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The influence of Cross Cultural Training on European expatriate assignment at the National Oil Corporation in Libya.

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A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

As a result of increasing globalisation expatriation in the oil and gas industry has become a common practice. In order to be on the foreground in such a competitive market, it is vital for a corporation like the National Oil Corporation in Libya to make certain that operational international recruitment and expatriate assignments are in place. As a member of OPEC and as an owner of the foremost oil reserves in Africa, the NOC in Libya attracts international investment from a varied array of countries.

The focus of this study was on the Libyan oil industry as it is an ideal platform of the influence of globalization and alterations in economic, political and cultural mixing on the current business setting. Libya has a different culture, social and business custom to the west. To achieve business goals and avoid cultural misunderstandings, large organisations such as the NOC in Libya must be culturally aware and have the ability to stimulate creativeness and inspiration through flexible management for this reason the NOC in Libya was selected.

This study examines the influence of cross cultural training on European expatriate's assignment at the National Oil Corporation in Libya. The respondents used for this research were European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya. European expatriates represent one of the largest ethnic groups working at the NOC. In 2015, 542 European expatriates, were employed by the NOC. Europeans expatriates were selected to symbolise the Western culture and Libya has been chosen to symbolise the non-Western culture. As this research centres on one corporation and in-depth data is required, the decision of selecting a case study was an expected choice. The data in this research is of qualitative nature, making direct interviews the selected research design.

The findings show that cross cultural training was not offered to the European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya. This, in turn, had a negative influence on their international assignment and on their ability to form positive relations with the local Libyan employees, to achieve the objectives of the international assignment and, consequently, their job performance.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the content of this thesis is my own my personal work unless otherwise stated. Any materials that has been used in this thesis that are not my own have been acknowledged.

TABLE OF CONTENT

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER TWO: LIBYAN BACKGROUND

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

References to more recent literature has been added

CHAPTER FOUR: EMPIRICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH DESIGN

CHAPTER SIX: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION

Interview questions

A table from the NOC illustrating the numbers of European expatriate working at the NOC in Libya (2015)

A letter from the chairman of the NOC in Libya

A table from the NOC illustrating the numbers of European expatriate working at the NOC in Libya (2015)

A letter from the chairman of the NOC in Libya

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

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CHAPTER ONE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Globalisation has consistently developed during the last decades; international companies are becoming multinational and at the same time multicultural.Companies have expanded, generating new businesses across country borders in multicultural settings because of this globalisation. International business has been swiftly growing and functioning in Libya, with several Western corporation spreading their operations to Libya. Accordingly, problems begin to arise as many expatriates find adjustment to a new country challenging and therefore are not capable to work to the best of their ability, this could result in reduced performance or possibly failure of international assignments.

Different cultures result in people having different etiquettes, behaviours, and beliefs. They all have differences of opinion to the world. Subsequently, when one person with a cultural background attempts to interact with people from a different cultural background cross cultural problems may occur (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). Furthermore, cultures do not exist in one country, but they can be found across countries. It is also accurate that within one country it is possible to find several cultures (Nina, 2005).When moving to a new country, an expatriate will face issues that are linked to these difference in culture. These expatriates, defined as "any individual who relocates from his/her home base to an international location for business or work purposes and sets up temporary residence in the host country" (Lee and Donohue, 2012, p. 1198).These expatriates are sent to various countries around the world, where they are expected to live, work and adjust to completely new environments and cultures.

In order for employees to interact appropriately in the new environment and to minimise these issues, they will be facing due to differences in culture should be a reason for companies to offer CCT to their expatriate employees (Jan Selmer, 2001).

The impact of the expatriates cultural background and how it influences the way they behave and communicate with others is not always obvious to them. It is therefore expected that expatriates face culture shock when their ways of acting are questioned in their new environment (Marion Estienne, 1997). Cross cultural training is therefore seen

by many as an important means to support expatriates recognise and comprehend the dissimilarities and help them to avoid inappropriate actions and misunderstanding of others.

The focus of this study was on the Libyan oil industry because it is a ideal platform of the influence of globalization and cultural mixing in the recent business setting. Libya, a Muslim, Arab third world country, with approximate a population of six million (oxford, 2015). Libya follows the Islamic faith; it has a developing economy. In 1962 Libya joined OPEC (Yahia and Saleh, 2008). As an owner of the biggest oil reserves in Africa , Libya appeals to overseas ventures from a varied array of countries because of its production of oil.

Numerous international countries have exploration and production contracts with Libya. Oil is thought of as the first source for the usage of power worldwide. For Oil producing companies, Oil is believed to be the source that provides greatest to the national income. In this respect, Libya is believed to have the leading recognised oil reserves in the region of Africa . It has 42 billion barrels of oil and above 1.3 trillion cubic meters of natural gas.In total it is thought to hold 3.34 % of the world's reserves (Yahia, 2008).

 More than 95% of Libya's export income comes from its oil revenues. From 1963 to 2006 it contributed towards 60% of the annual GDP (Yahia, 2008). Libya is regarded as one of the largest North African countries that supplies to Europe. Libya's location has given it advantage over its Middle Eastern neighbours, as it is located closest to Europe. The discovery of oil has resulted in evident changes in Libya and other developing Arab countries. Standard of living changed, the educational system and changes in the societal structure were evident (Ali, 1990).

Another factor that has been of great advantage to Libya's oil market is its location. Libya lies between the western developed economies and the North African developing economies. Libya oil is relatively cheaply when compared to other oil producing countries. This is due to the natural drift of oil towards the sea. This has reduced the transport costs significantly. More than half a dozen European nations rely on Libyan oil for more than 10 percent of their oil imports (Yahia, 2008). Making this an obvious reason for the West's intervention in Libya.

Travel to and from Libya was prohibited by United Nations Security Council in 1992. The United Nations Security Council then lifted the sanctions on Libya in 2003. This

subsequently resulted in a rise in the Libyan economy due to benefits from international market, especially within the oil industry (Boucek, 2004).

In 2003 the USA and western Europe consumed the largest amount of oil per day (GAO, 2006) . Having left three decades prior, the USA and western Europe wanted to renew their concessions in the Libyan oil sector. Companies from the USA obtained eleven licences. These covered an area of 98,673km3, which represented approximately 78.3% of the area offered to them (Otman, 2008).

Libya was distributing approximately 1.3-1.4 million barrels each day of high quality, light crude oil before the outburst of conflict in February 2011. However, since the revolution in 2011, there has been a great deal of political instability in Libya. By September 2011 Libyan oil output decreased to a 100,000 barrels per day after military intervention began. More recently political instability is expected to persist throughout the foreseen period (The Economist, 2015).

This chapter briefly sets the scene with a general introduction to the thesis (1.1). It then defines the research problem and motivations for the study (1.2). Moreover, it will present the research questions (1.3). It will display the research aim & objectives (1.4). Subsequently, it intends to presents the research contributions and significance of this research (1.5). Next, it purposes to briefly explain the methodology adopted in this research (1.6) and the key findings (1.7). Furthermore, it provides an overview of the seven chapters, summarising each briefly (1.8).

1.2   RESEARCH MOTIVATION

This thesis will focus on Cross cultural training, of European expatriate in Libya as a foundation for comparing the two cultures. "Throughout history, people from different countries and different walks of life have traded and made productive deals while pursuing their own very different goals" (Hofstede et. al., 2002 p.786). In line with Hofstede (2001), Gibson (1997), also believes that cultural diversity in the business environment may be a source of inventive thinking and experience which can improve organisation competitive situation. Nonetheless, a successful completion of a project or assignment in today's multicultural business community is greatly affected by cultural differences. A large Corporation such as the NOC in Libya needs to avoid cultural

misunderstanding and be more culturally sensitive in order to accomplish their business goals and promote creativity.

Libya is a rapidly developing country, with one of the largest oil industries in the world, making it a significant country for Multinational Corporation and their operations abroad. This study takes a qualitative approach, rather than using the quantitative apparatus on which most of the prevailing literature is based, thereby believed to provide new insights to be explored in the future and providing qualitative data to help balance out the literature. Also, there is little research on business expatriates in Libya, and in particular expatriates in the oil and gas industry of Libya, where there are a growing number of expatriates and big projects involving large investments.

When working abroad, it is paramount to possess traits such as cultural consciousness and cultural intellect. When working in a area such as Libya, this becomes incredibly important, especially for European expatriates. This is due to the evident differences that exist between the Libyan and western cultures. For this reason, the Libyan (Arab) culture, their local practices, their behaviours (both social and work related), their beliefs and rules should be extensively studied in order to avoid offending the local Libyan people.

Hofstede, 2001, believes that diversity can be of great value if managed well .Benefits such as a better grasp of different markets, he also, considers it as a trigger for creativity and that improved business decisions are made as a result of this diversity. However, it can result in incompetence, struggles and misunderstanding between people if managed poorly.

Libya has a very different culture to that of the west. They differ in their social, business manners, their language, and custom. In recent years there has been a speedy development of foreign business in Libya. Various western companies are crossing borders and extending their business to Libya.Subsequently, there has been a rise in expatriate workers in Libya. These expatriates find it difficult to adjust to the new foreign and very different environment, and thus problems begin to arise. This, in turn, affects expatriate's ability to work to their full potential. This may result in either failure of the assignment or poor performance.

There are several different definitions to what expatriate failure means. According to Bennet et al. (2000) Expatriate failure is when an expatriate return prematurely to home

country, if the expatriate delayed productivity or if the expatriate remained but caused damage to the project or the business relationship.

There are several different definitions for culture that exist. In the Arab world,culture is very much impacted by the religion of Islam. Arab identity is defined by the Islamic teachings. It is accepted that culture is relative. Diversity should be a key characteristic of culture. When working in an Islamic, Arab business environment expatriates and employers need to appreciate the influence culture has.

Studies have examined the effects that the home country has on the Cross cultural adjustment (Hofstede, 2004) they have concluded that cultural distance does have reasonable influence on the Cross cultural training that is needed. It is accepted that the greater the difference that exists between an expatriate's home country and the foreign country, the further the problematic the adjustment is.

The definition of culture arrived at by the GLOBE researchers reads: This definition places the GLOBE study alongside that of Hofstede (2001) in viewing culture as both evolutionary and the product of socialisation, although socialisation in this case is supposed as including a degree of cultural convergence due to globalisation. Reviews of GLOBE lauded it as offering a new perspective of culture supported by a sophisticated, rigorous and innovative methodological approach (Tsui et al., 2007). The separation of values from practices and their negative relationship to one another suggests that the perceived values of societies do not meet the expectations of citizens, and is, therefore, a significant step in budding the difficulty of culture (Peterson, 2004 & Smith, 2005). Peterson (2004) goes so far as to say that the research challenges Cross cultural scholars to rethink what we are studying. Concerns about methodology and data analysis were raised (Peterson & Castro, 2006) but only sought to highlight areas that needed clarification to make the process more transparent, which GLOBE researchers duly attended to .

Hofstede (2006) asserted that GLOBE was a replication and elaboration of his research and believed fundamental flaws significantly affected the outcomes in not supporting his findings. He acknowledged that the research instrument was unreliable as it was rife with 'US hegemony' triggering a Western bias, ethnocentric in that most GLOBE researchers had received their higher degrees from North American universities implying that they

were incapable of independent thought, and reflective practice, and "GLOBE's respondents' minds categorised the questions in a way that the researchers' minds did not account for" (Hofstede, 2006, p. 882). What Hofstede fails to acknowledge is the diversity that formed the 'GLOBE Community' which played far more than a token role in the project (Hanges & Dickson, 2006).

Also, and as the GLOBE researchers pointed out (Javidan et al., 2006), Hofstede's study was based on a survey designed for IBM needs of the late 1960's and early 1970s so would not have been without its own US-centric flavour. Furthermore, the inclusion of an Eastern perspective by Hofstede only occurred later and was not based on IBM data, therefore, exposing a shortcoming in his research instrument and probably because IBM did not consider it necessary.

The bulk of Hofstede's (2001) criticism focuses on the operationalisation of GLOBE dimensions, the statistical procedures and logic used, and the interpretation of the results that if done properly, as he did when he re-analysed their data, would have supported his five-dimension model of culture. Four years later, Hofstede (2010) reignited this argument on the basis that one response could be that new studies develop new insights, give pause for reflection and move the field forward (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). In the case of Hofstede versus GLOBE, their studies should be viewed as complementary rather than opposites (Peterson, 2004). GLOBE makes a valuable contribution to Cross cultural research (Boyacigiller et al., 2004) in broadening the knowledge base and opening up discussion of factors that may explain variation across cultures. A worthy illustration is the exchanges between Maseland and van Hoorn (2010), Taras et al. (2010) and Brewer and Venaik (2010) who examined the role of 'diminishing marginal utility' and its relationship to values and practices in explaining differences in and between the Hofstede and GLOBE dimensions. Although these writers hold different viewpoints, the value of their exchange lays in the shared belief in theory building to explain cultural differences while offering alternative perspectives on the utility of cultural dimensions and future directions.

Many theories advocating the relationship between expatriate success and CCT. There is a clear lack of empirical evidence despite this there are many theories. There have been effective definitions concerning what success and failure mean, it has been difficult for

researchers to compare results across studies. The increasing diversity in the modern business word does demands additional CCT research. According to Littrell et al. (2006), CCT is required to develop the performance of expatriates and also to detect training approaches that could be valuable for preparing expatriates in their new multicultural setting. Thus improving effectiveness of work.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This research aims to assess the influence of Cross cultural training on European expatriate's assignment at the National Oil Corporation in Libya.

The thesis anticipates to achieve four main objectives. First, the thesis hopes to explore the potential impact of cultural differences and Cross cultural adjustment on expatriate assignment, secondly, to investigate expatriate perceptions of organisational preparation, training, and support. Thirdly, it will study the importance of Cross cultural training. Finally, the fourth objective of the research seeks to discover the influences of cross cultural training on the success or failure of expatriates.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1) Why do expatriates need Cross cultural training? (*Research objective 3*)

2) What are the expatriate perceptions of organisational preparation, training, and support? (*Research objective 2*)

3) What causes the expatriate assignment to succeed or fail? (*Research objective 4*)

4) What are the impacts of cultural differences and cultural adjustment on the expatriate assignment? (*Research objective 1*)

1.5 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION AND SIGNIFICANCE

Expatriates are faced with dealing with environments that are very different culturally, politically and economically. Therefore, European expatriates living and working in Libya will not only face job-related but also personal differences that will ultimately lead to problems if not prepared for correctly (Birdseye and Hills, 1995).

At present, there is no research that has dealt with expatriate problems in Libya. There is a clear gap in the literature. This research aims to develop an improved understanding on how European expatriates can be better supported in order for them to have higher

chances of succeeding on their international assignment.This research offers empirical support for concentrating on post arrival cross cultural training on learning the local norms and rules, as it has a positive influence on the cross cultural adjustment, the improvement of cross cultural capability, and the job performance of the expatriates.

According to Fishman (1996), considers that a fundamental human resources is to appreciate the factors that expand expatriate performance in the new foreign environment. Additionally, the substantial research that has been performed was in the United States of America. This type of research is absent in Libya, with no research on European expatriates working in Libya. For this reason, it is necessary to contribute to the development of nation-specific studies.

This research could potentially assist human resource professionals not only at the NOC but also in global organisations. It will help to design and carry out more suitable cross-cultural training for European expatriates working in countries like Libya. Also, the findings of this research can support corporations and large companies similar to the NOC in aiding the expatriates to succeed on the international assignment. Therefore, corporation in return will minimise loss to the company.

It is difficult to provide a precise figure on the cost of a failed expatriate assignment. There are conflicting figures on the cost of expatriate failure. Costs of failure in corporate companies are more frequently conveyed. While the cost of failure of self-initiated expatriates are rarely conveyed. Both direct and indirect costs of failure exist. The direct costs include costs of training an alternative expatriate, the costs of compensation and transfer. The figures vary in degree from 55,000 dollars to 1.2 million dollars (Ashamalla, 1998). Enderwick & Hodgson, 1993 estimate that the cost of an expatriate in comparison to that of a national would be around three fold. The reason for this is that large companies would normally offer attractive packages in order to attract experienced, highly skilled and qualified expatriates. This is especially true in the case of the NOC in Libya as skilled and qualified nationals are rare.

Corporation and large companies need to ensure that the expatriates selected for the overseas assignment are appropriately trained. This is, so failure, poor performance and consequently any losses from the companies' perspective are avoided. Selecting the right expatriate for the international assignment can result to a success in overseas assignments (Ashamalla, 1998).

The European expatriates employed at the NOC may find it difficult to realise the possible benefits that Libya may provide without suitable IHRM practices. It is thought that in order for expatriates to reach their full potential it is of great significance that they are prepared appropriately for the international assignment. One way this can be done is through providing effective CCT (Blino and Feldman, 2000).

According to Hofstede (2003) during an international assignment, it is important that an expatriate does not follow the rules of his/her own culture but to follow the rules of the foreign country. Differences in culture are too vital to be overlooked by the company. Despite this Selmer (2000) and Waxin (2004) both agree the CCT that is delivered by corporation are often ineffective, inadequate or do not exist. In the case no training is provided by the organisation it has been concluded that expatriates will not self-train when not provided with CCT. According to Shumsky (1992) believe that often people that make the decisions on whether to carry out CCT to expatriates in the company do not have international experience. Due to this lack of experience, they are unable to appreciate the position. Often they believe that CCT is not useful, is unnecessary and too costly.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

As this research focuses on only the NOC in Libya, the decision of carrying out a case study remained the apparent choice . The data required for this research is of qualitative nature, with over the phone/skype interviews the preferred research design. Many ways of carrying out interviews exist, but the qualitative in-depth interview method was selected as the method of data collection for this research. This was for two reasons Firstly; it proposes a guide through the interview but allows for the opportunity of asking additional questions (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Additionally, it offers the opportunity to attain more in-depth information , which is appropriate for this case study. Secondly, it lets the participants describe their own experiences of Cross cultural interactions. Enabling the researcher to achieve the information required to make this research as rich and thorough as feasible. Rossman and Rallis (1998, p.82) state that in-depth interviews permit a researcher to carry out a "guided conversation with a goal of eliciting from the interviewee rich, detailed materials."

Cultural studies is often based on the supposed unreachability of culture. Accordingly, it would be reasonable to use a qualitative method to have approach such information that

may otherwise be difficult to reach. It is very difficult, for customary methods to tap cultural processes In the case of the Arab culture which is exclusive to the Arab societyThe Arabs are not necessarily conscious of their personal culture except if it is made explicit (Schein, 2004).

It is possible to assess the less theoretical layers of culture with a quantitative approach, using observations and focused interview (Schein, 2000, 2004). Hence, the deeper layers of culture can be studied using the qualitative method. To make the findings of this research valid, it is therefore of great significance to obtain a rich and in detail insight of culture through the eyes of an insider (Sackmann, 2001).

The respondents used for this research were European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya. In total, a number of 32 expatriates were interviewed. The expatriates chosen for this research were chosen through purposeful sampling. As European expatriates were of particular interest. European expatriates, in particular, were chosen for this research as they are one of the largest ethnic groups working at the NOC. European expatriates represent approximately 38% of the total expatriates at the NOC (NOC, 2013). Europeans working at the NOC in Libya represented the Western culture and Libya was selected to represent the non-Western culture.

This research looks at the practical realities faced by expatriates in the oil and gas sector, working for such companies, who are on international assignment in Libya or self-initiated expatriates. It aims to identify what some of the main difficulties are, and consequently contribute towards academic and practitioner endeavours to build better strategies to deal with them. In this light, it is worth noting that because the focus is on expatriate voices, their experiences, and perceptions while on international assignment, the companies that employ them have not been included in the research. By using anonymity and detaching from companies, participants are able to freely express their thoughts, without being concerned about whether their input will be associated with their employer and possibly have negative consequences. Analogously of the European expatriates was achieved by giving each expatriate a code based on their nationality, for example A Bosnian expatriate was referred to as 'Bos' and this followed by a number representing frequency of that nationality (e.g. Bos1, Bos2 etc.) (Table 6.2).

The interview questions used were open-ended questions. Here each expatriate is asked the same set of questions. They are however, worded so that answers are open ended, and the researcher has the opportunity to probe any follow-up questions (Gall, Gall, and Borg, 2003). This method was proven to be most fitting to the research. The structure confirmed consistency and consequently reliability, and it delivered data that was directed towards the research aim and objectives, creating findings that are relevant and comparable. While the use of open-ended questions allowed for the qualitative exploration required. In addition, it permits expatriates to shed light on the experiences that they had of cross cultural interactions in as much detail. It enabled the collection of all the information required to make this research as rich and detailed as possible.

A pilot interview was conducted with two European expatriate before final interviews. Data collected from this interview was not counted it was used to determine any weaknesses in the interview design and permitted the researcher to make the necessary modifications .

Questions asked included, what level of preparation they received, the length, the approaches used, if the training given was pre-departure or the post-arrival stage. An expatriate that stays in the foreign country for the whole duration of the international assignment is characterized a success. As for the impact of Cross cultural training on adjustment, the questions focused on what the expatriate's believed as most stressful (Caligiuri and Tung, 1999) also what factors they felt help them to adjust while living and working abroad (Black & Mendenhall, 1991). Also, demographic information, including age range, education, previous international experience, years employed in the existing industry, was collected from expatriates at the start of the interview. Moreover, notes were taken during the interviews in order to pull out any further questions important to the research and to support the development of categories for the data analysis.

Interviews with the European expatriates took place over the phone (in some instances through, Skype). This is mainly because most European expatriates are currently not in Libya due to the recent turmoil in the country. All interviews are aimed to be completed within one hour. Interviews were audiotaped with the consent of the expatriates, then transcribed for data analysis. In the analysis process, both thematic analysis and coding were used. Thematic analysis was used for finding, analysing and recoding patterns and

themes within the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). While there is no set method for analysing qualitative data.This research employed both thematic analysis and coding. Thematic analysis is a method for recognising, examining, and describing themes in data. Once the interviews are recorded and transcribed. The data was coded. Coding each sentence of the transcript , detect key ideas. The assimilation of the codes from the data collected is where the themes then emerged. Each theme was defined and exemplified with quotes from the transcript to aid communicate its meaning.

1.7 KEY FINDINGS

The findings show that CCT was not offered to the European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya. This, in turn, this had a negative influence on their ability to have a positive International experience, to form positive relations with the local Libyan employees, to achieve the objectives of the international assignment and, consequently, they will not be able to enhance their job performance. Although the number of expatriates used for the sample is somewhat small, it is essential to indicate that the expatriates decided that CCT is the utmost vital skill for the success of an international assignment. Meaning that delivering sufficient sequential and efficient CCT is crucial for the expatriates, for it aids them to best comprehend the new culture and to have an increased positive outlook of its characteristics.

This research proposes, however, that future research should take into account the needs of the local employees and their training. Additionally, the findings point out that to enable expatriates' adjustment and for expatriates to achieve success on their international assignments, expatriate selection measures should be a priority when recruiting expatriates, similarly, language training should be integrated into the training program of the local culture.

1.8 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH

Chapter one sets the scene with a general introduction; it introduces the reader to the research problem. The research contributions and significance are also presented. Subsequently, the objectives and research questions are raised in this chapter, and a summary of the methodology adopted in the research is explained.

Chapter Two aims to present the background and the geographical location of Libya. It moreover, provides a general overview of the political state of Libya since the revolution

in 2012. Furthermore, it reviews the Libyan economy the chapter focuses on the Libyan National Oil Corporation (NOC) and its joint ventures.

Chapter three will carry out and analyze an inclusive literature review on Cross cultural matters. Initially, the review explores what culture is, the theories of culture. Subsequently, the European, Arab and then specifically the Libyan culture are discussed. Next, CCT, its importance, key theories of CCT, methods of CCT are discussed. Then the chapter reviews expatriation, expatriation selection, reasons for expatriation, expatriate training and finally it presents the expatriate learning process.

Chapter four reviews the empirical research on Cross cultural training, in particular, expatriate adaptation and expatriate failure. The chapter reviews the current literature on the factors that influence expatriate adjustment and hence, expatriate success. The chapter is divided into three sections; first, the causes of adjustment to the general environment, secondly, the adjustment to the work state and finally the adjustment with the countries host nationals. Furthermore, the chapter will review the existing literature on expatriate failure.

Chapter five, this chapter outlines the research perspectives adopted and the methods used in the research. Initially, the researcher's philosophy is described, which leads to the approach and strategy employed in the research. This follows with explanations of sampling, data collection and analysis processes, along with motivations behind each. Risks, limitations, and ethical issues are then identified, with the precautions taken to impede them.

Chapter Six presents the findings and discussion of this research. They are examined and are structured according to the research objectives. In the first part of the chapter the foundation for the research are set, with the main variables from the interviews. Following this, objective two is investigated, looking at organisational preparation, training, and support; succeeding with objective three, the importance of CCT. Subsequently, objective four discovers the influence of cross cultural training on the success or failure of European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya. Finally, objective one of this research explores the potential impact of cultural difference and Cross cultural adjustment on European expatriate assignment.

Chapter Seven will provide a summary of the key research findings, recommendations, contributions, limitations, as well as potential future research.

1.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In an ever increasingly globalised world, if international companies want to remain competitive they need a workforce that is able to work effectively in foreign environments. Culture becomes a central issue in expatriation as it defines the basic assumptions and patterns of behaviour of a given group (Schein, 2010), and therefore influences all aspects of working and non-working life.

Expatriates are used in many industries, including the oil and gas industry, where it is common practice due to the expansive global footprint of oil and gas activities. According to Hays (2013), 47.4% of workers in the industry work abroad. While on international assignments these employees are regularly faced with difficulties dealing with the new environment. These challenges are often due to the differences between the culture of the expatriate and that of the host country, where previously assumed and accepted behaviour, values, and expectations suddenly come into question.

The cultural differences between the West and the Middle East have been shown to present significant challenges for businesses and their expatriates (Tan et al., 2005). Middle Eastern cultures, such as Libya are very different to Western nations, which means greater cultural differences and larger barriers to adjustment. Research suggest that a significant portion of expatriate failures are due to a disconnect between IHR management and expatriate practices. These are issues that could be prevented through better human resource policies that are aligned with what is actually going on in the field. This would indicate the necessity of discovering what the issues are while expatriates on are assignment.

A large number of Western European expatriates are working in Libya. Consequently, significant cultural differences exist among western Europeans and Libyans. As a result of this difference, issues may arise both personal and work-related. These problems will inevitably affect the expatriate's ability to adjust to the foreign environment. For this reason, expatriates face an increased chance of failure on their international assignment. Though, suitable preparation of the expatriate can minimise or prevent expatriate failure according to literature. It is believed that CCT helps expatriates work in unfamiliar environments by enhancing their knowledge and skills in the new business environment, therefore, performing better and becoming more productive. Research indicates that cross cultural incompetence is one of the major factors to the lack of good expatriate

performance and their inability to adjust in the new setting. Chapter Two will now study the background literature to Libya.

CHAPTER TWO

LIBYAN BACKGROUND

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the late 1950s, oil was discovered in Libya by the foreign oil companies (FOCs). The discovery of oil turned the economic prosperities of Libya around. Libya went from a deprived poor country into one the most prosperous countries worldwide in regards to per capita GDP. The Libyan national income and overseas trade in Libya is heavily dependent of the country's oil sector. As the leading source of power worldwide Oil naturally plays a considerably important role in the national income of the oil producing countries (Hassan & Kendell, 2008).

This chapter aims to present a broad background and particular understandings into the location of Libya as well as the effects of Libya's location as a doorway among Africa and Europe (2.2). Additionally, it provides a general overview of the political state of Libya since the revolution in 2012 (2.3). Subsequently, the chapter purposes to present an outline of the Libyan economy (2.4) and to conclude; the chapter will focus on the Libyan National Oil Corporation (2.5) and its joint ventures (2.6).

2.2 BACKGROUND TO LIBYA

Libya is a country situated in the Mediterranean Sea, among the countries of Africa it is the 4th largest country, and worldwide it is the seventh largest country. Libya is an Arab country that follows the faith of Islam. It has a population of approximately six million. The language spoken in Libya is Arabic and the second most business spoken language is English. Libya is one of Europes main North African oil suppliers as it is situated closer to European than its other opponents in the Middle East (Ahmad et al., 2004).

Libya is an important geopolitical power in North Africa; it has land more than 1.7m square kilometres. A noteworthy geographical attribute of Libya is that its onshore oil fields are close to the shore and near to Europe. The regular flow of oil to the sea has helped Libya to yield oil comparatively inexpensive in relation to other oil producing companies. Its position among the developed economies in the West and developing economies of North Africa has allowed it to cut on transportation costs, consequently increasing the importance and impact of its provisions to the oil market (Yahia, 2008).

Nonetheless, this geographical characteristic during the course of its long history has opened the country to foreign incursion, for example, the Ottoman Empire, which occupied the region from 1750-1911. Followed by the Italian occupation (1911-1945) and then by the British and French occupation. On the 24th December 1951, Libya gained its independence (Rahma, 1999). A kingdom, under King Idriss (1951-1969) was the first established government in the country. Later, it developed to the Socialist People's Libyan Arab Jamahiriya and continued at that for four decades under the regime of the leader Gadhafi (Bakar et al., 1999).

According to KPMG (2014), the country is one of the most developed in Africa and has a high UNDP Human Development Index. Libya has a population of over six million, with people aged 15 & 64 years representing 68%. The average age in Libya is 25 years for males and 24 years for females. Life expectancy in Libya at birth from 2011 is 58 for men and 74 for women, according to the WHO.Though these numbers are perhaps understated because of the revolution in 2011.Disregarding the impact the war had, this positions the life expectancy of the Libyan nation on the same level of that of Europeans, which has an average of 72 for males and females, and somewhat lower than the United States, that have an averages of 79 for both males and females. Libya among all other countries in the world is considered to have a small population density (Vandewalle, 2011).

The majority of the residents live in urban towns, and a smaller percentage (less than 12 percent) live in rural areas. The population is highly concentrated in four major cities. The four towns are the capital Tripoli, second largest city Benghazi, Bayda, and Misrata. Thirty percent of the total population was projected to be less than fifteen years old before the last census. This is believed to be in a decreasing trend for the past 30 years. Since 1985, there has been a decrease in fertility in Libya. The fertility rate changed from seven children per woman in 1980s to three children by the end of the year 2005 (Vandewalle, 2011).

Like many countries, there is population growth over a given period. Political systems have slightly hampered Libyan population growth trend in the country. Political upheavals have taken many lives and lowered life expectancy among the population. This has lowered the population growth compared to other Africans countries. Although the country is well supplied with oil as a natural resource, political unrest has led the country

to remain among the third world. Poor political systems and wars have lowered confidence of investors, and this has greatly stunted the economy of the land. The exclusive language in Libya is Arabic. English is the frequently spoken international language in particular by the new generation and the Corporate world. Furthermore, there many thriving educated Libyan professionals in universities around Europe. Another language, Italian is still used to some extent by older Libyan generation, but mostly in the form of Libyan/Italian.

In spite of the country's rich natural assets, the Libyan people are comparatively poor when matched to western countries. As companies and businesses from the west have began to resurface in Libya, they bring with them new ventures and investments to Libya. consequently the possible economic development and a improved quality of living for the Libyan people are in reach. The living cost in Libya are comparatively small in comparison to main towns in Europe, with the probable elimination of property prices in certain parts in Tripoli. Property prices in Libya vary greatly depending upon area and vicinity to the city centre. The average rent price for a three bedroom flat in the centre of Tripoli is approximately 2,000 dollars monthly while a similar flat further away from the city centre would cost approximately over 1,000 dollars per month. Property prices within the city of Benghazi are more likely to to be less.

2.3 POLITICAL STATE SINCE THE REVOLUTION

In February 2011, the Libyan people rebelled against the ruler Muammar Qaddafi's after forty years of dictatorship. The uprisings started in the eastern part of the country in the city of Benghazi in the wake of the Arab rebellions in Tunisia and Egypt. After early reluctances, NATO associates, performing under a mandate from the United Nations (UN) Security Council, confronted the government and started an air operation for seven months that finally caused the end of the government. In October 2011, Qaddafi was arrested and killed by rebel forces. Since Libya's position appeared optimistic after the revolution, the international plan for post-conflict maintenance was different from all of NATO's previous military involvements. First in there was no mediation or interventions were positioned after the revolution. In overall and by historical measures the international imprint in Libya was restricted. Although there was a small UN mission was given the duty to manage international post-conflict support. However several countries, including the United States of America, did send their diplomats to assist with the

changeover from war to reconciliation.Otherwise, the Libyan people were left to stand for themselves. The state of affairs since in Libya has been riotous and in a state of conflict. While there have been some positive progresses, including successful elections in July 2012, these were outshined by rising conflict that inhibited the hard work required to form an effective political establishment through which the people of Libya could recognise their goals for self-rule.

The current general situation in Libya is affected by unrest resulting in a slow-moving political development, which is unpredictable due to tribal groupings with conflicting interests and the fact that several groupings still possess arms in the aftermath of the revolution leading to the fall of Qaddafi in October 2011 that ended his regime. When Qaddafi was removed from power most structures and institutions in the Libya collapsed as these were built around his personal directives and by his system of patronage. In contrast to the other countries going through an uprising, Libya did not have a structure of political associations, it did not have a network of economic associations, the only thing it did have in comparison to Egypt and Tunisia was that Libya was rich in oil resources (Anderson, 2011).

In 2011 the Libyan National Transitional Council (NTC) issued a Legal Statement (NTC, 2011) that included the vision for the transition towards democracy. However, Libya is not facing a mere process of democratization but rather one of state formation (Anderson, 2011).The National Transitional Council had several objectives, the main being democratization and sustainable socio-economic development for the Libyan people (NTC, 2011). One of the means to achieve the latter objective is to make a business setting that are reassuring for foreign direct investments (FDI).The previous Prime Minister of the General National Congress succeeding the National Transitional Council openly expressed that foreign companies are vital in the reconstruction and building of the new Libya .

Civil wars most often take place in countries that are lacking in the resources necessary to maintain the core public services. Libya, on the other hand, was wealthy in contrast with a lot of the war-ravaged regions. Comparatively high levels of per capita rates made Libya appear like a good candidate for a non-violent post-conflict changeover. The economic movement was predicted to reappear promptly once the conflict and war was over. This then was anticipated to enable a steady shift to peace and amity and minimise

the economic load on international benefactors. In principle, Libya ought to have been in a good place to base the bill for its restoration. With means and a moderately educated people, it was hoped that Libya itself would facilitate rebel disarmament and reintegration.

Regrettably, Libya's post-war economic retrieval did not go to plan, mainly since the political process was hindered and also, the absence of security. Oil production did improve swiftly to near pre-war levels after the war, but rising uncertainty demonstrated a key impairment to development and growth on other economic jobs. Violence abstracted the government while frightening international workers and shareholders; both were desired for successful economic steadiness. Libya for a substantial amount of time was able to survive reasonably on the countries oil revenues. Despondently, though, a year and a half after Qaddafi's death, political disorder joined with the dimness of the Libyan state allowed militias to take charge of numerous oil production amenities, taking oil production down to dangerously low levels, in so doing demonstrating how defenceless the economy was.

2.4 OIL AND THE LIBYAN ECONOMY

In the era before the discovery of oil, Libya was seen of as one of the poorest countries not only in Africa but worldwide. Libya had a problem with shortage of water, a lack of human resources and harsh climate. In the 1950s, the inhabitants consisted of around one million occupants with a literacy level of fewer than 10% (Clarke, 1963). The typical earnings for every person was around 35 dollars per year. The main yields of the country were agriculture and handicrafts though this was accompanied by the relief which originated from the U.N, UK, USA, and France. The aid received was inadequate and failed to have influence on the elevating of Libya's economy.

Up until the discovery of oil, Libya's was known with it levels of poverty. Due to an absence of production and exports and in spite of the discovery of oil reserves, positive effects were slow to progress. One of the main reasons for this may have been the academic underdevelopment in Libya (Clarke,1963). There were sixteen student's university graduates in 1949, and no resident in Libya had a Ph.D. (Abouzied, 2005). Libya had an underdeveloped industrial sector, a shortage of resources and expertise to manage it.

In the 1950s the government in Libya went by an open door strategy . The first law to create a framework for complete oil legislation was the Petroleum Law of 1955 No.25 (Otman, 2008). The petroleum law was lenient and bountiful so much so to appeal and encourage international oil companies to capitalise in the Libyan oil industry and carry out more exploration. This resulted in a steadfast development activity in the Libyan oil industry (Otman, 2008). The obvious success of the policy encouraged the Libyan Government to devote substantial sums of money. Subsequently in 1961, the country witnessed its first exports of oil and the fall of its dependence on foreign aid (Ahmad et al., 2004). After ten years from the discovery of oil in Libya, it became a major oil exporting nation worldwide.

A wide area of Libya is a desert. Due to its desert conditions drilling was frequently done in various places of the country in search of water. Wells were dug deeply leading to discovery of natural gas (Twati, Jamal & John, 2008). The gas reserve was discovered by an Italian company which was drilling wells. The discovery did not attract much attention because by then the gas was not a primary commodity. Even in the United States natural gas was not utilized. Instead, it was released to the atmosphere as a waste product (Balhasan, Towler & Miskimins, 2013). In 1935, a professor who coordinated the activity of drilling wells driven by academic interest opted to research on oil. Some years later, oil was found in well water. The findings initiated a survey to investigate the availability of Oil reserves (Mohammed, Yassine & Karima, 2009). They dug one well in search of oil, but they did not find any. However, in 1940, they initiated oil exploration but lacked the capability regarding finance and machinery to do their exploration (Ibrahim, Mohamed, Mahazan & Adel, 2013).

In 1959 oil exploration started in Libya. In 1959, the first oil reserves were discovered. The oil fields were at Zelten and Amal. Later, almost 40 states were given tenders to help in the exploration of oil and aid in the discovery of more oil fields as the country could not manage by itself by then. When Libya started producing oil in 1961, it gave 3 million bbl/d. This is about 17% of the total oil generated by all member states of Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). In 1969, the Libyan imposed measures to regulate exploration to prevent exhaustion. In 2010, the production had reduced to 1.46 million bbl/d (Balhasan, Towler & Miskimins, 2013).

Before 1969, the Libyan oil industry had made quite remarkable developments. The first discovery of natural gas happened in 1915, but it did not attract attention because it was not used at that time (Abozed et al., 2009). Most countries did not use natural gas which has gained popularity in use in the modern world. Since 1915 till the start of Second World War, there was interest in the oil industry of Libya (Abozed et al., 2009). Even though there was no adequate capacity of developing this industry. Libya had not attained its independence; still, it was under the Italian leadership (Tawati, 2008). After World War II, the Libyan leaders gained power and weakened the Italian governance. At this period, there was no government or organization which was mandated to give permits to oil companies to develop the industry (Twati, 2008).

Before Libya gained independence, the oil industry was not developed despite the fact that there was the knowledge that there were oil reserves in Libya. Surveys done at this time were purely for academic work not to get knowledge. Before 1951, oil companies had not received permits to explore and identify oil wells for processing. Several regions with oil reserves were unknown (Twati, 2008). No development had taken place in the oil industry. The many oil reserves with a lot of petroleum were not known whether they exist (Abozed et al., 2009). Only a few were known, and it was known that there is oil in Libyan land, but no organization could permit oil exploration companies to exploit it and carry out surveys to identify more. In short, no operations were done until Libya gained independence (Abozed et al., 2009).

After getting independence, Libya was able to conduct most activities, especially in the oil industry. The leaders came up with a strategy of developing the oil industry. They formed regulatory guidelines with the help of international oil companies (Jamal & John, 2006). They decided to give oil companies a period in which they will explore oil in their allotted fields (Abozed et al., 2009). This was done on performance contracts.

In 1952, oil exploration companies were established Libya as it was an alternative as they were facing transport challenges when transporting Oil from Iran via Suez Canal. They signed contracts with Libyan leaders, which gave specifications on terms and conditions. They drilled wells where some successfully found oil and others did not. They installed pumps where some of them could pump up to 500 barrels of oil per day. Survey was intensified leading to the discovery of more oil fields which increased the output of oil

pumped per day (Abozed et al., 2009). More companies invested in the oil industry and increased oil production and led to the discovery of more fields with oil. At this time, the oil industry was developing progressively (Twati, 2008).

The oil produced was used both locally and internationally through exports. The industry developed and helped people, companies, and the government to get revenue. Some oil exploration companies gave a part of their revenue in the development of Libya especially agriculture sector (Twati, 2008 & Kilani, 1998). Later, pipelines were constructed from the production sites to export terminals. During the 1960s, many companies constructed pipelines for transporting oil to export terminals. At the export terminals, oil was exported to foreign countries (Twati, 2008). At this time, the industry developed further as most companies had complete facilities that were required to explore, refine, transport and export oil to foreign countries (Abozed et al., 2009).

The growth of oil industry led to the development of facilities especially the transport sector. Roads were constructed to transport oil to different destinations. Libya has a desert climate and for agricultural products to thrive irrigation should be thoroughly done (Saad, Brian & Jennifer, 2013). Companies operating in Libya helped in the drilling of water wells which provided water for irrigation purposes hence supporting agriculture. The economy also improved as there was a continuous generation of huge incomes from oil exploration. The oil boom of Libya occurred between 1974 -1981. This period Libya produced the highest amount of oil ever. Production was at its peak whereby it produced oil worth 8,257 US billion dollars 1n 1974 and 14,930 billion US dollars in 1981 (Twati, 2008). In fact, if per capita GDP of Libya, which was obtained from exporting oil was to be used as a parameter of identifying developed nations, then Libya was to be classified underdeveloped countries (Abozed et al., 2009). The per capita GDP obtained at this time was more than that of the United Kingdom and two times greater than that of an average developing nation (Abozed, Mohamad, Yassine & Karima, 2009).

The significant production of oil at this time, 1974 – 1981, was due to the discovery of more oil fields where wells were drilled produced up to 50,000 barrels of oil per day. For example, the oil fields which were discovered by Occidental Company produced a lot of the oil (Libya: Oil & Gas Report, 2014). More companies were given permits to explore before 1974. By the beginning of 1974, every oil company was producing much oil which

was refined, transported to export terminal and then exported to foreign countries (Twati, 2008). Another contributing factor to the booming Libyan oil industry is that oil prices also increased. Therefore, the country was making highest revenue (Abozed et al., 2009).

The military regime during the monarchy got a chance to press constantly for greater profits for Libyan oil over the divide and rule strategy. The frail negotiating situation of the independence at that period made many countries rely on the Libyan oil for a considerable share of their revenues, and this enabled for the regime strategy. For instance, Occidental Petroleum received approximately ninety-seven percent of its total production from Libya (Vandewalle, 2011).

The government aggressively pushed for higher charges, more ownership, and more power over manufacturing. In December 1969 a board was founded to deal with the dissatisfaction of oil companies, which were formerly disregarded by the monarchy. The committee discussed with the oil companies the high prices and in that same month, it condensed production payments for the separate companies (Vandewalle, 2011). The sustainability of the growth patterns in Libya increased the profits from oils. The economic unevenness related with oil price instability and the changeability of oil revenues was addressed. A few oil exporting countries needed to resort to the establishment of special funds that was intended to alleviate financial expenses. When the revenues from oils were high, some part of the money was directed to the stabilization fund, which could be used later when there is a shortfall. The effectiveness of the stabilization funds was achieved through a transparency of their objectives, strict rules, management, and operation (Vandewalle, 2011).

Since many European countries were appealed to Libya for its oil and gas investments. The Libyan government valued this interest shown by foreign investors. They issued foreign oil companies with licenses to operate in the country. The foreign investment boosted government revenue and development. The government moved in and presented several advantageous monetary terms with the aim of attracting more investment. Libya's economic expansion was pushed greatly because of the joint ventures of oil and gas sector in Libya (Otman & Karlberg, 2007). Foreign Investment was important to the government because it was incapable to deal with the substantial amount of oil and gas.

Libya stood as the eighth (out of eleven members) biggest manufacturer of crude oil between OPEC's members and the eleventh exporter worldwide (Energy Intelligence research,2013). The members of OPEC jointly supply the bulk of the world's crude oil additional they supply over 75% of the world's crude oil reserves (Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries, 2005). In the course of the 2011 war, the fall in oil and natural gas production resulted to an economic breakdown and GDP in Libya dropped by sixty-two percent for that year. Libya's GDP sprang back in 2012, mirroring the stability of oil production. This was also as a result of discovering of new oil reserves. Discoveries were made in various parts of the country by both national and international oil companies exploring oil (Research & Markets, 2014).

The economic loss that occurred due to the revolution in 2011 was relatively small. As the east side was under the control by the rebels and so damage in the area was limited. Misrata and nearby towns did see substantial bombing in the war. Nonetheless, the harm of important infrastructure and manufacturing was not widespread. The two cities Sirte and Bani Walid were heavily impaired in the last period of the war. To an extent, the small levels of corporal harm are due to the fact that NATO proposers went to excessive lengths to safeguard Libya's hydrocarbon industry . Oil production fell despite NATO avoiding Libyan infrastructure; this was due to the extensive levels of fighting on the ground (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Libya's Oil Production, 2010–2013.
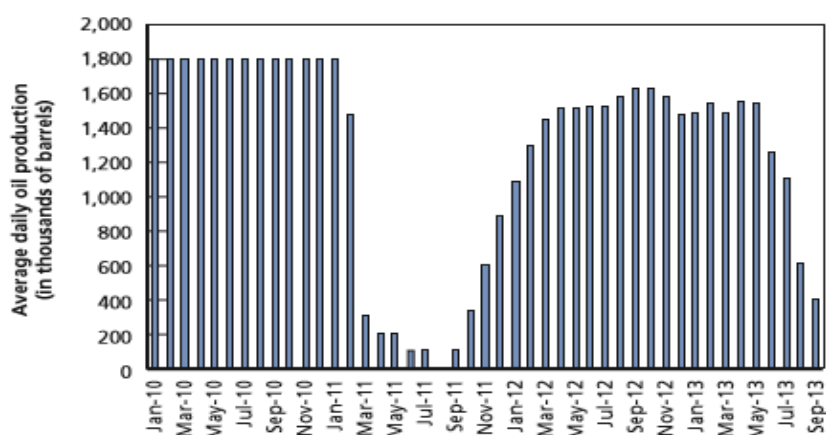
U.S. Energy Information Administration, "International Energy Statistics," data files on global oil production, 2013

Below figure 2.2 shows Libya's oil production in comparison to the 10 largest oil producers. Libya also has substantial natural gas reserves. After the uprising in 2011, oil production fell to 22,000 barrels per day by July 2011 (Chami et al., 2012). Almost all services were shut down. Luckily, directly after the conflict, oil production went back, growing to 1.6 million barrels per day one year after the death of Qaddafi's (U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2012).

Figure 2.2 Libya relative to the Top Ten Global Oil Production, 2012.
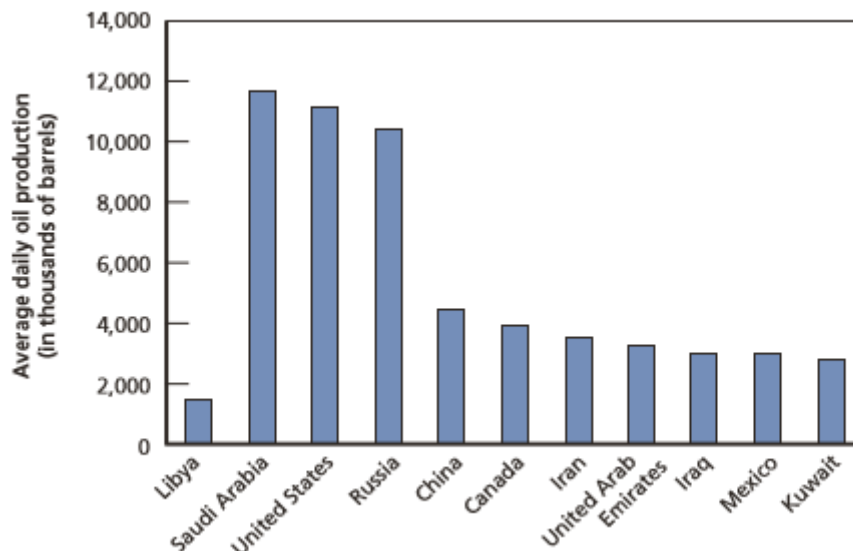
U.S. Energy Information Administration, 2013

At the beginning of 2013, Libyan oil reserves increased from 47.2 bn barrels to 47.1 bn barrels. Likewise, gas reserves rose from 1.48 trn cubic meters to 1.54 trn cubic meters. This led to the production of vast quantities of oil (Khalek, 2013). This was also as a result of discovering of new oil reserves. Discoveries were made in various parts of the country by both national and international oil companies exploring oil (Research & Markets, 2014). Despite being richly endowed with many oil reserves; the exploration is facing a political threat. The aspect of political instability is the major impediment to oil exploration and production industry and other sectors in general which are useful to both Libya and the world as a whole. Furthermore, the gas and oil reserves, a vital source of wealth are the principal source of conflicts (Mohamed, Mahazan, Adel, Mikail & Nasser, 2015).

