to get around it, but it will frustrate other people and they will want to leave and go back to South Africa”

Respondent J related his experience in Tanzania:

“People do not give way there....the buses will come straight at you on these dirt roads. They don't give you right of way...you have to actually move off the road for these big trucks and buses”

Respondent G said that the locals' blatant disregard for the rules of the road and putting people in danger annoyed him and impacted his willingness to travel at any point in time:

“I would rather sit in my compound and go to work and back. If I had to go to the shop, I'd think 3 or 4 times about it”

Respondents also said that it was also not advisable to use public transport in most of these countries. In some countries it would be a security risk, but in most countries the overcrowding of buses and trains makes it very dangerous.

Some expatriates drove around in the vehicles themselves whilst others had drivers taking them around.

5.3.4 *Climate*

Majority of the respondents also found the extreme weather conditions very challenging. The relentless heat and humidity was physically very challenging, often leading to dehydration. One respondent complained that:

“Head office didn’t understand the circumstances that we were in...the incessant heat, the mosquitos and things that come with heat...cockroaches and insects and things. Everything was extreme and malaria was prevalent all year round”

5.3.5 *Entertainment, Recreation and Socialisation*

For those respondents living in the camps, working hours were long and strict rules and curfews were applied. Majority of the respondents were not accompanied by family. At the camps, there were expatriates from many different nationalities which was also a culture shock. Conditions were very stressful at camp with so many people working and interacting together within confined quarters over long periods of time, separated from their families. There was a lot of loneliness and depression in the camps and respondents sought to cope with the stress and strains associated with living in the camps by keeping themselves occupied in various ways. Some of the activities that they engaged in were gym, playing pool and darts or watching TV. Generally, many of the respondents complained about the lack of entertainment facilities, irrespective of whether they were in the cities or remote locations. Some respondents found alternative interests and pastimes such as going to the beach, fishing, taking up golf or playing sport. Other respondents mentioned that the main pastimes were drinking at the barakas or bokobars⁹. Respondents living in the cities had more options such as eating out at restaurants or going to the movies. Expatriates

⁹ Barakas or Bokobars are the local pubs or taverns frequented by host country nationals

formed cliques with other South African expatriates, sharing similar interests with them. Even those expatriates living in the cities tended to associate with other South African expatriates. Expatriates supported each other.

Respondent J explained that at the camps, there were expatriates from many different nationalities on site e.g. Phillipinos, Japanese, Chinese, Americans, Germans, Australians etc. The interesting point to note is that expatriates from the same nationalities stick together. According to respondent J:

“All the guys from the different nations stick together tightly, all the expatriates are very close knit and when the guys come off work you find groups of people that stick together.... some will be at the swimming pool having a braai, others will be drinking at houses or at the pub, some leave the camp area”

At the camps, interacting with expatriates from many different nationalities on site is a culture shock. Respondent J said:

“You see things that are normal in a certain culture but unacceptable in your culture. You have to adapt and understand, and respect and honour other people’s cultures”

With so many people working and interacting together within confined quarters over long periods of time, separated from their families, conditions are very stressful and tempers are bound to flare, however it is instant dismissal if an expatriate is involved in a fight.

“You get taken immediately to your house, you pack your clothes and they arrange a special flight to get you away from the site. It’s to stop it from happening”

According to respondent J, there is a lot of loneliness and depression in the camps:

“If you haven’t got the facility like Skype or Facebook to chat to your family...it’s a big challenge”

Many of the respondents complained about the lack of entertainment facilities. Respondent I said:

“In terms of entertainment, there’s not very much that you can do. Certain African countries, you’ve got the availability of a coastline, there’s lots of ocean activity...fishing or sailing...but you can’t expect top notch equipment and facilities”

Another respondent F said:

“There was no entertainment. We (the expatriates) visited each other and drank a lot of wine. You had to make your own entertainment so we socialised, made friends very quickly with one another. Entertainment is also a challenge in most African countries, but on the other hand for me, I’ve made many good friends that way, people who I’m still friendly with to this day”

Some respondents found alternative interests and pastimes such as going to the beach, fishing, taking up golf or playing sport. This is in line with literature: expatriates who are able to find substitutes for their interests and activities at home, are more likely to be successful in adjusting to the new culture (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1990; M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985; Zimmermann, Holman, & Sparrow, 2003). Expatriates that replace activities that bring pleasure in the home culture with similar, yet different, activities are able to more fully enjoy their experience in the host culture(Hiltrop & Janssens, 1990); “expatriates maintain stability zones in the foreign environment and adhere to old habits such as writing dairies or religious worship”(Zimmermann, et al., 2003, p. 51).

5.3.6 Diseases

The prevalence of diseases was also a challenge mentioned by respondents. Malaria is prevalent all year round. Other diseases, such typhoid and yellow fever, which have been eradicated in South Africa are still common in Africa, especially around the equator. Some respondents mentioned that you can get Malaria more than once, almost yearly. The respondent from Mali indicated that

if you contract Malaria, you get drip and are sent home rather than being hospitalised. You are left to fend for yourself, often expatriates nursed each other.

The World Bank has listed the combatting of HIV/Aids, Malaria and other diseases in Africa as a Millennium Development Goal with a target of 2015. According to the Africa Development Indicators report (The World Bank, 2011b), in Sub-Saharan Africa for 2009 the prevalence of HIV (% ages 15–49) is 5.4 %, this is nearly 7 times the world's prevalence which is 0.8%. The incidence of tuberculosis (per 100,000 people) is 344 and cases of Malaria reported are 71,675,530, reported deaths are 113,326.

5.4 Ability of family to adjust to new environment

This involves adjustment of spouse and children. The key challenges of schooling for children, medical facilities and spouse comfort are discussed below.

With regard to family adjustment, the findings indicate that the respondents experienced challenges with spouse adjustment, spouse career issues, children's education, availability of good medical care and facilities for family, and lack of entertainment and recreation facilities for children. Family concerns are equally applicable in the case where the family remains in the home country or the family is split. The respondents experienced strains that result from separation. Inadequate medical facilities and services and limited schooling options were the most frequently mentioned family challenges experienced. Many respondents relied on technologies such as Skype and the internet to communicate on a daily basis with family in the home country.

In terms of family accompaniment i.e. those respondents that were accompanied by a spouse and /or children, four respondents had no family (either single or divorced), four were accompanied by family, five were not accompanied by family and one respondent had a split family (i.e. family separated).

Having children of school going age means that schooling considerations are of paramount importance. Generally international schools, American or British, are available in African countries and generally adequate. One respondent F complained about the schooling in Mali, where there was a very small American school that never initially catered for high school students. However, as expatriates started bringing their children with them, the school had to then accommodate high school students and was not prepared for this. There were no facilities for high school students, since the school was located in an old house. The respondent's daughter, a high school student, would then have combined classes with other grades. The respondent said:

“There were only 3 in her (daughter's) class so they would lump three grades together and teach them maths for instance. She (daughter) hated it”

Another respondent, also in another location in Mali, mentioned that the local school was run by expatriates' wives.

Respondent G, on assignment in Mozambique, explained that he didn't take his family because of the short duration of the contract (two years). Furthermore, his wife had her own career in home country.

For respondent N in Ghana with split a family, the respondent was accompanied by her daughter but the spouse and son stayed behind in the home country. The reasons cited for the splitting of the family were that it was a career opportunity (promotion) for respondent whilst the spouse was focusing on his own career in home country. Her company pays for schooling for children up to the age of 18, but not any further. Her son's university education was not covered; therefore he stayed behind in the home country with his dad. Although company policy allows for the family to meet twice a year (either Ghana or South Africa), they have decided to meet every quarter at their own expense. Whilst the family uses Skype to communicate on a daily basis, the separation of family has been very traumatic. The respondent has recommended that the whole family should accompany the expatriate rather than splitting the family.

Respondent M originally planned for his family to accompany him to Nigeria. His family consisting of wife, twin boys aged 2 and an older son aged 5 spent 2 months in Nigeria and decided to go back home because of the challenges experienced, some of which were:

- Schooling: Son was of school going age, however cost of schooling was not covered by company and private schools were very expensive
- Hospital and health service: Although he had a comprehensive medical aid, still dependant on quality of service provided
- Wife got typhoid and kids lost weight. He contracted Malaria two times.
- Wife was not comfortable to stay in host country

Respondent F, who had taken her two children, indicated that her son got very sick in Mali. He got both malaria and pneumonia on separate occasions. The challenge was having access to adequate healthcare in Mali. The host country nationals preferred to go to traditional healers rather than trained medical doctors.

The availability of good medical care and facilities is a challenge. Expatriates require both medical aid and medical insurance. Medical insurance is required if expatriates or family members have to be medically evacuated out of the host country for treatment. One respondent H said that he was aware of executives who carry their own blood, when they travel in Africa, in case they need a blood transfusion, to avoid the possibility of getting AIDS from a blood transfusion.

“Access to medical services is another factor that is a challenge for assignments to developing locations... In cases where companies are among the first western presence in a location, they build the medical facilities along with the housing and schools” (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a, p. 16). According to International SOS, a leading medical and security services

company, there are many medical issues that expatriates need to be prepared for, including:

- Underdeveloped hospital care and varying quality of ambulance vehicles and staff
- Long response times due to high traffic congestion
- A need for language assistance
- Services may not be rendered if payment is not provided at the time of service
- Standard of medical care different than home location
- Availability of drugs, screened blood supply and other medical supplies

Other family challenges included lack of entertainment and recreational facilities. In some places, such as Mali, respondent F indicated that there's nothing for teenagers to do, so keeping kids occupied was a challenge, they had to create entertainment for kids at home.

