CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE
This chapter reviews the literatures related to the condition of migrants. The review of literature consists of a broad categorisation of ethnographic documentation of expatriates in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and in other Gulf countries. It also includes discourses on their working conditions, wages and other economic and social aspects. The chapter begins with the presentation of the critical overview of the literature on process of expatriation to UAE and then follows description and analysis of researches undertaken on socio-economic conditions and challenges faced by expatriates including those related to working conditions and wages.

**Expatriation process**

Expatriation process involves a number of steps which have been cumbersome experience for expatriates. The process of expatriation has two sides to study owing to the involvement of the process in home country and the process in the host country. Most of the literatures available for such studies involve analysis of the issues in the country where expatriates are working. Little emphasis has been given on the process of expatriation in home country. In various researches, it is found that the expatriates experience changes in contracts and eventually discrimination at workplace (Khalaf and Alkobaisi, 1999 and Zachariah *et al.*, 2002). In addition, some earlier studies have found the fact that employers in Gulf countries are practising discriminatory approach towards expatriates (Jureidini, 2003).

On account of process of expatriation, Suter (2005) gives an account of the problems associated with expatriation process in home countries which in turn impacts the working conditions of the expatriates in the country where they are working. The study was conducted for Dubai and several good reasons are also highlighted behind choosing Dubai as the destination for conducting field research. The research is based on primary research in Dubai and also some part of the interview was conducted in Sharjah. The study highlights that only few respondents have chosen the country of their migration on their own will and interest. Most of the respondents have expatriated to a certain country owing to pressures or decisions made by their family and other acquaintances. In some cases, the recruitment agents in the home country also influenced their decision to migrate to a particular country.
In fact, this is also one of the key characteristics of the expatriation process from the Indian sub-continent to the UAE. In fact, most of the migrant workers from India to UAE are affected by the decisions of their family members and relatives working in the UAE. However, the study also points out to the core issue that the expatriates are also forced to migrate to countries where agents are involved in working with employers.

Sasidharan (2008) has studied the process of expatriation in detail while analysing their working conditions in various working camps. He found that most of the workers who migrated from India to UAE are working in camps. But an important aspect is his analysis of the process of expatriation. The paper argues that most of the expatriates come across so many recruitment agents, visa agents and middlemen in the home country that he gets confused as to who the main agent is through whom the application is being processed. This paper largely concentrates on the working condition of labourers in UAE and the issues involved in their living conditions. The paper, however, does not highlight the technical and systematic flaws in recruitment process of expatriates in home country.

In case of process of expatriation in the host (labour-receiving) countries such as UAE and Saudi Arabia, different process is involved depending upon the type of labour. A widely known process for contract unskilled and semi-skilled labour such as drivers is carried out through Kafala System or ‘Kafeel’, who are the local sponsors. Rhys (2008) has accounted for these aspects of expatriation. A large number of contract workers mostly unskilled labourers are employed in sectors such as construction, municipality, industrial cleaning firm, agriculture, livestock, building maintenance, road construction. These workers live in urban centers with several of them sharing a room. The contract workers like maid or domestic help usually live with the sponsor’s family. The contract workers work on a salary which starts from UAE Dirhams (AED) 600 and can go up to few thousand AED.

Zacharia et al. (2012), concludes in his report that Kerala receives an enormous amount of money from abroad as workers in the form of remittances as the extent of emigration is high. The foremost economic benefits that the state receives are annual remittances which are huge, but they have to be balanced with the huge loss to the
state in the matter of human resources and mentions acute scarcity of qualified workers in state due to migration.

Srivastava (2003) mentions that there are various problems faced by the migrant workers but the foremost is to the recruitment violation and the other is working and living conditions in the host countries. At the same time, he also advocates the pre orientation departure programme that is before departure training programme for increasing their adaptability.

**Ethnographic analysis of expatriates in UAE**

While doing ethnographic analysis of expatriates, it becomes important to take into account the comparative analysis of Diaspora from various corners of the world. UAE is one of the important middle-income countries attracting expatriates from all across the world particularly from the Indian sub-continent and some countries of Southeast Asia. During the pre-oil days, the local population in the Gulf countries was small and lacked technical know-how. Thus, after the oil boom of 1973, these countries had to rely on foreign workers and became dependant on foreign labour. This led to the flow of expatriates from India and other Asian countries to the UAE and the Gulf. The large number to expatriates has also created a challenge of cultural identity as in some countries the local population have become a minority in their own country.

