UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

ANALYSIS OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF EXPATRIATE ACADEMICS ON THE FACTORS AFFECTING THEIR WORK PERFORMANCE

By

Pauline Ngo Henha

208517206

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Date: 01 December 2009

Student Name: Pauline Ngo HENHA

Student no.: 208517206

Dissertation Title: Analysis of the perceptions of expatriate academics on the factors affecting their work performance.

As the candidate's supervisor I agree to the submission of this dissertation for examination.

The above student has satisfied the requirements of English Language competency.

Name of Supervisor: Ms Jameela VAYEJ

Signature:

Name of Co-supervisor:

Signature:

DECLARATION

I Pauline Ngo HENHA declare that

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Abstract

This study examines the perceived influence of the following factors on the performance of expatriate academics: biographical profile, social and cultural adjustment, homesickness, language, organizational socialization, and satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization with regard to salary, rewards and promotion. The study was conducted on a sample of 85 expatriate academics employees of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (South Africa).

The research data were collected through a self-administered questionnaire where all answers were requested using a five point likert scale (from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree') except for the section on the biographical profile of the participants. In other words, the research data captured the perceptions of the respondents measured on the above-mentioned scale. This means for example that every expatriate academic in the study made a self-assessment of his or her work performance. The research sample was constructed using a snowball sampling method.

The results obtained from the inferential statistical analysis indicate that language is the only predictor of work performance. The frequencies and means analysis revealed that respondents are not quite satisfied with their salary and rewards. Correlation analysis also revealed the following relationships between the research variables: a correlation was found between social and cultural adjustment and homesickness; a correlation was found between social and cultural adjustment and organizational socialization; and correlation was found between satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization with organizational socialization.

The findings of this research can be useful to universities for improvement of the performance of their expatriate academics through the following research recommendations: conducting language training; providing market-related salaries to expatriate employees; and granting holiday allowances and stress management programmes to expatriate academics so as to alleviate their homesickness.

Table of Contents

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Background

Globalization has led to increasing international mobility among business and education professionals (Richardson and McKenna, 2001). The huge demand for skilled employees in the global labour market and in the higher education sector has resulted in people living and working far from their homeland; hence the proliferation of expatriates.

An expatriate is described as an individual who is not a citizen of the country in which he or she is assigned to work (Tahir and Ismail, 2007). Pires and Ostenfeld (2006: 158) stress that expatriation involves "the adaptation of the worker to a new country, a new social organization and a different way of doing things, encapsulated in a new culture".

However, the term 'expatriate' has been widely used in the contemporary international human resource literature to refer to an employee of an internationally operating company who has been sent to work in a subsidiary abroad; ignoring those people who chose to undertake an overseas assignment through their own initiative. Expatriate academics are among those people who independently decide to work overseas (Richardson, 2003).

Due to the general focus on expatriates employed by multinational corporations, expatriate academics have remained an under-researched group (Richardson, 2003). Nevertheless, the literature on higher education emphasizes the importance of acknowledging the challenges facing expatriate academics. This is due to the fact that the contemporary higher education sector is becoming an international enterprise where connections between universities and improved travel and communications has meant that more and more academics are taking up positions overseas (Welch, 1997) cited by Richardson and McKenna (2006).

Karpen (1993: 42) cited by Richardson and McKenna (2001) describes expatriate academics as professors and non-professorial staff, the latter only as insofar as they are part of the research and teaching profession.

Generally, moving abroad is perceived as an instrument for career progression and financial benefits (Koteswari and Bhattacharya, 2007); but contemporary expatriate management

literature outlines the multiple challenges that people working outside their homeland face and the impact these can have on their emotional and physical well being. Empirical researches on expatriates conducted by Folger and Konovsky (1989); Black *et al* (1991); Mc Evoy and Parker (1995); Richardson (2000); Omi and Winnat (2003) to name but a few, have stressed cultural shock, differences in work-related norms, homesickness, language barriers, and isolation among the other challenges encountered by expatriates in a foreign posting.

The purpose of this exploratory research project is not to explore all these challenges, but to assess the perceptions of expatriate academics on five different variables that are also found to impact on their work performance. These factors include: cultural and social adjustment, homesickness, language, organizational socialization, and satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization with regard to salary, reward and promotion.

The above factors are discussed in the following chapters along with a review of the existing literature on expatriates.

1.2. Problem statement and research questions

There is a belief that most people living and working out of their homeland have difficulties in adjusting to a new environment. As a result, this leads to failure in their tasks (Dessler, 2003); stress (Bhonugopan and Fish, 2006); and to an early return in their homelands (Brewster and Harris, 1999).

As mentioned above challenges such as homesickness, cultural and social adjustment, lack of socialization at work, and language barriers have been found to have a negative impact on the work performance of expatriates (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Black, Mendenhall and Oddou, 1991; Mc Evoy and Parker, 1995; Omi and Winnat, 2003).

Low work performance can be a serious dilemma that can negatively affect the wellbeing of an employee as well as the productivity of an organization. Therefore, factors that can impact on the performance of expatriates should be addressed so that solutions can be found. From the statement above, the questions to be asked in this research project are:

- How do expatriate academics perceive their work performance?

- Do the following variables: homesickness, social and cultural adjustment, organisational socialization, language barriers, and satisfaction with the policies and

practices of the organization have negative influences on expatriate academics' work performance?

- Do biographical variables such as gender, age, marital status, previous work experience; tenure status and qualifications have a perceived influence on expatriate academics' work performance?

- What can be done to enhance the performance of expatriate academics?

1.3. Objectives of the study

The purpose of this research project is to assess the perceptions of expatriate academics on the factors affecting their work performance. The objectives of the research project are:

- To critically review existing literature on work performance, on expatriates in general, and on expatriate academics in particular.
- To develop and test hypotheses that can establish the relationship between the five listed factors listed above, biographical variables and work performance.
- To analyze the biographical variables of expatriate academics.
- To assess the perceptions of expatriate academics on the following independent variables: work performance, homesickness, cultural and social adjustment, socialization at work, language barriers, and satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization.
- To determine whether expatriate academics differing in biographical profiles (age, gender, qualification, marital status, number of years in the organization, experience, nature of employment, job category and origin) differ on the perceived influence of the above defined independent variables on their work performance.
- To draw recommendations and conclusions from the sample.

1.4. Motivation of the Study

The business and education sectors are affected by globalization. Conducting research on the work performance of international employees is therefore a valuable exercise. This research is important because employees' work performance is a critical factor in the success of any organization. Moreover, with the advent of globalization, more and more people are compelled to work outside their home country, hence the employment of expatriates. Furthermore, there is very limited research on expatriate academics (Richardson, 2000),

particularly in Africa. This study can thus add new knowledge to the management of international human resources and it can improve the practice of the management of expatriate academics.

Recommendations may be utilized by stakeholders such as university management in order to improve their work systems and practices in recruiting, managing, motivating and retaining expatriate academics.

In addition, this research might be useful for other people who would like to undertake research on a similar topic. The originality of this research stems from the fact that very few researchers have looked at the correlation between expatriate academics and work performance.

1.5. Hypotheses

Sekaran (2000: 108) defines a hypothesis as a "logically conjectured relationship between two or more variables expressed in the form of a testable statement. Relationships are conjectured on the basis of the network of associations established in the theoretical framework formulated for the research study".

The review of the contemporary literature on expatriates revealed that different researchers found that factors such as cultural and social adjustment, homesickness, organizational socialization, language barriers and dissatisfaction with the policies and the practices of the organization affect the performance of expatriates. Therefore, the following hypotheses are drawn from the literature:

Hypothesis 1

H1. There is a relationship between the independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness and language) and work performance.

Hypothesis 2

H2. The five independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness and language) significantly predict expatriate academics work performance.

Hypothesis 3

H3. Expatriate academics from different biographical profiles have different perceptions on their work performance.

Hypothesis 4

H4. There is a significant difference between males and females expatriate academics in the perceived influence of independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, and language) on their work performance.

Hypothesis 5

H5. The perceived influence of independent variables on work performance varies among expatriate academics from different biographical profiles.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The study made use of an extensive literature review. However, the writer experienced some limitations that need to be highlighted.

Due to the fact that there is a very limited research on expatriate academics, the literature on expatriates working in multinational companies was used as a framework to understand factors that may affect expatriate academics.

The researcher could not obtain an accurate assessment of the number of expatriate academics employed at the University of KwaZulu-Natal where the study was conducted; therefore, it was difficult for the researcher to determine the exact sample size. However, the researcher made use of the rule of thumb proposed by Roscoe (1975) cited by Sekaran (2000: 296) that says: "In multivariable research (including multiple regression analysis), the sample size should be several times (preferably 10 times or more) as large as the number of variables in the study". Since there were six variables in the study, the sample size of 85 respondents adheres to the rule.

It is also important to highlight that the use of the snowball sampling method can be a limitation to the study. According to Saunders *et al* (2007), snowball sampling can be subjected to bias because respondents are most likely to identify other people similar to them; and this can lead to a homogeneous sample.

A sample of 85 participants is not large enough; therefore it can also be a limitation.

The fact that participants self-assess their work performance is also a limitation; as the literature shows that people usually rate themselves very high.

The use of some old sources from the literature can also be considered as a limitation.

Based on the above limitations and due to the fact that the research was limited in expatriate academics employed at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, the findings cannot be generalized.

1.7. Structure of the Study

The study has been structured as follows:

Chapter 1 provides a brief overview of the study; the motivation and the objectives of the study are discussed. The hypotheses that will later be tested are stated; as well as the limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 entails the review of the existing literature on expatriates. The concept of international human resource management is briefly discussed; followed by the term 'expatriate', the importance of expatriates; their failure rate and the causes and consequences of their failure. Expatriates working in multinational corporations are also compared to self-directed expatriates (e.g. expatriate academics). Challenges facing expatriates in the host country are briefly discussed.

Chapter 3 reviews the existing literature on work performance; with an emphasis on the factors that can affect the work performance of expatriates. Factors such as cultural and social adjustment, homesickness, language barriers, organizational socialization and satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization are found by existing literature to impact on the performance of expatriates.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of the methodology employed in this study; with regard to the sampling technique, the data collection method, the procedures, the measurement instruments and the data analysis techniques.

Chapter 5 presents all the results obtained from the analysis. The results are presented in graphic form followed by a brief interpretation of the results in statistical terms.

Chapter 6 provides more explanation and a detailed discussion of the results obtained in Chapter 5.

Chapter 7 concludes the research and provides the recommendations based on the findings.

Chapter 8 gives a detail of the bibliography used the in the study. The study made used of text books, journal articles and World Wide Web.

1.8. Summary

This chapter provides an overview of the research topic. The motivation and the objectives of the study are provided followed by the hypotheses and the limitations of the study. The structure of the study is also provided. The second and the third chapter in this study will focus on the literature review on expatriates and the factors affecting their work performance. The subsequent chapters will focus on the methodology employed, the analysis and interpretation of results, and recommendations. The last chapter will provide the references used in the study.

Chapter 2

Review of the existing contemporary literature on expatriates

2.1. Introduction

The prevailing skills shortage in many parts of the world and the advent of globalization has led to labour mobility. Richardson and McKenna (2001) note that globalization has increased international mobility among businesses and education professionals. Brewster and Harris (1999); and Selmer (2002) also note that the expansion of the global economy has led to increasing levels of expatriation. Today, there are a growing number of expatriates in different parts of the world. Some are sent by multinational corporations to work in their subsidiaries; others, such as expatriate academics labelled 'self-directed or self-selected expatriates' independently decide to take up an overseas position (Richardson, 2003; Richardson and McKenna, 2006). As a result, human resource management is forced to adopt a global perspective, resulting in the advent of international human resource management.

2.2. International human resource management

The expansion of businesses across borders has broadened and increased the human resource management function. In an international setting, human resource management faces new challenges such as managing a diverse and multinational workforce by implementing policies, strategies and practices that meet the needs of both the organization and the employee. Key activities such as procurement, allocation, and utilization of human resources have become increasingly important in this era of global business. The contemporary literature on international human resource management has familiarized the reader with concepts such as 'Parent Country' and 'Home Country'; these concepts are defined below along with the concept of International Human Resource Management.

2.2.1. Conceptualization of International Human Resource Management

There are several definitions of international human resource management. For Morgan (1986); cited by Dowling and Welch (2004: 5) it is simply the interplay between three dimensions: resources activities, types of employees and country of operation

Scullion (1995) cited by Scullion and Linehan (2005: 4) defines international human resource management as "the human resource management issues and problems arising from the internationalization of business, and the human resource management strategies, policies and practices which firms pursue in response to the internationalization of business".

Welch (1994) cited by Scullion and Linehan (2005: 4) is of the opinion that international human resource management is concerned with keys activities such as recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation and repatriation. However, Taylor *et al* (1996) cited by Scullion and Linehan (2005: 4) define it as "the set of distinct activities, functions and processes that are directed at attracting, developing and maintaining a multinational corporation's human resources. It is thus the aggregate of the various human resource management systems used to manage people in the multinational corporation, both at home and overseas". This implies that international human resource management aims to identify and understand how multinational corporations manage their multinational workforce in order to leverage their human resources for both local and global competitive advantage (Scullion and Linehan, 2005: 5) in the host country and in the home country.

In the contemporary literature on international human resource management, the term 'Host Country' means the foreign countries where a multinational corporation operates; and natives of these countries are called host country nationals (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 4).

'Home Country' means the country where the multinational corporation is based; and natives of the home country are called home country nationals. When these home country nationals are sent to work in subsidiaries, they become expatriates (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 4).

2.2.2. Reasons for the emergence of international human resource management

Globalization has been identified as the main driver of the emergence of international human resource management (Brewster and Harris, 1999; Richardson and McKenna, 2001; Selmer, 2002). However, Scullion and Linehan (2005: 8) give other reasons for the rapid growth of

the field of international human resource management. Some of these reasons are briefly discussed below.

- "The rapid growth of internationalization and global competition have increased the number and importance of multinational companies; in turn resulting in the increase of human resources mobility" (Black *et al*., 1999; cited by Scullion and Linehan, 2005: 8).

- "The effective management of human resources is more and more recognized as a major determinant of success or failure in international business (Balck *et al*., 1999; cited by Scullion and Linehan, 2005) and "there is a belief that the success of a global business depends on the quality of management in the multinational company" (Stroh and Caliguiri, 1998; cited by Scullion and Linehan, 2005: 8).

- "The growing concern on how to internationalize the human resource management function has been identified as a major problem facing international companies" (Scullion and Linehan, 2005: 8).

- The performance of expatriates is a continuous concern as it is becoming apparent that expatriates record a high failure rate. Expatriates failure or underperformance is a direct and indirect cost to the organisation and to the individual. Indirect costs such as a loss of the market share or damages to foreign customer relations appear to be particularly important (Dowling *et al*., 1999).

- There is an increasing recognition that a human resource strategy plays an important role in the management and control of an international firm (Scullion and Starkey, 2000 cited by Scullion and Linehan, 2005: 9).

- It has also been recognized that the source of advantage for multinational companies is derived from their ability to create, transfer and integrate knowledge across borders (Mudambi, 2002; cited by Scullion and Linehan, 2005: 9).

In addition, the successful management of multinational and cross-cultural employees requires that companies identify global policies and strategies in international human resource management.

2.2.3. Staffing approaches in international human resource management

The staffing philosophy of a multinational corporation follows the internationalization philosophy of the organization. This means that an organization deploys its employees to subsidiaries in line with its mission and the role that employees have to play in a subsidiary.

Perlmutter (1969) cited by Scullion and Linehan (2005) identified four different approaches that describe the way in which multinational companies deploy their staff. These approaches are: ethnocentric, polycentric, geocentric and regiocentric.   .

2.2.3.1. Ethnocentric approach

The ethnocentric approach is viewed as a home-country orientated approach (Ozbilgin, 2005: 134). It aims to transfer the home culture to the operations of the organization in the host country. It involves a high degree of centralization where only a few foreign subsidiaries have autonomy and in general almost all decisions are made at headquarters (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 58). With the ethnocentric approach, the main positions are held by headquarters personnel, and policies are established by the parent company that closely control and evaluate the activities of the subsidiaries. This approach implies a conscious belief that the culture of the home country is superior to the culture of the host country; therefore the cultural values and business practices of the home country are predominant. In this approach, there is extensive use of expatriates since most positions are held by headquarters personnel. The reasons multinational companies opt for an ethnocentric approach are numerous. Ozbilgin (2005: 135) notes that these include: a lack of trust in local people, a lack of technological or managerial know-how in the host country, a lack of international experience by the parent company or the need for strong control by the parent company.

This approach presents advantages and disadvantages. The main advantage is that it tries to maintain and consolidate good communication, co-ordination and control links with the organization's headquarters (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 58). Furthermore, there is assurance that the foreign subsidiary or unit will comply with corporate objectives, policies and standards. The skills and expertise required by subsidiaries are directly provided by employees from the parent company (Dowling and Welch, 2004).

The drawback of this approach is that it limits the promotion opportunities of host country nationals and it may lead to conflicts because the compensation packages of parent country nationals may be at a level considered unjustified by the host country nationals (Dowling and

Welch, 2004: 59). Moreover this approach can be costly because of its use of expatriates, who are believed to be expensive to maintain (Dessler, 2003).

2.2.3.2. Polycentric approach

Labelled as a host country-orientated approach, the polycentric approach advocates a high level of decentralization in subsidiaries and believes that each country is different from all the others. In most subsidiaries high level positions are held by local managers. This approach believes that subsidiaries in each country should develop locally appropriate practices under the supervision of local managers. Thus, policies and decisions are set locally (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 59).

The advantages of a polycentric approach include: the elimination of language barriers, power sharing in decision making between headquarters and the subsidiaries, the reduction of hiring and work permits costs for expatriates since host country nationals are mostly appointed, and the avoidance of adjustment problems for expatriates and their families (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 60).

The main disadvantage of the polycentric approach is that it limits opportunities for parent country national managers to gain foreign experience as headquarters positions are held mostly by parent country nationals. Moreover, it creates a gap between host country subsidiary managers and parent country managers at corporate headquarters (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 60; Ozbilgin, 2005: 135).

2.2.3.3. Geocentric approach

The geocentric approach emphasizes the participation of every subsidiary and headquarters and believes that each part makes a unique contribution with its unique competence. This approach endeavours to adopt a view of the organization in which a preoccupation with national culture is regarded as a constraint on the global interests of the corporation as a whole, and tries to combine the best of both headquarters and subsidiaries to develop consistent world-wide practices (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 60). In this approach, the selection of managers is based on competency rather than nationality, and on the choice of the most suitable person for a position regardless of his or her origins. Like other approaches, the geocentric approach has its advantages and drawbacks. One of the advantages is that this approach facilitates the development of an international team by assisting in developing a global perspective, and an international pool of labour for deployment throughout the global organization (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 60; Ozbilgin, 2005: 135).

Some of the disadvantages of this approach include the high cost of training and relocation of expatriates, and the problems inherent in immigration controls and work permits for expatriates and their families (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 60).

2.2.3.4. Regiocentric approach

Perlmutter (1969) cited by Scullion and Linehan (2005: 156) views a regiocentric approach as "the best approach for most successful international corporations". This approach is believed to be a subset of the geocentric approach because like the geocentric approach, it utilizes a wider pool of managers but in a limited way (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 60). Regional staff are utilized and developed for positions anywhere within the region. While regional managers are not promoted to headquarters positions, they can make decisions at their level. The advantages of this approach are that it allows for interaction between subsidiaries managers transferred to their organization's regional headquarters, and managers from the headquarters posted to the regional headquarters. Furthermore, the approach is sensitive to local conditions as subsidiaries are staffed mostly by host country nationals. However, the disadvantages of the regiocentric approach are that it can prevent the organization from taking a global stance and that it offers career opportunities only at the regional level (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 61).

The issue of expatriation has always been an issue in international human resource management (Brewster and Harris, 1999). Existing literature on international human resource management has emphasizes issues of management, selection, training, compensation, etc, as factors contributing to expatriates' work performance.

2.3. Expatriation

Expatriation is a common work experience in the era of globalization (Foster, 2000). More and more people are compelled to move from one country to another, either to take up an assignment in a subsidiary, or to pursue a career. Expatriation *per se* has become an important research topic in recent years. The challenges faced by expatriates, their compensation, their failures, and the causes of failure have been extensively researched. However, what constitutes an expatriate is still subject to discussion.

2.3.1. Definition of expatriate

Tentative definitions of the term 'expatriate' have been postulated by several authors. Generally, an expatriate is defined as an individual living and working outside his or her

country. Mendenhall *et al* (1995) in Weber (2004: 5) describe an expatriate as "anyone living and working in a country of which he or she is not a citizen, and who can be characterized as possessing skills critical to the success of the performance of foreign subsidiaries". Richardson and McKenna (2002) refer to expatriates as professionals who are living overseas for more than one year. According to Van Dyk *et al* (2004), an expatriate is an employee sent by a company in another country to manage operations in a subsidiary.

Noe *et al* (2007) also describe an expatriate as an employee assigned to work in another country.

Cascio and Aguinis (2005: 440) identify the term 'expatriates' with foreign-service employees and define it as "a generic term that is applied to any person who is working outside his or her home-country with a planned return to that or a third country".

Pires *et al* (2006: 158) present a definition for the overall expatriation process and suggest that "expatriation involves the adaptation of the worker to a new country, a new social organization and a different way of doing things, encapsulated in a new culture".

This analysis shows that while some researchers view an expatriate as an individual working abroad, others conceptualize an expatriate as an employee sent to a subsidiary by a multinational corporation. The similarity of these definitions lies on the fact that an expatriate is perceived as an individual who lives and works outside of his or her home country.

2.3.2. Multinational corporation expatriate employees *versus* self-directed expatriates

Although the literature on multinational expatriates presents a framework to also understand the factors that can impact on the work performance of self-directed expatriates such as expatriate academics, it is worth distinguishing between the two types of expatriates, namely multinational expatriate employees and self-directed expatriates.

In the literature on international human resources, the most common definition of an 'expatriate' is employees sent by a multinational corporation to a subsidiary in another country. The literature identifies an expatriate as an individual who is sent overseas to accomplish a job-related goal (Sinangil and Ones, 2001: 425). By contrast, a self-directed expatriate is someone who independently decides to take a job overseas (Richardson, 2000; Suutari, 2000). In the literature, self-directed expatriates are identified as religious missionaries, students studying abroad, Peace Corps volunteers, Foreign Service personnel,

academics, etc, (Mendenhall, 1996; Richardson, 2000; Suutari, 2000; Reynolds, 2005). Expatriate academics are described as "professors and non-professorial staff, the latter only as far as they are part of research and teaching profession" (Karpen, 1993; cited by Richardson and McKenna, 2006: 3). Multinational expatriates and self-elected expatriates are similar in the sense that they are both working and living in a foreign country; therefore they both experience challenges such as cultural shock, cultural and social adjustment, family adjustment, language barriers, homesickness, organizational justice, and isolation (Black, 1980; cited by Richardson, 2003).

In his work on foreign teaching assistants, Mendenhall (1996: 232) cited by Richardson and McKenna (2006: 8) outlines the similarities between foreign teaching assistants and expatriate managers sent to a subsidiary. He notes that, like expatriate managers, "foreign teaching assistants have to communicate and work closely with host nationals. Their performance is also evaluated, they are remunerated for their efforts, they hold positions of authority over host nationals, and they hold host nationals accountable for their performance". They also learn to operate effectively in a new environment.

In her empirical study conducted on expatriate academics from different cultures, Richardson (2000) examines variables such as the lack of cross-cultural training programmes, cultural adjustment and family as factors affecting expatriate work performance. Her study was conducted in Singapore with the aim of comparing expatriate academics and expatriate managers based on these factors. She found that expatriate academics share many characteristics with expatriate managers from multinational companies. For instance, like multinational expatriates, expatriate academics needed cross-cultural training as they also experience cultural shock and this can impact on their adjustment in the host country and on their work performance.

There are also major differences between expatriates employed by multinational companies and self-selecting expatriates. Suutari and Brewster (2002) cited by Reynolds (2005: 60) outline the following dissimilarities between self-selecting expatriates and expatriates employed by multinational corporations: initiation of the assignment, motives, employer organizations, individual background variables, types of jobs, and career paths. The first discrepancy lies in the fact that self-selecting expatriates decide to take an overseas position while expatriates of multinational companies are often sent by their organization. This obviously means that the concept of home and host country does not apply to self-selecting

expatriates (Richardson, 2000). Moreover, Richardson (2000) reckons that cross cultural training is usually provided to expatriates of multinational companies and their families. This is seldom the case for expatriate academics.

With regard to individual characteristics such as age, marital status, gender, and previous international experience, the empirical investigation conducted by Suutari and Brewster (2002) found that self-selecting expatriates are slightly younger than expatriates working in multinational corporations. This obviously explains why most of expatriates sent to subsidiaries are in managerial positions (Suutari and Brewster, 1999). Likewise, they found that there are more females among self-directed expatriates (18 percent) compared to the proportion of females expatriates in multinational corporations (4 percent). Concerning work experience, Suutari and Brewster (2002) recorded a higher international experience among self-selected expatriates compared to expatriates in multinational corporations. With regard to marital status, they found that more self-selected expatriates were single (19 percent) than expatriates in multinational corporations (10 percent).

Differences between organizations lie in the level of internationalization. Organizations which employ expatriates in multinational corporations were found to have a greater global focus compared to organizations which employ self-selected expatriates (Suutari and Brewster, 2002). Moreover, multinational expatriates are usually deployed overseas while already employed in their home country, while self-selected expatriates are hired because their talents and their skills cannot be supply by the local workforce (Reynolds, 2005).

As for career paths, multinational corporations' expatriates take overseas assignments to build their professional career. In addition, they get support from their company in planning their career and in their repatriation after the completion of their foreign assignment (Suutari and Brewster, 2002; Reynolds, 2005). Self-selecting expatriates, on the other hand, have no support in their career planning and are likely to be in an uncertain situation when planning for their own repatriation (Reynolds, 2005: 62).

It is important to note that job security might be a concern for self-selecting expatriates because, unlike expatriates in multinational companies, they do not have a home company to return to after their overseas employment. Although it may be argued that permanent status in an organization may overcome the job security issue, contemporary literature on expatriates suggests that working in a foreign culture and away from home may create feelings of insecurity among expatriates regarding their future employment and career.

It is therefore apparent that there are many differences between expatriates in multinational corporations and self-selecting expatriates. However, as mentioned above, they are all living abroad and may be subjected to challenges such as cultural adjustment, languages barriers, homesickness, etc.

2.3.3. Motives for expatriation

Individuals are different and therefore may have different motives for going overseas. In order to explain why people decide to become expatriates, Richardson and McKenna (2002: 71) identified four categories of expatriates, namely: "Explorer", "Mercenary", "Architect", and "Refugee". All these categories have different motives for expatriation:

- An "Explorer" is an individual who goes overseas with the purpose of exploring foreign countries, and to get a better understanding of different cultures (Richardson and McKenna, 2002: 71).

- A "Mercenary" is the one for whom money is a primary motive for expatriation. These are individuals who go overseas in search of greener pastures (Richardson and McKenna, 2002: 71).

- An "Architect" perceives an international assignment a career-building material which will help him or her progress (Richardson and McKenna, 2002: 71).