Respondent F indicated that her spouse had difficulties adjusting in countries where they spoke French, because he couldn't initially speak French. Spousal adjustment was highlighted as a significant challenge by Respondent F who believed that while the expatriate has a purpose linked to their job, the spouse had to make the biggest adjustment locating local amenities and facilities such as shops and public transportation. Respondent F added further that spouses were also frustrated by the lack of their personal income especially if accustomed to a dual income.

Respondent A whose family accompanied him to Kenya indicated that input from family is also very important. Before he relocated to Kenya, he and his family spent an entire week in Kenya visiting schools and hospitals. Respondent A said:

“It is important to understand the infrastructure around medical, healthcare, schooling and recreational facilities. If the hospitals are not

very good, then you need to have a network of hospitals and doctors that you can treat you if you fall ill”

According to respondent A, he recognised that driving in Kenya is quite a challenge and got driver, so that his spouse and family could get around town quite easily:

“I think a lot of the time when things come a little unstuck is that people do the preparation but they focus a lot more on the work side. I think for most companies once you get into a company office it’s not much different from the office in Johannesburg. You need to understand what challenges the family would face when they are in the country and address those and make those choices. If you are in the Middle East and you live in a compound and your wife can’t go out alone, she’s female and not allowed to drive, those are some of the challenges that may affect family life”

Unsurprisingly, the findings on family and spouse adjustment are well supported by the literature and have been extensively covered in the literature (spouse adjustment perhaps more than children adjustment). Spouse adjustment as a significant predictor of expatriate adjustment and/or significant relationships existing between expatriate and spouse cross-cultural adjustment have been shown (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005; J. Stewart Black, 1988; J.S. Black & Gregersen, 1991a, 1991b; J Stewart Black & Stephens, 1989; R. Gupta, et al., 2012; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999; Takeuchi, et al., 2002). Hechanova, et al. (2003) proved that family and spouse adjustment were strongly correlated with expatriate general and interaction adjustment and weakly correlated with work adjustment); “culture novelty and spouse adjustment, are also extremely potent in predicting adjustment” (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 272). Also, managing family problems that arise during the international assignment is still a challenge for expatriates (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012). (Takeuchi, et al., 2002) found that the cross-cultural adjustment process between the expatriate and the spouse is mutually dependent and reciprocal meaning that if one of the partners is not adjusting well to the foreign culture, this will negatively affect the adjustment of the other and vice versa. The authors highlighted “the critical role

of spouses' cross-cultural adjustment during international assignments" and suggested that "companies need to pay closer attention to these issues when selecting and preparing to send expatriates with spouses overseas" (Takeuchi, et al., 2002, p. 664).

The results of Vogel, et al. (2008) research indicated that multinational enterprises (MNEs), including South African MNEs, are not providing the preparation, support and training required by their expatriates and their spouses and children.

The findings are further supported by the Global relocation trends survey report (2012b), family considerations are the most prevalent challenge for assignments in developing locations; the top family challenges identified for international assignments were spouse/partner resistance to international relocation, family adjustment, children's education and location difficulties. The top reasons for turning down assignments were family concerns; spouse's career; inadequate compensation; employee career aspirations; and quality of life at the location.

Developing Locations report (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a) adds further that spouse adjustment is particularly challenging in developing locations. There are not many activities that spouses can engage in developing locations. Language and cultural barriers, security concerns and lack of western-style activities frequently preclude spouses and partners from participating in a full range of endeavours.

Hechanova, et al. (2003) suggested that given the importance of family adjustment, organisations should provide assistance and support to expatriates and their families, which could include spouse counselling, spouse career support, relocation support, spouse's job search and spouse language training.

5.5 Adapting to a diverse African Culture and Language

This includes cultural aspects and includes religion, norms, customs and conventions as well as perception of time. It also includes language barriers that impact communication with host country nationals both inside and outside of work.

The findings indicate that there were significant cultural differences and language barriers. Sub-Saharan Africa has many countries, each with its own diverse cultural practices, religions, ethnicities and languages.

From a religion perspective, the predominant religions are Christianity, Islam and Indigenous African religions. Respondents working in Islamic countries found it more difficult to adjust to than Christian countries because of the vastly different religion, norms and practices. In these cases, dress code is extremely strict, choice of food is limited, consumption of alcohol is frowned upon and restrictions are imposed upon women. Expatriates need to quickly understand what's acceptable and what not.

Most respondents reported that language was a challenge in non-English speaking African countries and a barrier to communication with host country nationals. In Sub-Saharan Africa, there is a myriad of indigenous languages and dialects based on ethnicity. Historically, due to colonisation, international/world languages that are spoken in different countries include French, Portuguese and Arabic. Respondents indicated that it was very difficult to communicate with host country nationals and give them work instructions, if expatriates could not speak the language. Most respondents indicated that they had to learn the basic, conversational language, and this also won the respect of the host country nationals, who could see that they were making an effort.

This finding on the language challenge is supported by the literature. "Our results indicate that host country language ability is useful in that it allows expatriates to adjust to overseas living conditions as well as engage in rewarding interpersonal exchanges with host country nationals" (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 271). Gupta, et al. (2012) noted that language skills

are also equally important for the expatriates to succeed in assignments, especially if the majority of the host nation's people do not speak English. According to Hechanova, et al. (2003), language skills are positively correlated with general adjustment and "lack of language skills isolated expatriates and made it difficult for them to communicate and understand the local culture" (Hechanova, et al., 2003, p. 221). According to Mendenhall and Oddou (1985), the willingness to communicate with host nationals is important to cross-cultural adjustment and the expatriate's confidence and willingness to use the host culture's language had a greater influence on successful adjustment than did actual level of fluency in the foreign language. Furthermore, if expatriates view proficiency in the host language merely as a necessary tool to be used to get host-national sub-ordinates to do what one wants them to do, then adjustment may be minimal; however, if language skills are viewed as a means to create and foster interpersonal relationships or as a means to understand the dynamics of a new culture, then language skill is a useful help toward expatriate adjustment (desire to understand and relate with host-nationals) (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985).

Cultural practices, customs and conventions also impact business practices. According to respondent A, with a Western or European way of doing business, you arrive at a meeting and get down to business, discussing key issues and getting decisions made. However, in African countries, things are done differently. Getting to know one another, understanding where one fits into organisation, building a level of trust and comfort in the relationship is important. It might appear to be a slow start, however the host country nationals want to get to know and be comfortable with whom they are doing business with. Therefore, understanding how business is done and to engage with senior leaders in companies is very important.

Respondent A indicated that as senior person in the company, you need to be aware of how you conduct yourself and the things that you say and do because it has significant impact on the staff. You also need to understand cultural nuances which impact on how people will relate to you. For example, in some

cultures, everyone will listen but they won't make a comment until the most senior person has said something.

Respondent M also revealed, whilst ordinarily, leaders are selected based on skills and experience, in African culture, leadership and respect is linked to age. If you are below 40, you fail to gain respect of others. He also noted the adherence to hierarchy within organisation, where strict protocol is followed with regard to the hierarchy and leaders only engaging with other leaders at their level.

These observations are supported Hofstede's (1983) dimension of high power distance in most sub-Saharan African countries where authority is inherent in one's position within a hierarchy and authority is assigned on the basis of age and experience (Grzeda & Assogbavi, 1999).

Respondent A relates, in his experience, how decisions are made in via consensus in African countries which defers from Western decision making practices where positional power is used to makes decisions. Africans are known for their inclusive decision making style based on collective contributions, thus ensuring that all involved feel as if they have contributed to the decisions made.

Linking this to Hofstede's (1983) dimensions of national culture, the most relevant dimensions for leadership are Individualism and Power Distance. According to Hofstede (1983), leadership in a Collectivist society is a group phenomenon. In countries with higher Power Distances individual subordinates as a rule do not want to participate. It is part of their expectations that leaders lead autocratically, and such subordinates will, in fact, by their own behaviour make it difficult for leaders to lead in any other way. If the society is both Collectivist and high Power distance, there will usually be ways by which subordinates in a group can still influence the leader.

Working in Africa, requires expatriates to have a greater sensitivity to African cultural nuances. Respondents had to adapt to, accept and respect the host country's culture, religion, norms and customs. Hofstede's (1983) cultural dimensions provide a better understanding of cultural nuances in Africa. Most

sub-Saharan African countries exhibit high power distance, tend to be collectivistic, exhibit intermediate uncertainty avoidance and reflect slight femininity.

The findings with regard to culture are also in accordance with Darley and Blankson (2008) who identified commonalities in Sub-Saharan African culture: collectivism, traditional values and community, hierarchical social structure, respect for elders, importance of kinship, close interpersonal relationships, primacy of the group and ecological orientation for life. The findings are also aligned with Grzeda and Assogbavi (1999) who added further that in most African countries, the quality of life, and the value attached to personal time exceed any desire to accumulate wealth. Positive interpersonal relationships are valued above money and priority is assigned to satisfying social needs.

Some respondents highlighted that the locals' perception of time, referring to 'African time', was a challenge. Cultural norms that are focused on age, hierarchy and seniority as well as the perception of time impact the work environment and are discussed further in the Adapting to Work Related Challenges section.