Conway and Cohen (1998) segregated the existing migration discourses into 3 basic categories such as Emigration or Immigration and its interaction in host country, temporary migration without integration return to the labour sending country in the form of guest workers, seasonal workers and contract workers and Diaspora.¹

Khalaf and Alkobaisi (1999) provide an early effort into this analysis. The research taking evidence from UAE, presents an overview of ethnographic documentation of the migrants in the Gulf region. The methodology that the research adopted was of developing case studies of families and individuals to carry out a comparative analysis of Arabs and Asian expatriates. This study used field observations from low-income workers and a few middle-income technicians and described their diverse experiences of living. By developing the cases, the study presents the issues that expatriates are

¹ Diaspora is defined as the formation of ethnic minorities in the host country without cultural or social integration (Conway and Cohen, 1998)
experiencing and trying to cope up with the conditions presented to them in the UAE. The paper concluded that there is an exploitation of the majority of migrant workers in the host countries as in the case of UAE. Also, there are various factors like economic, political, legal and cultural, which create some type of social and cultural insecurity among the expatriates.

Ethnographic documentation also helps to understand the nature of the countries which are actually sending expatriates to the UAE. It facilitates that how countries are performing on account of human capital mobility in this era of rapid industrialization and economic integration.

There is new trend of migration also apart from Emigration/Immigration, temporary migration and Diaspora which was studied by Smith (1999), Goldring (1998, 2002) and Pries (2004). It suggests the movement of migrants back and forth many times during their working life such pattern can be termed as transmigration.

Wickramasekera (2002) through the analysis of Asian expatriates classified the nature of countries in terms of labour-sending countries and labour-receiving countries. The classification suggests that Bangladesh, China, Indonesia, Nepal, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Vietnam are labour-sending countries, while India, Malaysia and Indonesia are both labour-receiving and labour-sending countries. Other countries like the countries in the Middle East, Brunei Darussalam, Taiwan, Japan, Singapore, etc. are labour-receiving countries. This dynamics of inter-country movement of human capital has been important for understanding the ethnographic comparisons. However, these two papers did not carry out a comparative analysis of differences in issues faced by expatriates based on their ethnicity. Further, there are demographic issues as well, which need to be considered.

Rhys (2008) argues that the expatriate population in the UAE is complex and heterogeneous. It represents various nationalities. The author argues that UAE has experienced three waves of labour migration, and its demography is unique owing to the impact of several years of international labor migration. By 2009, the number of expatriates in the UAE accounted for 85 per cent of the country’s population.

The ethnographic analysis based on the above literatures suggests that national workers have advantage over the expatriates in most of the sectors. Elamin (2011) also examines the scenario in the same context. The research carried out a work
satisfaction survey. It comprised of a random sample of 82 bank employees and job satisfaction was examined through a Job Descriptive Index. The research also uses the Likert scale analysis. The study revealed that the nationality of the manager played a key role in an employees’ satisfaction related to remuneration, job design, and promotion, etc. Moreover, a higher level of satisfaction was found among the bank managers who were local. The study attributes such a difference on the above mentioned parameters to both public policy and local cultural factors.

Mazrouei (2013) argues that the expatriate managers can face several difficulties due to misunderstanding and tensions because of cultural differences and the challenges is not merely cultural differences, language, technology and leadership styles but it may lead to leaving their assignments before its successful completion.²

Cerimagic et al. (2013) argues that cross-cultural training helps the project manager for preparing for their overseas assignments. Also, it’s found that the inability to adapt frequently is due to a lack of preparation (Deresky, 2002; Hodgetts and Luthans, 2000). It directly indicates that the author supports the need for Cross cultural training. Cerimagic et al. (2013) concludes in their paper that the impact of cultural distance on the CCT of the expatriate’s success is moderately related and the success depends on learning style of the individual expatriate and his retention of information from Cross cultural training, this research was done in the Australian context. Later, Bealer and Bhanugopalan (2014) mentions about implications of cross-culture and comparison of leadership styles in UAE. This study also provides a comparative leadership styles across the USA, Europe and the Middle East in UAE.

