

Language Advice Networks: A Form of Social Capital in the Multinational Corporation.

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Declaration

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Abstract

This thesis introduces the emerging phenomenon of Language Advice Networks (LANs) in multilingual, multinational corporations. As an informal network of individuals, a LAN is utilized on a need basis to seek and offer language-related advice, with the common goal of performing efficiently and avoiding more time-consuming traditional translation. Through three separate yet related studies, I introduce the LAN, its structural and relational formation, and the career implications of LAN engagement for individuals. The three studies entail both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Conducted in QatarCo (a pseudonym), the MNC's headquarters is located in Qatar and operates with English as its lingua franca. I accumulated participant observation fieldnotes for 10 consecutive months, conducted 65 one-to-one, semi-structured interviews and two focus groups, and surveyed 107 employees representing four departments.

Study 1 explores how employees with varying degrees of lingua franca fluency deploy their intra-firm social capital to exchange – seek and offer – language-related knowledge, on a need basis. Using a mixed methods approach, I define the LAN, elaborate its properties and dimensions, and distinguish its structure from that of general advice networks. Study 2 extends the structural exposition by examining the relational dimension of LANs. To investigate the individual and dyadic attributes of the *language advisors*, I apply exponential random graph modelling to reveal that the advisory role is predicted by a cosmopolitan mindset: ability to articulate advice in a manner understood by a culturally dissimilar counterpart.

Study 3 uses grounded theory to demonstrate that advising in a LAN entails generalized reciprocity with career implications, including enhanced status, non-financial rewards, financial incentives, and sense of empowerment. The data also indicate that the relationship between LAN engagement and career success can be explained through two mechanisms: establishing a rewarding reputation and enhancing one's intra-firm social capital. I conclude by discussing the thesis's theoretical contributions to the International Business, career, and social capital literature, as well as managerial implications, research limitations, and future research directions.

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My PhD has been an incredible journey of personal and academic development. When I first started it, I had never imagined that the process would be so intense. I learned to manage the challenges associated with research and writing, but also learned about myself as a person. I learned how to be patient; how to set a goal and work toward it; and both how and who to prioritize when personal circumstances intervene.

There are many people I wish to thank for their contributions to my success. First and foremost, I want to thank my supervisor, Dr. Hyun-Jung Lee, for giving me the chance to pursue my research interests here at LSE. Through her supervision, enthusiasm, and ongoing support, she has made invaluable contributions to my learning and development. Her role also extended to my personal development and adjustment to life between home and London. Second, I wish to thank my secondary supervisor, Dr. Milena Tsvetkova, for her contribution to my PhD development and learning process. Despite the short period I have known her, she offered invaluable guidance and taught me that time and deadlines are never an excuse to stop learning new things.

I also wish to extend my gratitude to my family. I thank my mother and father for trusting me, believing in me, and providing the best quality of life, schooling, and travelling, which have inspired me and opened up many opportunities for achievement. I am here now because of them. I'd like to write a few words in Arabic to express my gratitude for all they've done:

لا يوجد في هذا العالم ما هو قوي ودائم مثل حب الأم. غالبًا ما تكون الأم المؤيدك الأول في الحياة ، من اللحظة التي ولدت فيها وكل يوم يلي. أمي هي مثال رائع على الحب الأمومي الحقيقي. قدمت لي الكثير، وتخلت عن سعيها للحصول على التعليم العالي لتربيتي إلى من أصبحت اليوم. أنا إذن نتاج حبها ورعايتها وتربيتها والتخلي عن أحلام لم تستطع ملاحقتها ولذلك أود أن أهدي هذه الدكتوراه لها ؛ من أهم إنجازاتي في حياتي حتى الآن ، القليل في حقها معي

...لأبي ، مصدر إلهامي
...لأمي ، مصدر تحفيزي

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Purpose and Background

The multinational corporation (MNC) operates across national, cultural, and linguistic boundaries. Although these boundaries may provide key resources to the organization, such as different languages, knowledge, and labor force, they can also create cultural and linguistic fragmentations (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1999; Westney, 2001). Consequently, internal communication in MNCs requires a lingua franca strategy, operating at the interface of the multilingual profile of the workforce (Angouri, 2013; Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Janssens & Steyaert, 2014). The MNC lingua franca is thus an administrative managerial tool (Sørensen & Whitta-Jacobsen, 2005), to provide a common ground for internal communication and accommodate market trends.