Not only does Libya have the main oil reserves in the African region it is also the main supplier to Europe in the North African region *(*Frynas and Paulo, 2007). The closeness

of Libya to Europe means that deliveries to Europe are jointly cost effective and are delivered promptly. The Libyan economy does not share any similarities the North African countries around it. However, it can be, compared with the Persian Gulf states that also export oil through much small in comparison to Libya, they do gain a substantial income from their export of oil.

Approximately 85% of the oil reserves remain established in Sirte Basin, which produces 90% of the total oil generated by the country (Research & Markets, 2014). Other parts of the country have not been explored, and there is a possibility that they have potential reserves holding a substantial amount of oil. Most of the Libyan land has not yet been licensed. In the longer duration, Libya has an exceptional opportunity and progress of oil production (Ibrahim, Mohamed, Mahazan & Adel, 2013).According to surveys, Sirte Basin is projected to have 3.6 bn bbl. of oil which has not been discovered. It is also estimated to have 910 bn cubic meters of gas which has not been discovered.The Gadhames basin located in the south Tripoli is a potential reserve waiting for exploration (Libya: A Division of the Spoils, 2011).

Held by the state, the National Oil Corporation (NOC), it the main producer of oil in Libya. Collectively with its subsidiaries, the NOC produces roughly 60% of Libya's oil output. In 2008 the NOC along with the Arabian Gulf Oil Company discovered resources of oil and gas in the Basin of Ghadames. The oil and gas industry in Libya have played a crucial role in the economic development of the country. It has created immense investments which have been the basis of infrastructural development. Effort has commenced to advance the size of Libya's oil and gas industry, and there are strategies being put in place to increase the oil output in Libya (Economy Watch, 2010).

Libya's energy sector produces about ninety percent of export earnings and eighty percent of GDP (CIA, 2014). Both Substantial revenue from the energy sector along with a small population offers Libya a comparably high per capita GDPs in the African region. However, it has not used its financial resources to advance national infrastructure or the economy. As a result, a lot of Libyan citizens are poor.

Qaddafi, labour laws, monetary and corporate rules were all mostly illogical. The expansion of non-oil infrastructure had been abandoned, and the educational system was

filled with undergraduates seeking degrees that had nothing to do with the market demand (Chami et al., 2012). The unemployment rate in 2010 were 13.5 percent, with the percentage of unemployed younger generation projected to be twice this amount (Khan and Mezran, 2013).

In the last few years before Qaddafi's government ended, Libya made some progress economically. This development was part of a broader movement to reintegrate the Libyan country into the worldwide fold. This effort picked up after UN sanctions were elevated in 2003 .Libya declared that year that it would end any plans to construct any weapons of mass destruction. The progression of lifting US sanctions began in 2004, by 2006 in June all sanctions were removed, this supported Libya in drawing more foreign investment to the country. Libyan oil and gas sector brought increased international interest, though they are not likely to be effective till Libya produces a more stable government and can provide more attractive terms on contracts and increased security. One other problem facing the oil industry is a lack of transparency and accountability in business transactions in the oil industry. The government of Libya has been criticized by international transparency organizations on accountability issues. It is significant for governments and other nongovernmental organizations to be transparent in their transactions for the economy to develop. This is a challenge that has been there for an extended period and needs to be addressed urgently for the wellbeing of the oil industry (Saad, Brain & Jennifer, 2013). Furthermore, logistic problems, issues in obtaining visas, flying problems, and limited hotels are some of the challenges which are limiting foreign investors. Libya is facing many challenges which are increasing with time(Balhasan et al.,2013).

The rate of infrastructure deterioration is high because it is not investing in construction and renovation of the existing roads. Poor transport system discourages investors in the oil industry (Abozed et al., 2009). The capacity of Libya's sea ports lacks the ability to handle oil which is produced for exportation. These delays transactions during oil exportation. These are some of the challenges facing oil industry in Libya. To solve them, the government needs to change its approaches in this sector in order to attract more investors (Twati, 2008).

Libya has a lengthy path in the future in order to liberalise its mostly socialist economy. Nonetheless, the revolution has freed what was a formerly a controlled business motion and enhanced the possibility for the development of a more market-based economy. Libya will need economic reorganisations to mend the business environment in order for Libya's future economy to maintain progress over the extended period. While some improvements had commenced before the war, the economic system during the previous government of Gadaffi was organised mostly to withstand his power, rather than for economic effectiveness (Vandewalle, 2012). The post-war government has engaged in footsteps towards reorganisation, including reducing some limitations on currency convertibility and giving prospects for the private sector. Yet, the authorities have increased subsidies for fuel and electricity to eleven percent of GDP and more recently that was increased to a further 14% of GPD (Khan and Mezran, 2013). Government salaries have been increased, this in return has made employment in the private sector less tempting. These actions may have been needed to temporarily reduce the risks of further conflict until uncertainty are overcome, but this may jeopardise Libya's long-term economic condition (Al-jazeera.net, January 7, 2013).

2.5 NATIONAL OIL CORPORATION (NOC)

The NOC is a state-owned incorporated company involved mainly in the oil and gas industry. Its main activities range from refinement, production, transportation and exploration of crude oil and natural gas to oil services, as well as signing contracts and agreements with foreign oil and gas companies.

In November 1970 a new law, Law No.24 recognised the National Oil Corporation. This law replaced the previous Law No.13 that was issued in April 1968 that was responsible for the General Libyan petroleum corporation. To add to the previous authorities of the previous corporation, new members were added to National Oil Corporation (NOC).This allowed the NOC to deal with the immense and speedy expansion in the oil industry in a improved way and to helped to be better up-to-date of the changes in the international oil industry.

The General peoples's Congress (No.10) in 1979 made decisions to restructure the NOC. The aim of this was to empower the NOC to accomplish the aims of the transformation expansion plans in the oil industry. It was intended to help the national economy by

increasing the, running and venture of the oil prosperity throughout. The General People's Committee issued the decision No.158 in 1986 regarding the re-distribution of the specialists of the Secretariat of Petroleum (SOP).

The main point of forming the NOC is to oversee and govern gas and oil manufacturing in the country while promising the Libyan and foreign oil companies to boost the NOC profits and the productivity. The general goal was to support the Libyans national economic expansion. The NOC executes its responsibilities registered in the laws, through its fully owned corporation which vary in action from operational and generating companies to purifying, processing, and national or international companies, to a number of service companies. Furthermore, NOC achieves a part of its undertakings by the partnerships it has with foreign exploration and production oil companies (Eauinat, 2006),

In 2014 the EIA believed the Libyan NOC (LNOC) has highlight how significant advancing oil retrieval methods for rising the productivity of oil in all growing fields of oil. Prior to the political war in 2011, the NOC requested overall accompaniments in the aptitude of approximately 775,000 bbl/d, possibly alone from standing oil arenas. EIA states that prior to the calamities in the oil sector in 2013, the regime in Libya had suggested many declarations which supplement the productivity aptitude of oil to up to 1.7 million bbl/d for the year 2013 and 2 million bbl/d in the upcoming years, according to the Middle East Economic Survey (MEES). In the previous years, the LNOC generally focused on putting as much investment as possible in the approaches of enhanced oil recovery (EOR) for responding to any reduction in the reserves while at the same time increasing productivity aptitude in all the grounds that are available.

There are eight separate departments in the NOC. Supervised by the Management Committee. The Libyan NOC contains 12 Libyan oil companies and 25 foreign oil companies. The completely owned companies (Table 2.1) include Zawiya, Sirte, Josef, Brega, and Ras-Lanuf. The companies in joint venture with NOC include Zueitina, Waha, Ashore, Repsol, and Malta. The overseas oil companies work by EPSA (Exploration and Production Sharing Agreements companies).

Table 2.1: A summary of the fully owned companies:

Company name	Date established
Zawiya Oil Company	1974
Ras lanuf Oil and Gas Company.	1982
Arabian Gulf Oil Company	1971
Sirte Oil Company	1981
Jowef Oil Technology Company	1983
Bregah Refinery	1970
Bregah Oil Marketing	1971
North Africa Geophysical Exploration (Nageco)	1987
National Oil Fields Company (NOFC):	1980
National Oil Wells Company:	1987

Author, 2016

2.6 JOINT VENTURES IN THE OIL INDUSTRY

Lee and Carter (2005) describes a joint venture as an organisation where a firm is requested to share equity and control of a venture with a partner from the host country. The NOC looks to establish joint ventures with foreign oil associates in order to function Libya's oilfields and also to achieve substantial information, knowledge, and skill. The NOC became a fifty percent partner of the current business and settled joint venture contracts on different regions where it distributed equally economic loads and profits similarly. The NOC would contribute in the running through having equivalent member numbers in the management committee (Townsend, 2001).

The joint venture arrangements in Libya typically need the overseas oil company to finance entirely the exploration processes. Nevertheless, the NOC has the ability fund further the increase in price and keeping its portion of operational cost, in relation to its portion of the joint venture, in the situation of finding of marketable amounts. The international company will similarly be eligible to payment of amount of the exploration cost (Townsend, 2001).

Foreign companies are encouraged by the NOC to invest in Libya through joint ventures. This can bring much-needed technology and awareness to Libya. This, in turn, will help

modernise Libya's oil and gas infrastructure. The necessary circumstance for companies who have an interest in creating a joint venture with the NOC is that the majority of the company's board of directors and also director, need to hold the Libyan citizenship (U. S. & Foreign Commercial Service and U. S. Department of State, 2006).

In 1986 Zueitina Oil Company was set up in Tripoli. The oil and gas manufacture and processing of oil fields are its primary roles. Additionally, it is responsible for managing the oil processes in the region approved under business agreements subject to the agreements of distribution between the National Oil Corporation and the "Occidental world" or American nationality, "OMV" or Austrian nationality in the country. Zweitina also takes on research linked to oil and related engineering business.

Formerly known by the name Veba Oil Operation, the Alharouge oil company started in at the same time as when Mobil Oil started exploration in Libya, in 1955. Since there are substantial financial funds in exploration and development, the company Mobil Oil contracted an agreement with Gelsenbrg AG (Veba Oil Libya) a German country to share benefits and responsibilities.

Veba Oil Libya's privileges and duties in these businesses were managed by Petro-Canada, and after two years the Veba Oil was renamed Petro-Canada Oil Libya. In 2008 Veba Oil Operations was renamed Harouge Oil Operations. In that year, the NOC and Petro-Canada set up contracts with six EPSA , agreeing that the company Harouge Oil Operations would remain in the businesses in behalf of the holders. The duty of exploration in the new agreed areas were allocated to be under Petro-Canada's accountability. In 2009, Harouge Oil Processes were evolving and creating oil from over 20 arenas in the 5 agreed areas.

Potential oil manufacture from all grounds is over one 100,000 barrels each day. The oil is driven from the numerous parts through dispensing pipelines to the shore of Ras Lanuf. Harouge is as well in control for shipment of oil from grounds run by other operatives, which means that in the Ras Lanof Station approximately 450,000 barrels of oil per day are dealt with and examining an average of fifteen oil carriers per month for the NOC and its international associates. Harouge Oil Operations employs over two thousand workers working in Tripoli and Benghazi, also in self-adaptable sites at the oil grounds.

Owned by the Libyan National Oil Corporation (NOC), and three other international companies that are ConocoPhillips, Marathon Oil, and Hess. Waha Oil Company was set

up in 1955 in Tripoli. The company is the second biggest oil producing company in Libya, with the contract covering nearly thirteen million gross acres also in 2010 it produced around 340 million barrels a day, producing the largest amount of oil in comparison to the other subsidiaries in the NOC. Waha Company employed over 3,000 employees in 2011. Its forerunner company was harshly affected by the American restriction since it counted on American tools and had no admittance to replacement parts, resulting to a fall in output in 2008. Waha was affected by the revolution in 2011 had scared the company to an extent because of harm sustained at the sea port breaking the metering system and worries that pits might have been placed there in the war.

Akakos also known as Repsol Oil Company was set up in 1996 in the capital of Libya, Tripoli. Akakos is considered as one of the biggest oil companies working in Libya, Akakus has prepared, discovered and finally advanced two main blocks in the Murzuq Basin. Akakos is today a joint venture mutual among Austria's OMV, France's Total. Spain's Repsol and the Libyan National Oil Corporation (NOC).

Melita Oil Company Melitah Oil and Gas were set up by the Libyan management in 2008 in agreement with a deal between the NOC and Eni North Africa in 2007. This Agreement specified an incorporation of the possessions and actions of the two companies Eni Oil and Mellitah Gas. Melita is allotted to cope and run the Oil Operations of the contracts and also partakes in summiting the requirements of the national natural gas consumption which nourishes power producing stations.

Libya has been working hard to increase its oil production. As a result, the country has invited several foreign oil companies to carry out the exploration for oil, bringing in their modern technology to boost production from the fields.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

To put the research into perspective in relation of country and industry, this chapter has offered an overall background and some awareness into the location of Libya. It then provided a general overview of the political state of Libya since the revolution in 2012. Next, it reviewed the Libyan economy and finally, the chapter concentrated on Libyan National Oil Corporation and its joint ventures.

The largest sector in Libya is the petroleum sector. The Libyan National Oil Corporation, which is the case study for this research, was founded in 1970, it operates Libya's oil

industry, along with its subsidiaries. Together they account for about half of the Libya's oil production. Under the petroleum investment agreements, the NOC is responsible for the exploration and production of the oil revenues. It promotes the oil and gas locally and internationally (Sasi, 2008).

Haderer (2013) indicates that Libya is a very dynamic associate of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) that it merged in 1962. Libya is the possessor of Africa's largest oil investments at the same time being an essential associate to fund to the general source of the worldwide oil. It positions fourth in offering natural gas reserves. The Energy Information Administration (2014) (EIA) states that Libya's economy mostly depends on hydrocarbons. Together oil and natural gas result for 96% of the whole income of the government as well as around 98% of the income of trade in the year 2012. The OPEC revenue fact sheet indicates that Libya has an overall net of oil export revenues report for forty billion dollars per month between January and June 2013.

Without oil, Libya might have remained a different country. The discovery of oil aided in influential policies and development in Libya. The Oil and gas industry is thought to be the chief source of revenue in Libya (Twati, 2008). Therefore, this productiveness has improved the economic development and growth. Also, it has resulted to the distribution of education and health services to the public (Abozed et al., 2009). The National Oil Corporation (NOC) shows a noteworthy part in Libya's economic growth. It has established organisations giving high-quality training to employees employed in the oil industry. The Oil and gas industry played a crucially important share in the decrease of unemployment in Libya. It has been vital in the local economy by improving unemployment reduction by thirty-five percent between the year 2000 and 2011 (Twati et al., 2009). The improved production of oil in Libya provided chances of jobs to inexperienced and skilled persons. This reason also caused in growth and development of the economy in Libya.

The Libyan oil industry appealed to several foreign financier countries. It is recognised the awareness of these countries and provided them working permits under specified situations. To appeal more investors who are valuable to Libya, it provided terms and conditions which are beneficial financially (Twati, 2008).

The oil trade improved relationships between exporting and importing countries. The importing countries from Europe such as France, Italy, and Spain had a blossoming with Libya. The United States too had a good relationship, and it helped Libya to improve oil production through aid and offering expertise services in the installation of mining equipment and servicing of the machinery used in oil drilling (National Oil Corporation, 2009). Libya oil projects benefitted from foreign funding, as well as foreign government encouraging their home companies to invest in oil drilling in Libya. Even though the United States imposed a ban on Libya in 1982, Libya still benefitted from its close ties with Italy, France, and Spain (Reuters, 2012). Libya improved its relationship with other Arab nations through the bilateral and multilateral aid. The non-oil exporting countries benefited through financial institutions set up by oil producing countries governments or through collective efforts.

Before the start of the conflicts, Libya had been producing oil at high rates. The production capacity had improved from 1.4 million in 2000 to 1.8 million barrels per day in 2010. Though, it rests under highest levels of 3 million barrels per day attained in the 1960s. According to Energy Information Administration, 2012, the oil sector in Libya was adversely affected by the political unrest; it experienced manufacture close up after the political war began in 2011, and it began to recover in September 2011. As of 2012, oil industry had reinstated to an expected 1.4 million barrels per day. The new government formed in July 2012, aimed to increase production of oil and gas. Meeting the projected new goals of oil production will rely on the investment strategies that will be used in production. The government set aside capital to be used in boosting oil production. The funds will be used in expansion and discovery of the new oil fields. In addition to that, international oil companies such as Eni, Repsol, and Royal Dutch Shell promised to help Libya restore its oil industry by giving funds, intensifying their survey and exploratory activities and coordinating in the exportation of the produced oil (Abozed et al., 2009).

According to Oil and Gas Journal, 2013, Libya has 48 billion barrels of crude oil reserves. It has the highest quantity of crude oil reserves in Africa, 38% of Africa 'soil reserves and this is likely to rise as more oil wells have not been exploited. Apart from producing oil, Libya is also producing natural gas since 2012. Italy is the consumer of most of Libya's natural gas. It is fourth in natural gas reserve in Africa.

The following chapter, Chapter three will review the theoretical literature for this research, it will examine the theoretical foundations of the research. Moreover, reviews former significant research findings.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the oil industry expatriation is a common practice because of increased globalisation, For corporation to take a lead in a competitive market, it is vital for large corporation like the National Oil Corporation in Libya to make sure that both good and operational global recruitment is in place. At large, expatriation is accepted as a chance to develop and grow for both the expatriates and the corporation, and in several circumstances offers a positive business experience. Nonetheless, when relocating to an international country, expatriates, and their families encounter a range of challenges as a result of living and working in a new, unfamiliar environment.

Individuals from a range of different societal and cultural backgrounds are having to work and converse with one another, and consequently, the need of CCT has at no time been high as it is currently. If not tackled suitably many facets such as the cultural differences that exist, in this context between the western and non-western cultures, an insufficient understanding about the Libyan business and social principles can negatively influence and delay expatriate adjustment. However, it is advocated that without suitable and sufficient CCT, expatriates will face challenges as what manners and conducts are tolerable and which are not in Libya. Failure of an expatriate is not only disadvantageous to the expatriate, but it is very expensive to the corporation, and it is also, detrimental to the corporation's repute.

The purpose of this research is to respond to the research questions: why do expatriates need cross cultural training? What are the expatriate perceptions of organisational preparation, training, and support? What causes the expatriate assignment to succeed or fail? And what are the impacts of cultural differences and cultural adjustment on the expatriate assignment? Throughout the literature review development, a wide range of expatriate research was discovered, including many theoretical and empirical studies that look at various aspects of culture, expatriation, and adjustment.

Initially, this chapter explores what culture is, the theories of culture. Subsequently, the European, Arab and then specifically the Libyan culture are discussed. Next, CCT, its importance, key theories of CCT, methods of CCT are discussed. Then the chapter reviews expatriation, expatriation selection, reasons for expatriation, expatriate training and finally it presents the expatriate learning process, this section presents Kolb's experiential learning theory.

3.2 CULTURE

Culture is described as mutual values, attitudes, beliefs, and norms established in time an environment (House & Javidan, 2001). The fascination with cultural others has a long pedigree driven by explorers engaged in 'empire building' and 'voyages of geographical discovery' (Erickson & Murphy, 2008). Encounters with people and societies who were 'different' generated thought around what defined humanity and explained culture, becoming the discipline of Anthropology (Sperber, 1985; Moore, 2004).

An often cited definition of culture that illustrates its encompassing nature is offered by the eminent English anthropologist Tylor (1889, p. 1) who said "culture taken in its wide ethnographic sense, is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society". Three main categories of the origins of culture have emerged from anthropology: (a) culture as evolutionary; (b) culture as the product of socialisation and (c) culture as cognitive. Initially, culture was seen as an evolutionary process of natural selection and adaptation; the human ability to survive and find a 'niche' in the world through solving ecological challenges (Keesing, 1974; Ingold, 1992). One perspective was to see culture as a linear progression by a society through stages that signalled humankind's passage through time and space (Keesing, 1974; Lesser, 1985; D'Andrade, 1995).

Alternatively, it was seen as 'diffusion' where culture arose from contact between societies where 'foreign' culture is gradually assimilated, spreading from one society to another (Sahlins, 1968; Sapir, 2006; Rosman et al., 2009). These views of culture as evolutionary are preserved in the works of Engels (1943), Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1973 amongst others. It is a view which still attracts a large degree of interest in academic circles with new areas of application emerging, particularly in light of effects of new

technology, mass media, and migration. Culture has also been conceptualised as the effects of socialisation.

The socialisation perspective is more interested in the role of social phenomena in the development of culture in both primitive and contemporary societies. Social phenomena can be said to include observable behaviours, institutions, relationships, characteristics, or other elements of a society that integrate to form culture and underpin its transmission from one generation to the next (D'Andrade, 1995). Culture has been described as the established realities of a Sometimes referred to as 'Social-Darwinism' (Berry et al., 2002).

The 'cognitive revolution' took a cerebral view of culture questioning whether it could be shared, transmitted and reproduced were it not for the internal machinations of individuals as "cultural groups are formed not just by physical proximity of individuals but by relative participation of individuals in each other's conceptual world" (Sharifian, 2003, p. 188). Rather than simply acknowledging that social and mental processes produce cultural symbols, meaning and knowledge, the mental processes themselves are the object of inquiry (D'Andrade, 2001; Henrich & Boyd, 2002). Essentially this view of culture proposes that 'cognitive representations' are the shared aspects of culture whereby learners within a culture attach similar meanings to terms and artefacts within their society.

Anthropology has produced a range of views on culture. Many have emerged from ethnographic and qualitative studies that have seen researchers immersed in the life of other societies or communities providing a rich knowledge base from which studies of culture in the business context have drawn. However, unlike anthropology, studies of culture and business have used different strategies and narrower frames of reference in studying its manifestations.

3.2.1 THEORIES OF CULTURE

The work carried out by Hofstede, GLOBE and Trompenaars is of great importance, as the rise of globalisation, effects corporation on a various level. Knowledge of culture and the ability to associate with others of different backgrounds is of great significance to organisations and corporation. There are resemblances and dissimilarities between the theories presented by Hofstede, GLOBE, and Trompenaars.

Hofstede, Trompenaars, and GLOBE studied a large number of employees worldwide to recognise key values from which they established dimensions of culture of businesses and people. Their notions on culture share many dimensions also they concentrate on the significance of values and beliefs as a powerful element behind cultural norms of individuals. The difference among their theories include the variables used in the dimension and the way they were measured, making direct comparisons of the results problematic. The insinuation of their studies proposes the significance for corporation to acknowledge the effect culture has on employee's interactions in additions to working in multicultural environment.

3.2.1.1 HOFSTEDE AND CULTURE'S CONSEQUENCES

From it, publication in 1980, Culture's Consequences has become one of the most cited pieces of cultural research across many disciplines (Kirkman et al., 2006). Hofstede's (1980; 2001) research was based on responses to two employee attitude surveys conducted across IBM's substantial global workforce during the period 1967 to 1973. His hypothesis was that as all respondents were employees of IBM, any variation in responses would highlight cultural value differences at the national level due to socialisation before joining the organisation (Hofstede, 2001). According to Hofstede (1991), culture is the "collective mental programming" we share with some individuals but not others. Furthermore, "by the time a child is ten, most of his or her basic values are probably programmed into his or her mind" (Hofstede et al., 1990, p. 312).

Hofstede blends anthropological views of culture as evolutionary (i.e. historically based) with culture as the product of socialisation (i.e. learned values and behaviour). He compares culture to the layers of an onion with values at the core and cultural practices observable by others (i.e. rituals, heroes, and symbols) forming outer layers (Hofstede, 2001). Hofstede's initial research focused on work related values and revealed four dimensions of culture: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism/Collectivism and Masculinity/ Femininity to which long term/Short term Orientation was later added. Statistical analysis of individual and group level data was then aggregated to country scores for each dimension. These dimensions are described in the following section.

Power distance: measured 'the search for truth' (Hofstede & Bond, 1988) as the extent to which individuals expected and accepted unequal distribution of power (Cheung & Chan,

2008), and specifically related to the superior-subordinate relationship as the degree to which individuals accepted centralised power and relied on those above to provide structure and direction (Rodrigues, 1998). The questions used for Power Distance targeted employee's perceptions of their current superior's leadership style, their freedom to express disagreement with them and their preferred style of leadership (Hofstede, 2001). The findings showed that in countries with high Power Distance, corporation supported hierarchy and applied more power over workers who consequently anticipated direction in their responsibilities. Different, to countries with low Power Distance, these are more democratic, had an advice-giving method in appreciating honesty and worker experience. Hofstede's second dimension was Uncertainty Avoidance.

Uncertainty Avoidance is the degree to which individuals' sense endangered by uncertainty and attempt to escape it (Adler, 1981). Hofstede (2001) suggests that each society has built mechanisms for coping with the unknown that provide a measure of confidence about life. In organisational contexts, these mechanisms are the technology, rules, and rituals that promote social cohesion and are observable in day-to-day functions such as meetings, reporting procedures and career training (Hofstede, 2001). To measure this dimension Hofstede used responses to questions on rule orientation (whether rules should be broken), employment stability (intention to stay with the organisation short/long term), and stress levels. High scores on Uncertainty Avoidance indicated greater levels of stress and therefore a desire for rules and regulations (Hofstede, 1984, 2001). Low Uncertainty Avoidance cultures tend to apply themselves to situations as they arise, taking pride in their ability to confront a situation without formalised rules or processes (Hofstede, 1991). The third dimension, Individualism/Collectivism, regarded an extensively researched dimensions of culture predating even Hofstede's work (Earley & Gibson, 1998).

Individualism/Collectivism is conceptually the easiest dimension to grasp as it relates to whether individuals see themselves as either independent or interdependent of a social or work group (Thomas et al., 2003). Individualistic cultures are perceived as achievement orientated with goals that realise personal (e.g. higher pay, social status) and professional advancement (e.g. greater power, recognition). Conversely, collectivistic cultures are more concerned with the needs, well-being, and harmony of the group favouring loyalty-based relationships.Work goal questions were used to measure Individualism/Collectivism focusing on the relative importance of 'intrinsic' factors, or

what an organisation does for the employee promoting dependence, over 'extrinsic' ones as the employee's independence from the organisation in promoting self-interest (Hofstede, 1991, 2001). Data analysis indicated wealthy, urban and industrialised nations were more individualist and poorer, rural, often agrarian nations more collectivist. According to Hofstede (1991; 2001), organisations that engender individualist values base their human resourcing decisions on the skills and abilities of the individual. The last of the four original dimensions is Masculinity/Femininity.

Masculinity/femininity: In examining the work goal questions, Hofstede regarded that there were noteworthy dissimilarities amongst the choices preferred by males and females that gave rise to the Masculinity/Femininity dimension. As 'gender role patterns' (Hofstede, 2001) they uncovered "the extent to which cultures emphasize so-called 'masculine' qualities of assertiveness, ambition and competition over more 'feminine' ones of modesty, caring and solidarity" (Geletkanycz, 1997, p. 620). Women preferred 'social goals' for instance assisting others, making relations, unlike men who point out that 'ego goals' linked with profession, return and recognition were more essential (Hofstede, 2001). 'Social goals' were valued more by females, this lead to Hofstede (1991) to state that men were 'programmed' with harder standards. The preceding four dimensions were derived from the original IBM research by Hofstede (1980). However, this was extended to include another dimension, Long-term/Short Term Orientation, in the second edition of Culture's Consequences (Hofstede, 2001) to redress the 'Western bias associated with the original survey.

Long Term/Short Term Orientation is the degree to which actions are driven by more dynamic, future-directed needs as opposed to more static, present needs (Hofstede, 1991; Chong & Park, 2003). From an organisational perspective, this dimension identifies contrasts such as gaining long-term market position versus short-term profit, synthetic thinking (combining ideas) as opposed to analytic thinking and deferred gratification over immediate fulfilment (Hofstede, 2001).

If we explore Libya's culture through Hofstede's dimension, it is possible to obtain an overview of the deep understanding of Libya's culture comparative to cultures worldwide (figure 3.1).

Table 3.1 Libya's culture through Hofstede's dimension	
Dimension	Score
Power distance	Libya shows has a score of 80 for the dimension Power Distance. This indicates that Libya is a society that is one of hierarchy. Meaning that individuals in such cultures will consent to this hierarchy that will not need to be justified.
Individualism	Libya has a score of 38 for individualism. This indicates indicating that it is a collectivistic society. They are a close society that are committed to their family, tribe or group. Social rules are put aside for the sake of the 'group' in this type of culture as faithfulness and devotion to the group is of utmost importance. The culture adopts strong relationships, and all take responsibility for other individuals in the 'group'.
Masculinity	Libya has a score of 52 for masculinity. This shows no clear cultural inclination. A high masculinity score would show a society that is motivated by rivalry and success, beginning from school and throughout life. Contrary to this a low score indicates prevailing values in culture are to be compassionate to others and the standard of life. In a feminine culture standard of life indicates success.
Uncertainty Avoidance	Libya has a score of 68 in this dimension. This associates with Libya's great inclination for escaping uncertainty. Nations displaying high Uncertainty Avoidance uphold firm codes in faith and conduct and are not tolerant to unconventional conduct and thoughts. In such societies, there is an emotional want for having rules irrespective for if they work or not. Also, individuals have an internal impulse to be busy hard working, exactness and promptness are custom, change might be repelled, and safety is an essential component in individual encouragement.

Long term orientation	Libya has a score of 23 in Long Term Orientation. This means that Libya is a nation that is normative. Individuals in cultures like this are strongly concerned about creating or bringing the complete truth; these cultures are normative in their rational. They display much admiration for traditions, a comparatively lesser tendency to save for the upcoming, and an emphasis on attaining fast results.

Hofstede, Hofstede, Minkov, 2010

The initial release of Culture's Consequences (Hofstede, 1980) heralded a renaissance in the study of culture. Hofstede's framework has had a profound and lasting effect, and been a 'guiding light' and foundation for better Cross cultural theory building, however; there is a tendency to gloss over the shortcomings noted by several authors active in cultural research.

After its initial release, Hofstede's (1980) work attracted criticism on a number of levels. The survey data used was originally collected for the purposes of gauging employee morale within IBM which was observed a major issue in confining the scope of true cultural inquiry. A significant concern was the use of one multinational's subsidiaries which implied an artificially homogeneous culture that may not truly be representative of a nation's culture particularly since employees had been selected by the organisation's own expatriate's department.

The sole use of questionnaires was also raised as a limitation in that the meanings attributed by respondents in choosing answers could not be followed up through qualitative methods that validated understanding of questions (Hunt, 1981; Triandis, 1982), although Triandis (1982) does acknowledge that as a post hoc analysis of existing data this was a virtual impossibility. It was also suggested that there was a lack of clarity in regard to relationships between what the dimension's purport to measure and the questionnaire items used to create them (Hunt, 1981) The number of dimensions was also seen as too few to represent the complexity of culture (Triandis, 1982).

Despite these criticisms, the number of studies replicating and supporting Hofstede's cultural dimensions continued to grow (Kirkman et al., 2006). This has led some to suggest that it has been adopted widely and uncritically (Baskerville, 2003; Baskerville-

Morley, 2005) in a 'stampede' to use what is perceived as 'the' accepted framework which in many cases led to inappropriate use and inaccurate results (Kirkman et al., 2006; Taras et al., 2009). Hofstede (2001, p. 15) also appeared troubled by this stampede when he stated: "The disadvantage of replication and extension studies is that they are caught in the straitjacket of my model, and therefore unlikely to make new contributions." The study's high adoption rate may in part be due to its scope and complexity which was beyond anything previously undertaken.

This, coupled with a sample size and country spread that was more comprehensive than anything done before or since (Taras et al., 2010) appears to have captured the imagination of those seeking the ultimate measure of cultural distance. The second edition of Culture's Consequences (Hofstede, 2001) attempted to address many of the issues that had been raised, as well as incorporate additional material to broaden relevance, reinforce validity and maintain dominance in cultural studies. Countries excluded in the original data were added as well as sections on organisational culture, cultural interaction, application of dimensions and, as indicated earlier, the inclusion of an additional dimension (Short-term/Long-term Orientation) to redress Western bias.

Despite reservations about replication and extension of his model, Hofstede included many studies that had confirmed his results as evidence of the veracity of the model and its findings. This generated a new wave of criticisms – some old, some new. Data from a single research method renewed calls for the need for multi-method approaches to validate and give depth to the dimensions (Peterson, 2007; Taras et al., 2010) which was also seen as a way of addressing the lingering doubts surrounding the consequences of using one multinational's subsidiaries. Hofstede's use of data manipulation, aggregation and statistical factor analysis to support his value dimensions was also noted by some as a reason for caution (McSweeney, 2002; Baskerville, 2003;) with Ailon (2008) going so far as to state: ''correlations were celebrated even if quite a bit of statistical manipulation was needed to bring them into existence.''

Criticism has also continued on Hofstede's use of historic, economic, educational and demographic generalisations as the rationale for all forms of cultural differences (Eckhardt, 2002; McSweeney, 2002; Peterson, 2003). A more fundamental problem and one that is increasingly noted is Hofstede's narrow conceptualisation of culture.

It is argued that Hofstede's (1980; 2001) work has attracted many valid criticisms. His cultural framework was based largely on functionalist anthropological thought of human groups satisfying similar physical, social and psychological needs, therefore, developing collective traits that became integrated into a whole labelled society (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1973).

Hofstede's view of culture is often criticised as being a static, simplistic view out of touch with the culturally heterogeneous contexts of a globalised world and now often coupled with calls for culture as the equivalent of nation state to be abandoned. It is argued here that Hofstede's stance on culture as historically grounded values that remain stable over time is itself a cultural product conceived in a different time and place. It could not, and does not, account for the substantial changes that have taken place in the cultural demographics of nations (and workplaces), geographic changes, social transformations, the effects of globalisation and the spread of technology in the 40 years since the data was collected and therefore, as others have noted, the data is a relic of a time passed.

Certain aspects of the complexity of culture in isolation from their context and are unfairly generalised as an East/West dichotomy. Even the inclusion of Long-term/ Short-term Orientation in the second edition has failed to redress perceptions of a Western bias. As Jacob (2005) argued, it is unclear how value components of this dimension typify Confucian values to the degree that a clear philosophical distinction can be made between Western and Eastern cultures. Many are now arguing that a more dynamic conceptualisation of culture is needed that moves beyond the search for cultural universals, breaks from the conception of culture as immutable 'software of the mind' and expands the theoretical knowledge.

Valid information on national culture differences between literate and easily accessible societies can more readily be collected from indirect sources - like national statistics, and the results of comparative surveys What he fails to acknowledge is that aggregated data to produce a 'quantitative map of culture' does not demonstrate its complexity. Furthermore, as Taras et al. (2009) argue the qualitative method has been effectively used for years and is still the main method of enquiry in anthropology, the original field of Cross cultural studies. With the increasing popularity of the quantitative approach to studying any social phenomenon, including culture, are we limiting the richness of the data we work with? Quantitative approaches are useful for making comparisons across

cultures but often fail to capture the unique variance that is specific to a few or only one culture alone. Hofstede's (2001) definition of culture as 'collective programming of the mind' raises concerns especially when he adds in order to be prepared for life; human being require a time of concentrated programming by their societal environment. His assumption is that culture is relatively stable because individuals are programmed to think and act in certain ways based on the dominant values in their society. It is argued here that this also highlights an underlying belief that cognitive processes are limited to thinking in cultural ways and assumes that as a fixed mindset learned early in life, cultural programs remain largely unchanged and need to be 'unlearned' (Hofstede, 2001) before new experiences and learning can replace them. There is no doubt that Hofstede's research has provided significant impetus for cultural studies in organisational contexts and will continue to play a role in Cross cultural research. However, it has had unfortunate consequences in portraying culture as only differences that are a source of conflict. In doing so, more optimistic views of cultural interaction based on similarities have been overlooked.

Furthermore, when it is assumed that cultures are largely homogenous based on shared mental programs, any observations of a lack of homogeneity are also couched in pessimistic terms by Hofstede (1991): ''in modern society they are partly conflicting. Conflicting mental programs within people make it difficult to anticipate their behaviour in a new situation. 'This view implies cultural heterogeneity is conflict exacerbated by an inability to control for its consequences that in larger scale interactions between countries only result in an even more difficult situation. Hofstede's work was intended as a stepping-stone from which better and more targeted research and theory building could flourish. However, it has yet to reach that potential.

In part, this shortfall is due to Hofstede's overly protectionist defences of his 'scientific' findings (Ailon, 2008) and a rather dismissive approach to those who criticise any aspect of his study (Hofstede, 2003). More importantly, failure to re-examine his findings through the lens of more contemporary theories of cultural 'programming' illustrates sensitivity to disconfirmation of his findings. Combined, these issues do not strengthen his contribution to Cross cultural studies, only highlight further weaknesses in its assumptions.

Although Hofstede's cultural dimensions have provided the impetus for the study of culture, they offer only a simplified view that is not particularly helpful to organisations in an increasingly globalised world. However, Hofstede is not the only researcher to adopt the 'culture equals nation' perspective. Another stalwart (Jacob, 2005) of large-scale cultural studies is Trompenaars, who conducted similar research in an effort to develop a more comprehensive account of culture.

3.2.1.2 TROMPENAARS AND THE WAVES OF CULTURE

This study is the only one of the three studies where culture is viewed as contextually bound and cognitively derived. Like Hofstede, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner conceive of culture as the layers of an onion as shown in Figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1 Waves of Culture Model
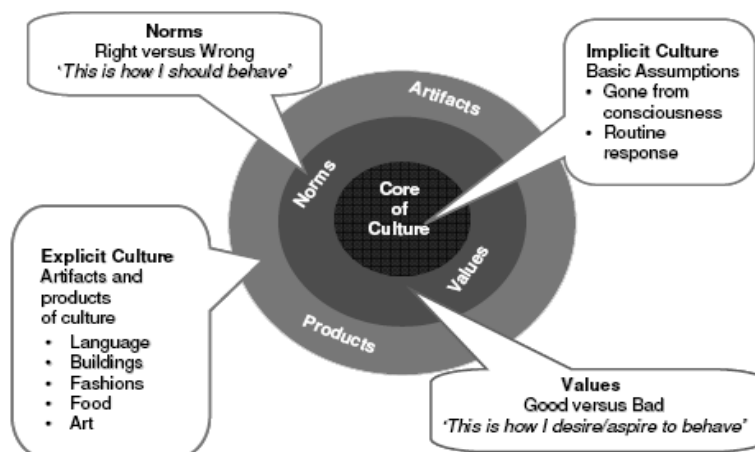
Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998

The outer circle is 'explicit culture', the symbolic manifestation that can be observed by 'outsiders' beneath which lie norms and values as choices from existing alternatives. At the 'core of culture' are the implicit assumptions that underpin the satisfaction of needs and maintain the human condition. The two inner circles represent the formation of culture where experience and interaction with the environment builds an 'organisation of meaning' applied to everyday situations (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Simply stated, societies face similar challenges but deal with them differently due to diverse frames of reference built from unique interpretations of learning and experience.

Riding the Waves of Culture (Trompenaars, 1993; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998) reports the results of continuing data collection and analysis that started with Trompenaars (1985) Doctoral Dissertation and by the second edition of the book had grown to a dataset of some 30,000 surveyed individuals employed by 30 companies in 50 countries (Trompenaars & HampdenTurner, 1998). The data analysis identified seven dimensions, grouped here as 'relationships with others' and 'time and nature.' Unlike Hofstede's framework, the dimensions do not represent 'static points' on a scale but fluid states where cultures dance from a favoured end to the reverse and back again (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner,1998).

The first dimension, Universalism/Particularism, is the degree to which rules are applied in a relationship. The complexity is in the strength of the relationship which in turn affects an individual's judgement in a given situation. At the Universalist pole, rules, codes, laws and generalisations apply regardless of a situation, while at the particularistic end, exceptions and special circumstances lead to a case-by-case judgement and subsequent application of the rules (Trompenaars &Woolliams,2003; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

As a characteristic of cultures, individuals in a nation may be predisposed toward one pole of the axis or the other, however the two limits can each time be found in the same individual (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Using scenarios from which respondents chose from one of two options, data analysis showed Eastern nations gravitating toward particularism where the focus is on relationships with others and flexibility in approach that translates into treating each situation and individual according to circumstance. Western countries were more Universalist indicating a predilection toward equality and consistency where rules are applied 'across the board' and, at least in the workplace, relationships are a secondary consideration, if at all (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998).

Individualism/Communitarianism is similar to Hofstede's Individualism/Collectivism in that it attempts to surface a nation's preference for either advancement of the individual or the community by measuring how individuals relate to one another in the conflict between self-interest and the welfare of the group (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004). This dimension indicated that many Western

nations were more inclined toward individualism and Eastern one's communitarianism, but there was by no means a clear-cut divide with a few nations going against the trend of societies perceived as culturally similar to them (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). By and large, the findings for Individualism/ Communitarianism supported Hofstede's Individualism/Collectivism as a common value spectrum within cultures (Hofstede, 2001).

The Neutral/Affective dimension refers to the nature of the approach in dealing with others. From the neutral perspective, there is greater control and restraint of emotions, almost dispassionate or detached, demonstrating a reasoned approach that seeks an equally neutral response (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998, 2004). At the other end of the axis is the effective dimension where emotion is plainly evident through facial expressions, gestures and emotive language that in turn evoke a direct, emotional response (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998, 2004). A single scenario, 'You are upset by something that happens at work. Would you reveal your feelings openly?' was used to gauge countries on this dimension (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004). There was no distinct East/West divide with the majority of countries falling in the mid-range of the scale (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998).

The Specific/Diffuse dimension is the degree to which a relationship is specific to areas of life, or extends beyond them (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). For example, a person may defer to the authority of a more senior colleague in the workplace, but not outside of it. Based on the work of Lewin (1936), a specific orientation regards the individual as seeing a sharp separation between what is private, as a small inner sanctum where only those closest are permitted, and a large public outer space segregated along lines of relationship through activity. In the workplace, this constitutes shared public contexts governing interactions, where the relationship and strength of commitment is bounded by the specific context (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Those gravitating toward the diffuse end overlap both public and private worlds, therefore, relationships and commitment span both. At the extreme, this can translate into superiors in an organisation having just as much authority over and responsibility for subordinates outside of the work environment as they do in it. The Specific/Diffuse relationship was also measured using scenarios. One in particular clearly illustrated how tests devised by 'western minds' can harbour preconceived ideas about eastern cultures and highlights a

lack of contextual understanding. The scenario described a 'boss' wanting a subordinate to help paint his house with respondents asked to choose between helping (specific) or not helping (diffuse).

An East-West split was evident with Eastern countries more likely to help and Western less likely to do so. The authors relate how they were surprised by the score for Japan (medium-high Diffuse) which was so different from their Asian neighbours. Follow-up interviews with a few Japanese uncovered the fact that Japanese did not, in fact, paint their houses (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Nevertheless, the dimension did generally confirm less differentiation between 'home' and 'organisation' in Eastern societies. Achieved, as status gained through what you do, and Ascribed, as status based on what you are, form the last relationship dimension (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003). Status that is ascribed can be based on education, social or family connections, profession, age or other criteria that relate to 'being,' while achieved indicates status earned through 'doing' (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Respondents were asked whether they strongly agreed or disagreed as to whether respect came from family background specifically or was the result of individual merit. Significantly, of the 47 countries, none agreed that respect depended on family background although some were evenly divided. Furthermore, only nine scored just below the mid-point for individual merit and were considered only 'very broadly' accretive (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). The conclusion was that this dimension clearly illustrated the 'dance' of individuals along dimensions as:

Attitude to time is the relative significance cultures provide to the meaning of the past, present and future and the relationship between them (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003). The premise is that time is an 'idea' that cultures conceive of differently (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). More primitive cultures measure time through such events as change of season and lunar/solar movements while more advanced cultures use calendars and timepieces to measure the passing of time (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, based on research by Cottle (1969), measured 'time horizons' as the boundaries separating the past, present and future by asking respondents to use time segments (e.g. seconds, days, years) to complete statements that defined when their past, present, and future began and ended. These statements sought to uncover whether cultures favoured short-term or long-term planning for the future (Trompenaars

& Hampden-Turner, 1998). There was no clear distinction along the East/West lines as with Hofstede's (2001) Long term/Short term Orientation, but then his focus was on how Confucian values influenced a culture's time orientation. Attitude to time was concerned with only the perception of time. However, one interesting observation was made.

In Hofstede's (2001) findings Pakistan was deemed to have the lowest long-term orientation, but Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) ranked it as having one of the highest time horizons (Ashkanasy et al., 2004; Jacob, 2005). This paradox illustrates how cultures apply different meanings to concepts such as time depending on their context which highlights how culture is more multifaceted than unilineal dimensions can describe (Jacob, 2005). According to Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998; 2003), cultural differences are also apparent in attitude to the environment as something that must be dominated (Inner-directed) or submitted to (Outer-directed) by humans. Two views were elicited, the first a personal view (fate) and the second a societal view (nature) as the distinction between whether individual's destinies rest in their personal hands or the broader social system (Trompenaars&HampdenTurner,2004).

For controlling nature, the vast majority of the 48 countries (94%) believed it was best to 'go along' with nature (Outer-directed) indicating acceptance of the fact that nature cannot be controlled but that to varying degrees it is possible to live in harmony with it (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). The personal view indicated there was strong support for being master of your own destiny (Inner-directed) with 90% of countries scoring over the midpoint of this scale. A degree of East/West dichotomy was present with many Asian, and Middle Eastern nations found toward the outer-directed pole of 'Nature' and the inner-directed end of 'Fate,' although not exclusively so. A most interesting aspect of this dimension is the comparison between the 'societal' view of nature and the 'personal' view as fate in some countries. Individuals in nations encompassing less than hospitable regions and a highly structured society, often enforced by strong leadership, tended to feel more at the mercy of the elements and their societies than nations with more moderate climes, societal structure, and leadership. Through contrasting how individuals perceived control of these aspects in their lives, this dimension exposes internal factors that have moulded societies and formed the cultural perspective of their citizenship. This is one of the facets of Hofstede's work that is lost in the dimensions themselves but is found in his supporting arguments.

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) believe that culture is the way in which a set of individuals resolves difficulties and settles problems derived from Schein's (2004) definition of organisational culture. This view has its basis in Trompenaars' (1985) dissertation that dealt with the interrelationships of culture and the way people assign meaning to the structure of organization culture refers to the way people given meaning to the things around them. What is surprising, especially for its time, is that Trompenaars' (1985) dissertation explored the concept of culture through the functioning of the left and right hemispheres of the brain in interpreting the external world that can result in a seemingly endless variety of meanings attributed to the same situation. This is the basis for the 'dance' of cultures along dimensions; however, the insightful use of the brain was omitted from Riding the Waves of Culture.

In highlighting how the dimensions related to relatively unique attributes of culture, the body of the book used case study stories to compare and contrast the interaction of cultures toward diagnosis of difference and opportunity for reconciliation (Mendonsa, 1999). However, it fails to deliver on the promised synthesis of culture in that it essentially presents a series of formulae for managing cultural diversity that to some degree just succeeds in perpetuating models as stereotypical behaviour. More troubling is the 'tips' for recognising difference and doing business in other cultures which Mendonsa (1999) sees as a particularly worrying aspect that may encourage 'unsophisticated managers' to treat those cultures according to average tendencies. In presenting the accumulated data as another study with a 'nationalist orientation' of culture as nation state, it failed to address the sub-cultures that can and do exist within countries (Mendonsa, 1999). Although it does not portray dimensions as static scales on which nations are ranked, it also did not explore the conceptual properties of the 'dance' of culture that lead to differentiated meaning. In part, these criticisms can be seen as the result of the insights lost from the original work of Trompenaars (1985). Regardless, the work was well received as a practitioner focused publication (Darlington, 1994; Mendonsa, 1999), filling the gap between the 'analytically inclined' and the vacuum in practical management literature on the manifestations of culture in business, but it could have been so much more.

Trompenaars' (1985) dissertation was originally based on a cognitive view of culture as meaning mediated by functions of the brain. In embracing this view, he was better situated to explain cultural meaning as knowledge and experience gained in a specific context. Instead of expanding on this in his subsequent research and incorporating later advances in cognitive theories of learning to support it, the premise was omitted completely in favour of what he considered to be going beyond Hofstede's model by use of definition alone. What he succeeded in doing was to reduce his initial proposition of meaning to the 'dance' by individuals along dimensions, implying variability within cultures without explanation of why this might occur. This author believes that by omitting the cognitive quality of the original thesis, the latter work lost its distinctive quality that for some made it just another replication and/or extension of Hofstede's original dimensions (Hofstede, 1996; Mendonsa, 1999; Carr, 2004).