- A "Refugee" is an individual who decides to escape his or her home country usually 'in search of a better personal and professional life' (Richardson and McKenna, 2002: 71), or because of political issues, war, floods, etc.

Suutari (2003) outlines the reasons for people becoming multinational expatriates:

- ❖ To experience the challenges associated with overseas assignments;

- ❖ For financial purposes, because international assignments are usually associated with financial benefit. Suutari (2003) maintains that disparities in the cost of living and taxations practices across countries can have a significant impact on individual levels of comfort.

- ❖ For personal and career development. Many people believe that international assignments provide opportunities for personal growth and career development.

Suutari (2003) also outlines that an individual may consider taking an assignment overseas because foreign assignments are identified as being challenging.

2.3.4. Importance of expatriates

Recent rapid increases in global activity and global competition have resulted in a better understanding of the management of expatriates (Young and Hamill, 1992; cited by Brewster and Harris, 1999). It is widely acknowledged that expatriates are very costly employees. The cost of their relocation, their compensation, and their standard of living has been emphasized in the contemporary literature on expatriates' management. However, their importance in the labour market and in the global economy has not been underestimated. Thus, Evans *et al* (2002) in Weber (2004) state that expatriation allows the firm to avoid the pathologies of excessive centralization. The contemporary literature on the management of expatriates has stressed multiple reasons for the utilization of expatriates (Suutari and Brewster, 1999; Dowling and Welch, 2004; Van der Boon, 2002). Expatriates can be utilized for knowledge transfer, for grooming competent international managers, or for filling a position affected by skills shortages. In addition, Shepherd (1996) asserts that expatriates are used to monitor and control the financial distribution and profit of the company.

Van der Boon (2002) looks at the importance of expatriates from the perspective of management development by outlining the three motives of using expatriates: to fill positions, to provide management development opportunities, and to support organizational development. He also stresses the importance of expatriates and asserts that they can guarantee high levels of performance and interpret the policies and culture of the organization appropriately.

Likewise, Suutari and Brewster (1999) note that expatriates are used for several reasons: to control foreign operations, to transfer the skills of the organization to the different business units, to promote effective communication between the foreign project and the corporate company, and to integrate and co-ordinate the activities of the business unit in line with the policies of the corporate company.

Dowling and Welch (2004: 69) perceive expatriates as playing the following five roles: agent of direct control, agent of socialization, network builder, boundary spanner, and language node. These roles are briefly discussed below.

As an agent of direct control, an expatriate is sent to a subsidiary by a multinational company to control and tightly supervise the subsidiary (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 69).

As an agent of socialization, an expatriate is sent to a subsidiary to assist in the transfer of corporate values, beliefs and culture, to assist in knowledge sharing and competence transfer, and to encourage the adoption of common work practices (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 69).

As network builders, expatriates foster interpersonal linkages (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 70). Through their international assignment, they build relationships and networks that can be beneficial to the organization.

As boundary spanners, expatriates have the ability to collect host country information, acting as representatives of their organizations in the host country, and promoting the organization's profile at a high level (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 70).

As a language node, an expatriate can act as an interpreter to others who are sent on the same assignment or to the organization (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 70).

Generally, the reasons for an international assignment are numerous. Contemporary literature has focussed on the importance of expatriates sent to an overseas assignment by a multinational. The impact that other categories of expatriates, for instance, expatriate academics, have on organisations has been neglected. As noted above, Richardson (2000) labelled expatriate academics 'Self-selecting expatriates', meaning people who independently decide to undertake an overseas position. Karpen (1993: 42) cited by Richardson (2003) defines expatriate academics as those expatriates involved in lecturing, in research and in the teaching profession.

In their intensive research on expatriate academics, Richardson and McKenna (2003) and Richardson (2006, 2008) stress the increasing importance of expatriate academics in contemporary economies. Moreover, they identify expatriate academics as highly educated people who possess special qualities and expertise in a particular field.

In the same perspective, Jones (2000), and Williamson and Cable (2006) cited by Richardson and McKenna (2006: 8) label expatriate academics as "knowledge workers demonstrating a significant level of confidence in the portability and the transferability of their knowledge".

Contemporary higher education has embraced globalisation and there are connections between universities. Improvements in travelling and communication have led to more and

more academics taking overseas positions (Altbach, 1966 and Welch, 1997; cited by Richardson, 2006). South African universities have not been left out of this equation. Due to the lack of skills in certain field e.g. science and technology, more and more foreign academics are taking up positions at South African universities. For example, there are plans to recruit 1 000 education professionals in critical skills such as science and technology worldwide (Naledi Pandor, Africa News; 13th February 2007). In common with countries such as Canada, New Zealand, Australia and countries in Asia (Richardson, 2000), South Africa has a shortage of academic professionals.

2.3.5. Conceptualization of expatriate perceptions

People are different, and they therefore perceive things differently. An employee may perceive and interpret something differently from his or her fellow worker.

Perception is described as the "meaning given to a message by either the sender or the receiver" (Hellriegel *et al*, 2005: 462).

Robbins *et al* (2001: 107) define perception as "a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment".

Individual perception appears to be an important factor in organizations because people's behaviour is based on their perception of what the reality is (Robbins *et al*, 2001). Therefore, people may act or behave according to what they perceive.

2.3.5.1. Factors influencing perception

Perceptions are usually influenced by what people see, by the way they organize these elements in their memory, and by the meanings they attach to them (Hellriegel *et al.*, 2005). The perceptions of a person are influenced by the following factors: attitudes, motives, interests, experiences, and expectations.

- ❖ A perceiver with a positive *attitude* is likely to pay attention to the situation being observed. This can be detected from his or her perceptions.

- ❖ On the order hand, the *motives* of an individual may direct him or her towards a certain perception of reality in the sense that this perception is always in line with the person's motives, *interests* and *expectations*.

- ❖ It is obvious that people's behaviour and perceptions are shaped by their *experiences* because people tend to use their experiences to interpret and project the future.

Individual perception is therefore a significant factor in an individual's life as it can direct and shape behaviour. Perceptions are, however, not always a reality. Because they perceive and interpret things differently, participants in this study may have different views on the factors affecting their work performance.

2.3.6. Expatriate failure

One of the challenges facing multinational companies is the failure of expatriates to fulfil their assignments. The literature on expatriates indicates that failure rates are high and that between 30 to 40 percent of expatriates leave their companies within two years of repatriation (Dowling *et al.*, 1994; cited by Ozbilgin, 2005: 133). Likewise, an annual survey conducted in South African companies by Van Heerden and Wentzel (2002) cited by Van Aswegen (2008) indicates that 12 out of 30 of these companies experienced a high turnover of expatriates during the period 1 June 2001 to May 2002. In her study of expatriate failure, Tung (1984) in Dowling and Welch (2004: 87) notes that US nationals record a 20 to 40 percent failure rate in their international assignments.

In order to understand the magnitude of expatriate failure, it is important to first define its meaning.

2.3.6.1. Definition of expatriate failure

The definition of 'expatriate failure' is a contested one in academic circles. A number of studies have attempted to analyse the failure rate of expatriation, but they attach different meanings to the concept. Thus, some studies describe 'expatriate failure' as an early return in the parent country, while others identify it as poor performance while on assignment, and a lack of learning from the international experience (Ozbilgin, 2005: 133). Despite the differences, most of these studies accept that 'expatriate failure' is the "premature return or recall of an expatriate to the home-country before the period of assignment is completed" (Bampton, 2003; cited by Van Aswegen, 2008: 46).

Dowling *et al* (1999) disagree with this definition, stating that the inability of an expatriate to perform appropriately while on assignment can also be perceived as failure.

Black and Gregersen (2003) cited by Van Aswegen (2008: 47), provide a more comprehensive definition of the concept. They suggest that "expatriate failure can be defined in terms of early return home or termination", on condition that the following factors are taken into account:

- Poor performance while on international assignment;

- An inability to adapt to the living and work conditions in the foreign country;

- Personal unhappiness and frustration experienced by the expatriate with the international assignment;

- Poor relations with local employees, government officials, customers, suppliers, etc.

Failure of expatriate academics will certainly take on a different dimension. Unlike expatriates sent by multinational companies, expatriate academics do not have home country organizations to return to (Richardson, 2003). Thus, their failure might be manifested through poor performance, turnover, and inability to adjust to living and working conditions of the foreign country, or through frustration (Black and Gregersen, 2003; cited by Van Aswegen, 2008: 47).

2.3.6.2. Causes of expatriate failure

The causes of expatriate failure are numerous and diverse since individuals are different. However, Brotchi and Envig (2006) cited by Van Aswegen (2008: 55) outline the common causes as:

- Inability of expatriates to adjust in a foreign environment;

- Inability of expatriates' spouses to adjust in the living conditions of the foreign country;

- Negative impact of the expatriation process on the family;

- Low level of emotional maturity on the part of the expatriate;

- Inability of expatriates to deal with the pressures and challenges caused by international responsibilities.

When looking at these common causes of expatriate failure, it is obvious that many of them are not work-related; they are mostly associated with the expatriate's and family's emotional well-being in a foreign environment. A survey conducted by Van Heerden and Wendzel (2002) cited by Van Aswegen (2008) in South African companies found that personal reasons are the first cause of expatriate failure (62 percent), followed for performance-related factors (28 percent), and health-related problems (10 percent).

2.3.6.3. Cost of expatriate failure

The costs associated with expatriate failure are tremendous. Mervosh and McClenahen (1997) cited by Takeuchi *et al* (2005) estimate the cost at between $250,000 and $1.25 million per annum. These costs can be classified as direct and indirect (Dowling *et al*., 2004). Direct costs include salary, relocation allowances, and the training of expatriates. Indirect costs include loss of market share, loss of productivity, and mistrust towards host government officials. But indirect costs are difficult to quantify (Dowling *et al*., 2004). In addition, expatriate failure also has substantial costs for the expatriates themselves. These include loss of self-esteem, loss of self-confidence, prestige among peers and reputation, as well as reduced motivation and willingness to motivate other expatriates (Dowling *et al*., 1999; cited by Takeuchi *et al*., 2005).

2.3.7. Challenges faced by expatriates in a foreign country

A foreign assignment is believed to encompass many challenges: cultural and social adjustment, languages barriers, reduced career prospects, homesickness, dual career problems, blocked career progression, safety issues and unfair treatment, inadequate health care facilities, women expatriates challenges, etc. Although some of these challenges will be emphasized in the next chapter, they are briefly reviewed below.

2.3.7.1. Socio-cultural adjustment

Cross cultural adjustment refers to the adjustment of expatriates with regard to their job, the host country nationals, and to the general work and non-work environment (Black *et al*., 1991). It is generally defined as the process of adaptation to living and working in a foreign culture. Thus, it has been argued that, cultural distance (the degree to which the cultural norms are different from those of another country) creates challenges for expatriates when they have to adapt to a different culture (Adler *et al*., 1992).

Most expatriates suffer from "culture shock" which, according to research, is a natural response to the stress on immersing oneself in a new environment. Culture shock is a term developed by a well-known anthropologist (Oberg, 1960); who notes that people will feel lost, confused and anxious because of unfamiliar situations and the different cultural norms and values.

Expatriates are far from their homeland, far from their culture and environment and sometimes they feel lost and lonely. This feeling of loneliness can lead to stress and resistance to fit into the new environment. The empirical studies conducted by Mc Evoy and Parker

(1995) and Black *et al* (1991) highlighted that most expatriates experience difficulties in adjusting to a new environment and culture.

Moreover, the adjustment of the expatriate's direct family, the spouse and the children, is also identified as a great concern in international human resource management. Black (1988) asserts that expatriates encounter difficulties when their families are unable to adjust to the new environment and this sometimes leads to failure in their assignment. Children for instance, find themselves strangers in schools, with new systems, teachers, in a new environment. They are expected to cope with social trauma that that can cause extreme stress. The spouse on the other hand, being far from friends, family, and community may develop a deep feeling of stress and sometimes depression (Black *et al*., 1991).

2.3.7.2. Language barriers
Communication is crucial to management as it facilitates business interactions between people or organizations; and language is one of the means of communication. A language is generally defined as a system of communication used by the people of a particular group, country or culture. Language differences are considered a main obstacle to communication between people from different countries and areas, and are sometimes, a reason for cultural shock (Adler *et al*., 1992).

Many expatriates face problems of communication in their assignment, and being unable to speak the local language probably affects them at work. For instance, an expatriate manager will have difficulty in communicating instructions to local employees as well as to local supervisors. Communication with customers and suppliers may also be affected by language barriers. Dowling *et al* (1999) note that knowing the host-country's language is very important for the success of an international assignment no matter what position the expatriate takes up.

2.3.7.3. Homesickness
Feeling homesick is a common state for a person who is living far from his or her homeland. Van Tilburg *et al* (1996: 899) define homesickness as "the common state of distress among those who have left their house and home and find themselves in a new and unfamiliar environment".

Empirical research done by Omi and Winnat (2003) on expatriates in East Kentucky stressed that homesickness is an important factor to consider in expatriation because people who are

homesick feel emotionally unstable and lonely, and sometimes lose their focus and cannot perform their task appropriately.

2.3.7.4. Career prospects

A career is usually defined as the succession of work-related experiences and attitudes that the individual has over the span of his or her work life. Arthur *et al* (1989) cited by Beardwell *et al* (2004) describe a career as the evolving series of a person's work experiences over time. Almost every individual wants to grow, and to develop in their career. Obviously, certain factors such as network connections, and a steady working environment can facilitate the growth of an individual in his or her career. However, it may be a concern for an expatriate who has to live in a new environment where he or she is not known and does not have connections.

Daily *et al* (2000) cited by Bonache (2005) stress that international assignments have implications for employees' careers. They explain that, when someone has to leave his or her country and begin work in a new environment, many of the professional contacts that he or she has disappear. This may affect his or her career prospects, because social networks are recognized to have a positive effect on career outcomes.

2.3.7.5. Blocked career progression

Most expatriates lack effective career management processes to support repatriation and sometimes they are ignored for promotions. Stahl (2000) found that two-thirds of expatriates identified repatriation and career issues, such as anticipated re-entry problems and a lack of career planning, as troublesome problems.

2.3.7.6. The dual career problem

A dual career couple refers to a situation where a husband and a wife are both committed to a career, while at the same time maintaining a family life together (Scheuder and Theron, 1997).

A dual career becomes a problem for expatriates when one of the spouses has to give up a job in their home country and is now working in a position not matching his or her education and experience, or is not working at all. This phenomenon can be very stressful for expatriates and their families and can lead to an early return from the assignment.

2.3.7.7. Acceptance of the expatriate by local colleagues

Usually, expatriates play a role of intermediary between headquarters and the local business unit. The expatriate is placed in the local business unit to implement headquarters' policies. But he or she needs to be accepted by the local employees in order for him or her to be able to implement these policies successfully. Thus, any resistance from the locals might impact on their assignment and might lead to frustration (Dessler, 2003).

Furthermore, a pleasant and welcoming working environment is also very important for expatriates. Colleagues and other partners should create an environment where the expatriate can socialize and adjust easily at the work place.

2.3.7.8. Safety issues, fair treatment abroad and health care facilities

Having employees abroad does raise some safety and fairness issues. For example, it is common to hear that people have been kidnapped in countries such as Afghanistan, Nigeria (Delta area) and the Philippines, to name but a few (Koteswari and Bhattacharya, 2007).

Expatriates are often targeted by criminals because they can quickly be identified as not knowing the local environment, language, and culture (Koteswari and Bhattacharya, 2007). Therefore, they may fall victim to attacks and assaults. Expatriates' safety also becomes a concern if the host country experiences serious political problems or war, which may lead to some disturbance in the company.

Health and hygiene factors are also among the primary concerns for expatriates; especially in remote areas.

2.3.7.9. Organizational justice

Greenberg (1990) refers to organizational justice as the just and fair manner in which organizations treat their employees. Expatriates may fall victim to discrimination or ill-treatment in the host country. In countries such as Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates (UAE), organizations have policies that prioritize nationals compared to expatriate employees. This perception of being unfairly treated and undervalued leads to job dissatisfaction and generates adverse effects such as stress, turnover, and failure in the assignment. The empirical study conducted by Folger and Konovsky (1989) in the hospitals in the UAE found that expatriates were unfairly treated as they had to work longer hours compared to local employees. That created conflicts among employees and reduced expatriates' commitment and work performance.

2.3.7.10. Challenges facing expatriate women managers

Research on women on global assignments has become a significant field of study in the past 15 years (Caliguiri and Tung, 1999).

Thus, the increased demand for expatriates has exceeded the supply of males available, forcing multinational corporations to consider women for expatriate positions (Caliguiri and Tung, 1999).

The literature shows that although expatriate women face the same challenges as their male counterparts, they also encounter specific problems when taking an assignment abroad.

Firstly, there is a widespread belief that expatriate women managers are culturally incompatible, and not motivated for international jobs. This creates the impression that that women are not fit to take up international assignments. Women are marginalized (Caliguiri and Tung, 1999). Secondly, male host nationals are often unwilling to do business with women (Mathur-Helm, 2001). Expatriate women managers face the problem of stereotyping, especially in male dominated societies such as in the Middle East. As a result, women in international assignments work twice as hard as men because they have to prove themselves. Jacob (2004) affirms that women have to be more resilient and resourceful if they wish to be successful in foreign cultures. Thirdly, expatriate women managers who have families face the problem of dual responsibility: they have to work hard in their assignment, but they also have to take their family's domestic needs into account and this can lead to exhaustion (Jacob, 2004).

Another issue facing many expatriate women managers with families is the unavailability of domestic workers, especially in European countries and the unreliability of public transport in African countries, for example (Jacob, 2004).

2.3.7.11. Expatriate compensation

Expatriates' compensation can also cause controversy because substantial differences exist in the compensation of expatriates at the same level in various countries. These differences lead to stress among expatriates (Koteswari and Bhattacharya, 2007).

Other problems include the fact that, although most expatriates' packages are substantial, difficulties still arise, especially if the cost of living in the host country is high. Moreover, since most people believe that expatriates are well remunerated, conflicts can arise when

nationals doing the same job feel unfairly treated because they do not have the same advantages as expatriates.

2.3.7.12. Problems of repatriation

When staying abroad, many expatriates worry about what will happen to their career when they return home. The gap between an expatriate's expectation and the reality on his or her return may negatively affect his or her level of satisfaction (Guzzo, Noonan and E'ron, 1993). Problems such as the lack of respect for acquired skills, a loss of status, a loss of career direction, and reverse cultural shock are recurring problems of repatriation.

A loss of status may arise when an expatriate returns to a position he or she held prior to the assignment, or takes on a position in the parent company that offers less status than the assignment position (Beardwell *et al.*, 2004). Reverse cultural shock occurs when the expatriate has to learn to readjust to his or her home culture when returning from the assignment. He or she may see things differently.

A loss of career direction occurs because the international experience gained by expatriates is not always a prerequisite for career advancement in the parent company. Thus, many expatriates feel that their competence is undervalued and is not fully utilized by the company in settings outside of the expatriate assignment. Furthermore, the skills acquired in the host country might be ignored or neglected after returning home.

2.3.8. Possible solutions

The high rate of expatriate failure has generated many studies on how to minimize its causes.

Literature on expatriation suggests the following solutions to expatriate failure: appropriate recruitment and selection of suitable people for international assignments, language and cultural education, expatriate and family cross-cultural training, social support, etc.

The procedures and considerations for the recruitment and selection of expatriates are drastically different from those of the local employees. Therefore they require skilled and well-trained recruiters. Recruiters usually look at for particular characteristics in expatriate employees (Caliguiri and Tung, 1999):

- adaptability of the potential expatriate to the new culture;
- flexibility;
- professional expertise;

- past international work experience;

- tolerance and open-mindedness of the candidate;

- family situation to identify potential problems;

- language ability;

- attitude and motivation;

- empathy towards local culture.

These characteristics are usually assessed in order to identify which candidate can easily adjust to the foreign assignment. Thus, careful attention must be paid to the recruitment and selection of employees sent on foreign assignment.

Testing the personality of the expatriate is also one of the points of focus in the selection process. Expatriates' agreeableness indicate collaboration, sincerity, respect and empathy for others, tolerance, and patience. Openness shows cultural acceptance, flexibility to culture, and open-mindedness.

Pre-assignment orientation and pre-departure training programmes are very important because they prepare the expatriate for the assignment, they ease the transition into a new environment, and they facilitate expatriate adjustment to amenities, general living conditions and social interactions (Black *et al*., 1991).

Cross-cultural training, language training, and sensitivity training are also important to expatriates and their families. They prepare an expatriate and his or her family members to enter the new culture and they include language lessons and cultural education. Language classes and books on the new culture are recognized as worthwhile investments for the future success of the assignment (Black *et al*., 1991). Practical training is also important because it helps expatriates and their families to adjust to the day-to-day life of the host country. Black *et al* (1991) found that training local supervisors to accommodate and accept expatriates is also beneficial. Finding a job or engaging the expatriate's spouse in other productive activities in the new country is also beneficial for the adjustment of the expatriate. In addition, the educational and social needs of expatriates' children should also be provided for.

Determining what social networks will be available to provide support to expatriates and their families is also very important. These social networks include: religious organizations, social groups for expatriates etc. In addition, training, orientation and induction of expatriates and their families are vital to prevent homesickness and isolation. Keeping expatriates well-

connected with the parent country is also important because it alleviates the feeling of loneliness.

As expatriates experience a lot of stress due to tight work schedules and others related issues, it is wise to provide stress management counselling. Moreover, support and coaching should also be provided to expatriate women as women are still a minority in international assignments (Van der Boon, 2002).

Management development programmes can be designed to increase the overall skills levels of expatriates through a mix of education and rotation of expatriates through a number of jobs within the firm to give them varied experience (Koteswari and Bhattacharya, 2007).

Repatriation programmes should be implemented in organizations to prepare expatriates for re-entry into their home country organization. Thus, the human resource management function should develop a good programme for re-integrating expatriates into the work life of their home country organization; and utilize the knowledge that expatriates have acquired abroad (Dessler, 2003).

Equalizing expatriates' pay on a global basis to reduce substantial differences will obviously reduce many conflicts. Companies should pay expatriates according to the standard of living of the host country or the pay should be equalized on the global basis (Van der Boon, 2002).

Finally, in order to minimize the failure rate of expatriates, Dessler (2003) suggests that the length of the assignment should be shortened. He believes that the shorter the duration of the assignment, the greater the chance of expatriates being successful in their assignment.

2.3.9. Brief overview of diversity issues in South Africa

One of the challenges faced by organizations is the management of diversity. According to Robbins *et al* (2001: 11), workforce diversity means that "organizations are becoming more heterogeneous in terms of gender, race, and ethnicity".

In South Africa, workplace diversity is a big concern (Grobler *et al*, 2006); it advocates the inclusion of all kinds of people in an organization (women, people with disabilities, different ethnic group, etc.). The South African government ensures that companies abide by the policy contained in the Labour Relations Act, no. 66 of 1995 (Internet 1) which has the purpose of advancing economic development, social justice, labour peace and the democratization of the

work place (Grobler *et al*, 2006). Thus, Section 2, Part B of Schedule 7; 'Residual Unfair Labour Practices' forbids unfair discrimination in the work place.

2.3.9.1. Conceptualization of diversity

Grober *et al* (2006: 75) view diversity as the recognition of groups of people sharing similar attributes and characteristics. According to them the term diversity can be defined in three different ways:

- "The politically correct term for employment equity/affirmative action";

- "The recruitment and selection of ethnic groups and women";

- "The management of individuals sharing a broad range of common traits".

From the above descriptions, it can be argued that diversity is defined according to the following physical and social characteristics of individuals: gender, race, cultural background, sexual preferences, etc. And it applies to people of a particular region or country.

However, with globalisation, boundaries between countries are eliminated and the world is now viewed as large market place. This means that diversity should have a broader view, and its definition should include people across borders. Mor Barak (2005: 132) provides a global definition of workforce diversity, stating that: "workforce diversity refers to the division of the workforce into distinction categories that have a perceived commonality within a given culture or national context, and that impact potentially harmful or beneficial employment outcomes such as job opportunities, treatment in the workplace, and promotion prospects-irrespective of job-related skills and qualifications". This definition of workplace diversity is appropriate to this study because it emphasizes the issue of nationality which is the study's central focus.

2.3.9.2. Expatriation in South Africa

From 1870 to 1900, South Africa accommodated thousands of immigrants who came to work in the gold and diamond mines and on the sugar cane farms (Grobler *et al*., 2006). But with the apartheid regime, the migration of people from many parts of the world slowed down because the country was isolated due to the sanctions imposed by international law.

When the country moved back to a democratic regime on 27 April 1994, South Africa was faced with intensive international competition (Grobler *et al*., 2006). This led to the immigration of many skilled and non-skilled people to South Africa.

Notwithstanding the xenophobic attacks encountered by foreigners in 2008 (HSRC, June 2008), South African companies, especially institutions of higher learning still employ many foreign workers. The former Minister of Education Naledi Pandor (Africa News, 13th Febuary 2007) encouraged the recruitment of foreign educational professionals to counter the shortage of skilled academics in South Africa.

Challenges faced by expatriates in South Africa include: cultural challenges, the inability to communicate easily with local people as nationals mostly speak in their mother tongues, violence (HSRC, 2008) due to high crime rates, and affirmation action policies that protect previously-disadvantaged South Africans.

2.3.9.3. Advantages of diversity in organization

For organizations to succeed they have to properly managed their diverse workforce. Workforce diversity has the ability to improve the economy of a country; people can improve their work performance if they feel accepted in the organization. Carrel *et al* (2000) state: "the world is pluralistic and everything around us will involve diversity; from employees, to customers, to suppliers". Thus, human resource management should continuously remind stakeholders that the world is pluralistic.

2.4. Summary

This chapter explored the existing literature on expatriates; their importance, the reasons of expatriation and the causes and magnitude of their failure were discussed. Multinational expatriates were compared to self-selected expatriates e.g. expatriate academics. The chapter also highlights the reasons for the emergence of international human resource management. A brief overview of expatriation in South Africa was also outlined. However, challenges facing expatriates in the host country were discussed along with possible solutions. Some of these challenges will be thoroughly discussed in the next chapter along with their impact on the work performance of expatriates.

Chapter 3

Review of existing literature on work performance and factors affecting expatriates' work performance

3.1. Introduction

Employee work performance is essential to the success of any organization; it is of critical importance because organizations are directly dependent on the performance of their employees (Gerber *et al*., 1998). Through the work performance of its employees, an organization is able to realise greater financial benefits, acquire higher market share and increase its productivity. Work performance entails "the accomplishment, execution, working out of anything undertaken" (Internet 2).

With the advent of globalization, the number of expatriate employees is increasing, particularly in the education sector where expatriate academics pursue their careers in universities across the globe. The purpose of this chapter is twofold: it first seeks to define and describe the different aspects of work performance as presented by relevant existing literature. Secondly, it aims to explore existing literature on factors influencing the performance of expatriate employees.

3.2. Definition of work performance

Performance is broadly defined as the extent of achievement of pre-defined objectives. Bernadin *et al* (1995) stress that performance is the outcome of work; it provides strong links to the strategic goals of the organisation, customer satisfaction and economic contributions. Deadrick and Gardner (2000) define work performance as the achieved work outcomes for each job function during a specified period of time.