All respondents indicated that they experienced challenges adapting to the host culture; cross-cultural acclimatisation was required, to a lesser or greater extent depending on the cultural distance between the home and host country. Differences between host and home cultures create greater uncertainties and more severe adjustment problems as the changes in thought processes and behaviour patterns for the expatriate are more severe (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985); "Expatriates who were in cultures vastly different from their own reported more difficulty in interacting with host nationals" (Hechanova, et al., 2003, p. 221); "culture novelty and spouse adjustment, are also extremely potent in predicting adjustment" Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al. (2005).

Perhaps the most interesting dichotomy is with regard to culture distance. The traditional assumption in the literature on expatriate management is that the greater the culture novelty of the host country, the more difficult it would be for the expatriate to adjust in the foreign location (J.S. Black, et al., 1991). However,

the findings of Selmer's (2006) research on Western business expatriates in China, although highly tentative, suggested that it is as difficult for business expatriates to adjust to a very similar culture as to a very dissimilar culture.

5.6 Interacting effectively with Host Country Nationals

This includes interacting with host country nationals both inside and outside of work and developing relationships with host country nationals. Acceptance by host country nationals, expatriates socialising with host country nationals versus expatriates and ethnocentrism are also discussed.

5.6.1 *Lack of Acceptance by Host Country Nationals*

The findings indicate that respondents found interacting with host country nationals challenging. Respondents confessed that they were not generally accepted by host country nationals. Some of the respondents made the following comments. Respondent J:

“There was resentment from locals on expatriates being employed”

According to Respondent B, expatriates were perceived by locals as threats, as it was believed that expatriates were there to take away employment and financial opportunities from locals. This made it all the more challenging to establish relationships with locals while trying to fulfil job responsibilities. Respondent D mentioned that:

“There was resentment from locals, locals don't want to help and regard expatriates as threat”

Respondent G said he was asked by a Mozambican host country national:

“Are you here to help me or are you just here to make money and leave?”

According to respondent A, as an expatriate in leadership position:

“You are deemed to have a certain level of knowledge, skills capabilities and experience that is not available in the local market, and that is why you were sought to go there. It is important if you want to overcome some of the obstacles and challenges as a leader that you build and nurture talent while in the country. People are different, some people want job security and some want to prolong their assignment. Even if you are able to develop and nurture talent and leave people with the perception that you have come in and leave this place in a better space then you have a better chance at succeeding and you will pick up less resistance and greater acceptance and people will have a more positive disposition of you”

This finding is supported in the literature. “The use of expatriates to fill positions in the host country, limits advancement opportunities for host country nationals, and can lead to resentment from host country nationals. Furthermore, resentment can be greater still if, as often occurs, expatriate managers are paid significantly more than home (and host) country nationals” (Hill, 2011).

5.6.2 *Expatriates socialising with host country nationals versus other expatriates*

The findings indicate that respondents were more inclined to socialise with others who came from similar cultural backgrounds and interests i.e. other expatriates rather than the host country nationals.

According to respondent B:

“When you are an expatriate, you are not taken in very easily by the societies that are already there, and then you tend to associate with the people who do the same things as you...watch rugby, watch cricket or play cricket or golf, and they tend to be the expatriates”

This was more pronounced in the camps at the remote locations where respondents socialised mainly with other South African expatriates rather than host country nationals or expatriates from other countries. Even the expatriates living in the cities tended to associate more with other South African expatriates,

although to a lesser degree. Since, these respondents had more opportunities to integrate with the host country nationals. Also, in the work environment, respondents observed that host country nationals were more likely to interact and socialise together and the expatriates were also more inclined to interact and socialise together. The respondents indicated that expatriates relied on each other for support; and the expatriate community played an important role in this respect.

Most respondents expressed willingness to interact with host country nationals.

Respondent A:

“Most apartments have more expatriates than locals and generally you will socialise with them (expatriates). When choosing schools, I made the choice to find a school that had a good mix of locals and expatriates. We wanted our kids to get some interaction and relationships with locals. Ultimately you have to recognise that you are a guest in that country, and behave as you if you are a guest in someone else’s house, the principles are very similar, you respect your time that you are there”

Respondent C, when asked about building relationships with host country nationals:

“It’s spending time there, knowing the right people, having the right attitude. There’s a certain way to approach the locals, if you come with an attitude it’s going to be very difficult for you to get anywhere. If you are generous and open minded and approach them right...they will help you. It takes time to build a relationship”

Respondent F, when asked if she interacted with host country nationals inside and outside of work, said

“Yes, often because in smaller African countries, for instance Mali, the expatriate community was very small, myself and my colleagues were always invited over for kids’ birthday parties and I always went. Attending National Day celebrations was a good way of seeing people”

Respondent J, on his experience in Tanzania:

“First thing I did was I learnt basic greetings in Swahili to be respectful. They are a very humble race, lovely people, very welcoming and friendly.... They appreciate it you when you try. I had to deal with the truck drivers’ right up to the mine manager, you are the single point of accountability there so you have to be able to mix with all levels and communicate at each level”

Respondent E also made an effort to mingle with the host country nationals at work as well as the hotel and with the taxi driver. Respondent L said that he got involved with local people and visited local families to see how they lived. He recommended immersing oneself in the host’s culture.

Another respondent, D, said:

“In Africa, it’s not what you know but who you know”

Tung (1998) confirmed in her study that the separation mode (expatriates socialising more with other expatriates) is more common in less developed countries due to limited social circles that expatriates feel comfortable in. However, Tung (1998) indicated that this is not an effective means of interacting with host country nationals. This could be attributed to ‘homophily’ (R. L. Tung, 1998) which describes the extent to which people tend to associate with those who are like themselves; because of greater ease of communication, increased trust and a common perspective toward life. Some expatriates may also be using this as a coping strategy (Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005) to deflect culture shock, by spending all of their time with other expatriates. In this case, the expatriate’s chosen coping strategy may be preventing him or her from meeting host nationals who could provide assistance with learning the nuances of the host country to overcome culture shock. Pires, et al. (2006) indicated that minority ethnic communities are important for successful expatriate adjustment and performance. However, Aycan (1997), cautioned that limiting one’s interactions to the “expatriate ghetto” (i.e. exhibiting a separatist attitude was undesirable and creates a barrier to understanding host nationals (Aycan, 1997, p. 448).

The literature indicates that building relationships with host country nationals is very important for adjustment. According to Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al. (2005), relational skills facilitate the formation of interpersonal ties; through those ties, expatriates obtain necessary information and behaviour relevant feedback in the host culture (J.S. Black, et al., 1991). The more individuals interact with host nationals, the more information they can receive about what is acceptable or unacceptable in the host culture and how they are doing. Black (1988) found a positive relationship between percentage of time spent with host nationals and general cross-cultural adjustment. According to Mendenhall and Oddou (1985), to enhance the expatriate's ability to interact effectively with host nationals requires relationship development and willingness to communicate.

5.6.3 *Ethnocentrism*

During interviews with respondents, the ethnocentric attitude of some South African expatriates was highlighted by respondents as an issue preventing expatriates from adjusting and adapting in host countries and interacting with host country nationals. South Africans are perceived as arrogant, displaying a superior attitude and judging other culture's based on their own norms and values.

One respondent L questioned the applicability of using South African norms in the African context.

Some suggestions from respondents were, respondent L:

“To acknowledge personal mental model and let go, undo mental model stereotypes, in order to appreciate local country and culture for what it is”

Respondent M:

“The arrogance of South Africans, when they think they know better than anyone else, what works and what doesn't work, makes them blind to learning’.

He suggests that South African expatriates, need to delearn/unlearn, forget the South African version of truth, be open minded and know that things are different and rather than just saying:

“I can’t believe that they do things this way” or “I am South African, we do things better”

Respondent G, on his recommendations:

“South Africans should be humble, avoid demonstrating a superior or lavish mindset. Immerse yourself in the culture, understand the language, try to be interested in learning the language, that way they (locals) start to talk to you more”

Respondent I, on his recommendations:

“Ideally, (expatriates) need a paradigm shift, because the whole thing about adapting and making your experience better is about overcoming challenges is that in your mind. People must get over those paradigms and realise that they are in Africa”

This is an important finding and one that has been identified in the literature: According to Thomas (1996), ethnocentric attitudes are especially damaging to the development and maintenance of cross-cultural interpersonal interactions. Ethnocentric attitudes preclude accurate perceptions of behaviours of HCNs (M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985), perpetuate the ambiguities and uncertainties associated with cross-cultural social situations and inhibit the expatriate’s ability to get along with others, may result in the disapproving reactions of others, especially HCNs with whom an expatriate interacts on a regular basis. Furthermore, ethnocentric attitudes may generate feelings of prejudice, mistrust, and insecurity, leading to less motivation to develop relationships with colleagues, poorer adaptation to the general environment, and stronger desires to return to one’s home country (M.A. Shaffer, et al., 2006). Unsurprisingly, Hechanova (2003) found that ethnocentricity was negatively correlated with interaction adjustment.

5.7 Lack of support from Organisation

This includes logistics support, support during the assignment, cross-cultural training, unrealistic expectations from head office, career support including repatriation concerns and renewal of work permits.

The findings indicate that respondents were generally very dissatisfied with the level of organisational support provided. Respondents indicated the following challenges: lack of on-site support, communication gaps with head office, head office having unrealistic expectations and not understanding the context and circumstances, respondents felt isolated and 'out of sight, out of mind', the level of cross-cultural training provided was inadequate. Post-arrival training was limited to orientation on work training (work related aspects rather than cultural or language training). There was no integrated cross-cultural training including both pre-departure training and on-assignment training. Career support, repatriation concerns and renewal of work permits were also major areas of concern. Respondents also expressed the need for mentorship both in the home and host country.