Naturally, this work drew comparison with Hofstede's and foremost among them was Hofstede himself who critiqued the first edition of the book. The title of Hofstede's (1996, p. 198) review, Riding the Waves of Commerce, says much about his perception of the book as a quick method to intercultural variety and communiqué. Hofstede reanalysed the data and concluded that not only did the questions not support the dimensions but that there was only limited support for seven anyway (Hofstede, 1996), although Earley (2006) suggests that the number of dimensions is of little consequence in general. In addition, Hofstede (1996) also believed the methodology used was poor and that the data was inadequate, incomplete or erroneous. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner rebutted much of what they called 'the-world-according-to-Geert' on the grounds of viewing culture from different perspectives (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 1997). Considering the original research was predicated upon culture as cognitively derived meaning, this was an accurate statement. However, Hofstede's (1997) subsequent response indicated he was unmoved by the argument leaving the impression of a 'turf war' more than an intellectual debate. In the second edition of Riding the Waves of Culture, an appendix by Woolliams (1998) sought to redress these criticisms and in the view of this writer, not convincingly so. Explanations were limited, out of context with the dimensions, therefore, losing their impact and relevance, and lacked transparency of methodological rigour so noticeable in Hofstede's offering. As stated earlier, Hofstede's (2001) research was a stepping stone, and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner used it to move on, if only a little. In general, their conception of culture did highlight some

differences and illustrate the contextual and multifaceted properties of culture not evident in Hofstede's research, but not decisively so.

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) did attempted to distance their work from the idea of culture as static by using 'The Rainbow Nation' of South Africa as an example of the value shifts that can be experienced by nations. This additional chapter amounted to little more than a superficial treatment of the complex issues that had reshaped that nation, which Keaney (1997) described as almost an afterthought. There are parallels between Hofstede's (2001) dimensions and those of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998). However, they cannot be directly compared because their approaches, assumptions, and conceptions of culture are different, as is the audience, writing style and presentation of the respective publications. Culture's Consequences is an academic text with an overwhelming scientific presentation whereas Riding the Waves of Culture is aimed at organisational expatriates faced with cultural dilemmas that presents an alternative view of cultural differences and seeks to demonstrate the benefits of finding commonalities through reconciling those differences. Ironically, despite Hofstede's criticism of the commercial nature of Riding the Waves of Culture, he also succumbed to the need to broaden market appeal by publishing Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind (Hofstede, 1991) that presents a succinct account of his findings.

The third study to be discussed is that conducted by GLOBE and its search for a 'Culturally Endorsed Implicit Theory of Leadership' (House & Javidan,2004).

3.2.1.3 PROJECT GLOBE

Despite admitting to being deeply affected by Hofstede's theory scholars from GLOBE detected the must to develop the theories offered by Hofstede since they believed that they were basic and did not seize all the facets of a national culture. "While the GLOBE researchers fully accepted Hofstede's paradigm of constructing dimensions of national culture from variables that correlate across nations, they felt that some of his dimensions lacked face validity they did not measure what was implied by their labels." (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010, p.14).

Worldwide observations of different management styles and leadership behaviours and their effects have surfaced cultural factors at social and organisational ranks. The GLOBE research is illustrative of how leadership and management research continues to influence Cross cultural management in seeking dimensions of culture that predict behaviour, but on a far larger scale. The definition of culture arrived at by the GLOBE researchers reads: This definition places the GLOBE study alongside that of Hofstede (2001) in viewing culture as both evolutionary and the product of socialisation, although socialisation in this case is perceived as including a degree of cultural convergence due to globalisation. The survey specifically focused on the relationship between leadership behaviours and cultural attributes, with the primary purpose of forming a Culturally Endorsed Implicit Theory of Leadership (House & Javidan, 2004).

Another study gathered data between 1994 and 1997 from some 17,370 middle managers across 951 non-multinational organisations in 62 countries (House & Hanges, 2004). The project was initially based on the 'inherited' dimensions of Hofstede (Grove, 2005). However, the analysis of data from two pilot studies resulted in a deviation from Hofstede's framework of five dimensions to one of nine (House & Javidan, 2004). The GLOBE survey also had unique qualities that make it stand out. Firstly, 179 'social scientists' from each of the 62 participating countries formed the 'GLOBE community (House & Javidan, 2004). They contributed to the development of survey questions, validation of words and phrases to minimise ambiguity in translation, participated in data analysis and administered the survey in their respective countries (Hanges & Dickson, 2004; House & Javidan, 2004; Javidan et al., 2006), a collaborative effort seen by many as a desirable quality in Cross cultural research. Secondly, the survey instrument itself had distinctive features. It explored culture at both the organisational and societal levels as well as differentiating between practices as tangible aspects of culture, and values as the intangible basis of culture (Hanges & Dickson, 2004). In addition, societal culture and organisational culture were surveyed separately using different groups of respondent. Lastly, analysis and presentation of the results provided a differentiated view of a country's position on a dimension. Hofstede (2001) ranked countries along a scale for each dimension suggesting they should be interpreted such that countries whose scores are close are culturally quite similar while those at the top and bottom were the least alike. What is not transparent is how much of a spread in scores is representative of significant cultural distance.

In contrast, GLOBE used banding to group together countries where the differences in scores were not 'meaningfully significant' therefore reducing the tendency to over-interpret a country's position on their scales (Hanges et al., 2004). The bands themselves, however, represent a significant difference between groups and therefore countries. The following sections look at the societal dimensions and results found by GLOBE.

Power Distance is the level to which a country sanctions inequality through the stratification of its society (Carl et al., 2004). GLOBE found that countries who registered a higher Power Distance score for practices also desired a more equitable distribution of power on the values scale, while those who scored lower placed less emphasis on the need for power balance (Carl et al., 2004). An interesting hypothesis of GLOBE was that countries with a large immigrant population such as Australia, Canada, and the USA would score lower on Power Distance than nations with a lesser migrant intake (Carl et al., 2004). This hypothesis was supported with those countries clustered closely in the same band at the lower end of both values and practices scales. In comparing results to those of Hofstede (2001), GLOBE researchers found a strong positive correlation with societal practices, but a significantly negative one for values leading them to conclude that Hofstede's results reflected societal practices, not values (Carl et al., 2004). In addition, comparison of the relative positions of countries showed a marked change in some societies in the years between the two studies. For example, Malaysia, at the top on Hofstede's Power Distance scale, appeared in the same GLOBE band as Australia indicating that there was no meaningful difference between scores. GLOBE measured Uncertainty Avoidance in terms of the emphasis placed on constancy-order, structured lifestyles, clear requirement of social requirements and social regulations (De Luque & Javidan, 2004). In comparing the two measures of Uncertainty Avoidance, this characteristic was more evident in values than practices.

In general, those high on the value scale reported less incidence of uncertainty in their practices, while those recording mid to low-value scores showed a greater preference for reducing uncertainty through regulation and structure of practice (De Luque & Javidan, 2004). While carrying the same name, this dimension was virtually impossible to compare with that of Hofstede due to his aggregation of variables, only one of which was values based. Therefore the two measures were not the same (De Luque & Javidan, 2004). This

point is reinforced by comparing Hofstede's (2001) ranking of Japan (high Uncertainty Avoidance) and the USA (low Uncertainty Avoidance) whereas GLOBE banded them the same in values and Japan lower in practices. The researchers infer this exposes a flaw in Hofstede's measurement, also noted by others, that when drawn to his attention becomes a debate over qualitative analysis methods (De Luque & Javidan, 2004).

The GLOBE pilot studies indicated a different approach to Hofstede (2001) in measuring the individualist/collectivist and masculine/feminine characteristics of societies. Individualism/Collectivism became two distinct dimensions of In-group collectivism measuring "the point to which persons express pride, faithfulness and interdependence in their family (Gelfand et al., 2004) and Institutional Collectivism that considered whether group allegiance overrode individual ambition and whether the role of rules and practices encouraged collective behaviour (Gelfand et al., 2004; House & Javidan, 2004). All countries surveyed rated In-Group Collectivism values and practices higher than those for Institutional Collectivism with values scored higher than practices suggesting there was a perceived need for more collectivist values in societies across nations (Gelfand et al., 2004). As Gelfand (2004 p.360) expresses it, "the less a society practices collectivism and emphasizes collective goals and interests, the more it values societal collectivism". In-Group Collectivism produced remarkably similar results to.

Hofstede's (2001) Individualism/Collectivism with many of the same countries inhabiting the collectivist and individualist poles of the respective studies although a few countries (e.g. Hong Kong) appear to have become less collectivist over time (Gelfand et al., 2004). These results may reflect the significant research that has been done into the concepts of individualism and collectivism across many cultures and over many years that has more clearly defined its nature (Earley, 1989; Triandis, 1995; Oyserman et al., 2002) with the two GLOBE dimensions further adding to this knowledge through illustrating not only the durability of certain aspects of these dimensions but also in highlighting hitherto unknown variability between countries based on the values/practices and in-group/institutional differences.

On the basis that Hofstede's (2001) Masculinity/Femininity had subsumed 'underlying dimensions' (Den Hartog, 2004) three distinct measures of Assertiveness, Gender Egalitarianism, and Performance Orientation were developed to quantify cultural

tendencies across populations (not genders). Assertiveness measured whether aggressive qualities and toughness are encouraged (practices) or should be encouraged (values) within societies. For practices, all countries clustered around the middle of the scale but were far more polarised on values with almost two thirds preferring less assertiveness, possibly concerned with the need for societal corporation and integration, while the remaining third desired more assertiveness suggesting a need dispel a perception of weakness; however, GLOBE suggested that this may reflect the 'managerial' views of participants more than the greater society in which they live (Den Hartog, 2004). Despite being an underlying dimension, the results for Assertiveness were comparable with Hofstede's (2001) Masculinity/Femininity with countries high on the GLOBE practice scale high on Hofstede's masculinity scale, however, like Power Distance, there was no correlation with values which supported the notion that Hofstede had in fact measured practices.

The extent to which gender role differences are minimised and equality promoted within a society is the focus of GLOBE's Gender Egalitarianism dimension. Rather than measuring masculine/feminine attributions, GLOBE's scales gauged the extent to which biological sex affects (or not) the allocation of roles within a society (Emrich et al.,2004). Not unexpectedly the practice scale indicated that no society was dominated by the female gender, although based on the mean score of practices there was 'modest' support for some roles being allocated based on biological sex (Emrich et al., 2004).

Overall, societies desired more gender egalitarianism than current practices supported, although Emrich (2004) suggests that this may again be middle managers responding in socially desirable ways. Performance Orientation is the degree of support and reward for innovation, high standards and performance with results indicating that all countries value these attributes, but their societal practices lag well behind (Javidan, 2004). Javidan (2004) speculates that the disparity between values and practices is due to the values scale reflecting a need 'to belong' to a successful society or its perceived 'social desirability' therefore the assessment of current practices falls well short of these expectations. However, at this stage, the concept of performance at the societal level is neither fully defined nor developed (Javidan, 2004).

Reviews of GLOBE lauded it as offering a new perspective of culture supported by a sophisticated, rigorous and innovative methodological approach (Smith, 2005; Tsui et al., 2007). The separation of values (should be) from practices (as is), and their negative relationship to one another suggests that the perceived values of societies do not meet the expectations of citizens, and is, therefore, a significant step in surfacing the complexity of culture (Peterson, 2004; Smith, 2005). Peterson (2004) goes so far as to say that the research contests Cross cultural researchers to reconsider what they are studying. Issues of methodology and data analysis were raised (Peterson, 2004; Smith, 2005) but generally only sought to highlight areas that needed clarification to make the process more transparent, which GLOBE researchers duly attended to (Hanges & Dickson, 2006; Javidan et al., 2006). In addition, GLOBE has supplemented its findings with the publication of a companion book of case studies (Chhokar et al., 2007) that explore the historical and contemporary culture of 25 countries, including the cultural 'enigma' of Australia (Ashkanasy, 2007) written by the country specific researchers that formed the 'GLOBE Community'. GLOBE inevitably drew the attention of Hofstede (2006).

Hofstede (2006) asserted that GLOBE was a replication and elaboration of his research and believed fundamental flaws significantly affected the outcomes in not supporting his findings. He declared that the research instrument was defective as it was rife with 'US hegemony' causing a Western bias, ethnocentric in that most GLOBE researchers had received their higher degrees from North American universities implying that they were incapable of independent thought, and reflective practice, and GLOBE's participants' thoughts categorised the questions in such a way that researcher's minds did not reason for (Hofstede, 2006). What Hofstede fails to acknowledge is the diversity that formed the 'GLOBE Community' which played far more than a token role in the project (Hanges & Dickson, 2004; House & Javidan, 2004). In addition, and as the GLOBE researchers pointed out (Javidan et al., 2006), Hofstede's study was based on a survey designed for IBM needs of the late 1960's and early 1970s so would not have been without its own US-centric flavour. Furthermore, the inclusion of an Eastern perspective by Hofstede only occurred later and was not based on IBM data, therefore, exposing a shortcoming in his research instrument and probably because IBM did not consider it important (Javidan et al., 2006).

The bulk of Hofstede's (2001) criticism focuses on the operationalisation of GLOBE dimensions, the statistical procedures and logic used, and the interpretation of the results that if done properly, as he did when he re-analysed their data, would have supported his five-dimension model of culture. Four years later, Hofstede (2010, p. 6) has reignited this argument on the basis that one response could be that new studies develop new insights, give pause for reflection and move the field forward (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). In the case of Hofstede versus GLOBE, their studies should be viewed as complementary rather than opposites (Peterson, 2004).

GLOBE makes a valuable contribution to Cross cultural research (Boyacigiller et al., 2004; Peterson, 2004) in broadening the knowledge base and opening up discussion of factors that may explain variation across cultures. Such as the exchanges between Maseland and van Hoorn (2009; 2010), Taras et al. (2010) and Brewer and Venaik (2010) who debate the role of 'diminishing marginal utility' and its relationship to values and practices in explaining differences in and between the Hofstede and GLOBE dimensions. Although these writers hold different viewpoints, the value of their exchange lays in the shared belief in theory building to explain cultural differences while offering alternative perspectives on the utility of cultural dimensions and future directions. As Brewer and Venaik (2010) summarise. GLOBE (House et al., 2004), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998), and Hofstede (2001) have all made contributions to the understanding of culture and their dimensions have exposed attributes that highlight some of the factors at work in societies. What is less clear is how these dimensions of societal culture are applicable, or even relevant to, organisational contexts and the people in them.

3.2.2 EUROPEAN CULTURES

The culture of Western Europe cultures highlights the readiness and capability to think for oneself (intellectual autonomy). Individuals with this asset are not very reliant on others when it comes to developing beliefs; it is a culture that believes that all individuals in society should be equal, with equal right (egalitarianism), and they also emphasis on harmony greater than other world cultural areas. The western European culture in comparison with other nations displays low hierarchy and fixity. The countries of Western Europe have a wide-ranging culture. Nonetheless, differences within the area

exist. For instance, Greek culture displays low intellectual autonomy and egalitarianism in comparison to other Western European cultures. Another example is the French cultures they show a comparatively higher hierarchy positioning for Western Europe.

The countries of East Europe display lower on both fixity and hierarchy in comparison with the African, Asian and the Middle Eastern regions, but higher than Western Europe and the America. In East Europe, two regions exist, Baltic and East-Central areas display high intellectual autonomy, and egalitarianism and low hierarchy in comparison to the Balkan and more Eastern regions.

Authorised laws in West Europe pursue to defend human rights more than East Europe. This is in compliance with the high cultural egalitarianism as opposed to hierarchy in the majority of Western countries in comparison to East Europe (Bardi and Sagiv, 2003). European businesses are to be expected to reflect these differences. Consequently, West European businesses in the main offer greater rights and improved welfares to their staff, support them more to rise their capabilities and achieve their potential and capitalise in career development for staff from understated groups. These businesses, are instilled with greater egalitarian values, are expected to take and promote diversity in the place of work and to consider the requirements of the adjacent communal and work in means that will help it. If the Western and Eastern European businesses interact, the effects of cultural value variances may result to a lack of communication or struggle. The sub-Saharan, North African and Middle East (Muslim) display high fixity and low intellectual autonomy. There is an evident level of variation in the area on other cultural orientations. For example, hierarchy is higher in Iran in comparison to Egypt where it is low, harmony in the Cameroon is high whereas Ghana is lower and Egypt has a low mastery in comparison to Jordon.

3.2.3 ARAB CULTURE

Various academics have studied the Arab culture and its importance. Hofstede considered Arab countries as having a high power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, but a modest Masculinity / Femininity. Weir (1993) highlighted the distinctive features of the Arab culture and recognised it as an additional cultural paradigm that symbolises the practice in Arab nations in addition to the recognised paradigms (American, European,

and Japanese). He observed that the elements of the paradigm are ingrained in the Islamic, social, and political life of Arab nations. Nonetheless, a key problem with studying the Arab culture is whether to consider all Arab countries as one entity or several. Lamb (1987) indicated that it would be difficult if not impossible to generalise cultural values through all the Arab nations.

Other researchers have upheld what Lamb stated and noted that Arab countries differ from each other and also indicated that cultural variances can exist within the one country. Sidani and Gardner (2000) and Ali and Wahabi (1995) for example, asked in what way were Lebanon and Morocco 'Arab'. Yet, various researchers studying the Arab culture do not agree and dealt with Arab countries as one entity. For instance, Wilson (1996) believed that principles and outlooks that a lot of Arab seem to overlap across countries. Furthermore, Dedoussis (2004) noted that generalities are to be predictable when speaking of the 'Arab Culture' as the Arab countries consist of a substantial geographical area despite this, all Arab countries have been treated as one entity recognised as the 'Arab culture.'

Religion is the most significant and distinguishing facet of the Arab culture. Several academics have recognised religion as a leading facet that affects most parts of the Arab culture (Kalliny and Gentry, 2007). The religion is Islam is thought to have influence the form of culture in Islamic countries and specifically Arab countries. Islam by Arabs and Muslims is considered as a complete way of life. The language, community life, and conducts are all embedded in Islam (Kavoossi, 2000). However, while Islam is embedded in the day-to-day life of all Muslims, a Muslim's conduct is not an ample image of Islam. Globalisation has had its impacts on the Arab cultures, which has been particularly affected by the western world. Despite this there is no doubt that Islam has a big impact on all aspects of Arab life, as it is the most dominant religion practiced in the Arab countries (Al-Shaikh, 2003). The Islamic religion reinforces certain features of the Arab culture, for example, trustworthiness, faithfulness, flexibility, and belief (Ali, 1995).

Furthermore, working in Islam is considered as a form of worship and is not carried out merely for financial benefits. On the whole Islamic values are not practised as much as they are theorised. As previously mentioned the Arab culture, according to Hofstede, is considered as having a high power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, and a modest Masculine/Feminine culture. Arab culture has its own interpretations which are

different from that of the West. For instance, it is a devotion to religion and is considered as a feminist, here devotion of members of the society to their families or tribe, religious group. In addition, business is connected with family and is centred on personal relations. Another significant aspect is time that differentiates the East from the West in terms of culture. Miroshnik (2002), noted that time is viewed as limitless and an endless source by individuals from Eastern cultures.

3.2.4 LIBYAN CULTURE

In Libya the spoken and written language is Arabic, and Islam is the prevailing religion. Libyan has a traditional culture. The Libyan society contains tribes and family names which are of utmost importance to Libyans. This is likely to be because Islam's impact on society. Libya has many cultural values, which it shares with other Arab countries, for example, language, religion, and other social values. The tribal system in Libya affects the social structure in the country; it results in individuals to be strongly devoted and loyal to that tribe or group. It is believed that the Bedouins put great significance on the influence or role that honour plays. Also, that all members of this tribe or family are representing them. The practice of tribes is so much more evident in rural areas where individuals are in small towns. Nevertheless, tribalism is still evident in the bigger cities such as Benghazi. Tribal relationships are complex to comprehend they are a system of blood relations.

Libyan culture is considered as having high power distance, uncertainty avoidance but small individualism, all these aspects have donated adversely to the communication amongst workforce in decision making. Hofstede claims that the majority of the employed managers in this area had high power distance and uncertainty avoidance that influences judgements and communication in Libyan businesses. This is in line with the work of Leat and El-Kot (2007), who claim that the results by Hofstede (1980) match the Muslim work morals. For Libya, Hofstede's results are in line with Twati (2008), who established that the Libyan culture has high power distance and uncertainty avoidance.

Libyan culture is regarded as a contact culture, where individuals of the same gender walk side by side equally (Hall, 1969). Yet, communication among the two genders appears to be firm in the culture. Consequently, in regards to communication between people in businesses, there are issues that ought to be well-thought-out in communication

performances. For instance, eye contact and the usage of private space are delicate matters, and could certainly result in awkwardness, particularly amid the opposite gender. In an Islamic society, it is not permissible to shut an office door when speaking to a co-worker of the opposite sex. We can debate that in this culture several cultural values are founded on the Islamic religion, which leads to gender dissimilarities in communication, conduct and societal structure (Hofstede, 2003). Muslims have complete confidence in God (Allah) they have total faith that he is the only greatest creator and that he has decided all their worldly matters. Furthermore, Muslims consider that all that is in the future is best left to their creator. Consequently, in business, Muslims trust that they are to do their best, and the result is decided by God (Akbar, 2003). Leat and El-Kot (2007) claim that people from the Arab world regard working hard as a form of worship and a means to reduce sins, which is part of uncertainty avoidance. Jandt (2004), noted that in Arab cultures religious idiom such as 'inshallah' means 'if God wishes or will' are very frequent and are used casually. Hence, it does not necessarily mean that you will be ignored if you request for something, and the reply is 'Inshallah', particularly when it is said two times, which most likely means 'yes' in Arab cultures. At work, social relations are vital to overcome difficulties (Leant and El Kot, 2007).

In Libya, similar to other Arab countries Islam is believed to be a complete religion that covers all the societal and governmental characteristics in addition to piousness of the soul and the ethical values of individual's conduct (Twati, 2008). In accordance to the Muslim work ethics, productiveness and the respect of other individuals at work are regarded assets. As a result, societal relationships in the workplace are favoured. Therefore, it is essential to have respectable relations with co-workers and managers, since relations in and out of work can be key components in accomplishing successful communiqué among employees (Yousef, 2001).

The notion of a common humankind is a vital certainty in Islam. Therefore, it is stated in the holy book, the Quran that God produced mankind from diverse tribes and lands to be acquainted with and appreciate one another. Accordingly, Muslims acknowledge that they should embrace people from different communities, religions, or countries (Akbar, 2003). This is in line with the opinions of Leat and El-Kot (2007) that claimed harmony and the upkeep of social relations are vital features of the Arab culture. Therefore, valuing, forming and upholding relations with foreigners are intensely commended in Arab cultures.

The culture in the workplace in Libya is like that of other Arab countries, and there are evident variances concerning culture of work that exists in Europe and that of Libya. For example, meetings will more than likely be preceded by small talk, typically during a feast, and later the plan is spoken about. Immediate plans take superiority over longstanding plans, and only when larger projects are concerned is strategic planning carried out. Libyans incline to smaller clusters where you can be sure about trustworthiness. Subsequently business frequently follows companionships (Hawedi et al., 2011). The people of Libya are famous for their ability to negotiate. In trade, it is habitually used as a means of attaining honour and admiration from colleagues. A substantial sum of time would be assigned for such talks. When discussions come to an end, there might not be any formal written contract of agreement because it is common place for such contracts to be set by the shaking of hands or a verbal decision. Nonetheless, written contracts are more popular in Libyan business now, particularly when big companies are included. If delivered, there would be two replicas of the contract; one in the Arabic language and another in English. Ensuring that all groups included comprehend the official agreement which has been made (Hawedi et al., 2011).

Overall, Libya is a massive country with a prosperity of business prospects for individuals who are prepared to adjust to the culture and principles of the country. The main part of working in Libya is permitting sufficient time to improve business relations, where trustworthiness and status are of supreme significance (Hawedi et al., 2011).

3.3 CROSS CULTURAL TRAINING (CCT)

The key purpose of CCT is to improve expatriates to better comprehend cultural differences that exist between nations, to reduce the possible culture shock, to improve the expatriates` experience, specifically enhancing the functional skills of expatriates on international assignments, to improve the consciousness, skills, and information that is necessary to interrelate successfully and appropriately with the international country (Shen and Lang, 2009), to get expatriates and their families ready to better comprehend the different environment and culture, to increase, the success of the expatriates (Abdullah & Jin, 2015). Since CCT might enable expatriates and their families to adjust successfully through the challenges of uncertainty in the international country.

Anthropologists in the 19th century such as Lewis H. Morgan and Edward B Tylor carried out some of the very first cross-cultural studies. Some of the initial fundamentals of

research on CCT was set in the 1950s and 1960s. In this era Oberg (1954, 1960) and Hall provided the key theories of cultural shock (Oberg, 1954, 1960) and space and time (Hall, 1959, 1966) that inspired specialists but also scholars in the fifties and sixties. In the 1970s, studies on culture assimilators and experiential training methods flourished. In 1980s. The arena of CCT presented signs of maturity through the publication of theoretical books, handbooks, journals, and the growth of a culture general assimilator that used a comprehensive theoretical typology, all of which directed to the integration and organisation of the field. During the 1990s, academics have concentrated on assessing and evaluating CCT using methods such as meta-analysis, building theoretically meaningful models and training materials, and developing criterion measures that may be utilised in the evaluation of numerous training programs.

Numerous methods and approaches of training exist that can be offered to expatriates and their families to improve expatriates' capability to cope with work in an international country. The form of CCT offered to an expatriate depends, on the nature of duty, length of contract, and previous experience. Some examples of CCT programs are cultural awareness, technical training and practical information (Zakaria, 2000). However, it is accepted that just 30 percent of expatriates that are work abroad receive CCT before leaving their home country. The primary reason as to why several leaders do not offer any CCT is that they do not trust that this form of preparation is operational or essential for the success of expatriates before relocation or after relocation. Another reason suggests that it is due to the lack of sufficient empirical evidence, that preparing and training expatriates is essential and operational for employees (Black & Mendenhall 1990). It must be recognised that irrespective of position or previous experiences, expatriates would enhance their knowledge and improve by getting CCT (Zakaria, 2000).

CCT play a vital part in the success of businesses by means of it facilitating understanding of the international job. Throughout training, businesses provide information regarding the countries climate, housing, schooling, language training, and cultural orientation role of emotional display and status (Gulleksona & Dumaisnilb, 2016). Pre departure training is provided prior to arrival. Pre departure training is often delivered approximately a month prior to leaving (Selmer, 2002). On the other hand, some corporation begin delivering CCT a year before departure. And in overall, it is thought that forty to fifty hours' worth of CCT are sufficient. Unilever organisation established that between 5-10 days of CCT would be sufficient. BP in UK and Olivetti in Italy provided a two weeks of

CCT. Their goal was to train the expatriates to detect diverse cultural limitations in addition to encountering international challenges. Generally, the length of pre departure training is not long enough to comprehend the culture of the international country. However, a trip to that country may support expatriates. Pre departure CCT can enable expatriates' adjustment to the foreign countries amenities, overall living settings, societal relations, and changeover of them since a few pre departure CCT programs emphasis on the ethics, principles, religion, and dialect of the country (Yavas and Bodur, 1999).

The following type of training is post arrival CCT. This form of CCT is operational it takes place after arrival. It would normally happen as soon as the expatriate arrives to the international country. Occasionally, post arrival CCT is delivered a little later after the expatriate's attempt to cope with culture shock. Throughout post arrival, CCT expatriates attempt to gather material and information about the international country. It assists the expatriate to better adjust to the new settings and to appreciate the place they are employed in. This is the reason as to why some corporation choose to offer post arrival CCT around 3-6 months after arriving in the country. If corporation want to increase appropriate behaviours that are fitting to the new culture, these international business must provide consecutive CCT to the expatriates. Consecutive CCT offers the expatriates constant guidance and supervision. Nonetheless, as it is related with the managers' approval with the expatriate assignment, the influence of CCT in some cases appear weak. It has been studied that expatriates with no CCT delivered adjusted faster on their international assignments and where overall more content and pleased with the international assignment in comparison to expatriates that had not received any CCT (Selmer, 2002).

Despite this most research carried out does support the usage of CCT. However, validation of efficiency of CCT remains inconclusive. Many studies in aid of using CCT showed lacking approaches. Some of these grounded their research on inadequate information. Numerous businesses do not offer organised CCT for expatriates. Zheng et al. (2007), and Selmer, (2006) noted that how big a business is effects the kind of CCT it offers. For instance, larger corporation often deliver a more work related training programme. Whereas, smaller corporation would not take risk.

3.3.1 IMPORTANCE OF CROSS CULTURAL TRAINING

The capability to adapt to different cultures is an essential component of a positive international assignment (Forster, 2000). It is here that CCT is significant. Of the chief aims of CCT is to present to the expatriates the significance of culture, to increase their cultural awareness and to address ways to deal and cope with them (Abdullah & Jin, 2015).

Canhilal , Shemueli , Dolan (2015) used a qualitative approach based on semi- structured interviews of 45 expatriates, they explored the most significant factors related to the success of an international assignment in Peru. It reviewed the array of individual, organizational and contextual factors associated with a successful international assignment. The findings show that a mixture of individual, organizational and contextual antecedent factors are important for success. Specifically, cross-cultural competencies, spouse adjustment, motivational issues, emotional competencies, previous international experience, language fluency and social relational skills, in addition to contextual cultural differences and organizational recruitment and selection practices, were found to be the most associated to success.

It is important for an expatriate who relocates to Libya or any other international country that is unfamiliar to his own for work that he follows the rules of the culture instead of the rules of the home culture. In order for an expatriates to follow such cultural rules they must understand the new culture to the best of their capability Hofstede, 2006).

Therefore, offering CCT to expatriates is vital for assisting in their progress and success during the international assignment. From a corporation viewpoint, when an expatriate is sufficiently prepared and trained for an international assignment, they are more likely to succeed and add to the overall productivity and success of the corporation. The corporation may well avoid financial loss and workforce loss through expatriate failure. Furthermore, the corporation can overcome the certainty that their approaches and ways of business are better than others. The lack of expatriate preparation either through pre or post CCT has been linked with increased rate of failure. Another important factor in training is the language training here corporation are proving not to provide any and if so insufficient language training. Knowledge, be it simple, of the spoken language used in the new location, is important, especially when working in a country such as Libya, where

English is not used by the locals despite English being used in business. Here the expatriate will find themselves in a disadvantage.

3.3.2 THEORIES OF CCT PROGRAMS

3.3.2.1 THE U-CURVE THEORY

Cross cultural adjustment is often described using the U-curve hypothesis (Sappinen, 1993). This process of adjustment can be divided into four main stages (Dracine, 2008). They are referred to as home, adjustment, adaptation, and host. No time limit exists for each stage and the how long each stage is dependent on the individual and the influencing culture (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2 U-curve theory
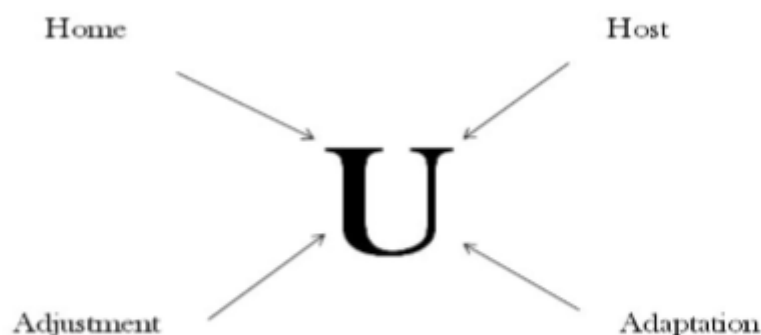
Dracine, 2008

In this figure 'home' is the first point of the transition. It is occasionally referred to as the honeymoon phase since it is a new period with new openings and hopes of what may arise. The next stage, the 'adjustment' stage, the individual starts to realise and sense the differences that exist between the home culture and the international culture. The 'adaptation' stage typically signifies a point where the individual starts to familiarise to the new culture. Finally, the 'host' stage, also well known for to as the at home stage, occurs when the person starts to associate with the new culture.

Dracine (2008) clarifies that the purpose of the entire progression is to remove cultural shock firstly through adjustment and adaptation and eventually through collaborating home culture with host culture. He notes that the word, 'culture shock,' was first presented in 1958 to refer to the anxiety formed once an individual relocates to a wholly different environment. It articulates the absence of way, the sense of not have knowledge of the correct or appropriate actions are in the new environment. The level to which an expatriate will experiences, culture shock hangs on a selection of elements and is voiced differently individually.

3.3.2.2 SELF LEADERSHIP

Each person taking part in a CCT listens learns, performs and to reacts to the training program, so whether an individual is able to progress their skills and are at an advantage after having training is at times dependent on self leadership. Self leadership has been defined as the procedure affecting a person's ability to create direction and motivation necessary for accomplishment (Manz and Neck, 2006).Sydänmaanlakka's (2004) presented a model to describe it. This model is significant in examining and studying a person ability to process information of cross cultural problems after training has been delivered. Figure 3.4 reveals features of progression for staff to experience through self leadership. These ideas are valuable since ability to communiqué is typically a face to face and so, CCT supports the expatriates to be conscious of the differences that exist culturally and discover a course of communiqué skills regeneration.

Figure 3.3 Self Leadership model

Sydänmaanlakka, 2004
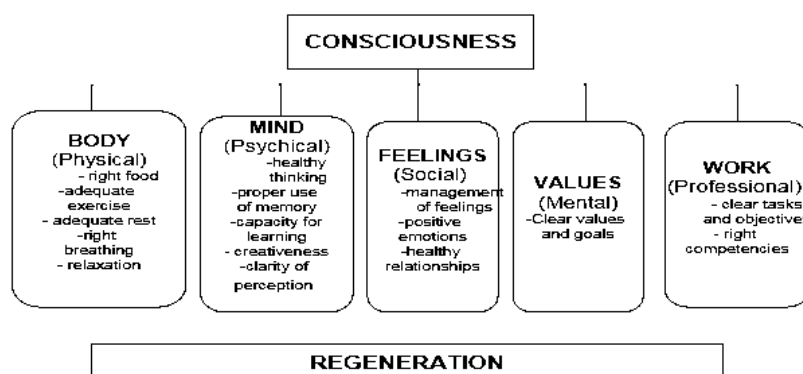
In reference to figure 3.3; consciousness is the general concern of self leadership when it comes to in relational communiqué across cultural borders. Sydänmaanlakka's (2004) opinion, is that consciousness has five sections that need thought. First, if an individual is assigned to work in a new environment and different culture, due to the new environment the individual may begin to see physical problems first. That may be a result of for example the differences time zone, the difference in the food available and the difference in working times. The individual will require assistance in order to become acquainted with such differences. Secondly, when the body faces shock caused by cultural differences, the mind subconsciously will, in turn, be affected also. Specifically, a positive outlook to cultural difference is essential: in CCT programs every person has the capability to make connection of notions or theories to recall, and making a case of cross cultural communiqué skills for them self, also to correct any incorrect views of the new culture. Thirdly, the societal emotional state will influence them also. The individual needs to build and maintain relations with locals. Fourth, standards and aims are essential to be sustained in thoughts. The expatriates have to create their own aims in relational communiqué with the locals and to consider the values of new culture. Lastly, in regards to work, being skilled is central. Capability and proficiency are essential for any job which will has a positive impact on the drive or determination of expatriate to work in a new environment with a different culture.

Moreover, as figure 3.4 illustrates, there is a regeneration stage where the individual becomes more conscious of more effective communiqué skills after the CCT program. Since taking in knowledge, absorbing changes in communiqué manners in the new culture does naturally takes time. As a result, each person inevitably has a regeneration process.

In summary, self leadership helps to manage behaviour to new cultural situations and to increase one's relational communiqué skills. It can be viewed as a measurement of CCT programs. This self leadership model aids in the analysis of the behaviours of each person during training, and could offer proposals to expatriates in order to support relational communiqué.

3.3.3 METHODS OF CCT

Corporation use a range of approaches to demonstrate cross cultural skills to expatriates; they are intended to facilitate communications with a new culture. The following section provides an overview of the main approaches and methods, though some methods are

more frequently utilised than others, they have all been incorporated to offer a complete overview of the matter.

The choice of CCT method depends on three variables: 1) the cultural distance that exists between the two 2) the degree of mixing with the new country's people and environment and 3) expected length of the expatriation (Waxin & Panaccio, 2005). In Littrell et al. (2006) examination of CCT research, seven different types of CCT delivery mechanisms are identified. These are attribution, cultural awareness, interaction, language, didactic, and experimental.

With attribution, training expatriates get the opportunity to understand the new countries behaviour. They learn how host national would explain host national behaviour by learning to make behavioural attributions like host nationals would. This way they enable the expatriates to interpret behaviour the same way as one would do in the host country (Littrell et al., 2006).

Cultural awareness training aims to teach expatriates to appreciate cultural differences by giving them deeper insight into their own culture. They think expatriates whom have an improved comprehension of their own culture will be more will be more operational in the international country (Littrell et al., 2006).

With interaction training; the expatriate learns about business practices and general life in the host country from other expatriates who have the same position in the company. It is done by having an overlapping period where the already settled expatriate teachers the new expatriate how to do the work and at the same time share information he has gathered during his time in the host country. This form of training is also known as on-the-job training (Littrell et al., 2006).

Language training teaches the expatriates the host country's language. This type of training is in its essence a form of didactic training in most cases. However, because of its importance with regards to enabling Cross cultural adjustment, it is considered to be its own category. By learning a little bit of the host language, the expatriate will be able to carry small conversations with locals and at the same time show interest in the country's culture. Learning the host language will also help the expatriate at work by enabling him to read work documents that is written in the host language (Littrell et al., 2006).

Didactic training involves different factual information-giving activities. The activities aid the development of cognitive skills facilitating the comprehension of the new culture and they may give the expatriate a framework which he can use to assess new circumstances that could ascend in the new country. The information giving undertakings give the expatriate's material about work and living conditions in the new country and cultural differences. Specially, the activities may offer material going from minor items such as travel provisions, shops and the way to dress to bigger items such as the politics in the country, the countries climate and what religion is practised and the implications of that. The most used didactic training methods are unofficial meetings, old-fashioned official training. Unofficial or Informal briefings may be given by having unplanned talks, organised material giving sessions (with nationals, previous expatriates or specialists) or through leaflets and booklets with information about the host country.

Table 3.2 Summary of CCT delivery methods

Approach to training	Focus	Activities
Attribution	Enabling the expatriate to make isomorphic attributions	
Cultural awareness	Understanding own culture to appreciate cultural differences	T-group
Interaction	On-the-job training	Overlaps
Language	Facilitating intercultural adjustment	
Didactic	Providing expatriate with factual information	Informal briefings, traditional formal training activities, and cultural assimilators
Experiential	Learning how to learn	Look-see visits, role plays, intercultural workshops, and simulators

Littrell et al., 2006

Traditional formal training is normally provided through classroom-based lectures. With cultural assimilator, the expatriate is trained to react to realistic Cross cultural situations

by getting presented Cross cultural scenarios, alternatives and an expert's point of view (Littrell et al., 2006).

With experimental training, the aim is to develop the expatriate's skills to interact and work with host nationals. This is done by using different learning by doing techniques. Some of these techniques are role-plays, look-see visits, intercultural simulations, and workshops (Littrell et al., 2006).

3.4 EXPATRIATION

Expatriation has been an important part of developing and managing international operations and entering foreign markets over the past few decades (Dickmann, Brewster and Sparrow, 2008), and culture is a central part of it. Kawai and Strange (2014, p. 2438) define expatriate management as the skill to make the most of the international expatriate's efficiency in new cultural settings, thus illustrating the key role of culture in expatriation (Mol, S. T, 2015).

While on international assignment expatriates face many new challenges due to cultural differences and new environments that they would not have to deal with in a domestic environment. They need additional and slightly altered skills and capabilities to complete a similar job effectively performed in their home country (Tung, 1981). These skills include Cross cultural skills to match technical abilities, following Black and Gregersen's (1999) recommendations, after studying the expatriate practices of 750 US, European and Japanese firms over 10 years.

DeNisi & Sonesh (2016) reviewed current proposals concerning the definition of expatriate success and failure, and offers a multidimensional model of success grounded on earlier literature. Based on this literature they suggest two pre-requisites for success, in addition to proposals from the literature on performance management. DeNisi & Sonesh (2016) claim that absorptive capacity and adjustment ought to be measured as pre-requisites for success of an international assignment, and that values from performance management need to be used when on international assignments.

Black and Gregersen's (1999) study also revealed the high failure rates as well as exorbitant costs related to unsuccessful expatriation. Although the actual costs related to international assignments are unknown by many firms, it has been estimated to be around three to five times that of the assignee's domestic salary over a year (Collings and

Scullion, 2008 and IPIECA, 2013). Nonetheless, it is a necessary means of international expansion and global operations, but with such high investment costs, ensuring expatriate success is critical, and Cross cultural adjustment plays an important part in this. According to Jassawalla, Truglia and Garvey (2004) unsuccessful Cross cultural adjustment is one of the biggest contributors to expatriate failure.

Littrel et al. (2006) assert that expatriate failure is most often defined as early return, however, further indications for failures exist. These include hindered productivity, damaged relationships between expatriate and host country nationals, decrease of sales and profits, negative reputation of the MNC in the host country, missed market opportunities and problems with repatriation which result in high turnover (Shaffer et al. 2006).

Organisational practices that are involved have been summarised in four areas outlined below:

1. Expatriate Selection
2. Pre departure preparation
3. Post arrival support
4. Repatriation

(Adapted from McCaugley and Bruning 2005, Collings and Scullion 2008, and Ehnert and Brewster 2008).

Expatriation selection involves sourcing candidates that will perform successfully abroad (Ehnert and Brewster 2008). Pre departure preparation includes any training and knowledge provided before leaving on assignment. Post arrival support involves support and training provided once the expatriate has arrived in the new country. Repatriation entails reintegration and transition back home (McCaugley and Bruning, 2005).

3.4.1 EXPATRIATE SELECTION

Noe et al. (2007) identified selection as the process where corporation choose to distinguish which applicants could have the specific skill, understanding, experience, qualification, training and other features that would aid it to achieve its objectives. It is the procedure of examining potential employees against criteria in order to choose the

most appropriately qualified person to hire on the international assignments (Qi & Lange, 2005).

A significant part on whether an assignment will succeed or not is dependent on selecting the right person to hire. The applicant with good technical competence, cultural awareness, language skills, tolerance for ambiguity, tolerant to differences in others, ability to communicate well, maintains high levels of motivation and has previous international experience are key for a successful applicant (Avril & Magnini, 2007).

Expatriates that will be working abroad must hold the ability be to adapt to upcoming change. The criteria often considered when selecting and employing an expatriate the age, previous experience and qualifications achieved. Although very important technical competence is one of a number of skills, an expatriate will require in the new job. If corporation only chose expatriates based on this, the corporation could be preparing an expatriate for failure, for the reason that the expatriates will go abroad trusting that they are ready for the assignment, unaware of the whole picture and due to the inadequate preparation, they may find difficulty in coping with the possible challenges that await and so increasing the chances of a failed assignment. Corporation focus not only on the expatriate's technical skills but usually; they require the expatriate to hold an academic degree in addition to have the aspiration or willingness to work abroad. Over time, corporation have recognised that a sense of balance between expatriate experience and training is significant, and therefore many corporations aim to send both young along with older employees abroad.

Parker et. al., (1993) among other researchers have revealed the significance of previous international experience, as this previous international experience is believed to decrease the complications connected to work adjustment. The supposition that expatriates with previous international experience may possibly require a smaller amount of CCT in comparison to those individuals who do not have previous international experience.

Waxin &Panaccio, 2005 showed that previous international experience is positively linked with expatriate adjustment. This is because those expatriates with previous international experience commonly develop skills that support them cope well with new environment. Though, even expatriates with previous international experience does not automatically mean that they received CCT. In a lot of cases, expatriates would have developed skills through active and passive learning.

The literature proposes that CCT has been supported in enabling operational, cultural transfer of expatriates. While International Corporation comprehend and recognise that CCT is essential, yet in many cases no or inadequate CCT is offered to employees. The main reasons why corporation do not deliver CCT include; the fact that it may be too costly and long, that this form of preparation is not essential or effective.

Shen (2005) noted, that some causes for corporation to not offer satisfactory CCT include: CCT is not thought to be effective, that there is simply no time conduct, insufficient budget expenditure, lack of understanding in order to be able to deliver CCT and the confidence that technical skills is adequate to succeed in some international assignments.

Selection processes are different from one corporation to the next (Adler & Zhu, 2005). For instance, when corporation wish to choose likely candidates for an international assignment, there focus is mainly on the applicant's technical competency. Chew (2004) revealed in one study that the most participants believed technical competence to be the most significant measure for selecting an expatriates. Recognising personality traits as the next most key aspect for selecting and expatriate. All participants believed that the family state as reasonably significant. Unexpectedly, the participants specified that language skills and previous international experience were insignificant when selecting an expatriates however they believed that previous international experience enabled orientation.

Corporation must take action when it comes to cross cultural service. As it will enable expatriate's success and effectiveness while working in dissimilar environment that they are unfamiliar with, since expatriates holding technical competence is not sufficient to allow for a successful assignment particularly on international assignments. To be successful, an expatriate needs to also have an understanding of the new culture, to have compassion for others, to be prepared for intercultural encounters. CCT can enable the achievement of the Corporation aims (Hung-Wen, 2007). That is why consultants advocate that alongside technical competencies Corporation must take into account cultural, societal skills, communication skills, etc. (Toh & Denisi, 2005). The applicant nominated for the international assignments must be prepared to work anywhere in the world (Oswald, 2008). Consequently, throughout the selection process corporation should concentrate on the weaknesses and strengths of applicants in relation to the new

culture where they will be working. This can assist in reducing the costs of expatriate failure. That is why it is vital to develop selection processes (Emmanuel, 2007).

Brown, (2006) indicated that it would be good if businesses would emphasis on assessing applicant's strengths and weaknesses in the intercultural skills throughout expatriate selection. Other essential skills that need to be examined when selecting individuals for an international assignment include personality traits, skill to embrace a new culture, communication skills, adaptableness, constancy and societal skills.

A wide range of personality traits have been associated with the ability to cross culturally adjust and performance. Mendenhall and Oddoue (1986 p.75) describe the "ideal expatriate", as an individual who understands the "underlying reasons" of the culture, and is genuinely inclined to help host nationals in an unassuming way, while also being completely comfortable and self-efficient in the new environment. Self-efficiency indicates the degree of sureness an individual has in their capability to complete a job and has been shown to improve adjustment by decreasing perceived uncertainty (Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl, 2009).

According to Caligiuri and Tarique (2012), the 'Big Five' personality traits have frequently been linked to expatriate's ability to adjust and perform, are: to be extrovert, sociability, diligent, emotionally stable and ability to be direct. Lievens et al. (2003) found that of the 'Big Five' personality traits openness was the only trait significantly linked to CCT performance. Caligiuri (2000) and Hannigan (1990) also relate open-mindedness to Cross cultural adjustment, the "willingness to immerse oneself in the new environment" (Hannigan 1990 p.104).

Cultural intelligence has also been related to positively to adjustment and adaptability (Huff, 2013 and Malek and Budhwar 2013), enabling "an individual to interpret unfamiliar and ambiguous gestures in ways as accurately as a national compatriot could" (Ehnert and Brewster, 2008, p. 110).

Tung (1981), Hannigan (1990) and Caligiuri (2000) cite social skills and interpersonal skills as a key personality trait, the capability to interrelate with individuals from dissimilar cultures with different communications styles and personalities. Further characteristics linked to cross cultural adjustment and success consist of the ability to be flexible, adaptableness, acceptance for uncertainty and non-ethnocentrism (Bhagat and

Prien, 1996). Hannigan (1990) and Black (1988) also refer to the ability to deal with psychological stress.

Communication ability (Holopainen and Bjorkman, 2005 and Lievens et al., 2003), and language proficiency (Huff, 2013) have also been linked to cross cultural adjustment, as it facilitates social interaction and therefore aids in adjustment (Stahl and Caligiuri 2005).

Lee & Croker (2006), quoted from Stone (1991), that ten main selection measures when selecting expatriates for an international assignment. These measures are vital aspects for applicant's. They are adaptableness, technical competence, family's adaptableness, relation skill, and willingness to work abroad, previous international experience, knowledge of the new countries culture, qualifications, and language skills in terms of the new.