Working Conditions and Challenges for Expatriates

Expatriates face various challenges when they migrate from home country to other countries in search of their livelihoods. These challenges are sometimes very serious for expatriates. The core idea behind my research is to study the socio-economic challenges faced by expatriates at various levels. The challenges faced by expatriates’ influences both policies as well as practice. In policy, it pertains to laws and regulations; while in practice it is related to international human resource management and the cross-cultural contexts.

Khalaf and Alkobaisi (1999) provided the documentary evidence of expatriates from Asian countries particularly from India on the challenges related to the working environment in UAE. For example, the case study number 8 of the paper highlights an incidence about an expatriate from India working in a construction company. The case suggests that how the working conditions and contracts are changed when expatriates actually reach UAE. This again points out to the flaws in the expatriation process in the home country as well, as discussed earlier in this chapter. Moreover, it was seen that the new contract that the first time expatriates received in UAE was written in Arabic, while the contracts signed by the expatriates in their home countries were in English.

Wickramasekera (2002) highlights the changing pattern of human capital mobility in this modern era. The paper examines the trends and issues in Asian labour migration and challenges faced by countries and the trade union movement in protection of migrant workers. It also points out that another observed tendency has been the increasing share of female workers migrating on their own for overseas employment. The bulk of them migrate for low-wage occupations such as household work or domestic help. A sizeable number migrate to the Middle East countries, especially Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and the UAE as well. Women migrants are one of the most vulnerable groups in all countries.

The changes in contracts have also been reported by other studies as well. For example, Jureidini (2003) carried out a research for analysing the trends of migration to countries in the Middle East including oil-rich countries such as UAE. The paper has examined the causes, patterns and cases of discriminatory practices by employers. The paper also presents policy suggestions in this regard. In this paper, a particular attention has been given to analyse the racial discrimination from natives toward Asian workers in the gulf region. Accordingly, the domestic female workers in Lebanon have been considered equivalent to slave as per their conditions and living standards. The paper thus critically focuses on the living condition of domestic workers. The findings of the study suggest that the common practice of employers is withholding the wages of these workers in these countries. For example, in the UAE in 1997, there were some 1,600 complaints from Sri Lankan maids. This pertained to
non-payment, harassment, etc. and the complaint was lodged with the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.³

Furthermore, the ongoing localisation process of human resources in the regions, for instance, Emiratisation in UAE, is also emerging as a challenge for expatriates to some extent. Considering this as one of the evolving and critical issues in the era of globalisation, some studies have also given it a due consideration. Rees et al. (2007) focusses on localisation programmes and presents case studies of expatriates from petroleum sector in the UAE who are affected by such initiatives. The case study findings reveals some complex issues such as management commitment, quantitative evaluation methods, resistance to change and the role of expatriates in implementing Emiratization programmes. The paper suggests how quota system in various sectors has been carried out. For example, the UAE’s banking sector had been set an ambitious 50 per cent Emiratization target by the year 2008. However, this process has been not effective in case of the UAE, which continues to host expatriates in large numbers.

In addition, the paper also highlights the fact that the government has also introduced similar concepts to attract more national workforce. One such policy has been ‘Emiratization and Levy Payroll Fees’. As per the policy, expatriates in UAE need to contribute UAE Dirham (AED) 8.50 per month toward the development of national human resources. This policy envisaged that the contribution will lead to train and develop skills of national human resources and also help them secure jobs in the country in various sectors.

Also, in some cases, employers may have to make a choice between capacity development of a UAE national for employment or paying a levy for employing a fully trained and experienced expatriate. The study findings suggest that there could be far-reaching impact of the localisation programmes on human resource management in the Gulf region. It indicates that such a programme with its emphases on issues such as employment quotas, recruitment and selection, education and training, performance management, etc., are like change management practices in

³ Interestingly, due to a number of measures implemented by the Sri Lankan government, the number of complaints the following year was halved. For example, recruitment was required to be managed only through agents registered with the Foreign Employment Bureau, and employers were forced to register with the Sri Lankan diplomatic mission; Appeared as “Sri Lanka proposes salary protection plan for maids” in Gulf News, 7 February 1999.
strategic human resource management. Thus, a major conclusion of their study is about the extent to which localization policy can drive human resource management practices in the Gulf region.