Grobler *et al* (2006) state that in most jobs, employees' performance is measured in terms of the quantity, quality and timeliness of the work output, presence at work, and employees' cooperativeness. Noe *et al* (2006) argue that employees' performance depends on how various individual attributes such as skill and ability are transformed into objective results. Quality and quantity of output are also cited by Marshall (2000) as possible metrics for the measurement of employees' work performance.

From the above statements, it can be assumed that employees' work performance is the backbone of an organization since it determines the achievement of the goals and objectives of an organization. Thus, Marshall (2000) argues that employees' performance should be the primary concern of any organization.

Low work performance can cause high turnover, job losses, conflicts, stress, dissatisfaction, and delays in career development. It can also cause a loss of productivity and profitability for the organization. But high performance can lead to promotion, career advancement, and job satisfaction.

3.3. Measurement of work performance

For the workforce to improve constantly, employee performance must be evaluated and monitored regularly (Hanna and Brusoe, 1997; cited by Cheng *et al*., 2005). Performance measurement is a process whereby an organization establishes parameters within which programmes, investments and acquisitions should reach desired results (Cheng *et al*., 2005). The process of measuring performance usually requires the use of statistical evidence. De Ceiri *et al* (2005) outline five approaches to measuring performance: comparative, attribute, behavioural, result and quality.

3.3.1. Comparative approach

According to De Ceiri *et al* (2005), the comparative approach to performance measurement requires the assessor to compare an individual's performance with that of other employees. The comparative approach encompasses the ranking, forced distribution and paired comparison methods.

- Ranking is a method that arrives at an overall assessment of individual's performance (De Ceiri *et al*., 2005).
- The forced choice method requires a manager to rank employees in groups by putting certain percentages of employees into predetermined categories (De Ceiri *et al*., 2005).
- Paired comparison requires managers to compare every employee with every other employee in the work group (De Ceiri *et al*., 2005).

This approach however has some shortfalls. One of the shortfalls is that the comparative approach usually fails to link the measurement to the goals of the organization. In addition, the ratings can be subjective; and this can affect the validity and the reliability of the measurement. Moreover, because of the subjectivity of the measurement, many employees and managers are reluctant to be evaluated through a comparative approach (Noe *et al*., 2006).

3.3.2. Attribute approach

The attribute approach to performance management focuses on the extent to which individuals have certain attributes (De Ceiri *et al.*, 2005). This approach looks at characteristics and traits such as initiative, leadership, and competitiveness to evaluate individuals (Noe *et al.*, 2006). There are two methods associated with the attribute approach: graphic rating scales and mixed standards scales.

- In graphic rating scales, lists of traits are evaluated on a five-point rating scale.

- Mixed standard scales define relevant performance dimensions and develop statements representing good, average and poor performance along each dimension (Noe *et al.*, 2006).

According to Noe *et al* (2006), the attribute approach of measuring performance is the most common method used to measure performance; because it is easy to develop and it can be applied to a variety of jobs, strategies and organizations. In addition, the approach is perceived to be more valid and reliable compared to other approaches (Noe *et al.*, 2006).

3.3.3. Behavioural approach

The behavioural approach attempts to define exemplary behaviour for employees (De Ceiri *et al.*, 2005). Various methods are included in this approach: critical incidents, behaviour anchored rating scales and behaviour observation scales (De Ceiri *et al.*, 2005).

- The critical incidents method requires managers to keep records of specific examples of effective and ineffective performance that will be used in evaluating the employee.

- Behaviour anchors rating scales specifically define performance dimensions by developing behavioural anchors associated with different levels of performance.

- Behaviour observation scales require managers to rate the frequency with which employees exhibit each behaviour during the rating period (De Ceiri *et al.*, 2005).

These different methods define the behaviour needed for the job and require the assessors to measure the extent to which an employee exhibits these behaviours. According to Wiese and Buckley (1998), the behavioural approach is very effective in a number of situations; for example, it can link the organization's strategy to the specific behaviour necessary for implementing the strategy and it can provide specific feedback to employees about their performance.

The result approach focuses on the objective and measurable results of a job (De Ceiri *et al*., 2005). This approach assumes that subjectivity can be eliminated from the measurement process, and results are the closest indicator of one's contribution to organizational effectiveness. Two methods are distinguished in this approach: management by objectives, and evaluation measurement systems. Noe *et al* (2006) argue that the result approach is more acceptable to managers and employees because it minimizes subjectivity and relies on objective and quantifiable indicators of performance.

The quality approach measures employees' performance, with an emphasis on the assessment of both personal and systems factors (De Ceiri *et al*., 2005). This approach advocates that managers and employees should work together to solve performance problems and that both internal and external customers should be involved in setting standards and measuring performance (De Ceiri *et al*., 2005).

3.4. Work performance dimensions

Task and contextual performance are two different dimensions of work performance that can impact on work outcomes. Task performance is defined as "the expected behaviours that are directly involved in producing goods or services that provide indirect support for the organization's core technical processes" (Van Scotter *et al*., 2000: 526). According to Van Scotter *et al* (2000: 526), task performance represents core technical activities of the organization such as: completing accounting forms, writing programming codes for software, or manufacturing automobiles, etc.

Contextual performance on the other hand reflects the behaviours that help support the core task responsibilities. They include: showing perseverance, offering extra effort on the job, co-operating with others, or volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of one's job (Van Scotter *et al*., 2000). Therefore, Van Scotter *et al* (2000: 526) define it "in terms of behaviour that contributes to organizational effectiveness through its effects on the psychological, social, and organizational context of work".

Both task and contextual performance contribute to the success and attainment of organizational goals. Task performance contributes to organizational goals by accomplishing the core technical tasks; while contextual performance develops a supportive social,

psychological, and organizational context surrounding the technical core (Van Scotter *et al*., 2000).

3.5. Factors affecting expatriates' work performance

It is important to analyze the factors that can impact on work performance. Work performance can either be good or poor. Generally, high performance satisfies both employees and the organization. But problems usually arise in the case of low performance.

Factors affecting employees' work performance also affect expatriate employees' work performance. For instance, like others employees, stress can affect their work performance and a lack of job satisfaction can also reduce their commitment (Dessler, 2003). However, there are also specific factors that can affect expatriates' work performance. Contemporary literature on expatriate management reveals that expatriation can be a stressful experience for individuals who have to deal with a new way of life, and who have to perform in an unfamiliar work environment. Thus, Black *et al* (1991) cited by Selmer (1999) assert that expatriates who are unable to adjust to work and life in a foreign location are likely to perform their tasks poorly.

Expatriates' work performance has been the concern of many researchers because the failure rate of expatriates in their assignments has become more and more evident (Hill, 2003; Black and Gregersen, 1999). Factors influencing the work performance of expatriates include: cultural shock, homesickness, lack of socialization with peers, social and cultural adjustment, language barriers, and dissatisfaction with the organization's policies and practices (Black *et al*., 1991; Bonache 2005; Folger and Konovsky 1989; Mc Evoy and Parker 1995; Omi and Winnat 2003). These factors will be discussed below.

3.5.1. Expatriates' cultural and social adjustment

The adjustment of expatiates and their families in the host country has been overemphasized in the contemporary literature on international human resource management; as it was perceived as one of the most critical factors affecting the success of expatriates on their assignments (Caliguiri, 2000; Dowling and Welch, 2004; Takeuchi *et al*., 2005).

Marx (1999) cited by Van Aswegen (2008) states that most people who arrive in a foreign setting for the first time are confronted with adjustment problems because they have to leave their friends, family, home culture, work environment, etc, in order to settle in a new and unfamiliar environment. This inability to adapt to a new setting can affect their work and their

interaction in the new environment (Black *et al*., 1991; Mc Evoy and Parker, 1995 in Selmer, 1999). A study conducted by Waterhouse (1997) on European and US multinationals found that high rates of underperformance for employees on assignment was the result of their inability to adapt to a new culture. Likewise, Adler (1997) cited by Takeuchi *et al* (2005) stresses that when expatriates fail to adjust well to a foreign culture, every aspect of their life becomes stressful; and high stress usually leads to withdrawal behaviour such as absenteeism, turnover, conflicts, etc. These factors are considered as having a negative effect on employees' work performance.

The inability of expatriates' spouses to adjust to foreign cultures has been cited as the second prominent factor affecting the work of expatriates on international assignments (Shaffer and Harrison, 2001). Surveys conducted in 2003 by GMAC Global Relocation Services (GMAC-GRS), indicated that 94 percent of expatriates on assignment mentioned spouse or partner dissatisfaction as the major factor affecting their assignment (Takeuchi *et al*., 2005; Dowling and Welch, 2004).

3.5.1.1. Definition of expatriate adjustment
Social and cultural adjustment is generally defined as the process of adaptation to living and working in a foreign environment; Black *et al* (1991) cited by Selmer (2006) defines it as a perceived degree of psychological comfort and familiarity a person has with the new host culture.

Wang and Kanungo (2004) define expatriates' adjustment as a process by which expatriates relate with and learn about the new environment and citizens in order to reduce uncertainty and to obtain psychological comfort.

However, Trompenaars and Hampton-turner (2004: 331) outlined by Van Aswegen (2008: 84), view the process of expatriate adjustment as a 'culture shock'. The term 'culture shock' has been defined by Oberg (1960) cited by Fish (2005: 229) as "feelings of frustration, confusion, and alienation in an uncertain environment of a foreign culture". A culture shock is attributed to the inability of the expatriate to easily adapt to the culture of the host country. In addition, Pires *et al* (2006: 158) maintain that "expatriates often endure culture shock that is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse and reflected in culture based adjustment difficulties in functioning satisfactorily in the host country"; and this culture shock starts to surface when an expatriate realizes that he

or she has to live day after day in this unfamiliar location that he or she is not used to, but has to find a way of living and surviving in.

Usually, a newly-arrived expatriate has no idea how to interpret the local culture (Van Aswegen, 2008: 85). This inability to identify with the local culture can sometimes lead to inappropriate behaviour and disorientation. Thus, Eckert (2006) in Van Aswegen (2008: 85) states that "because our own culture is often invisible, taken for granted, emotionally charged, and taught to represent moral high ground, we have a tendency to assume that something is wrong with others, not with us, and to define our own culture as 'more natural, more rational, or more civilised'. In doing so, we undervalue the other culture by defining it as 'immoral, irrational, or uncivilised'''.

Nonetheless, it is important to differentiate expatriates' psychological adjustment from their socio-cultural adjustment.

3.5.1.2. Psychological adjustment

Psychological adjustment refers to the degree to which an expatriate is emotionally and mentally satisfied with his or her new situation (Selmer, 2002; Scullion and Linehan, 2005; Takeuchi *et al*., 2005). It deals with the subjective well-being or mood states such as depression, anxiety, tension and fatigue (Scullion and Linehan, 2005).

3.5.1.3. Socio-cultural adjustment

Socio-cultural adjustment on the other hand refers to an individual's ability to adapt to a foreign environment (Selmer, 2002). Black (1988) cited by Takeuchi *et al* (2005) views socio-cultural adjustment as the degree of ease or difficulty that expatriates have with various aspects of an overseas assignment. It relates to the ability to 'fit into' the new work and cultural environment. Socio-cultural adjustment is multifaceted and can be conceptualized as having three facets namely: general, work and interaction adjustment (Black, 1988; cited by Takeuchi *et al*., 2005; Dowling and Welch, 2004).

▪ **General adjustment**

General adjustment is a process whereby an expatriate acquaints him or herself with the new environment and familiarizes him or herself with local surroundings in the host country (Takeuchi *et al*., 2005). Black (1988) cited by Takeuchi *et al* (2005) states that general adjustment usually involves familiarizing oneself with shopping outlets, the local food, housing conditions, as well as entertainment and health care facilities. If an expatriate is

acquainted with the living conditions of the host country, he or she is likely to better understand the host culture; and therefore less likely to experience culture shock (Kraimer *et al.*, 2001).

- **Work adjustment**

Work adjustment refers to the process through which an expatriate becomes comfortable and familiar with his or her work values, expectations, and standards in his or her new work environment (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2005). During the work adjustment process, an expatriate has to adapt to his or her new job responsibilities, to the new performance standards; and to the type of leadership expected from him or her by his or her subordinates (Black, 1988 cited; by Takeuchi *et al.*, 2005).

- **Interaction adjustment**

Interaction adjustment is a process through which an expatriate familiarizes and comfortably interacts with the host country nationals. During this process, an expatriate learns to appropriately interact with local people at work and outside of the work environment (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2005); and moreover, builds relationships with local co-workers in order to facilitate task performance (Kraimer *et al.*, 2001).

3.5.1.4. Adjustment process

People have different ways of coping and reacting when adjusting to a new environment. However, they all experience the need to adjust while working in a foreign setting. Dowling and Welch (2004: 91) identify four distinct phases in the process of adjustment represented by figure 3.1.
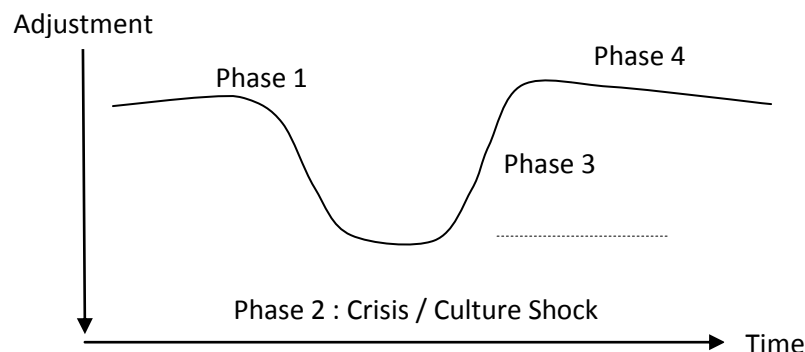
Figure3.1. Phases of the adjustment process.

Source: Dowling and Welch (2004: 133). International Human Resource Management: Managing people in a Multinational Context 4th ed.

Phase 1

Dowling and Welch (2004: 133) refer to Phase one of the adjustment process as a 'honeymoon' or 'tourist' phase. This phase begins before the assignment; when an expatriate experiences positive and negative emotions such as excitement, anxiety, and fear of the unknown; these mixed feelings and emotions can in turn lead to mood swings. After some time, the novelty lessens and the expatriate begins to feel the realities of life in the foreign location (Dowling and Welch, 2004). The expatriate therefore experiences a period of crisis as he or she starts to negatively appraise the situation and the location.

Phase 2

Phase two is critical for the way an expatriate copes with psychological adjustment. This phase can determine the success or the failure of the assignment (Dowling and Welch, 2004: 133). Generally, homesickness is present in this phase as the expatriate starts to experience 'culture shock'. Failure, or intention to return home are some of the consequences that can result from this phase if the expatriate is not settled (Kraimer *et al*., 2001; Dowling and Welch, 2004; Takeuchi *et al*., 2005).

Phase 3

Dowling and Welch (2004: 133) identify the third phase as a 'pulling up' phase because this phase allows the expatriate to slowly recover from the crisis experienced in Phase two and to begin to adjust to the new environment.

Phase 4

Phase four is called the 'healthy recovery' phase, because the expatriate becomes more adjusted and familiar with his or her environment in the host country (Dowling and Welch, 2004).

As mentioned earlier, people are different, and therefore have different ways of adjusting to the new culture. This means that the curve represented in Figure 3.1 is not normative, and consequently cannot be generalized – this is one of the limitations of the curve (Dowling and Welch, 2004). Another limitation of the curve outlined by Black and Mendenhall (1991) in Dowling and Welch (2004) is that its specified time period varies; and therefore, there is no conclusive statistical support for its various phases.

3.5.1.5. Possible solutions for the adjustment of expatriates

Personality factors such as agreeableness, openness, flexibility, tolerance, etc, seem to play an important role in explaining an expatriate's ability to adapt to and appropriately perform in a foreign environment (Dowling *et al.*, 1999; Caliguiri and Tung, 1999). Agreeableness indicates collaboration, sincerity, respect and empathy for others (Caliguiri and Tung, 1999). An expatriate with these qualities will usually show tolerance and patience for the host culture. Likewise, an expatriate portraying 'open-mindedness' as a personality trait will possibly show empathy with the host culture (Caliguiri and Tung, 1999). The personality factors listed here are often assessed in the selection process of expatriates. Others selection characteristics highlighted by research are: adaptability, professional expertise, past international experience, language ability, and family situation (Caliguiri and Tung, 1999; Dowling *et al.*, 1999).

There are several solutions which may overcome or prevent the 'culture shock' usually experienced by expatriates (Zacharia, 2000). For instance, cross-cultural, language and sensitivity training prepare expatriates and families for entering the new culture (Black *et al.*, 1991). In addition, Black *et al* (1991) believe that pre-assignment orientation and pre-departure training programmes also prepare expatriates to take up the assignment; to ease expatriates' transition, and to facilitate adjustment to amenities, general living conditions and social interactions. In addition, finding a job or engaging an expatriate's spouse in productive activities in the new country may alleviate the adjustment problem.

3.5.2. Homesickness

Homesickness has its roots in the field of psychology from as early as seventeenth century. In the eighteenth century, medical tests often explained pathology in terms of homesickness (Furnham, 2005). Homesickness is commonly described as a feeling of longing that one experiences when missing one's home (Internet 3).

Van Tilburg *et al* (1996: 899) define homesickness as "the commonly experienced state of distress among those who have left their house and home and find themselves in a new and unfamiliar environment". They argue that homesickness is a stress which can cause ill-health in the people affected in the form of "depression, deficiencies in the immune system, diabetes, etc". According to Furnham (2005), the main psychological features of homesickness are: a strong need to go home, a sense of grief for home, and strong thoughts of home. The behavioural symptoms of homesickness include: apathy, lack of initiative and lack of interest

in the new environment (Van Bekel, 2002). Likewise, Fisher (1989) cited by Furnham (2005) notes that people who are homesick have a strong feeling of unhappiness, anxiety, disorientation, and absent mindedness.

3.5.2.1. Theories of homesickness

There are different approaches to homesickness. The loss model of Bowl (1980) cited by Fisher (1989: 8) conceptualizes homesickness as "a temporarily acute anxiety and panic because of a loss of direct contact with home and family; and states that homesick people are highly stressed and anxious". This model stresses that when an individual loses his or her social and cultural networks, he or she experiences anxiety, grief, anger, and apathy. If these conditions persist, the individual becomes deeply depressed and this can sometimes lead to agoraphobia.

Likewise, the interruption theory developed by Mandler (1975) cited by Fisher (1989: 8) also associates anxiety and preoccupation with thoughts of home as symptoms of homesickness. However, this theory assumes that interruption or a break in routine and social habits creates tension, anxiety, and distress. This theory contends that a disruption of one's habits due to relocation to a new environment can lead to adjustment and integration problems (Fisher, 1989).

The reduced control theory advocates that the transition from a familiar environment to a new environment usually results in a phase of loss of control (Fisher, 1989). It contends that in a new environment, a person who is good at dealing with the demands of his or her life becomes helpless and experiences difficulties in coping with new academic and social demands, and daily routines.

In terms of the conflict model (Fisher, 1989) notes that when an individual moves from one location to another, he or she experiences a conflict between the necessity to adopt a new approach to life in a new environment, and the willingness to return to the comfort zone provided by his or her home. This conflict can lead to a "difficulty to accommodate to the wind of change" (Fisher, 1989: 9).

Another theory developed by Oatley (1988) cited by Fisher (1989) believes that transition inevitably results in a change of role. It argues that every time a person moves to a new setting, his or her role changes; and adapting to a new role results in a period of anxiety in which self-focused attention predominates.

The consequences resulting from homesickness are numerous and they can affect the health of an individual, even if it is often conceptualized as a periodic situation (Fisher, 1989). Some of the consequences of homesickness include: a lack of motivation, a lack of team spirit, and poor performance (Deresky, 2006). In one of her empirical studies in a small Scottish university, Fisher (1989) cited by Furnham (2005) found that students who were homesick reported a greater number of failures, poor concentration, and the quality of their work was poor. She concluded that homesickness is an important phenomenon that may have an impact on academic performance. Fisher's study can be applied to expatriates who left their family, friends and daily routines to adjust to a new environment.

In their empirical study of a migrant population in East Kentucky, Omi and Winnant (2003) found that people who were homesick were emotionally unstable, lonely, and unable to focus on their work. Van Bekel (2002) also notes that depression, anxiety, and fear experienced by homesick people can prevent international assignees from successfully adjusting and integrating into the host country.

3.5.2.2. Possible alleviating factors of homesickness

There are no precise remedies to cure homesickness. The best cure is for homesick people to return to their home country (Fisher, 1989; Van Tilburg *et al*., 1996; Van Bekel, 2002). However, sometimes due to constraints such as work demands, it is impossible for these people to return immediately to their original environment. In the case of an expatriate, returning home immediately means failure on the assignment; and this can have negative consequences on the expatriate himself and on the organization. Therefore, Fisher (1989) suggests a 'stress management' approach as appropriate in alleviating homesickness. The stress management approach advocates that helping people to admit the feeling of homesickness, to be occupied in the new environment's activities, to do physical activities, to eat and sleep well, and to attend training programmes, will help them overcome the phenomenon of homesickness (Fisher, 1989; Van Tilburg *et al*., 1996; Van Bekel, 2002).

Another remedy for homesickness is to reduce its occurrence by preparing expatriates by means of training them before they go on their assignment (Van Bekel, 2002; Deresky, 2006). In preparing prospective expatriates for their assignment, the training course will make them aware of the realities that people often experience when they are far away from their home; therefore expatriates should understand that being homesick is a normal process, and that it requires time and personal effort to overcome it (Deresky, 2006).

3.5.3. Language

Communication is crucial at the work place because it facilitates business interactions between people or between organizations; and language is one of the means of communication. Language is generally defined as a system of communication used by people of a particular group, country or culture. Hellriegel *et al* (2005: 515) define language as a shared system of vocal sounds, written signs, and gestures, used to convey special meanings among members of a culture. From the above definitions, it is clear that language is a system of communication common to people who share the same culture or who belong to the same ethnic group. This means that an expatriate who is an individual from another culture will have to learn and adjust to an unfamiliar language.

Expatriates often experience communication problems in their foreign postings as a result of a communication breakdown due to language barriers. If expatriates are posted to countries where their home language is not spoken, they will have problems in communicating with their peers and workmates. This affects their ability to settle and stabilize during the transition period because of difficulties in simple situations such as driving around, shopping, socializing, etc. Most importantly, they can be ineffective in their assignments and ultimately fail professionally and jeopardize the achievement of corporate objectives. Selmer (2004) contends that not knowing the host language can pose internal and external challenges for an expatriate. In her study on western expatriates working in China, Selmer (2004) found that internal challenges faced by western and other expatriates are: upward communication with superiors, downward communication with local subordinates, and horizontal communication with peers. If the expatriate cannot speak the host country language, he or she will probably experience communication barriers, especially in downward and horizontal communication; and this may impact tremendously on the work and on the morale of the expatriate. She adds that communication is crucial for management. Likewise, Marquis and Huston (2008: 19) assert that "effective communication is the lifeblood of a successful organization. It reinforces an organization's vision, connects employees to the business, fosters process improvement, facilitates change, and drives business results by changing employee behaviour".

Not knowing the host country language result in the expatriate being unable to communicate with customers, suppliers and government agencies in the host country (Selmer, 2004); and this may negatively impact on the business, and on the expatriate's ability to interact with locals in the host country. Guillen (2001) cited by Fish (2005: 228) supports this perspective in relation to international marketing assignments by arguing that "marketing is always best

accomplished in the language of the buyer". Bartlett and Ghosal (1995: 43) quote Leonard Lauder of Estee Lauder Cosmetics who said that "it is self evident that you cannot sell unless there is a demand for the product. It is also self-evident that you cannot begin to understand what people demand if you cannot talk to them on their own terms".

Adler *et al* (1992) cited by Dowling *et al* (1999) found that differences in language are considered the main communication obstacle between people from different countries and areas, and are sometimes a reason for culture shock. Fish (2005: 228) asserts that "from a pragmatic perspective, not having the ability to communicate with the host language may lead to serious problems associated with failure to appropriately adapt to the host culture". Along the same lines, Dowling *et al* (1999) note that knowing the host country language is very important for successful international assignments. In other words, an expatriate should be able to understand and speak the host country language in order for him or her to adjust and perform his or her task adequately. Local language ability is a crucial factor for effective performance; assert Clegg and Gray (2002: 595). Kraimer *et al* (2001) also reckons that knowledge of the host language has the ability to enhance work performance, to lead to increased satisfaction, and to decrease staff turnover (Shaffer and Harrison, 1998; cited by Selmer, 2004).

Eschback *et al* (2001) in Selmer (2006) explain that host language ability may serve several purposes. Besides facilitating communication with colleagues, superiors, and subordinates, it may also contribute to learning about the host culture, enabling one to be polite, and permitting cultural understanding. Scullion and Linehan (2005) contend that knowing the host country language facilitates interaction adjustment. A survey conducted by Selmer (2002) on western business expatriates in the Chinese Mainland and in the Hong Kong SAR found that expatriate managers who had language problems scored low on interaction adjustment (Scullion and Linehan, 2005: 241), and that expatriates' proficiency in a Chinese language was positively related to their socio-cultural adjustment (Selmer, 2002). .

However, language was placed lower in the list of desirable attributes for an international assignment (Dowling *et al*., 1999: 90) because it was considered a mechanical and manageable problem that could be solved individually (Fixman, 1990 in Dowling *et al*., 1999: 91). But the ability to speak the local language for an expatriate on assignment remains very important (Dowling *et al*., 1999; Kraimer *et al*., 2001; Selmer, 2004); and language training is

usually recommended prior to the assignment. Moreover, language ability is one of the criteria used in the selection of international employees.

3.5.4. Organizational socialization

Socialization usually describes how people learn to fit into a new organization or job. It is a process by which an individual learns appropriate attitudes, behaviours and knowledge associated with a particular role in an organization (Palthe, 2004). Chatman (1991) cited by Toh (2003) defines socialization as the process whereby an individual develops an appreciation for the values, expected behaviours, and social knowledge that are essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member. The term socialization usually applies to newcomers in the organization. Considering that an expatriate is an individual from another country, even though he or she may have a home country organization, he may also be regarded as a newcomer, not necessary to the organization, but to the particular host country (Toh, 2003). Therefore, Albrecht (2001: 216) defines organizational socialization of an expatriate as "the process by which an expatriate is inculcated with the values, expected behaviours, social knowledge, and other important features of the host country organizational setting".

From the perspective of international human resource management, the purpose of organizational socialization is to acquaint an expatriate with the new environment, so as to reduce the level of uncertainty, and guide an expatriate on what to do and how to behave appropriately according to the cultural context of the foreign organization (Albrecht, 2001: 217).

3.5.4.1. Organizational socialization process

According to Chao (2005), organizational socialization is a complex phenomenon because it involves actions taken by both the newcomer and the organization; and lessons learned through it may be intentional or unintentional. Thus, newcomers progress through different stages in the socialization process (Albrecht, 2001; Chao, 2005). The four stages are explained below.

<u>Stage 1</u>

The first stage, known as the anticipatory socialization stage, includes processes involving social integration in which an expatriate becomes sensitive to group norms and values. In this stage, expatriates try to understand formal and informal work relationships, to become aware

of the different individuals in the organization, and to learn how to relate and fit in with members of the organization (Albrecht, 2001: 216; Chao, 2005).