The literature supports the findings. Shaffer, et al. (1999), in their study confirmed that "logistical support and co-worker support were significant positive predictors of adjustment" and suggested that "firms seeking to enhance the effectiveness of their expatriates should attempt to foster a supportive organisational culture both at home and abroad" (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999, p. 573). Similarly, Hechanova, et al. (2003) suggested that organisations should provide assistance and support to expatriates and their families, which could include spouse counselling, spouse career support, relocation support, spouse's job search and spouse language training.

5.7.1 Relocation Logistics Support

Most respondents agreed that initially home country support was good in terms of assisting with logistics for relocation i.e. arranging accommodation, work permits, utilities, car etc. However, most respondents felt that once they were in

the foreign country, they were on their left on their own and had to fend for themselves; they did not get adequate support from the host country office.

5.7.2 *On-site assignment support*

Most respondents agreed that once in the host country, on-site support from host country office as well as support from home country head office was poor. One respondent B complained bitterly about the HR department:

“We had an inefficient and ineffective HR department... they were not interested in us or supportive of our needs. So they gave us the book to read effectively. Yes, when it was setting up a home and ensuring your offices are compliant, they were directly answerable for that so they got involved. But when it comes to the actual day to day living requirements...going out and organising bank accounts and telephones, they just pointed you in the wrong direction”

According to respondent B, communication with head office is a challenge. Communicating via telephone and e-mail does not relay a sense of urgency that is sometimes required:

“Everybody does not understand the urgency or alternatively they place urgency on the wrong issues because they don’t know what you’re doing day by day”

Furthermore, they may relay the wrong message inside the organisation:

“When you are trying to talk to people in an organisation by email or phone, you’re not in their face so you don’t get the response that you should do in the time that you should, so it’s very difficult. If you are not stand alone making your own decisions, then it takes a long time for the decision to come back”

Respondents indicated that they often felt isolated from headquarters and felt that they had to solve problems by themselves; this is supported by Gupta, et al. (2012).

According to respondent I:

“Support from the South African head office can be a rare commodity. It depends on the desk that you report to and depends on the officials on the desk. You get some guys who are efficient and some who aren't. But my experience was that it was scarce. You had to improvise. There were situations when you had to make a decision or make a call”

Another issue is not knowing what's happening back at head office. Respondent B felt that when on assignment, there is the distance between the expatriate and his leadership:

“When you're not inside the business on a day to day basis, you don't know where the organisation is heading to. It's difficult to keep track and understand how to apply the principles when you are not living it day by day”

The communication gap with head office is supported by the literature and referred to as the “information gap” between expatriates and their colleagues at the home office (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1990). Head office managers often overlook the need to communicate with their colleagues abroad and consequently expatriates frequently end up missing information concerning important activities at home. These employees end up feeling isolated and “out of sight, out of mind”, and often feel professionally unproductive and personally dissatisfied (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1990). “Successful adjustment requires organisational support (by both parent and local companies) provided prior to and during the assignment” (Aycan, 1997, p. 435).

Tung (1998) recommends that companies should establish and coordinate a support system that attends specifically to the needs and aspirations of expatriate employees. This ‘social network’ helps to reduce the ‘out of sight, out of mind’ dilemma by providing organisational information on the politics and day-to-day activities of the headquarters. The support system should also monitor the training and development needs of expatriates.

5.7.3 *Cross-cultural training*

The level of pre-departure cross-cultural training provided by the home country head office varied among respondents; ranging from four respondents having no training, majority having a few days training to one having training over a period of 8 – 9 months. All respondents indicated that the pre-departure cross-cultural training provided was inadequate in preparing them for the assignment in the foreign country. Very few that had post-arrival on-assignment training, and this was limited to orientation on work training (work related aspects rather than cultural or language training). Although the importance of integrated cross-cultural training has been established; to reduce the time to adjust, achieve cultural proficiency, become effective and productive in the assignment (Eschbach, et al., 2001), companies are not providing the training required.

Cross-cultural training is discussed further in the Inadequate preparation prior to departure section.

5.7.4 *Unrealistic Expectations from Head Office*

Many respondents believed that Head office in the home country does not have an appreciation of the extreme conditions under which expatriates work when on assignment and does not provide enough support. When asked about level of organisational support received, respondent F replied:

“Not very much. That was one of the challenges encountered. Most of these countries were geographically isolated ...head office didn’t understand the circumstances that we were in”

Head office does not always understand the circumstances and context under which expatriates work and has unrealistic expectations in terms of delivery. Most respondents complained about the challenge of getting good through customs, impacting their delivery with head office constantly pressing for results. Customs challenges are discussed further in Crime, Corruption and Security Concerns section.

According to Hiltrop and Janssens (1990), to minimise the risk of expatriate failure, companies should allow expatriates sufficient time to adapt to the foreign environment. The pressure to produce immediately in an overseas assignment compounds to the demands imposed on the expatriate and may negatively affect performance on the job. The authors suggest that expatriates should be exempted from active management duties in the first six months of arrival in a foreign country.

5.7.5 Career Support

The findings indicate that organisational career support is a challenge. This includes career management and performance management.

According to respondent B, there tends not to be a specific timeline for the assignment. The organisation will give the expatriate a contract but say:

“Our best view is that its 3 or 4 years, but if the business doesn’t do well it could be 2 years”

This ambiguity on the contract period creates uncertainty for expatriates. Once again, while on assignment, expatriates feel ‘out of sight, out of mind’ from the headquarters.

Unsurprisingly, the literature indicates that the goals of the expatriate and MNC must be aligned and linked with the performance management practices of expatriates. The organisation must provide the expatriate with clear objectives and expectations to reduce ambiguity surrounding the expatriate assignment Caligiuri and Colakoglu (2007).

5.7.6 Repatriation

The findings indicate that repatriation is a challenge. According to respondent B:

“Once you are an expatriate, in a lot of situations, you don’t have a job to come back to. As an expat, you are not given any reassurance regarding repatriation. That was the biggest problem, because you put your life on

hold for 5 years. So financially they look after you but you don't know whether you are going to end up coming back to South Africa or have to relocate to somewhere else in the world ... where there's a job for you"

This finding is supported in the literature. Managing the transition from expatriate to repatriate assignments is one of the greatest concerns of expatriates. Expatriates are concerned with the responsibility and autonomy on the job, opportunities for using new knowledge and skills, career advancement, compensation, and career opportunities for their spouse/partner upon repatriation (Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 2012). Expatriates are also concerned whether there is a job for them in the home country. Furthermore, although they do not expect anything unfamiliar when returning, they often find that the country and the organisation have changed considerably since taking up their foreign assignment. As a result, a number of expatriates and their families experience 'cultural shock in reverse' (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1990).

Respondent I notes:

"When you come back after your stint, you expect everything to be the same yet everything has moved on and there is no status, and you find yourself having then to try to readjust and the biggest thing is that you miss out on everything....people's development, people that you love and care about"

Repatriates can support organisational learning by accelerating the knowledge transfer from host countries to headquarters and vice versa however, most MNCs do not have repatriation practices in place and they have a hard time retaining their repatriates (Caligiuri & Colakoglu, 2007).

Vogel, et al. (2008) study found that South African expatriates do not know their long-term career path within the MNE and mentors are not being assigned to expatriates while on an international assignment. These are key factors in improving a MNEs' repatriation success rate. South African MNEs are falling short in terms of the repatriation of expatriates upon completion of their international assignments.

5.7.7 Mentorship

Respondents also expressed the need for mentorship both in the home and host country. According to Respondent I:

“Before leaving, expatriates would benefit by actually sitting down with seasoned people for at least 2 months before you go...going through the whole process, breaking down what it is they have to do and what the best way will be to do it, would really help them”

There is extensive support for mentorship in the literature (Feldman & Bolino, 1999; M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985; Margaret A. Shaffer, et al., 1999; Takeuchi, 2010). Host country mentors (Feldman & Bolino, 1999; M. Mendenhall & G. Oddou, 1985; Takeuchi, 2010) can provide information and support that aids the expatriate in adjusting to the culture both inside and outside of the workplace. Feldman and Bolino (1999) using Hofstede's (1983) typology of national cultures, also suggested that the international context of the overseas assignment affects how much on-site mentoring expatriates should receive; with large power distances and strong uncertainty avoidance, new expatriates should receive greater mentoring (Feldman & Bolino, 1999). Zhuang, et al. (2012) found that the assistance provided by mentors, from both the home and the host countries, facilitates expatriate adjustment in the host country i.e. multiple-mentor support networks might better assist expatriate adjustment. The authors found that the psychosocial support and role modelling functions of home country mentors facilitate expatriates' general adjustment and office interaction adjustment better whilst the career development functions of host country mentors facilitated expatriates' work adjustment. Vogel, et al. (2008) study of SA expatriates also found that mentors are not being assigned to expatriates by SA MNEs while on an international assignment.

5.7.8 Renewals of Work Permits

Many respondents complained about the timeous renewal of work permits. Initially, this is done by the home country head office, thereafter once the expatriate has relocated; it is done by the host country office. Respondent B,

complained that the local office did not renew his work permit for 3 years. It was only when he got a letter saying that he had to leave the country within a week that his work permit was renewed, after intervention from home country head office.