In case of temporary and contract labourers, a research carried out by Al-Rajhi et al. (2007) suggests that literatures on management and HRM has not been able to address the issue and problems faced by temporary migrants in countries like Libya, KSA and other countries of Gulf region.

They argue that the case of temporary migrants is a key national labour policy issue. Factors like climate conditions and their suitability, and the cultural norms too affect the expatriates. Some may adjust to the host country culture without much effort; while there can be instances when some expatriate can experience the cultural shock.

The overall adjustment is also dependent upon the micro issues like leisure, food, healthcare, etc. The use of technology and types of management style like individual or collective work norms etc. are also some of the work-related factors which affects the cultural adjustment of an expatriate. The paper also outlines the work-related micro-environment which includes performance standards, supervisory controls, job specifications, organisational culture, and human capital standards. These factors if favourable also help the expatriate in adjusting in a cross-cultural environment. The paper argues that in a cross-cultural context, the role of human resources also becomes distinct as policies related to working in a multicultural work place also need to be formulated as part of the human resource policies of organisations.

Further, Harry (2007) outlines crucial issues of employment creation and localization in the countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). The paper argues that the face pace of demographic changes, variations in oil prices, wealth inequality, and the education system are creating major human resource challenges in the GCC countries.

It reveals that the GCC governments have attempted to reduce dependence on expatriates but not build enough capacity to make their local workforce productive. For different member countries of GCC region, the expatriates accounts for 55-90 per cent of the total workforce. The paper also argues that the International Labour Organization (ILO) is already taking a great deal of interest in the employment practices in the region. It reveals that the multilateral organisations like the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and ILO expects the governments of the GCC countries
including the UAE to be regulators, so that internationally agreed norms like those related to ILO conventions etc. can be ratified and implemented by the respective governments.

In continuation of the same, it is also pertinent to know of the issues relevant to migrant worker’s rights. Keane and McGeehan (2008) discussed about the enforcing migrant workers’ rights in the UAE. Their paper analyses the failure to protect migrant workers’ rights in the UAE from a domestic and an international perspective. The paper mentions about the weak domestic laws and the poor enforcement mechanisms as well. Furthermore, the paper argues that the UAE’s exploitation of the relative economic weakness of its South Asian neighbours reflects a bonded labour type approach for migrant workers. This research calls for an international attention aimed toward improving the situation in working conditions of the labourers in the UAE. An overview of the UAE’s labour system, enforcement of labour law, and health and safety issues, has also been provided in the paper. In fact, the labour law system currently in operation in the UAE dates back to 1980. The Federal Law No. 8 for 1980 on Regulation of Labour Relations governs the relationship between the state, the employer and migrant workers. The government is however keen to implement a new labour regime. The current labour law in the country is largely in favour of the employer.

**Emiratisation, labour market and the policy aspects**

Rees et al. (2007) focused on ‘Emiratisation’ as a strategic HRM change and mentions that it is designed to encourage employment of the nationals through Nationalization. The paper argues that the weakness in international HRM literature has implications for international theory and with in the Middle East. The paper also presents a case study of Emiratization in practice is presented with a view to identify and exploration of issues surrounding the implementation and evaluation of Emiratization programmes initiatives in the organisations. The findings of the paper presents the complexities of management commitment, quantitative evaluation methods, resistance to change and the role of expatriates in implementing Emiratization programmes. Some implications of Emiratisation programmes has also been presented as emotional perspective on nationalization; resistance to nationalization within organizations; issues in designing
Emiratization programmes; and the role of expatriates as key stakeholders in nationalization programmes.

The author presents Emiratization as best practice and mentioned that 50% Emiratization was target for the banking sector till 2008. In some cases, employers are asked to make a choice between investing in the recruitment and development of a UAE national employee or paying a cost for employing a fully trained and experienced expatriate. The government also restricts the number of work permits issued for expatriate labour. The author presents one of the main conclusions that the UAE are influenced by centrally driven nationalization agendas. The study highlights the need to establish better links between international HRM research on nationalization and current employment practices.

Further, on the issue of policy aspect in case of temporary migrant workers, Al-Rajhi et al. (2007) argues that the case of temporary migrant workers is a key national labour policy issue. The authors argue that in a cross-cultural scenario, human resource has to perform a different role for informing and formulating HR policies and procedures. The paper presents a model that is segmented into proactive provisions and reactive provisions. The paper also presents the HR policies for training and exposure to cultural aspects of life and work which can be imparted actively in order to facilitate adjustment.