Stage 2

The second stage is the mastery stage. It includes early learning and adjustment just after entering the organization. In this stage, an expatriate becomes acquainted with the job by learning the knowledge, skills and abilities required for the job; by learning important duties, assignments priorities; and by learning how to handle routine problems and to obtain required information (Albrecht, 2001: 216; Chao, 2005).

Stage 3

The third stage is the work roles stage or role clarification stage where an expatriate understands boundaries for authority, responsibility, and appropriate behaviours (Albrecht, 2001: 217).

Stage 4

The fourth stage is the last stage whereby the expatriate is fully acquainted and adjusted in the organization. In this stage, newcomers and expatriates are able to appreciate and know the organization's politics, goals, mission, special languages, and leadership styles (Albrecht, 2001: 217).

Overall, the process of organizational socialization may take place in the course of formal programmes or through informal introduction. Formal programmes consist of role modelling, teaching, mentoring, coaching, and enforcement by peers in the organization (Albrecht, 2001; Hellriegel *et al*., 2005; Grobler *et al*., 2006). According to Albrecht (2001: 217), mentorship programmes facilitate sense-making, situational identification, and acculturation among newcomers.

Informal introduction on the other hand can simply include individual efforts that introduce expatriates to the processes and procedures in the host country organization (Albrecht, 2001: 217).

3.5.4.2. Impact of organizational socialization on expatriates' work performance
Sometimes, moving into a new organizational culture can produce a culture shock for an expatriate. However, a good employee-organization fit can lead to a number of positive

benefits, such as employee satisfaction, a high level of organizational commitment, employee effectiveness, and low staff turnover (Albrecht, 2001; Chao, 2005). Organizational socialization can have an influence on the work performance of an employee. Employees who are well socialized are more committed to their organizations. They are more satisfied with their jobs, and can obviously learn faster (Albrecht, 2001; Chao, 2005). Furthermore, Chao (2005) stresses that people who are well socialized are less likely to quit their jobs, and more likely to build successful careers within the organization.

Organizational socialization is therefore an important variable for the adjustment of expatriates and for their effectiveness at work (Chao, 2005). As outlined earlier, expatriates are working far away from their homeland. Any orientation and support that they may receive from their organization and their co-workers can ease their work and social adjustment. Thus, Aycan (1997) points out that one of the most important factors that influence the expatriate's acculturation process is socialization and support in the local unit. This means that co-workers have an important role to play in helping the expatriate to become familiar with the new work environment. In the same perspective, Toh (2003) asserts that the social support that organizational insiders provide to expatriate employees positively impacts on their adjustment and on other job-related outcomes. Similarly, Ducharme and Martin (2000) outline the positive impact of co-workers on the job satisfaction of an expatriate.

Interaction with local co-workers is a good way for expatriate newcomers to become aware of appropriate behaviours in the host country. Local co-workers may act as sources of information in helping the expatriate understand the host culture. Thus, Kraimer *et al* (2001) emphasize that local co-workers are the richest sources of information for the expatriate with regard to the expatriate's work, the organization, and the cultural environment. Organizational 'insiders' can play a key role as socializing agents for newcomers (Major *et al*.,1995 cited by Toh, 2003) because of the information they provide, as well as the social support they offer to newcomers (Nelson and Quick, 1999).

3.5.5. Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization

Employee satisfaction is one of the key factors that impact on the performance of organizations (Fernandes and Awamleh, 2006); and one of the most widely-studied work-related attitudes (Greenberg and Baron, 2003). In the current era of intense competition, organizations must endeavour to identify factors that influence the satisfaction of their employees. Some of these factors are related to the policies and the practices of the

organization. For instance, policies such as compensation, promotion, rewards, training and development, induction, valuing diversity, etc, can have an impact on employee satisfaction.

Policies are defined as general guidelines that guide organizational actions (Mathis and Jackson, 2004). Practices can be described as actions, attitudes, and behaviours observable in the way an organization and its employees conduct their business.

Job satisfaction can be a complex process mainly because of intrinsic differences between individuals. Mathis and Jackson (2004: 91) define job satisfaction as "a positive emotional state resulting from evaluating one's job experience". People are different; what can satisfy one individual may not satisfy his or her fellow worker. The literature on job satisfaction outlines that employees can be very sensitive to the way they are treated in the organization (Smith *et al*., 1969; cited by Greenberg and Baron, 2003).

3.5.5.1. Conceptualization of job satisfaction

There are different meanings to job satisfaction. Greenberg and Baron (2003: 148) define job satisfaction as "individuals' positive or negative attitudes towards their job". Smith *et al* (1969) cited by Greenberg and Baron (2003: 149) perceive job satisfaction as a "persistent feeling towards discriminable aspects of the job situation". Discriminable aspects according to Smith *et al* (1969) in Greenberg and Baron (2003) are factors such as the work itself, pay, promotional opportunities, the supervisor, co-workers, and working hours.

Other scholars have conceptualized job satisfaction within the economic perspective whereby job satisfaction is viewed as a concept that tends to be explained in monetary terms (Lazear, 2000; Bonache, 2005). However, Locke (1969) cited by Greenberg and Baron (2003: 149) gives a more ample definition of job satisfaction; by defining job satisfaction as the "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values".

Milbourn and Francis (1980) identify three aspects of job satisfaction. Firstly, job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation; therefore it cannot be seen and it cannot be inferred. Secondly, job satisfaction is determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations; and thirdly, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes.

Smith *et al* (1969) in Greenberg and Baron (2003) outline the following five dimensions that can affect employees' job satisfaction:

- Work itself: the extent to which the job provides the individual with interesting tasks, opportunities for learning, and the chance to accept responsibility.

- Pay: the amount of financial remuneration that is received and the degree to which this is viewed as equitable in comparison with others in the organization.

- Promotion opportunities: the chances for advancement in the hierarchy.

- Supervision: the ability of the supervisor to provide technical and behavioural support.

- Co-worker interaction: the extent to which fellow workers are technically proficient and socially supportive.

Working conditions and the organizational culture and its management are identified as other dimensions affecting employees' job satisfaction (Ronan, 1970; cited in Greenberg and Baron, 2003).

3.5.5.2. Theories of job satisfaction

Several theories have been developed to explain why individuals are satisfied with their jobs; among these are Herzberg's two-factor theory and value theory.

- **Herzberg's two-factor theory**

In 1950, Herzberg developed the two-factor theory by interviewing 200 accountants and engineers to find out what made them satisfied or dissatisfied on the job. He asked them two sets of questions. The first set of questions was for participants to recall times when they were especially satisfied with their work. The second set of questions asked them to recall times of dissatisfaction (Abdullah, 2002). From the survey, Herzberg (1950) concluded that there are two sets of factors namely "motivators" and "hygiene" that affect an employee's ability to experience job satisfaction.

Herzberg (1950) cited by Greenberg and Baron (2003: 153) argues that 'motivators' are factors that relate to work content and lead to job satisfaction. These factors include: achievement, recognition, responsibility, promotion opportunities, and opportunities for personal growth.

'Hygiene' factors, according to Herzberg (1950) cited by Abdullah (2002) are related to work environment; they prevent dissatisfaction but they do not lead to satisfaction. 'Hygiene'

factors are: supervision, pay, company policies, physical working conditions, relations with others, and job security (Abdullah, 2002).

Although, Herzberg's two-factor theory has been criticized by some researchers (Abdullah, 2002; Greenberg and Baron, 2003); this theory still has important implications for organizations on how to motivate their employees in order to enhance their job satisfaction.

- **Value theory**

The value theory of satisfaction assumes that job satisfaction exists when there is a match between job outcomes such as rewards received by an individual and the outcomes desired by that individual (Greenberg and Baron, 2003). This theory argues that the more people receive valued outcomes, the more satisfied they are; but if the outcomes received decrease, then their satisfaction also decreases. Thus, the key to satisfaction in this theory is the discrepancy between those aspects of the job that an individual has and those aspects that an individual wants; the greater the discrepancy, the less the satisfaction (Greenberg and Baron, 2003).

From the above presented job satisfaction theories and dimensions, it is obvious that organizational policies and practices such as promoting, rewarding, and compensating employees have a great impact on employees' job satisfaction. Contemporary literature on expatriates asserts that factors such as compensation, promotion, supervision, rewards, operating conditions, co-operation with co-workers, the nature of work, communication (Black *et al.*, 1991; Bonache, 2005), role conflict, role clarity, job autonomy, and job performance feedback (Karim, 2008) correlate positively with an expatriate's job satisfaction.

3.5.5.3. Measurement of job satisfaction

There are various methods of measuring job satisfaction; these include rating scales questionnaires, critical incidents, and interviews (Abdullah, 2002; Greenberg and Baron, 2003).

- Rating scales questions are methods designed in questionnaires to allow people to state their reactions to their job (Greenberg and Baron, 2003). The most commonly used instruments in rating scales are: the Job Descriptive Index developed by Smith *et al* (1969), and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss *et al* (1967).

- The critical incidents method was developed by Herzberg (1950) as part of his two-factor theory of motivation and satisfaction.

- Interviews are also used to measure job satisfaction in face-to-face sessions with employees in order to assess their opinions on how they feel about their job (Greenberg and Baron, 2003).

3.5.6. Definition of job dissatisfaction

Job dissatisfaction usually occurs when an employee's expectations are not met. For instance, if an employee expects a salary increase every year-end, the employee is likely to be dissatisfied if the salary does not increase as expected.

One of the most challenging tasks for organizations is to keep their employees satisfied. Literature on job satisfaction stresses that dissatisfied employees can cause tremendous losses to the organization; and as a result, negative effects such as absenteeism, high staff turnover, grievances, and low productivity can occur (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 156; Grobler *et al.*, 2006: 128).

3.5.6.1. Consequences of job dissatisfaction

As mentioned above, employee dissatisfaction can lead to adverse effects such as high staff turnover and absenteeism (Greenberg and Baron, 2003), and assignment failure for expatriates (Bonache, 2005). Several research papers on staff turnover stress that employees usually leave their organization because they are not satisfied with the compensation, policies, corporate culture, and the practices of the organization (Reggio, 2003; Mathis and Jackson, 2004; Achoui and Mansour, 2007). It is therefore obvious that employee satisfaction has a great impact on their intention to leave or to stay within the organization. Moreover, satisfaction with the organization has the ability to increase employees' commitment (Adeyinka *et al.*, 2007).

According to Greenberg and Baron (2003), if employees are dissatisfied with their job, they will find ways of staying away from their job and hence record high levels of absenteeism; Reggio (2003: 8) states that "it is important that companies strive to keep workers satisfied. Happy workers may be less likely to be absent from their job voluntarily or to look for work elsewhere".

Being far from their home country, expatriates are already exposed to a high level of stress (Bhanugopan and Fish, 2006). Therefore, if others work related-factors such as pay, rewards,

co-workers relations, etc, are not met to their satisfaction, expatriates are likely to fail in their assignment (Bonache, 2005; Karim, 2008); and that failure will impact negatively on productivity.

3.5.6.2. Job satisfaction and work performance

With regard to the relationship between job satisfaction and work performance, several researchers have found a weak relationship between job satisfaction and work performance (Judge *et al*., 2001; cited by Skibba, 2002). However, it has been argued that job satisfaction has an indirect influence on employees' work performance; from the fact that employees who are dissatisfied with their job record high levels of absenteeism and a high staff turnover rate (Greenberg and Baron, 2003). In turn, absenteeism and staff turnover are among the factors affecting employees' work performance (Neubert, 2004; Bonache, 2005). Therefore, if employees are not satisfied with their work, their level of output may decline.

Overall, expatriates need to adjust to the culture of the host country in order to adequately perform their work. They need the assistance and the support of their organization and co-workers to adjust to the host country environment and to the job. They need help in managing their homesickness in order to be able to perform their task. Policies and practices such as salary, promotions and rewards are important because they can enhance expatriates' commitment and work performance. Knowing the host country language can also facilitate expatriates' communication and interaction with peers and host country nationals.

3.7. Summary

This chapter has sought to review existing literature on employees' work performance with a specific emphasis on the performance of expatriate employees. The different approaches to performance measurement were discussed both for task performance and for contextual performance. These different approaches include: the attribute approach, the behavioural approach, the result approach, and the quality approach. Furthermore, factors identified as affecting expatriates' work performance were also discussed. These factors include cultural and social adjustment, homesickness, language barriers, organizational socialization and dissatisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization. The review of existing literature shows that these factors have a negative impact on the work performance of expatriates. The next chapter will provide an explanation of the research methodology applied in this study.

CHAPTER 4

Research Methodology

4.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the research methodology employed in this research study. It gives a detail on the sampling design, data collection method, procedure and data analysis techniques.

4.2. Research design

The research design is usually the general plan of how one will go about answering the research questions. It entails the purpose, the motivation and the objectives of the research (Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

4.2.1. Purpose of the research

The purpose of this research project being to analyse the perceptions of expatriate academics on the factors affecting their work performance; the research is exploratory and descriptive.

According to Saunders *et al* (2007), an exploratory research is a valuable means to clarify the understanding of a problem and to assess phenomena in a new light. An exploratory research allows one to familiarise oneself with the problem or concept to be studied, and to better comprehend the problem (Sekaran, 2003: 118). This research is exploratory because it seeks to assess the perceptions of expatriate academics on factors that can affect their work performance.

Likewise, the study is descriptive because descriptive statistics are used to describe and analyse the data collected from the sample. Saunders *et al* (2007) explain that descriptive research provides data about the population being studied and results are reported according to how they are given. But as a limitation, descriptive statistics cannot establish a causal relationship between variables.

4.3. Research strategy

A survey method was the research strategy used in this research project as a means of gathering data. According to Saunders *et al* (2007), a survey strategy entails the collection of

data from a large sample; it is less expensive, easy to understand and to explain. It is a method which accurately records the observation of a population within the parameters.

4.4. Sampling techniques and description of the sample

4.4.1. Sampling design
Sampling design is defined as a process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population so that through studying the sample, one is able to generalise the properties or characteristics to the population (Saunders *et* al., 2007).

4.4.2. Population
Saunders *et al* (2007: 606) define a population as "a complete set of cases or group members". The target population of this research project was all expatriate academics staff employed at the various departments in the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

4.4.3. The organization
The University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) is a higher institution located in the province of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa; its mission is 'to be a truly South African University that is academically excellent, innovative in research, and critically engaged in society' (Internet 4). The University of KwaZulu-Natal underwent a merger between the former University of Natal and the former University of Westville. The institution comprises five main campuses namely: Westville Campus, Howard College, Pietermaritzburg Campus, Medical school and Edgewood Teacher College. Likewise, the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) encompasses many faculties and departments, different job categories, diverse workforce including local and international academic and non-academic employees.

4.4.4. The sample
A sample is a subset of the population from which the data is gathered. The reasons for a smaller research group include cost effective, greater accuracy of results, faster collection of data and availability of population elements (Saunders *et al*., 2007). A total of 87 expatriate academics from the five campuses and different departments of the University of KwaZulu-Natal participated in the research.

4.4.5. Sampling method
Generally, there two types of sampling namely probability sampling and non-probability sampling.

4.4.5.1. Probability sampling

Saunders *et al*. (2007: 207) describe a probability sampling as "the selection of sampling techniques in which the chance, or probability, of each case being selected from the population is known and is not zero". The main five techniques that can be used to select a probability sample are: simple random, systematic, stratified random, cluster, and multi-stage sampling.

- **Simple random sampling**

Simple random sampling is "the probability sampling procedure that ensures that each case in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample" (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 215).

- **Systematic sampling**

Systematic sampling refers to a "probability sampling procedure in which the initial sampling point is selected at random, and the cases are selected at regular intervals" (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 218).

- **Stratified random sampling**

Stratified sampling is described as a "probability sampling procedure in which the population is divided into one or more relevant strata and a random sample is drawn from each of the strata" (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 221).

- **Cluster sampling**

Cluster sampling refers to a probability sampling procedure in which the population is divided into discrete groups or clusters prior to sampling. A random sample (systematic or simple) of these clusters is then drawn (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 223).

- **Multi-stage sampling**

According to Saunders *et al*. (2007: 223), a multi-stage sampling is a sampling procedure that is the development of cluster sampling. It involves taking a series of cluster samples, each of which uses random sampling (systematic or simple).

4.4.5.2. Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling is the selection of sampling techniques in which the chance or probability of each case being selected is not known. According to Saunders *et al*. (2007: 207), non-probability sampling includes quota sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, self-selection sampling, and convenience sampling.

- **Quota sampling**

Quota sampling is a non-probability sampling procedure that ensures that the sample represents certain characteristics of the population chosen by the researcher (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 227).

- **Purposive sampling**

Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling whereby the judgement of the researcher is used to select the cases that make up the sample (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 230).

- **Snowball sampling**

Snowball sampling is a non-probability sampling technique in which subsequent respondents are obtained from information provided by initial respondents (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 232).

- **Self-selection sampling**

Self-selection sampling is a non-probability technique in which individuals are allowed to identify their desire to be part of the sample (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 233).

- **Convenience sampling**

Convenience sampling or haphazard sampling is a non-probability procedure that involves selecting haphazardly those cases that are easiest to obtain (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 234).

Usually, the sampling technique used depends on the requirements and the objectives of the research project. Although probability sampling is the preferred sampling method in order to ensure a representative sample, a non-probability snowball method was used in this research project because it was difficult to obtain a list of expatriate academics on which it would have been possible to perform a probability sampling method.

According to Saunders *et al* (2007: 232), a Snowball sampling is "a non-probability sampling procedure in which subsequent respondents are obtained from information provided by initial respondents". A snowball sampling usually relies on referrals from initial subjects to generate additional subjects. However, the problems of bias are huge with the snowball sampling method, as respondents may refer other respondents similar them; and that may result to a homogeneous sampling (Saunders *et al*., 2007).

A snowball method was used to compile the research participants list. The sample was constructed as follows: academics from an initial list of ten expatriate academics were

required to refer two other expatriate academics they know and the same method applied to the referred participants until the suitable number of participants was reached.

4.5. Data collection method

Data collection is the gathering of information from different sources in order to analyze, test hypotheses and answer research questions (Siegel, 1997). A mono method data collection method was utilized in this study. A mono-method refers to a single data collection technique (Saunders *et al*., 2007). For the purpose of the research project, primary data was collected through self-administered questionnaire.

Saunders *et al* (2007) describe a questionnaire as a data collection method in which each person will be asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order. This method of primary data collection was chosen because of it is cost effective and it is less time consuming. Moreover, data collected trough questionnaire are standardized, easy to analyse and compare (Saunders *et al*., 2007).

However, one of the major drawbacks of using a questionnaire is the difficulty in assessing the seriousness of respondents. In order to overcome surveys errors, it was ensured that the instructions on the questionnaire were clear and unambiguous; the questions were short and easy to answer.

Furthermore, it is important to mention that the research made use of quantitative data collection technique. Sekaran (2000) asserts that quantitative data collection technique refers to numerical data or data that have been quantified. Quantitative data are based on meanings derived from numbers. The data of this study were collected in the form of numerical and standardised data; and they were analyzed through the use of diagrams and statistics.

The questionnaire consisted of rating questions and all items were measured using the likert-scale. According to Saunders *et al* (2007), rating questions are often used to collect the opinion data. With regard to the purpose of this research, collecting opinion data was appropriate because the study aimed to assess and record the perceptions of expatriate academics on the factors affecting their work performance.

4.6. Construction of the questionnaire and Measurement of items

The questionnaire encompassed pre-coded, structured questions comprising of section A and section B.

- **Section A**

Section A consisted of biographical information relating to age, gender, qualification, marital status, nature of employment, number of years in the organization, job category, origin, and work experience. Respondents were not required to write their names on the questionnaire; but to simply indicate their biographical details by marking a cross in the appropriate block (Appendix A).

- **Section B**

Section B comprised 29 statements which looked at the following variables that may affect expatriate academics work performance. These variables are: work performance, homesickness, social and cultural adjustment, organizational socialization, language barriers and satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization (Appendix A).

5-point likert rating scales ranging from 'strongly agree' (1) to 'strongly disagree' (5) was used as the response format. Respondents were required to cross on the appropriate block. For the purpose of this research project, expatriate academics work performance was assessed in term of the following variables: homesickness, social and cultural adjustment, organizational socialization, language, and satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization (rewards, promotion, career advancement). For the purpose of interpretation, high scores indicated that respondents agreed with the statement and low scores meant that they disagreed.

The purpose of the study being to analyze the perceptions of expatriate academics on the factors that can affect their work performance, respondents were asked to rate their own performance. Therefore, the variables were measured as follow:

Expatriate academics *work performance* was measured on five items used by Kraimer, *et al* (2001). This scale measures both task performance and contextual performance. Contextual performance was measured on two items asking respondents to rate their own performance on the following dimensions: understanding the organisation's goals and fulfilling job responsibilities. Task performance was measured on three items in which respondents were asked to rate their own overall performance; and to rate their own performance on the following dimensions: technical competence, and meeting job objectives in the organisation.

Homesickness was measured using five items from the homesickness and contentment scale (HC) developed by Heajong and Neil (1999). The items were measured in a five point likert response set ranging from "strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5)".

Cultural and social adjustment was measured using five items developed by Black (1980) cited by Selmer (1995) and Adler (2002). Out of the five items, three items assessed the general living condition, one item assessed the work adjustment and another item assessed the interaction adjustment.

Organisational socialization was measured on five items using five-point likert responses ranging from "strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5)". Out of those five items, two items were adapted from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquit (1967); these items assessed the level of satisfaction that one has with his or her co-workers. The other three items looking at how respondents get along with their co-workers were adapted from the questionnaire developed by Toh (2003).

Language was measured using a scale adapted from Kraimer *et al* (2001). The items assessed the ability of respondents to fluently speak, understand, write, and read English language.

Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organisation was measured using five items. Two items were adapted from the Job Description Inventory (JDI) developed by Smith *et al* (1969); these items assessed the extent to which respondents were satisfied with their prospect for career advancement and their salary. The other two items adapted from the scale developed by Spector (1985) assessed the extent to which respondents were satisfied with the promotion and the policies of the organisation. One item adapted from the scale developed by Price and Mueller (1986) measured the degree to which respondents perceived fairness in their organisation compared to their co-workers.

The entire set of these scales were included in one questionnaire. As stated above, they were all measured on a 5-point likert scale. The questionnaire included a total of 29 items except for the biographical data. All items were written in English which was the language that participants used to respond.

4.7. Data collection procedure

As mentioned above, a snowball sampling method was employed in the research project; thus, potential participants were contacted by referral. The construction of the sample started with

the compiling of a preliminary list of potential respondents. Contact was made with these participants by e-mail or in the form of face to face meeting to ask for their consent to participate to the forthcoming survey. Many participants referred me to their expatriate colleagues and at the end, a total of 93 questionnaires were distributed to expatriate academics from various faculties of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Data were collected by drop-off and pick-up method (Yousef, 1998); meaning, a questionnaire was dropped to participants for later collection.

According to Saunders *et al* (2007), response rates of this type of data collection method are 94 per cent. Moreover, in order to ensure a high response rates, a cover letter was included to each questionnaire to give participants information on the study and to clarify the purpose of the questionnaire. A copy of the letter of consent from the research committee was also attached to each questionnaire.

4.8. Response rate

According to Saunders *et al* (2007: 213), a response rate is an important aspect in the probability sample because it determines if the sample is representative or not. The response rate is calculated as follow:

Total Response Rate = (total number of responses **x** (total number in sample - ineligible)) **x** 100.

Out of 93 questionnaires distributed, a total of 87 questionnaires were returned and two of the returned questionnaires were incomplete; therefore they could not be used. Instead, the two incomplete questionnaires were considered as ineligible. Thus, a total of 85 questionnaires were usable. The response rate of the study was therefore calculated as follows: <u>Response Rate</u> = (87/ (93- 2)) **x** 100= 95.60

- 87 represent the number of respondents;
- 93 represent the number of questionnaires distributed
- 2 represent the number of non-usable questionnaires (ineligible)

The total response rate obtained from the study was 95.60%. According to Saunders *et al* (2007), the sample was representative because of its high response rate.

4.9. Likert scaling

According to literature, likert Scale sometimes called summative scale is an attitude response scale often used in questionnaires, to measure attitudes or reactions when conducting a survey research. It is in the form of a clear statement and the respondent is asked to agree or to disagree with each statement.

A five-point likert scale is usually used, but some researchers prefer using a seven or nine point scale (Sekaran, 2003). Likert scale usually consists of statements that express either a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the object of interest. For the purpose of this study, a five-point likert scale was used.

4.10. Pre-testing

Pre-testing or pilot testing is a means to identify problems before the actual collection of data (Saunders *et al*., 2007). Effective pre-testing implies the following characteristics; determining respondents' interest, establishing if the questions are meaningful, examining the questions continuity and flow, experimenting with the sequencing, collecting early warning data on item variability and fixing the length and timing of the questionnaire (Saunders *et al*., 2007).

Thus, in order to ensure that all the questions were understood, a pilot test was carried out on ten people before the final questionnaire was distributed. The purpose of the pilot test was to minimize the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering the questions. After the pretesting, question 'number two' that assessed the extent to which participants were homesick was refined and adjusted from 'I usually write letters to my family and friends back home' to 'I usually write letters (emails or speak to them on phone) to my family and friends back home'. After completing the pretesting, the researcher checked the validity and the reliability of the items.

4.11. Reliability and Validity

4.11.1. Reliability

Saunders *et al* (2007: 609) describe the reliability as the extent to which data collection technique will yield consistent findings and similar observations would be made or conclusions reached by other researchers.

In order to increase and ensure the reliability of the study, the questionnaire was designed and phrased as clearly and precisely as possible so that participants understand the questions. In addition to that, the reliability of the items was established using Cronbach's coefficient alpha.

The reliability of the independent variable (work performance) and the five independents variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, and language) was conducted in order to check the consistency of the questions. The Cronbach's coefficient alpha stipulates that reliability less than 0.6 is considered to be poor; while 0.7 is acceptable and 0.80 and above is regarded as good.

The results obtained from the Cronbach's alpha indicated that the five-item for work performance measured .714 and this result was acceptable.

The reliability of the five-item of the independent variable 'social and cultural adjustment' was above average with a measure of .645.

The reliability of the five-item of the independent variable 'satisfaction with the policies and the practices of the organization' was considered to be very good with a measure of .947.

However, the reliability of the five-item of 'organizational socialization' showed a very poor reliability of .208. But after removing one item 'I am satisfied with the way my organization handles new employees', the reliability increased to .861 on four-item; and that was considered to be good.

Likewise, the independent variable 'homesickness' recorded a reliability of .100 on five-item; and that was very poor. After removing the item 'My country's national holidays are often written in my diary', the reliability increased from .100 to .751 on four-item.

The variable 'Language' was very good with a reliability of .965 on four-item.

After the reliability was checked, the initial items decreased from 29 to 27. The 27 items were considered for further analysis. TABLE 4.1 presents the results of the reliability; and its output is portrayed in appendix B.

TABLE 4.1 Reliability of the items

Variables	Cronbach Alpha coefficient	Number of Items
Work performance	.714	5
Social-Cultural Adjustment	.645	5
Satisfaction pol/pract of org	.947	5
Organizational Socialization	.861	4
Homesickness	.751	4
Language	.965	4

4.11.2. Validity

Internal validity refers to the extent to which findings can be attributed to interventions rather than any flow in the research design (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 600). That means internal validity determines whether the research measures what it was supposed to measure and it concerns in how truthful the research results are. Content and construct validity were relevant for this research project.