Respondent J also indicated that the biggest challenge is getting the necessary work permits. There tends to be a lot of resistance from host countries to issue these work permits because they think you going in to take over the locals' employment. Respondent N also supported this saying that long term assignments are being frowned upon by host countries.

Respondent J also had an experience where the host country local office did not renew his work permit timeously. The Home Affairs official came to arrest him on site, at the mine, he had to go into hiding until the work permit was renewed otherwise he would have been arrested and sent to jail.

Shaffer, et al. (2012) refer to this as structural barriers that organisations can assist expatriates with. The findings indicate that respondents were generally very dissatisfied with the level of organisational support provided.

5.8 Adapting to Work Related Challenges

This includes work related issues such as role clarity, prevalence of in-groups, perception of time and lack of systems and processes. Job related factors such as role clarity, authority and decision making are also discussed.

The findings indicate that respondents had work related challenges such as lack of role clarity, performance management issues, prevalence of in-groups, host country's perception of time and non-standardised systems and processes.

5.8.1 Role Clarity

Respondents indicated that they had work related challenges such as lack of role clarity and performance management issues, Respondent M indicated a lack of understanding of company vision and where he fits into the bigger picture:

“There was a lack of direction and role-clarity. Performance management is ad hoc and unstructured. There is no proper performance management of expatriates including the use of score-card to track and measure progress”

This finding is aligned to Black, et al. model (1991) which indicates that role clarity is one of the factors impacting work adjustment. Takeuchi, et al. (2002) found that role ambiguity (the opposite of role clarity) “has a strong negative relationship with expatriates’ adjustment at work” and impacts general adjustment, as well (Takeuchi, et al., 2002, p. 664). The authors noted that “although international assignments inherently involve significant role ambiguity, multinationals are well advised to take steps to reduce the amount of ambiguity expatriates face in their assignments Takeuchi, et al. (2002). Furthermore, Gupta, et al. (2012), indicate that the goals of the expatriate and MNC must be aligned and linked with the performance management practices of expatriates. The organisation must provide the expatriate with clear objectives and expectations to reduce ambiguity surrounding the expatriate assignment Caligiuri and Colakoglu (2007).

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al. (2005) found a big correlation between role clarity and work adjustment. This suggested that the uncertainty regarding objectives, goals, and role requirements is the strongest stressor in expatriates’ overseas work environments; in addition, role clarity also has a moderate potential to spill over and minimize non-work difficulties (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005). Clearly, one of the most powerful things that can be done to ease expatriates’ transitions is to give greater structure and explicitness to the processes and outcomes necessary for expatriates to perform their jobs well (Shaffer et al., 1999).

5.8.2 Prevalence of In-groups

The findings indicate that one of the key challenges faced by expatriates is the acceptance by host country nationals in the host organisation. Respondent N indicated feeling like she “does not belong”, not being accepted by host country nationals in the work environment and being constantly under the scrutiny of

host country nationals. Respondents observed that, in the work environment, host country nationals are inclined to “stick together” forming in-groups and exclude expatriates. Expatriates also tend to “stick together” forming their own in-groups.

This finding is aligned to the literature. “The journey of every expatriate is full of socio-economic and cultural challenge as s/he is akin to an outsider in an inside group” (N. Gupta, et al., 2012, p. 7). One of the key challenges faced by expatriates is the acceptance by the (host) organisational members. The local workforce develops a sense of in-group and entry of an expatriate might be perceived as a violation of the sanctity of in-group (N. Gupta, et al., 2012).

5.8.3 *Perception of Time*

The findings indicate that respondents had work related challenges adapting to the host country’s perception of time. Respondents found it difficult to adjust to the African time system where there is much less formal perception of time. This is a very challenging cultural aspect to adapt to in the work environment; respondents reported that host country nationals tend to do their work in their own time, at their own pace and are more relaxed about deadlines.

Respondents have indicated that getting host country nationals to deliver on time is a big challenge. Respondents added further, referring to ‘African time’, that host country nationals are laid back and have no sense of urgency to deliver according to deadlines. The host country nationals tend to do their work at their own time and are more relaxed. Respondents noted that the duration of task completion may take longer than expected. According to respondent I, host country nationals like their extended breaks, holidays, regardless of deadlines. You can’t force or impose on them. Respondent K also indicated that there is no time pressure on host country nationals; they do not have a ‘project management’ mindset.

The findings are supported in the literature: Grzeda and Assogbavi (1999) indicated that in most African countries, the quality of life, and the value attached to personal time exceed any desire to accumulate wealth. Positive

interpersonal relationships are valued above money and priority is assigned to satisfying social needs. Darley and Blankson (2008) indicated that in African culture there is emphasis is on fulfilment of social obligations and using time in social contexts takes precedence over the use of time in other contexts. The way time is perceived is a difficult cultural adaptation to make and can cause much frustration and conflict if not understood and accepted by expatriates.

However, aside from the literature above, the researcher was not able to glean anything further in the literature. To get a better understanding on the cultural perception of time, the researcher undertook further research, using the internet (<http://psychology.wikia.com/wiki/Chronemics>) and found the information which also supports the finding. Cultures have differing perceptions of time. Much of sub-Saharan Africa (like Latin America, large areas of South and Southeast Asia, the Pacific islands, the Middle East) is regarded as polychronic in how they view time i.e. where several things can be done at once, and a more fluid approach is taken to scheduling time. Polychronic cultures are more focused on relationships, rather than watching the clock. They have no problem being “late” for an event if they are with family or friends, because the relationship is what really matters. As a result, polychronic cultures have a much less formal perception of time. In monochronic cultures, such as South Africa and United States, things are done one at a time and time is segmented into precise, small units. Under this system time is scheduled, arranged and managed. Monochronic cultures place a paramount value on schedules, tasks and “getting the job done.” These cultures are committed to regimented schedules and may view those who do not subscribe to the same perception of time as disrespectful. This helped the researcher to better understand this cultural issue on the perception of time and its impact on expatriates.

5.8.4 *Non-standardised Systems and Processes*

Some respondents indicated that systems and processes in the host country organisation were non-standard. This is surprising considering that the systems and processes developed by head office are usually implemented across different countries. According to respondent N:

“Without the Standardisation of processes, you will have to constantly be learning new processes”

Her company is in the process standardising their processes across the different countries. Respondent M indicated that the work environment was very unstructured. Respondent G indicated that systems should be made easier, processes should be more streamlined and bureaucracy should be removed. He added further that processes will be so much easier and more effective if there was cohesion across countries.

This is supported by literature which indicates that policy and procedural conflicts with parent companies and foreign offices often occur (Gregersen & Black, 1992).

5.9 Inadequate preparation prior to departure

This includes preparation and training prior to relocating and having accurate expectations prior to departure.

The findings indicate that respondents were not adequately prepared for the host country. All respondents were in agreement that the training was inadequate; they did not receive enough (pre-departure and post-arrival) cross-cultural and language training. The level of cross-cultural training prior to departure varied among respondents; ranging from four respondents having no training, majority having a few days training to one outlier having training over a period of 8 – 9 months. Neither spouses nor children received any cultural training, except in the case of one respondent. Even with regards to language, most respondents were not given any pre-departure language training and had to learn on it by themselves (or go for lessons). Neither spouses nor children received any cultural training or language tuition, except in the case of one respondent.

According to respondent M knowing what to expect is essential:

“Make sure South Africans are more aware of social and corporate culture. No on-boarding was done. Hence South Africans were shocked

and unprepared. Better on-boarding and preparation will help them to adapt. You have to know what works and what doesn't work"

Respondent K, was thoroughly unprepared:

"I didn't get much pre-departure training or orientation. Before I went, I saw pictures, but when I got there the experience was very different"

The cross-cultural training provided focused on generic processes rather than country specific issues. Some of the areas where respondents felt training was not provided were:

- History, politics and economic systems
- General culture, norms, values, customs, religion, etiquette
- Business practices, culture, etiquette
- Cuisine (food)
- Dress code,
- Language - conversational and basic greetings

A suggestion, from respondent L, for preparing expatriates and enabling expatriates to form accurate expectations is learning from the experiences (both good and bad) of returning expatriates. Speaking to people who have been on assignments before provides expatriates with good insights.

A respondent, with a family, that was well prepared said the following:

"First and foremost if you take up this assignment, preparation is very important, for the entire family, not just for yourself. The objective of the preparation is usually to ensure that as a family unit, the country that you choose to go to is someplace that you as a family can live, enjoy and thrive. Part and parcel of that whole preparation is understanding the needs of your family. What they would be able to live with and without for example adequate schooling for children. If you are being sent to a country where the norms and culture are so vastly different from yours, you may want to think again about it or go into the country knowing what the limitations and barriers are. So preparation is important to understand

that. From personal experience, my recommendation is to go to a country where you think you are able to assimilate”

Those respondents that had been on ‘look see’ visits felt that it was very beneficial. Most respondents suggested that before making decision to accept the assignment, an experiential ‘look see’ visit was essential in getting a better understanding of the country. By personally experiencing the country, expatriates have a better understanding of the culture and customs of the country.