Further, a study by Tahir and Ismail (2007) examines challenges faced by the expatriates and adjustments made to cope it. The in-depth interviews were conducted with 20 male and female expatriates working in various firms and institutions in Malaysia. The study highlights the psychological, socio-cultural and work challenges. A qualitative study has been done to explore the experiences in terms of challenges and adjustments of expatriates for the context of cross-cultural setting. The focus of phenomenological study is upon the “essence or structure” of an experience. The research focuses on peoples’ perceptions about working in this country, the challenges encountered and adjustments made either in work or non-work domains, previous experiences in other countries, tolerance about locals and establishment of support system in organisation has also been considered. The recommendations presented in the paper are about providing strong cross-cultural training program in every organization that employs expatriates as among their employees extending about
Malaysian culture in general. Facilitation of Malaysians as well as home-country representatives, promoting research on cross cultural management and awareness programme and minimising miscommunication during interactions between Malaysians and foreigners.

The labour camps have also been part of discourses on migration and expatriate management practices in UAE. Sasidharan (2008) mentions that more than a million Indians work in the UAE and a third of them live in worker camps. The paper discusses the whole process of expatriation and how to improve living condition of the labour camps in Dubai and Sharjah. The author finds the labour camps congested, with hardly any space to move or keep the inmates belongings. The researcher could always find long queues behind any common amenities. The paper criticises the hygiene at labour camps by mentioning 20 to 25 people have to share a toilet and questioned on recreational activities.

A major chunk of migration from India to the UAE happens from Kerala. This is also reflected in relevant literatures on the theme. Venier (2008) mentions that UAE is the favourite destination for Keralites among all six GCC countries. In 1970s and 1980s, India became the first place of emigration with 40-50% of the migrants working in the GCC countries. The second wave represented stagnation relatively but at that time Saudi Arabia became the first destination for Keralites. The pattern of migration has been mentioned as a wave of migration in this paper and the first migration wave was identified as 1973-1974 after the oil price hike. The Gulf country then focussed on economic development, industrialisation, and infrastructure development and due to the shortage of manpower, the labour market attracted a huge number of labours.

The paper also cites that Asian workers were more submissive and had lower wages. The second wave of migration was identified as in the beginning of 90s and due to the Arab conflict recruitment from South East and East Asia declined and south Asian’s increased due to big difference in wages and living condition. In 1993, the number of Keralites were 6,00,000 and it increased drastically to 1.3 million in 1998 and it was around 93% of the total migration from Kerala (this data does not include Kerala migrants to the Kuwait).

GCC countries includes, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Kuwait, Qatar, UAE and Bahrain
On the policy aspects, Dito (2008) argues that as part of the United Nations Expert Group Meeting on International Migration and Development in Asia and the Pacific, argues that the labour migrations policies in the GCC are facing critical choices especially in the recent years.

The author also argues about two major important concerns of the GCC as balancing the demographic imbalances and unemployed. It also mentions reasons for failure of various policies as a general consensus that these policies did not fully achieve what it intended to do. Both the share of non-nationals and the unemployment among the nationals continue to rise. The paper alarms the situation about urgent reformation for the scope of migrant workers management in the GCC. The paper also discusses UN Conventions and ILO convention No. 150 and recommendation No. 158 in this context of labour market governance.

The paper concludes that the complexities of problems are increasing at a higher speed than the efforts attempting to solve them. The global forces are affecting the labour market outcome and the role of state interventions is not easy now. The paper suggests that, if managed well expatriates can still play a decisive role in the development agenda of both the receiving as well sending countries. The GCC countries need to address both the demand as well the supply side of labour effectively and efficiently.

The paper also provides adequate institutional framework that relies on tripartite and social dialogue, which can address critical problems currently prevailing in the labour market especially decent work deficit. The GCC can contribute toward making its region a model for realizing decent work agenda in Asia and the world. Also Diversification of the economy should go hand in hand with making the labour market a strong leverage to development not a threat to it.