Moreover, Lee & Croker (2006) recommended that corporation should highlight on cross cultural competence in comparison to international experiences and capabilities as the main measure for selection. The corporation need to establish criteria for selecting the expatriates (Qi & Lange, 2005). After determining the criteria, they need to define the applicants will be assessed. Managers may assess the applicants in relation to their strengths and weaknesses. "The validity of a selection tool depends on the extent to which the tool consistently finds that a particular selection factor is predictive of success during a global assignment. For example, if language skills are deemed relevant to a particular global assignment, then candidates may be assessed with a standardized language test" (Black et al. 1992. p.23).

Restricted selection methods may be accessible to manager. Nevertheless, an assortment of methods does exist. For instance; standardized assessments, work samples, factual data, and assessment centres, selection interviews and individual references (Black, et al. 1992). Standardized assessments are important since they are shown to be both reliable and valid. Work samples take a section of the possible job and put the applicant in the work position. Next selection method entails of gathering information on the applicant for example personal information and previous jobs. Another method is the having assessment centres these are expensive since it requires a couple of days to carry out detailed interviews, assessments, and a number of work samples (Black et al., 1992). Due to the fact that many expatriates have their families with them while they relocate for work, selection methods should, therefore, involve the whole family (Black et al., 1992).

More or less corporation incline to using comparable methods for expatriate selection (Dessler, 2005). It can be hard to choose which individuals will be able to carry out an assignment in a dissimilar environment, with a different culture, and a new country. As highlighted above many corporations often consider the applicant's technical competence, but technical competence unaided is insufficient for a successful assignment. They must also possess societal and cultural skills (Toh & DeNisi, 2005). Noe, et al. (2007) also agreed that technical competence is important but in addition to technical competencies other skills. Numerous skills are essential for a successful international assignment.

The purpose of selection is to locate the correct individual for an international assignment. However, this is not easy. For an international assignment, this is a fundamental judgement. Any errors made during the selection process may result in expatriate failure. However, effective selection will decrease the requirements for extra CCT. Through selection corporation aim to reduce any risk to the job, they wish to avoid any failure (Black et al.,1992).

As a selection measure, corporation should stress cultural understanding. Corporation should arrange for an expatriates' selection panel. It is highly commended that international assignments be accepted by a selection panel comprising of expatriates who have themselves previously worked as expatriates for a number of years. It is believed such a panel would have the ability to identify potential problems in comparison to managers who do not have international context. Corporation will less likely to face difficulties with expatriates if they selected individuals that had minimum of 3-5 years' overseas experiences. Also, it is important that corporation monitor families of the applicant. As stated earlier, family play an important part in the possible failure of the expatriate.

3.4.2 REASONS FOR EXPATRIATION

There are several reasons as to why corporation require expatriates. At times it may be hard to allocate local staff that are skilled, experienced, and competent (Qi & Lange, 2005). Tung (1987) noted that various motives for employing expatriates in international corporation or why some corporation send expatriates on an international assignment. In the case, it is a mother corporation ending one of its employees. One reason would be to have an expatriate that would act as an interface, as well, the deficiency of capability in undeveloped countries.

In the research carried out by Russell (2006) some reasons included to create presence rapidly in retort to market growths, to offer skills that are absent in a specific country, to convey technical information, to pass on company culture and policy and finally, to permit workforces to increase in international experience.

In regards to the regards to the expatriate, there are several reasons as to why an individual may choose to become an expatriate. They include to improve job, improve the living standards yet have cheap living costs, to gain international job experience, to acquire knowledge other culture and at times for the weather. Furthermore, international corporation normally offer excellent work packages that would consist of a health care plan, car, and private international schools for children. However, at home in their country, it may prove hard to finance such facilities. Lastly, in a study conducted by, (McNulty, 2009) it questioned expatriates and asked them to describe the reasons that lead them to accept to relocate and work on an international assignment. Four key reasons were given; Career improvement, financial improvement, job security and individual prospects (McNulty, 2009).

3.4.3 EXPATRIATE PREPARATION

After the selection process of the expatriate, the next phase is to offer the expatriate a suitable CCT program. This type of preparation program is necessary and essential as it is challenging to have an expatriate that has ample technical competence and at the same time experience in the new country and that are perfect emotionally and have an ideal family state (Abdullah & Jin, 2015). As point out earlier, preparation and training can aid the expatriate to comprehend the new culture much better, and help develop an expatriates learning orientation (Avril & Magnini, 2007).

Expatriate preparation and training is one of the crucial influences to a successful international assignment. Such training can enable communiqué and harmonisation between Mother Corporation and its subsidiaries in international countries. The expatriate can act as a regulator, a controller, and information conveyer. However, if an expatriate is unaware of the new countries culture, they will most likely have a higher chance of facing problems during their international assignments. They could, therefore, having issues in adjusting in the new environment, and this is likely to have implications on matters such as job performance (Liu & Lee, 2008).

Expatriate training is a means of delivering the material and information on the new culture consequently supporting the expatriates to comprehend the new countries culture and will thus improve ability to communicate, decrease uncertainty and so helping reduce the rate of failure. Still many corporation dismiss the important role of preparing and training an expatriate for an international assignment. Another significant influence of training expatriates is it enables adjustment, and therefore success of the expatriate. It has been established by various studies that delivery of adequate, CCT would cause an increased level of adjustment (Lee & Sukoco, 2007).

Language training is also thought of as an important part of the expatriate international assignment, the benefits of acquiring and learning the language of the new culture allows expatriates to build relationships with individuals from the new environment and to it will help the expatriate to better understand the culture. However, this does not mean that knowledge of the new countries language will assure expatiates success on the international assignment nonetheless there is evidence that language skills do enable expatriate to have improved adjustment (Tung, 1987). When referring to language, this not includes the verbal spoken language but also body language, gesticulates and societal protocol, (Avitabile & Kleiner, 2002). Therefore, it is important also to include language training in the preparation of expatriates. The key objective of this is to offer the expatriate and their family with a basic skills of communication with the locals and co-workers of that country (Selmer, 2002).

Though a principal obstacle to effective communication is the absence of language skills; there are several corporation that position language fluency comparatively low when it comes to features for selection. However, research has shown that language fluency does enable expatriate's adjustment by preparing the expatriates. Consequently, a closer collaboration with the new countries locals can be offered through language training (Andreason, 2008). Knowledge of the new country may assist in many ways not only enabling communication and reducing culture shock with nationals and knowledge of the new country permits expatriate to be more respectful (Selmer, 2005).

The more international corporation focus and stress on the language competence of the expatriates, the more chances for a successful assignment and they will not face as much culture shock. Some of leaders of international corporation's trust learning the countries language is not a requirement and is not needed. Even though the English language is the

language of business, expatriates will be at an advantage when they have knowledge of the new country language. One of the significant factors of learning the new countries language is that individuals give much more attention to newcomers who can speak their language. It can support to build self-assurance between both parties. Hence, it is important to have familiarity of the language of the new country to help in the success of the international assignment (Qi & Lange, 2005).

Individuals from Europe do not experience language problems since a lot of them are bilingual. Since, knowledge of language can improve understanding with co-workers, and also with locals. Therefore, it is important for international corporation to select expatriates that hold language ability (Tung, 1987). The accurate method to study a language is to travel to the new country and acquire the language (Shen & Lang, 2009).

In addition to this form of training, family training is also of great importance. An international assignment has an impact on not only the expatriate but in fact the whole family. Moving to a new country which is unfamiliar can be unsettling and difficult on the whole family. Therefore, it is crucial not to ignore the role that is played by the family in an international assignment. Turn a blind eye to the family and not offering them CCT, to support them will result with issues in adjustment, which will, therefore, result in expatriates facing adjustments also. When the spouse or family are unable to adjust to the new environment, it is mirrored in the expatriate's job performance, and it frequently results in a premature return home.

This research was unable to go into detail regarding spouse and family CCT, despite its importance in enabling a calmer and less apprehensive changeover. The reason for this is because expatriates interviewed did not receive any training, it was therefore presumed that they most likely did not offer CCT to the employee's families. Another important factor is that none of the expatriates involved in this research had families with them due to the turmoil in the Libya. Nonetheless, this family training should not be overlooked by corporation. Training and preparing both parties for the new country will be positively mirrored on the expatriates' job performance. This preparation must offer families sociocultural and psychological preparation (Zakaria, 2000). Through knowledge and direction, the spouse is able to support the expatriate through challenging times. Researchers trust that spousal backing benefits and facilitates expatriates to a better and faster adjustment to not only the work environment but also the overall environment.

Therefore, the selection process should include the spouse in order to scan them also (Qi & Lange, 2005). And it is recommended that CCT should also address the families since they are impacted by this relocation just as the expatriate is. As highlighted previously, a fundamental reason for expatriate failure is the inability of the spouse to adjust to the new country. Consequently, the ability of a spouse to adapt to the new culture is also vital for the success of the international assignment (Qi & Lange, 2005).

The proportion of expatriates from Europe that decide to take their families with them is relatively high (Riusala & Suutari, 2000). However, countries such as Japan where a Japanese wife would not have allowed herself to be viewed as the reason for her partner's failure (Tung, 1987).

3.4.4 PRE DEPARTURE TRAINING

The aim goal of delivering CCT to expatriates prior to them relocating to the new country is to improve the adjustment of expatriate and their family and to equip them appropriately on how to behave suitably in the new environment (Ferraro, 2010). The training upturns the expatriate's cultural intellect which affects particularly the general adjustment to the new country. Expatriates that adjust culturally are able to effortlessly start good relations (Littrell et al. 2006). CCT not only teaches the expatriate and their family of the new culture it also teaches them features of their home culture, which in turn will affect the way they behave (Ferraro, 2010).

3.4.5 ON-SITE TRAINING

Several scholars such as Suutari and Burch (2001), Avril and Magnini (2007), Black et al. (1992) and Waxin and Panaccio (2005) stress the necessity of carrying out CCT after the international assignee and his/her family have arrived in the host location. They argue that, if a proper pre departure training had been provided, the expatriate's adjustment to the day to day organisational issues will be less problematic. However, post arrival training can help expatriates to better master the difficulties related to cultural, communication and job matters as the host location is the ideal place to grasp all these. As discussed above about the importance of Cross cultural training, these are considered to be valid during the assignment, also. Training might be a useful instrument for improving the expatriate's job performance, when performance evaluation has established that he/she lacks some abilities necessary for achieving particular goals, or simply for future performance improvement. (Tahvanainen and Suutari 2005).

3.4.6 REPATRIATION TRAINING

International corporation are usually under the impression that once back to their country an expatriate will be in high spirit. Yet this is untrue for all the expatriate. This is due to the fact that while on the international assignment abroad the expatriate and his family have been impacted by the new culture. The way they behave and their personality would have to some extent altered due to living and working a lengthy period of time in a different environment. Expatriates at times do not recognise that unconscious alterations that occurred while abroad (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). Consequently, the expatriate and his family face substantial difficulties when they return to their home country. It is also believed that an expatriate will at times faces cultural shock when returning home as. These unidentified alterations in attitude and behaviour are problematic for the expatriate during the repatriation phase. They face problems in comprehending the customs of their country (Black et al., 1992).

The degree of culture shock experienced by expatriates in the repatriation phase is believed to be rather high. For the reason that, after an average of 2-5 years' worth of work abroad many changes have occurred. It is, therefore, understandable for expatriates to experience a degree of cultural shock upon their return home (Black et al., 1992). Their country will not be the same as when they left it, changes happen in aspects. (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998).

According to Black et al. 1992, the initial adjustment begins with adjusting to new work and the work environment. Regardless of the number of years' international experience, an expatriate has, they could still come upon culture shocks in repatriation.

Secondly, adjustment for the expatriate and their family to learn adjust and begin to interconnect with their social group and friends at home. After a long period abroad, the people at home may seem more like strangers. For example, children that were born abroad during the international assignment will frequently face language difficulties.

Thirdly, expatriates and their families need to adjust to day to day living again. Such as living conditions, food, schooling, transport, etc. Adjustments to general culture is challenging as can be seen from a study that showed sixty-four percent of American and fifty-five percent of Japanese expatriates confronted general culture shock during repatriation. Adjustment take place in three areas: work, keeping contact with social

group and friends from home, and expatriates country's general culture. Several expatriates request CCT from their international corporation through repatriation for themselves and their family. This type of CCT could enable adjustment at work and also when interacting with the people from home. Though showing CCT remarkably, little international corporation offer CCT or orientation in repatriation (Black et al., 1992).

3.5 EXPATRIATE LEARNING PROCESS

The following section includes a discussion of three conceptual frameworks that provide information on understanding cross cultural training programs. The three conceptual frameworks discussed have some similarity and characteristics related to the cross cultural training process. These theories are social learning theory, culture shock theory, and experiential learning theory.

3.5.1 CULTURAL SHOCK THEORY

Researchers have studied cultural shock as a factor that affects expatriate behavior when arriving in a foreign environment. Culture shock has been described as an anxiety or stress that expatriates feel immediately after arriving in the new country by an unfamiliarity of social practices in the international country (Shi & Wang, 2014). Also, cultural shock is described as a common course of change, adaptation, and adjustment in where a person experiences some degree of anxiety (Gojer, 2012). Expatriates can exhibit culture shock in many ways, including anger, frustration, depression, and homesickness (Shi & Wang, 2014). Shi and Wang (2014) indicated that a diverse number of cross cultural elements that cause expatriate failures, for instance, language, educational background, the difference in dress code, eating customs, religious views, and family life. These factors can be a problem if the expatriate managers are not exposed to adequate cross cultural training corporation programs to minimize their shock. Cross cultural training programs can be used to help with the adjustment or adaptation of expatriates to the host country to reduce their culture shock. The process of effective adjustment to a new environment and culture can be maintained by cross cultural training (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Cross cultural training corporation facilitates adjustment, adaptation, skill development, performance, and effectiveness (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Expatriates must adapt to the host country to be successful. Shi and Wang (2014) wrote that sufficient cross-cultural adaptation training provided by corporation could be essential in improving the performance and effectiveness of expatriates. There is a need for cross cultural training programs to reduce culture shock for expatriates. Cross cultural training is needed for

professionals to avoid chances of cultural shock (Muhammad, Ahmed, & Khan, 2012). With effective training programs, expatriate could avoid negative cultural impacts and manage their cross cultural teams effectively. Many researchers have investigated the effectiveness of cross cultural training programs. (Muhammad, Ahmed, & Khan,2012) carried out research of health care professionals and the impact of cultural shock in foreign countries, the findings showed that cultural shock and insufficient preparation stood the main causes for expatriate failure. Selmer (1999) examined culture shock in China and mentioned that the lack of CCT could lead to a stressful experience for expatriates.

Existing training programs are too short to provide the basic knowledge needed for the expatriate managers to avoid culture shock. Selmer (1999) claimed that the majority of cross cultural training programs are too short to achieve many fundamental changes to reduce culture shock to expatriates. Selmer noted that the training duration must be between three to six months after arriving on the new country to be effective in reducing culture shock. The cultural shock theory provides information on the nature of the shock that expatriates face when they are transferred to a different culture. Furthermore, the cultural shock theory can be used to explain how the training program can be effective to minimize cultural shock and improve the performance of expatriates.

3.5.2 SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Researchers have described the social learning theory as a process where individuals learn by observation. An individual's learning occurs when information or knowledge flows from one way to another (Moon, Choi, & Jung, 2012). The social learning theory was developed by Bandura and is known as a social cognitive theory (Boyce, 2011). The premise of this theory is that individuals are able to learn by example. According to Bandura (1971), the manners that individuals demonstrate are generally learned through the effect of an example. There are some elements of the social learning theory that support cross cultural training programs and help expatriate in their adaptation to the new country. Social learning theory has positive prompts on CCT (Nam et al., 2014). Social learning theory (SLT) has four central elements that help corporation to improve the life of their expatriates: attention, retention, reproduction, and incentives (Chien, 2012). According to Black and Mendenhall (1990), social learning theory elements have been used to develop a framework for intercultural training. Social learning theory provides

the expatriate a learning process and skills to be effective in the new country. These learning processes and skills facilitate the adaptation of individuals. This intercultural training helps individuals to learn information and expertise that enable positive intercultural relations (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Moreover, Black and Mendenhall (1990) established that cross cultural training is considered as a learning process where expatriates acquire information, skills, and capabilities through experience.

Moon, Choi, Jung (2012) observed that understanding about diverse cultures could improve an individual's capabilities. The social learning theory has been applied to the learning situations that occur over an individual's life in dealing with difficulties (Gibson, 2004). Kauppien and Juho indicated that the theory helped to address four issues for the internationalization: dynamics, acceleration, ideas, and the chaotic process that corporation experienced. In addition, Zhuang, Wu, and Wen (2013) examined mentoring functions for the expatriate adjustment and found that the social learning theory helps them to understand how the international companies use different mentors to provide knowledge to expatriates in adjusting to the new country. This theory was appropriate for this study because. Understanding the process of adjustment for expatriates and the knowledge acquired can be used to evaluate how this knowledge and adjustment impacted the effectiveness of the expatriates in the host country.

3.5.3 EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING THEORY

The learning experience is important for expatriate on international assignments. Experiential learning is a process where individuals learn by experience, also known as the heart of higher ambitions (Akella, 2010). The experiential learning theory (ELT) has been utilised to comprehend the many phases of learning and the diverse ways individuals take and process information that is new (Akella, 2010). The experiential learning theory is one of the most shared theories used to understand how expatriates learn (Nam, Cho & Lee, 2014). Experiential learning theorists have suggested that gaining and revising experiences is fundamental to the learning process (Butler & Gheorghiu, 2010). According to Smith (2011), experiential learning theory involves two processes:one the procedure of acquiring material and secondly, procedure of utilizing that material or information. Smith(2011) indicated that the first stage is the procedure of absorbing information through the experience, and the second stage is the procedure of

transformation. Expatriate on international assignments must to study the culture of the new country to adapt to the environment and laws of the foreign country.

The learning process is a cycle where expatriate are in a continuing learning process to improve their skills. Kayes (2005) noted that, according to the experiential learning theory, individuals learn by engaging in concrete experiences, reflective observations, abstract conceptualizations, and activate investigations. These learning cycles are used by individuals for developing new skills (Kayes, 2005). Moreover, individuals favour to study through generating, visualising possibilities and generating ideas (Kayes, 2005). Experiential learning theory is a process of creating knowledge. Based on this, experiential learning is the appropriate theory for examining how cultural knowledge is acquired (Lenartowicz, Johnson, & Konopaske, 2014).

Cultural knowledge is a tacit knowledge that is founded on activities, thoughts, standards, and feelings and is the root of individual experience (Lenartowicz et al., 2014). The most operational way to disseminate cultural knowledge in multinational companies is through cross cultural training (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Cross cultural training programs provide the knowledge that expatriate need to be effective in the international country. There are several gaps in cross cultural training programs. Nam et al. (2014) assessed the spaces in recent cross cultural training, using the experiential learning theory (ELT) to assess the efficiency of cross cultural training for Western corporation. Nam et al. established that there is a deficiency of cross cultural training by corporation. Moreover, Nam et al. specified four matters that must be contained within in cross cultural training: cross cultural valuation, family factors, domestic assignment, and trainer quality to develop the efficiency and successfulness of the expatriates. Santoso and Lossemore (2013) examined expatriate management in Australia using the experiential learning theory. Santoso and Lossemore observed that expatriate preparation was outsourced and that expatriates sensed that they were not supported through their international assignment, and this resulted in the failure of the thirty expatriates.

Kolb's experiential learning model, among other learning theories, has obtained particular interest to the analysis of cross cultural undertakings (Yamazaki & Kayes,2010). Experiential learning theory (ELT) has been categorised by six simple proposals (Kolb, 1984). "1. Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes. 2. Learning is a continuous process grounded in experience. 3. The process of learning requires the

resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world. 4. Learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world. 5. Learning involves transactions between the person and the environment 6. Learning is the process of creating knowledge" (Kolb, 1984, p.34). In Kolb's learning model, concrete experience (CE) capabilities request for being involved with immediate human states subjectively; different to, abstract conceptualization (AC) capabilities here it is required to use reason, thoughts, and ideas. Reflective observation (RO) capabilities need a comprehension of the meaning of opinions and circumstances by cautiously viewing and attending; different to, active experimentation (AE) capabilities here there is request to dynamically impact people and altering situations.

Expatriate learning denotes to in what way does an expatriate learn and progress in regards to their international assignments. Due to the concentrated environmental change, the way expatriates learn on international assignments come to be of significance. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory (ELT) displays how learning and development occur in expatriates while on their international assignment through their experiences. This learning theory is significant to this research because: this theory is an adult learning theory that focuses on the role experience plays in influencing learning. Expatriates both are working and living in a new environment which 'forces' them to experience numerous ambiguities. These concentrated international involvements are a source of expatriate learning. Furthermore, ELT highlights learning is the interface that occurs among individuals and their environment. Additionally, ELT highlights alterations in learning. As a result, it suggests that experiential learning theory (ELT) is a strong and operational eyepiece through which to observe expatriate learning.

Corporation must invest in the education of their expatriates and involve them in the creative process. Corporation development offers individuals the chance to function, advance their potential, raise efficiency to meet the objectives, develop an environment for a stimulating work, and an chance to influence. These values create a altering process in corporation where expatriates apply their information to resolve their own complications at the place of work, permitting them to make and develop the an outstanding workforce. Expatriates must act as a role model for their members and groups. In addition, corporation must reinforce the learning process, support the development of their expatriates, share values, and challenge their expatriates to continue to learn.

These factors impact the effectiveness of the business and the confidence of the members of the corporation . Corporation are exploring other alternatives to grow their business, and these alternatives are the movement of their operations to foreign countries to reduce their production cost and to be competitive in the market. Meanwhile, corporation must provide to their expatriates a learning development process to deal with cultural differences when they are assigned to an international position. Corporation must establish a system to develop their expatriates to deal with cultural differences before the movement to foreign countries. Expatriates must understand the behavior of the culture.

Corporation must provide their expatriate leaders with a developmental process to improve their skill of influence while managing cross-cultural teams. According to Bird et al. (2010), successful expatriates must have three dimensions that influence different cultures: self-oriented dimension, other-oriented dimension, and perpetual dimensions. These factors provide the expatriate leaders with the knowledge to understand the individual's performance in the global workplace. In addition, Bird et al. stated that an corporation needs to offer their expatriate with the skilfulness of self-awareness. Self-awareness refers to the strengths and weaknesses of interpersonal skills, values, and the relationships with others. Moreover, Bird et al. point to effective expatriate understanding the values of international culture. Irving (2010) established that corporation need to develop expatriates to manage all the challenges in the global world.

3.6 CROSS CULTURAL MANAGEMENT

Culture is a common understanding that is common among corporation participants, such as dissimilar philosophies, ideologies, standards, outlooks, customs, and societies (Sambasivan & Yen, 2010). A change in culture happens when people from different ethnic groups work together and have different languages and communication styles, manners, religions, political views, food, appearance, and clothing. Based on these changes, it is the responsibility of the corporation to provide managers the skills needed to manage these cultural differences and establish a plan to deal with these effects. Schomer (2000) established ten aids for dealing in a culturally diverse environment: "1. Self-knowledge: Understand your own culture values 2. Global thinking: Keep informed about events and global changes 3. Cultural curiosity: Observe cultural behaviors 4. Flexibility: Adapt to business style and social environment 5. Inclusivity: Make people feel understood and value their perspective 6. Managing diversity: Get people to work

together effectively as unified teams 7. Interpersonal communication: Express yourself 8. Motivational leadership: Lead in ways that inspire employees to take responsibility 9. Credibility: Exercise integrity, openness, and trust in all interpersonal dealings 10. Patience: Keep the focus on the long-term goal and do not waste time getting immediate results".

Schomer (2000) established that, with these skills, expatriate managers can increase their effectiveness in understanding how corporation function in different cultures . Canals (2014) noted that expatriates who have the responsibility of making business and technical decisions internationally. Canals claimed that expatriates must establish mission and meaning, strategy, execution, integration, and leadership development. Moreover, Canals indicated that cross cultural management in the global business plays a role in each one of those competencies because they introduce new challenges that make development more complex to some expatriates.

Different countries have different cultures, different needs, and different education levels. The cultural process includes three levels, and expatriate managers must understand each of them (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). The first level is includes different behaviors in how people react to different situations. The behaviors include written expression, dress, and language. The second levels are the values and beliefs that represent the operating principles that guide decision making. The third level includes assumptions, which are a combination of values and beliefs that are ingrained and are believed to be unquestionably true. Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) established that these cultural levels help corporation to comprehend cultural management and cross cultural capabilities. Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) claimed that these cultural levels are acquired through cross-cultural training. Moreover, Caligiuri and Tarique indicated that to be successful in foreign countries with these cultural levels; corporation must understand and reduce cultural differences, cultural adaptation, and tolerance of ambiguity from their expatriates.

 It is important to establish these levels because expatriate managers must observe and understand the behavior of the groups to understand how to manage them. Also, expatriates must understand the group's capacity, training, education, and experiences. Chen, Sun, and McQueen (2010) established that the culture levels may be difficult for

corporation and expatriates, but can be improved by using a cross cultural management model like the model adopted Holden(2001) as shown in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 *Cross cultural management model*
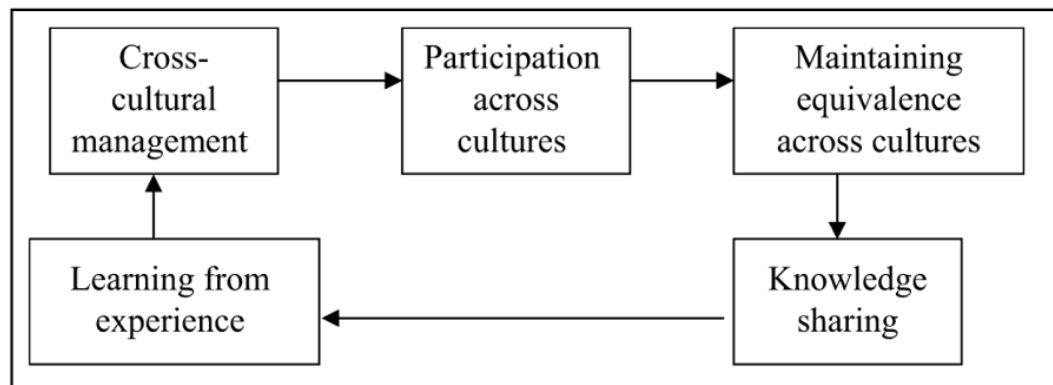
Holden,2001

Figure 3.4 Cross-cultural management model Chen, Kirkman, Kim, Farh, & Tangirala (2010) showed that this cross cultural model is a cycle in where the cross cultural experiences is never ending. Chen et al. (2010) stated that the cross cultural management model is utilised as a knowledge management method to raise the self-confidence and adaptation of the expatriate to the new countries. Chen et al. stated, "that knowledge is embedded in individuals, in the corporation 's rules, routines, structures, and technologies and knowledge may be embedded within its original context" (p. 299). In addition, Birasnav (2014) established that cross-cultural management processes provides expatriates two dimensions to support cultural knowledge: (a) the information that is unique, valued, and exist in in the employee's mind and (b) clear information that is easy to handle, and is easy to store. These dimensions provide the expatriates a knowledge process to establish their strategies. Cross cultural management provides different viewpoints to support expatriates to comprehend cultural variances, such as traditional, anthropologist, physical, stereotyping, and knowledge management.

Vorakulpipat and Rezgui (2008) commented that knowledge management creates value for expatriates. According to Vorakulpipat and Rezgui, the knowledge-based perspective of the corporation has emerged in strategic management. Corporation management is recognized as a key resource of the deployment of knowledge and a corporation

advantage. Vorakulpipat and Rezgui mentioned that one part of knowledge management is knowledge sharing, which means that people in the corporation can acquire knowledge through experience. Knowledge sharing is defined as a process of transmitting to a received target, as well as the demand for knowledge management.

According to Vorakulpipat and Rezgui (2008), traditional corporation 's are beginning to comprehend that knowledge management is a crucial factor for gaining and sustaining competitive advantages for their expatriates. According to Vorakulpipat and Rezgui, these advantages emphasize three dimensions of knowledge management: social corporation, learning process, and sociotechnical. Knowledge sharing is a first generation of knowledge management and is the process of learning the best practices for the corporation and expatriates. Knowledge sharing is the transmission and absorption used in the corporation's. In knowledge management, it is important to define the skill of the expatriates as trainer, coach, writer, influencer, facilitator, marketer, communicator, and project manager. These skills provide the corporation's an expatriate who can be effective. To be effective, expatriates must understand the different styles of leadership across cultures.

Massingham and Diment (2009) established that corporation's must provide their expatriates with a process to develop an understanding of the culture in the foreign country. Expatriate with international assignment will have different challenges that could affect the strategies of the business. However, NG, Dyne, and ANG (2009) agreed stated, "Cross-cultural interaction provides concrete experiences where individuals receive real-time feedback on their behaviour and effectiveness based on reactions from other parties during cultural interactions" (p. 518). Massingham and Diment found a connection concerning the corporation commitment and the knowledge management initiatives. Massingham and Diment defined corporation commitment as an interchange between the expatriate and the corporation. In addition, Massingham and Diment claimed that a corporation must efficiently run its means to react to alteration and to acquire from experience. Massingham and Diment (2009) provided four models that help expatriates to improve their knowledge management "(a) corporation learning that is the process that a corporation adapts to change and uses to acquire new knowledge, (b) skills and behaviours, (c) knowledge transfer that is the movement of knowledge within a corporation, and (d) corporation capability that is a process that creates an environment". These four models provide expatriates a process to maximize their knowledge and deal

with issues in cross-cultural countries. Vorakulpipat and Rezgui (2008) stated, "Managers can use this finding by increasing corporation commitment" (p. 137). According to Vorakulpipat and Rezgui, knowledge management has three dimensions: sociotechnical, socio-corporation, and learning processes; these dimensions define the knowledge process where corporation's establish their strategies for knowledge transfer.

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has shown how research has indicated that CCT has, an overall positive influence on an expatriate ability to develop skills, to adjust, and to perform during the international assignment. CCT is significant in educating expatriates as to which methods to use in order to be effective. There are a vast number of reasons why CCT is of great importance to expatriates and the international corporation both. From a corporation viewpoint, if an expatriate is sufficiently prepared and trained for the international assignment they are more likely to succeed. Accordingly, there will be an increase in the general productivity and effectiveness. CCT benefits an expatriate by assisting them interact successfully with local public and colleagues, and it helps in the adjustment process in comparison to if there was no training. For developing and practical reasons a successful expatriate assignment is vital to corporation.

In spite of all of the evident benefits of CCT, generally, expatriates do not receive satisfactory CCT. Expatriates experience cross cultural trials on a daily basis while on their assignment abroad. Expatriates and their family will understand events in the new country through their own cultural eyes as they come across different styles of leadership and practices which may possibly have a different implication in the new culture.

To empower the current international employees to work effectively and pleasantly with co-workers in the place of work, a comprehension of the differences in culture and understanding to dissimilar customs and principles has become a requirement. Though, the lack of having theoretic evidence that it is current and effective brings about questions (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Several corporation working on international assignments aboard have little understanding of how beneficial CCT could be to them, what CCT encompasses, and how to apply it, when it is required, and with whom it must be utilised. In order for corporation to enable effective adjustment and performance, CCT becomes

essential. With CCT, corporation purpose to improve understanding of different social environment and to reduce culture shock of expatriates and their families.

Cultural diversity is a challenge and a cause of difficulties for corporation; however, diversity also brings about prospects and benefits. Planning value based cultural variances and comprehending their effects for possible struggles in and among corporation is a vital first stage to evolving ways to manage and benefit from heterogeneity in corporation.

This chapter has presented different theories and definitions of culture. It is generally recognized that cultures are diverse, however since the difficulty of the idea of culture is problematic, and it is hard to pin down an exact definition. Certainly, there is differences between many disciplines as to how to define culture (Hall, 1990). Some view culture as voiced through, customs and values. While others, culture can affect the learning style and general approval of technology. Another definition perceives culture as shared knowledge that makes one culture dissimilar to another. These numerous definitions mirror some of the many efforts that have been made to comprehend how cultures vary and to classify these variances into tangible assessable components.

This chapter also explored three key theories of culture, Hofstede, GLOBE, and Trompenaars. These three pieces of research appeal to organisations as they are consistent with the 'business rule of thumb' that if something can be measured, it can be managed. With 'culture clash' often linked to poor performance and outright failure of projects, these studies as measures of cultural distance gain more weight as predictive of the problems that can be expected. Even if organisations, never consult the original studies, popular or practitioner focused texts present them as incontrovertible evidence that shapes the perspective of their readership. All three theories of culture made it clear that the values and/or practices measured are aggregated survey items that highlight general societal tendencies, and that culture is infinite more variable at the group and individual level.

These disclaimers, however, have done nothing to stem broad application of dimensions to numerous organisational contexts predicated on the single assumption of culture-as-difference, which for organisations has transformed descriptions of differences to prescriptions for managing them. The societal tendencies identified may serve as cultural insights for organisations considering or engaged in cross-border expansion and international cooperative arrangements, however at the level of individual interaction

they are inappropriate. Organisations do not deal with entire cultures - they deal with individuals, individuals who have lived worked, socialised and gained experience in contexts that may be quite similar or significantly different.

As Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) rightly point out, the meaning people attach to a particular context and what is in it, are a key factor in creating synergy between them. This is underscored by Rousseau and Fried (2001) who see a lack of consideration of context in research as limiting its relevance in an increasingly diverse and complex world where one individuals context is someone elses taken-for-granted notion.It is argued here that less attention should be paid to cultural dimensions as predictive of what may be encountered in dealing with cultural others in organisational contexts, and more concern should be shown regarding how individuals learn to become cultural. As Earley (2006) advocates, 'grand-values' measurements of culture should cease and be replaced by theory development that links culture to action, as Similar views have been expressed by a number of writers .As suggested by much of the literature, there is a need for more focus on culture-in-context as similarly, Tsui et al. (2007) believe research should use a poly-contextual approach to expose the individual's 'ways of knowing' arising through participation in multiple contexts that develop different meanings. In their view more potential lies in the exploration of culture at this level and will deliver the new insights required for organisational contexts. It is clear that there are now many voices raised in opposition to culture as a static and immutable property of the individual. What is also becoming clear is that if the formation of culture can be understood in terms of an individual learning in context, then there is a greater likelihood that managing culture will become less about the need to mediate its perceived consequences and more about the need to connect cultural others with the new context in which they deploy their knowledge and skills. Implicit in this is the need for (International) Human Resource Management professionals and incumbents of managerial/supervisory roles to share in the responsibility for making this connection. Managers/supervisors are more in touch with the reality of the day-to-day situations in which cultural others are expected to participate and should have a vested interest in ensuring their new group member is able wholly to contribute their expertise.

Also, this chapter presented a review of literature on cross cultural training, its importance, key theories of CCT and the different methods of CCT were discussed. Finally, the chapter reviewed expatriation, the process of expatriation selection, reasons

for expatriation, expatriate training and expatriate learning process. The next chapter (chapter four), will complete the theoretical literature review and will present the empirical literature review.

CHAPTER FOUR
EMPIRICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

4.0   INTRODUCTION

One of the most familiar criteria for assessing expatriate assignment success is through cultural adjustment (Black and Mendenhall, 1991& Van der Bank and Rothmann, 2006). An abundant quantity of empirical research has been carried out in previous years. Studies carried out by European and American researchers. Looked at various aspects of international delegation (Scullion and Brewster 2001). A substantial part of their research concentrated on expatriate adjustment viewing it as the greatest and vital reason for an expatriate to succeed in an international assignment (Gulleksona & Dumaisnilb, 2016).

The importance for examining expatriate adjustment is important for a number of reasons. Firstly, a premature return of the expatriate will occur if the expatriate fails to adjust on the international assignment. This will result in high costs for the corporation (Naumann, 1992). This failure of an assignment is not always one of the investments but one, which takes account of the damages to the corporation reputation in the business, chances of business may be lost and loss of possible shares (Black and Gregersen, 1991).

Secondly, failing to successfully complete an international assignment not only potentially harmful to the corporation or the parent company but it also has its negative impacts on the expatriate themselves.It is believed to affect the expatriate on a personal level. Thirdly in the case, the expatriate is sent through a parent company an unsuccessful assignment is more likely to reduce the chances of any future allegiance to the parent company (Naumann, 1993). Additionally, it may affect the job performance while the expatriate is experiencing repatriation phase (Alder, 1981). Lastly, a failed assignment will have adverse effects on the choice of another skilled expatriate to undertake an international post.

In this chapter, the empirical studies on expatriate adjustment will be reviewed, as it is the most common criteria for expatriate success. This chapter will first review literature on the factors that affect adjustment of an expatriate overseas. The chapter will be

separated into three sections; adjustment of an expatriate to the new environment, adjustment to the new work environment and finally adjustment to the local nationals. Secondly, the chapter will review the existing literature on expatriate failure. Hung-Wen (2007) discusses that literature on failure of an expatriate is rare in terms of empirical research, and the existing evidence is outdated and most often covers the Amercian business setting .Hung-Weng (2007), argues that the consistency of the most current work is questionable because it influences are mostly built on the work done by Tung in 1982.

4.1 ADJUSTMENT

Adjustment can be described in two different ways. First idea offers a subjective description of adjustment. It describes adjustment as level of psychological adjustment that an individual may experience when they are in a different setting or the level of psychological ease and awareness in a new setting. The second description of adjustment is more objective; it looks at the criteria for expatriate performance and the expatriate renewal rate (Selmer, 2002). This research will focus on the first description of adjustment, taking a more subjective viewpoint.

In the theoretical literature, there are many disputes arguing whether adjustment is a single or multi-faceted occurrence. Much of the earlier literature is in support of adjustment being a unitary occurrence concentrating mostly on a person's individual ability to adjust to the new setting or culture (Tung, 1987). However, later studies argue that adjustment is, In fact, a multifaceted occurrence with major dimensions distinguished empirically. first, adjustment to the general environment, Second, adjustment to the work environment and third, adjustment to interconnecting to local nationals (Black, 1992).

It appears that adjustment is more multifaceted, as an expatriate may have adjusted well to one or more of the dimensions yet adjusted badly to another dimension. An example to illustrate this is, an expatriate feeling uneasy when interacting with local nationals yet has adapted very well in the work environment.

4.2 ADJUSTMENT TO THE NEW ENVIRONMENT

Adjustment to the new environment was studied by Black (1988). This study used the Likert scales "1=not adjusted at all" & "7=Very well adjusted". Here expatriates were questioned regarding their housing, general living situation, the living cost, including

food and shopping, they were also asked about the facilities available to them in terms of entertainment and whether they received any health care plans.

Most research carried out concerning expatriate adjustment mainly focused on personal characteristics, and no distinction could be seen in regards to the dimensions mentioned above (Black, 1990). The study carried out by Black (1990) examined the connection between personal dimensions and the three dimensions of adjustment. The respondents in the study were expatriated managers (250) working in an array of industries, that were mainly married and male from Japan, who were sent on an international assignment to the USA. The final sample of returned the questionnaires was 67.

According to Black's (1990), that a great amount of research analyse expatriate adjustment highlight mainly personal characteristics, and many of these studies do not distinguish among the three types of adjustment that are explained above.

In order to examine the connection between the personal dimensions (all five dimensions: "willingness to communicate, cultural flexibility, social orientation ethnocentricity and conflict resolution orientation") a correlation analysis is employed.

Black's theory that adjustment to the general environment is positively linked to cultural flexibility. Black 1990 explains that cultural flexibility is "the ability to replace activities enjoyed in one's home country with available and usually different, activities in the host country."(Black, 1990 p.124). The suggestion was supported with the "8 item scale" measuring cultural flexibility.

Another personality related variable of adjustment is social orientation. According to Black (1990) Social orientation is the capability of expatriates to form relations with local nationals). The findings that there is a positive correlation, it shows social orientation as a considerably associated to the expatriate's general adjustment.

One more factor that is thought to impact adjustment is the willingness for expatriates to communicate. The readiness of expatriates to communicate while on an international assignment correlates positively with all three dimensions of adjustment (Black, 1990). Second study carried out by Takeuchi et al. (2002) investigated empirically the influence of willing to communicate on the general adjustment of expatriates. This study was carried out Japanese expatriates on an international assignment working in 55 different

companies in America. Out of the 298, a questionnaire response of 243 was received from the expatriates and 173 from the expatriate spouses. The variable here again was measured using the Likert scale (7 points). The expatriate's readiness to communicate was positively correlated to adjustment but not general adjustment.

Additionally, the motivation to go abroad was found to be positively correlated also to adjustment. Black, 1990 claimed " that the more motivated the individual is toward the assignment, the more effort the individual will put forth in trying to learn the appropriate and inappropriate relative to the new culture, and therefore, the more adjusted the individual will become" (Black 1990, p. 113).

Furthermore, that prior familiarity and information of the new location may also be positively related to adjustment. This was investigated by Takeuchi et al. (2002), who established a positive correlation between previous expatriate information (pre-departure) and their ability to adapt to the general environment existed. It is thought that previous knowledge aids expatriates to have a more precise or realistic expectation of what lies ahead.

A study carried out by Parker and Mc Envoy examined expatriate previous international experience and how it affects adjustment. The study was based on 115 expatriates in 12 different locations worldwide. The study used three different sectors to investigate, the government, the educational and business sectors. It was concluded from the study that a clear positive correlation between previous overseas experience and expatriate adjustment does exist. A study directed by Bonsiep et al. (2003) contradicted with the findings of Parker and Mc Evoy. The findings showed a negative correlation between previous international experience and adjustment of the expatriate to the general environment.

Bonsiep et al. (2003) goal was to confirm the "U-Curve" theory of adjustment to the new countries culture it distinguishes five different phases of adjustment as previously mentioned in chapter three (honeymoon, culture shock, recovery, adjustment).

Furthermore, Bonsiep et al. (2003) investigates other factors that can affect adjustment of expatriates during their international assignment. They looked at three variables, "company-related, personality related and environment-related". The study was based on 61 Asian managers employed in German corporation. To analyse the impact of various

factors on adjustments multiple regression analysis was employed. The findings showed a substantially negative correlation between previous international experience and expatriate adjustment to the new environment. The explanation that the researchers had for these findings was that an expatriate that has previous international experience will incline on being more analytic in comparison to an expatriate with less international experience. The expatriate previous experience gives them the ability to evaluate deviation of the overseas country.

Parker and McEnvoy (2003) discovered that periods spent with other expatriates has a negatively correlation to adjustment of an expatriate. Consequently, they view time spent with host-country nationals have a positive relationship with the expatriate general adjustment. However, these conclusions were drawn with clear testing. In another two studies carried out by Gregerson and Black (1991 & 1992), they found a positive correlation between interaction with host country nationals and expatriate general adjustment.

Parker and McEnvoy (2003) discovered a positive correlation between general adjustment and cultural novelty. They believe offering the expatriate a chance to clear his/her expectations of moving and working in the new culture before arriving as a determinant to this theory. They explain that before being transferred to the new culture, expatriates should spend time researching and self-preparing for the international assignment. This preparation is thought to minimise the problems associated with adjustment when moving to a foreign country. In contrast, a study by Shaffer et al. (1999) found a negative correlation between cultural novelty and the adjustment of expatriates to the general environment.

Selmer (2000) investigated the connection between practice of career development doings and adjustment to the international country. A total of 343 expatriates, mostly male, married and holding managerial roles from the West that were sent on an international assignment to the Hong Kong. All of which had a total of around eight and half years' experience overseas and all of which lived an average of four years and nine months in Hong Kong. This study did not find a positive correlation between career development doings and expatriate adjustment. Despite there being no positive relationship between career development doings and adjustment of the expatriate to the general environment.

However, the study did find a positive link between career development doings and psychological adjustment. Consequently, that being positively correlated with general adjustment of expatriate. A justification of this outcome may be that career development doings direct to a greater personal welfare, and consequently to an improved expatriate adjust. Yet, the study by Selmer did not show a substantial positive correlation and the statistical approaches used do not demonstrate the progression of casualty. Nonetheless, the research, showed no positive correlation and the statistical methods that were used in this study did not make it probable to display the course of causation.

Fundamental factors that are considered to affect adjustment after arrival at the international country include job role innovation and clarity, job gratification, and role vagueness. In many studies the influence of work roles has been analysed, an example includes the work done by Shaffer et al. (1999) which found a positive relationship between job innovation (novelty) and job role clarity and the adjustment of an expatriate. Also, a study conducted by Bonisep et al. (2003) found a positive correlation between job role clarity and adjustment, interestingly, the found a negative correlation role struggle or conflict and expatriate adjustment. Additionally, Gregersen and Black (1992) found role discretion is considerably positively correlated with the expatriate adjustment. Moreover, they showed a negative correlation between role ambiguity and role conflict with the adjustment.

Shaffer and Harrison (1998) produced reasons for expatriates to leave or end their international assignment . The model produced was used on 452 expatriate in 45 countries. This study looked at 'the role of adjustment', 'the project-based nature of international assignments' and 'the importance of several non-work and family factors' in this departure practice. It was analysed using Multiple regression. The findings showed that work-related aspects of work gratification and company assurance are an important forecasters of expatriate pulling out reasons. Also, this study found a positive correlation between job gratification and adjustment.

Shaffer and Harrison (1998) inspected the connection among spouse adjustment and the adjustment to the new environment in general from both the expatriate themselves and the spouse. The findings showed a substantial positive correlation. In another study discovering spouse adjustment, Shaffer et al. (1999) found spouse adjustment to be

positively correlated to general adjustment. The point that the family has a vital part in expatriate adjustment is also reinforced by Bonsiep et al. (2003) displaying that the adjustment of the family is positively correlated to adjustment.

4.3 ADJUSTMENT TO WORK ENVIRONMENT

In the study of Black (1990) all personality associated aspects ('cultural flexibility, social orientation, willingness to communicate and conflict resolution orientation') that impact adjustment to the general environment also aid adjustment to the work situation. Moreover, Black (1990) revealed a positive association between adjustment to the work environment and the enthusiasm to go on an international assignment overseas.

Feldman and Tompson (1993) investigated empirically the expatriate adjustment to new work or assignment in terms of 'expatriation, repatriation, and domestic geographical relocation.' The Information for this study came from 459 job alterations from 26 countries. By means of ranked multiple regression analysis, the study looked at the influence of some of the most important sets of variables on numerous measures of expatriate adjustment, discovering a positive connection between the capability of working in a multicultural environment and work adjustment.

Experience-Associated Elements in terms of work adjustment, Feldmann, and Tompson (1993) discover significant correlates, as well. The study found that overall there is a positive connection between knowledge or information of overseas work and work-related adjustment.

The finding of the study carried out by Selmer (2002) suggest that there is significant evidence to support that international experience is positively correlated to an expatriate adjustment to work. Their study involved 343 expatriates that were working on an assignment in Hong kong. The finding by Black (1990) and Gregreson and Black (1990) support the findings of Selmer (2002), they saw a clear link between duration spent in a foreign country and work adjustment. They also found a positive relationship between adjust to the work environment and the time expatriates spent with the country nationals.

It is also believed that how an expatriate views of the difference in culture that exists between his own country and that of the foreign country, which is referred to as Cultural novelty or innovation. This factor is believed to slow down the process of adjustment. The bigger the difference between the two cultures as viewed by the expatriate the less the adjustment that will take place. This hypothesis was backed up by Takeuchi et al. (2002). In the study conducted by Takeuchi et al. (2000), another factor that positively links with work adjustment was language abilities. The influence of job clarity on the expatriate's ability to adjust at the new work environment.

The study of Shaffer et al. (1999) shows the impact of role clarity on work adjustment Bonsiep et al., (2003). This positive relationship was also found in the study by Black and Gregersen. Additionally, Bonisep et al. (2003) showed a negative correlation if the culture of the company's culture differs from that of the subsidiary. Therefore, in order to assist the expatriate's adjustment in the overseas adjustment the formation of a worldwide business culture may be beneficial. Also, in this same study a negative relationship between role conflict and ambiguity in the workplace. Furthermore, it was discovered by black and Gregersen (1990) role ambiguity, and role conflict was negatively correlated with adjustment.

Gregersen and Black (1990) obtained in their research that the ability of an expatriate to adjust to work and the hierarchical position are negative linked . Also, ability of expatriate to adjustment to the work environment is touched by the promise to the parent and the local company.

Based on a study by Kraimer et al. (2001) that investigated the effects of 'perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange and spousal support' on the adjustment of expatriates in the work environment, the level of adjustment to the foreign country and finally the adjustment to the local nationals. The first point they looked at was 'perceived organisational support' this meant how the expatriate viewed the support offered by the organisation, how they value the expatriates input and how the organisation looks after the expatriates welfare.