Accurate expectations, preparation and cross cultural training are areas that are well covered in the literature. Adequate preparation, relevant previous experiences and pre-departure cross-cultural training facilitate the formation of accurate expectations by expatriates (J.S. Black, et al., 1991). This reduces uncertainty and improves adjustment. There are fewer surprises, negative emotional reactions and culture shock is lessened. Expatriates will exhibit more appropriate behaviours and attitudes, and adjustment will be smoother and quicker (J.S. Black, et al., 1991). Gupta, et al. (2012) have indicated that cross-cultural training is an important ingredient of successful expatriate assignments. Both Waxin and Panaccio (2005) and Okpara and Kabongo (2011) have shown that pre-move cultural training has a positive effect on adjustment to international assignments and that experiential types of training are the most effective ones. Furthermore, the effectiveness of cross-cultural training is clearly influenced by the magnitude of expatriates’ prior international experience (Okpara & Kabongo, 2011; Waxin & Panaccio, 2005) and the larger the cultural distance between the country of origin and the host country, the more pronounced are the effects of cross-cultural training (Waxin & Panaccio, 2005). The results of Vogel, et al. (2008) research indicated that South African multinational enterprises (MNEs) are not providing the preparation, support and training required by their expatriates and their spouses and children. Furthermore, cross-cultural training is required in both the home and host country (Mendenhall & Stahl, 2000).

An interesting contradiction to previous research is Selmer’s (2005) study of business expatriates assigned by Western firms to joint ventures and other

types of organisations in China. He found that training had a weak positive association with work adjustment for expatriates in joint ventures, but no relationship with work adjustment for Western managers in other types of operations.

It was noted that those respondents with previous experience in Africa had more accurate expectations. However, “contrary to conventional wisdom and some academic arguments, the accumulated evidence shows that prior overseas assignments are only minimally helpful for present adjustment” (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, et al., 2005, p. 272).

5.10 Crime, Corruption and Security Concerns

This includes bribery and corruption, kidnapping and ransoms, civil wars and instability, crime, safety and security issues.

The findings indicate that respondents found bribery and corruption and crime to be challenges. Safety and security concerns were a major challenge especially kidnappings in certain areas. In some countries it was not safe to drive at night.

The findings indicate that getting goods cleared timeously through customs was a huge challenge, since at customs, corruption was rife, however respondents were bound by strict anti-corruption MNC policies. This was the most frequently mentioned challenge by respondents.

According to respondent I:

“Getting things done was very difficult”

According to respondent J:

“In Tanzania there is corruption. If you pay your goods come out the port quickly, if you don’t, your goods come out last.... so that was a big challenge for me”

Although the respondent was based 1500 km away from the port at Dar es Salaam, he had to travel regularly to the port to highlight to customs agents the consequences of goods being stuck at customs. With some companies, where facilitation payments are allowed, goods could be cleared faster through customs.

According to Africa Development Indicators report (The World Bank, 2011b), weak governance is reflected in high levels of corruption, 9 of the bottom 17 countries in Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index are in Africa.

Respondents from all MNCs responded that there were anti-corruption policies in place at their companies and employees were strictly prohibited from engaging in bribery and corruption. There are also guidelines to assist employees, if they are approached or confronted with this. However, facilitation payments are still a grey area. According to respondent A:

“Facilitation fees have been part and parcel of doing business for years ... you just have to make sure that its purely facilitation process not something that borders on bribery or corruption and generally companies would provide guidelines for this”

Some companies have guidelines and hotlines in place for expatriates who are confronted by police seeking bribes. According to respondent G:

“If I'm confronted by police – they don't call it a bribe but if your life is in danger for example, you can give money, but you must declare it immediately – there's a hotline for it...especially if you are an expatriate. Cops¹⁰ can harass you if you drive with a GP¹¹ car and they can do whatever they want to do especially if I'm alone and its at night....you give them whatever they want as per the guideline so that you are out of the situation”

¹⁰ Colloquial term for the Police

¹¹ Indicates a Gauteng, South Africa number plate

According to respondent H, in Nigeria and Tanzania, driving in the night can pose a serious security risk. If an accident occurs and somebody gets killed, an expatriate can get arrested immediately and languish indefinitely in jail until the case goes to court. To mitigate this risk, a ban is usually imposed on expatriates driving at night:

“We used to try and stop our guys from driving at all and ensuring that they use a driver at all times because it removes some of the risk associated with car accidents”

Theft was also a big challenge. According to respondent J, once the fuel was in tanks on trucks destined for the mine 1500km away, theft of diesel occurred. The drivers would stop, on the way, at a little remote village, and break the seal on the tanks, syphon diesel out of the tanks and fill it with water so that at the still weighs the same when measured at the weigh bridge on the mine. When the respondent took over at the mine, four trucks arrived with the seals missing and he rejected them. Word quickly got out to all the drivers of the 75 trucks and they stopped stealing diesel:

“They were all involved....from the sweeper to the manager ...they were selling fuel and splitting the funds”

According to respondent I:

“Getting things done was very difficult. Simple things, for example, there was a donation made of food and medicines, that ended up sitting at the harbour for about 8 months because of the bureaucracy. It was not just the bureaucracy; people just did not want to release anything because they were not being offered the proper facilitation fees. So getting things done is a challenge”

One respondent mentioned kidnapping as a concern. Nigeria (especially the oil rich Niger Delta) is a hotspot for kidnapping foreigners by criminals for ransom and more recently militant groups. The Sahel region (consisting of Mauritania, Mali and Niger) and Somalia are also hotspots for kidnapping for ransom (criminal activity).

Rebel activity in Chad, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Central African Republic (CAR) and Sudan also poses kidnapping and security risks. One respondent indicated that whilst on assignment in Tanzania, rebels stormed the mine 3 times in 15 months. The first time, during the respondent's first week on assignment, he encountered:

“Rebels with weapons, fortunately they (the mine) had a strong security department ... so they opened fire and that was quelled pretty quickly”

Other respondents also mentioned renewal of permits and getting through border control as other areas where corruption was rife and officials expected facilitation payments. One respondent also mentioned the prevalence of credit card scams in Nigeria, and that expatriates had to be very vigilant with their credit cards and never let it out of their sight.

Although these challenges have been frequently mentioned by respondents (with corruption at customs being the most frequently mentioned), the researcher was only able to find expatriate adjustment literature related to general living conditions and culture toughness/distance/novelty which impacted adjustment, at a high level. Previous academic research and studies have not delved deeply into these areas. Specifics regarding expatriate adjustment and bribery and corruption, crime, Safety and security have not been explored in the literature. Perhaps, the most relevant reports referring specifically to these issues are the Global Relocation Trends Survey Report (2012b) and the Developing Locations Report (2012a). These findings indicate that expatriate (and family) quality of life is impacted.

5.11 Conclusion

This research sought to investigate the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa. The findings indicate that expatriates experienced adjustment challenges with regard to adapting to local living conditions, ability of family to adjust to new environment, adapting to a new culture and language, interacting effectively with host country nationals, lack of support from

organisation, adapting to work related challenges, inadequate preparation prior to departure and had crime, corruption and security concerns.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

Long terms expatriate assignments are still very popular and are increasing to developing locations (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012a). To enable companies and expatriates to maximise the effectiveness of these assignments, it is important to understand the factors that influence the adjustment process, specifically for South African expatriates working in Africa. In this final chapter, the key findings and the conclusions are provided. Thereafter recommendations to key stakeholders are offered and finally, suggestions for further research have been made.

6.2 Conclusions of the study

The purpose of this research was to investigate the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa. This study used the Black, et al. (1991) model as the basis to determine the adjustment challenges expatriates. The dimensions and determinants of adjustment to international assignments as specified in the model were tested in the context of South African expatriates working in Africa.

The findings indicate that successful adjustment was a function of individual, family, organisational (both parent and local), job, culture and other non-work factors as well as external/environmental factors. Expatriates experienced adjustment challenges with regard to adapting to local living conditions, ability of family to adjust to new environment, adapting to a new culture and language, interacting effectively with host country nationals, lack of support from organisation, adapting to work related challenges, inadequate preparation prior to departure and had crime, corruption and security concerns.

This study has provided several insights into the complexities of adjustment challenges for expatriates working in Africa.

The study found that Pre-departure preparation, organisational support, family-spouse challenges, cross-cultural training, interacting with host country nationals, adapting to a foreign culture and language are all general aspects that expatriates have had adjustment challenges with.

South African expatriates working in Africa, expatriates faced many location difficulties in one or more of a following areas: limited housing options, limited education options, rudimentary medical facilities, climate and physical conditions, Infrastructure, communications, disease and sanitation, physical remoteness, political and social environment, recreation facilities, availability of goods and services, heightened exposure to bribery and corruption, crime, safety and security issues. Expatriates face intensely challenging living conditions and quality of life issues

Furthermore, the expatriates working in the remote locations, and living in camps or compounds experienced more demanding and harsher living conditions than the expatriates living and working in the cities.

Working in Africa, requires expatriates to have a greater sensitivity to African cultural nuances and an understanding of African cultural values which are collectivism, traditional values and community, hierarchical social structure, respect for elders, importance of kinship, close interpersonal relationships, primacy of the group and ecological orientation for life. Hofstede's (1983) dimensions which indicate that most sub-Saharan African countries exhibit high power distance, tend to be collectivistic, exhibit intermediate uncertainty avoidance and reflect slight femininity, are also a helpful way of understanding African culture and how it differs from South African culture..

When working in Africa, a challenging cultural aspect to adapt to is the Polychronic time system where there is much less formal perception of time. African cultural norms that are focused on age, hierarchy and seniority affect were very evident in the work environment where authority is assigned on the basis of age, experience and position within a hierarchy.