The content validity or face validity (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 600) is concerned with the agreement that a question, scale, or measure appears logically to reflect accurately what it was intended to measure. In order to ensure the content validity of this study, the researcher applied methods such as audit trial and expert consultation; information obtained from the assessment of the items obviously increase the validity.

Construct validity refers to the extent to which the measurement instrument is suitable to gather data relevant for the research problem (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001).
In order to determine the construct validity of the scales, a factor analysis was performed using the Principal component analysis. The output in Appendix C shows that the 29 items of the questionnaire were subjected to principal component analysis.

TABLE 4.2 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.663
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1403.474
	df	406
	Sig.	.000

The first step was to assess the suitability of the data and to check that the variables are not related. The suitability of the data was checked by calculating the value of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) referred in TABLE 4.2 above. The KMO value of .663; and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were significant at $\alpha < .05$ indicating that the data were suitable for factor analysis. According to the rule, KMO value .6 and above and Bartlett's test of sphericity significant at .05 or less is appropriate for factor analysis (Tabachnick *et al*., 2007).

The communalities table referred in appendix C shows that all the extracted components were greater than .6 which also confirmed the suitability of the data for factor analysis.

TABLE 4.3. Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	**5.888**	20.302	20.302	5.888	20.302	20.302	3.961	13.657	13.657
2	**4.142**	14.281	34.583	4.142	14.281	34.583	3.399	11.721	25.378
3	**2.803**	9.666	44.250	2.803	9.666	44.250	3.022	10.419	35.797
4	**2.421**	8.349	52.598	2.421	8.349	52.598	2.636	9.089	44.886
5	**1.696**	5.847	58.445	1.696	5.847	58.445	2.593	8.941	53.827
6	**1.394**	4.807	63.252	1.394	4.807	63.252	1.830	6.311	60.138
7	**1.253**	4.320	67.572	1.253	4.320	67.572	1.688	5.820	65.958
8	**1.018**	3.511	**71.083**	1.018	3.511	71.083	1.486	5.125	71.083

The second step was to look at the Eigenvalue; the rule states that Eigenvalue more than 1 is acceptable. In the table of total variance portrayed in TABLE 4.3 above, 8 factors were extracted with an Eigenvalue more than one (5.888; 4.142; 2.803; 2.421; 1.696; 1.394; 1.253; 1.018). These 8 factors explained a total of 71.083% of the variance.

In the third step, the component matrix in appendix C provided information about the unrotated loading of the items on the eight components. From the figures in appendix C, many factors loaded above .4 in the first three components; few loaded above .4 in the fourth component; and many loaded around .3 in the last four components. In order to reduce the number of the factors; the factors were subjected to further analysis.

- The fourth step was to look at the rotated eight components in the pattern matrix portrayed in appendix C. The figures show that five factors with a value above .5 loaded in component one; and all these factors are the items measuring 'organizational socialization'.

- Four factors loaded in component 2 with the value of more than .9; and all the factors are items assessing the 'language' ability of expatriate academics in the study.

- Five factors loaded more than .5 in component 3; and all those factors assess the level of 'homesickness' of respondents.

- Five factors loaded above .4 in component 4. All those factors look at the perceived 'work performance' of respondents.

- Four factors loaded above .4 in component 5; and all the items look at the level of 'satisfaction' of respondents with regard to the policies and practices in the organization.

- Four factors loaded above .3 in component 7; all the factors measure the 'social and cultural adjustment' of respondents in the host country.

The final step was to check the strength of the relationship between the factors in the Component Correlation Matrix. The results reveal that the relationships between the factors were low as they were all below .3; which confirm the early assumption that the factors were not related. This concluded that the Verimax rotation was appropriate; therefore, there was no need to report the Oblimin rotation.

In conclusion, the validity of the scale was confirmed from the fact that: the eigenvalue of the eight factors were all greater than 1 with a total variance of 71.08% out of 99.8% for the 29 items subjected to principal component analysis; the KMO value above .6 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity significant at $\alpha < 0.05$, made the proposed scale suitable for factor analysis; and most importantly, the correct grouping by the factor analysis of at least four items of the scale for each research variable showed that these research variables were accurately measured by the proposed scale. All these results are fully described in appendix C.

4.12. Data analysis and reporting of results

Quantitative analysis such as tables, charts, graphs, histograms and statistics were used to describe, portray and report the results. After completion of the survey, the data from the questionnaires were coded and captured into numeric form for analysis. The statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze the data. A descriptive statistical method was used to assess the perceptions of expatriate academics on the factors affecting performance at work. The data entailed descriptive statistics (frequencies, means, standard deviations and variances); and inferential statistics (correlations, T-test, ANOVA and multiple regression). These statistical methods were to analyze, interpret the data; and to present the main characteristics of the sample. Moreover, correlations were used to assess the strength of the perceived relationship between work performance and the following independent variables: homesickness, organisational socialization, cultural and social adjustment, language, and satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organisation.

4.12.1. Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics refer to generic term for statistics that can be used to describe variables (Saunders *et al*., 2007). The following types of descriptive statistics were used in this research project for the purpose of analysis: Frequencies, means, standard deviations and variances.

Frequency distribution

A frequency distribution is a summary table in which data is arranged into conveniently established numerically ordered class groupings and categories so that specific values can be read (Saunders *et al*., 2007: 598). For the purpose of this research study, frequencies were used to analyze the biographical profiles of expatriate academics and to assess important trends in their perceptions on the factors affecting their work performance.

Measures of central tendencies and dispersion

The measures of central tendencies and dispersion enable individuals to get an idea of the basis characteristics of the data (Sekaran, 2003).

Mean

Sekaran (2003) describes the mean or the average as a measure of central tendency that offers a general picture of the data without unnecessarily inundating one with each of the observation in a data set. For the purpose of having the general view on the responses of the participants, the average scores on the different variables were presented and interpreted in the study.

Standard deviation

The standard deviation refers to a measure of dispersion for interval and ratio scaled data that describes the extent of spread of data values around the mean for a variable containing quantifiable data (Saunders *et al*., 2007; Sekaran, 2003). Therefore, the standard deviations of the composite variables were calculated and interpreted in the study.

Variance

The variance indicates the dispersion of a variable in the data set; it is obtained by subtracting the mean from each of the observations, squaring the results, summing them, and dividing the total by the number of observations (Sekaran, 2000: 427). So, the variances of the composite variables are presented in the study.

4.12.2. Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics allow the researcher to know the data through statistics; they involve the relationship between two variables, the differences in a variable among different subgroups, and how several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable (Sekaran, 2003).

For the purpose of the analysis of the data obtained from this study, the following inferential statistics are used: correlations, t-test, ANOVA, and multiple regressions.

Correlations

Correlations allow the researcher to know how one variable is related to another; to see the nature, direction and significance of the 'bivariate' relationships of the variables used in the study (Sekaran, 2003). For the purpose of this study, the dependent variable (work

performance) was correlated with independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices, homesickness, language, and organizational socialization) in order to determine the relationship among the variables.

T-test

T-test or significant mean differences between two groups allow the researcher to know whether two groups are different from each other on a particular interval-scaled or ratio-scaled variable of interest (Sekaran, 2003). T-tests were performed between gender and composite variables in order to determine if males and females in the study differed in their perceptions on the factors that can affect their work performance.

ANOVA (analysis of variance)

ANOVA is a statistical test to determine the likelihood that the values of a quantifiable data variable for three or more independent samples or groups are different (Saunders et al., 2007). Likewise, Sekaran (2003) states that ANOVA helps to examine the significant mean difference among more than two groups on an interval or ratio-scaled dependent variable. ANOVA was performed in the study to identify if respondents in the study differ in their perceptions on the factors affecting their work performance.

Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis indicates the strength of relationship between two variables (Sekaran, 2003); it predicts the variance in the dependent variable by regressing the independent variables against it. Multiple regression analysis was conducted in the study in order to determine how the independent variables may explain the dependent variable.

4.13. Summary

This chapter describes the methodology used by the study. It also tests the reliability and validity of the self-administered questionnaire that served as a research instrument. The chapter describes the snowball sampling that was used for the construction of a sample of 93 expatriate academics from the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Out of 93 questionnaires distributed, 87 questionnaires were returned and only 85 were used for the study. Different data analysis techniques were used for the study: descriptive statistics (Frequency distributions, Mean and Standard deviation); and inferential statistics (Correlations, ANOVA, Multiple regressions and T-test). The next chapter will present the results obtained from the analysis.

Chapter 5

Presentation of results

5.1. Introduction

This chapter mainly presents the results obtained from the data analysis. The chapter starts by stating the objectives of the study; then the results obtained from the frequency analysis are presented; followed by the results obtained from the inferential statistics (correlations, multiple regressions, T-test and ANOVA). In addition, hypotheses are tested based on the results. Tables, charts and histograms are all used in the chapter to portray the results.

5.2. Objectives

The purpose of this research project is to analyze the perceptions of expatriate academics on the factors affecting their work performance. The objectives of the research project are:

- To critically review existing literature on work performance, on expatriates in general, and on expatriate academics in particular.
- To develop and test hypotheses that can establish the relationship between the five listed factors above, biographical variables and work performance.
- To analyze the biographical variables of expatriate academics.
- To assess the perceptions of expatriate academics on the following independent variables: work performance, homesickness, cultural and social adjustment, socialization at work, language barriers, and satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization.
- To determine whether expatriate academics differing in biographical profiles (age, gender, qualification, marital status, numbers of years in the organization, experience, nature of employment, job category and origin) differ on the perceived influence of the above defined independent variables on their work performance.
- To draw recommendations and conclusions from the sample.

5.3 Cleaning of the data

After completing the coding and capturing of data, the researcher run frequencies on the variables to ensure that all errors that might occur during capturing or coding the data are corrected. The results obtained from the frequency distributions of the biographical variables, the mean and the standard deviations as well as the correlations, multiple regressions, T-tests and ANOVA are presented below.

5.4. Descriptive statistics

Frequencies, means, variance and standards deviation are used to provide information of the data and display the results so that the reader can have a general view of the sample.

5.4.1. Frequency distributions

Frequency distributions for all the biographical data are presented in the form of tables, histograms and charts. The following represent the frequencies of age group, gender, marital status, tenure status, qualification, experience in the present position, job category, number of years in the organization and origin of respondents.

5.4.1.1. Age

TABLE 5.1 represents the age groups of the respondents. Most respondents were between 40 to 49 years of age (41.2%); followed by age group of 30 to 39 years (27%); and 17.6% were in the range of 50 to 59 years of age. Only 4.7% of respondents were between 20 to 29 years of age, and 60 years and above. From these results, it is perceived that most expatriate academics in the study are matured. Figure 5.1 portrays the results of the analysis.

TABLE 5.1 Frequency: Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-29 years	4	4.7	4.7	4.7
	30-39 years	27	31.8	31.8	36.5
	40-49 years	35	41.2	41.2	77.6
	50-59 years	15	17.6	17.6	95.3
	above 60 years	4	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

The pie chart below represents the age groups of the participants.

Figure 5.1: Age distributions
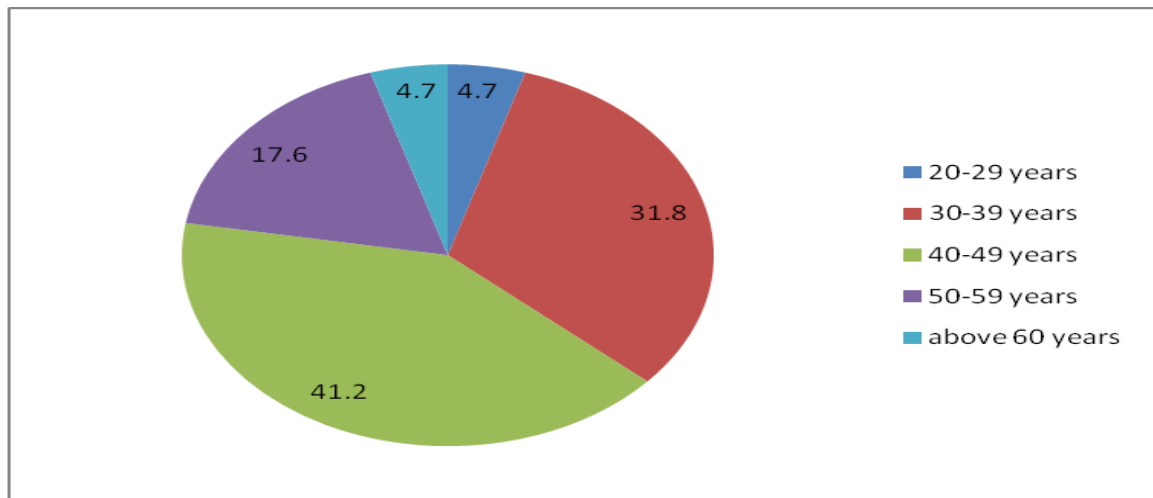
5.4.1.2. Gender

TABLE 5.2 represents the gender distribution of the respondents. Out of 85 participants, 81.2% were males and 18.8% were females. These results show that male expatriate academics outnumbered the females. This disparity is shown in the Figure 5.2.

TABLE 5.2. Frequency: Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	69	81.2	81.2	81.2
	Female	16	18.8	18.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Figure 5.2: Gender
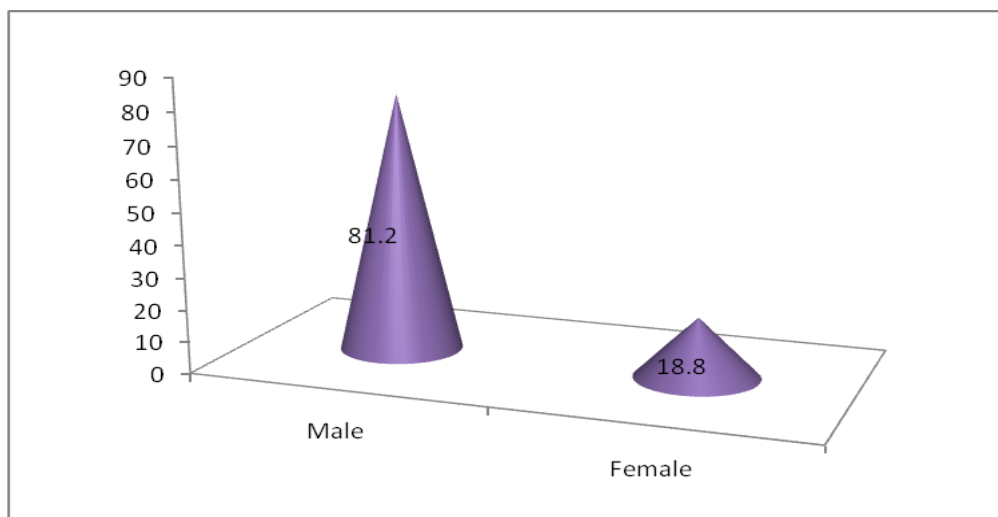
5.4.1.3. Highest Educational Qualifications

TABLE 5.3 represents the highest educational qualifications of participants. More than half of the participants held a Doctoral degree (58.8%); followed by those that held a Masters degree (40%); and only one of them held an Honours degree (1.2%). The results are portrayed in Figure 5.3.

TABLE 5.3 Frequency: Highest Qualifications

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Honours	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Masters	34	40.0	40.0	41.2
	Doctoral	50	58.8	58.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Figure 5.3: Highest Educational Qualifications
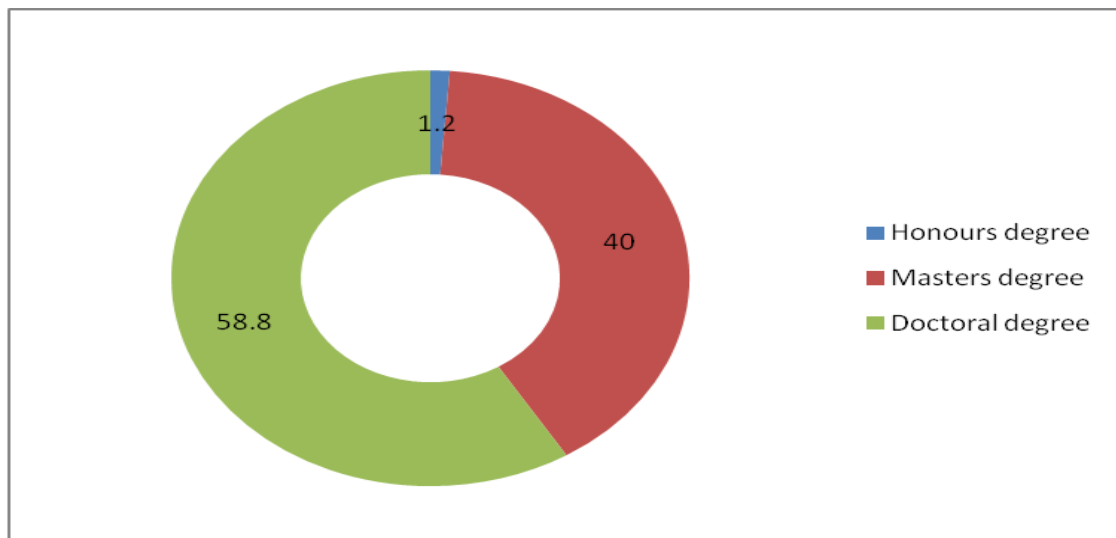
5.4.1.4. Marital Status

TABLE 5.4 represents the marital status of the 85 participants. The frequency analysis shows that many respondents were married (71.8%); while 22.4% were single. Very few were divorced (4.7%) and only 1.2% was a widow. The results are presented in Figure 5.4.

TABLE 5.4 Frequency: Marital Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	19	22.4	22.4	22.4
	Married	61	71.8	71.8	94.1
	Divorce	4	4.7	4.7	98.8
	Widow	1	1.2	1.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

The histogram below portrays the marital status of participants.

Figure 5.4: Marital Status
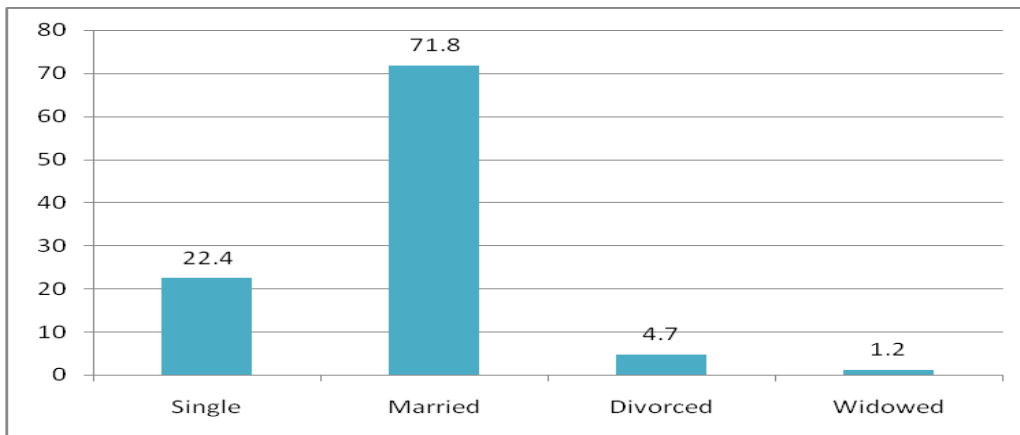
5.4.1.5. Years of Employment in the Organization

TABLE 5.5 shows the frequency distribution of the number of years participants have been with the organization. Most participants were between 0 to 3 years in the organization (51.8%); followed by 4 to 6 years (22.4%); followed by 10 years and above (16%); and lastly 9.4% of the participants were with the organization for 7 to 9 years. Figure 5.5 portrays the results.

TABLE 5.5 Frequency: Number of Years in the Organization

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-3 years	44	51.8	51.8	51.8
	4-6 years	19	22.4	22.4	74.1
	7-9 years	8	9.4	9.4	83.5
	10+	14	16.5	16.5	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

The pie chart below portrayed the number of years respondents have been in the organization.

Figure 5.5: Number of Years in the Organization
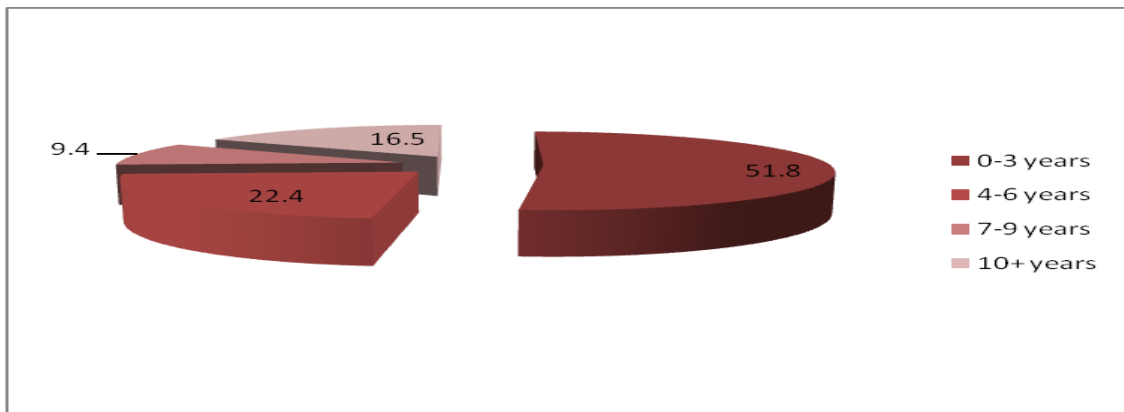
5.4.1.6. Nature of Employment

TABLE 5.6 reflects the tenure status of participants. Most participants had a permanent status (62.4%); followed by those who were employed in contract basis (31.8%) and lastly those who were employed temporarily (5.9%). These results are portrayed in Figure 5.6.

TABLE 5.6 Frequency: Nature of Employment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Permanent	53	62.4	62.4	62.4
	Temporary	5	5.9	5.9	68.2
	Contract	27	31.8	31.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Figure 5.6: Nature of Employment
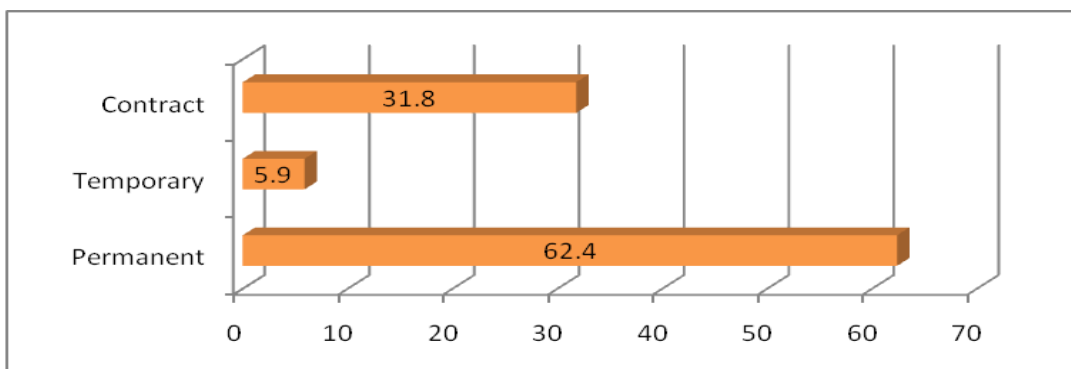
5.4.1.7. Job Category

TABLE 5.7 reveals the job categories of participants. The majority of participants were lecturers (51.8%); followed by professors (20%); 12.9% were senior lecturers; 8.2% were tutors; and only 7.1% were researchers. Figure 5.7 shows the results.

TABLE 5.7 Frequency: Job Category

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Professor	17	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Senior	11	12.9	12.9	32.9
	Lecturer	44	51.8	51.8	84.7
	Tutor	7	8.2	8.2	92.9
	Research	6	7.1	7.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

The histogram reveals the job category of participants

Figure 5.7: Job Category
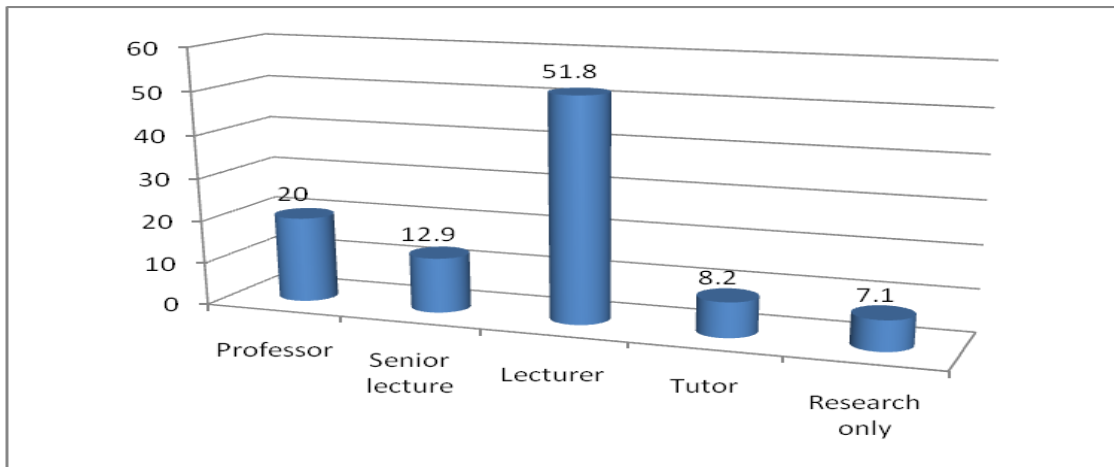
5.4.1.8. Number of Years in the Present Position

TABLE 5.8 reveals the numbers of years of experience participants had in their present position. From the results, 47.1% had between 0 and 2 years of experience; 22.4% had 5 to 6 years of experience; 20% had 3 to 4 years of experience; 9.4% had more than 9 years of experience; while 1.2% had 7 to 8 years of experience in their present position. Figure 5.8 presents the results.

TABLE 5.8 Frequency: Number of Years in the Present Position

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-2	40	47.1	47.1	47.1
	3-4	17	20.0	20.0	67.1
	5-6	19	22.4	22.4	89.4
	7-8	1	1.2	1.2	90.6
	9+	8	9.4	9.4	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

Figure 5.8: Number of Years in the Present Position
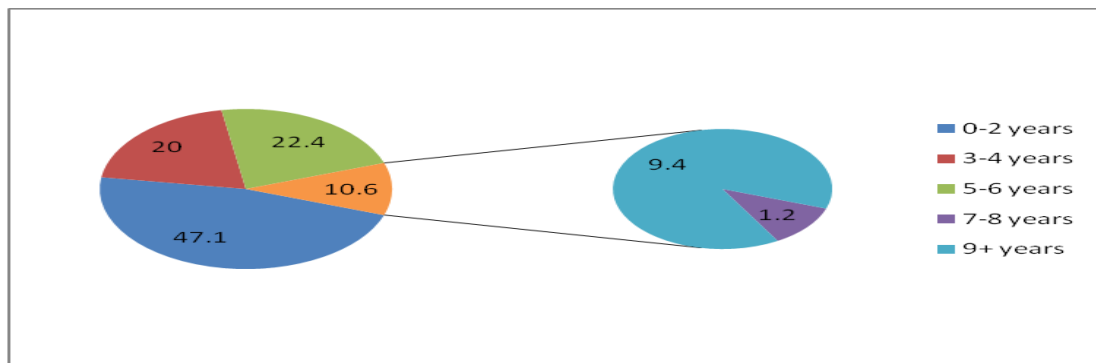
5.4.1.9. Origin

TABLE 5.9 represents the origin of participants. The results reveal that 42.4% of the participants were from Southern African Development Community region (SADC); 35.3% were Africans but did not belong to Southern African Development Community; and 22.4% were not Africans. The results are portrayed in Figure 5.9.