Later, Shah (2008) gave a general view of labour market of GCC. It also touches the demography of the country and mentions about fairly high population growth rates in GCC and the number of births per woman is generally more than 4 in case of most countries.

The paper mentions that the general policy aimed at curtailing the number of foreign workers has been present for several years. This general policy started getting translated into action and implementation through various means during the mid
1990s. The paper highlights the major policies and discusses some of the social and economic factors that may facilitate or hinder their effective implementation. The Gulf countries would like to reduce the number of expatriate workers in their population, and have expressed these attitudes in response to the UN surveys eliciting opinions on the level of immigration and emigration. Except Bahrain all the GCC countries expresses their desire to lower the number of expatriates. The paper presents some fundamental difficulties in implementing policies as the lucrative nature of visa trading for the local sponsors, along with a ready and eager market of workers willing to buy such visas; reluctance of the locals towards jobs that preference among nationals for public sector jobs, impossibility of the employer to fire inefficient national workers in the government sector, resulting in poor productivity and over-employment of nationals. The author mentions that it is very difficult to make any firm conclusions about the rate at which GCC governments will be able to replace migrant workers with indigenous ones and mentions it as a difficult task.

In a United Nations publication, Martin (2008) argues that Asia, home to 60% of the world’s workers, is unusual in dealing with international labour migration in three major respects. One, there is a sense inside and outside the region that Asia is different because of economic success, and that they can achieve another success in managing international labour migration for three major goals, viz. protecting migrants and local workers, enhancing cooperation between labour-sending and receiving countries, and promoting development in labour-sending countries. Two, there is more diversity in labour migration policies than in economic policies. For e.g; Singapore welcomes professionals from many countries to settle while rotating less-skilled workers in and out of the country. Japan’s lack of dependence on migrants spectrum, allowing but not recruiting foreign professionals and relying on ethnic Japanese from Latin America and trainees, students, and unauthorized workers for the less-skilled foreign workers. The GCC is a third case, relying on migrants for over 90% of private-sector workers. There is a striking contrast between the similar export-led economic policies and the dissimilar labour migration policies. Three, it appears to be convergence in labour-sending country policies. Various labour-sending governments have announced plans to send more workers abroad, to send more skilled workers as migrants, and to diversify away from traditional Middle Eastern destinations. The paper also presents the reasons for migration as economic and non-
economic and relates it with plus and minus battery poles where nothing happens until a connection is established between them. Also, the author identifies role of returned migrant who provide information and facilitate migration, recruiters who encourage migrants to go abroad, moneylenders for providing funds and travel and transport firms that move workers.

Achoui (2009) in the study entitled ‘Human resource development in Gulf countries: an analysis of the trends and challenges facing Saudi Arabia’ highlights the challenges of human capital development in the Gulf Arab countries in general and in Saudi Arabia in particular. The identified challenges are high dependence on oil and the petrochemical industry; high dependence on foreign labour; a low rate of female participation in employment; and a weak link between educational system output and the needs of the economic sectors, especially those of the private sector, which requires skilled and professional labour.

The paper identifies the need to develop the skills required in today’s labour market where the economy is increasingly driven by competition, information and knowledge, particularly in scientific and technical areas. The report articulates the rapid growth of the secondary stage graduates is a major challenge with serious economic and social implications. The paper suggests the development of effective policies and procedures to absorb these graduates in higher education institutions and/or productive employment enterprises. Secondly the paper also identifies a need to expand the range of technical education institutions and facilities in order to provide an adequate supply of skilled and productive manpower, other than higher education graduates. The report interestingly also noted about two-thirds of all higher education students graduate are in humanities and other fields that do not match labour market requirements in a current scenario. This paper also highlights the Saudi Arab’s issues of mismatch of the skill set developed and the required skill in the country and finds it an important reason for unemployment of the young graduates. The study concludes that GCC countries face several challenges at the macro and the micro levels such as high dependence on a few natural resources such as oil and gas; high dependence on expatriates; inadequate educational systems; and low female participation in the labour force. The paper mentions the role of the private sector in HRD as insignificant as compared to Singapore and South Korea. It also highlights the need of reformation in the field of education.
The issue of cross-cultural adaptation is also significant in discourses. Siljanen and La¨msa (2009) describes an exploratory research has developed a typology showing the diversity of expatriation from the viewpoint of cross-cultural adaptation. And the research focuses on neglected research for not-for-profit organizations. The author conducted 30 in-depth interviews in an Israeli-Palestinian context for the study and defines four types of expatriates: global careerists; balanced experts; idealizers; and drifters. The study indicates that cross-cultural adaptation don’t require involvement or communication with the host society, as it is traditionally been assumed. Expatriate focuses on career advancement; local host community; and ideology. The results suggest that the definition of expatriation needs to be expanded to cover the heterogeneity of expatriates. This paper is based on the observation that the nature of expatriation is currently undergoing significant changes. The author presents narratives on how expatriates themselves tell about their experiences, thereby allowing for a richer understanding of the topic. The narrative practices of the expatriates construct the meanings they attach to cross-cultural adaptation.