Expatriates expressed huge dissatisfaction with the organisational support (both home and host country) that they received.

A finding was that South African expatriates socialised more with other expatriates rather than host country nationals, especially in remote locations. They did not integrate into host culture.

The ethnocentric attitude of some South African expatriates was highlighted by respondents as an issue that prevents expatriates from adjusting and adapting in host countries and interacting with host country nationals. South Africans are perceived as arrogant and judging other culture's based on their own norms and values.

An aspect that the researcher found particularly important was attitude. All respondents indicated the importance of being open-minded, not imposing South African norms and values on others and changing mental paradigms in order to embrace and appreciate the host country and culture.

South African expatriates expressed the need for mentorship both in the home and host country. This is an important aspect that has not been adequately addressed by their organisations.

6.3 Recommendations

A multi-faceted, multi-stakeholder, integrated approach is required to ensure optimal expatriate adjustment so as to improve expatriates' satisfaction and job performance and maximise the effectiveness and success of the expatriate assignments. The success of the expatriate adjustment depends not only on the expatriate's individual competencies and skills, family, organisational (both parent and local), job, culture and other non-work factors as well as external/environmental factors.

Recommendations to expatriates, Organisations (managers and HR), and academics have been provided in the following areas: changing mental models and embracing the host culture, expatriate selection, proper preparation prior to

departure, Cross-cultural training, improved organisational support, mentorship programmes and Involvement in expatriate communities and social networks.

6.3.1 Changing Mental Models and embracing the host culture

Perhaps, the most important recommendation supported by all respondents, and linked to the behavioural training required for expatriate acculturation, is being open-minded and embracing the host culture. This implies:

- Being non-ethnocentric i.e. not imposing South African norms and values on others
- Acknowledging our personal mental model and letting it go in order to appreciate the host country and culture
- Being humble and respecting the host country and their people
- Always having a learning mind set rather than thinking you know it all

6.3.2 Expatriate Selection

International human resources managers wanting to maximise the effectiveness and success of the expatriate assignments and to minimize expatriate failures, training and relocation costs, should:

- Give due consideration to individual personality traits, skills, competencies and attitudes that will enable expatriates to function effectively in international contexts rather than just technical competence
- Organisations should provide assessment tools to help candidates evaluate their personal readiness for an international assignment
- Organisations should use assessment tools for candidate selection. In addition to the candidate's personality traits, skills, competencies and attitudes, the assessment should also focus on family suitability.

6.3.3 Proper preparation prior to departure

Accurate expectations positively affects cross-cultural adjustment. Adequate preparation, relevant previous experiences, pre departure cross-cultural training, and learning from the experience of returning expatriates help to facilitate the formation of accurate and realistic expectations. The following is recommended:

- An Experiential 'Look see' visit is important. South Africans must visit the prospective country beforehand to personally experience the country, giving them a better understanding of the culture and customs of the country.
- Learning from the experiences of others. This includes engaging with returning expatriates from host country and other African countries and speaking to people in the industry, who will provide valuable insights and information.
- After expatriate has decided to take the assignment in host country, and during the preparation and planning phase before relocating, allow/encourage employees to take a familiarisation trip to the location (paid for by the organisation, within reason off course!).
- Cross-cultural training is essential and is discussed in the next section.

6.3.4 Cross-cultural training

An integrated cross-cultural training program is required for expatriates starting prior to departure and continuing post arrival to the host country.

- Organisations should tailor cross-cultural training programs for expat's based on the following criteria: previous international experience, language proficiency, type of assignment, host location.
- Intensive Cross-cultural training is required, focusing on the host country's History, politics and economic systems; general culture including norms, values, customs, religion, etiquette; Business culture including practices and etiquette; cuisine; dress code and language

- Behavioural skills training is required focusing on the self, others and perceptual orientations including cultural flexibility, task orientation, people orientation, and (lack of) ethnocentrism
- The in-depth, comprehensive cross-cultural training program should utilise the most suitable learning methodologies especially experimental types of training which have proven to be effective in Africa (Nigeria)
- In host countries where corruption is likely, training should be provided on uncertain environments, emphasising company position concerning bribery and corruption
- Cross-cultural training for spouse and family is essential
- Self-learning about the culture and business practices should continue throughout the duration of the assignment.

6.3.5 Improved Organisational Support

South African companies need to have a greater appreciation for the conditions endured by expatriates in host countries and offer better support. High levels of organisational support are required prior to departure and post-arrival

- Organisations must ensure that the underlying HR process and policies for effective expatriate management is in place, these include: Selection, Performance management, Repatriation, Career development and Talent management.

Career management, performance management

- Organisations must clarify expatriate assignment objectives and show linkage to organisational objectives
- Organisations are required to reduce the amount of ambiguity expatriates face in their assignments.
- Human Resources function should ensure that a formal career management process is in place for expatriates on African assignments and is linked to Talent management.

- Proper performance management of the expatriates is required for expatriates on assignment in Africa. Job description and compacts are required. Regular Performance reviews are required during the duration of the assignment
- Human Resources function should put in appropriate compensation and performance management systems

On-site assignment Support

- Organisations should create an Organisational culture in the host country company/ work environment that is supportive and welcoming to expatriates. HCNs (co-workers) should provide support/mentorship to expatriates
- Companies should develop a support system or network that attends specifically to the needs and aspirations of expatriate employee
- The support system should also monitor the training and development needs of expatriates. This includes real time training of host country culture and conditions.

Spouse and family assistance

Organisations should consider the following types of assistance to spouses and families:

- Building schools or providing boarding school option, in the case of children requiring schooling, where none is available
- Arranging for work permits for spouses so that they can work, should they wish to do so and where possible
- Offering training and career assistance to spouses
- Providing transportation for spouse and family

- Maintaining the family in a 'nearby' third location, such as nearby city, in remote locations, where it is not viable for family to accompany the expatriate.
- Providing comfortable and secure housing
- Organisations should improve communication infrastructure/electronic communication so that expatriates can keep with touch with families via technologies such as Skype.

Comfortable living conditions

- For those expatriates living in camps in remote locations facilities are very basic. Companies must create a comfortable 'homely' environment by providing improved recreational facilities, air conditioning, Satellite/cable TV, swimming pools and catering.

Work Permits

- Organisations should educate business units and host country/foreign offices around work permit requirements and compliance issues and the renewal of the work permits.

General

- Companies should consider outsourcing certain aspects of expatriate programs such as selection and assessments

Repatriation

- Human Resources function should ensure that a formal repatriation strategy and policy is in place, linked to career management and retention (of repatriating employees) and offer repatriation career support for expatriates.
- Organisations should improve opportunities for repatriates to use the knowledge and skills they gained during their assignments to support existing and prospective expatriates.

6.3.6 Mentorship Programmes

- Mentorship fall under Organisational support section, but has been regarded as important enough, to be shown as a separate recommendation. Organisations should provide multiple-mentor programs (both home and host country mentors) or support networks to assist expatriate adjustment.
- Companies need to facilitate interactions with expatriates and host nationals using mentors

6.3.7 Involvement in Expatriate Communities and Social Networks

Expatriate communities and social networks provide a support structure to new expatriates, helping them to adapt to a foreign culture. Some of the recommendations are:

- Establish organisations to link new expatriates to existing expatriate communities
- Create formalised and organised expatriate social networking, linking expatriates to online communities.

6.4 Suggestions for further research

This research has been “expatriate-centric” i.e it has been done from the perspective of the expatriate. It was not possible to test certain aspects of the Black, et al. (1991) model such as Organisation socialisation, Organisation selection mechanisms and criteria, Organisation culture novelty and mode of adjustment, and these aspects were consequently excluded. A suggestion is to empirically fully test the Black, et al. (1991) model, in the context of South African expatriates working in Africa.

Since the research has been “expatriate-centric”, it has neglected other stakeholders. Further studies are required including other stakeholders such as spouses/family members, parent company, and host country nationals. The researcher suggests that in addition to these stakeholders, other stakeholders such as other expatriates/expatriate communities and mentors are also included.

A cross sectional rather than a longitudinal has been done. This may have its limitations since adjustment is a dynamic process, the antecedents and consequences cannot be empirically determined in a cross sectional qualitative study. The researcher suggests that rigorous, empirical longitudinal studies be performed on the adjustment challenges of South African Expatriates working in Africa.

Whilst this study was limited to Sub-Saharan Africa, this is still a broad area since Sub-Saharan Africa consists of 48 countries, each country is unique. It is therefore suggested that future research concentrate on specific countries within Sub-Saharan Africa.

It was noted that there could be differences in expatriate adjustment based on managerial position, family status and type of work being performed and these factors should be explored further. It would also be interesting to understand if there are female specific adjustment issues in Africa, this should be investigated further.

It was also noted in the study that, in developing locations, there are differences in adjustment for expatriates living in remote locations versus cities. This should be investigated further.

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer and Luk, in their unpublished research article “What have we learned about expatriate adjustment_answers accumulated from 23 years of research” (2004), the precursor to “Input-based and time-based models of international adjustment: meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions” (2005) postulated that greater differences in living conditions between the expatriate’s home and host countries will exacerbate the effect of various stressors on adjustment. They felt that it may be important to

gauge the direction of differences between the home and host country (i.e. whether the move is from an economically less developed to a more developed country (excess), or vice versa (deficiency). This was never tested. An empirical study should be conducted to test this, focusing specifically on a developed country and an African country as a developing country.