TABLE 5.9 Frequency: Origin

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	African(SADC)	36	42.4	42.4	42.4
	African (Non	30	35.3	35.3	77.6
	Others	19	22.4	22.4	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

The chart below presents the origin of respondents.

Figure 5.9: Origin
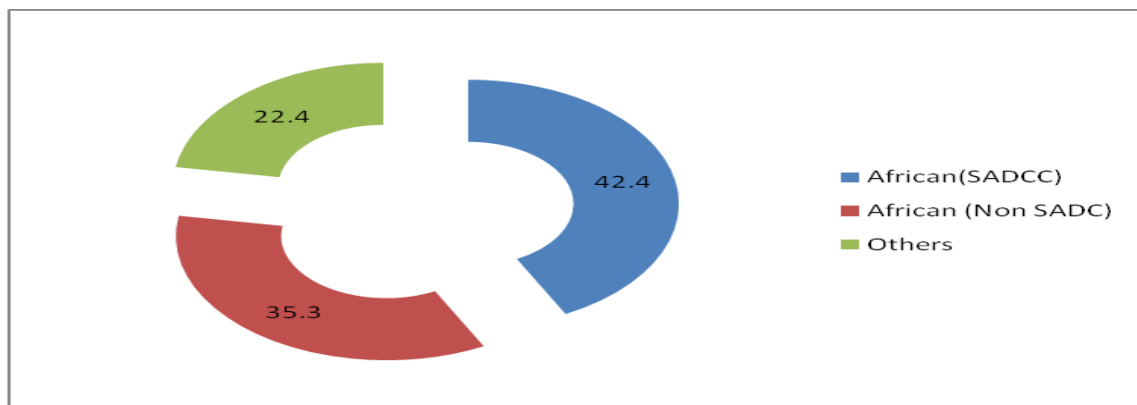
5.4.2. Frequencies of the different questions

This section describes the results of the frequencies of the different items of the dependent and independent variables. The figures are portrayed on the tables contained in Appendix C.

5.4.2.1. Work performance

According to the research results, most respondents rated themselves as high performers: 54% agreed that their work performance is reflective of their abilities; 81.2% strongly agreed that they meet their job objectives in the organization; 38.8% and 56.5% respectively agreed and strongly agreed that their overall performance is adequate; 54 % strongly agreed that they fully understand the organization's goals and 27% agreed to the same statement. Only 2.4% disagreed that they always fulfill their job responsibilities.

5.4.2.2. Social and cultural adjustment

With regard to social and cultural adjustment in the host country, 11.8 % of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that they are not adjusted to the living conditions of the host country; 65.9% disagreed that the cost of living is cheap in the host country compared to their respective home country. Most of the participants (41%) agreed that the healthcare facilities are accessible in the host country and approximately 28 % of them strongly agreed to the same statement.

However, there was a slight difference on the question whether they enjoy local food: 43% of the respondents disagreed to the statement while 40% agreed to it. Likewise, there were differences on the way they perceive their interaction with home country nationals:

approximately 37% disagreed that they interact well with host country nationals and 43% agreed to the statement.

5.4.2.3. Satisfaction with the policies and the practices of the organization

The results obtained from the frequencies on the question on the extent to which the respondents are satisfied with the policies and practices of the organization show that: almost 48% were satisfied with current prospects for job advancement while 36.5% disagreed to the same statement. 63.5% of the participants were not satisfied with their current salary and approximately 31% thought that they have too little chance of promotion in the organization; 37% of the respondents were neutral on the issue of job promotion.

Many respondents abstained to state whether they agreed or disagreed that the policies and practices of their organization have increased their job retention: 44.7% as neutrals, 28.2% in agreement to the statement, and 27% in disagreement to the statement.

55.3% of the respondents disagreed that the rewards they receive in the organization are fair while only 22.4% agreed to the opposite.

These results indicate that respondents are not satisfied with their salary and the distributive justice is perceived unfair.

5.4.2.4. Organizational socialization

The frequency results reveal that 65% agreed or strongly disagreed that they receive optimum support from their co-workers. 43.5% agreed that their co-workers are helpful and a cumulative of 62% agreed or strongly agreed that their co-workers are willing to listen to their personal problems. Most of the respondent (70.5%) agreed or strongly agreed that the relationship with their co-workers is not affected by their different nationalities.

These figures indicate that most of the respondents get along with their co-workers and they are adjusted to their organization.

5.4.2.5. Homesickness

The results of the items assessing homesickness show that 43.5% agreed and 27% strongly agreed that they sometimes feel like going back to their home country. 42% strongly agreed and approximately 39% agreed that they often communicate with their families and friends back home either by emails or on phone.

A cumulative of 86% agreed or strongly disagreed that they always remember special occasions happening to their home country; while 8.3% disagreed to the statement. These figures reveal that the majority of the respondents are homesick.

5.4.2.6. Language

Concerning the language variable, the results of the frequencies show that 70.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that they are fluent in speaking English and 24.7% also agreed to the statement; that gives a cumulative of approximately 95%.

Likewise, 74% of the respondents strongly agreed and 28% agreed that they are proficient in reading English. Almost all the respondent strongly agreed (75%) and agreed (22.5%) that they are able to adequately write English. A cumulative of approximately 98% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that their understanding of English is good. These results indicate that the majority of the respondents are comfortable with the language of instruction of the host country.

5.4.3. Descriptive Statistics: Central Tendencies and Dispersions

The mean, the variance and the standard deviation presented in TABLE 5.10 will enable the reader to have an idea on the basic characteristics of the data.

TABLE 5.10: **Central tendencies and dispersions**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Perf	85	3	5	4.49	0.51	1.30
SCulAdjust	85	1.4	5	3.19	0.80	3.23
SPP	85	1.5	4.4	2.74	0.67	2.28
OrgS	85	1	5	3.53	0.88	3.10
Hom	85	1	5	4.05	0.80	2.52
Lan	85	1	5	4.68	0.60	1.46

μ = Mean

s = Standard deviation

All the variables were measured on a five-point scale. The results show that the mean score on perceived work performance is high (μ = 4.49) indicating that most respondents are high performers. The minimum value of (3) and the maximum of (5) reveal that almost all expatriates academics in the study perform high. The standard deviation (s = 0.51) means that there was a very little variability in their responses.

The mean score on the perceived homesickness (μ = 4.05) indicates that most expatriate academics in the study are homesick. The minimum of (1) means that there are some that are

not homesick; and the maximum of (5) indicates that other are very homesick. The standard deviation (s = 0.80) means that there was variability in their responses.

The variable language with the mean (µ = 4.68) is high. This means that most respondents perceive themselves as having a good command of the language. The minimum of (1) means some respondents are not fluent in the language of instruction and the maximum of (5) indicates that others perceive their language ability to be good. The standard deviation (s = 0.60) indicates that there was little variability in responses.

The mean scores on the perceived social and cultural adjustment (µ = 3.19) indicates that that some respondents believe they are adjusted to the cultural and social environment of the host country. The minimum of (1.4) indicates that some expatriate academics are not adjusted to the host country; while the maximum of (5) means that others are well adjusted to the host country. The standard deviation (s = 0.80) reveals that there is a variability in their responses.

The means score of the perceived organizational socialization (µ = 3.53) reveals some expatriate academics are well socialized in the organization. The minimum of (1) indicates that some are not well socialized; and the maximum of (5) means others are well socialized. The standard deviation (s = 0.88) indicates that there is a strong variability in responses compared to the other variables.

The mean score of Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization (µ = 2.74) is very low compared to the other means; however it is just above the average on a five-point scale. This indicates that most respondents are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the policies and practices of the organization. The minimum (1.5) means that some are satisfied; and the maximum of (4.4) means that others are not satisfied with the policies and practices of the organization. The standard deviation (s = 0.67) indicates a little variability in responses.

5.5. Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics (correlations, multiple regressions, ANOVA and T-test) used in the study assist the researcher in establishing the relationship between variables, difference among groups, and to determine how independent variables may explain the dependent variable. Hypotheses are also tested based on the findings from these inferential statistics.

5.5.1. Correlations

H1. *There is a relationship between the independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, language) and work performance.*

In order to test Hypothesis **H1**, the correlations are calculated between the dependent variable (work performance) and the five independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness and language). Table 5.12 below presents the results of Pearson correlations matrix.

Table 5.11 Pearson correlation

		SCA	SPP	ORGS	HOM	LANG	Perf
SCA	Pearson Corr	1					
	Sig. (1-tailed)						
	N	85					
SPP	Pearson Corr	.447(**)	1				
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000					
	N	85	85				
ORGS	Pearson Corr	.402(**)	.421(**)	1			
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000				
	N	85	85	85			
HOM	Pearson Corr	-.327(**)	-.194(*)	-.133	1		
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.001	.037	.113			
	N	85	85	85	85		
LAN	Pearson Corr	.109	.025	.178	.028	1	
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.159	.411	.051	.399		
	N	85	85	85	85	85	
PERF	Pearson Corr	.173	.171	.031	-.052	.304(**)	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.057	.059	.388	.318	.002	
	N	85	85	85	85	85	85

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed); $\alpha < 0.01$ N= 85

 * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed); $\alpha < 0.05$

PERF = Work performance; SCA = Social and cultural adjustment; HS = Homesickness

OS = Organizational Socialization; LNG = Language

SPP = Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization.

The results obtained from the correlations of variables reveal that all the significant coefficients vary from -.194 to .447; the relationships among the variables are as follow:

- There is a weak positive correlation between work performance and language
  ($r = .304$, $\alpha < 0.01$, one-tailed).
- Social and cultural adjustment positively correlates to satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization ($r = .447$, $\alpha < 0.01$, one-tailed).

- Social and cultural adjustment also positively correlated to organizational socialization ($r = .402$, $\alpha < 0.01$, one-tailed).
- However, there is a weak negative correlation between social and cultural adjustment and Homesickness ($r = -.327$, $\alpha < 0.01$, one-tailed).
- Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization positively correlates with organizational socialization ($r = .421$, $\alpha < 0.01$, one-tailed).
- Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization also correlates with homesickness ($r = -194$, $\alpha < 0.05$, one-tailed).

The results obtained from the correlation of the variables led to the conclusion that hypothesis **H1 is partially substantiated** because among all the independent variables, only the variable language has a positive relationship with work performance; ($r = .304$, $\alpha < 0.01$, one-tailed).

5.5.2. Multiple regressions

H2. *The five independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, language) significantly predict expatriate academics work performance.*

In order to test the hypothesis above, multiple regressions analysis was conducted in order to find out how much of the variance in work performance scores can be explained by the following independent variables: Social and cultural adjustment, Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, Organizational Socialization, Homesickness, Language. Moreover, to find out which of these variables is a better predictor of work performance? The results obtained are portrayed in the table 5.12; 5.14 and 5.14; followed by an explanation of the tables.

TABLE 5.12

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.374(a)	.140	.124	2.44029

a- Predictors: (Constant), LNG, SPP, HS, OS, SCA

TABLE 5.13 ANOVA(b)

Model		Sum of squares	df	M.squ.	F	Sig.
1	Regression	76.564	5	15.313	2.571	.033(a)
	Residual	470.447	79	5.955		
	Total	547.012	84			

a- Predictors: (Constant), LNG, SPP, HS, OS, SCA   b- Dependent Variable: PE

TABLE 5.14

Coefficients (a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardiz	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	B	Std. Error
1	(Const)	14.920	2.923		5.104	.000
	SCA	.075	.080	.118	.934	.353
	SPP	.128	.093	.169	1.381	.171
	OS	-.104	.088	-.144	-1.191	.237
	HS	-.007	.089	-.009	-.078	.938
	LNG	.330	.113	.312	2.929	.004

Dependent Variable: PERF $\alpha = 0.05$

PERF: Work performance;   SCA: Social and cultural adjustment;   HS: Homesickness; LNG: Language

OS: Organizational Socialization;   SPP: Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization.

The results of the multiple regression analysis reveal that the overall model is significant at the 95% level; $\alpha < 0.05$. And the independents variables explained 14% of the work performance.

The output labeled 'Model Summary' shows the R square and the adjusted R square values of .140 and .124 respectively. These values indicate that there was a low degree of goodness of fit of the regression model. That means only 14% of the independent variables predict the expatriate academics' work performance. Therefore, there are remaining 86% possible variables that were not investigated.

The ANOVA table shows that the F test value of 2.571 is significant at p = .033; that means there is a significant relationship among the variables and the performance.

Table 5.14 presents the *t* test results for the regression coefficients of the five independent variables. The values of these variables are: .934 for social and cultural adjustment; 1.381 for satisfaction with the policies and the practices of the organization; -1.191 for organizational socialization; -.078 for homesickness and 2.929 for language.

Among the five variables, it is clear that the most important independent variable in predicting expatriate academics' work performance is 'language' with p = .004; significant at (α < 0.05). The other five independent variables are not significant since their p value is greater than 0.05.

The Beta column of the 'coefficients' Table 5.14 also shows that 'language' is the most important variable in predicting expatriate academics' work performance with the Beta value of .312.

From the result of the multiple regression analysis, the work performance has been significantly explained by the five independent variables; therefore, **hypothesis H2 is substantiated**.

5.5.3. Differences in perception in work performance

H.3. *Expatriate academics from different biographical profiles have different perceptions on their work performance.*

In order to test hypothesis H3, a T-test was conducted between work performance and gender because there were two groups in the variable 'gender' (males and females); and ANOVA was performed between work performance and the biographical variables (Age, Highest Qualifications, Marital status, Number of years in the organization, Nature of employment, Experience, Job category, and origin). Thus, the Hypothesis H3 will be divided into two sub hypotheses.

5.5.3.1 T-Test (Perceived work performance and Gender)

The T-test below determines if males and females expatriate academics perceive their work performance differently; Table 5.15 and 5.16 shows the results.

TABLE 5.15 **Group Statistics**

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Perf	Male	69	4.5362	.51277	.06173
	Female	16	4.2875	.46170	.11542

TABLE 5.16 **Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
Perf	Equal variances assumed	1.331	.252	1.779	83	.079	.24873	.13983	-.02938	.52684
	Equal variances not assumed			1.900	24.368	.069	.24873	.13090	-.02121	.51867

μ = Mean α = 0.05 s = Standard deviation.

The two-tailed T-test results (t = 1.779, df = 83, p = .252, α = 0.05) reveal that there is no significant difference between the perceived performance of males (μ_1 = 4.53; s_1 = .061) and the perceived performance of females (μ_2 = 4.28; s_2 = .11).

From the T- test results above, the hypothesis **H3A is not substantiated**.

5.5.3.2 ANOVA (Perceived work performance and biographical variables)

ANOVA below indicates if expatriate academics from different biographical variables have different perceptions of their work performance.

TABLE 5.17   ANOVA

Age	Sum of Squares	df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.500	4	.125	.467	**.760**
Within Groups	21.381	80	.267		
Total	21.880	84			
Qualification	Sum of Squares	df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.242	2	.121	.459	**.633**
Within Groups	21.638	82	.264		
Total	21.880	84			
Marital stus	Sum of Squares	df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.467	3	.489	1.941	**.130**
Within Groups	20.413	81	.252		
Total	21.880	84			
Nber of yrs in the org	Sum of Squares	df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.658	3	.219	.837	**.477**
Within Groups	21.222	81	.262		
Total	21.880	84			
Nat. of employ	Sum of Squares	df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.198	2	.099	.374	**.689**
Within Groups	21.683	82	.264		
Total	21.880	84			
Nber of yrs position	Sum of Squares	df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.123	4	.281	1.082	**.371**
Within Groups	20.757	80	.259		
Total	21.880	84			
Job category	Sum of Squares	df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.505	4	.126	.472	**.756**
Within Groups	21.376	80	.267		
Total	21.880	84			
Origin	Sum of Squares	df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.288	2	.644	2.565	**.083**
Within Groups	20.592	82	.251		
Total	21.880	84			

The ANOVA tests ($\alpha =0.05$) reveal that there are no significant differences in the perceived performance of expatriate academic employees from different categories of biographical attributes (Age, Highest Qualifications, Marital status, Number of years in the organization, Nature of employment, Experience, Job category, and origin). Thus, the hypothesis **H3B is not substantiated**.

5.5.4. Differences between males and females in the perceived influence of independent variables on their work performance

H.4 *There is a significant difference between males and females expatriate academics in the perceived influence of independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, language) on their work performance.*

In order to test hypothesis H4, a T-test is conducted determine if males and females expatriate academics differ in their perception of the influence of the above defined independent variables on their work performance. TABLE 5.18 to TABLE 5.27 present the results. Hypothesis H4 is therefore divided in five sub-hypotheses: H4A, H4B, H4C, H4D and H4E

5.5.4.1. T-test (Perceived influence of Social and cultural adjustment on work performance

TABLE 5.18   Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SCA	Male	69	3.1362	.79594	.09582
	Female	16	3.4000	.82946	.20736

TABLE 5.19   Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
SCA	Equal variances assumed	.135	.714	-1.185	83	.239	-.26377	.22256	-.70644	.17890
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.155	21.870	.261	-.26377	.22843	-.73767	.21014

The two-tailed T-test results (t = -1.185; df = 83; and p = .714; α = 0.05) show that there is no significant difference between males (μ_1 = 3.1362; s_1 = .7959) and females (μ_2= 3.400; s_2 = .82946) on the perceived influence of social and cultural adjustment on their work performance. Thus, sub hypothesis **H4A is not substantiated**.

5.5.4.2. T-test (Perceived influence of satisfaction with policies and practices of the organization on work performance)

TABLE 5.20 Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SPP	Male	69	2.7391	.67589	.08137
	Female	16	2.7375	.69558	.17390

TABLE 5.21 Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Differ	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
S P P	Equal variances assumed	.035	.853	.009	83	.993	.00163	.18854	-.37337	.37663
	Equal variances not assumed			.008	22.054	.993	.00163	.19199	-.39648	.39974

The T-test results show that there is no significant difference at $\alpha < 0.05$ in scores for Male ($\mu_1 = .08137$; $s_1 = .67589$) and Female ($\mu_2 = .69558$; $s_2 = .17390$) on the perceived influence of satisfaction with policies and practices of the organization on work performance; with t = .009; df = 83; and p = .853, two-tailed. Therefore, sub hypothesis **H4B is not supported**.

5.5.4.3. T-test (Perceived influence of organizational socialization on work performance)

TABLE 5.22   Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ORGS	Male	69	3.5688	.87645	.10551
	Female	16	3.3906	.90355	.22589

TABLE 5.23   Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% Confidence Interval of the Diff	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
ORGS	Equal variances assumed	.025	.874	.729	83	.468	.17822	.24457	-.30822	.66466
	Equal variances not assumed			.715	22.028	.482	.17822	.24932	-.33879	.69523

The T-test results show that there is no significant difference at $\alpha < 0.05$ in scores for Male ($\mu_1 = 3.5688$; $s_1 = .87645$) and Female ($\mu_2 = 3.3906$; $s_2 = .90355$) in their perception of the impact of organizational socialization on work performance; with t = .729; df = 83; and p = .874, two-tailed.

The Equal variance is therefore not assumed. In conclusion, sub-hypothesis **H.4C is not supported**.

5.5.4.4. T-test (Perceived influence of homesickness on work performance)

TABLE 5.24   Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
H O M	Male	69	4.1196	.79011	.09512
	Female	16	3.7813	.77929	.19482

TABLE 5.25   Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
H C M	Equal variances assumed	.003	.954	1.547	83	.126	.33832	.21870	-.09667	.77330
	Equal variances not assumed			1.560	22.719	.132	.33832	.21680	-.11048	.78711

The T-test results show that there is no significant difference at $\alpha < 0.05$ in scores for Male ($\mu_1 = 4.1196$; $s_1 = .79011$) and Female ($\mu_2 = 3.7813$; $s_2 = .77929$) in their perception of the influence of homesickness on work performance; with t = 1.547; df = 83; and p = .126, two-tailed.

Thus, sub hypothesis **H4D is not substantiated**.

5.5.4.5. T-test (Perceived influence of language on work performance)

TABLE 5.26   Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LANG	Male	69	4.6884	.63363	.07628
	Female	16	4.6563	.47324	.11831

TABLE 5.27   Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% Confidence Interval of the Diff	
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower
L A N G Equal variances assumed	.006	.937	.191	83	.849	.03216	.1686	-.30327	.36758
Equal variances not assumed			.228	28.96	.821	.03216	.1407	-.25577	.32008

The two-tailed T-test results reveal (t = .191; df = 83; and p = .849) that that there is no significant difference at $\alpha < 0.05$ in scores for Male ($\mu_1 = 4.6884$; $s_1 = .63363$) and Female ($\mu_2 = 4.6563$; $s_2 = .47324$) in the perceived influence of language on work performance.

In conclusion, sub hypothesis **H.5E is not supported**.

5.5. Perceived influenced of independent variables on performance among different biographical group

H.5 *The perceived influence of independent variables on work performance varies among expatriate academics from different biographical profiles.*

To determine if expatriate academics from different biographical variables vary in their perception of the influence of independent variables on their work performance, ANOVA is performed between the biographical variables and the independents variables. Hypothesis H5 above is therefore subdivided into five sub hypotheses: H5A, H5B, H5C, H5D and H5E.

5.5.1. ANOVA (Perceived influence of social and cultural adjustment on work performance among expatriate academics from different biographical variables)

TABLE 5.28. ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	M.Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	17.633	18	.980	1.183	**.301**
	Within Groups	54.673	66	.828		
	Total	72.306	84			
Highest Edu Qual	Between Groups	4.093	18	.227	.804	**.688**
	Within Groups	18.660	66	.283		
	Total	22.753	84			
Marital Stus	Between Groups	7.271	18	.404	1.503	**.117**
	Within Groups	17.741	66	.269		
	Total	25.012	84			
Nber yrs in the org	Between Groups	17.504	18	.972	.715	**.784**
	Within Groups	89.743	66	1.360		
	Total	107.247	84			
Ntre of empl	Between Groups	14.008	18	.778	.885	**.598**
	Within Groups	58.040	66	.879		
	Total	72.047	84			
Nber of yrs in the position	Between Groups	18.984	18	1.055	.602	**.886**
	Within Groups	115.722	66	1.753		
	Total	134.706	84			
Job Category	Between Groups	23.994	18	1.333	1.127	**.348**
	Within Groups	78.053	66	1.183		
	Total	102.047	84			
Origin	Between Groups	10.865	18	.604	.978	**.495**
	Within Groups	40.735	66	.617		
	Total	51.600	84			

ANOVA results in TABLE 5.28 reveal that there is no significant difference between groups (Age, Highest Qualifications, Marital status, Number of years in the organization, Nature of employment, Experience, Job category, and origin) in their perception of social and cultural adjustment with regard to their work performance; at α < 0.05. Sub hypothesis **H5A is not Supported**.

5.5.2. ANOVA (Perceived influence of Satisfaction with policies and practices of the organization on work performance among expatriate academics from different biographical variables)

TABLE 5.29   ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	M Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	7.987	14	.571	.621	**.839**
	Within Groups	64.319	70	.919		
	Total	72.306	84			
EduQual	Between Groups	3.636	14	.260	.951	**.511**
	Within Groups	19.117	70	.273		
	Total	22.753	84			
Marital Stus	Between Groups	3.837	14	.274	.906	**.556**
	Within Groups	21.174	70	.302		
	Total	25.012	84			
Nber of yrs in the org	Between Groups	12.844	14	.917	.680	**.786**
	Within Groups	94.403	70	1.349		
	Total	107.247	84			
Ntre of empl	Between Groups	7.567	14	.541	.587	**.867**
	Within Groups	64.480	70	.921		
	Total	72.047	84			
Nber of yrs in the position	Between Groups	13.502	14	.964	.557	**.889**
	Within Groups	121.204	70	1.731		
	Total	134.706	84			
Job Category	Between Groups	10.310	14	.736	.562	**.885**
	Within Groups	91.737	70	1.311		
	Total	102.047	84			
Origin	Between Groups	9.921	14	.709	1.190	**.302**
	Within Groups	41.679	70	.595		
	Total	51.600	84			

ANOVA results presented in TABLE 5.29 reveal that there is no significant difference between groups (Age, Highest Qualifications, Marital status, Number of years in the organization, Nature of employment, Experience, Job category, and origin) in their perception of satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization with regard to their work performance; at $\alpha < 0.05$. Sub hypothesis **H5B is not Supported**.

5.5.3. ANOVA (Perceived influence of organizational socialization on work performance among expatriate academics from different biographical variables)

TABLE 5.30   ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	13.924	15	.928	1.097	**.376**
	Within Groups	58.382	69	.846		
	Total	72.306	84			
Edu.Qual	Between Groups	2.612	15	.174	.596	**.868**
	Within Groups	20.141	69	.292		
	Total	22.753	84			
Marital Stus	Between Groups	4.871	15	.325	1.112	**.362**
	Within Groups	20.141	69	.292		
	Total	25.012	84			
Nber of yrs in the org	Between Groups	32.886	15	2.192	2.034	**.025***
	Within Groups	74.362	69	1.078		
	Total	107.247	84			
Nat.of empl	Between Groups	12.999	15	.867	1.013	**.453**
	Within Groups	59.048	69	.856		
	Total	72.047	84			
Nber of yrs in the position	Between Groups	19.708	15	1.314	.788	**.686**
	Within Groups	114.998	69	1.667		
	Total	134.706	84			
Job Category	Between Groups	18.143	15	1.210	.995	**.471**
	Within Groups	83.904	69	1.216		
	Total	102.047	84			
Origin	Between Groups	4.116	15	.274	.399	**.975**
	Within Groups	47.484	69	.688		
	Total	51.600	84			

ANOVA results presented in TABLE 5.30 reveal that there is no significant difference between groups (Age, Highest Qualifications, Marital status, Nature of employment, Experience, Job category, and origin) in their perception of organizational socialization with regard to their work performance; at $\alpha < 0.05$.

But, there is a significant difference in the mean of number of years in the organization between the four groups. F = 2. 034 and p = .025 with Mean values of 2.192 and 1.078. In conclusion, sub hypothesis **H5C is partially supported**.

In order to determine in which groups the true difference lies, a Post hoc test was performed. The results of the Post hoc test in appendix E indicated that the mean number of years in the organization for the four groups was 3.0357 for the group who had 10 years and above in the organization; 3.3816 for the group who had between 4 to 6 years; 3.7159 for the group who had 0 to 3 years and 3.7813 for the group who had between 7 to 9 years in the organization. In conclusion, the groups who had 10 years and above, with the lowest mean score of 3.0357 was the one that was significantly different from the other groups at $\alpha < 0.05$.