This study suggests that a company's support in the form of cross cultural training, language training and helping with practical elements such as housing will have a positive impact on the expatriates assignment. Kraimer et al.(2001) found that the perceived organisational support is positively linked with the general adjustment of the

expatriate. Another factor , job satisfaction was found to be positively linked to expatriate work adjustment(Shaffer and Harrison, 1998) An additional factor that showed a positive relation with expatriate work adjustment is promotion prospects (Park and McEnvoy, 1993). Furthermore, the work done by Bonisep (2003) shows a positive correlation between work adjustment and family adjustment. Black (1990) support this . therefore one can conclude that family adjustment is positively correlated to the expatriates ability to adjust in the work environment.

4.4 ADJUSTMENT TO INTERACT WITH LOCAL NATIONALS

In the last dimension, adjustment of expatriate with local national will be discussed. As emphasized previously, the study of Black (1990) anticipated in his research a positive link amongst all three factors of adjustment(adjustment to the general environment, adjustment to the work environment and adjust to interacting with local nationals) and the personal dimensions. His findings proved that the personal factors (all five) are in fact positively correlated with adjusting with local nationals.

The only other research that concentrates on personal factors impacting on the expatriate general adjustment is, Parker and McEvoy (1993) they found that sociability is positively related communication adjustment.

Takeuchi et al. (2002) theorized a positive influence of language ability on the three dimensions of expatriate adjustment. Language ability is positively correlated to work adjustment , but not to local, national interaction adjustment, while the research carried out by Shaffer et al. (1999) found that previous international/overseas experience and language ability show positive correlation with local national's adjustment.

A positive correlation between previous information (pre departure) and local, national interaction adjustment (Black, 1990 and Takeuchi et al., 2002). However, Bonsiep et al. (2003) found a negative relationship between previous international experience and local, national interaction adjustment. As explained above the reason for this finding is thought to be that the more experienced an expatriate is, the more likely he is critical to the situation. Parker and McEvoy (1993) also found a positive relationship between previous

information of the overseas country and local, national adjustment. They found the longer the time spent with locals of that country, the better the adjustment. Black (1990) agree with this. Moreover, Gregersen and Black (1990) finding show the longer the expatriate spends with local workers, the more adjusted they are with the locals.

According to Takeuchi et al. (2002),there is a negative correlation between culture innovation and expatriate work adjustment. Unlike Takeuchi et al. (2002) ,Shaffer et al. (1999) found that culture innovation is considerably negatively correlated to local, national interaction adjustment.

A negative correlation was found amongst cultural training and local, national interaction adjustment by two studies (Black Gregersen, 1991 and Bonsiep, 2003). Therefore, the extra time spent on cross cultural training it is thought the less time they have to interact with the local nationals. The researchers highlight that these findings may show that expatriates that have been offered more cultural training inclined to be critical. An additional clarification for this finding could be the deficiency of suitable cross cultural training methods. Shaffer and Harrison (1998) found a positive influence of an expatriate's job satisfaction on the interaction adjustment.

According to Bonsiep et al. (2003), there is a negative relationship between expatriate ability to adjust with the local nationals and the business culture. It shows that if there is a great difference between the parent company and the subsidiary, there will be a negative effect in that case. Gregersen and Black (1990) found in their study a positive correlation amongst adjustment to interact with local nationals and the dedication to the local corporation. Finally, it was found that a substantial influence of one factor of spouse adjustment on the expatriate's ability to interact with the local national's adjustment.

4.5 EXPATRIATE FAILURE

A focus for much discussion amongst researchers has been providing a meaning for expatriate failure. A shared definition for the failure of expatriates is the return of an expatriate from their international assignment. However, many researchers have questioned the accuracy of this definition. Kraimer et al. (2001) believe that a premature return from an international assignment cannot be a means to decide the failure of an expatriate. There have been varying failure rates between expatriates in empirical studies

of expatriation, with inconsistencies in failure rates between different countries. (Forster, 1997 & Harzing, 1995).

In developed countries, the rates vary from 25-40% whereas in developing countries are at a much higher rate of greater than 70% (Buckley and Brooke, 1992). Whereas a study carried out by Tung (1987) showed much lower rates than this. Another study carried out by Oddou (1991) conveyed failure rates of approximately 20% and higher. These questionable failure rates might be due to the fact that previous studies on expatriate failure did see high rates (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). As a consequence of research on expatriation, companies have made changes in order to ensure higher rate of successful assignments.

A minor quantity of firm empirical studies exists on the rates of expatriate failure (Harzing, 1995), and due to the fact these studies have given inconsistent findings, it is not possible to give a true account of expatriate failure rates. There are also contradictory or not reported results regarding the cost of expatriate failure. Self-initiated expatriate costs of failure are rare whereas corporate failures are normally informed. While academics approve that there are direct and indirect expenses associated with the failure of an international assignment (Naumann, 1992), it is not easy to set a particular financial price on the complete cost of an assignment that has failed. The direct costs linked consist of for example the price of relocation, recompense, and also the cost of training a replacement expatriate.

Overall the costs range from 55,000 dollars (Mendenhall et al., 1987) to 1.2 million dollars, for each assignment that is considered to have failed (Ashamalla, 1998). Enderwick & Hodgson (1993) propose that it costs three-fold to employ an expatriate in comparison to hiring a local employee. The reason for such a difference in cost is normally the attractive and appealing package that are offered to expatriates in order to keep the qualified and skilled employees (Enderwick & Hodgson, 1993). The expatriates in the study highlighted that it was problematic to quantify the cost of expatriate international assignment failure, though the costs were substantial (Enderwick & Hodgson, 1993). This proposes the importance of the need to carry out more studies into reducing the failure of international assignments.

The cost of a failed assignments will differ from one company to another, as it depends to what extend the harm done by the expatriate was. Placing a figure on the indirect costs can prove to be difficult. The research proposes that indirect costs comprise: the loss of market share, weakened relations with businesses, and impaired company reputation (Andreason, 2003). In association with failure and cost for the establishment, expatriates may also experience damages such as reduced status between their colleague and low confidence (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Failure of the assignment not only cost the corporation money but it establishes a "human resource waste since most of those who failed had a note-worthy track record in the home office prior to overseas assignment" (Tung, 1987, p. 117).

As failure is unwanted by both companies and expatriates, it is therefore very important to appreciate the numerous reasons that can cause it. While at times failure of an assignment is unavoidable as it may be a result of overpowering factors. The failure of an expatriate can occur can happen at any point of the process.

The studies that have been carried out on the factors that lead to failure of an expatriate international assignment have been indeed great. Premature return of an expatriate has been linked with the incapability to adjust to the new environments culture in both socially and in the workplace (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985 and Tung, 1982). The findings from previous studies frequently concentrate on three main factors: expatriate selection; the lack of cross cultural training and finally the inability of the spouse/ family to adapt to the new setting (Selvarajah, 2009, Selmer, 1999). There are other reasons, for example, insufficient expatriate preparation, raised levels of stress, personality traits, absence of technical incompetence, absence of motivation to work abroad and expatriate emotional maturity (Tung, 1982).

According to Hay's (1974) family/spouse state are most likely the reason for an expatriate assignment to fail. The inability of a spouse or the family to adjust has a big influence on the expatriate assignment. In the study by Tung (1982), the main cause of expatriate failure was spouse/ family related problems. The inability of family or spouse to adjust to the new environment has a tremendous effect on the expatriate job performance and morale. (Harvey, 1985; Mendenhall et al., 1987; Tung, 1982).

In order decrease this reason impacting on the success of expatriate assignment, corporation could integrate spouse and family in both the selection process and the pre departure cross cultural training (Tung, 1982). The incapability of the family to adjust to the new environments culture has a big influence on whether the expatriate succeeds or not an if the family or spouse are not adjusting well and are generally unhappy in the foreign country this will ultimately lead to mental and psychological issues, that will, in turn, deter job performance (Selvarajah, 2009).

Though an expatriate might have all the crucial elements such as highly skilled and qualified for the job if the family does not have the essential skills also to be successful on an international assignment, it is probable that it will result in an incapability to adjust to the culture and therefore leading to expatriate failure on the assignment. To increase the chances of assignment success corporation, need to stress on including the spouse in the selection and the pre departure training. As this allow the corporation to assess the spouses' capabilities of adjusting and also it allows then to facilitate adjustment.

When expatriate preparation is not provided it increases the likelihood of failure on assignment. This is principally relevant in the early phases of an overseas assignment, as corporation put high hopes on expatriates' performance (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986). However, it is the utmost problematic, unclear and challenging time if no training was given to the expatriate.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the different factors that affect the adjustment of an expatriate while on an international assignment. Considering the findings from the literature review it is evident that there is a need for further research that is more current and up to date. It can be determined from the literature review that international assignments are significantly impacted the ability of the expatriate to adjust to the new environment culture (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). From the empirical findings, it can be seen that adjustment culturally is positively correlated to good expatriate job performance yet negatively correlated to the premature return of the expertise from the foreign country.In the recent years research on improving adjustment of an expatriate cross culturally has acknowledged plenteous attention .

Also, the literature reviewed expatriate failure. The current level of expatriate failure is questionable nonetheless studies have emphasised that it is expensive for businesses and that it is mainly triggered by the distress experienced by an expatriate. The leading reason for expatriate failure that has been cited in the literature was the incapability of the expatriate, his/her spouse, and family to effectively adjust to the culture in the new environment. It has been concluded from earlier approaches, that failure of an expatriate can be reduced, though failure is from time to time unavoidable. The next chapter, chapter five, will examine both the quantitative and qualitative approaches and select on the best suitable research method approach for this research. This research is principally based on a qualitative approach, with over the phone/ skype interviews as the elected research design.

CHAPTER FIVE
RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Methodology has at times have been exchangeable with method. Nonetheless, the difference that lies between them point to considerably dissimilar meaning. Methodology is "the overall approach to the research process, from the theoretical underpinning to the collection and analysis of the data", and method is the "various means by which data can be collected and/or analysed" (Collis & Hussey, 2009, p. 73).

Crotty (1998, p. 3) also defines, methods as "the techniques or procedures used to gather and analyse data related to some research questions or hypothesis", while methodology relate to "the strategy, plan of action, process lying behind the choice and use of specific methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes".Which research method is selected impacts the way data is collected and analysed? This enables and decided the result of the research.

This chapter intends to outlines the perspectives adopted and the methods used in the research. Initially, the researcher's philosophy is described, which leads to the approach and strategy employed in the study. This follows with explanations of sampling, data collection and analysis processes, along with motivations behind each. Risks, limitations, and ethical issues are then identified, with the precautions taken to impede them. This chapter is divided as follows: 5.2 Research Paradigm, 5.3 Research approach followed by 5.4 the research methods this then leads to 5.5 the case study strategy, 5.6 participant selection in the research, 5.7 data collection and 5.8 the pilot and 5.9 the data analysis method. This is then followed by 5.10 the limitations and risks and finally, 5.11 ethical consideration and 5.12 the reliability and validity are discussed.

5.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Research paradigms fundamentally reflect our ideas regarding our life in this world (Lather,1986). Founded on this, Guba and Lincoln (1994) differentiate among positivist, post-positivist, and postmodernist query.The reality presumed by positivism is realism, where a reality is presumed to be existent in contrary, post-positivism that assumes that

"realism" is "improperly and probabilistically catchable (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). However, both Postpositivism and positivism are both objectivist.

The precise amount of paradigms and their titles are different according to different authors. Overall the three paradigms, positivism, Interpretivism and critical postmodernism have been approved.

5.2.1 INTERPRETIVISM

Interpretive thinking involves the interpretation of ideas and information already existing in the social world (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012 and Goldkuhl,2012), aiming to "reconstruct them, to understand them, to avoid distorting them, to use them as building blocks in theorising" (Goldkuhl, 2012, p.138). In line with this, the research aim and objectives took an interpretive perspective on expatriate perceptions of their experiences working in Libya, in an effort to understand the meanings and implications behind their everyday realities.The term paradigm originates from the Greek expression "paradigm" meaning arrangement or pattern A paradigm suggests a pattern of framework philosophies, principles and presumption (Olsen, Lodwick, and Dunlop, 1992).

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5.2.2 POSITIVISM

This paradigm been built upon the philosophical ideas of August Comte. This philosopher supposed that to both, perceive, and reason are the best way to comprehend people's actions; accurate information may be gained by perceiving .Positivists accept reality as accurately set and is quantifiable by means of properties that are free thinking of the researcher; knowledge is impartial and quantifiable. (Ali & Farooqi,2014).

Walsham (1995) states that positivist situation uphold that scientific knowledge contains the truths whereas the ontology contemplates certainty as free of societal creation. If the

research study comprises of a steady and static certainty, then the an objectivist viewpoint can be take on. Positivism views behaviour of humans as submissive, operated and decided by the exterior environment.

5.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

This research aims to assess the influence of cross cultural training on an expatriate International assignment from a new perspective; within the Libyan oil and gas construction industry. This is directly linked to the inductive approach; that was used as a developing process to gain a more profound understanding to what exists in the expatriate literature while searching for emerging patterns and finding out what was happening.

It is significant to categorize the research approach as either inductive or deductive. Saunders et al. (2003) distinguished among inductive or deductive research design. One, deductive approaches are recognised as the examining of a particular theory or idea, where the researcher produces a hypotheses or a concept and plans a research approach to test the conveyed theory, two, the inductive approach is recognised as formulating a concept, here researchers begins with gathering data in an effort to produce a theory. It is of great importance to clearly state which approach is intended to be followed in the research. The current research is shaped with the use of an inductive research design. Saunders et al. (2003) distinguished that inductive approach allows the opportunity of a more in depth explanation of what is happening. It has been summarised that the inductive research strategy in four stages: Facts are observed without evaluating their relative importance; Facts are analysed, compared and classified, free from hypothesis about their behaviour or relations; The analysis generalisations are obtained by establishing relationships, and Generalisations should be tested for further analysis.

Much of the censure associated with the inductive strategy are founded on the complications of conducting research without many defined notions of what may be predicted from the data (Blaikie, 2003). The use of data samples that are randomised or not do not symbolise the total populace, consequently the results may be affected by the subjects that are being analysed. Moreover, the investigative tools aren't perfect; each one has limitations or assumptions. Therefore, the results can also be dependent upon

them. The only way to go beyond these limitations is to repeat the research on other samples and with other techniques, continually reviewing the results.

The reason that lies behind deductive research strategy is the opposite of the inductive approach (Blaikie, 2003). The claims made about the two research approaches are very unalike. Creswell (2002) summarised the main dissimilarities among deductive and inductive approaches to research (table 5.1):

Table 5.1: The difference between Inductive and Deductive approaches:

Induction emphasis	Deduction emphasised
Scientific principles	Comprehending closely of the research background
Moving from theory to data	
Gathering quantitative data	Gathering qualitative data
Applications of controls to confirm that data is valid	Adaptable edifice to allow variations of research emphasis as the research develops
Operationalisation of ideas to confirm clearness of meaning	
Highly structured approach	A lesser amount of worry with the requisite to generalise

Creswell ,2002

5.4 RESEARCH METHOD

During the research design, a decision is taken on what method is the most suitable and fitting for the research at hand. The research design for this study is examined through qualitative approach. Qualitative studies incline to analyse data through an inductive approach. An inductive way is employed to help or test hypothetical expectations. As meaning is of vital importance to a qualitative approach (Bogdan and Biklen, 2003).

Qualitative approach, relating to the interpretive philosophy (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011), aims to surface the different perspectives within a certain field, looking at "respondents' meanings and the relationships between them" (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2012, p. 163). In the area of expatriates, many contextual and individual's factors influence their experiences (Littrel et al., 2006). By using the qualitative approach, which is interactive and organic, it allowed these different factors to emerge as the research process unfolded, more fully reflecting the questions and issues required to understand the research problem (Creswell, 2012), and providing a more realistic reflection of what was happening.

Quantitative research is focused on numerical data and statistics, testing theories and examining relationships between variables (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2012). As such it was unsuitable for the research aim and objectives which called for an exploratory route that sought a holistic understanding of how cultural differences impacted expatriates. The study was focused on understanding expatriate experiences, and as humans are complex beings that are not easily understood by quantitative variables (Littrel et al., 2006), a qualitative investigation was most appropriate.

5.4.1 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE METHOD

The choosing a specific methodology needs be based on its appropriateness to meet the research questions (Bryman, 1988). Denzin and Lincoln (2003) proclaimed that qualitative research stresses the course of determining how the societal meaning is built and highlights the link among the researcher and the subject being investigated. On the other hand, quantitative research is founded on the analysis of the relations between variables. Berg (2001) distinguishes qualitative and quantitative research by stating that qualitative research refers to the implications, ideas, meanings, and descriptions, whereas quantitative research refers to the measures of items.

Qualitative and quantitative approaches differ in some main areas,for instance: the objectives and purposes; the queries presented; the method of data collection; data created and level of flexibility (Mack et al., 2005).

Qualitative research takes an interpretative approach involved with comprehending the meaning individuals have to the marvels in their societal setting (Snape and Spenser 2003). Snape and Spenser (2003) illustrated a some basic foundations that differentiate the qualitative approach, for instance, the fact that it gives a more in-depth comprehension of the social setting; qualitative approach is not grounded on large sample; it employs methods of data collection that are more interactive for example interviews; allowing new matters and ideas to be discovered.

Qualitative research is intended to support researchers comprehend individuals, societal and cultural settings that they live in (Myers, 2009). Such research permits the difficulties and variances of the research to be discovered and symbolised (Philip, 1998). In qualitative study, dissimilar understanding claims, query approaches, and data gathering and analysing are engaged (Creswell, 2003).Qualitative data contain participant

interviews, questionnaires, and the investigator's thoughts and responses (Myers, 2009). Data is resultant from i.e. interviews and written views (Sprinthall, Schmutte,and Surois, 1991).

An evident difference among qualitative and quantitative studies is the way data is collected, presented and analysed. Quantitative studies findings are presented by statistical data, whereas qualitative studies presents their findings as explanatory account of what was said in effort to comprehend phenomena in 'natural settings.' Meaning that in qualitative researcher matters are studied in their normal settings, attempting to appreciate and interpret the phenomena in people interpretations (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). Quantitative studies use surveys and experimentations to gather data; data can then be considered by using statistical examination (Hittleman and Simon, 1997). Quantitative research displays the association between the variables using correlations, relative frequencies, or differences between means; Quantitative research concentrates largely on the testing the theory. Additionally, an important difference between them is qualitative studies takes on an inductive method, and quantitative research is deductive. In qualitative studies, a theory or a hypothesis is not necessary to start the research; It uses inductive analysis to give an enhanced knowledge of the interface and to clarify the interrelating realities and knowledges of investigator and respondent (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

In qualitative research, the investigator is believed to be the main tool of data collection and analysis. The investigator engages in the condition, makes sense of the various understandings and interpretations, as many certs are in any context as the investigator and the respondent create their own realities. The researcher aspires to gather the data in a way that is not interfering, so endeavouring to investigate real world circumstances as they are revealed without prearranged restraints or circumstances that regulate the research or its results. The researcher has an active role in building an comprehension of the studies environment by self-clarification. Consequently, qualitative research provides an outcome which is an explanation of the investigators views .

In summary, qualitative research is a methodical review into the value of difficult social group actions by engaging interpretive approaches. Qualitative research is most suitable when the researcher wishes to become more aware with the phenomenon of

concentration, to attain a profound appreciative of how individuals think about a subject and to define in pronounced detail the viewpoints of the study participants.

5.5 THE CASE STUDY APPROACH

The case study is a flexible form of research design, it allows the researcher to maintain the holistic characteristics of real-life events while examining empirical events. A single case study, the NOC in Libya was used in this research and not for example other countries from the Middle East or North Africa since Libya does not have any previous research in the field of cross cultural training in the oil sector and thus, unlike other countries in the region lacks theoretical and empirical literature.

In this research the case study approach was thought of as the most suitable appraoch. First, it offered the research with an a orderly way to gather data, analyse information, and describe the outcomes, therefore allowing the understanding of the specific issue in more depth. Second, a case study is a suitable research approach for this research since it is beneficial in exposing the distinctive insights and worries of the European expatriates in an actual real life situation that would have otherwise been absent in quantitative approaches. The case study design is mostly well matched to circumstances where it is difficult to make a distinction between phenomenon's variables from its setting (Yin, 2003).Third, a case study would be able to convey an understanding of a multifaceted matter and can lengthen experience and strength to prior studies. Case studies give detailed examination of limited measures or settings and their relations.

The case study method has been used in many disciplines by academics. In particular, the field of social science, where qualitative methods have been used to investigate real life situations. A case study targets is to understand people in a societal setting by making interpretations of their behaviour as a lone groups, communities or alone events. Gillham (2000) describes a case study as a study that answers the exact questions of the research or study which look for a variety of indications from the case study. Yin (2003) defines a case study as an empirical analysis that examines a modern phenomenon in its everyday life context.

The case study approach is mostly valued in situations where relating circumstances of the situation being researched are vital also where the investigator does not have control over the situation as it is revealed. All collected data are arranged to reach the best answers to the questions of the study. As a result, the investigator may get an improved understanding as to why a situation or occurrence happened the way it did, and what may come to be important to consider comprehensively in upcoming studies. A case study does not allege to be symbolic, but the focus knowledge can be gained from a particular case (Tellis,1997). The fundamental belief of a case study is that not to verify but to advance (Stufflebeam, Madaus, & Kellaghan, 2000). Research through case studies has faced much criticism on the basis that it is not representative and does not have statical substance .

The detailed qualitative descriptions frequently created in case studies help to discover or define the findings in real life situations. Also, they aid to clarify the difficulties of real life situations which may not otherwise be caught through experimentation or through surveys. Those that criticise this method believe that when studying a small amount if cases this would give no basis for reliability or the study of a small number of cases can offer no grounds for forming reliability. Others believe that the case study method is only valuable as an exploratory tool. Nevertheless, academics continue to employ the case study method in research with achievement and success in carefully designed research of existent real life situations or problems.

5.6 PARTICIPANT SELECTION

Interviewees were selected using a non-random method where purposeful sampling was used, here data-rich participants are chosen for study (Patton, 2002). Purposeful sampling occurs when the researcher chooses participants (a sample) from which the greatest can be discovered (Merriam, 1998). A standard email was forwarded by the NOC to all European expatriate employees requesting their participation in this research. All relevant information was accompanied and the researchers email and a consent form was included. All expatriates that where interested to participate sent an email to notify the researcher.

A total of 32 participants were used for this research they were all European expatriates that have been employed by the NOC in Libya. European expatriates, in particular, were

chosen in this research as they are one of the largest ethnic groups working at the NOC. European expatriates represent approximately 38% of the total expatriates at the NOC (NOC, 2013). According to data received from the NOC in 2015, a total of 29 different European nationalities are working at the NOC in Libya (see table 5.2). In this research Europeans working at the NOC in Libya are representing the Western culture and Libya has been chosen to exemplify a non-Western culture.

Table 5.2: A breakdown of European expatriate numbers and nationalities at the NOC in 2015.

Nationality	Number
Italy	46
Germany	3
United Kingdom	110
Holland	7
Austria	2
Norway	2
Malta	25
Ireland	6
Denmark	1
France	9
Cyprus	2
Spain	27
Portugal	2
Greece	2
Siberia	81
Poland	26
Slovakia	2
Romania	54
Turkey	8
Ukraine	42
Croatia	15
Yugoslavia	28

Bulgaria	6
Czech Republic	1
Bosnia	30
Russia	1
Hungary	1
Montenegro	2
Macedonia	1
TOTAL	**542**

NOC, 2015

As the research required an exploration of individual perceptions, gathering comprehensive data of thoughts and experiences, a small sample size was considered sufficient. Interviewing 32 respondents allowed for detailed, qualitative data to be collected as well as permitting more time to be devoted to interviewing, transcribing and analysing. Using a larger number of participants would not only have been unfeasible but would have cast a shallow net that only scratched the surface of the situation being studied; preventing the use of exploratory questions that were needed to sufficiently answer the research aim and objectives.

5.7 DATA COLLECTION: INTERVIEWS

Standardised; open-ended interviews were used in this research; this method enables quicker interviews that can be more straightforwardly analysed and contrasted. Due to the security problems in Libya at the time of this research telephone interviews were carried out. Expatriate were not in Libya at the time of the interviews. They were mostly in the neighbouring countries, Malt, Tunisia or in their home countries waiting to be called back to work as soon as it was safe to do so.

There is a variety of qualitative methods to collect data; the main ones, for instance, individual interviews, focus groups and observations. Individual interviews were chosen for the research because the focus of the study is on the impact of CCT on expatriate experiences, through individual perceptions. Furthermore, as culture involves personal values and beliefs, it can bring up sensitive issues, which are better suited to one-on-one interviews. In a focus group, respondents may hold back their true thoughts or feel social pressure to give a certain answer, hampering the quality of the data obtained. Observation

involves watching and interpreting respondent behaviour. However, the research called for detailed insights into respondents' thoughts and perceptions, and thus individual interviews were most useful, gaining direct input from respondents.

Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) define different forms of qualitative interviews: 'informal, conversational interview, general interview guide approach and standardised open-ended interview'. Informal conversational interview involves an unprompted and natural interaction. General interview guide approach is organised but also informal as interviews are adapted according to each circumstance.

Both these methods provide flexibility to obtain information that is likely to produce genuine and interesting findings. However, they lack consistency and are therefore less reliable (Turner, 2010). Standardised open-ended interviews are structured in the way questions are asked, where each respondent is asked the same set of questions. However they are phrased so that answers are open ended, and the investigator has the chance to ask any follow-up questions (Gall, Gall, and Borg, 2003). This method was proven to be most appropriate to the research. The structure ensured consistency and therefore reliability, and it provided data that was directed towards the research aim and objectives, making the findings relevant and comparable. While the use of open-ended questions allowed for the qualitative exploration required. In addition, it allows expatriates to explain the experiences that they had of cross cultural interactions in as much detail. It enabled the collection of all the information required to make this research as rich and detailed as possible. Rossman and Rallis (1998) state that interviews which are in depth allow the researcher to carry out a "guided conversation with a goal of eliciting from the interviewee rich, detailed materials" (p. 18).

The main benefit of using interviews instead of methods, for instance, surveys was that they provided a much more thorough and comprehensive understanding of the situation; however, they did present challenges. Gaining cognitive access to the information required was essential, and was achieved using effective, appropriate interpersonal skills, making the respondent feel comfortable and relaxed throughout the process. Other precautions used to counter any limits to cognitive access included the use of non-academic, but professional, language to ensure understanding by all respondents. Additionally, credibility was maintained through a thorough understanding of expatriate

processes, established through previous conversations with expatriates as well as extensive research undertaken for the literature review.

Phone (& skype) interviews were chosen as they gave the researcher the chance to enquire voiced prompts to achieve more comprehensive, responses that are improved in their description. Also, it allowed the expatriates to portray what is significant or essential to them in the expatriates own words. Furthermore, it was possible to collect detailed information that may have been considered as "sensitive" because of the relaxed tone an interview can have. Particular issues may be discovered in more deepness through probes; interviews can bring light to specific answers that may not have been possible in, for example, a survey. Moreover, Interviews can be modified or adjusted to certain individual situation. Additionally, an interviewer can use their understanding, knowledge and social skills to promote and discover unplanned thoughts or themes raised up by the expatriates that relates to the aim of the research. Lastly, the prospect to give details or explain questions would rise the accurateness of the collected data.

The interviews carried out took place over the phone (or skype) predominantly since majority of the European expatriates were not present in Libya at the time of the research due to the recent turmoil in the country. All interviews are aimed to be completed within one hours. Interviews will be taped with the consent of the expatriate, then transcribed for the purpose of data analysis. Although the use of a recorder can sometimes hinder answers (Coolican, 2014), this was negated through anonymity that was fully explained and emphasised. Prior to the interview respondents were emailed a project information sheet provided to all the expatriates before the interview, which lessened any reservations they may have had as well giving them an idea of what to expect in the interview. A copy of the interview questions can be found in the Appendix. The questions are structured according to the objectives, with main questions and sub-questions. Alongside these are additional notes that acted as a memo for the researcher, linking the questions to key themes found in the literature review.

The procedure of carrying out the interviews, that has been suggested by various academics (Malhotra and Birks, 2007), and implemented in this research is defined as follows: Each selected interviewee was contacted by email/ telephone to arrange a mutually suitable time convenient for the expatriate and the researcher to conduct the

interview. The questions asked during the interview consisted of open-ended questions to produce as much information as possible.

At the start of the interview, the expatriate was thanked for participating and giving his time also; the expatriate was informed and assured in regards to any concerns about confidentiality. Each expatriate was asked if he they give consent to record the interview. Every interview was began by asking the interviewee a general question and questions regarding the topic being researched. All attempt was made to get interviewees to communicate their own thoughts naturally in their own words. During the interview, the interviewees were encouraged to give answers that were meaningful and throughout the interview when required they were asked for explanation and clarification on some questions. For instance, remarks such as: "why do you think that"? "Can you elaborate please"? "What form did that take"? so on. The expatriates at the end of the interview where asked if they would like to ask any questions or if they had anything they would like to add to their responses. A brief overall summary of the interview was verbally communicated to the expatriate. Each interview ended by thanking the expatriate for their time and participations additionally gratitude was conveyed for the collaboration. After completing the interview, it was transcribed to ensure all data collected in the both the written and verbal form was not lost also to avoid misinterpretation of the information collected.

Due to financial constraints, the researcher transcribed the interviews. This presented the risk of researcher bias and reduced reliability. However, the researcher assumed a neutral position when transcribing, and made all efforts to ensure accuracy of transcription; re-listening and rechecking all transcriptions several times.

5.8 PILOT

A pilot interview was conducted with two European expatriate prior to final interviews. Data collected from this interview was not counted in the final data analysis; rather it was used to determine any weaknesses and limitations of the interview design and allowed the researcher to make adjustments accordingly (Kvale, 2008 and Bowden and Green, 2005). As a novice researcher, it proved to be an advantageous exercise to refine the final interview questions and style and ensure the recording device worked sufficiently.

Following the pilot, a few questions that weren't clear enough were adjusted, and some were added, ensuring a comprehensive and clear set of final questions. Note-taking

proved to be distracting for the respondent, and thus it was decided that notes would be taken after each interview. Finally, the feedback from the respondent regarding the interview style showed it was too interrogational, and consequently, the researcher adopted a more conversational style, allowing responses to flow naturally, encouraging more detailed and genuine answers.

5.9 DATA ANALYSIS

In this research, the analysis process included both thematic analysis and coding. Thematic analysis was used for finding, analysing and re-coding patterns and themes within the data (Braun and Clarke, 2008), appropriate to the induction approach. Additionally, coding, adapted from Strauss and Corbin (2008) was used to classify the data into categories relevant to the research aim and objectives. Table 5.4 outlines the steps taken in the data analysis process, along with a description and practical application of each step.

Thematic analysis is an inclusive process .Worthy qualitative research desires to be able to obtain explanations and be constant with the data that is gathered. With this, Thematic Analysis is able to identify and recognise, for example, elements that affect any matters made by the participants. Consequently, the participants' explanations are important in regards to providing the most fitting explanations for their actions, and views (Creswell, 2003).

Thematic Analysis offers the prospect to code and categorise data into themes. For instance, how certain matters effect the perceptions of participants. The analysis process would comprise of coding, grouping and recording patterns (Braun and Clarke, 2006), moreover to offer a connection between the variables and elements to make a rational and sound sequence of evidence (Creswell, 2009).

Although there is no set formula for analysing qualitative data, a robust process is required to thoroughly organise, scrutinise and analyse the data until a satisfactory level of exploration is reached, and theories can be drawn from it (Coolican, 2014).
Thematic analysis is a method for recognising, examining, and describing themes in data. But, it also often goes more by interpreting many parts of the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998). Qualitative methods are very varied and multifaceted, and thematic analysis must

be seen as an initial method for qualitative analysis. One of the advantages of thematic analysis is its flexibility.

Analogously of the European expatriates was achieved by giving each expatriate a code based on their nationality, for example, A Bosnian expatriate was referred to as Bos and this followed by a number representing frequency of that nationality (e.g. Bos1, Bos2, etc.). A summary of the codes for all the different expatriate nationalities are presented in table 6.2.

Once all 32 interviews were recorded and transcribed. The data was coded. Coding every other sentence of the transcript with grips that detect keywords, ideas, and likenesses. Coding is a clear process where the investigator will alter and modify the analysis as mirrored by the data and as concepts arise. According to Boyatzis (1998, p.10), a "good code" is one that takes in the qualitative wealth of the occurrence. To make sure of the reliability of the codes and that they have not been misunderstood the investigator read carefully the data, ensuring the codes are consistent and valid.

The assimilation of the codes from the data collected is where the themes then emerged. Themes emerged from patterns, such as conversation topics and vocabulary. Each theme was defined sufficiently so that it is clear. Finally, each theme is described and illustrated with quotes from the transcript to aid communicate its meaning. A summary of the data analysis process is summarised in the table (5.3) below.

Table 5.3 Data analysis process:

PROCESS	DESCRIPTION	PRACTICAL APPLICATION
Becoming familiar with the data at hand	Transcribe and read data carefully, and record initial ideas.	Transcribing interviews to word documents, recording key variables, going through interview notes.
Generating initial codes/open coding	Systematically examining interview transcripts and defining salient categories that emerge, collating	Defining categories according to research objectives, interview questions, and findings.

	relevant data to each category.	
Identification of themes	Organising categories, collecting all data applicable to the different categories, synthesising and refining. Identifying potential themes.	Transferring and collating data into word documents titled according to categories. Identifying key themes according to research objectives and findings.
Prioritising themes/Axial coding	Interconnecting and prioritising categories into themes.	Developing and organising theme folders and prioritising them. Creating a virtual 'map', using documents and folders.
Refining themes/ selective coding	Refine themes and general idea expressed by analysis, producing distinct explanations and names of themes.	Defining overall story and terminology of themes in one single document used as framework when writing final report.
Produce report	Final analysis of data. Selection of rich and interesting extracts, relating back to research question and literature.	Writing of final report, selecting key quotes, integrating literature and research questions

Braun and Clarke 2008, Strauss and Corbin, 2008 and Creswell ,1997

5.10 LIMITATIONS AND RISKS

According to Coolican (2004), sampling should be representative of the population. In this study, the population was defined as European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya. However, the small number of cases selected did present a generalisability risk. This is because it was not possible to know how the results could be generalised across different situations and to the broader population of expatriates in Libya. However, the research aimed to generalise to theory rather than to populations, which not only reduces

this drawback but is also appropriate to the rationale of contributing to the literature on expatriation.

Reliability is a further concern relating to qualitative research, and relates to the ability of the data collection and analysis process to give reliable outcomes if repeated again different investigator or different time (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2012). As the research involved interpretive data collection and analysis, reliability was a potential limitation. However, through the use of standardised questions in this research throughout the interviews reliability was enhanced considerably. Additionally, it can also be presumed that when conducting qualitative research, the results are not supposed to be repeatable because they mirror the actuality of the that condition, that is clearly open to change (Marshall and Rossman, 2006), and consequently it would impractical to suggest the research be repeated. The research process has also been documented well in order for others to understand the methods employed and be able to reanalyse the findings (Marshall and Rossman, 2006).

Validity refers to "the degree to which the data and interpretation fit the situation" (Lapan, Quartaroli & Riemer,2012 p. 84). In agreement with this throughout the interviews in this research, efforts were made to completely comprehend the information as it was intended by the respondent, through making sure questions are clear, supporting complete responses, and confirming responses. However, as the researcher adopted an interpretive method, investigator subjectivity becomes part of the procedure, adding towards the meaning produced. Nevertheless, an incorporation of quantitative methods could have improved the validity and generalisability of the study.

One of the drawbacks was the willingness of respondents to partake; it meant the respondents could have had predisposed opinions towards the research topic. Also, the connection amongst the researcher and participant may affect the outcome of the data collection process, and presents the issue of bias both in terms of the researcher and respondent. Characteristics of the researcher, cues towards the researcher's expectations or desired results, as well the inclination to follow social norms, may all influence how the respondents respond (Coolican, 2014). To mitigate these tendencies great care was taken in concealing the researcher's own opinions, conducting the interview in an open and neutral way and avoiding the use of questioning that might have led the respondent

to provide an answer that is more socially acceptable. This was followed with an acute and thorough analysis to further make sure any bias responses were not included in the final discussion.

Using interviews instead of methods, for example, surveys was that they gave a much more thorough and comprehensive understanding of the situation; yet, they did present challenges. Gaining cognitive access to the information required was essential. This was overcome and achieved by using effective, appropriate interpersonal skills, making the respondent feel comfortable and relaxed throughout the process. Other precautions used to counter any limits to cognitive access included the use of non-academic, but professional, language to ensure understanding by all respondents. Additionally, credibility was maintained through a thorough understanding of expatriate processes, established through previous conversations with expatriates as well as extensive research undertaken for the literature review.

Interview location and time presented challenges for the researcher as expatriate's place of work could not be accessed for interviews, and respondents were only available over the phone. This meant that respondents would not be distracted or uncomfortable with sharing information or concerned that their responses could be overheard, thereby preventing respondent bias. Interviews took place at a time chosen by respondents that best suited them; this ensured the respondent performed sufficiently and reduced the likelihood of respondent error (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012 and Turner, 2010).

5.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

 Ethical matters are highest were human respondents are included (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012), and consequently are a central point for the study. significant parts of ethical consideration were recognised: 'Harm to respondents, consent, confidentiality, and trust' (Silverman, 2010). Harm refers to any risks to emotional, mental or physical wellbeing, including embarrassment, discomfort and stress (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2012). This was evidently not a problem in this study.

Consent or 'informed consent', which means the participants have the right to know that they are part of the research, to know the nature of the study and to inform them that they

are able to withdraw at any time they wish. (Silverman, 2010). In this research this was attained by the completion of a consent form, which was accompanied with an information sheet and emailed to respondents prior to conducting the interviews. The information sheet included a general introduction to the research project, explaining its purpose and context, what was required of respondents and any risks associated to taking part. It also informed the respondents that they could withdrawal consent at any time and that a recording device would be used to record the interview. The consent form was signed by both respondent and researcher, acknowledging that both were conscious of the conditions of the interview while also recording the respondents' consent to be interviewed.

Anonymity was upheld throughout the process and in the presentation of the results. Analogously of the European expatriates was achieved by giving each expatriate a code based on their nationality, for example, A Bosnian expatriate was referred to as Bos and this followed by a number representing frequency of that nationality (e.g. Bos1, Bos2, etc.). (Table 6.2). This was done in order to ensure disassociation between respondents and their employers, guaranteeing no confidentiality arrangements between them were breached. Anonymity also meant that respondents felt more at ease and were more likely to divulge information because it was guaranteed that their comments would not be attributed to them (Coolican 2014). As anonymity was kept, confidentiality was not an issue. In line with maintaining anonymity the researcher ensured, there was no material that would make the individual recognisable directly, making the material unidentifiable by all persons but by the participant themselves. All the conditions were outlined in the information sheet and the consent form.

Trust signifies the link between a researcher and the participant (Silverman, 2010). In this light, the researcher upheld deference and confidentiality for all participants throughout, maintained honesty and objectivity throughout the process and avoided all shades of deception or misrepresentation. The researcher consistently upheld responsibility for the accuracy of the report, ensuring it correctly reflected the intended responses through a robust transcription and analysis process. This being a qualitative study, a deep interaction between the researcher and the participants is necessary, therefore coming into their personal space. Silverman (2000) prompts investigators that they must recall that when

performing their research, they are coming close to a sensitive and private domain of their participants. Justifiably, this raises numerous ethical issues that must be addressed.

Creswell (2003) affirms that the investigator has a requirement to respect the human rights, requirements, beliefs and requests of the respondents. Miles and Huberman (1994) presented some problems that investigators ought to ponder when analyzing data. They advise investigators to be mindful of these and other matters throughout the research had been conducted. Cultural sensitivity is a typically unpredicted worry regarding ethical issues. Silverman (2000) claims that the link between the researcher and the participant throughout an interview needs to be thought of in regards to the values of the investigator and cultural features.Consequently, suitable ethical guidelines must be followed to maintain participants' confidentiality and anonymity.

5.12 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability is considered as the constancy of outcomes in relation to data collection methods and analysis. By using the same processes in similar contexts, other investigators would be able to achieve similar outcomes. Therefore it is usually considered as the likelihood to be able to repeat the results of the study (Yin, 2003).

Validity refers to the accuracy of the research carried out, for the attainment of unambiguous results (Maylor & Blackmon, 2005). Saunders et al. (2009) states that "is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be." Though, reliability and validity in the research should be regarded in terms consistently with the research method.

Reliability and validity are important measures to ensure the quality of the study. Though, these are more applicable to quantitative studies. The quality principles for qualitative methods became the subject of debate between various researchers. (Bryman Alan, 2012). Some researchers assume that for assessing, the quality of qualitative studies certain standards need to be used.

The thoughts of reliability and validity are discussed in regards to qualitative studies. "Reliability usually refers to the degree to which the findings of a study are independent of accidental circumstances of their production (Silverman, 2006, p. 282)". Frequently,

the ability to replicate is surrounded in the conception of reliability; that is future research likelihood to acquire similar outcomes when carrying out comparable research. Reliability refers to similar measurements and outcomes in qualitative methods in comparison to qualitative method, where the subject of reliability is more complex. Daymon and Halloway (2011) take into account that in order to have a reliable qualitative study the whole process needs to be carefully recorded. In this research a detailed description of what methods was used to collect the data and why, a description of the interview question design and what criterion was used for choosing the expatriates, in order to protect the accuracy of collected data interviews were recorded, and clear explanation of conclusions is offered. Nonetheless, taking into account that it is extremely rare for qualitative researchers to achieve or obtain the same outcomes in addition to producing the similar situations and circumstances. Further, it is believed that the idea of validity is more important in the case of qualitative study than the idea of reliability (Daymon and Halloway ,2011). Consequently, in the next paragraph, an emphasis will be made on validity as the key measure for research quality.

The notion of validity can be separated: "to construct or measurement validity, internal validity, and external validity". Though, construct validity "is the extent to which a measure really reflects the corresponding concept (Baumgarten, 2010, p. 4)" which is not as common as internal validity. "Internal validity serves to ensure that assumed causal connections between independent and dependent variables are actually responsible for the observed phenomena (Baumgarten, 2010, p. 4)".

Bryman Alan (2012) propose that internal validity may be thought of as the key and most evident criterion when it comes to qualitative research this is because investigators spend a lengthy time in the societal group during observation of the occurrence. Consequently, researchers or the investigators conclusion are very dependable and trustworthy. "External validity expresses the generalizability of the findings beyond the specific research context (Baumgarten, 2010, p.4)."Another way to view external validity is the degree to which the outcomes of the research can be applied to other situations (Merriam, 2009, p. 223). The primary aim of this research is to evaluate the influence of cross cultural training on European expatriate's assignment at the National Oil Corporation in Libya. In view of, the fact that this area was unexplored before in Libya and in the Oil industry, in particular, conclusions cannot be fully generalized. Instead, the research aim

is to find the potential association between, CCT and expatriate assignment and thus, develop new conclusions built on the analysis of specific cases. Subsequently, outcomes can be tested and promote development by other researchers.

The European expatriates from the NOC provided a chance to interconnect with each of the expatriates and hence, get the most comprehensive and detailed account possible. The interviews gave an entrance to the expatriates understanding and experience and to comprehend what the expatriate wishes to communicate. Therefore, validity is accomplished by precise interviews which have clear questions; meanings are examined, and matters are confronted from diverse viewpoints (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher and expatriate bias might cause a potential risk to the reliability and validity of the research; however, this is avoidable by employing a careful approach when designing the interviews. Preparation and design, are key for the quality of data collection and signifies, together with the trustworthiness that the researcher is able to implant in the expatriates, a reason for the research's reliability and validity (Saunders et al., 2009).

In this research, the researcher put all effort in order to avoid the risk to reliability, through an accurate research design, a justification of the for methods choices.
A complete literature review with the key theories regarding the subject was conveyed prior to conducting the interviews to improve the researcher's credibility by becoming familiar with the area researched and developing sufficient understanding of the subject. Additionally, this helped with the validity of the research because it allowed the investigator to gain a sense of path when articulating the questionnaire in addition to creating links. Furthermore, for the gathering of reliable and valid data, a pilot interview was carried out to test the understanding of questions, and the recording of interviews and transcription was carried out to ensure a detailed analysis.

In order to avoid bias from both ends, and to encourage reliability and validity, some precaution were carried out. The expatriates were provided with all necessary information before the interview in order for them to understand the purpose of the research. This permitted for the expatriate to prepare for the discussion. Interview questions were expressed in such a way as to grasp experiences of the expatriates in Libya and were presented as naturally as possible. Additionally, a copy of the questions was sent to the expatriates to allow time to comprehend their fully understand the questions; this would

also help in potentially avoid bias. At the completion of each interview, the researcher briefly went over the main points that the expatriates raised.

Furthermore, the expatriates had the chance to ask for clarifications. Moreover, as an effort to remove any bias, the interviews began with the researcher reminding the expatriate of the anonymity and confidentiality in hope to raise their confidence and trust and remove any doubts in distribution of data. The expatriates all decided on the timing of the interviews so that it would be suitable for their circumstances and therefore would be more comfortable in expressing their thought and their experiences; this anticipated to rise the access to more information from the expatriates, consequently boosting the validity of the study.

5.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The objectives of this chapter were to outlines the research perspectives adopted and the methods used in the study. It can be concluded that this research is an interpretive case research that is analysed largely through a qualitative approach. Qualitative researchers are more likely to analyse data inductively; this was the case in this study. The exploratory approach adopted in the research is aimed at responding to the call from Littrel et al. (2006) for more qualitative research into the challenges faced by expatriates on an international assignment, to help round out the picture painted by the quantitative research.

After the above considerations, the philosophical assumptions inspiring this research are mostly from interpretivism. Interpretive approaches allowed the researcher better scope to attend to the issue of influence and impact, and to question 'why' and 'how' (Deetz, 1996). The qualitative approach is more appropriate than quantitative designs in such a research as it provides the vision essential to comprehend the expatriates' part in such an event and their insights of the experience. Individual interviews were chosen for the research because the focus of the study is on the extent of the impact of CCT on expatriate experiences, through individual perceptions. Furthermore, as culture involves personal values and beliefs, it can bring up sensitive issues, which are better suited to one-on-one interviews. In the analysis process, both thematic analysis and coding were used. Thematic analysis was used for finding, analysing and re-coding patterns and themes

within the data (Braun and Clarke 2008), appropriate to the induction approach. Finally, Risks, limitations, and ethical issues were identified. In the following chapter, chapter Six will present the study findings and the data analysis for this research.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

6.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, findings are examined and are structured according to the research objectives. This research focuses on the National Oil Corporation in Libya. As mentioned previously the data required for this research is mostly qualitative, with interviews the preferred research design. There are two key reasons for the selection of in depth interview as a means of data collection for the current research. One it provides a guide throughout the interview allowing for the opportunity the researcher to ask more questions (Bryman and Bell, 2007) and consequently obtaining more in depth information where required. Two, it permits the expatriates to describe the experiences of cross culture from their own perspective in as much detail as much detail as possible. (Rosman and Rallis, 1998). This will enable the researcher to gain as much rich, in detail account from the expatriate's themselves giving a true insight into the situation. Rossman and Rallis (1998) state that in depth interview permits researchers to carry out a "guided conversation with a goal of eliciting from the interviewee rich, detailed materials" (p. 18).

To create findings that are valid, Sackmann (2001) said that it is essential to gain a full and comprehensive understanding of the culture from an expatriate's point of view. After transcribing and analysing the interviews, any parts that required additional detail or clarification were written down, and the European expatriates were contacted accordingly.Giving a rich account of the responses and gave thorough reports.

The expatriates used for this research were European working at the NOC in Libya. European expatriates, in particular, were chosen for this research as they are one of the largest ethnic groups working at the NOC. In 2015 a total of 542 European expatriates worked at the NOC (NOC, 2015). Europeans working at the NOC in Libya were selected to portray the Western culture and Libya had been selected to portray the non-Western culture.

In the first part of the chapter the foundation for the research are set, with the main variables from the interviews (6.1). Following this, objective two is investigated, looking at organisational preparation, training, and support; succeeding with objective three, the

importance of CCT. Subsequently, objective four discovers the influence of training the expatriate on the success and or failure of the European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya. Finally, objective one of this research explores the potential impact of cultural difference and Cross cultural adjustment on European expatriate assignment (Table 6.1).

The chapter was, therefore, organised as follows: (6.2) Organisational preparation, training and support. Here, three parts have been discussed, firstly, the preview trip (6.2.1), secondly, the practical support provided and how the expatriates perceived that (6.2.2) and finally the personal support from the local Libyan employees working alongside the expatriates (6.2.3). Subsequently, (6.3) Importance of CCT. In this section, three parts have been reviewed, first, pre departure training, second, the post arrival training and lastly, it looks at the language training. Following this the third category is studied; (6.4) Impact of CCT on the success & failure of an international assignment. The final category to be examined is (6.5) the impact of CCT on the adjustment of European expatriates in Libya. This category was divided into first, personal traits (6.5.1), next, international experience is discussed (6.5.2), and subsequently, family life (6.5.3).