There have very few studies done examining the influence of the different methods of cross-cultural training on the different facets of expatriate adjustment in sub-Saharan African countries. This area should be researched further.

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APPENDIX A

Letter to Respondent and Actual Research Instrument

Dear Sir/ Madam

My name is Sharmintha Dhrampal and I am a student at WBS (Wits Business School), completing my MBA (Masters in Business Administration). I am currently working on my research report which is a critical component of the degree.

My area of research topic is 'Adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa'. As part of my data collection, I am required to interview employees of South African companies who have worked on expatriate assignments on the African continent.

I would appreciate being able to interview you for 30 - 45 minutes on your experience while working on the African continent. I acknowledge and understand that your schedule is extremely busy, and will be grateful if you could avail yourself for this interview.

I wish to assure you that your information will be kept confidential and treated with respect and anonymity.

I will be available to meet with you at a date, time and location of your convenience.

Thank you for your support in helping me further this area of research.

Yours sincerely,

Sharmintha Dhrampal

Sham.Dhrampal@eskom.co.za

Mobile: 083 415 1383

Actual Research Instrument

Demographic Questions

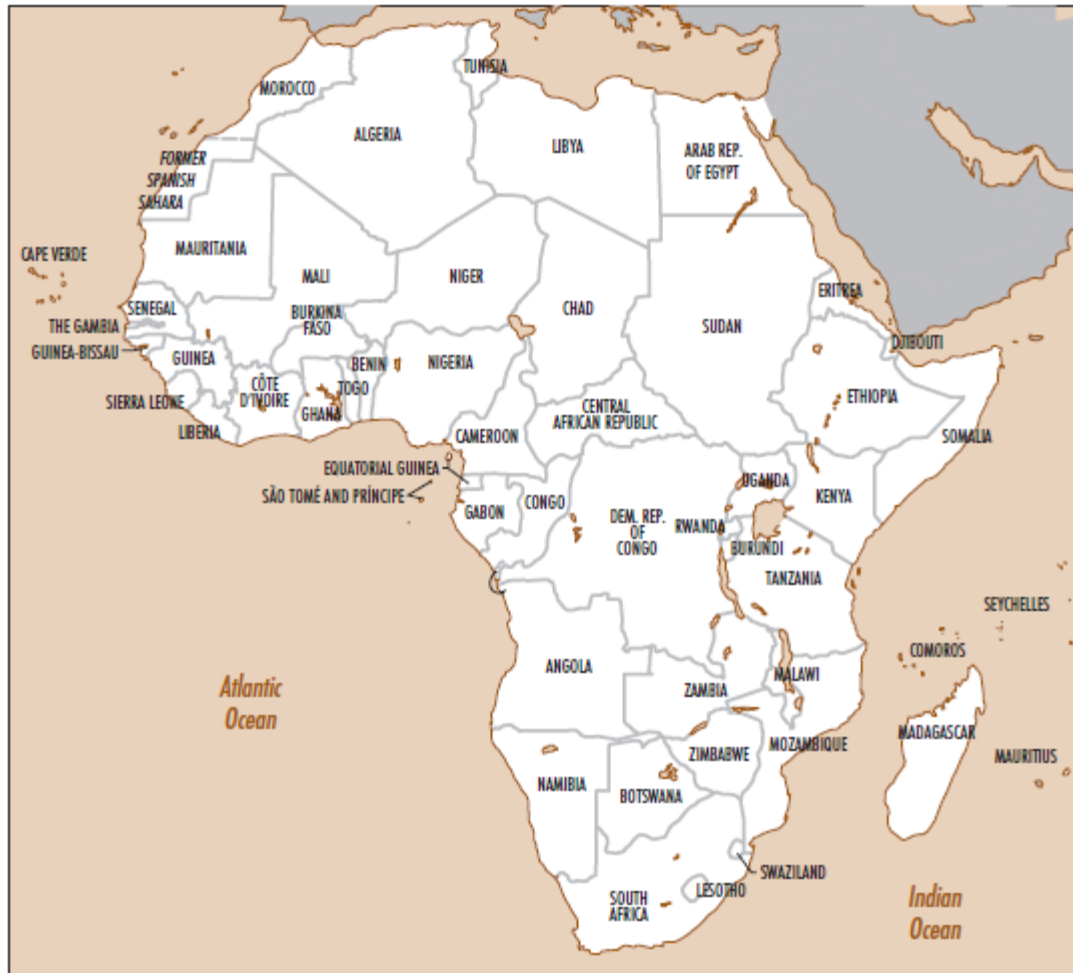
- Age, Gender, Race
- Industry
- Countries worked in and period
- Position
- Marital Status

Interview questions

- What adjustment challenges did you experience when working in Africa?
- How did you overcome these challenges?
- What recommendations can you make to improve expatriate adjustment in Africa in the future?

APPENDIX B

Map of Africa and facts on Africa



Africa consists of 53 countries in total. Sub-Saharan Africa includes 48 countries and excludes the 5 North African countries which are: Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia and Libya.

Some interesting facts on Sub-Saharan Africa are (World Bank Africa Development Indicators Factoids 2011)¹²:

- Average GDP growth rate is 2.6 % (2000-2009)

¹² Data is for 2009 unless noted otherwise

- Average population Growth is 2.5 %
- The average Gross National Income (GNI) per capita of Sub-Saharan Africa is \$ 1,130. Gross National Income (GNI) per capita of the richest Sub-Saharan country (Equatorial Guinea at \$ 12,420) is 83 times larger than the GNI per capita of the poorest (Burundi at \$ 150).
- Nigeria has the largest population in Sub-Saharan Africa (154.7 million people) and accounts for 18% of the continent's total population.
- Seychelles has 1,049 mobile phones per 1000 people; Eritrea has 28 per 1000 people. They are the countries with the highest and lowest number of mobile phones per 1,000 people in Sub-Saharan Africa.
- Only 24% of the rural population of Sub-Saharan Africa have access to improved sanitation compared to 42% of the urban population. (2008)
- The average life expectancy for Sub-Saharan Africa is 52.5 years.
- In 21% of Sub-Saharan African countries, one or two products accounts for at least 75% percent of total exports.
- Rwanda has the highest number of women in national parliament with 56% of total seats. Comoros has the lowest with 3%.
- The largest recipient of net official development assistance (ODA) in Sub-Saharan Africa (Ethiopia at \$ 3,820 million) received an amount 165 times larger than the smallest recipient (Seychelles at \$ 23.2 million). The largest recipient is Ethiopia, and the smallest is Seychelles.
- Infant mortality increased by 21% in Congo Republic during 1990-2009, the largest increase in Sub-Saharan Africa. The largest drop was in Madagascar, by 60%.
- The malnutrition rate for Sub-Saharan Africa is 42% while it is 47% for South Asia, the highest in the world. North America has the lowest at 4%.
- In the mid-1980s, over 80% of Sub-Saharan African countries had autocratic regimes. By 2009, more than half the countries of Sub-Saharan were democracies.
- Sub-Saharan Africa's urban population increased by 114% between 1990 and 2009, reaching 310.1 million. The world's urban population increased by 51% during the same period, reaching 3.4 billion

APPENDIX C

Comparison of Practices between Developed and Developing Locations

Table 10: Comparison of Practices between Developed and Developing locations Source: Brookfield Developing Locations Spotlight Report, 2012

The following table provides a visual comparison between practices appropriate to developed and developing locations.

Element	Developed Location	Developing Location
Host location housing	Furnished housing preferred	Housing may need to be built or split-location housing may be required
Foreign service premium	Not offered	Required
Hardship premium	May not be included if company does not expect assignments to qualifying locations	Required
Rest & relaxation leave	May not be included even if company includes a hardship allowance in policy	Standard
Goods and services allowance	"Efficient purchaser Index" or similar approach may be used	May be provided at expatriate level even in locations with a negative index, even if some elements (e.g., meals) are provided directly
Home Leave	Once per year to home location	May be provided more frequently and other destinations may be covered
Host transportation	Allowance may be provided; if car/driver, typically only for employee	Car and driver may be provided for spouse as well
Language training	Restricted to employee or employee and spouse, based on business need	All family members and focus on pre-assignment training, since home language may not be spoken in host location
Accompanying dependent education	Local schools if possible; otherwise, private or international school in destination location.	May need to build a school, move family to a third location, cover boarding school and/or more frequent visits
Club membership	Not typically included	If available, provided
Household goods shipment	Surface/air shipment, based on type of housing provided and standard limits	May not be provided in locations where logistics are impractical.

APPENDIX D

Consistency matrix

Research problem					
To investigate the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa					
Sub-problem	Literature Review	Hypotheses or Propositions or Research questions	Source of data	Type of data	Analysis
To investigate the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa	Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison & Ren (2012); Gupta, Dasari, Dasari (2012); Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen, Bolino (2012); Colakoglu and Caligiuri (2009); Okpara and Kabongo (2011); Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, Luk (2005); Waxin and Panaccio (2005); Gbadamosi (2003); Eschbach, Parker & Stoeberl (2001); Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley (1999); Tung (1998); Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991); Black and Mendenhall (1990); Mendenhall and Oddou (1985); Hofstede (1983) Aycan (1997) Hechanova, Beehr and Christiansen (2003) Takeuchi (2010)	What are the adjustment challenges of South African expatriates working in Africa?	Research methodology: Qualitative Research Instrument: Individual semi-structured Interviews	Textual data	Content and Thematic Analysis