5.5.4. ANOVA (Perceived influence of homesickness on work performance among expatriate academics from different biographical variables)

TABLE 5.31   **ANOVA**

		Sum of Squares	Df	M. Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	13.033	13	1.003	1.201	**.297**
	Within Groups	59.273	71	.835		
	Total	72.306	84			
Ed. Qual	Between Groups	4.176	13	.321	1.228	**.279**
	Within Groups	18.577	71	.262		
	Total	22.753	84			
Marital Stus	Between Groups	7.401	13	.569	2.295	**.013***
	Within Groups	17.611	71	.248		
	Total	25.012	84			
Nber of yrs in the org	Between Groups	18.538	13	1.426	1.141	**.341**
	Within Groups	88.709	71	1.249		
	Total	107.247	84			
Nture of empl	Between Groups	9.267	13	.713	.806	**.652**
	Within Groups	62.780	71	.884		
	Total	72.047	84			
Nber of yrs in the position	Between Groups	16.501	13	1.269	.762	**.696**
	Within Groups	118.205	71	1.665		
	Total	134.706	84			
Job Category	Between Groups	28.292	13	2.176	2.095	**.025***
	Within Groups	73.755	71	1.039		
	Total	102.047	84			
Origin	Between Groups	10.331	13	.795	1.367	**.197**
	Within Groups	41.269	71	.581		
	Total	51.600	84			

ANOVA results presented in TABLE 5.31 reveal that there is no significant difference between groups (Age, Highest Qualifications, nature of employment, Experience, and origin) in their perception of the influence of homesickness on their work performance; at $\alpha < 0.05$.

However, the results showed a significant difference between groups in <u>Marital status</u> with F = 2.295 with the mean values of .569 and .248 was significant with p = .013. A Post hoc test could not be performed in order to identify in which group the difference lies because one group underrepresented.

A significant difference between groups in <u>job category</u> was also noticed with p = .025; F = 2.095 with the mean values of 2.176 and 1.039. The results of the Post hoc test revealed that the group of 'professors' with the low homesickness mean value of 3.8676 was the one that was significantly different from the other groups. The group of researchers had a mean value of 4; followed by the group of senior lecturer with the mean value of 4.0227 and the group of lecturers with the mean value of 4.0682. The last group was the one of tutors with a mean value of 4.5357. Sub hypothesis **H5D is partially Supported**.

5.5.5. ANOVA (Perceived influence of Language on work performance among expatriate academics from different biographical variables)

TABLE 5.32   ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Age	Between Groups	14.769	6	2.461	3.337	.006*
	Within Groups	57.537	78	.738		
	Total	72.306	84			
Ed. Qual	Between Groups	1.468	6	.245	.896	.502
	Within Groups	21.285	78	.273		
	Total	22.753	84			
Marital Stus	Between Groups	3.304	6	.551	1.979	.079
	Within Groups	21.708	78	.278		
	Total	25.012	84			
Nber of yrs in the org	Between Groups	7.229	6	1.205	.940	.472
	Within Groups	100.018	78	1.282		
	Total	107.247	84			
Ntre of empl	Between Groups	6.975	6	1.163	1.394	.228
	Within Groups	65.072	78	.834		
	Total	72.047	84			
Nber of yrs in the position	Between Groups	7.306	6	1.218	.746	.615
	Within Groups	127.399	78	1.633		
	Total	134.706	84			
Job Category	Between Groups	13.857	6	2.309	2.043	.070
	Within Groups	88.190	78	1.131		
	Total	102.047	84			
Origin	Between Groups	9.080	6	1.513	2.776	.017*
	Within Groups	42.520	78	.545		
	Total	51.600	84			

ANOVA results presented in TABLE 5.32 reveal that there is no significant difference between groups (Highest Qualifications, Nature of employment, Experience) in their perception of the influence of homesickness on their work performance; at α < 0.05.

But, there was a significant difference between <u>Age</u> groups in their perception of the influence of language on their work performance; with value F = 3.337 and the mean values of 2.461 and .738; was significant at p = .006 level. The Post hoc test reveals that the difference lies in the age group between 20 to 29 years had the lowest mean score of 4; the age group of 60 and above had a mean score of 4.25; followed by the age group between 50to 59 years; the age group between 30 to 39 years had a mean score of 4.75; and the age group between 40 to 49 years had the highest mean score of 4.7929.

The table above also reveals that there was a significant difference between <u>Origin</u> groups in their perception of language with regard to performance at F =2.776; with mean scores of 1.513 and .545 was significant at p = .017.

The post hoc test in Appendix E showed that the difference lies in the group of non-Africans (Others) with the lowest mean score of 4.50; the group of African (SADC) had a mean score of 4.722 and African (Non SADC) had a mean value of 4.750. Sub hypothesis **<u>H5E is partially Supported</u>**.

In conclusion, from the results of the ANOVA tables (Table 5.28 to 5.32) presented below, hypothesis **<u>H5E is partially substantiated.</u>**

5.6. Summary

The findings provided by the different statistical tests in this chapter can be summarized as follow: the results of the frequency analysis of biographical variables portrayed that many expatriate academics in the study are males compared to females; most of expatriate academics were highly qualified; and many were married. However, the majority have not been with the organization for a long time.

The frequencies of the different items in the questionnaire showed that many expatriate academics in the study were homesick and were not satisfied with their remuneration. However, the results of the inferential statistics portrayed that their work performance was not affected by most of the independent variables listed in the study except for the variable 'language'. The results of the multiple regressions reveal that language was the only predictor of work performance.

The results presented above will be interpreted and discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 6

Interpretation of results and discussion

6.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to interpret and discuss the research results presented in the previous chapter. Such an interpretation is necessary especially in situations where the results are unexpected. It also allows a researcher to confirm situations where results are expected or are in line with findings from existing literature. The chapter starts with a brief summary of the research results, followed by a discussion of these results.

6.2. Summary of results

This section intends to present the most important results obtained from this research project. It does not go into detail on how results were obtained because this has been exhaustively done in the previous chapter. Instead, the results are presented here in a synthetic format so that they can be easily understood by the reader.

The research results can be classified into two categories: the first part of the results deal with frequency and mean analysis of the variables. The second category is related to the analysis of inferential statistics such as correlations of variables; significant mean differences between two groups (T-test); significant mean differences between multiple groups (ANOVA) and multiple regressions of independent variables on dependent variables.

6.2.1. Frequencies and means analysis

Frequencies and means analysis were able to uncover important research findings on the following aspects: gender equity, marital status, knowledge transfer, and staff turnover and retention. These results are discussed below.

6.2.1.1. Gender equity and marital status

The results of the frequency tables on gender and marital status show there are few female expatriate academics compared to males, and that most expatriate academics are married. These findings are in line with existing literature. For example, Tung (2004) raised the issue

of the low growth rate of women on international assignments. This low growth rate was attributed to the belief that women lack the mental abilities to endure the stresses and the challenges encountered when living and working in foreign countries especially in male-dominated countries like in the Middle East where women are stereotyped and males are not keen to do business with women. In addition, women have adjustment problems compared to males, and men are in general less willing to accept that their wives be sent alone on a foreign assignment (Tung, 2004).

Another study conducted by Tzeng (2006) found that discrimination against women on international assignments by their male superiors was one of the reasons why women do not like taking international assignments. It was also reported that in foreign assignments, single women were exposed to harassment and security issues, married women could not cope with the trailing male spouse and those with children could not successfully adjust to the foreign environment (Adler, 1992).

In summary, overall, the findings of this research study with regard to gender equity are not surprising because expatriation is generally perceived as a risky adventure for women unless they are undertaking it as a joint initiative with their spouse.

On the issue of the marital status of expatriates, according to this research study, the average age of expatriate academics is 47; which is perceived as a mature stage where one is supposed to have been married. This may explain why most of the respondents in the study are married, but it may also outline the importance of the support of trailing spouse. The literature on expatriates states that women play an important role in the success of their husbands in international assignments by giving them the necessary support amidst critical challenges (Shaffer and Harrison, 2001; Brotchi and Envig, 2006).

However, contrary to the findings of this study, Suutari and Brewster (1999) found that most of the self-selected expatriates in their study were single and this was attributed to the fact that they usually perceive an international assignment as an adventure.

6.2.1.2. Staff turnover and Retention
According to the findings of this research study, most expatriate academics have been with the organization and in their present position for a relatively short period of time. This raises the question of the effectiveness of the retention policies of the organization; especially because existing literature shows that the turnover rate for expatriate academics is usually

high as this type of employees possesses scarce skills sought after by many employers (Richardson, 2002). Even though the high rate of turnover is expected from expatriate academics, it is surprising that the organization's retention policies have not been able to rectify the situation.

6.2.1.3. Knowledge transfer

Almost every expatriate academic in the study holds a masters degree, with the majority of them holding a PhD. This result is not surprising because a PhD is a requirement for an academic career. However, this also indicates that expatriate academics are knowledgeable. Moreover in the context of an institution of higher learning in a country like South Africa where there is a huge demand for skilled labour by local industries, expatriate academics are usually used for the transfer of skills and knowledge to the nationals.

The knowledge transfer role of expatriates in general is also highlighted in the contemporary literature on expatriates. For instance, Suutari and Brewster (1999), and Dowling and Welch (2004) state that one of the main reasons multinational corporations sent expatriates to their subsidiaries is to transfer knowledge and skills. Jones (2000), and Williamson and Cable (2006) also subscribe to this view by stating that expatriate academics are knowledge workers who demonstrate a significant level of confidence in the portability and the transferability of their knowledge.

6.2.1.4. Salary and Rewards

The majority of expatriate academics that participated in this study are not satisfied with the rewards and salary they receive from the organization compared to their perceived contribution. This may explain the high turnover rate mentioned in the above section. The two-factor theory of Herzberg (1950) contends that hygiene factors such as pay and rewards are important in preventing employee dissatisfaction. When employees are not satisfied with these factors, adverse effects such as absenteeism, turnover, and depression usually occur (Reggio, 2003; Mathis and Jackson, 2004). The empirical study conducted by Fernandes and Awamlesh (2006) on foreign nurses working in a hospital in the United Arab Emirates also found that these foreign nurses were unfairly treated compared to the local nurses; the compensation that they were receiving was low compared to their workload. As a result, the hospital recorded a high staff turnover rate. Likewise, a study conducted by Chew and Zhu (2001) among 355 Singaporean managers found that salary and fringe benefits were very important factors in increasing their satisfaction.

6.2.2. Central Tendencies and Dispersions

The six research variables of the study were subjected to an analysis of central tendencies and dispersions; the results of the analysis are presented below.

6.2.2.1. Job performance

The mean score of 4.49 for the job performance variable indicates that expatriate academics in the study perceive themselves as good performers. This finding is not surprising because the contemporary literature on expatriates contends that expatriates are hard working individuals (Bhanugopan and Fish, 2006). This result can also be attributed to the self-rating assessment whereby employees assess themselves positively by minimizing their weaknesses. Thus, Berman *et al* (2008) stated that employees fear to be honest in self-appraisal because they want to preserve their self esteem; they therefore believe that if they state their weaknesses, it may negatively affect their position in the organization.

6.2.2.2. Homesickness

The result of the mean score of 4.05 for the homesickness variable implies that most expatriate academics in the study are homesick. This result is aligned to the findings of Fisher (1989) and Van Thilburg *et al* (1996) who found that most people experience homesickness when away from their home country. These results are not surprising because when one is away from his or her family and friends, his or her routines are disturbed; he or she is somehow detached from his or her roots and this can result into feelings of anger, loss and distress; hence, the symptoms of homesickness (Van Thilburg *et al.*, 1996).

6.2.2.3. Organizational socialization

With a mean score of 3.53, expatriate academics in the study seem to have a good-fit with the organization. This may be perceived as the organization having a good support system whereby newcomers e.g. expatriates are properly inducted and orientated. This good-fit of expatriates may also be attributed to their co-workers who ensure that they are not isolated.

6.2.2.4. Language

The mean score of 4.68 for the variable 'language' also indicates that expatriate academics in the study are fluent and conformable with the language. This is not surprising as the command of language of instruction is a prerequisite for an academic career because an academic cannot effectively or efficiently lecture if he or she encounters difficulties in the language of instruction. This result can also be attributed to the limitation of self-rating system stated earlier whereby people tend to positively self-rate themselves.

6.2.2.5. Social and cultural adjustment

The culture shock syndrome does not seem to be of concern for expatriate academics in this study as the majority indicated that they are well adjusted to the host country culture. This result is not congruent with the findings of Pires *et al* (2006) that stated that most people experience a culture shock when exposed to a new culture; but it may be explained by the fact that expatriate academics in the study may have gone through cross-cultural training or they may have had previous international experiences.

6.2.2.6. Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization

The mean score of 2.74 shows that expatriate academics are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the policies and practices of the organization with regard to salary, promotion and rewards. However, the frequency analysis of the scale presented in Appendix D clearly portrays that expatriate academics in the study are not quite happy with these policies. This may be related to the fact that the organization does not offer market related salaries or lacks an effective compensation system, or that the employees in the study are not easily satisfied. Fernandes and Awamleh (2006) stressed that employee satisfaction is an important factor that can affect the performance of an organization. This is particularly true because as stated earlier, expatriates' dissatisfaction can lead to negative consequences such as absenteeism, stress, and high staff turnover (Fernandes and Awamleh, 2006; Bhanugopan and Fish, 2006).

6.2.3. Analysis of inferential statistics

Inferential statistics help researchers to determine the relationship between variables, to identify significant differences among variables, and to explain and predict variances in the dependent variables when multiple independent variables are hypothesized to influence these dependent variables. Inferential statistics include correlation analysis, t-test, ANOVA, and multi-regression analysis.

6.2.3.1. Correlations

H1. *There is a relationship between the independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, language) and work performance.*

Correlation analysis in the study reveals interesting findings on the possible relationship between the following factors and the performance of expatriate academics: social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization,

homesickness, organizational socialization and language. It also uncovers interesting relationships between these variables.

<u>Language</u>

Language was found to correlate with the work performance of expatriate academics in the study: the more expatriate academics in the study are literate or knowledgeable with regard to the language of instruction, the higher their performance. These findings are not surprising because if one is not competent in communicating using the language of instruction, it becomes difficult for the person to perform effectively because of communication breakdowns and ineffective transfer of knowledge. This is explicable as these employees usually have to work in a language sometimes different from their home language. This is particularly true in situations whereby lecturers from French-speaking countries come to work in English-speaking countries; if they are not very fluent and eloquent, they may fail to effectively express themselves; therefore it may affect their work performance. Moreover, the nature of the academic profession is to communicate and transfer knowledge; and this can be done easily if expatriate academics do not experience language difficulties.

The importance of knowing the language of the host country is widely covered in the existing literature of the management of expatriate employees. Selmer (2004) found that there is a relationship between work performance and language. Her study on western expatriate managers working in China concluded that those who experienced language difficulties were unable to communicate the task to their colleagues and this impacted on their work performance.

The correlation between work performance and language for expatriate academics can be analyzed both from the lecturers' point of view and from the students' point of view. Work performance can be affected as a result of the lecturer being frustrated because students fail to effectively understand or grasp information communicated to them; or *vice versa* whereby students also get frustrated and impatient at their failure to understand what is communicated to them by the lecturer. Eventually, this affects the performance of both lecturers and students: the student may fail dismally or the lecturer may become demotivated.

In sum, the findings confirm the assertion of Clegg and Gray (2002) that language ability is crucial for effective performance.

Social and cultural adjustment

The research findings show that there is no correlation between work performance and the social and cultural adjustment of expatriate academics in the study. This is contrary to the existing literature that states that the inability of expatriates to adjust in foreign settings has tremendous consequences on their work performance and on their well being (Mc Evoy and Parker; 1995, Waterhouse, 1997). The empirical study conducted by Waterhouse (1997) on European expatriates found that their underperformance was due to their inability to easily adapt to the host culture. The performance of expatriate academics may be different from the general case of expatriate workers in the corporate sector because academic performance is mostly self-driven and is the result of an individual effort, but high performance in the corporate sector is usually a team effort.

Although no correlation was found between expatriate academics' work performance and their social and cultural adjustment in the study, a positive correlation was found between social and cultural adjustment and satisfaction with the policies and the practices of the organization. This obviously means that if an organization offers better salaries and rewards, and provides opportunities for promotion and career advancement, employees are more likely to settle and adjust easily. However, this can be an oversimplified statement because there are other factors that can help or ensure that expatriates fully adjust to the host country.

Generally, satisfaction at workplace can have a positive impact on the adjustment of expatriates in the host country. The empirical study conducted by Liu and Lee (2008) to determine whether job satisfaction, organizational socialization and family support are related to international adjustment found that there is a significant relationship between the above factors and cultural adjustment; and that job satisfaction is the most useful predictor of cross-cultural adjustment as it accounts for more than half of the variance. Toh (2003) viewed the relationship between expatriates' cultural adjustment and job satisfaction from a different perspective. He asserted that if an expatriate becomes psychologically comfortable in the new environment and adjusts to the job's role requirements, he or she is possibly going to experience job satisfaction.

Social and cultural adjustment was also found to positively correlate with the organizational socialization in the study. This means that the more the expatriate is fully acquainted or socialized into the organization, with interventions like induction or orientation, and support of co-workers among other things, the better he or she will adjust to the new environment.

These findings are in line with the findings of Kraimer *et al* (2001) and confirm that the information and support that the organization and co-workers provide to expatriates have a direct effect on their general adjustment and on their work performance.

This finding is particularly true in the sense that when an expatriate arrives in a new environment, he or she may not know anyone in the area. The people that can provide him or her with information, or help him or her to become familiar with the new environment are his or her organization and co-workers. Sometimes, organizations help new expatriates with accommodation, work permits, social connections, finding a school for their children, etc; until they are fully adjusted to the new environment.

A negative correlation was found in our study between social and cultural adjustment, and homesickness. This indicates that the more expatriate academics are homesick, the less they are adjusted to the host country. This is understandable because people who are homesick are sometimes unable to settle psychologically in a foreign setting due to feelings of distress, sadness, and loneliness associated with homesickness (Fisher, 1989). A low level of homesickness can be seen as an indication of an adjustment to the host country culture. This is confirmed by several articles from the literature that contend that people who experience low level of homesickness are enthusiastic and willing to learn about the host culture (Van Bekel, 2002; Omi and Winnat, 2003).

Homesickness

No correlation was found in the study between homesickness and work performance; which is contrary to the findings of Omi and Minnat (2003) who concluded in their study of migrants in East Kentucky that migrants who were homesick were emotionally unstable and unable to focus on their work. Likewise, in her study of a sample of foreign students in a Scottish university, Fisher (1989) found that students who were experiencing symptoms of homesickness had poor concentration and this affected their performance.

The fact that homesickness does not correlate with the performance of expatriate academics in the study may mean that the nature of the academic job is so absorbing that academic employees are able to forget about their homesickness when they are on the job. It is also important to mention that the research is dealing with highly qualified employees, or with people who might have prior international assignment experience; thus they might have learned how to control their emotions in dealing with homesickness so that it does not affect

their work performance. As highlighted above, moving away from home is sometimes initiated by these categories of employees (Richardson, 2003; Reynolds, 2005); thus, there is a possibility that they may have been psychologically prepared to make sure that homesickness does not negatively impact on their work performance.

It might also mean that expatriate academics in the study are open-minded, flexible, tolerant and empathetic towards new cultures (Caliguiri and Tung, 1999) as these are the qualities found to be linked to a successful international assignment.

With regard to homesickness, the results of our study also indicate a negative correlation between homesickness and satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization. This implies that the less one is satisfied with the organization, the more he or she becomes homesick. This may also be explained by the fact that people who are homesick are such in emotional state that their feeling of sadness, listlessness, grief, and anger (Fisher, 1989; Van Bekel, 2002) can affect their well being, and in return can be translated into low levels of job satisfaction.

Satisfaction with the policies and practice of the organization

The results of our study show that satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization is not correlated to work performance. There is no consensus in the literature on this issue. Some authors assert that job satisfaction has little relationship to work performance (Judge et al., 2001; Skibba, 2002); but Mishra and Choudhari (2002) found in their study that job satisfaction correlates with job performance. On the other hand, Bhanugopan and Fish (2006) assert that job satisfaction can have an indirect effect on work performance, because dissatisfaction may lead to stress, and that might in turn affect performance.

This study also found a positive correlation between satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, and organizational socialization. This result implies that the more expatriate academics fit in to the organization, the more they are likely to be satisfied with its policies and practices. This indicates that organizational culture and fairness is an important factor for employees in general and for academic expatriates in this study in particular. This finding concurs with the study by Toh (2003) who found that expatriates who were successfully acquainted with the organization experienced more satisfaction, because of the good support structure of the organization.

<u>**Work performance**</u>

In summary, one can say that the work performance of the expatriate academics in the study does not correlate with any of the independent variables except for the "language" variable. This result confirms the findings from existing literature on the correlation between language and work performance (Selmer, 2002) and on the possibility of a non-correlation between job satisfaction and work performance (Judge *et al*., 2001; Skibba, 2002). Existing literature contends, in contradiction with the results of this study, that the inability of people to adjust to the new environment has a negative impact on their work performance (Waterhouse, 1997; Shaffer and Harrison, 2001); that expatriates perform better when they are well adjusted to their work (Black *et al*., 1991); and that the organization and co-workers are crucial factors in ensuring an expatriate is successful in his or her assignment (Toh, 2003; Takeuchi *et al*., 2005). This apparent contradiction between the findings of the literature and the results of this study may be linked to factors specific to the academic profession

In sum, the results obtained from the correlation analysis led to the conclusion that hypothesis H1 is partially supported because only one of the five independent variables correlated positively with expatriate academics work performance.

6.2.3.2. Multiple regressions analysis

H2. *The five independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, language) significantly predict expatriate academics work performance.*

The results obtained from the multi-regression analysis reveal that language is the best predictor for work performance as it appears to be the only variable having a statistically significant effect on work performance. From the results obtained, this means that language is perceived as having an effect on the work performance of expatriate academics. The fact that language appeared to be a statistically significant predictor of work performance confirms the findings of the literature on the impact of language on the work performance of expatriates. As highlighted earlier, language is perceived as an important factor for expatriate success in his or her assignment (Selmer, 2004); especially for expatriate academics who have to constantly communicate and transfer their knowledge through communication.

The result implies that other variables (cultural and social adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, homesickness, and organizational socialization)

have no effect on the work performance of expatriate academics; even if most of the expatriate academics in the study are homesick and dissatisfied as portrayed in the frequency and mean analysis, that does not necessary impact on their performance. The fact that the R square of the model is low (14 percent) means that there are other more important factors that may impact on the work performance of expatriate academics apart from the factors investigated in the study. A further study may be conducted to identify these factors.

Even though language was the only predictor of work performance in this study, Hypothesis H2 was conclusive because all the independent variables explained

6.2.3.3. T-tests
H3. *Expatriate academics from different biographical profiles have different perceptions on their work performance*.

H4. *There is a significant difference between males and females expatriate academics in the perceived influence of independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, language) on their work performance*.

Hypotheses **H3** and **H4** were not proved in the study. The results of the T-test revealed that males and females expatriate academics do not perceive their work performance differently. Since most expatriate academics in the study are high performers, this obviously means that males and females perform equally. The study also found no significant difference in the perceived influence of the independent variables on their work performance. These results are in line with the contemporary literature on expatriates that contends that although female expatriates have difficulties in adjusting to a new environment (Tung, 2004) and are susceptible to be dissatisfied with challenging jobs compared to male expatriates; but, they also enjoy the same level of performance compared to their male counterparts on international assignment (Tung, 2004). Mathur-Helm (2001) also aligns to the findings when asserting that women work as hard as men in an international assignment in order to prove themselves in male-dominated countries.

6.2.3.4. ANOVA (Analysis of Variance)

H5. *The perceived influence of independent variables on work performance varies among expatriate academics from different biographical profiles.*

The ANOVA results found no significant difference between expatriate academics from different backgrounds (marital status, positions, origins, etc) on their perceptions of the impact of social and cultural adjustment, and of job satisfaction on their work performance.

However, the ANOVA results found a significant difference in the perceived impact of organizational socialization on the work performance of expatriate academics that have been with the organization for a long period compared to those who have been with the organization for a short period of time. These findings indicate that the longer an employee stays in the organization the more likely he or she is likely to socialize with colleagues. These findings are in line with the organizational socialization process explained by Chao (2005) and Albrecht (2001) whose fourth stage portrays an expatriate fully acquainted and adjusted to the organization; and therefore able to appreciate and know the organization policy and goals; and to perform far better than new comers.

A significant difference was also found between expatriate academics from different job categories on their perceived impact of homesickness on their work performance. The Duncan post hoc test revealed that professors are the ones who are statistically different from the others with that regard. A possible interpretation of this finding is that professors in this study are mature people who have many years of experience, having left their home country for a long period of time, and having adapted their work performance against their homesickness.

There is also a significant difference in the perceived impact of homesickness on work performance between expatriate academics that are married, those that are single, widows and divorcees. However, due to the fact that one group was underrepresented; a post hoc test could not be performed to identify which group is significantly different from the others. The possible interpretation of this finding may be that married people who are with their families may have coping mechanisms that do not allow their homesickness to negatively impact on their work performance.

Different age groups were found to be significantly different in their perceptions of the impact of their command of the language on their work performance; and the age group between 20 and 29 was found to be significantly different from the other age groups. This may be

111

explained by the fact that younger academics differ from older academics on their strategies of the use of the language of instruction in the transfer of knowledge.

Non-Africans referred to as 'others' in the study were also found to be significantly different from the African group in their perceptions of the impact of their command of the language on their work performance; this may be explained by the fact that Africans differ from non-African in the use of language used for communication.

The results of the ANOVA test on the biographical data and on the other independent variables led to the partial approval of hypothesis H5.

TABLE 6.1 Research Hypotheses Summary

H1. There is a relationship between the independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, language) and work performance.	**PARTIALLY PROVED**
H2. The five independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, language) significantly predict expatriate academics work performance.	**PROVED**
H3. Expatriate academics from different biographical profiles have different perceptions on their work performance.	**DISPROVED**
H4. There is a significant difference between males and females expatriate academics in the perceived influence of independent variables (social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, organizational socialization, homesickness, language) on their work performance.	**DISPROVED**
H5. The perceived influence of independent variables on work performance varies among expatriate academics from different biographical profiles.	**PARTIALLY PROVED**

6.4. Overall summary

This chapter has interpreted and discussed the results obtained from the data analysis in comparison with existing literature. The main findings from the analysis are that a command of the language of instruction has a perceived impact on the work performance of expatriate academics. While the expatriate academics in the study appear to be homesick and dissatisfied with their salary and rewards, this does not seem to have an impact on their work performance.

The next chapter will conclude the study and present recommendations from the research results as well as suggestions for further research.

Chapter 7

Conclusion and Recommendations

7.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present a brief summary of this research study as well as recommendations on the possible implications of the results of the research; and some possible directions for future research.

The summary of the study covers important aspects of the research context, the research methodology and the findings. Recommendations are an attempt to provide the organization under study with some guidelines as to how to use the results of the study to their advantage.

Directions for future research are ideas on how to explore further issues uncovered by the research.

7.2. Summary of the study

The purpose of this study was to analyze the perceptions of expatriate academics on the factors affecting their work performance. The research was conducted using a sample of 85 expatriate academics employees at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. This sample was constructed using a snowball sampling method. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed to the research participants with most sections of the questionnaire based on a five point likert scale. The sections of the questionnaires were aligned to the following independent variables: biographical data, social and cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization, homesickness, organizational socialization, and language. Employees' perceptions on their work performance were also assessed by the questionnaire as the dependent variable.

The questionnaire data were analyzed with the help of the SPSS statistical software package where the following tests were performed: frequency analysis, T-test, ANOVA, and multiple regressions analysis. The frequency analysis revealed that expatriate academics in the study were not satisfied with their salary; and many of them have spent less than five years in the organization; which pointed to a possible high turnover rate.