Table 6.1 Main categories and research question.

Category	Research question
Organisational preparation, training, and support.	What are the expatriate perceptions of organisational preparation, training, and support? (Objective 2)
Cross cultural training (CCT).	Why do expatriates need Cross cultural training? (objective 3)
The impact of CCT on the success or failure of an international assignment.	What are the causes of expatriate assignment to succeed or fail? (objective 4)
The impact of CCT on the adjustment of European expatriates in Libya.	What are the impacts of cultural differences and cultural adjustment on the expatriate assignment? (objective 1)

6.1 KEY VARIABLES

In the Table 6.3 a summary of the key variables of the European expatriates. The key variables in this table are important as they illustrate the similarities and differences in assignment conditions of each expatriate, while also providing further context. Although expatriates had a range of different job roles, this did not seem to have any significant impact on Cross cultural adjustment. This could be because all European expatriates were working in the same industry and involved with similar projects, so job variables and conditions were expected to be similar.

Additionally, all except two expatriate were working in similar work locations, on-site (the desert). These two expatriate (Scot1, Scot4) were based in the town of Benghazi; they also worked on site at times. What is interesting about this variable is that these expatriate are the ones who reported to be unhappy with working and living in Libya, and indicated strong withdrawal cognition. The reasons for this appeared to be because they didn't feel like they fit in well it was "very boring" (Scot1).

They had to interact more with local people, and they found this difficult. The findings would suggest that this may be because at certain times he wasn't working within the desert with the remaining of the expatriates, and therefore less involved socially and more isolated socially. Also, none of the expatriates had family with them, and this also had its side effects. Bringing family's after the revolution in 2011 was simply not an option due to security. Although this is a not cultural factor, it indicates that work variables are an important factor to consider in adjustment, including the office location, the type of project and the level of involvement the expatriate has with the project. This is supported by two expatriates (Scot1, Scot4).

All, but the two expatriates (Scot1&Scot4) were on rotation. This meant that they spent 28 days in Libya and then they were free to travel home for another 28 days. All expatriates did not receive any training prior to arriving to Libya (pre-departure training). Some expatriates did receive health and safety training after arriving no training of any kind was given on, for example, the machinery, etc. All expatriates had similar levels of interaction with Libyan local employees. All expatriates had been in Libya for 12 months or over, and overall all reported a similar stage of adjustment, as well as familiarity to Libya. These four factors propose that expatriates would have been faced with a

comparable levels of cultural challenges when arriving and when being interviewed, as they all had limited experience of Libya before arriving, except for Scot1 who come to Libya in 1980s, all reported to be in a similar stage of adjustment, and all had similar interactions with Libyans. Throughout this chapter, expatriates are named according to their country of birth. Table 6.2 displays the codes used for each expatriate.

Table 6.2 Expatriates codes

Scot	Bos	Eng	Ger	Pol	Ital	Fren	Ukr	Mal
Scotland	Bosnia	England	Germany	Poland	Italy	France	Ukraine	Malta

6.2 PREPARATION, TRAINING, AND SUPPORT

Expatriate perceptions of organisational preparation, support and training are explored in this section, specifically in terms of practical aspects. Practical preparation and support discusses preview trips together with practical and personal support post arrival (Table 6.4). Hands-on practical training can support expatriates to adapt to the social and work environments. When expatriates can resolve issues such as accommodation, transportation, and grocery shopping problems easily, it will assist the expatriate to focus more on their work. Practical support from the NOC was considered sufficient by the majority of expatriates except for two (Ger3 and Fren1). They appeared dissatisfied with the practical support provided to them. This was not because they weren't provided with the same amenities, but because they found the processes to organise these to be:

 "very much unsupported" (Ger3).

It was more *"fend for yourself" (Fren1),* as opposed to been given assistance to set up the basic services, such as *"to find a car, to set up mobile phone sim card" (Ger3).* These tasks proved to be difficult to manage due to the language and cultural barriers, and as a result caused expatriates stress and anxiety in the first few months because they had to figure everything out for themselves. One expatriate believed:

 "It was a steep learning curve" (Ger3).

Table 6.3 *key variables.*

Respondent code	Scot1	Scot2	Scot3	Scot4	Bos1	Ger1	Ger2	Ger3	Ger4	Eng1	Eng2	Pol1	Pol2	Ital1	Ital2	Ital3	Fren1
Job Role	supervisor	Engineer	Tech	Engineer	Engineer	Engineer	Engineer	Engineer	Engineer	supervisor	Engineer	Tech	Engineer	Engineer	Engineer	Tech	Tech
Rotation/ Full-time (FT)	**Rotation& FT**	Rotation	Rotation	**Rotation & FT**	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation
Work Place (office/desert)	**both**	Des	Des	**both**	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des
Interaction with Libyan local employees (LE)	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE
Living condition	**studio**	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	**studio**	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)
Length of Stay over 12 months	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Respondent code	Scot5	Scot6	Scot7	Bos2	Bos3	Bos4	Bos5	CZR1	Bul1	Pol3	Pol4	Pol5	Eng3	Eng4	Mal1
Job Role	supervisor	Engineer	Engineer	Engineer	Engineer	Tech	Engineer	Engineer	Tech	supervisor	Engineer	Tech	Engineer	Engineer	Tech
Rotation/ Full-time (FT)	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation	Rotation & full time	Rotation
Work Place (office/desert)	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des	Des
Interaction with Libyan local employees (LE)	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE	LE
Living condition	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	Room (toilet)	studio	Room (toilet)
Length of Stay over 12 months	yes	Yes	yes	yes	yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Table 6.4 organisational preparation, training and support

code	Scot1	Scot2	Scot3	Scot4	Bos1	Ger1	Ger2	Ger3	Ger4	Eng1	Eng2	Pol1	Pol2	Ital1	Ital2	Ital3	Fren1
Preview trip provided by the NOC	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Practical support satisfaction Satisfied(S) Dissatisfied (D)	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	D	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	D

code	Scot5	Scot6	Scot7	Bos2	Bos3	Bos4	Bos5	CZR1	Bul1	Pol3	Pol4	Pol5	Eng3	Eng4	Mal1
Preview trip provided by the NOC	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Practical support satisfaction Satisfied(S) Dissatisfied (D)	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	D	D	D	S	S	S	S	S

It is clear from the interview data collected that none of the European expatriates had an opportunity to visit Libya before working there, no preview trips by the NOC we organised. It was evident that most of the expatriates believed that something of this kind would have been greatly beneficial.

"It would have been great, to be honest; it would have given me a basic idea of what to expect" (fren1).

"Having the chance to come to Libya before starting the job would have allowed a chance to set up contacts in and out of work." (Scot 4).

(Scot1) had experienced life in Libya. Although his preview trip was not organised by the NOC as he was working in Libya prior to his contract with the NOC. It proved particularly useful for the expatriate because at the time (1981) he had young children, it allowed his family to see where they would be living with the children. It gave him an opportunity to visit the British school in Benghazi where he intended to register his two children.

Although the positives of a preview trip were supported by this expatriate; there were also opposing views one expatriate (Eng1) who experienced this in a previous assignment abroad in Malaysia. He found that the trips were too short and rushed to be beneficial,

"It is very limited what you see''.

The effectiveness of the trip was also brought into question by another expatriate (Ital2) whose trip from previous assignment (to Egypt) was mostly focused on work aspects, with a limited preview of where he would be living Ital2 states that:

"The company focused the trip on the business side of things, I did not see what the life would be like to be in this country, that would have really helped me., it was from one meeting to another. Not brilliant."

Another key finding that was interesting was the reference to local Libyan employees. Majority believe that the local staff are a great source of help.

For example, Scot 4 inferred to the benefit of having a local point of contact for supporting basic practical needs, providing *"a little bit of security,"* a person expatriates could call up and ask for help, *"what do I do, where do I go?"*. Scot 4 felt that this would have made life much easier.

"It makes your life easier if you've got someone by your side that's Libyan or can at least speak Libyan" (Scot4).

Another expatriate expressed this same view. *This expatriate had over 20 years of experience in Libya. "They were great help to be honest very helpful" (scot1).*

However, one expatriate *(fren1)* preferred not to ask for help, but rather *"try to be more professional and not burden them with my private issues."*

"Helpful local staff make a difference. When I moved to New Zealand, it was so hard to adjust there. Now I can say that it might be because of the locals. But now I can tell you what the reason was for such a problematic adjustment its local people!" (Ger3).

Organisational support and training plays a crucial role in training, preparing and supporting expatriates to deal with the challenges they come across while on international assignment (Abdullah & Jin, 2015).). It is, therefore, a pivotal factor in the impact of culture on expatriate experiences because the cultural differences are often the primary contributors to these challenges.

Preparation, training, and support are key moderators on the impact of culture on expatriates because they facilitate Cross cultural adjustment by providing the European expatriates with the knowledge, skills and assistance to perform effectively across

cultures. Stroh et al., (1994) and Kramer et al., (2001) agree with this they claim that expatriates that have been offered training and support and overall satisfactory preparation for their assignment are to be expected to adjust more to the new environment and consequently are more likely to successfully complete their international assignment. Based on the array of potential difficulties that may be faced by expatriates, a study conducted by Mc Nutty (2012) observed three types of different ways an organisational can support an expatriate employee, specifically, 'practical, professional and social support.' The practical support is perceived as a purposeful aid in connection with matters such as relocation, this form of practical support is mostly offered by corporation, as common companies give substantial consideration to matters such as relocation, and typically have these included in expatriation policies.

Moreover, professional support is rarer than the practical support. Supposedly, it would involve all career-related help needed. Finally, Social support could aim to work to improve social mixing of expatriate families, which regrettably is somewhat infrequently offered by companies. Despite some companies offering to deliver CCT prior to expatriate arrival, their responsibilities upon arrival might include bring together initial events with other expatriates and distribution of information on expatriate and spouse network groups.

From the data collected it was clear that preparation, training, and support category can be discussed in three subsections firstly, preview trips (6.2.1), secondly, practical support (6.2.2) and thirdly, personal support from local Libyan employees (6.2.3).

6.2.1 PREVIEW TRIP

As supported by Ehnert and Brewster (2008) and Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun (2000), a preview trip is an effective preparation method, especially for expatriates with families. To set basic expectations, provide a fundamental understanding of the host location, establish contacts and choosing accommodation. It was revealed that basic training and information provided beforehand, including basic language, etiquette, and general information about Libya is necessary as it gives expatriates an idea about where they will be living and working. This would have been valuable to expatriates because they reduce the stress and anxiety an expatriate may feel while also making the expatriate feel more confident in the ability to cope with the new environment (Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun 2000).

None of the 32 European expatriates interviewed received a preview trip from the NOC. Majority of the expatriates believed that something of this kind would be beneficial for example this can be seen with Scot4, Ger3, and fren1. They believed that this would have been positive and allowed adjustment to take place quicker.

Preview trips would involve a short trip to Libya for the European expatriate to get a basic understanding of the Libyan culture and environment. Although the positives of a preview trip were supported by some expatriates, there were also opposing views. For example, one expatriate (eng1) who experienced this in previous assignments abroad and found that the trips were too short and rushed to be beneficial. The effectiveness of the trip was also brought into question by another respondent (Ital2) whose trip from previous assignment (to Egypt) was mostly focused on work aspects, with a limited preview of where he would be living and again he felt he did not have an opportunity to see what everyday life would have been like while on this trip. This emphasises the point proposed in the literature, that the objective of a preview trip is to gain some experience living in the country (Ehnert and Brewster 2008), rather than be a work preview.

In the case, the security was no longer an issue in Libya the majority of expatriates interviewed believed that a preview trip would be very beneficial and especially beneficial for those expatriates with family and children. However, this outcome is somewhat predictable. Concluding, the key objectives of a preview trip are summarised into three points: Setting basic expectations and answering general lifestyle questions, establishing contacts both in and out of work and choosing accommodation/ schooling.

6.2.2 PRACTICAL SUPPORT

Practical support is referred to under different terminology by scholars (Black, Mendenhall and Oddou 1991, Kraimer &Wayne, 2004). In this report, it refers to all personal administrative and logistical support provided to expatriates. This includes all relocation and living requirements.

Intensive practical support in the first couple of months after arriving was found to be important, as expatriates go through the crisis phase and recovery phases of adjustment, and face difficulties dealing with day-to-day tasks. This support is also essential to prevent expatriate putting their efforts towards immediate day-to-day practical issues, rather than focusing on Cross cultural adjustment (Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun 2000).

To varying degrees, all expatriates were supported with relocation and living amenities, including visas, flights, shipping, accommodation, and transport. For the majority of expatriates, practical support was perceived as sufficient. However, two expatriates (Ger3 and Fren1) appeared dissatisfied with the practical support provided to them. This was not because they weren't provided with the same amenities, but because they found the processes to organise these to be unsupported.

Although the majority of expatriates were satisfied with the practical support provided, all expatriates inferred to experiencing an initial period of stress and shock in the first few months, as they faced difficulties, mostly to do with day-to-day tasks, such as shopping or driving. This period was also characterised as an intense learning period for all expatriates. In particular, for those expatriates with limited assistance in setting up amenities (Ger3 and Fren1). This reported stress and learning relates to the second and third stages of adjustment in the u-curve model described by Oberg (2006) and Grove and Torbiörn (1988). The crisis phase, marked by mental and physiological stress and cultural shock and the recovery phase, characterised by progressive recovery from cultural shock.

This cultural shock and subsequent learning phase is amplified in Libya due to the wide differences between the West and Libya. Libya is not a technologically advanced nation. Expatriates described Libya overall as being quite isolated from the rest of the world with many facilities and amenities catered only for Libyans, making it difficult for foreigners to complete everyday tasks. These conditions of Libya suggest that practical support is particularly important in this context because it means expatriates will be faced with issues that they wouldn't think twice about back home or possibly in another European country.

These findings indicate that having rigorous practical support in the first few months is important for reducing expatriate stress. Additionally, it is also linked to enhancing cultural adjustment because if practical day-to-day issues are not handled sufficiently, the expatriate is likely to focus their time and efforts on dealing with their "survival relocation questions" rather than cultural adjustment (Bennet, Aston, and Colquhoun 2000 p. 245). Preceding this, less intensive ongoing practical support was also shown to be important as expatriates discussed the challenges of completing everyday tasks in Libya even after they felt adjusted.

6.2.3 PERSONAL SUPPORT FROM LIBYAN LOCAL EMPLOYEES

To an extent, it was evident that practical support was provided by the NOC, who set up the majority of the fundamental amenities, such as accommodation, visa's, schooling and transport. However, in terms of everyday errands and personal support, Libyan local employees, specifically those in administrative support, appear to fall naturally into this role. This is suggested as an effective approach, however, if it were to be employed it should be made clear to everyone involved; including it within the local employee's job responsibilities, so the local employee knows they are responsible for these matters, while also making the expatriate feel more comfortable requesting help.

Three expatriates (Scot1, Scot4, Germ3)) inferred to the benefit of having a local point of contact for supporting basic practical needs, a person expatriates could call up and ask for help. This relates to having a cultural expert or coach, as advocated by

Mendenhall and Stahl (2000) and Ehnert and Brewster (2008). Someone who can assist with both work and non-work issues as the expatriate comes across them. However, these scholars do suggest this in the light of cultural issues, as opposed to more practical help, but it's expected someone in this role would be able to do both. There are also challenges that come with this approach, in terms of finding a suitable individual, as well as the high the costs involved (Ehnert and Brewster 2008). A feasible solution to this may be the utilisation of Libyan local employees, to help with both real-time practical issues and cultural issues.

Kaufmann et al. (2014) in addition to other researchers in this field of research as referenced in the literature review have concluded that CCT is positively correlated with expatriates and host national's relationship.

Libyan local employees, specifically the administrative support staff, were utilised by some for personal non-work related tasks, such as locating a good restaurant or booking a flight ticket. This arrangement appeared to work well for these expatriates, however as this role was not an official part of the Libyan local employees' job descriptions, there was evident downfalls to this kind of arrangement.

Libyan local employees form part of organisational post arrival support, as they are hired by the NOC, but also form part of Cross cultural adjustment as the cultural tendencies of Libyan local employees' impact interaction and work adjustment of expatriates. During their overseas assignment, expatriates can either be successful or fail. From the interviews, it was apparent that one of the key factors that lead to success is getting help from Libyan local employees. By sharing the information about Libya's local norms, culture, rules, climate It was evident that Libyan local employees helped the expatriates to adjust better to the work environment also they are able to considerably affect the overall experiences of expatriates to adjust the working environment and at times to the social environment. Many expatriates did express their delights at socialising with their Libyan work colleagues'. Libyan local nationals can affect the success of expatriates' assignment with their insights, approaches, and conduct.

Hence, it may be of great benefit to provide adequate CCT not only for the European expatriates but also to Libyan local staff as well. With satisfactory CCT both the locals and the expatriates will have the ability to communicate better with each one another more successfully. It can support them to pass information among one another more efficiently.

Some expatriates, however, fell into either not feeling comfortable to ask for help or found that local staff did not support them. The reasons why Libyan local employees sometimes may not support an expatriates are variable. Local Libyan staff commonly consider expatriates as more qualified, more skilled, and have better knowledge than they do. Consequently, leading them to believe that they would learn from expatriates as they

are the specialists. Another reason for this is that expatriates, in general, will earn much higher salary than the local Libyan staff. Making some of the Libyan national employees' sense that helping and guiding expatriates is not one of their duties. The success of expatriate's assignment, otherwise, will be positively impacted by the support of local staff. Nevertheless, conversely, weak expatriates and local employee relationships could be a reason for failure of assignments. That is why the NOC and large corporations must be aware of the significance of dealing with local employee training requirements.

It is proposed that the more common the relations are with local employees, the more likely the adjustment for the expatriate will be. The more interaction there is between the two, the more information the expatriate will receive about his new environment, the more at an advantage the expatriate will be and therefore facilitating adjustment of the expatriate while on the international assignment (Kraimer et al.,2001).

The relationships of expatriates and local employees can inhibit and reduce culture shock. Since it can support expatriates not to sense loneliness and prevent the feelings of separation experienced as the expatriate is gone from home country and in this particular case all Europeans expatriates were away from their families. As a result of local relationships formed with the expatriates, it will help then deal with cultural shock. Additionally, it will avoid reduced job performance by great cultural adjustment. Since it is thought that reduced job performance of expatriates can be due to low cultural adjustment (Kraimer et al., 2001).

6.3 CROSS CULTURAL TRAINING

In relation to research question one, the need for Cross Cultural Training. The key findings of the interviews in this section were:

- Pre departure CCT was absent;
- on site CCT was absent;
- On the whole, the difficulties faced by the expatriates were because of the absence of awareness in what way Libya worked in relation to their country and their European experience;
- The key factor to appreciate before arriving to Libya was the culture and how it differed so much to the western culture;

- Libyan culture can influence working environment thus, educating expatriates about the Libyan culture and the business custom was of great significant;
- CCT is crucial and should, therefore, be delivered to expatriates and where possible o their spouse/ families, and
- Pre departure and on-site CCT required to be appropriate, beneficial and current.

Expatriates were asked whether or not they received any form of training from the NOC either before arriving or after. From the data collected in the interviews, it was evident that the NOC did not provide any formal training to the European expatriates working in Libya (Table 6.5). However, many of the expatriates had experience working abroad prior to arriving to Libya. For example, (Ital2, Eng3). Theses expatriates shared their CCT experience in their previous assignments. This proved to be very beneficial in this research as it allowed an insight as to the need for cross cultural training even though the European expatriates did not receive CCT in this instance.

Table 6.5 *Cross cultural training (CCT).*

Code	Scot1	Scot2	Scot3	Scot4	Bos1	Ger1	Ger2	Ger3	Ger4	Eng1	Eng2	Pol1	Pol2	Ital1	Ital2	Ital3	Fren1
Formal Pre departure	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none
Formal Post arrival	None	none	None H&S	Informal Briefing	None	None H&S	None H&S	None H&S	None H&S	Informal Briefing	None H&S	None H&S	None H&S	none	None H&S	none	None H&s
Language training	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None

Code	Scot5	Scot6	Scot7	Bos2	Bos3	Bos4	Bos5	CZR1	Bul1	Pol3	Pol4	Pol5	Eng3	Eng4	Mal1
Formal Pre departure	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none
Formal Post arrival	None	none	None	None	None	None	None	None H&S	None H&S	None	None	None H&S	None	none	None
Language training	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None	None

*(H&S=Health and Safety training)

The expatriates were asked if and possibly why they thought training was needed or important. Majority of expatriates did receive some form of training in previous international assignments. One expatriate stated that,

"Training helps you to understand when you encounter a situation or behaviour you might not otherwise be prepared for. This is being very much true for my last trip in Saudi. Also gives good practical advice about adjusting and fitting in, in the new country would always be a positive for me" (Eng3).

"When I first arrived a got a little introduction about Egypt but it was more about the business side but After being in Cairo about a month or so I was given another training in like a workshop this was good and felt I needed something like this when I came to Tripoli" (Ital2).

This expatriate seems to have been happy about the training that was provided. However, this was not true for all the expatriates who had previous CCT. One expatriates that was not been as happy about the training that was provided for them in a previous assignment was (Eng1).

"Basically, I see the cultural training I got as a total waste of money. Yes, I got some key points, but not more than I could have read in a pamphlet on difference between Malaysian and European culture. I got the training before coming to Malaysia. It would have been worth much more worth it if I would have received it after a short time in the new job. And preferably by other western people who had been through the same type of change I went through" (Eng1).

"Personally, I could have benefitted from some tools on how to handle meeting the Libyan cultures."(Scot4).

The interviews have highlighted that when transferring to a foreign country that is unknown with its customs, beliefs and its dissimilar laws is an intimidating experience. For this reason, many do trust that hiring an expatriate with previous international experience can be beneficial. This is especially true if no training was available, although

many disagree with idea. Not to say that CCT is no longer needed in this instance, however, it is another means used by corporation in aid of avoiding the failure of expatriate assignment.

"You are more likely to struggle if you had not previously worked overseas and had not received any training at all in previous jobs" (scot4).

One expatriate expressed that if a company did not want to spend a lot money on cross cultural training for expatriates, then *"As a minimum, you need to understand the simple Dos and Don'ts. By providing a list of the dos and don'ts for a culture then you ensure that a person will not offend business partners in that country immediately after arrival, as they can read up on what not to do. It could be could to provide both a list of dos and don'ts for both the general and work-related, as there can be some elements that are more relevant for work i.e. meetings and other elements that are more relevant for the general life their" (scot1).*

One the expatriates who received training received it prior to his first assignment abroad, which was some 13 years ago. (Germ3). It had been a while since he got it and the training and its content may have evolved since then. He will still be included here as person who received training, as he has an opinion about the training he got back then. One of the expatriate's states that he does not know if it would be better to have the training before moving or in the beginning of ones stay abroad or a little while after arrival.

"And you can look at it both ways I think, on the one hand, if we had it in the beginning maybe it would have prepared us a little more for some of things we encountered in the first weeks. On the other hand, having been here for a little while first then we had, I don't know more questions or knew what to ask about, what we needed to know about more, because we had some, you know we had some experience here, and we knew what was difficult," (Germ3).

Another of the expatriates thinks that the training should be given prior to departure. He states that you cannot practice the correct behaviour, but you can identify what is wrong in the situation. Therefore, it provides knowledge about what can happen, in this way you

might be more understanding when you do happen to be in a situation where you do not know what the correct behaviour is (Fren1).

In regards to when CCT should be given the following expatriate expressed the importance of having training after arriving in the country.

"The real training session [should be delivered] after you arrive because then you have experienced a bit of the culture already. And it's easier to put what you are actually being told in the setting" (Eng3).

With regard to the content of the training, it has varied for all the expatriates, who received training. Some of them got both training of a general character as well as training that were focussed more on the business aspect. Here are some of the expatriates' descriptions of their training.

"We had a little introduction to what Saudi Arabia was like. I found that was useful; it would have helped me so much if I received some form of cultural training after arriving to Libya, definitely made me see what I was getting into. The language training I found I could use here though which was good." (Eng3).

"In my trip to Saudi, we had a day to spend with the instructor and plenty of chance to ask questions and also hear what she had to present. And we filled out a pre-survey that kind of took our concerns into account. I think on balance it is probably about right; it would be difficult to invest more time on it. On the other hand, if it was a lot less or significantly less then you may not get as much as you want. So I would say it's good to go and focus for one day. So I think it's appropriate," (Eng3).

"I got a separate one-hour session just for myself in terms of business; it wasn't focused on cultural for example, but it was still useful in comparison to nothing. (Ital2).

Furthermore, another expatriate was also, offered to get language lessons. Though, he turned down the offer due to the workload (Germ3). All in all, of the expatriates who received training think that the training helped and was valuable.

"For sure culture is important. This training helped a lot by the way starting from the basics the elementary things like what is the dress code and how to sit at the table when you meet with the business partner, how to speak with your colleagues, all the small things that can either create a lot of problems if you do things wrong or help big time if you do things right. So yes I had the cultural training, and it helped a lot, so culture is important," (Germ3).

"Well, it basically it kind of let you know like this, for example, this customer service aspect and also the complexity those are the things the cultural training instructor went over. So you know what to expect and then when you encounter that you don't get say some personal feeling about it, something about you doing something wrong, or it's your lack of understanding or something. It's just you are prepared when you see something different or unusual. You have, first, of when you see it you are not completely surprised, and secondly, you have some ideas as to why things are the way they are," (Ital2).

"It was very valuable, and I would have found it valuable in a place like Libya" (Eng3). Only expatriate thought that cross cultural training was not important and did not benefit or gain anything from it.

"But I will say that the lessons we had back then were a total waste of time because it was not something that could prepare one for what you meet," (Eng1).

Though, of the expatriates who received training the majority think it is worth the time and money. The training can help to prepare them for what they may meet and also on a psychological level help them to understand that the foreigners do not try to be difficult on purpose and can help them through the adjustment phase. Overall, it is clear from the findings that this is an important element, as the expatriate can then better understand the challenges that exists and not just in terms of challenges at work, but in general too and what the family might be going through. Through the training, you are able to provide the expatriates and their families with a frame of reference. The five expatriates who did not have any international experience (Bos5, CZR1, Pol5, Germ1 & Fren1) and did not receive training still had some thoughts about it. One of the expatriates who did not receive training expressed an interest in the training during the interview.

"But I thought when I was going down here to Libya, and then I thought I would be really interested in some form of training, in order to approach these cultural differences, possibly" (fren1).

Though, as he also expressed he did not know to what extent it would help him, though he is sure that training would have helped to better prepare him to what he would be facing in Libya.

"Where you can say one thing is to be in an Arabian society that you can say, I think you can get a lot out of or something like that. It is maybe just as much with one's own feelings before you come down here if you feel you are prepared for it if you feel; okay now I have some sort of understanding for how the tone is here in this country. I can meet a network of people the same as me. But how much it would have actually meant for me, I don't know. But you were, of course, coming down here with some sort; you can say some sort of feeling that you felt, you understood what you were going into. Also, I thinking the Arabic language is very hard to learn but I have some words I learn now" (Pol5).
Another expatriate Germ3 also commented on the difficulty of the Arabic language. "I have a good ability to pick up on language but to be honest the Arabic language is challenging me a lot" (Germ3).

Though, when asked whether he would prefer training as opposed to a network, he would prefer a network. This seems to stem from a preconceived notion about what the training is like, and he thinks of it as being a formal event which predominately consists of one-way communication.

"Yes, if you, for example, had a training program then it would be good, but, what could you say, one-way communication, where you get a lot of information; you should not do this and that. Whereas when you are in the situation with a colleague who has been down here, then you can ask about the things you feel are relevant, and the things that you think could be a barrier to be able to function in a foreign environment. So it definitely helped me to talk to a colleague, if not more" (Pol5).

"Network, network definitely. It has as much to do with that I could ask about the things I had on my mind. I would prefer that and preferably one on one, I would say." (Germ1)

The other expatriate has to some extent the same opinion about training. He also thinks that it would have been great to have had cross cultural training, though he is not sure how much it would have helped him (Germ1). He also seems to think that others may have a greater need than he has, even though he has no way of comparing it, as he would not know how much he could have gained from it. The expatriates sought other places where they could get information or help with how to handle situations and what the correct behaviour might be in the foreign country.

"I talked to a colleague who had worked in Libya a lot, and he told me like what you should be aware of and like small courtesy things, which would take you far. But that was more informal" (Germ1).

So this expatriate has independently found out information, in order to learn how to cope with the differences and to get help to discern the correct behaviour. I think that this is why he would prefer a network as opposed to training because through his network he has a continuous forum where he can seek help. Whereas, training is mostly a one-day event and then you are on your own.

Furthermore, another expatriate who had no previous international experience and has not received any CCT before suggested that networking with previous staff would be advantageous by possibly providing a session or an event to bring the two together.

"So it is the people who are there already who is the best source for cultural adjustment and it is very important if you can have a good relationship amongst the incoming and the leaving parties. If they can have an overlap where they can get to be together on both fronts in an organised event by the company this, I think is good" (Bos5).

Language is also mentioned as a difference that can be a bit difficult to adjust to. *"It was also a thing that surprised me a bit actually is how bad Libyans are at speaking English,"* (Eng1). *"Language is an obvious one,"* (Franc1). This can pose various challenges for expatriates. For one it is not always easy to buy groceries when you cannot read what it says, and to communicate with others who might not speak English, can also prove to be a challenge.

All of the expatriates had some thoughts about the importance of training. However, some had suggestions for how to improve the training. One expatriate said that the kind of training he got was standard (Eng3) in his previous assignment in Saudi Arabia. He suggested that there should be a greater focus on coping.

"I think it would have been very important to have received CCT in Libya for many reasons; it's so different from the U.K obviously and by having some sort of cultural training you could learn so much from it. In previous assignments, they normally would address the basic cultural issues but what would be useful is if they could in address how to cope with these issues that you may end up facing. Coping skills, I think is something that needs to be also addressed, coping skills with the situations, coping skills in term of what do you do if this and that happen. So what are your actions? Are you going to reach out? It can be that simple as write it down, I'm going to call to my wife and talk, I'm going to talk to friends, etc., whatever it is. Are you at all able to reach out to someone else within that country? Because one of the biggest challenges is also asking for help, so you go, and then you put yourself into that situation, and you push yourself through the voices let's say, just showing the vulnerability and say I never ask for help, I can't cope with that right now, so I got to reach out and ask for somebody to help me. It could as simple as that the cultural trainer accompanies you, where you have a weekly check in or something around a monthly check in. I know that that kind of cross cultural training are pretty expensive, but surely it would help" (Eng3).

The expatriate was not the only one who had this idea, as is portrayed below. This suggests that some expatriates feel like they have trouble reaching out to people or to ask for help with dealing with some issues that could stem from the cultural differences.

"Giving tools for everyday scenarios, how to survive it would be beneficial and to make this check up on a regular basis, to make sure everything is working correct," (Ital2).

Overall expatriates do feel that the training would help them. For the expatriates that have had CCT in previous assignment, they feel that they are left on their own devices once this initial training is over and do not have a place where they can reach out to somebody. As one expatriate says that he knows it is expensive to have the cultural trainer reach out to them, though it seems as if they need somebody to reach out to (Eng3).

Scot1 did not get training in Libya but believes if you are not providing training for your employees, it would be advantageous to provide them with a list of the most important dos and don'ts. This can ensure that they do not start off with making a huge blunder during the first time in the country. It also can help the expatriate create a notion about what kind of country he is going to.

"Well, if you would do it briefly then it maybe it should just be 10 things, 10 positive things, and 10 negative things. That is, 10 things that makes you, and, for instance, how you greet people. For example, down here. You don't greet for example women; you don't shake hands with women." (Scot).

Furthermore, as mentioned above expatriate, Bos5 suggested that companies could offer a chance for new staff to encounter former expatriates currently working or leaving employees in the form of an event or a training session.

"So it is the people who are there already who is the best source for cultural adjustment and it is very important if you can have a good relationship amongst the incoming and the leaving parties. If they can have an overlap where they can get to be together on both fronts," (Bos5).

CCT proved to be imperative because of the very apparent cultural differences that emerged. From the interviews overall, post-arrival Cross cultural training was believed to be most helpful because it allows European expatriates to get over the initial shock, experience some of the culture and establish a frame of reference within it, and consequently be able to relate to the training better and apply it more effectively. From the data collected it was clear that the CCT category can be divided into three subsections firstly, Pre-departure training (6.3.1), Post departure training (6.3.2) and language training (6.3.3).

6.3.1 PRE DEPARTURE

All expatriates received no pre-departure training. It was revealed that basic pre-departure knowledge was valuable, almost all expatriates felt that receiving some general information and basic training beforehand is beneficial, corresponding to the information-giving approach, of Mendenhall and Oddou's (1986) framework, which involves factual-

briefing and awareness training. Expatriates felt that this approach was valuable pre-departure because there are a lot of questions and unknowns before arriving (Ital2). It was suggested that this take the form of a simple presentation or booklet covering the norms, what to do, what not to do, basic Arabic words and information about Libya. This aligns with the literature which suggests that pre-departure training should provide expatriates with basic information on the city, country, and culture, as well as basic work insights, reducing the anxiety and making the expatriate feel more confident going into the new environment (Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun 2000). This was supported by Fren1and Scot4.

Caligiuri et al. (2001) emphasis pre-departure Cross cultural training as the tool for equipping expatriates with realistic expectations of the culture and working environment of their assignment, increasing the chance of meetings or exceeding expectations, thereby improving adjustment (Littrell et al. 2006). Additionally, the likelihood of the expatriate succeeding is increased because they will be less anxious about the new environment, and have better self-sureness in their capability to complete the job (Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun 2000).   Other researchers argue for post departure training (Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun 2000, Selmer 2001). Bennet, Aston, and Colquhoun (2000) argue that post-arrival training is more useful since it deals with actual issues that are relevant to the actual experience in the culture this is reinforced by Eng1. Expatriates are also more ready to learn at this point because they are immersed in the culture and facing the relevant challenges (Black et al. 1999). Selmer, Torbiörn, and Corinna (1998) argue that the issue with pre-departure training is that the expatriate may have problem relating to it because their frame of reference, and what is considered normal, is still very much connected to their home culture. The expatriate may find the information "unrealistic, exotic or simply picturesque", and the expatriate could also end up with stereotypical view of the culture (Selmer 2001 p. 51). This was also correct in this research. Selmer (2001) also links post-arrival training to the U-curve of adjustment, suggesting that some post-arrival training may be more effective delivered after the expatriate has gotten over the culture shock; three to six months post arrival.

Mendenhall and Stahl (2000) argue that the organisations that do administer training pre-departure, it is not sufficient to ensure the expatriate has the ability to deal with the difficulties that come with subsisting and working in a new culture, and should be

complemented with support delivered on a real-time basis. They propose a coaching or mentoring type method conducted while the expatriate is on assignment, consisting of a Cross cultural expert who can give advice and guidance to expatriates as they come across specific situations. Again in line with the above literature expatriates did indicate that having someone to turn to when facing any issue whether practical or cultural would be extremely advantageous.

Ehnert and Brewster (2008) also refer to this type of support, in the form of cultural coaches or experts who can help the expatriate deal with work and non-work issues in a confidential space. However, there is the evident concern regarding the availability of suitable individuals for this role, as well as the high costs often involved.

In terms of pre-departure training methods, Ehnert and Brewster (2008) refer to informal briefings, which are meetings with individuals who have experience living and working for example in Libya. These can be organised by the employer, the NOC but are often self-initiated by the expatriate using personal connections. Through this meeting, the expatriates can communicate with someone who have gone through, what they are about to go through. The former expatriate in the location could also be someone the new expatriate could use for support as they know how to tackle the challenges that exist in this country. However, the limitations to this are that the individuals transferring the knowledge may have limited experience or have either an overly jaundiced or romantic view of the experience.

One of the main moderators in the effect of cross cultural training is timing. However it is unclear which is most effective (Littrell et al., 2006). Based on Littrell's et al. (2006) summation that the debate around the timing of Cross cultural training remains unresolved, the research aimed to investigate if pre departure or post arrival Cross cultural training is most successful. In the case of many expatriates, they believed a post arrival training would have been more beneficial perhaps this is an expression of wanting someone to help them cope when it begins to be frustrating and you have some issues you need help to overcome. How training is planned and when it is given can have different effects on expatriates. Some seem to want it after arrival in the country as displayed; others want it prior to moving abroad. The timing for when you receive training appears to be highly individual and can be difficult to take into consideration

from the company's side. Some of those who did not receive training also expressed that they would have liked to receive some training. This emphasises the importance for the NOC to provide CCT for its employee expatriates.

6.3.2 POST ARRIVAL

Most of the findings from the interviews pointed out that cultural training would be more effective delivered post-arrival, a few months after arriving, this aligns with the literature that suggests post arrival training should be delivered a few months, specifically eight to twelve weeks after arriving (Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun 2000, Selmer 2001),

This is could be the case for two main reasons. Firstly, having it a few months after arrival means expatriates have had time to experience some of the culture, are therefore more interested in it, and are able to relate to it more and consequently able to apply it better. The rationale given by expatriates for post-arrival is convincing as they emphasise the need for a frame of reference to really benefit from the training. The second reason for post-arrival CCT is related to the stages of adjustment reported by expatriates. As discussed, the first few months were shown to be a stressful and intense learning period for expatriates, experiencing an overload of new experiences and challenges. Therefore, cross cultural training is best delivered after they have gotten over this initial crisis phase of adjustment, and are more settled into the environment, in the recovery and/or adjustment phases.

These two justifications are evident in the literature, which indicates that a few months after arriving expatriates are more ready to learn because they are experiencing the culture (Black et al., 1999), they have gotten over the initial culture shock (Selmer 2001), and have gained a frame of reference for the host culture (Selmer, Torbiörn and Corinna 1998). Additionally, the literature points out that post-arrival expatriates can then bring their own Cross cultural experiences to the training (Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun 2000), making it more relevant and applicable for each individual.

One expatriate (Scot1) did not feel strongly about getting any cultural training at all for himself. He did agree that it would be beneficial possibly to others more so, his reasoning where because he had experience working with Libyans prior to his work at the NOC, He

felt it was better to learn as you go and did not think it was overly essential for his personality. These results indicate that training can depend on individual needs, in line with the literature (Selmer, Torbiörn and Corinna 1998) which suggests effectiveness and requirements for training depend on the individual needs and characteristics of the expatriate.

A key moderator of CCT is timing. However it is unclear which is most effective (Littrell et al., 2006). This was seen in the interviews. Many expatriates were not sure when would be best to have the training while others strongly agreed that post arrival was more valuable. Caligiuri et al. (2001) emphasis pre-departure Cross cultural training as the tool for equipping expatriates with realistic expectations of the culture and working environment of their assignment, increasing the chance of meetings or exceeding expectations, thereby improving adjustment (Littrell et al. 2006). Additionally, the likelihood of the expatriate succeeding is increased because they will be less anxious about the new environment, and have better self-sureness in their capability to work (Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun 2000).   Other researchers argue for post departure training (Selmer 2001). They argue that post arrival training is more beneficial since it deals with actual issues that are relevant to the actual experience in the culture. Expatriates are also more ready to learn at this point because they are immersed in the culture and facing the relevant challenges (Black et al. 1999). Selmer, Torbiörn, and Corinna (1998) argue that the issue with pre-departure training is that the expatriate may have problem relating to it because their frame of reference, and what is considered normal, is still very much connected to their home culture. The expatriate may find the information "unrealistic, exotic or simply picturesque," this might also result in a stereotypical view of culture (Selmer 2001 p. 51). Selmer (2001) also links post-arrival training to the U-curve of adjustment, suggesting that some post-arrival training may be more effective delivered after the expatriate has gotten over the culture shock; three to six months post arrival.

Mendenhall and Stahl (2000) argue that, even though most organisations administer training pre-departure, it is not sufficient to ensure the expatriate has the ability to deal with the difficulties that come with living and working in a new culture, and should be complemented with support delivered on a real-time basis. They propose a coaching or mentoring type method conducted while the expatriate is on assignment, consisting of a

Cross cultural expert who can give advice and guidance to expatriates as they come across specific situations. Ehnert and Brewster (2008) also refer to this type of support, in the form of cultural coaches or experts who can help the expatriate deal with work and non-work issues in a confidential space. However, there is the evident concern regarding the availability of suitable individuals for this role, as well as the high costs often involved.

In terms of pre-departure training methods, Ehnert and Brewster (2008) refer to informal briefings, which are meetings with individuals who have experience living and working in the host-country. These can be organised by the company but are often self-initiated by the expatriate using personal connections. However, the limitations to this are that the individuals transferring the knowledge may have limited experience or have either an overly jaundiced or romantic view of the experience.

Preview trips are another method for pre-departure preparation. Bennet, Aston and Colquhoun (2000) and Ehnert and Brewster (2008) indicate that a preview trip is an effective means of preparation as it gives expatriates some experience living in the country as well as allowing them to create contacts in both the work and in the community of the international country. Ehnert and Brewster (2008 p. 119) assert that the "payoff can be substantial" with preview trips, especially for expatriate with families. However, they warn that these need to be wisely managed in order for expatriates to develop an accurate preview, not just one consisting of the finest hotels and restaurants, which will ultimately lead to dissatisfaction when they arrive to the country.

There appears to value in both pre-departure and post-arrival training, as different arguments emerge in the literature. However, according to Littrell et al. (2006), the debate of which method is most effective remains unresolved.

The research is focused on the timing of the CCT provided to European expatriates, rather the methods used. Investigating the effectiveness of all three methods proposed in Mendenhall and Oddou's (1986) framework, materials with information provided, effective approach and involvement approaches, as well as the most suitable timing for each approach indicate an area for further research.

To summarise, the literature review demonstrated the numerous reasons as to why CCT is important. From the finding in this research, it was clear that all expatriates consider cross cultural training as a vital and necessary element to expatriation. From the NOCs

perspective, if their expatriates are sufficiently cross culturally trained for the assignment this will, therefore, result in a successful assignment, consequently growing the overall effectiveness and success consequently, the NOC will not be losing on money. Moreover, CCT supports expatriates to develop their social, personal skills, their awareness and ability to interrelate efficiently with the local people and colleagues. Not providing CCT is linked with greater expatriate failure rates. Research shown by Peterson et al., (1996) supports that the absence of training delivered to American expatriates in comparison to European & Japanese expatriates is the reason for greater American expatriate failure amounts. Worldwide international corporation are able to raise their success rates by providing suitable training for expatriates. (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2000). Nevertheless, in spite of all the positive effects linked with CCT, many corporation decide on not to deliver such training to expatriates in preparation for their assignment abroad. In some instances, corporation offer minuscule amount of training. This training delivered by corporation is frequently inadequate, unsatisfactory or absent (Waxin et. al., 2005; Selmer, 2000). Despite the fact that some training is better than no training at all, it is not sufficient to sufficiently get expatriates ready for what is to come. Foster (2000) claims that even though CCT and language training is essential, it is ignored by corporation since they are in a hurry to employ the expatriates.

6.3.3 LANGUAGE TRAINING

Language training aids perceptual and communication skills (Andreason 2008), and thus is an important element in cultural adjustment (McCaugley and Bruning 2005). Language training showed to be beneficial in facilitating adjustment. One expatriate who received Arabic language lessons (in a prior assignment in Saudi Arabia Eng3) demonstrated utilising their language skills in the workplace and in building relationships. Additionally, the difficulty of learning Arabic was emphasised by most expatriates (e.g. Germ3). Learning any language demands a significant amount of time and effort from the expatriate (Dickmann, Brewster and Sparrow 2008), and learning Arabic would demand even more. This suggests that only those expatriates with a strong desire to learn the language should be invested in. Nevertheless, having basic language training showed to be of value, expatriates referred to the necessity of being able to use basic greetings, also referred to by (Harvey et al. 2012), as it demonstrates to the Libyans that you are willing to make an effort in learning their ways, which contributes to building rapport.

Although language training can be helpful, it is unlikely most expatriates will utilise it fully, considering the high difficulty of learning it. This means language training should not be relied on completely for bridging communication gaps, and as it requires a lot of effort and time, may only be useful to those expatriates with a great desire to learn it. Nonetheless, basic training is important so expatriates can at least greet Libyans in their language, make a good first impression and build some rapport. Although according to all the interviews the local Libyan employees working at the NOC were trained to speak the English language. Therefore, within the NOC expatriates generally did not have a problem with communication. However, language became a problem once interacting with the local Libyans in shops, hospitals, airports, etc.

6.4 THE IMPACT OF CCT ON THE SUCCESS AND FAILURE OF AN OVERSEAS ASSIGNMENT

There have been numerous theories advocating the association between cross cultural training (CCT) and expatriate success. Cross cultural training (CCT) is a multi-faceted method to increase the knowledge and skills essential to adjust to new culture There is a lack of empirical testing and with many functioning but varying definitions about success and failure of an expatriate, it has been problematic for researchers to link findings across studies. Changes in the place of work and growing diversity require further CCT research. Multicultural groups have become common phenomena and so, CCT is essential not only to advance the performance of individual expatriates but also to recognise training approaches and interventions that could valuable for preparing diverse parties to interact successfully.

This part has focused on how training the expatriates culturally could aid in their international assignment. The European expatriates have faced many cultural differences while in Libya, in order to give an impression of the challenges they have had to face this section will provide a little window to this. It is possible to teach the expatriates and national staff on the suitable manners in order to avoid misunderstanding.

The finding from the interviews show that on the whole expatriates do believe that providing CCT would be of great benefit to their assignment. These benefits will help expatriates adjust quicker and thus, to be more successful while on their assignment.

This can be supported by the majority of the expatriates, for example, Fren1, who did not have any previous training and stated that he would have valued having some form of CCT.

"I believe if I was given training about Libyan people how they are it would have been so useful for me to know how to behave with them and what I would expect in return, I have no idea about the Libyan culture before I came to the country, the big difference does make me anxious and worried" (Fren1).

Another occasion where knowledge of for example the Islamic culture that exists in Libya would have been valuable.

"The night I arrived I was looking for a bar, I had no idea that it was actually illegal to drink alcohol in Libya this was the first shock for me, and I need my glass of wine. If I had known this information maybe I would have planned to bring with me my own, I had to wait 28 days to get a drink this really made go to the edge" (Pol5).

Libya as a country has great pride on having maintained its Islamic ethos and beliefs in the region, habitually assigning itself on a platform above the neighbouring countries such Tunisia. Many Libyans believe countries such as Tunisia have lost a lot of its Islamic individuality which could be due to the fact that there has been development of tourism, bars, and clubs that supplement it (though several Libyans often travel to Tunisia for these very reasons). The expatriates explained how they believed that if they were offered CCT in Libya, this would have helped in many ways. Such as, handling unforeseen happenings and culture shock at the work environment and socially. Many felt that if this was dealt with through a training programme, then they would have focused more on their assignment.

I spent many hours thinking if I could cope with this lack of entertainment, it was extremely boring. Other than the beach there was no facilities (Eng1).

Another expatriate talked about how it was a bit difficult to implement the way the company works in Libya.

"When it comes to work I think it was quite smooth., but probably the way of doing things without long-term planning and doing things in the last split second, this probably was very challenging for me as well as individuals like me from the west, because normally in previous companies usually we are expected to plan very much in advance and this

kind of mentality is not familiar to locals. So I think to adjust this principle how to plan the things to think through not to be spontaneous but be more planned I think this is another challenge," (Germ3).

The above shows that there can be multiple challenges for the expatriates in the workplace. Due to the amount of challenges, it is important that the expatriate gets information or training in this aspect so that he can perform at the expected level. If the expatriate is left to his own devices and the country in question has vastly different values or scores very differently according to Hofstede, then it could be a good idea to give the expatriate an idea of what he is going into. When the nation the expatriate is travelling to, is vastly different from his own country then he needs to adapt his behaviour towards colleagues. This information might be something that the expatriate located in Libya could have benefited from.

It will also help minimizing stress and disorientation and through CCT the expatriate will be able to absorb how to convert and connect. As collaboration and communication differ widely among cultures and countries, from culture to culture a good example is the difference between the Libyan and the European culture. Therefore, without reservation expatriates would indeed benefits from CCT. CCT could assist the expatriate adjustment through comprehending, and working successfully with Libyans.

From an expatriate perceptive it can be clearly seen that lack of CCT may result in failure of the assignment.

"If I had a better understanding of the Libyan Culture then definitely this would have had a significant positive effect on my overall stay here" (Eng3).