The author categorised type expatriates based on their stories as ‘calculated’; ‘balanced’; or ‘diffused’. Calculated life management meant that interviewees regarded their personal career advancement as very important and that their former and present work is planned, even calculated career track. Balanced life management did not involve as much desire towards career advancement as calculated life management but though work and personal development also is found very important for interviewees in this alternative. Diffused life management was characterized by properties that indicate the interviewees’ identity and personal evaluation of their selfhood reflected some degree of diffusion. Based on the present and future work the expatriates are further categorised. The analysis produced a typology of six categories of expatriation and concentrates on the four types found in this study and investigated them in more detail from the standpoint of cross-cultural adaptation. Findings suggest that the expatriates’ international careers and their personal life management are closely interwoven and key to adjustment, varies among different expatriates. The study finally observes three meaningful focuses in this study – career advancement, local host community and ideology – but others may be found as well.
Mashood et al. (2009) argue that countries in the Middle East region rely heavily on the use of expatriates to underpin their booming economies. It also mentions consequences of the expatriates. The focus of the paper is on the attempts made in this respect by the governments of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Oman and Saudi Arabia. The paper explores the reason for non-hiring of nationals and analyses the success rate of nationalisation. The paper concludes by drawing out the differences and similarities between the nationalization programmes in Oman, the UAE and Saudi Arabia. As such, the paper fills a gap in the existing literature on nationalization programmes in the Gulf region. The Middle East is an under-researched area in HRM literature and it also mentions that some of the research available only refers to the Middle East area rather than to individual countries.

The author mentions the key elements of the Nationalisation programme as the quota system. These quotas are either set for sectors (e.g. banking) or certain positions (e.g. HRM). Besides operating the quota system, all programmes rely heavily on training and development of nationals. The success of the nationalization effort seems debatable. Some sectors, such as banking, seem to have been successful in all 3 countries but others sectors are struggling to achieve the goal paper finds that in some cases, governments are not strictly enforcing the programmes and, if this is really the case, then the effectiveness of the programmes might improve after doing so.

Discourses have also focussed on finding out the trend of migration especially to the Gulf countries. Rahman (2010) identified five phases of migration to Gulf. The first phase in the modern history of migration to the Gulf occurred in the period prior to the 1970s oil boom. In this phase 80 percent of migrant workers were Arabs, mainly from Egypt, Syria, Yemen, and Palestine. The second phase in which migration to the Gulf began to intensify was the period post-1973 oil price hike. In this phase number of Arab migrants, especially from poorer countries such as Egypt and Yemen, increased considerably. The third phase was the later part of the 1970s and the early 1980s, because of developmental projects and social welfare programs, there was a need for large number of migrant workers in this phase the number of Indian workers also increased. The fourth phase began with the decline in oil prices in late 1982 due to which there was lesser increase in migrant workers. And in the fifth phase which began in the 1990s, new migrant workers began to arrive in the Gulf countries, particularly from China and the newly independent states of the former Soviet Union.
and also from India and other Asian countries.\(^5\) The author argues that the Gulf countries often ignore international conventions on the rights of migrant workers. Their labour laws do not meet the standards for the protection of migrants.