The intercorrelations of variables revealed a positive relationship between language and work performance; a positive relationship between social and cultural adjustment; a positive relationship between satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization and homesickness; and a negative relationship between homesickness and social and cultural adjustment. The multiple regressions analysis revealed that language was the only predictor of work performance.

The study found no significant difference between expatriate academics from different genders with regard to their perceptions on the impact of the independent variables on work performance. However, significant differences were found on the perceived impact of organizational socialization on the work performance of expatriate academics among different groups based on the number of years they have worked for the organization; and between different job category and their perceived impact of homesickness on work performance. These results were interpreted and discussed with the aid of existing literature.

7.3. Recommendations

Based on the results obtained from the data analysis, the following recommendations are suggested to the management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal where the study was conducted:

7.3.1. Emphasis on language

Though the mean score of language was high; indicating that expatriate academics in the study are able to master the language of instruction, there still a need to improve and enhance their communication skills; as it appeared that language was statistically significant and was the only predictor of work performance. Thus the management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal can consider the following solutions:

- Implementing language training and workshops where expatriate academics are encouraged to improve their communication skills.
- Providing a period for new expatriates to adapt to the language.
- Providing a speech or language development course whereby expatriate academics from non-English speaking countries can be trained to communicate effectively e.g. improving their pronunciation of words, knowing the use and meaning of common words.
- Implementing a language test for expatriate academics from non-English speaking countries prior to assignment; e.g. TOEFL (Test for English as a Foreign Language);

although this test is applied to students from non-English speaking countries who want to study in English speaking countries, it can also be applied to lecturers, not for discriminatory purposes, but for skills development purposes.

- The human resource management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal may also consider carefully scrutinizing candidates during the selection process; and appoint those expatriates who are willing to learn or to improve their level of communication if they are not fluent in the language of instruction.

7.3.2. Helping expatriate academics overcome or alleviate their homesickness

Although the study found no significant relationship between homesickness and work performance, the frequency analysis and the mean score of 4.05 on the scale of 5 indicated that expatriate academics in the study were homesick. Management can help expatriate employees to alleviate their homesickness by:

- Providing travel allowances e.g. air tickets; so that expatriate employees can go home and refresh themselves. If possible, consider expatriate family and cultural holidays in order to provide leave.
- Creating initiatives to encourage socialization in the work place such as social clubs, team building, sports activities and excursions to alleviate the feelings of distress and loneliness usually experienced by homesick people.
- Providing stress management workshops or sessions for expatriates.
- Respecting and recognizing cultural and religious obligations; e.g. dress code.
- Connecting new expatriate employees to their networks where they can find others from their home country.
- Involving the International Office of the University of KwaZulu-Natal in the orientation of expatriates.

7.3.3. Revising salary and rewards policy

The mean score of 2.74 on the scale of 5 clearly indicated that expatriate academics in the study are not really satisfied with the policies and practices of the organization. And the frequency of the items revealed that respondents were not satisfied with their salary, and felt that their rewards are not fair. Concerning the compensation of expatriate academics, e.g. salary; the way multinational expatriates are compensated will be difficult for universities to

apply, because multinational organizations considered issues such as foreign assignment allowances and social security, and salaries are adjusted to the cost of living of the host country. However, the management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal may consider the following suggestions:

- Implementing market related salaries to avoid high staff turnover and attract more skilled expatriates.
- Conducting salary surveys in order to know how competitors remunerate their employees.
- Providing rewards and recognition for good performance.
- Applying fairness when rewarding expatriates.
- Benchmarking in order to match the salary and benefits of competitors; or offering a better package than competitors. Generally, benchmarking has the ability to provide information about where the organization stands on salary, benefits, rewards, bonuses, etc.
- Applying a performance-related pay system whereby expatriate academics or employees in general can be paid according to their performance; or where their salary can be increased in accordance with the results of the performance assessment (e.g. performance appraisal, 360 degree feedback, etc,).
- When appointing expatriates, besides informing them of their total compensation package, the human resource management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal should clarify their net salary, their allowances, and taxes; so that they do not feel misled or misrepresented when receiving their first pay cheque. The International Office might assist them with information regarding the cost of living, average housing rentals, schooling of children, etc. This would mean that when they arrive in the host country they have an idea of what things will cost.

7.3.4. Staff turnover and retention

The frequency analysis of the items indicated that many expatriate academics have less than three years experience in the organization. This created the perception that the organization was experiencing a high staff (e.g. expatriate academics) turnover. In order to remedy the situation if that is the case, the management of the University of KwaZulu-Natal could consider the following:

- Conducting job satisfaction surveys in order to uncover problems that may lead to high staff turnover.
- Encouraging participation and allowing employees in general to have input into the implementation of policies.
- Involving expatriate academics and all employees in the work they are doing and recognizing and appreciating their contribution. Recognition of performance can be effective in retaining employees. Perkins and White (2008: 267) note that: "the best ways to retain key individuals is to make sure that they are fully engaged in the work they are doing and know that the contributions resulting from that engagement are recognized and appreciated".
- Conducting retention research can provide information on the primary cause of high staff turnover; and it can help in correcting the situation.
- Offering competitive packages and applying fairness in rewarding employees will motivate expatriate academics to stay in the organization.

7.4. Conclusion

This research project has achieved its objectives as specified in the first chapter of this dissertation. The literature on expatriates and on factors affecting their work performance was thoroughly reviewed; hypotheses raised were tested with the aid of statistical inferences; others unexpected findings were analyzed and interpreted; and recommendations were suggested based on the results obtained from the analysis.

Some of the results were in line with the findings of existing literature on expatriates; while others were not, possibly due to the specific nature of the academic profession. Further research however needs to be conducted in order to overcome the limitations of this research project.

7.5. Future Research

Future research should be considered in order to overcome the limitations encountered in this research project.

One of the limitations encountered was the used of snowball sampling; according to research, a snowball sampling can sometimes be biased. In order to overcome problems of bias, the use of probability sampling such as random sampling, stratified random sampling or a multi-stage

sampling can be utilized as research found that this type of sampling methods has the least bias and offers the most generalizability (Sekaran, 2000).

The use of open-ended questions gave little room for respondents to fully express themselves and give their suggestions. Other data collection methods such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussion or the use of open questionnaires can be considered in order to allow respondents to express themselves better.

In order to overcome the drawbacks of the self-rating method; further research is needed to objectively measure the work performance of expatriate academics. Rating methods such as multi-source feedback (360 degree); where students, colleagues and Heads of School would assess the expatriates can be conducted. Performance appraisal may also be considered; whereby expatriates' performance is assessed periodically. Expatriate academics' performance may also be measured by their number of publications and by their supervision track records.

Further research may also be undertaken to investigate if other factors can affect the performance of expatriate academics in the study; e.g. spouse and children adjustment, and dual career issues where one spouse had to give up his or her work.

A study can also be conducted on these expatriate employees to find out the motives for their expatriation.

CHAPTER 8

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Appendices

Appendix A. Questionnaire

Questionnaire on the perceptions of expatriate academics on the factors affecting their work performance

(All responses will be treated in the strictest of confidence)

<u>**Section A**</u>. **Biographical Information**

<u>**Instruction:**</u> **Please mark a cross (x) in the appropriate block**

1. Age

20-29		1
30- 39		2
40-49		3
50-59		4
60+		5

2. Gender

Male		1
Female		2

3. Highest Educational Qualification

Undergraduate degree		1
Honours degree		2
Masters degree		3
Doctoral degree		4

4. Marital status

Single		1
Married		2
Divorced		3
Widowed		4

5. Number of years in the organisation

(0-3)		1
(4-6)		2
(7-9)		3
(10+)		4

6. Nature of Employment

Permanent		1
Temporary		2
Contract		3

7. Number of years in the present position

(0-2)		1
(3-4)		2
(5-6)		3
(7-8)		4
(9+)		5

8. Job Category

Professor		1
Senior Lecturer		2
Lecturer		3
Tutor		4
Researcher only		4

9. Origin

African (SADC)		1
African (non SADC)		2
Others		3

SADC: Southern African development Community

Section B: Variables

Instruction: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale below. Mark a cross (x) in the appropriate block.

1= Strongly disagree   (SD)

2= Disagree   (D)

3= Neutral   (N)

4= Agree   (A)

5= Strongly agree   (SA)

1.Performance

The following statements ask you to self-assess your work performance. Please state how strongly you agree or disagree on the statements below.

No.	STATEMENT	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
1	I think my performance is reflective of my abilities					
2	I am committed to meeting my job objectives in my organisation					
3	My overall job performance is adequate					
4	I fully understand the organisation's goals					
5	I always fulfil my job responsibilities					

Instruction: Please rate each of the following statements using the following scale. Mark a cross (x) in the appropriate block

1= Strongly disagree   (SD)

2= Disagree   (D)

3= Neutral   (N)

4= Agree   (A)

5= Strongly agree   (SA)

2. Cultural and Social adjustment

The statements below require you to agree or disagree how well you are adjusted in the host country with regards to living conditions, healthcare facilities, local food, interaction with host country nationals and the cost of living.

No.	STATEMENT	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
1	**I am well adjusted to the living conditions of the host country**					
2	**I think the healthcare facilities in the host country are accessible**					
3	**I enjoy local food as it tastes the same as my home food**					
4	**I think the cost of living in the host country is more cheaper than at home**					
5	**I interact well with country nationals as they are friendly to talk to**					

Instruction: Please rate each of the following statements using the following scale. Mark a cross (x) in the Appropriate Block

1= Strongly disagree   (SD)

2= Disagree   (D)

3= Neutral   (N)

4= Agree   (A)

5= Strongly agree   (SA)

3- Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organisation

Please indicate the extent to which you are satisfied with the implementation of policies and practices in your organisation with regards to salary, promotion, rewards and career advancement.

No.	STATEMENT	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
1	I am satisfied with my current prospect for job advancement in my organisation					
2	I think I am satisfied with my current salary					
3	I have too little chance for promotion in my organisation					
4	the policies and practices in my organisation have increased my chances of job retention					
5	I think the reward I receive in my organisation are quite fair					

Instruction: Please rate each of the following statements using the following scale. Mark a cross (x) in the Appropriate Block

1= Strongly disagree   (SD)

2= Disagree   (D)

3= Neutral   (N)

4= Agree   (A)

5= Strongly agree   (SA)

4- 0rganisational socialization

The statements below require you to indicate how well you have socialized with your co-workers

No.	STATEMENT	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
1	**I receive optimum support from the members of my organisation**					
2	**My co-workers help with difficult tasks at work without being asked**					
3	**My co-workers are willing to listen to my personal problems if I approach them**					
4	**My relationship with my co-workers is not affected by nationality issues**					
5	**I am satisfied with the way my organisation handles new employees**					

Instruction: Please rate each of the following statements using the following scale. Mark a cross (x) in the Appropriate Block

1= Strongly disagree   (SD)
2= Disagree   (D)
3= Neutral   (N)
4= Agree   (A)
5= Strongly agree   (SA)

5. Homesickness

Please read each statement carefully and state the extent to which you miss your home country.

No.	STATEMENT	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
1	There are days when I feel I want to go back to my home country					
2	I usually write letters to my family and friends back home					
3	I always keep myself informed with the current situation of my home country					
4	I always remember special occasions happening back home					
5	My country's national holidays are often written in my diary					

Instruction: Please rate each of the following statements using the following scale. Mark a cross (x) in the Appropriate Block

1= Strongly disagree   (SD)

2= Disagree   (D)

3= Neutral   (N)

4= Agree   (A)

5= Strongly agree   (SA)

6- Language

Using the likert scale responses, please state the extent to which you are fluent in speaking, reading, writing and understanding "English"

No.	STATEMENT	SD 1	D 2	N 3	A 4	SA 5
1	I think that I am fluent in speaking English					
2	I am proficient in reading English					
3	I am able to adequately write English					
4	My understanding of English is good					

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix B. Reliability

Performance

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.714	5

Social and Cultural Adjustment

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.645	5

Satisfaction with the policies and practices of the organization

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.947	5

Organizational socialization

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.208	5

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.861	4

Homesickness

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.100	5

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.751	4

Language

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.965	4

APPENDIX C. VALIDITY

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.663
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1403.474
	Df	406
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
I think my performance is reflective of my abilities	1.000	.660
I am committed to meeting my job objectives in my organisation	1.000	.586
My overall job performance is adequate	1.000	.694
I fully understand the organisation's goals	1.000	.628
I always fulfil my job responsibilities	1.000	.708
I am well adjusted to the living conditions of the host country	1.000	.752
I think the healthcare facilities in the host country are accessible	1.000	.731
I enjoy local food as it tastes the same as my home food	1.000	.667
I think the cost of living in the host country is more cheaper than at home	1.000	.685
I interact well with country nationals as they are friendly to talk to	1.000	.555

Communalities (cont)

I am satisfied with my current prospect for job advancement in my organisation	1.000	.537
I think I am satisfied with my current salary	1.000	.802
I have too little chance for promotion in my organisation	1.000	.733
The policies and practices in my organisation have increased my chances of job retention	1.000	.521
I think the reward I receive in my organisation are quite fair	1.000	.724
I receive optimum support from the members of my organization	1.000	.779
My co-workers help with difficult tasks at work without being asked	1.000	.675
My co-workers are willing to listen to my personal problems if I approach them	1.000	.691
My relationship with my co-workers is not affected by nationality issues	1.000	.790
I am satisfied with the way my organisation handles new employees	1.000	.595
There are days when I feel I want to go back to my home country	1.000	.724
I usually write letters (e-mails) to my family and friends back home/speak to them on phone	1.000	.650
I always keep myself informed with the current situation of my home country	1.000	.756
I always remember special occasions happening back home	1.000	.749
My country's national holidays are often written in my diary	1.000	.589
I think I am fluent in speaking English	1.000	.871
I am proficient in reading English	1.000	.933
I am able to adequately write English	1.000	.904
My understanding of English is good	1.000	.926

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings(a)
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5.888	20.302	20.302	5.888	20.302	20.302	3.970
2	4.142	14.281	34.583	4.142	14.281	34.583	4.140
3	2.803	9.666	44.250	2.803	9.666	44.250	3.163
4	2.421	8.349	52.598	2.421	8.349	52.598	2.914
5	1.696	5.847	58.445	1.696	5.847	58.445	3.413
6	1.394	4.807	63.252	1.394	4.807	63.252	1.850
7	1.253	4.320	67.572	1.253	4.320	67.572	2.309
8	1.018	3.511	71.083	1.018	3.511	71.083	2.417
9	.958	3.304	74.387				
10	.830	2.862	77.249				
11	.744	2.567	79.816				
12	.686	2.365	82.181				
13	.653	2.251	84.432				
14	.573	1.975	86.407				
15	.546	1.882	88.289				
16	.521	1.797	90.085				
17	.445	1.534	91.620				
18	.357	1.231	92.851				
19	.343	1.183	94.034				
20	.301	1.040	95.073				
21	.279	.961	96.034				
22	.247	.852	96.886				
23	.215	.740	97.627				
24	.189	.651	98.278				
25	.163	.562	98.840				
26	.160	.553	99.394				
27	.067	.232	99.626				
28	.058	.200	99.826				
29	.050	.174	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Component Matrix(a)

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
My relationship with my co-workers is not affected by nationality issues	.614		.345		-.312	.302		
I receive optimum support from the members of my organisation	.605		.371		-.389			
The policies and practices in my organisation have increased my chances of job retention	.595							
I think the reward I receive in my organisation are quite fair	.580							
My co-workers help with difficult tasks at work without being asked	.571		.395	-.325				
I interact well with country nationals as they are friendly to talk to	.560	-.430						
There are days when I feel I want to go back to my home country	-.556	.467	.417					
My co-workers are willing to listen to my personal problems if I approach them	.523		.414		-.307			
I think I am satisfied with my current salary	.521	-.302			.342		.433	
I am well adjusted to the living conditions of the host country	.520				.337	.365		-.332
I am satisfied with my current prospect for job advancement in my organisation	.501					-.321		
I enjoy local food as it tastes the same as my home food	.484	-.349			.350		-.332	
I think the healthcare facilities in the host country are accessible	.460				.451	.354		-.431
I am satisfied with the way my organisation handles new employees	.405				-.305		-.329	
My understanding of English is good	.478	.771		-.310				

145

Component Matrix(a) cont.

I am proficient in reading English	.453	.768		-.359				
I think I am fluent in speaking English	.409	.765		-.319				
I am able to adequately write English	.510	.709		-.326				
I am committed to meeting my job objectives in my organisation		.471		.345				
I always remember special occasions happening back home		.319	.677	.351				
I always keep myself informed with the current situation of my home country		.354	.627	.376				
My country's national holidays are often written in my diary			.609			-.407		
I usually write letters (e-mails) to my family and friends back home/speak to them on phone			.607		.389			
I think my performance is reflective of my abilities	.382			.625	-.311			
My overall job performance is adequate	.374	.382		.534				
I always fulfil my job responsibilities	.371			.429		.326		
I think the cost of living in the host country is more cheaper than at home	.413				.421		-.415	
I have too little chance for promotion in my organisation	-.334					.477	.377	.405
I fully understand the organisation's goals		.399		.367			-.405	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 8 components extracted.

Pattern Matrix(a)

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
My relationship with my co-workers is not affected by nationality issues	.843							
I receive optimum support from the members of my organisation	.818							
My co-workers are willing to listen to my personal problems if I approach them	.813							
My co-workers help with difficult tasks at work without being asked	.739							
I am satisfied with the way my organisation handles new employees	.578					-.360		
I am proficient in reading English		.953						
I am able to adequately write English		.930						
My understanding of English is good		.930						
I think I am fluent in speaking English		.917						
I always remember special occasions happening back home			.854					
I always keep myself informed with the current situation of my home country			.852					
I usually write letters (e-mails) to my family and friends back home/speak to them on phone			.739					
There are days when I feel I want to go back to my home country			.565				.336	
My country's national holidays are often written in my diary			.563		.307			
I always fulfil my job responsibilities				.806				

Pattern Matrix(a) cont.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
My overall job performance is adequate				.691				
I am committed to meeting my job objectives in my organisation				.668				
I think my performance is reflective of my abilities				.625		-.361		
I think I am satisfied with my current salary					.883			
I think the reward I receive in my organisation are quite fair					.776			
I am satisfied with my current prospect for job advancement in my organisation					.581			
The policies and practices in my organisation have increased my chances of job retention					.465			
I have too little chance for promotion in my organisation						.828		
I think the cost of living in the host country is more cheaper than at home							.749	
I enjoy local food as it tastes the same as my home food							.679	
I fully understand the organisation's goals				.416			.476	
I interact well with country nationals as they are friendly to talk to			-.322				.325	
I think the healthcare facilities in the host country are accessible								-.804
I am well adjusted to the living conditions of the host country								-.778

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 15 iterations.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1.000	.020	-.070	-.002	.207	-.119	-.171	-.158
2	.020	1.000	.052	.168	.010	-.038	-.058	-.091
3	-.070	.052	1.000	-.022	-.087	.001	.076	.161
4	-.002	.168	-.022	1.000	.085	-.174	-.053	-.082
5	.207	.010	-.087	.085	1.000	-.172	-.170	-.198
6	-.119	-.038	.001	-.174	-.172	1.000	.078	.005
7	-.171	-.058	.076	-.053	-.170	.078	1.000	.189
8	-.158	-.091	.161	-.082	-.198	.005	.189	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

APPENDIX D. Frequency Tables

I think my performance is reflective of my abilities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Disagree	6	7.1	7.1	8.2
	Neutral	8	9.4	9.4	17.6
	Agree	24	28.2	28.2	45.9
	Strongly agree	46	54.1	54.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I am committed to meeting my job objectives in my organization

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Neutral	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Agree	15	17.6	17.6	18.8
	Strongly agree	69	81.2	81.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

My overall job performance is adequate

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	2.4	2.4	2.4
	Neutral	2	2.4	2.4	4.7
	Agree	33	38.8	38.8	43.5
	Strongly agree	48	56.5	56.5	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I fully understand the organization's goals

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Disagree	2	2.4	2.4	3.5
	Neutral	13	15.3	15.3	18.8
	Agree	23	27.1	27.1	45.9
	Strongly agree	46	54.1	54.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I always fulfill my job responsibilities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	2.4	2.4	2.4
	Agree	30	35.3	35.3	37.6
	Strongly agree	53	62.4	62.4	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I am well adjusted to the living conditions of the host country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	4.7	4.7	4.7
	Disagree	6	7.1	7.1	11.8
	Neutral	20	23.5	23.5	35.3
	Agree	33	38.8	38.8	74.1
	Strongly agree	22	25.9	25.9	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I think the healthcare facilities in the host country are accessible

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	4.7	4.7	4.7
	Disagree	2	2.4	2.4	7.1
	Neutral	20	23.5	23.5	30.6
	Agree	35	41.2	41.2	71.8
	Strongly agree	24	28.2	28.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I enjoy local food as it tastes the same as my home food

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	17	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Disagree	20	23.5	23.5	43.5
	Neutral	14	16.5	16.5	60.0
	Agree	24	28.2	28.2	88.2
	Strongly agree	10	11.8	11.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I think the cost of living in the host country is cheaper than at home

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	27	31.8	31.8	31.8
	Disagree	29	34.1	34.1	65.9
	Neutral	14	16.5	16.5	82.4
	Agree	6	7.1	7.1	89.4
	Strongly agree	9	10.6	10.6	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I interact well with country nationals as they are friendly to talk to

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	10	11.8	11.8	11.8
	Disagree	16	18.8	18.8	30.6
	Neutral	22	25.9	25.9	56.5
	Agree	26	30.6	30.6	87.1
	Strongly agree	11	12.9	12.9	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I am satisfied with my current prospect for job advancement in my organization

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	10	11.8	11.8	11.8
	Disagree	21	24.7	24.7	36.5
	Neutral	16	18.8	18.8	55.3
	Agree	32	37.6	37.6	92.9
	Strongly agree	6	7.1	7.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I think I am satisfied with my current salary

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	26	30.6	30.6	30.6
	Disagree	28	32.9	32.9	63.5
	Neutral	16	18.8	18.8	82.4
	Agree	12	14.1	14.1	96.5
	Strongly agree	3	3.5	3.5	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I have too little chance for promotion in my organization

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	9	10.6	10.6	10.6
	Disagree	18	21.2	21.2	31.8
	Neutral	32	37.6	37.6	69.4
	Agree	17	20.0	20.0	89.4
	Strongly agree	9	10.6	10.6	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

The policies and practices in my organization have increased my chances of job retention

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	13	15.3	15.3	15.3
	Disagree	10	11.8	11.8	27.1
	Neutral	38	44.7	44.7	71.8
	Agree	17	20.0	20.0	91.8
	Strongly agree	7	8.2	8.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I think the rewards I receive in my organization are quite fair

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	19	22.4	22.4	22.4
	Disagree	28	32.9	32.9	55.3
	Neutral	19	22.4	22.4	77.6
	Agree	18	21.2	21.2	98.8
	Strongly agree	1	1.2	1.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I receive optimum support from the members of my organization

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Disagree	12	14.1	14.1	20.0
	Neutral	13	15.3	15.3	35.3
	Agree	41	48.2	48.2	83.5
	Strongly agree	14	16.5	16.5	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

My co-workers help with difficult tasks at work without being asked

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	16	18.8	18.8	22.4
	Neutral	25	29.4	29.4	51.8
	Agree	37	43.5	43.5	95.3
	Strongly agree	4	4.7	4.7	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

My co-workers are willing to listen to my personal problems if I approach them

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Disagree	8	9.4	9.4	15.3
	Neutral	19	22.4	22.4	37.6
	Agree	42	49.4	49.4	87.1
	Strongly agree	11	12.9	12.9	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

155

My relationship with my co-workers is not affected by nationality issues

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	11	12.9	12.9	16.5
	Neutral	11	12.9	12.9	29.4
	Agree	37	43.5	43.5	72.9
	Strongly agree	23	27.1	27.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I am satisfied with the way my organization handles new employees

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	8.2	8.2	8.2
	Disagree	18	21.2	21.2	29.4
	Neutral	31	36.5	36.5	65.9
	Agree	22	25.9	25.9	91.8
	Strongly agree	7	8.2	8.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

There are days when I feel I want to go back to my home country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Disagree	5	5.9	5.9	11.8
	Neutral	15	17.6	17.6	29.4
	Agree	37	43.5	43.5	72.9
	Strongly agree	23	27.1	27.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I usually write letters (e-mails) to my family and friends back home/speak to them on phone

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	4.7	4.7	4.7
	Disagree	5	5.9	5.9	10.6
	Neutral	8	9.4	9.4	20.0
	Agree	33	38.8	38.8	58.8
	Strongly agree	35	41.2	41.2	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I always keep myself informed with the current situation of my home country

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	2	2.4	2.4	2.4
	Disagree	2	2.4	2.4	4.7
	Neutral	8	9.4	9.4	14.1
	Agree	28	32.9	32.9	47.1
	Strongly agree	45	52.9	52.9	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I always remember special occasions happening back home

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Disagree	6	7.1	7.1	8.2
	Neutral	14	16.5	16.5	24.7
	Agree	31	36.5	36.5	61.2
	Strongly agree	33	38.8	38.8	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

My country's national holidays are often written in my diary

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	13	15.3	15.3	15.3
	Disagree	24	28.2	28.2	43.5
	Neutral	22	25.9	25.9	69.4
	Agree	14	16.5	16.5	85.9
	Strongly agree	12	14.1	14.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I think I am fluent in speaking English

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Disagree	1	1.2	1.2	2.4
	Neutral	2	2.4	2.4	4.7
	Agree	21	24.7	24.7	29.4
	Strongly agree	60	70.6	70.6	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I am proficient in reading English

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Agree	21	24.7	24.7	25.9
	Strongly agree	63	74.1	74.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

I am able to adequately write English

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Neutral	1	1.2	1.2	2.4
	Agree	19	22.4	22.4	24.7
	Strongly agree	64	75.3	75.3	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

My understanding of English is good

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	Neutral	1	1.2	1.2	2.4
	Agree	20	23.5	23.5	25.9
	Strongly agree	63	74.1	74.1	100.0
	Total	85	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX E. Post Hoc Test

ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION

Duncan

Number of years in the organisation	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
		2	1
10+ years	14	3.0357	
4-6 years	19	3.3816	3.3816
0-3 years	44		3.7159
7-9 years	8		3.7813
Sig.		.275	.236

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a . Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 14.717.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used.

HOMESICKNESS

Duncan

Job Category	N	Subset for alpha = .05
	1	1
Professor	17	3.8676
Research only	6	4.0000
Senior lecture	11	4.0227
Lecturer	44	4.0682
Tutor	7	4.5357
Sig.		.092

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 10.374.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used.

LANGUAGE

Duncan

| Age | N | Subset for alpha = .05 |
		2	1
20-29 years	4	4.0000	
above 60 years	4	4.2500	4.2500
50-59 years	15	4.6000	4.6000
30-39 years	27		4.7500
40-49 years	35		4.7929
Sig.		.056	.096

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 7.908.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used.

LANGUAGE

Duncan

| Origin | N | Subset for alpha = .05 |
		1
Others	19	4.5000
African(SADCC)	36	4.7222
African (Non SADC)	30	4.7500
Sig.		.160

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 26.375.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used.