It can be seen in several cases that expatriates have expressed that having access to CCT would lead to a significant positive effect on the assignment. Consequently, it is vital to prepare expatriates for international assignments so that they are able to achieve this success. For instance, one expatriate who went to Germany experienced that they have a hierarchical system, which they felt was similar in Libya. He experienced that Libya is more hierarchical, and this gave ground to some challenges that were difficult to solve.

"But to a great extent, I think that Libyans like Germans are very caught up in formalities and well also very much in hierarchy. In other words, the higher you are in the hierarchy than another person then you almost, what is it called, then you are almost looked upon

like you are all knowing and almighty and so on. They are not fond of having to contradict or question something, which an authority figure says. And this is especially when you are working with other organisations," (Scot4).

This made it difficult for him to adapt. An expatriate also experienced that in Libya they have a more structured hierarchy than he was used to.

"I think that the Libyan people are very traditional, and it defines a lot of cultural things here. It is about respect, hierarchical designs in everything that they do when it comes to family, then the adults are very much respected. When it comes to organisation, the higher ranked, the more the carefully you are listened to. I would say the key about Libya. I would say this is the key thing, which took my attention in the beginning," (Ital2).

Another expatriate said Libya was quite traditional and set in their ways as opposed to the England, which is a more diverse country. This expatriate also found that the greatest difference between British culture and Libyan culture is tolerance.

"So my experiences if that was boiled down to something then I would it is tolerance... I found that this culture is not very tolerant than the cultures that I have been living in." (Eng1).

For another expatriate, the biggest difference between the Libya and Scotland was the customer service aspect.

"A couple of things, one would be sort of a customer service or motivation mindset, like when you go to the store you need a service or something. Not in all cases, but in a lot of cases people are not so motivated to try to figure out a solution. And a lot of times the first answer is no or that is not possible, and then you have to dig some more to get what you really want that is different. And I have notice that some because coming here trying to set up a bank account and phone service and other things like that, and that is where I have encountered that," (Scot1).

This can be quite an irritating difference because then you might get some personal feelings about why they will not help you, which can lead to frustration about the Libyan way of life. If you start getting too personal about how they treat you, this can give way to acting based on prejudice, rather than actually understanding the Libyan way of life.

Expatriate success is the pinnacle point of any expatriate assignment because essentially it is the ultimate goal of expatriate management (Ehnert and Brewster 2008). From the majority of the interviews conducted with the European expatriates, it can be concluded that Cross cultural training is imperative and useful in preparing expatriates for their international assignment in addition to, assisting them to be successful at the NOC in Libya this was supported with for example Fren1, Pol5, and Eng3.

Littrell et al. (2006) define CCT as the educational process that develops intercultural knowledge through the growth of cognitive, affective and behavioural capabilities required for successful relations in different cultures. CCT for expatriate's purposes to improve the consciousness, information, and abilities necessary to interrelate suitably and successfully with local employees (Shen and Darby 2006). One of the main causes for a lack of cross cultural adaptableness, and early return is insufficient CCT (Dowling and Welch 2004). As Dowling and Welch (2004, p. 120) state, "without an understanding of the host country's culture, the expatriate is likely to face some difficulties during the international assignment". This was also very evident in the interviews with the European expatriates on assignment in Libya. In their individual studies, Tung (1982) establish a negative correlation between pre departure training and the failure rates of expatriate. Consequently, the greater the thoroughness of the CCT programme, the lower the rate of expatriate failure.

Cross cultural skills are evidently significant for successful expatriate assignments, and a deficiency of consideration and management in this part can result to failures in expatriate assignments. Although there is both theoretical and empirical research in the field concerning these issues, and showing the link between Cross cultural adjustment and how well an assignment could go, the literature is both wide and somewhat contradictory, with a web of many different variables and perspectives. Due to the complexities and range of factors related to expatriate assignments, expatriate issues should be tackled with a holistic and comprehensive framework (IPIECA, 2013).

"Expatriate success refers to an expatriate who has adjusted well in the foreign country and in the foreign assignment, has remained in the foreign country for the agreed length of time, has a positive and enthusiastic attitude towards the assignment, has received the expected outcome of the assignment and therefore has accomplished a worthy

performance, and is willing to relocate again for another foreign assignment" (Sagiadellis and D`netto, 1997, p. 3).

It is evident from the findings that the preparation of expatriates with CCT would improve their competence to successfully work in a different environment. The finding are in line with the literature that suggests that there is a positive link between CCT and success of expatriate assignment (Zakaria, 2000).

Also, as exemplified by Black et al., (1990), there is robust proof that advocates that cross cultural training is an acute piece in the preparation of expatriates on their overseas assignments. Tung (1979) proposes that the top and most successful cross cultural training needs to be clear, detailed and emphasis must be on a specific inhabitants. Therefore, it would be reasonable for the NOC to provide their expatriate employees precise cross cultural training that deals with the Libyan people and their culture.

The cross cultural training program should emphasise wholly on the Libyan culture, the religion, and in what way to work successfully in Libya. It should additionally cover the laws in Libya, and the work moral code. Libyans take all matter personally, so it is only logic to study as much as possible about the Libyan culture in order to escape misunderstandings and unnecessary encounter. There are three stages of expatriate training; the pre-departure stage, on-site stage, and the repatriation stage. Various researchers studying cross cultural training approve that for expatriates to be successful in their foreign assignments, they have to have either pre departure or on-site training (Tung, 1982; Black et. al., 1990; Caligiuri, et. al., 2001; Bassou El Mansour, & Evan Wood 2010).

6.5 CCT AND THE ADJUSTMENT OF EUROPEAN EXPATRIATES IN LIBYA.

In this section key individual characteristics linked to Cross cultural adjustment will be examined, and included are the personality traits and international experience (Table 6.6). As these factors are not subject to training and have been linked to Cross cultural adjustment, they are fundamental to selection. It can be established from the findings that adjustment difficulties could be reduced by carefully selecting expatriates and training them according.

The findings showed that social skills, inquisitiveness, open-mindedness and cultural acceptance were the key personality characteristics that helped expatriates adjust to living and working in Libya.

Inquisitiveness refers to the desire for new experiences and adventure; and was demonstrated by many expatriates. Who referred to traveling and experiencing a new culture was one of their main motivations for coming on international assignment. One expatriate (Bos5) had a choice to go to Belgium or Libya but chose Libya for the cultural challenges. Although this could be expected for expatriates who have not worked or lived abroad before, it was shown that this was not the case, as other expatriates who has been abroad before cited this as a main motivation behind taking on overseas work.

"What I love about working aboard other than the great packages and financial security that I get is definitely, without doubt, is meeting people from all the different nationalities. Its great you get to meet people of all walks of life. I have met some of the most important people in my life through international work" (Eng3).

The findings also revealed that open-mindedness was a key trait, and was inferred to by all expatriates. To arrive without preconceptions illustrating the willingness to consider new experiences and engage with the new environment.

Table 6.6 *CCT and adjustment of European expatriates in Libya.*

CODE	Scot1	Scot2	Scot3	Scot4	Bos1	Ger1	Ger2	Ger3	Ger4	Eng1	Eng2	Pol1	Pol2	Ital1	Ital2	Ital3
STAGE OF ADJUSTMENT	A	R to A	R to A	A	R to A	R to A	R to A	R to A	R to A	R to A	A	R to A	R to A	R to A	A	R to A
FAMILARITY WITH LIBYA	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	short trip	limited	short trip
INDIVIDUAL KEY STRENGTHS	Experience with different cultures	Experience with different cultures, adaptability	Cultural understanding g	Open mindedness, laid back	Inquisitiveness sociability	Sociability patience, adaptability	Open mindedness and adaptability	Patience and perseverance	Open mindedness sociability y	Balancing sociability and discipline	Sociability patience, adaptability	Cultural understanding	Open mindedness, laid back	Sociability patience, adaptability	Cultural understanding	Cultural understanding
JOB SATISFACTION	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	yes	No	yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE	yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	yes	No	Yes	Yes	yes	yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
ACCOMPANIED WITH FAMILY	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N

RESPONDENT CODE	Fren1	Scot5	Scot6	Scot7	Bos2	Bos3	Bos4	Bos5	CZR1	Bul1	Pol3	Pol4	Pol5	Eng3	Eng4	Ukra1
STAGE OF ADJUSTMENT	R to A	A	A	A	A	R to A	R to A	R to A	R to A	R to A	A	A	R to A	R to A	A	R to A
FAMILARITY WITH LIBYA	limited	Very Good	Limited	Good	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited	Limited
INDIVIDUAL KEY STRENGTHS	Open-mindedness and adaptability	Experience with different cultures	Experience with different cultures, adaptability	Open-mindedness and adaptability	Open-mindedness, laid back	Inquisitiveness. sociability	Sociability patience, adaptability	Sociability patience, adaptability	Patience and perseverance	Open-mindedness sociability y	Sociability patience, adaptability	Sociability patience, adaptability	Cultural understanding	Open- mindedness, laid back	Experience with different cultures, adaptability	Open- mindedness, laid back
JOB SATISFACTION	yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
ACCOMPANIED WITH FAMILY	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N

"I am personally open minded to all possible ideas and cultures; I really think your personality can either help you while on assignment or be against you. Yes, I do think this is the case for many of us out here, just being open to different possibilities that you may face" (Scot4).

Another important trait was cultural acceptance and the ability to acknowledge the differences and accept them, without fully understanding them. Cultural acceptance relates to tolerance for ambiguity, adaptability, and flexibility because it is about being able to deal with the fact that you don't and can't know everything about a culture, but still recognising the difference, accepting it, and being able to adjust accordingly. Although all expatriates were very aware of the cultural differences, all indicated that they did not fully understand it.

One expatriate suggested that you can never fully understand it because it is so *"Wildly different" (Eng1),* and *"impossible to understand because we are not born here" (Eng1).*

This also indicates that ambiguity is an inherent part of working and living in Libya. The necessity of tolerance for ambiguity was indicated by many of the expatriates, as it translates to not "*having everything planned and organised*" but being "*quite happy just to kind of turn up and just figure it out*" (Scot2)), and was indicated as a *"key thing"* (Germ3) for Cross cultural adjustment. Adaptability and flexibility were also found to important traits.

"This is very important to be adaptable ... I mean to try to ... recognise other cultures, and to be like chameleon to adapt. My trip to Morocco for a three weeks I felt opened my mind to the Arab culture and their religious practice, even though I have not actually worked abroad before this'' (fren1.)

All expatriates emphasised how different the Libyan culture was, and those that accepted that they couldn't fully understand it, seemed to cope better than those that didn't. One expatriate (Eng1) mentioned the cultural differences and appeared to get frustrated by some matters because he tried to understand them but could not.

"You would have an appointment or an agreement for a particular time or day, and all you hear is 'inshallah'…'inshallah,' they use this word a lot, and it gets frustrating how

they do not appreciate that they have to keep to their word, it's just not professional''. (Eng1)

On the other hand, some expatriates referred to the value of recognising the cultural differences as opposed to trying to understand them.

"Accepting [the cultural differences] helps you a lot when you come here. You ... learn things that work differently and you work with it, but you don't need to understand, and you can still do a very good job" (Scot1).

It was clear from the interviews that the Europeans found the Libyans to be inexplicit, elusive, and unclear. On the other hand, Libyan may be easily aggravated by Europeans who they sometimes view as forthright and truthful and their conduct is at times understood by the Libyans as being inconsiderate or impolite.

Connections and building connections is imperative to the Libyans and takes superiority over the job at hand. To the extent that upholding agreements at work take precedence over the job. This is clear in the manner Libyans communicate with one another and with expatriates.

In place of straightforwardness, when answering to questions, Libyan frequently use clues, sayings and proverbs for example "Inshallah" (which means God willing). Though, when an answering a question or request with "Inshallah" it can be everything from "Yes, Maybe, No, Leave it with me". This shows the importance of expatriates and (in this case Europeans) their need to study body language and psychology and have the ability to pick up non-verbal signs, for example, eye contact, posture, and pitches. These abilities will enable expatriates to understand answers such as "Inshallah." As specified in the literature review, a communication cavity can be very annoying to an expatriate from a western culture. CCT should be able to assist expatriates to become more attentive and absorb more the Libyan culture, consequently learning how to succeed certain circumstances.

If an expatriate speed into a new work environment without spending time to meet people and become acquainted with the local Libyans, it might be offensive to the Libyans. Welcoming and generosity are very essential to Libyans. Being friendly and welcoming in the Libyan culture is vital as it is honouring the traditional practices. Nonetheless, this can be time-consuming and a frustrating experience for some expatriates who are more

accustomed to the Western business practices. For this reason, contradictory to Europeans, who consider that time is money; Libyan are very relaxed when it comes to time.

As specified by the literature review, Arab culture has a high context, and they, therefore, like to spend more time getting to know their possible employees/ associates. Nonetheless being aware over understanding, should not be confused with not recognising. The findings showed that not being aware of the culture and not recognising when it is in play can cause frustrations, misunderstandings, and loss of productivity, for example:

"People get frustrated with that and go to the same meetings, and you literally have the same discussions, again and again, some people, if you don't [recognise] that cultural sort of difference and people get aggressive and yell, and the wheels fall off, and nothing happens" (Ger1).

Forming relationships with Libyans appears to be an effective management tool as way to increase the willingness of Libyans to work for you.

"Good at talking with people and getting them to be relaxed when they're with him makes the Libyans work because they want to work for him, they want to deliver for him because he's a nice guy" (Ger1).

One expatriate (Bos5) had a choice to go to Belgium or Libya but chose Libya for the cultural challenges. Although this could be expected for expatriates who have not worked or lived abroad before, it was shown that this was not the case, as other expatriates who has been abroad before cited this as a main motivation behind taking on overseas work. The findings revealed that open-mindedness was a key trait, and was inferred to by all expatriates.

To arrive without preconceptions, *"just see how it goes" (Fren1), and "go with the flow" (Fren1),* illustrating the willingness to consider new experiences and engage with the new environment. This trait appeared particularly important in helping expatriates adjust and accept the differences, reducing stress and building a *"positive mindset" (Ital2).*

Another important trait was cultural acceptance and the ability to acknowledge the differences and accept them, without fully understanding them. Cultural acceptance

189

relates to tolerance for ambiguity, adaptability, and flexibility because it is about being able to deal with the fact that you don't and can't know everything about a culture, but still recognising the difference, accepting it, and being able to adjust accordingly.

An interesting point made by some of the expatriate is that they thought it was easier to adapt to work than the general adjustment.

"Well, I actually think that it was relatively easy to adjust to it. Well, because the cultural differences are one thing, but still we are all people and in some place we all have a common goal, you can say that we all need this company to operate as smooth as possible, so I think this evens out many of the differences because all in all we have the same goal," (Ital2).

One expatriate did not show the desire to integrate fully into the culture, knowing he would be leaving after a couple of years.

"I'm going to be staying in this job say tops 2 years I have financial targets that I need to meet, I know I'm not going to be here forever" (Eng3).

Another expatriate thought *"It is probably the general because when you have such a long work day, there is not much leftover. With that I mean and this properly all serious. Because the work took up so much time, well, then there is not much time left for anything else,"* (Bos5).

Another expatriate said that he felt that due to the performance pressure it was easier to adjust to the general environment than to the work environment (Fren1). So this stand in contrast to the above, as this suggest that the expatriate may not be in need of training when it comes to work practices. Despite the above comments the majority believed training helps the expatriate handle the challenges that arise.

The general adjustment of the expatriates is tightly interconnected with the family the expatriate may have brought with him. The performance of the expatriate also depends on the family especially the spouse and how that person manages the change. In this research, however, because of the security issues in Libya since the revolution in 2011 no expatriates have their spouse or family with them.

The fact of being somewhat alone in a foreign country having to set up all sorts of practical elements can be difficult when you do not know how to do it, and especially if you do not speak the language, as was described by another expatriate in France.

"Well, I can say when I went to set up phone service. What it actually was to get Internet service, because I did not have wired Internet service in my temporary apartment... But then I went to the store to try to get help to activate my device or whatever. The people said they couldn't help at one particular store. First of I went there they didn't pay much attention to us, and then finally I got somebody's attention and talked to them. They found somebody who could speak English. But then they said they couldn't help because their system was down. But then an hour later I went to another store and found somebody that could help, and they said that there was no problem with their system. So I just kind of felt like, well you know they just didn't want to take time to help. I had several situations like that. I don't want to overstate it, though because also a lot of people have been helpful and friendly too. Certainly, not every encounters been like that; I would say most have been, most people have been quite helpful, once you can either say a few words of Arabic or you can get your questions across in the right way," (Bos5).

Though, it is not only the spouse that can be having a hard time adjusting with the new surroundings. Normally children do not have the greatest challenges adjusting. The younger the children are, the easier they might have with adjusting to new surroundings. Though the older they get it might get more difficult for them to adjust, as was reported above. An expatriate who had been working in Libya since 1984, the longest working expatriate interview added that his children that his needed some time to adjust to Libya due to the barrier of language.

"Yes, they did actually very much and very significantly, also. I think that the kids they just expressed it in a different way. The main thing at the time was that my kids did not speak a single word of Arabic. This meant that they couldn't do anything on their own even going to the local shop. They felt very isolated. So we put them into the British school in Benghazi. This was back in the 90s though; another main thing then was the lack of simple things that the kids were used to having back home, like chocolates and sweets. Libya went through some rough times when I moved here with my wife and two children. Also, there isn't really much for kids to do other than maybe the beach. The kids

were more than often bored, and we felt a little helpless because there was only so much we could do to entertain them. Things are different now in Libya much better actually. The best I have ever seen it was in 2012" (Scot1).

.

So the little number of expatriates that had family with the prior to the revolution did express how their family experienced many changes that lead to frustrations, and this can be hard for the family to deal with. So all the challenges faced by expatriates did not all stem from culture, though they are non-the-less frustrating. The training may still be helpful as it can help the expatriate and their family. Through the training, they learn to expect that these frustrations will appear, and maybe help the family deal with these frustrations and issues. Many expatriates experienced that they felt alone in a foreign country, and this feeling was overwhelming.

"There are ups and downs in an expatriation, and that is something you need to be prepared for. You need to be prepared that when these blips come, and they will, I felt completely alone, especially with my wife not with me" (Eng1).

This ties with the suggestion another expatriate had about teaching coping skills or have check-ups to ensure that the expatriate does not feel like they are alone in the world. Especially, in the case, if family was to accompany the expatriate, later, when the Libyan country settles, and it is safe to bring families again. The NOC needs to put more thought into expatriate families and how to accommodate their needs as much as possible this is in order for the expatriate to perform as expected at work. If his family is not adjusting well and they feel like they do not have a place to air their grievances. If the expatriate has to worry too much about his family, work will move down the list of one's priorities.

"It is very important because I mean basically the company want you to come here and normally if you are an expat you are given an assignment, and you need to spend a lot of time on that and if you are worried about are your kids okay at school, and is your wife happy or depressed, or do you have the basic things you need, do you have a safe place to live. If you are worried about those things, then it is very difficult, or it is a lot more difficult to focus on work. So very important" (Germ3).

Therefore, it is important that companies focus more on the family when they send an employee with family abroad. The faster the family get settled in, the faster the employee will be able to focus most of his energy at the work before him.

All expatriates interviewed could not bring family with them to Libya. Some thought it was more difficult to be social, as you did not have a spouse or children who could help with that.

"Do you think it is more difficult being away on your own than it would be to be away with a partner? Expatriate: I think so yes. I think so yes it would be. And that is purely based on the experiences I have had" (Ital2).

Being away alone must be difficult as you are completely alone with everything, and you do not have someone to come home to talk about your day or your worries at work, etc. The other expatriate who has not brought family with him said that it would probably be easier for him if they had joined him.

The one expatriate (Scot1) who was the oldest and longest expatriate to stay in Libya from all those interviewed stated: *"When I came to Benghazi back in 1984, things were very different then. I was comfortable to have my family with me, my children were ok here, and they went to the British school. But after the American attacks in the 90s all expatriates with families couldn't risk it and left."*

"I won't tell you it was an easy ride; I had some problems at home because of this rotation with my work" (Eng2).

"For sure with family, it would be easier, for me it would be easier but for the family, it would be tougher, and I think that sums up what I could imagine is the truth for many expatriates"(Fren1).

Some of the expatriates also showed a healthy attitude toward settling into to a new country. Some expatriates mentioned how bringing an extra suitcase just for food that is only available in their country, in order to bring it with them back to Libya (Pol5).

However, another expatriate thought otherwise, *"It has never been an issue for me. I believe that if you're agreeing to go to a different country, then you should adapt and accept what they have on offer"* (Fren1).

Also, when it comes to how they perceive the country they have moved to, some of the expatriates provided some good notions of how to perceive it. Instead of thinking of the country as a temporary place of residence, they thought of it as their home.

"I don't have this mentality, for me, it was like hey you integrate, you are going to be a part of it. You are going to be like there is never a way back, and then you can give all in, and then you try to find a solution for any kind of situation you are in. Do not accept that only one or two-year I can hold that through... When we come we said this is our home" (Ital2).

Generally, the findings demonstrate a willingness of the expatriates to integrate to Libya and its norms. The thoughts of expatriates seem to stem from the idea that if you can leave the ideas and knowledge of your home country behind then, you might have a better chance at adjusting to the new country.

"It is important I believe to think of the new job as a fresh start an adventure that needs exploring you should not be doing any comparing. Otherwise, you might end of comparing the new to the old, and sometimes with memories, we tend to remember them as being a bit better than they may were" (Germ3).

"I think that it is. If I would give anyone let's say a good advice or let's say that for me worked out, is that if you move to another country, you start comparing. Comparing you know it is like in Paris it is like that, you know look at this, this is how they do it, and this is. I think this comparison is a natural consequence, probably, of moving because you want to have a frame reference and a benchmark. But it would actually be much better not doing it, and rather focusing on at least, and this is what I found out for myself, is remind myself why I did it, why did we come over, why did we move. Once you move that the country you left is paradise, but it actually is not because you only focus on the good things of this country and then you only see the downside or the things, which do not play out for you in the new country. But if you were to have a paradigm shift for yourself and

say hey that is what I actually I did not like in the country which I left, here is the opportunity here and just to focus on the good stuff, it is healthier let's say it that way, it is healthier for you just focusing on the good things. Whereas let's say trying to or let's say getting by default because it is this kind of process of moving to the other country, by default getting into the trap of how nice it was in the area you lived in. You miss simple things like bread, you know they this kind of bread and here they only this bad toast" (Fren1).

This is a good piece of advice it may be better to look at the new country in a positive light and try to see the good in everything, instead of comparing it to one's home country. Another expatriate(Eng3) had another good piece of advice for other expatriates that he himself got prior to his first assignment in Saudi Arabia at an interview.

"But I will say the best general advice I ever got about culture and about working in the Middle East. When I stood there in 2002 and was at this interview about this. I was worried because how I would get along with any Arabs when I didn't know about the Arab culture, and there I got the best advice it is: act naturally, act polite toward them you are with, well, then it won't go terribly wrong. Because people know that you have, they can see that you have another skin colour that you come from another background, as long as you appear polite and forthcoming" (Eng3).

Acting normal, as the others know that you do not know everything about their culture, and most of them probably will be forthcoming and helpful to make you feel welcomed. The same expatriate also mentioned that it is important to remember that as an expatriate you are a guest in another country, and so it is important to be respectful toward them, and their traditions, norms, and beliefs. However, it is arguable that if one has not travelled to the Middle East or has very little knowledge about Islam and what is and isn't acceptable, then this may be difficult. Another element he stated was that you as an expatriate are not there to change the country and its culture, but you are only there to work. This rounds up what most think of as common courtesy, and as long as you remember to be polite and respectful, maybe it will not go that bad. This also points toward you do not have to be terrified of making mistakes because they are somewhat inevitable, and you do not have to scared of interacting with the locals, as often people will be helpful and forgive any mistakes you might make. One expatriate said that after

being in Egypt, he thought he knew everything about Arabs and could navigate all the countries.

"It was more difficult to go from Egypt to Libya because I had expected to find more or less the same scenario. This was not the case in Libya. In Egypt it was easy to find a place to drink alcohol, they had a large variety or bars and restaurants. They had fast food restaurants like Mc Donald, burger king, etc. but in Libya, they didn't have any of these things despite being so close to Egypt. People that worked in these places spoke adequate English whereas in Libya this was 180 degrees different" (Ital2).

This statement shows how some become overconfident about their abilities and how hard adjusting to a new country actually is. Especially, here he made the mistake of thinking that all countries in the Middle East roughly have the same facilities, same culture, norms, and beliefs.

Majority of expatriates felt that local employees would been greatly beneficial in making expatriates adjust easier. However, a few did feel uncomfortable to seek practical advice from local employees. (Fren1) considers it undignified to expect local people fit into expatriate's lifestyle and manners.

"It will be really arrogant to wait that Libyan people do something to make myself feel comfortable here. I think it should be other way around. But it would be helpful if they do it of course. There is also a danger in this. If you come to another country and local people are highly intelligent in terms of different cultures it can make you close your heart for changes, for new knowledge about these people. By the time it will turn you into culturally unintelligent international specialist. It's a reverse effect" (Fren1).

The discussion for, the impact of cultural differences and adjustment of Europeans expatriates in Libya would be best divided into three subsections, personality traits, international experience and family life. Shaffer and Harrison (1998), as mentioned in the literature review that if the expatriate is not able adjust to the new environment, they will be incapable to work well, and this will almost definitely lead to failure of the assignment.

Adjustment difficulties can be decreased by for example cautious expatriate selection and training.

Cultural adjustment can be looked at from two different standpoints, depending on which interpretation of culture is adopted. One approach is the personal fit perspective which looks at culture consisting of schema which individuals use to organise their life, using culturally shaped skills and habits where required (Jun and Gentry 2005). This perspective places emphasis on personal ability and individual characteristics for cultural adjustment. The other approach is the cultural similarity hypothesis, which implies culture is a unitary and coherent structure that determines the way people who belong to that specific culture think and act (Jun and Gentry 2005).

This research looks at culture from the individual perspectives of expatriates, which seemingly renders the personal fit perspective applicable. However, the cultural similarity hypothesis, which is based on cultural differences at a societal level, is also revealed to have a substantial influence on Cross cultural adjustment. High cultural distance creates barriers to the knowledge flow between host and home country nationals because social, and interaction skills developed and recognised in the home country do not coincide with those of the host country (Malek and Budhwar 2013). This is likely to decrease the expatriate's ability to understand and predict how others will behave in a host country environment (Harvey and Novicevic 2000 and Black, Mendenhall and Oddou 1991), leading to uncertainty, stress and negatively affecting adjustment.

Two key factors analysed and discussed in this section; namely personality traits and international experience. Which indicated the strong link between these two factors and Cross cultural adjustment. Table 6.7 summarises the key personality traits and international experiences found to be linked to Cross cultural adjustment with European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya.

6.5.1 PERSONALITY TRAITS

The key personality traits linked to Cross cultural adjustment were sociability, inquisitiveness, open-mindedness and cultural acceptance, and within this, tolerance for ambiguity, adaptability, and flexibility. All these traits aligned with the literature, except for inquisitiveness, which emerged as an interesting finding; the desire for new experiences and adventure. However, this trait could be considered as the predecessor to open-mindedness, which is the willingness to consider these new experiences. Forming

relationships with Libyans appears to be an effective management tool as way to increase the willingness of Libyans to work for you. It showed to be highly beneficial. A willingness to communicate with the local Libyan staff and interact with them this was in line with the literature review (Takeuchi et al. 2002).

Table 6.7 Key personality traits and international experience

Cultural acceptance	Ability to recognise and accept differences
Tolerance for ambiguity	Ability to go with the flow
Flexibility and adaptability	Ability to adjust and comprise to difference
Social skills	Ability to get along with people from different cultures
Open mindedness	Unprejudiced /tolerant/willing to change
Non-work international experience	Travel experience/ experience with other cultures
International work experience	Previous international work experience
Inquisitiveness	Desire for new experiences

Cultural acceptance referred to the importance of recognising over understanding, and was an exceptionally interesting finding as it contradicted the literature (Eng1), which emphasises that the ideal and fully adjusted expatriate has complete understanding of the reasons behind the culture, and is able to interpret it as a host national would (Huff 2013, Malek and Budhwar 2013, Mendenhall and Oddoue 1986 and Torbiörn 1985). This reveals an interesting concept for Cross cultural adjustment, suggesting that understanding may not be as important as scholars might think it is, but rather the focus should be on recognising (Eng1). The findings also revealed that open-mindedness was a key trait, and was proposed by all expatriates. Open-mindedness is strongly supported in the literature by Caligiuri and Tarique (2012), Lievens et al. (2003), Caligiuri (2000) and Hannigan (1990). This trait appeared particularly important in helping expatriates adjust and accept the differences.

Tolerance for ambiguity, flexibility and adaptability (Bhagat and Prien 1996), and social skills are all supported by the literature. It was revealed in the findings that social skills

were important, as expatriates referred to the ability to work with and manage with individuals from dissimilar cultures (Scot2, Germ3). This aligns with the literature which denotes to interpersonal skills and the ability to interact with people with diverse communications styles and behaviours (Tung 1981, Hannigan 1990 and Caligiuri 2000). Additionally, forming relationships with Libyans appears to be an effective management tool as a way to increase the willingness of Libyans to work for you. It showed to be highly beneficial. However, a surprising finding that emerged was the approach of recognising over accepting, which contradicts the literature that emphasises the importance of understanding. Mendenhall and Oddoue (1986 p.75) describe the "ideal expatriate" as one that understands the rationale behind the culture. Cultural intelligence, which as has been attributed to adjustment (Huff 2013 and Malek and Budhwar 2013), has been described as the ability to interpret foreign behaviour as accurately as a host national could (Ehnert and Brewster 2008).

Furthermore, the final stage of adjustment has been defined as the point when the individual has a full understanding of socially acceptable behaviour (Torbiörn 1985); suggesting adjustment is not possible without complete understanding. Conversely, the results showed that trying to understand the reasons behind the culture can be stressful and is often fruitless and that actually it is better to recognise what the differences are and accept them rather than trying to understand the rationale behind them.

Following the findings in relation to personality traits, in Cross cultural training, the goal should be to teach recognition not understanding because understanding the rationale behind the cultural differences is not always necessary. Expatriates don't need to get stressed when they don't have full understanding, but rather try to recognise and adapt.

Recognising the cultural tendencies, and accepting that certain behaviour may not always be what expatriates perceive as ineffectiveness, deceit or incompetence, but rather embedded cultural norms. Understanding this is the first step towards implementing precautions and solutions to prevent these tendencies from becoming cultural barriers that can cause loss of productivity, delays and misunderstandings; ultimately expatriate failures.

These findings suggest that perhaps the emphasis should not be on understanding, as is emphasised in the literature, but rather recognising and accepting. This approach also appears to be more realistic than what the literature proposes. Gaining complete

understanding of the reasons behind the culture seems to be unfeasible, especially considering the temporary nature of assignments. As one expatriate pointed out, he had limited desire to integrate fully into the culture, knowing he would be leaving after a couple of years (Eng1). Furthermore, it would be desirable that expatriates achieve Cross cultural adjustment as soon as possible, enhancing the likelihood of success in as short a time as possible. This implies that taking an approach aimed at recognising culture difference, which is expected to deal with Cross cultural issues in a shorter period of time, is more effective than aiming for full understanding and adjustment, which is expected to take several years. Additionally, the attempt to reach full understanding can also further cause further frustrations, especially when full understanding is difficult to achieve.

These findings prove useful in identifying which are the key personality traits associated with living and working effectively in Libya. The findings reveal which are important to focus on in this context, and how they can be useful. It also raises the interesting point of cultural acceptance, which has implications for selection as a personality trait, but also for Cross cultural training, in teaching with the intention to raise awareness and recognition, rather than understanding.

6.5.2 INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCE

In this section, international experience refers to expatriates who have lived and worked abroad, and other international experience refers to any other international experience expatriates mentioned. A lot of the literature suggests that previous international experience is positively linked to Cross cultural adjustment, in terms of both general and interaction adjustment (Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley 1999). However, it also shows that it is a complex factor, with numerous moderators, and is associated with various uncertainties both in terms of the nature of experience and the impact it has.

According Ehnert and Brewster (2008) empirical studies relating to international experience have produced inconsistent results. Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou (1991) suggest that quantity of previous international work experience does not relate to adjustment, however, maintain that generally previous international experience does facilitate adjustment, but point out that how this happens and what factors moderate it are yet to be explored by scholars. Haslberger (2008) argues there is a lack of measure of quality of international experience. However, Takeuchi et al. (2005) do distinguish

between work and travel international experience to more thoroughly assess how the qualitative aspects of international experience influence expatriate adjustment. This indicates uncertainties about how international experience impacts Cross cultural adjustment, both in terms of the nature of the international experience as well as the effects it has.

Most expatriates time spent in Libya ranged from 1 to 30 years. There are several explanations for this. For instance, as clarified in the literature review, Libya is very differing greatly from the western countries in regards to not only the culture but also societally, morally, what is permissible and what isn't and from geographic view. These reasons and more all have an influence on the expatriate's verdict regarding how long their assignment will last in Libya. Also, the period for a lot of assignments is one to two years, and several expatriates possibly will only stay for that period of the assignment before moving on elsewhere. Interestingly, expatriates Scot4, Scot1, who lived in Libya for over 10 years. This set can be categorised as long term Libyan expatriate. The main reason stated for choosing to stay in Libya for a long duration of time was because of financial reasons; the expatriates were very happy with the packages they received.

It is evident from the findings that on the whole the expatriates had lived or worked abroad prior their assignment in Libya. This is down to the point that when hiring new workforce in expatriate roles, a lot of corporation's favour individuals who have worked and lived overseas before. Knowing that an expatriates had worked and lived in the Middle East prior to their present assignment can be beneficial, since that way the suitable cross cultural training can be delivered to them. Although Ital2 was previously in Egypt and still found it hard to adapt to Libya as it as he states is very different to Libya. Moreover, if the expatriate lived abroad previously, it can be a worthy indicator that they have aspiration to learn about other cultures. As demonstrated in the literature review, having an aspiration or desire to learn is of great significance. Delivering cross cultural training to an expatriate who does not have the enthusiasm to learn is impractical and expensive. Only five expatriates did not have any previous international experience (Bos5, CZR1, Pol5, Germ1 and Fren1).

International work experience appeared to has a positive influence on cross cultural adjustment, and it showed to help in building the personality traits mentioned above particularly cultural acceptance; tolerance for ambiguity, flexibility and adaptability; and

social skills. Experience in the Middle East revealed to be particularly advantageous for expatriates (for e.g. Eng3, Ital2) because Arab culture is so widely different to the West and the experience helped them in becoming culturally accepting and adapting to the differences.

It was pointed out by expatriates that previous international experience is greatly preferred by the corporation employing expatriates. Previous international experience was a good sign if the expatriate can deal with an unaccustomed and different environment.

Furthermore, expatriates with adequate international experience have explained how they are accustomed for living and working in an unacquainted environment. As they previously have been open to a dissimilar country previously, they have cultured skills in adjusting to overseas environments and those skills acquired can be shifted to other countries they work or live in from experience the expatriates know that it is essential to have the ability to adjust speedily and effectively to the different environment. For corporation, this means that employing expatriates with previous international experience is a way to ensure that the expatriate employed will stay and not return prematurely before completing the job that they were allocated. Since the new environment will not be too intimidating for them, the expatriate will be expected to perform well and to work to their full potential.

Takeuchi et al. (2005) consider both travel and work international experience to be of importance. The findings aligned with this, showing that experience with different cultures and traveling abroad, reported to help them to become accepting of different cultures, thereby aiding with adjustment. This experience included periods in diverse countries and with individuals from diverse cultures, for example socialising and living with individuals from dissimilar cultures while at University and going on extended holidays. The findings suggest that international experience impact on cross cultural adjustment and they help in developing the personality traits key to adjustment. The findings also highlight the importance of considering both work and non-work experience, providing insights for scholars looking at the impact of international experience on adjustment.

The interviews have highlighted that relocating to a different country with a different set of rules, customs and culture can be intimidating. The reason why corporation employ

expatriates with previous international experience was significant, particularly if no training was in place. This doesn't necessarily mean that cross cultural training would not be given, it just means that this is one way employed by some corporation to attempt to escape expatriate failure. Though, it is not possible every time to employ expatriates that have previous international experience; additionally, these expatriates may not have been offered training on their previous international assignment. This is the reason why Cross cultural training is essential. The purpose for predominantly concentrating on CCT as opposed to technical skills training was because expatriates in the interviews stated that there were no or very few, differences concerning the technical side.

As Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) and Takeuchi et al. (2005) point out, international experience is a complex factor with various moderators and therefore further in-depth; exploration may be necessary to paint a more complete picture of how international experience effects adjustment.

In regards to international experience, both work and non-work experience appeared useful for adjustment, in line with research by Takeuchi et al. (2005). However, as international experience is a complex factor with many moderators, it was hard to decipher the link between international experience, both work and non-work, personality traits and Cross cultural adjustment, suggesting that there is a need for further research into this area and the links between these three factors.

Motivations and satisfaction of expatriate were also explored in individual characteristics, and revealed work experience and financial benefits remain a priority to expatriates; however, an intriguing finding was the third motivation, life experience. The desire for travel and new experiences has implications both for selection and support in enhancing expatriate job satisfaction and motivation. Selection criteria vary subject to the country and the corporation. Majority of the studies show that most expatriates appear to experience culture shock after the arrival "honeymoon period" come to an end (Ratiu, 1983). Though culture shock could as well be a good indication, as it can show that the expatriates are getting into the Libyan culture.

Additional measures that the NOC ought to be considering when selecting expatriates are the expatriate age range, experience, and education. Heller (1980), highlights that expatriates of a younger age tend to be keener for international work. Though, more often,

younger expatriates are often less established in technical skills and have less experience in management. Corporation however often make decisions of employing an expatriated based on their technical capability and qualifications. Technical competence is essential. Nevertheless, it is only one of several skills an expatriate requires to succeed on the assignment in the Libya. If the corporation chooses an expatriate built on an expatriate's technical skills, the corporation is set the expatriate to fail, since the expatriate will go abroad trusting that they are adequately ready and prepared for the international assignment. Nevertheless, they will not have the capabilities to deal adequately with the challenges ahead, and hence, will most likely lead to failure of the assignment.

Furthermore, corporation typically wish the expatriate to hold an academic degree in addition to, the desire to work aboard. Over time, corporation have appreciated that a sense of balance is vital, and for this reason, they employ young in addition to older expatriates (Luthans and Doh, 2009). This can also be seen with the NOC in Libya. According to Tu and Sullivan (1994), belief that expatriates which are thinking of travelling abroad to work must evaluate themselves to see if they are ready to become expatriates. This can be achieved by self-assessment and overall awareness here the person questions himself, is an international assignment appropriate for me? Also, cultural training and technical skills. The individual Studies the customs, the spoken language, and custom of the country in aid of developing cultural awareness. When possible travel to the country before relocating there, in addition to, speaking to persons who have previously or currently worked in the area. Once Caligiuri (2000) examined the associations between nationals and expatriates, it was concluded that more interaction with nationals positively links to cross cultural adjustment especially when an expatriate has the character trait of openness. Caligiuri (2000), confirms that the personality trait of sociability is positively linked to cross cultural adjustment.

Various studies have shown the significance of previous international experience (Black,1988 and Parker et al., 1993), As this previous international experience inclines to lessen the challenges linked to work adjustment. Furthermore, the hypothesis can be made that expatriates with previous international experience may need possibly less CCT than those expatriates with no previous international experience. According to McCormick and Chapman (1996), preventive and in country adjustment will impact the expatriate's means and amount of adjustment. There will at all times be highs and lows in a relocating to a new country for a new job, nevertheless with suitable CCT and

practical support the expatriates will be able adjust to the new environment and adjust much faster. The sooner the expatriates are incorporated, the earlier they can accomplish their assigned jobs to their complete ability. Moreover, if expatriates not able to integrate it is doubtful that they will be able to succeed with their assignment at the NOC in Libya, or anywhere else. Therefore, suitable CCT is of the utmost importance.

6.5.3 FAMILY LIFE

All expatriates interviewed did not have their families travel with them. This was mainly due to the security issues in Libya. This was especially true after the revolution in 2011. When support from members such as a partner or a family member can be irreplaceable to an expatriate, particularly as Libya is so dissimilar to a western country and culture shock can be tough to overpower without much needed support from family or spouse. Though in this research none of the expatriates had family members with them thus, one important point that was brought up was networking with other expatriates. Also, in the another suggestion made was having a network at the location or in the region could facilitate this or establishing some sort of contact person at headquarters, preferably a person who have been stationed abroad before. Through this, the expatriates can have a venue in which they have the possibility to get advice on how to tackle some of the challenges they are facing, and get some reassurance that what they are doing, are actually correct. This should to some extent also cover spouses, as they are most crucial to a successful stay abroad, and they are left more on their own. Though they have to face most everyday events on their own and have to deal with many day to day challenges that most do not think of as being that difficult, but can be very tricky in a country where you may not understand the language or how they do things. Another expatriate proposed that you should make a record of the things you can do and the things you don't do.

According to Tung, 1987 the state of the spouse/family can either benefit expatriates to be succeed in their assignment or could lead to their failure. The European expatriates interviewed stated that while working at the NOC, they worked on a rotation basis (all but two who had experience of both rotation and full-time (Scot1 & Scot4). Where they would spend 28 days in Libya and 28 days back home. They all seemed happy with this arrangement. All expatriates felt they were financially satisfied and thus were all happy with this arrangement to travel back and forth.

From the literature, it is apparent that there is a solid association among adjustment of expatriate and adjustment of spouse. The spouses' incapability to adjustment to new environment in a foreign country is the primary cause for expatriate failure during an international assignment. In the case of these expatriates, the financial satisfaction was enough for them and their spouses to be happy with. Some expatriates did say how it wasn't easy and that it did at times cause problems.

It can be concluded that the successful completion of an expatriate assignment is subject to the adjustment of expatriate's spouse as this is considered by many studies as significant determinant of an expatriate's success. Therefore, it is vital to deliver CCT for both the expatriates and their spouse/ families. If the family does decide to join the expatriate, they should also be provided with both pre departure and post arrival (Selmer and Leung, 2002). The support that training programs offer to families may help them to adapt to a new culture and environment. If not, expatriate's chances of failing during the international assignment would be higher. Should the security situation in Libya was to improve, adaptation must, therefore, be considered for not only the expatriate but also the family.

6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In line with the research objectives, this chapter presented the findings for the four main categories found during the data collection process. This chapter also, discussed the findings, compared and contrasted these findings with those in the literature making links with chapter three & four, the theoretical and empirical literature review in this research.

The aim of this research was to pull out the perceptions of European expatriates regarding the experiences they had in order to research the influence of cross cultural training on an expatriate's assignment. The findings show that CCT was not offered to the European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya. This, in turn, had a negative influence on their ability to have a positive International experience, to form up positive relations with the local Libyan employees, to achieve the objectives of the international assignment and, consequently, they will not be able to enhance their job performance. Although the number of expatriates' used for the sample is somewhat small, it is essential to indicate that the expatriates decided that CCT is the utmost vital skill for the success of an international assignment. Meaning that delivering sufficient sequential and efficient CCT

is crucial for the expatriates, for it aids them to best comprehend the new culture and to have an increased positive outlook of its characteristics.

This research proposes, however, that future research should take into account the needs of the local employees and their training. Additionally, the findings point out that to enable expatriates' adjustment and for expatriates to achieve success on their international assignments, expatriate selection measures should be a priority when recruiting expatriates, similarly, language training should be integrated into the training program of the local culture. This research offers empirical support for concentrating on post arrival cross cultural training on learning the local norms and rules, as it has a positive influence on the cross cultural adjustment, the improvement of cross cultural capability, and the job performance of the expatriates. The findings of this research has implications for the International corporation's: Firstly, the findings show that post arrival cross cultural training concentrating on educating the expatriates on the new countries local norms and rules must be a condition worth investing in by the corporation 's. Secondly, in order to cut an expatriates' time of cross cultural adjustment and to make the most of their efficiency, the corporation needs to Cross culturally train its expatriates, training should be included also in the pre departure stage. It allows expatriates to be more conscious of the matters they will be confronting, it will motivate expatriates to obtain the essential skills, and will familiarize them with what to anticipate, consequently lessening possible stress, reducing the time of adjustment, and assisting them to build cross cultural competence promptly. Finally, the findings of this research confirm what the literature states regarding the effectiveness of CCT for international assignments in regards to cross cultural relations, cross cultural adjustment, cross cultural competence, and of job performance. The findings of the research support both pre departure cross cultural training or post arrival cross cultural training as operational and of great value for international corporations.

Overall this research revealed that cultural differences were noticeable and very much in the forefront of expatriate minds. These differences had numerous impacts on expatriate experiences. At a wider level, the data showed that expatriate assignments were at risk and culture appeared to be a factor in this, as day-to-day difficulties and interruptions add in the long term. This is particularly harmful in the oil and gas construction industry because there is so much cost involved in operating and running of the facilities. As

expatriates are an integral part of these ventures, their Cross cultural skills are crucial to the success of the assignment and achieving company objectives. The next chapter, chapter seven will conclude this research, the chapter will also present the contributions and implications of this research and subsequently review the limitations, recommendations, and avenues for future research.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

7.0 INTRODUCTION

The world appears to be getting smaller with an increased amount of people deciding to live and work abroad in regions that differ greatly to their home-based country. Consequently, there is an increase in the number of individuals from different parts of the world with differing social and cultural backgrounds coming together interacting and communicating. For this reason, the need of CCT has not been as vital as it is in the present day (Gulleksona & Dumaisnilb, 2016). As it is evident from the majority of studies discussed in the theoretical and empirical literature review as well as the findings in this research absence of CCT does have a negative consequence on expatriates while on their international assignment (Abdullah & Jin, 2015)., for instance, the expatriates incapability to adjust to the new environment, results in jobs taking longer than anticipated and assignments not being completed or achieved, to name a few (Haslberger, Brewster, Hippler, 2013) . Failure does not only have negative impacts on the expatriate or their spouse/family, but it does cost corporation a substantial amount.

This concluding chapter will present a summary of the key findings, next it aims to provide the research recommendations. Subsequently the research contributions & implications are given. Also, the possible limitations of the research will also be presented. Finally, any potential future research is discussed.

Although Libya has an expatriate population, most expatriates find themselves living in isolated societies. Normally the majority of individuals have a tendency to stay with individuals of the same or similar cultural background and language. From the empirical data, it can be established that the more the interactions among Local nationals and expatriates, the more the positive effect there is on the expatriate's general cross cultural adjustment. Nevertheless, as revealed in Hofstede's findings, the Arab cultures differs greatly to the western world. This highlights that interaction between expatriates and nationals of an entirely different cultural background may perhaps be challenging and difficult.

The Arab region ranked a power distance of eighty and an uncertainty avoidance of sixty-eight, Hofstede, 2003, indicated that these were the main characteristics of the Arab

countries. This indicates that it is expected that person in charge detaches themselves from the crowd and produce detailed instructions. A situation would come about where the influential would have definitive authority and control in the group. Furthermore, having a high power distance ranking proposes a high level of disparity in matters such as power and wealth in a society. In this type of society, the separation of the persons with authority from the group is accepted and acknowledged by society as part their cultural custom. Whereas in many European countries, it is relatively low in this dimension. Revealing a bigger level of equality among societal levels. A high uncertainty avoidance ranking reveals that the Arab cultures will have a lower level of patience for uncertainty. Consequently, most of the population from this area do not eagerly take on adjustment or change and are particularly disinclined or reluctant to take risks. Masculinity ranks as the third highest in Hofstede's dimensions of culture in Arab countries (ranking of 52). Masculinity ranks at around the middle of Hofstede's dimensions, since when making decisions the general Arab community are more likely to be sympathetic and kind (feminine) in comparison with individuals from the Western world.

 The Arab world ranks 38 for individualism, and the worldwide average individualism is 64. This suggests that the Arab regions has a collectivist culture, and this is evident in how the Arabs, in general, are close and have a robust commitment to their group and family in comparison to the west, where they are an individualist nation. In a collectivist culture, faithfulness to the group is dominant and outweighs the majority of other social rules. It is clear from Hofstede's dimensions that the western society and Libya differ greatly in many aspects. If expatriates do not prepare for the international assignment and do not acquire and recognise the differences that exist in the culture, in society, in beliefs, in the legal system and business customs, this could easily lead to an unsuccessful assignments and consequently the failure of the expatriate.

It is progressively evident that CCT is central in expatriate preparation for their international assignment. CCT has long been supported as an approach to facilitate successful cross cultural communication and interaction among expatriates and the Local, national employees. In the circumstance that an expatriate does not receive CCT or insufficient training, it can be seen from the findings in this research that this does not necessarily lead to failure of the assignment or premature return, but it can be a great factor that could potentially direct to the failure of the expatriate. An expatriate is considered to have failed if for instance the expatriate has not completed the assignment,

has returned prematurely or has low job performance and subsequently will require a replacement with a new expatriate. The failure of the expatriate not only results to damages to the corporation. However, it can also result in the expatriate losing their job, limiting any future career prospects and effects the expatriate's self-esteem.