Later, studies on women migrants were also undertaken, though not on Indian women migrants. Hutchings \textit{et al.} (2010) argues that research has suggested that there are four key barriers to women undertaking international assignments: corporate resistance; foreigner prejudice; women’s own disinterest; and lack of family and other support mechanisms. This study examines the reason which Arab Middle Eastern women have towards undertaking international assignments. Importance of this research lies in the growing international strategic political and economic importance of many Arab Middle Eastern nations and that many Arab Middle Eastern women are highly educated and would prove a valuable human resource for international organizations. Findings of this paper is based on survey of 97 middle- and senior-level female managers in Bahrain, Egypt, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Qatar and the UAE, seeking to explains the factors which Arab Middle Eastern view as barriers to, or facilitators of, international management opportunities.

The study is significant because it extends research on women and international work to an Arab Middle Eastern context, expands understanding of what constitutes international work by highlighting that the majority of Arab Middle Eastern women’s managerial, international employment and skills development opportunities come via non-government organizations and women’s organizations. This makes their opportunities for international engagement very different from those of Western women who overwhelmingly receive international experience via MNCs; and the paper extends understanding of international work barriers to include an assessment of national cultural and institutional issues.

Also this study focuses on gender as a category of analysis in international business research through advancing current knowledge of women’s perceptions of barriers to, and facilitators of, international management opportunities.

This study complements earlier research but provides an additional dimension in considering women’s own perceptions about cultural barriers to their participating in

\(^5\) It has continued to be so, with more and more Indians moving for work there, especially to the GCC countries. With only 0.4 per cent of the world population, the GCC countries host 13 per cent of the world wide labour migrant population.
international work. The author argues that there is a need for senior and HR managers to implement equal employment opportunity policies which encompass work–life balance programmes such as provision of child care or child-care subsidies and flexitime or tele-working. Organizations also need to provide career development plans for women that recognize the importance placed on child rearing and family responsibilities within the Arab nations. There is a need for role models for women and showcase the achievements of successful women within their organizations to provide impetus to other women to aim for senior positions, as well as communicating clearly all policies and training staff in equal employment opportunity practices.

In the post-WW II era, there have been four main international labour migration patterns – a) international migration as a basic tool for nation building, b) temporary labour migration to the “nation-state” developed countries, c) a total ban on labour migration, and, d) the unique GCC rentier labour migration pattern (Winckler, 2010). The author argues that the increase in both oil prices and production scale on the one hand, and the small national populations on the other has helped GCC to transform in a short duration with oil revenues amounting to 80% of the total governmental revenues. Hence, the political implication of the rentier state was “no taxation and no representation.” In the mid-1980s, when there was end of oil decade, it was believed that foreign workers will stop coming but due to huge investment indigenous workforces grew rapidly In retrospect, however, during the second half of the 1980s and throughout the 1990s, the number of foreign labourers in all of the GCC countries sharply increased, despite the implementation of labour nationalization policies. By 1999, the number of foreign workers in the GCC countries was representing almost 70% of the total GCC workforce and an increase of more than 60% compared to their number in 1985. It is mentioned that majority of the people working in GCC gets less salary below the average salary of national employees. The dual aspect of nationals employed by the public sector and foreign labour predominance in private sector employment remained in force. Moreover, the kafala (sponsorship) system produced a unique situation in which nationals could earn money strictly by virtue of their nationality The paper also mentions the case of UAE as domestic servants represent as much as 5% of the total population and having a domestic servants is a status symbol, in many cases their number is higher than the number of the family members.
The labour force policy has been changed and they are planning to reduce dependency on foreign workers. The paper also presents the two major goals: decreasing unemployment among nationals and economic diversification away from oil production to the greatest extent possible. Although the number of foreign worker was increased to 10.6 million in GCC where as it was 50% less in year 1999.

Further, Colton (2010) argued that over the past three decades there has been much discussion about the impact of labour migration to the Gulf on the countries of origin. However, much less understood is the impact of this labour migration on the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) and their citizens. There has been documentation that the patterns of migration have changed from Arab migrants to Southeast Asians also the dependency on migrant labour consciously increase in some places in the region, as Dubai, as their diversification to service industry is labour intensive. The paper focuses on the impact that labour migration has had on the national labour forces of these countries through the policies that have been adopted as well as practices. The GCC states are among the largest “pull” states for migrants in the world. The author mentions that lot of nationals feels an estrangement in their own labour market due to their mismatched skills and inability to secure work due to the saturation of the public sector and the reluctance of private sector employers to hire them as they are considered less productive in some sectors as compared to South Asia confronting the challenge of how to preserve jobs for their nationals.