Apart from facing the challenges of a new employment, European expatriates have to adjust to a different and unacquainted social and work environment in addition to new culture. In this research, adjustment has been discussed as the development of an expatriate's aptitude to fit in, in order for them to be contented and at ease with the new environment. As explored previously, many reasons exist for the premature return of expatriates to their home country. Some of the challenges and problems that affect the international assignment negatively can be prevented if suitable and sufficient CCT is delivered. As recommended from the finding, culture shock, for instance, may be reduced and can occur for a smaller length of time when an expatriate is accurately prepared for what to anticipate, than if they did not receive any preparation. The sooner the expatriate is over the culture shock phase and adjusts, the earlier that expatriate can work at their full ability. A lot of the Arabic attributes must be considered, and expatriates require appropriate preparation prior to living and working in Libya.

The Arabs have a high opinion of the Westerners that for example are punctual to conferences or meeting even if the Arabs themselves are unpunctual. Though, to time, is not as central to the Arabs as it is to West. In the Arab culture, including Libya, there is more prominence on synchronisation and harmony. Therefore, in order to uphold this being unpunctual to meetings, having interruptions while in a meeting are frequent and are permitted.

Although, the nationals in a country like Libya do fully appreciate and identify that such delays, unpunctuality, disruptions, and time are a limited resource Nevertheless, being aware of time and being punctual is difficult for Libyans since they will not put this a priority at that at the cost of personal relationships. Also, Arabs including Libyans are classed as polychronic opposite to most individual from the west who are considered more, monochronic, they prefer to fix a particular time to carry out each individual job. Consequently, Libyans may have more than a few meetings consecutively at the same time, and this would require an expatriate's time to get used to endless disturbances during meetings or work.

The male-controlled nature of the Libyan culture proposes that the allocation of power is unusual and unwarranted for those on the other end.

Expatriates employed in Libya originate from all parts of the world. For this reason, English is the chosen language when it comes to Business in Libya. It is essential, nonetheless, to study some Arabic and grasp some basic Arabic expressions and phrases; this demonstrates respect to Libyans and is valued by the Libyans. Knowledge of the Arabic numbers and how to read and write them will also assist expatriates to comprehend figures and prices, and it is beneficial when travelling around the city. In cross cultural communications it is not what is spoken, but what is heard that is essential. In an overseas country, it is important to listen with not only your ears but also the eyes and the soul. Therefore, being attentive to body language is very essential around Libyans. Physical response, facial expression and such as gestures, have concealed meanings. As Libya is an Arab country and is therefore believed to have high-context communicators, there is frequently many meaning to a word that may be used. For instance, the term 'Inshallah' (if God wills). When a Libyan says 'Inshallah,' it may refer to a number of options, such as Yes, No, Maybe, Someday, or Never.

Moreover, like many of the Arabs, Libyan do not place as much prominence on written communiqué as Arabs and Libyan are a greatly verbal society. This may work out in the benefit of the expatriate since, direct meetings and body language can be detected and at the same time they can check for joint understanding. Due to the fact that Libyans as other Arab cultures are more of a verbal society it important for expatriates to become good listeners. Contrary to the Western society where written communiqué is favoured the Libyans like other Arabs favour personal work or home visits, or telephone calls when a personal visit is not feasible because they have faith that this has a greater impact than communicating through for example emails. In comparison to the western society in Libya emails would usually get overlooked, unnoticed or possibly take a period of time to be replied to.

Libyan like other Arab countries are famous for their hospitality and their stress on external expressions. The Libyan are passionate about entertaining their host, and this is one good way to create a bond Libyans. For this reason, offers protracted from Libyans to expatriates need to be received courteously, and suitable custom must be erudite in

advance to attending the occasion. When a bond has been established amongst the Libyan and an expatriate, the expatriate will then be deemed as a 'friend.'

Like all Arabs, Libyans place a large prominence on relationships and a dependence on complete faith when they are undertaking business.

Research on training has been generally limited to America; this is not relevant to other countries and nations. Consequently, this research has explicitly concentrated on the Libyan and western culture. In this research, it has been exposed that CCT plays a significant role in adjustment of Europeans in Libya and therefore influences the success of an expatriate's assignment. Despite the fact that the majority of European expatriates agree that CCT is important none of them received any training.

Additionally, the expatriates approve that on-site training is essential, despite this no training was delivered from the NOC. CCT is vital for the success of expatriates in foreign countries, and it must not be overlooked by IHRM. As indicated by the expatriates, not providing efficient, current and effective CCT could have negative effects on the career prospects and personal consequences on the expatriate and similarly negative impacts on the NOC.

Many researchers such as (Black et. al., 1992; Naumann, 1993) have carried out comprehensive studies that show the positive association amongst CCT and the expatriate's aptitude to adapt to the new environment. In actual fact, CCT is especially important for those expatriates that are not sufficiently knowledgeable about the foreign culture, work morals, and social custom. CCT has the potential to benefit expatriates not just to adjust to the new environment but also to become more confident, capable and successful in their international assignment. As a result of CCT expatriates gain and acquire a better understanding the foreign country, and this will boost their self-value; it decreases expatriate's anxiety levels and permits them to take a grip on culture shock. In that way gives them an advantage over a person with no CCT, since the trained expatriates will be accustomed with the foreign country and this enables quicker cross cultural adjustment.

CCT should consist of all pre departure training, onsite training, and repetition training, with a refresher or update training workshop, is delivered every few months throughout their assignment. Training proposes several benefits to expatriates, such as assisting expatriates combat culture shock and unforeseen happenings better, and it also decreases

the uncertainty of interactions with local, national employees. It is comprehensible that corporation strive to build a suitable framework for the expatriates for coping with unfamiliar cultures. Nevertheless, corporation need to remedy this, since expatriates need a frame to go by in the shape of CCT and mentors.

Reine et al. (2000) have carried out research revealing that diverse national cultures favour different learning styles, and thus to provide CCT in the most useful manner, corporation must modify and adapt their training accordingly. Furthermore, Waxin et al. (2004) also highlights that the types of training needs be specially personalised to the cultural distance amid the expatriate's home country and the foreign country. Hence, a comprehension of Hofstede's dimensions would contribute to this development. In addition, Vance and Paik (2002) highlights in order for CCT to be successful it needs be in accordance with the cultural properties of the foreign country. One way the NOC would benefit from using former expatriates to help in the training process, as those expatriates have faced the potential challenges that will face the new expatriate, and can, therefore, be an ideal candidate for the job role and possibly taking the role of a mentor (Harris, 1989). In this way, a mentor or the trainer would be able to help in the development of a coaching system that can be established to train new expatriates. The European expatriates in this research have indicated in the findings that overall they would have a preference to hands on training and that having a mentor would have helped tremendously during the settling in period as they felt they could ask for assistance and guidance when required.

There are many reasons for the importance of CCT. According to Hofstede, when it comes to working in Libya one needs to "follow the rules of the culture ones working with rather than the rules of your own culture" (Hofstede, 2006, p.24).

Therefore, offering CCT to expatriates is vital for assisting and supporting expatriates in their progress and success abroad. From a corporation viewpoint, if expatriates are sufficiently trained for their international assignment, the chances of success are increased, and there will be an increase in contribution as well as the overall competence and productivity. The NOC could avoid losing money and employees over expatriate failure.

Additionally, despite its importance the National Oil Corporation does not give satisfactory language training to its expatriates. Despite the fact that most work is done

using the English language, expatriates who do not speak fluent English, and are working in a country such as Libya, are at a disadvantage.

The three recommendations composed in this chapter guided the researcher to propose a CCT plan, which is represented in Figure 7.1.This CCT plan has the potential of benefiting European expatriates (Western) cope with living and work in Libya.

Corporation would benefit if they considered both the technical and personal criteria when choosing expatriates. Expatriates which are employed abroad need to have the ability adapt to change. The measures for choosing an expatriate are mostly based on expatriate previous experience and level of education. Technical competence is essential. However, it is one of several skills that an expatriate will require while in a foreign country. If corporation base their selection methods based on technical skills, the corporation may be preparing the expatriate to fail, since the expatriates will relocate to the foreign country under the impression that they are ready for the assignment, whereas due to the absence of satisfactory preparation, they may be unable to manage with the challenges that they may face .Along with technical skills, corporation typically require the expatriate to have an educational degree in addition to aspiring to work overseas.

Parker et al. (1993), indicate the importance of previous international experience since this prior international experience they believe decreases the challenges linked to work adjustment. The hypothesis could be made that expatriates with previous international experience would not need CCT as much as those who have no international experience.

Among other studies the research carried out by Waxin and Panaccio (2005) also reveals that previous international experience has a positive association with expatriate adjustment. Since expatriates with previous international experience will normally develop skills that will support them to cope more within the new and unacquainted environment. Though, even expatriates with previous international experience do not automatically receive CCT. A great deal of the time they developed their new skills by actively and inertly learning about the foreign country.

The literature proposes that CCT has been a strong means of enabling successful cross cultural transfer of expatriates. Though international corporation recognise that CCT is significant, in many situations still do not provide any type of CCT to their expatriates. The reason why corporation do not offer CCT include, CCT is believed to be too costly

and time-consuming and in some instances, it is thought that training is not crucial or valuable.

7.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The research revealed that cultural differences were prominent and very much in the forefront of expatriate minds. These differences had numerous impacts on expatriate experiences. At a wider level, the data showed that expatriate assignments were at risk and differences in culture appeared to be a major factor in this, as day-to-day difficulties and interruptions would accumulate in the long-term. This is particularly harmful in the oil and gas construction industry because there is high cost involved in operating and running of the facilities. As expatriates are an integral part of these ventures, their Cross cultural skills are crucial to the success of projects and achieving NOCs objectives. The finding produced four main areas for discussion they are; the preparation, training, and support, CCT provided by the NOC and its significance to the European expatriates working at the NOC, the impact CCT has on the success or failure of an international assignment, and finally the impact CCT has on the adjustments of the European expatriates in Libya.

Firstly, the preparation, training, and support, this included the preview trip, the practical support provided and how the expatriates perceived this and, the personal support from the local Libyan employees working alongside the expatriates. A preview trip involves visiting the new country of work, in this case, Libya before starting the assignment in order to get a basic understanding of the new environment. The benefits of a preview trip were embraced by the majority of European expatriates. In the circumstance, that security was no longer a concern in Libya. Though the majority of expatriates believed that a preview trip would have been very favourable a minority opposing this view did exist. Also in line with literature, offering a preview trip to expatriates and when possible their families are an effective preparation method. Providing a preview trip despite the high cost involved is of great value since it provides the expatriate and the family with realistic expectations; also they will gain a basic understanding of the new country and location, they will be able to meet others in the same situation as them and will have the opportunity to make some choices such as, choosing the accommodation. None of the 32 European expatriates interviewed was offered a preview trip from the NOC.

Secondly, in terms of practical support that was provided by the NOC, all expatriates were offered support with relocation and living amenities, including visas, flights, shipping, accommodation, and transport. On the whole expatriates were satisfied and perceived the practical support offered to them by the NOC as sufficient. Though most expatriates were satisfied with the practical support provided, all expatriates experienced an initial period of stress, as they faced difficulties, with general tasks, such as shopping or driving. These findings point towards to providing comprehensive, practical support in the initial period of the assignment as it is vital for decreasing expatriate stress levels. Furthermore, it is also associated to improving cultural adjustment because when the daily practical issues are not dealt with suitably, the expatriate is expected to concentrate on dealing with their survival instead of cultural adjustment.

The findings indicated that one of the key factors that supported the expatriates while in Libya is getting help from Libyan local employees. They helped by offering valuable information about Libya's local norms and culture. They findings showed that the Libyan local employees helped the expatriates to adjust better to the work environment by affecting the overall adjustment to both the working environment and social environment. Hence, it can be concluded from the findings that it may be of great benefit to provide adequate CCT not only for the European expatriates but also to Libyan local employees. Delivering CCT to the local employees and the expatriates will allow for improved communication between them. It can aid them to pass information among one another more competently. Also, it will help in inhibiting and reducing cultural shock. It can support expatriates not to sense loneliness as in this particular case all Europeans expatriates were away from their families. A number of expatriates, though, felt uncomfortable to ask for assistance, a minority felt that local staff seemed generally uncooperative and did not support them. Otherwise, it can be concluded from the findings that there is a positive correlation between the support of local staff and the expatriate's overall assignment. Accordingly, the NOC and other large corporation's must be conscious of the implication of local employee training requirements.

The third part of the findings explored CCT, in terms of pre departure training, the post arrival training, language training, and their importance. The findings revealed that none of the interviewed expatriates received any formal training, they did, however, receive training in health and safety. From the findings, it was clear that all European expatriates agreed that cross cultural training is essential and a required element for expatriation.

CCT supports expatriates to develop their social, personal skills, their awareness and ability to interrelate efficiently with the local people and colleagues. It is there vital the NOC begins to implement a form of CCT to it expatriates that arrive for work in Libya.

A substantial number of expatriates believed that pre departure training would have benefited from such training. Since it would have assisted in reducing ambiguity and thus, reducing the stress and anxiety levels, an expatriate may experience. However, the majority of expatriates felt that they would have benefited more from post arrival training that would have been sequential, and delivered over a course of time. Expatriates felt that receiving post arrival training was more beneficial as they would have had time to experience the culture, and are therefore able to relate more and accordingly be able to apply what they have learnt. Consequently, they would be able to benefit most from the training. Another reason found was that the initial crisis phase of adjustment would be over, and the expatriates would, therefore, be more settled.

In regards to language training, the European expatriates indicated that the local Libyan employees working at the NOC were trained to speak English. As a result, while in the work environment, the expatriates generally did not have a major problem with language communication. Nonetheless, language became problematic once in the city when the expatriates interacted with the local Libyans in shops, restaurants and airports, etc.

In regards to the impact of CCT on the success or failure of an international assignment. It can be concluded that Cross cultural training would have been of great value in the preparation of the European expatriates for an international assignment in Libya as well as supporting them to be successful at the NOC. In contrast to not receiving any CCT, the expatriates felt that they were at a disadvantage and adjustment to the Libyan culture would have been easier and smoother otherwise.

The final part of the findings examined the impact of CCT on the adjustment of European expatriates in Libya. Two key factors analysed and discussed from this section of the findings were; namely personality traits and international experience. The findings highlighted the strong link between these two factors and the ability of the expatriate to adjust.

The main personality traits linked to Cross cultural adjustment were sociability, inquisitiveness, open-mindedness and cultural acceptance, and within this, tolerance for

ambiguity, adaptability, and flexibility. In addition to inquisitiveness, which emerged as an interesting finding. Though inquisitiveness can be thought of as the predecessor to open-mindedness. Creating connections with the Libyans seemed to be an effective means to increase the willingness of Libyans to work for you. These findings prove useful in identifying which are the key personality traits associated with living and working effectively in Libya.

Most expatriates time spent in Libya ranged from 1 to 30 years. There are several explanations for this. Libya differs greatly from the western countries in regards to not only the culture but also societally, morally, these reasons effected how long an expatriate decided to stay in the country. The general period for a lot of assignments is one to two years, and several expatriates possibly will only stay for that period of the assignment before moving on elsewhere. Many expatriates interviewed were long-term expatriates. The main reason identified for choosing to remain in Libya for a long period of time was due to the financial benefits; the expatriates were very satisfied with the packages they received.

It is apparent from the findings that on the whole the expatriates had either lived or worked abroad previous to their assignment in Libya. International work experience appeared to has a positive impact on cross cultural adjustment, and it indicated that it aided in building the personality traits mentioned above predominantly cultural acceptance; tolerance for ambiguity, flexibility and adaptability; and social skills. Experience in the Middle East revealed to be particularly advantageous for expatriates. Additionally, expatriates with sufficient international experience have described how they are adapted to living and working in an unfamiliar environment. As they have been exposed to a new country previously, they have learnt skills in adjusting to international environments and those skills developed can be shifted to other countries they work or live in. For corporation, this means that employing expatriates with previous international experience is a way to confirm that the expatriate employed will stay and not return prematurely before finishing the job that they were allocated. International experience, both work, and non-work experience appeared beneficial for adjustment. Nevertheless, as international experience is a multifaceted factor with many moderators, it was difficult to decipher the connection between international experience, both work and non-work, personality traits and Cross cultural adjustment, signifying that there is a requirement for further research into this area and the associations among these three aspects.

7.2 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research aimed to assess the influence of CCT on an expatriate International assignment from a new viewpoint; within the Libyan oil and gas construction industry. This was connected to the inductive approach that was employed to gain a deeper understanding to what is currently available in the expatriate literature. The research design was studied through a qualitative inductive approach.

The case study approach was believed to be appropriate because firstly it provides a systematic way to collect, analyse, and describe the data, therefore understanding the particular problem in more depth. Secondly, it was valuable in revealing the individual perceptions and concerns of expatriates in real life circumstances.

All interviews are aimed to be completed within one hours. Interviews will be taped with the consent of the expatriate, then transcribed for the purpose of data analysis. Prior to the interview respondents were emailed a project information sheet. Each selected interviewee was contacted by email/ telephone to arrange a mutually suitable time convenient for the expatriate and the researcher to conduct the interview. The questions asked during the interview consisted of open-ended questions to produce as much information as possible. At the start of the interview, the expatriate was thanked for participating and giving his time also; the expatriate was informed and assured in regards to any concerns about confidentiality. Each expatriate was asked if he they give consent to record the interview.Due to financial constraints, the researcher transcribed the interviews.

Homogeneous sampling was used. The homogenous sample identified was 32 European expatriates working at the NOC in Libya. European expatriates are one of the largest ethnic groups working at the NOC; they signify approximately 38% of the total expatriates at the NOC (NOC, 2013). A total of 29 different European nationalities are working at the NOC in Libya . Non-random method used , enabled participants from which the greatest can be discovered and thus of greatest value to the research to be chosen.

This research used a standardised, open-ended interviews; this method allowed for faster interviews that can be more straightforwardly analysed and compared. Due to the turmoil in Libya at the time of this research telephone/skype interviews were carried out. Expatriate were not in Libya at the time of the interviews. They were generally in the

neighbouring countries, Malt, Tunisia or in their home countries waiting to resume back to work .Individual interviews were selected for the research since the emphasis of the research was on the influence of CCT on expatriate experiences, through individual insights.

This method was proven to be most appropriate to the research. the structure ensured consistency. While the use of open-ended questions allowed for the qualitative exploration required, it allowed the expatriates to explain the experiences that they had of cross cultural interactions in as much detail. It enabled the collection of all the information required to make this research as detailed as possible. Moreover, Interviews can be modified or adjusted to certain individual situation. Finally, the potential to give details or explain questions would increase the accuracy of the collected data.

A pilot interview was conducted with two European expatriate before final interviews. Data collected from this interview was not counted it was used to determine any weaknesses in the interview design and permitted the researcher to make the necessary modifications .

While there is no set method for analysing qualitative data.this research employed both thematic analysis and coding. Thematic analysis is a method for recognising, examining, and describing themes in data.Once the interviews are recorded and transcribed. The data was coded. Coding each sentence of the transcript , detect key ideas. The assimilation of the codes from the data collected is where the themes then emerged. Each theme was defined and exemplified with quotes from the transcript to aid communicate its meaning.

7.3 CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This research attempted to contribute insights to the CCT, adjustment and to the cultural differences between the West and the Arab world; how culture impacts expatriates in the Libyan oil and gas industry. The research also has implications for the NOC as it proposes improvements for selection, preparation, training and support, practices for effective expatriate organisation in this context. Proposals that are particularly relevant because they reflect the issues as they are happening in the field. The findings are interesting because they reveal the voices of expatriates. Exposing the day-to-day challenges that expatriates face while on assignment and exploring how they deal with them.

Consequently, revealing how cultural differences, training, and Cross cultural adjustment processes impact expatriates and their experiences while working and living in Libya.

Expatriates are faced with dealing with environments that are very different culturally, politically and economically. Therefore, European expatriates living and working in Libya will not only face job linked differences but also personal differences that will ultimately lead to difficulties if not prepared for appropriately.

Currently,to the best of our knowledge, there has not been any studies that have dealt with expatriate difficulties in Libya. Consequently, there is a clear gap in the literature. In particular, there has been no research on European expatriates working in Libyan Oil industry. For this reason, it is necessary to contribute to the development of nation-specific studies.

This research can contribute to human resource professionals at the NOC and also in international corporation. It will benefit them to design and carry out more appropriate and effective CCT programs for expatriates working in countries like Libya. Also, the findings of this research can benefit and be of great value to other companies and organisations similar in aiding their expatriates such as teachers to succeed on their international assignment. Consequently, minimising loss to companies and organisations.

This research has given, and insight and therefore advanced our understanding on how European expatriates can be better supported in order for them to have higher chances of succeeding and performing better on their international assignment and not just merely surviving through it.

Corporation and large companies need to ensure that the expatriates selected for the overseas assignment are appropriately trained. This is, so failure, poor performance and consequently any losses from the companies' perspective are avoided. Selecting the right expatriate for the international assignment can result to a success in overseas assignments. The European expatriates in employment at the NOC may find it challenging to appreciate the potential benefits that Libya may offer without suitable IHRM practices. It is believed that in order for expatriates to reach their full potential it is of great importance that they are prepared suitably for the international assignment. One way this can be done is through delivering effective CCT.

Cultural training is a key rank if the expatriates are to succeed in their assignment in the Libya. In addition to CCT, language training, a pre-visit to the country, consultations with local managers, local and international colleagues that they will be working with and possibly a consultation with a former expatriate who has completed a similar or the same posting are all needed and essential. All of the recommendations presented in figure 7.5.1 can be delivered by the NOC to help expatriates adjust and manage with the new environment and the challenges, they may come to face while in Libya. It is clear that lack or absence of CCT is a leading factor for the failure of an international assignment since it covers many subfactors that will help the expatriate and inevitably be able to complete the work successfully. Thus, it is important to prepare expatriates for international assignments through the use of CCT in order to avoid failure.

7.4 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

All research has to some extent limitations; parts that were not reported in sufficient detail or were not achievable. One limitation of the research is the gender. All respondents were males, which diminishes the generalisability of the findings. However, globally in the oil and gas industry males make up an average of 92% of staff (Hay,2013), reducing this limitation. Nonetheless, experiences from women expatriates would enrich the research.

Another limitation was the expatriate's family life. In this research, it was not possible to look into detail at spouse/family CCT, despite having recommended and advised for spouses and families CCT in order to enable a stress-free and less apprehensive changeover. The explanation for not investigating the preparation of families further was due to the fact that all expatriates did not have their families with them due to the security issues and turmoil in Libya since 2011. Also, none of the expatriates receive any CCT, so the supposition was made that if the NOC do not offer their expatriates with CCT, they most probably will not offer CCT to the employee's spouse/family. Unfortunately, for all the listed reasons, in this particular instance, the research does not take into account family or spouse CCT. Though, this area of research must not be disregarded by the NOC. When both the expatriate and his spouse/family are suitably trained, and support are presented to them, it will imitate positively on the expatriate's job performance it also positively impacts the family as a whole.

When appointing an expatriate for an international assignment, it is vital to be aware of the significant role the spouse/family has on the assignment. Expatriate international

assignments have an effect on the expatriate's spouse/family, moving to an international country abroad away from all that is familiar is unsettling and difficult on the spouse/family. For this reasons considering an expatriate's spouse/family is crucial and it is fundamental that corporation do not overlook this factor of expatriation. Turning a blind eye to the spouse/family and not offering them a tailored CCT programme to aid and a support them could result in them facing challenges and in turn being unable to adjust this will then have negative impacts on the expatriate and his ability to perform the job and more than likely a premature return.

The theoretical literature review in this research referred to Hofstede's work and findings; Hofstede assembled all the Arab countries together as one this could lead to reason that the findings may not be consistent. The reference to the word Arab is debatable, as respectively each Arab country is, in fact, dissimilar to another in many ways, such as their spoken dialect, traditions, and customs. Although they do share many similarities because of the Islamic religion and its strong influence on the society and culture as a whole but still The Arab countries are distinctive and it would be inaccurate to group then as one. The Arab countries are best defined as a nation that shares the spoken Arabic language and the Islamic religion. However, in these Arab countries, thousands individuals will, in fact, speak other languages and practice different religions, and if Arabic is spoken, the dialect is most certainly not the same. This highlights the importance of having nation specific studies in order to have a more reliable set of results.

Even geographically the Arab countries cover a massive area. They cover a region straddling the North of Africa from the Atlantic coasts in the west, into the southwest Asia. The population living in these diverse countries must be researched independently. For example, Comoros in the Indian Ocean is part of the Arab countries, had it been studied instead of Libya the results may have differed. However, Hofstede did set all the Arab countries as one, and his research is very much considered and documented by scholars wide-reaching, and it was therefore used in this research.

Another limitation was the security situation in Libya. Due to the security problems and turmoil in Libya expatriates were temporarily asked to leave the country. Therefore, interviews had to be carried out through skype or over the phone. However, sufficient data was collected to form the basis for the research, with a good response rate. Therefore, making the data collected enlightening, thought-provoking and in-depth.

Recommendations for the NOC and their HR departments have been able to be provided from the finding in this research, so as to if they are prepared, they are able to use these recommendations to offer expatriates with suitable, informed and current CCT.

From an empirical viewpoint, the research carried out can possibly support human resource department at the NOC to design and carry out more suitable CCT programs for future European expatriates working in Libya. Also, the outcomes of this research could assist the NOC recognise in what way they can help expatriates to succeed on the international assignment. In response, this resourcefulness could protect the NOC and other corporation in Libya from loss of resources and money. Capitalising in expatriates is more expected to give the maximum return.

Though this research concentrated on the NOC, the findings are significant, relevant and can be useful to other industries in Libya that employ expatriates.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Both the literature and the findings in this research advice strongly that CCT should be offered to expatriates and that this process of training would ideally begin before expatriates are sent on the international assignment. Sufficient and suitable CCT will allow expatriates to be better prepared and therefore have the ability to face any challenges in the new environment. Furthermore, appropriate pre departure training will allow an expatriate to have an idea of what to anticipate in the new environment. Therefore, the culture shock phase will be decreased.

Deprived of suitable and sufficient CCT expatriates are more drawn to failure. In the case of a premature return or failure of the expatriate, negative financial implications would arise for the expatriate and the corporation. Also, it is important to notes the non-monetary effect to failure, for instance, the loss of business prospects and harm to the NOCs status. There are also emotional problems linked with failure. The expatriate will be expected to have lower self-assurance and damaged self-confidence.

The training program should emphasise solely on the Libyan culture, beliefs, and on customs. It is also essential that the training programs also cover the laws in Libya, management, and ethics. Since Libyans take work, personally it is, therefore, logical to

gain as much knowledge as possible about the Libyan culture to avoid misinterpretations and disagreement.

The research led to the exposure of three main phases of expatriate training; pre departure phase; Onsite phase, and the repetition phase. In the following section, each phase will be explained in more depth.

7.5.1 PRE DEPARTURE PHASE

As shown in the theoretical, empirical literature and the research carried out with the European expatriates, CCT is imperative and a period of time needs to be spent in order to correctly train and prepare expatriates. The more an expatriate is prepared for their international assignments, the greater the possibility of them succeeding. Kramer et al. (2001) also supports this as he highlights that expatriates are expected to complete an international assignment well if they have been given sufficient preparation. Which will lead to a better-adjusted expatriate?

Additionally, Black and Mendenhall (1990) also advocate that CCT are indispensable and are positively associated to expatriate progress and job performance. Forster (2000) trusts that pre departure CCT can assist and familiarise expatriates to live and work in the new environment abroad. Pre departure training is crucial. Nonetheless, it would be more valuable in the case that it continues after the expatriate's arrival in the foreign country.

CCT was recommended by the interview findings, which proposed that prior to expatriate's arrival in the Libya; the NOC should offer a pre-visit or a form of training before arrival. Preparation should be provided by individuals that have the suitable experience, for example, other expatriates who have experienced the same circumstances, and it should consist of videos and an introductory pack on Libya. In this way, the preparation can be made into an interesting more interactive and enjoyable task. In addition to having an expatriate delivering the briefing, Libyan employees acting as delegates from the NOC should also be present to take part in the preparation process in a workshop format.

The exercise should include the history of Libya, it geography, the Islamic religion, some essential Libyan phrases that would be needed on a day to day basis, body language, work communiqué, cultural values and way of life. A list of "dos and don'ts". Not only Social

but also business custom need to be learnt. The material offered in the training along with pack given must be applicable and current.

The majority of challenges that expatriates face and experience are a consequence of a lack of familiarity and awareness of Libya in comparison to their own home countries. With the suitable preparation of expatriates, this can be minimized or avoided. A social system would be beneficial to the expatriate. In order to be able to make a well-versed decision; regarding working and living in Libya, expatriates should be given all the appropriate and sufficient material. The introductory pack must be specific to Libya. The material it should consist of is defined in the following section.

The majority of the 32 European expatriates agreed that CCT is important and that they would benefit from such training. The literature review alongside the interview findings disclose that the subsequent material would be of great value to an expatriate and should be provided to the expatriates at the pre departure phase, in the form of an Introductory Pack:

- An outline of the NOC with facts and figures on the main persons, for instance, their contact information and their photo ID;
- Material on the location of Libya for instance maps, on the place the expatriate will be expected to live and work;
- Information on the history of Libya and its inhabitants;
- The time zone difference in Libya, Libya's average temperature during the year, the currency and its equivalence and useful Libyan everyday phrases;
- A schedule of all the Libyan public holidays, with a summary clarification on what the holidays signifies;
- A guideline to the Libyan customs and protocol possibly in the form of "dos and don'ts";
- Information regarding their accommodation choices with pictures/video clip;
- A comprehensive list of official documents that expatriates need to bring with them in order for visas to be permitted, if they will be driving they need to bring a valid driving licence;
- A full explanation of the health care plan they will be receiving. Also to organise for copies of health records, in addition to having all the necessary vaccinations before relocating to Libya;

- ▪ Preparations to meet and welcome the expatriates with a representative/mentor of the NOC after arriving in the Libya;
- ▪ Office and site (map);
- ▪ Induction this would be delivered on day one of work. The expatriate would also be presented to the mentor and
- ▪ A checklist of basic information.

All the material that is given in the Introductory Pack needs to be applicable and relevant. Another benefit of having an Introductory Pack is that all necessary facts such as phone numbers and the persons to contact is conveniently found in one folder. When onsite the expatriates can then be provided with a CCT programme and workshops.

Furthermore, it was put forward by many of the interviewees that expatriates need to have an accurate and representative indication of what it would be like to live and work in the Libya. As a result of this it is recommended that, if achievable, expatriates would benefit from a visiting Libya before relocation. This will also give expatriates the opportunity to meet and talk with other expatriates presently living and working in Libya, which in turn would assist in the management of expectations and would help prepare them for their international assignment.   These findings lead to the first recommendation.

RECOMMENDATION 1: *To begin the process of CCT prior to expatriates arriving to the international assignment and offer an introductory pack to each expatriate.*

7.5.2 ONSITE PHASE

CCT main goal is to support expatriates develop their understanding and skills, which in turn will aid the expatriate to be able to live and work in an unacquainted country such, as Libya and to be at an advantage and to have an improved job performance. Preparation in the form of CCT can aid the expatriates to comprehend the Libyan culture, their customs, and work ethics.

Black and Mendenhall (1990), possibly two of the top researchers known in this area of study, advocated that the CCT preparation is required and is positively correlated to expatriate progress and their job performance. The purpose of CCT is to give expatriates the tools and information to enable them to mix well in new environment of the foreign country and be more productive (Harris and Brewster,1999). The interviews carried out

on the European expatriates support this opinion and point out that onsite training would be desired. Though, for this international assignment, it was non-existent.

As soon as the expatriates arrive and are on site, the expatriates could be offered an induction workshop or a refreshers workshop of the pre departure training. The difference between the fist workshop and this is that ideally the induction workshop should be spread over three days. The purpose of this is to avoid losing the concentration and focus of the expatriates as whole days or full days of training under the circumstances may be overwhelming for the new expatriate. Therefore, having the CCT for only half days over three days would be much more operative. The training would not only be a cultural preparation package but also contain an analysis of the oil industry in Libya. Furthermore, expatriates could also be taught specific technical skills required. Once in the Libya, expatriates should be provided with a refresher workshop at three months, then six months and twelve months should be provided to keep on top of any possible issues that may arise.

After the induction is complete, each new expatriate would be allocated a mentor or coach through a system that offers a mentoring and coaching. Having in place, a mentor or coaching system was strongly proposed by expatriates. Expatriate that have been working long term at the NOC can be employed to complete a number of hours of mentoring a new expatriate. Expatriates need to have been successfully mentored a set number of new expatriates before they can get raised to a higher position. This encourages expatriates to undertake this role.

The system has several benefits and advantages. First, it will ensure that there is somebody the new expatriate can come to when in need of someone to talk to regarding a particular issue or if they do not understand something, the mentor would be able to assist them. Second, this type of training performs as a repatriation phase for the mentor. This leads to the second recommendation.

RECOMMENDATION 2: to deliver introduction workshops to expatriates Also, to have in place a system where every new expatriates is allocated a mentor.

7.5.3 REPETITION PHASE

Adler (2001) found that differences in culture are too vital to be disregarded or left without. Educating individuals about differences in culture by enabling and dispersing cultural interactions is acute for both economic and personal success.

It is wise that corporation provide updated refresher workshops for expatriates because during their placement expatriates will have diverse enquiries and requirements, subject on to how long in Libya they have been. Moreover, the subsequent refresher workshop will be more logical to the expatriates than the first since they would have had the experience of living in Libya for several months, and therefore have the ability to relate to the material being delivered. As a result of this, they will value and benefit from each subsequent workshop delivered. This lead to the third recommendation

RECOMMENDATION 3: deliver training to all expatriates at three, six and twelve months after arriving in Libya.

The three recommendations above lead to the developments of a CCT design, which is portrayed in figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1 CCT Design
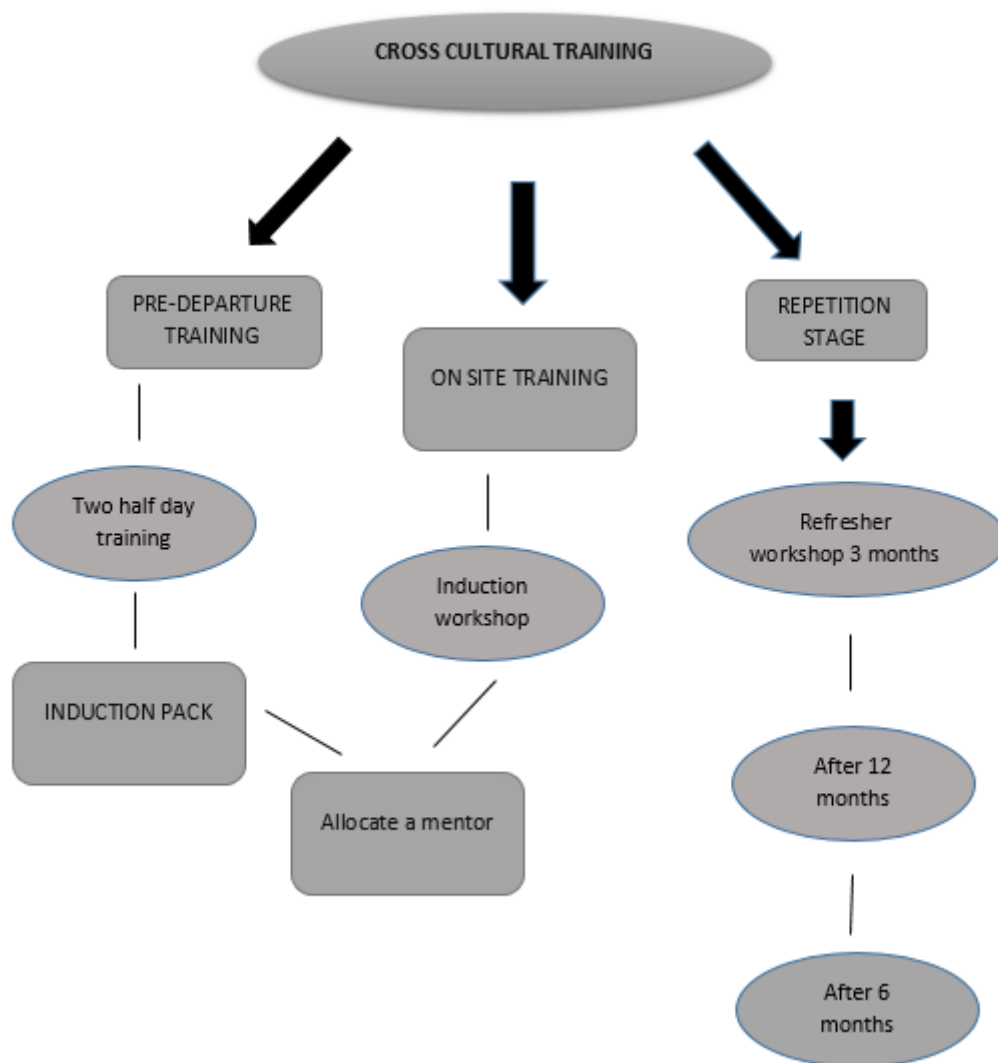
Author, 2016

7.5.4 EXAMINING POST TRAINING EXPERIENCE

Examining the post training experience would be functional, to ensure training provided is valuable to the expatriates. The analysis of post training can point out if the CCT is operational. If not, training can be altered and adapted appropriately. It also allows for post training experience response and proposed developments. In this way, CCT training is reviewed and modernised regularly and is so fully up to date. In return, this aids the NOC in saving money through the lack of expatriate premature return and failure and most importantly have a workforce that is able to deliver successful assignments.

The mentor or the expatriate's line manager can carry out this evaluation of the post training experience. Since individuals are normally unable to be objective, the expatriates would not be asked to carry out a self-assessment.

7.5.5 EXPATRIATE SELF PREPARATION

There are certain matters that an expatriates could do help prepare themselves for the international assignment. For instance, an expatriate could read relevant books on Libya, join social networks for expatriates in Libya and attempt to talk to individuals who are currently or have previously worked in Libya and if possible in the Libyan oil industry in particular. Though, preparing one's self for the international assignment can be a challenge to an expatriates it is of great importance in giving them an insight to the world of Libya. Time needs to be made in order to study and gather information about life and work in Libya. It is understandable though that an expatriate would need to be very enthused and have time to do this.

It is evident from the findings in the research that CCT would have been of highly significant to the expatriates, and corporation such as the NOC need to start implementing such training in the near future. Expatriates coming to work for the NOC did not receive pre departure training; none of the European expatriates interviewed received any onsite CCT or language training either. Since appropriate and sufficient CCT preparation supports expatriates to feel adapted to the community, it is important that this type of training is offered. Nonetheless, it is similarly vital that the CCT preparation, for example, the induction workshop is to be relevant recent and as collaborative as possible.

In the interview, expatriates were asked: "what are the important things to know about before coming to Libya?" The expatriates made evident that the culture was of high importance. Cultural consciousness is extremely necessary for instance, expatriates must acknowledge all elements about a particular country including its society, religion and customs. Furthermore, during this research, it was established that personal relations and reliance are essential. Therefore, a sufficient amount of time and energy needs to be placed in establishing this reliance and assurance. Making contacts in the Libya is a necessity, and expatriates must uphold integrity and repute.

7.6 FURTHER RESEARCH

This research strived to gain an all-inclusive comprehension of the situation being studied. This means looking at the problem from all angles and encompassing a range of variables, from individual to organisational to contextual. Although this attempt produced some interesting findings with various practical implications, it also brings to light the further topics that could be considered for more in-depth, specific study; the relationship between work and non-work international experience, personality traits and cross cultural adjustment, and finally the perceptions of Libyan host-national in terms of their experiences with expatriates.

Furthermore, the research focused on the timing of the CCT provided to European expatriates, rather the methods used. Investigating the effectiveness of all three methods proposed in Mendenhall and Oddou's (1986) framework, materials with information provided, effective approach and involvement approaches, as well as the most suitable timing for each method, indicate an area for further research in Libya.

Furthermore, Repatriation of expatriation has been concentrated because of the elevated turnover of expatriates presenting a vital concern for corporation; it is remains unidentified what the key predecessors are for successful and effective repatriation practices from the viewpoint of the expatriate. Consequently, additional repatriation research from an expatriate's viewpoint could be valuable, in addition to the repatriating family.

There is not a lot of empirical research on expatriate formation of expatriation. Additional research particularly discovering the formation of expectations in the expatriate setting would be beneficial to recognise what donates to expatriates feeling more self-confident as a consequence of their expectations. Realising how this self-confidence is connected to the expectations can offer direction for corporation, consultants and expatriates relocating abroad.

Moreover, the readiness or willingness of an employee to relocate and go on an international assignment has been cited in previous research but has not been empirically studied from the viewpoint of the expatriate beforehand. Additionally, carrying out research that examines why expatriates consider it important could be valuable for the

corporation's as it offers an insight into expatriate's thoughts. These viewpoints can be linked with corporation's opinions. This could potentially have implications on success measurement of an expatriate's international assignment.

Most of the research on expatriates study the aspects likely to impact their cross cultural adjustment (Black, 1990). This aspect is certainly central, not only for the expatriates and their families. Poor adjustment can also cause undesirable spirits with the expatriate concerning the directing company and weaken commitment and drive to the corporation (Gregersen and Black, 1992). On the whole poor adjustment has been recognised as a reason for expatriate failure (Tung, 1982) and adjustment has been proposed to influence job performance and the accomplishment of an international assignment. The connection between adjustment and performance is, nonetheless, unclear. Though there is evidently a positive relationship between them, additional research is necessary to determine relationship (Kraimer et al., 2001). The foremost motive for transferring and relocating expatriates on international assignments is the belief that they will be effective and successful in doing so. Therefore, from a corporation's viewpoint, it is the job performance that is of prime importance. High adjustment levels are without a doubt imperative, however, if it does not promise job performance. As a result, there is a noteworthy necessity for research on expatriate success with an emphasis on job performance of the expatriates in Libya.

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APPENDICES

AIM:

- To evaluate the influence of CCT on the extent of European expatriate success or failure at the NOC in Libya.

OBJECTIVES OF STUDY:

- To explore the potential impact of cultural differences and cross cultural adjustment on expatriate success.
- To investigate the importance of CCT.
- To discover the impacts of training on the success of expatriates.
- To assess the causes of expatriate's success and failure.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

Questions:	Links to themes:
INTRODUCTION: Establishing key variables These factors are not the focus of the research, but have been included because they have been identified as key variables. They ensure a degree of consistency and allow for key factors that may influence the outcome to be monitored.	
Nature of your assignment - Where are you from? - What type of job role do you have at the NOC? Managerial or technical - What type of company are you employed by? Are you staff or contract? - Where do you work? On site? - What is your working schedule - full time or rotation? - Are you living with family/spouse? - What kind of accommodation are you in? - In what capacity do you work with Libyans? Do you work alongside them; do they work for you?	**Key Variables** • Job role - managerial/technical • Working schedule - rotation/full time • Personal living conditions - living with family/spouse, type of accommodation • Level of interaction with locals
ORGANISATIONAL SUPPORT AND IMPACT OF CCT	
2. Can you tell me about the selection process for getting this job?	• Self-selection status • Assessment process

- How were you interviewed/assessed for the job? - Did the job description and expectations match up to your actual experience?	• Job description
3. What kind of practical preparation and support did you receive before arriving in Libya and also while you're in Libya? - Visa's, housing, schooling, transport, healthcare - Did you have a choice to visit Libya before accepting the position? How did this help? - Did you receive what you expected to get when you arrived? **IMPORTANCE OF CCT**	**Practical Support** • Practical support – visas, housing, school, transportation • Met expectations

4. What training and support did you receive before arriving in Libya?
 	
- Job support/training
 	
- Non-Job support/training
    ➢ Cross-cultural training?
    ➢ Language training?
    ➢ Information about Libya?
 	
- How did the training help?
	Pre-departure Training and support
	• Language Training
	• Cross-cultural training

5. While you have been on assignment, what kind of support have you received? - Job support/training - Non-job support/training ➢ Cross-cultural training? ➢ Language training? - How did the training help?	**Post-arrival Support** • Cross-cultural training • Language Training • Career Planning • Head office connection • Home and Host country Mentors
6. Do you think it is better to have cultural training before arriving or post arrival? Why?	☐Pre-departure or post-arrival cross-cultural training

-Importance of CCT	
- What type of training and support do you think is most effective? - Do you feel that the NOC is providing enough support/training while you are on assignment?	

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT PROCESSES	
7. How long have you been here, how well adjusted do you feel? - How do you feel now compared to when you first arrived? - How long do you have left, what is the plan for after you leave?	**Stage of the adjustment cycle** • Honeymoon, crisis, recovery or adjustment • Duration of assignment and current point
8. What was your understanding of Libyan culture before arriving? - What are the important things to know/learn about Libya before coming to the country - Prior to coming to Libya what did you know about it, and the culture? - Is it as you expected?	• Cultural expectation • Familiarity with Libya

9. What are the cultural barriers?	**Cultural barriers and attitudes**
- Do you understand all aspects of the culture? What don't you understand? - Are you willing to accept or adopt the norms of Libyan culture? - How do you feel about Libyans and Libya itself?	• Knowledge about the host culture • Attitudes towards the host culture
10. In terms of life in general what have you found to be the main differences in Libya?	**Cultural differences: General Adjustment**

- What are the differences in terms life in general? (Climate, health care, housing, food, shopping)	☐What are the main differences?
11. What have you found to be the main differences in terms of working in Libya? - What are the differences in terms of performance standards? - What are the differences in terms of work values? Motivation, attitudes - What about building relationships and interacting at work with Libyans? - On a day-to-day basis are there any other aspects you find different in terms of working?	**Cultural differences: Work Adjustment** • What are the main differences? • Individualistic vs. collectivist differences?
12. What are the communication differences/barriers? - What have you found most difficult in terms of verbal and written communication? - In terms of dealing with conflict what have you found to be different?	**Communication differences/Interaction adjustment** • Different style of conflicts
13. How does the new environment and the different culture affect the success/ failure of your job/assignment? **What are the main factors that influence the success/failure of your job/assignment?** - How does it affect the way you do your job, what have you found more difficult than back home? - How does culture effect your job overall?	**Performance** • Productivity, efficiency • Cognitive measure (thinking) • Effect on project progress
14. How satisfied are with your job in Libya? - How comfortable do you feel here? - What do you like about working here? - What don't you like about working here?	**Job Satisfaction** • Affective measure (feeling) • Assignment conditions
15. What is your main motivation for working here? **Why did you take this job?**	**Motivations**

16. What key strengths have you found most helpful when adapting to the new environment and culture, how and why?	**Key Personality Traits**
17. Do you have previous international work experience? How has this helped you adjust to working in Libya?	**International experience** --How does it help?

العمالة الأجنبية من حملة الجنسيات الأوروبية العاملة بقطاع النفط في 31 / 03 / 2015

ر.م	الجنسية	العدد		ر.م	الجنسية	العدد
16	بولندية	26		1	إيطالية	46
17	سلوفاكية	2		2	ألمانية	3
18	رومانية	54		3	*بريطانية	110
19	تركية	8		4	هولندية	7
20	أوكرانية	42		5	نمساوية	2
21	كرواتية	15		6	نرويجية	2
22	يوغسلافية	28		7	مالطية	25
23	بلغارية	6		8	إيرلندية	6
24	تشيكية	1		9	دنماركية	1
25	بوسنية	30		10	فرنسية	9
26	روسية	1		11	قبرصية	2
27	مجرية	1		12	إسبانية	27
28	مونتينيغرو	2		13	برتغالية	2
29	مقدونية	1		14	يونانية	2
المجموع		542		15	صربية	81

المجلس الوطني الانتقالي - ليبيا
دائرة المالية والنفط
المؤسسة الوطنية للنفط

الموافق : 13 . 9 . 2011 م
رقم الاشارة : 1 - 6 / 124 / 2011م

13th September 2011

To Mr.Usamah Ali Dhaou Alfakhi,

I am writing to inform you that the National Oil Cooperation NOC are interested in your field of PHD research to improve the procedures of recruitment of foreign staff.

We will therefore be pleased to help in your research at the University of Huddersfield by facilitating contacts NOC'S companies. In case you need any further information please do not hesitate to contact me at sanalla2842@yahoo.com or by phone on 00218 92 7833457

Sincerely,

17.09.2

Mustafa.A.Sanalla

National Oil Cooperation Management Board member