Research attention to language in the International Business (IB) literature has intensified over the past two decades, examining many facets. Much of the work focuses on lingua franca fluency and its implications for social inclusion at group level, communication at unit level, and power and control in headquarter-subsidary relationships at organizational level. At individual level, language has been proven to impact individual cognition and identity (Bordia & Bordia, 2015; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Luring, 2008; Reiche, Harzing, & Pudelko, 2015; Tenzer, Pudelko, & Harzing, 2014), as well as power, status, and inclusion in the organization (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000; Hinds, Neeley, & Cramton, 2014; Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993; Minbaeva, Pedersen, Björkman, Fey, & Park, 2003; Neeley, 2013; Reiche, Harzing, & Pudelko, 2015; Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017). Language has also been proven to be a career capital in MNCs (Itani, Järlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016; Zander, Mockaitis, & Harzing, 2011).

One research direction in this field is the relationship between lingua franca fluency and career capital. The current IB literature has investigated this relationship through many studies (e.g., Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016; Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Luring & Klitmøller, 2014; Neeley, 2013; Tenzer, Pudenko, & Harzing, 2014; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005). Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari (2006) highlight the powerful role of languages in MNCs. Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari (2016) studied the role of language competence in individuals' career mobility in a Finnish MNC, finding that careers are more internationalized when language competence is high. In a similar vein, Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari (2016) conducted research in a Russian MNC; they contend that language has a glass ceiling effect, and explore the role of lingua franca fluency in vertical/horizontal and internal/external career mobility. Although important contributions have been made by these studies, further investigation is needed into the relationship between lingua franca fluency and individual career success in MNCs.

In this thesis, I introduce the concept of the *Language Advice Network (LAN)*, through which individuals offer and share language-related knowledge on a need basis. The LAN is a distinct form of informal, work-related network, where individual employees with *low* and *high* levels of lingua franca fluency voluntarily activate their intra-firm social capital to *seek* and *offer* language-related advice. In an attempt to efficiently perform the task at hand, employees seek to benefit from the mass of information and knowledge embedded in the firm's human capital (Horton, Millo, & Serafeim, 2012; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013). By proactively offering language-related advice to less fluent individuals, language advisors cross cultural and linguistic boundaries within the MNC to share their knowledge with language-advice seekers. I propose the LAN as a new phenomenon that can

further our understanding of the relationship between lingua franca fluency and individual career success in multilingual MNCs.

Most IB literature concerning language considers the Nordic, Anglo, continental-European, and Asian contexts (Harzing & Pudelko, 2013; Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017). These contexts commonly exhibit linguistic fragmentations caused by two dominant language clusters comprising most the workforce (e.g., Angouri, 2013; Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1999; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005). These case studies have immensely contributed to the language research stream, building understanding of the importance of languages' role in MNCs; however, there remains a need to expand this research into different contexts.

The research setting for this thesis is the headquarters of a Qatari MNC. Qatar represents a unique and under-researched context in terms of its highly diverse population demography and the minority status of nationals (IMF, 2018). With Nationals a numerical minority in their own land, Qataris embrace global culture in their multilingual educational systems, with English as their official business language across the private and public sectors, and liberal immigration and expatriation laws. With a National to foreigner ratio of 1:20 (IMF, 2018), the local workforce is inevitably diverse and every organization is multilingual and multicultural in composition. Consequently, the context of Qatar may provide a new perspective in the field of language in IB. I dedicate the next chapter, *Chapter 2*, to discuss the research context in detail.

This is the first research to examine the role of language in a Middle East-headquartered MNC. The LAN is an interesting phenomenon in multilingual organizations, and may

provide career capital for individuals who engage as LAN advisors. At a broader level, language asymmetry creates two structural groups: language-advice seekers and language advisors. On close examination, it becomes evident that language asymmetry leads to people connecting, thus creating an additional layer of relationships. In other networks, relationships are usually built based on similarities, such as gender, personality, or culture. However, the LAN is a unique network layer based on language differences. Ironically, in a LAN, differences bring individuals together, rather than separating them. The faultlines thus become the basis of their connections. The remainder of this thesis addresses three primary questions: (1) *What* is a LAN, and *Where* and *When* does it form, (2) *Who* are the advisors, (3) *Why* do they engage and *how* does it impact their careers in the MNC?

1.2 Intended Contributions

In the course of collecting data, however, I was fascinated by the extent to which help in language encompasses multiple roles, a new layer of relationship among advisees and advisors, and extra-role or prosocial behavior on the advisors' part. I viewed these interactions as a theoretically and practically interesting phenomenon, which I can shed light on in my research. Identifying LAN as a phenomenon enables me to venture beyond existing theories. Thus, this thesis aims to contribute to the existing literature in four ways. First, it expands the language stream of IB research by examining the relationship between language and career success from a nuanced perspective. The existing literature has demonstrated a positive relationship between lingua franca fluency and career mobility and success (e.g., Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016). I will introduce the lingua franca advisory role in a LAN as a form of prosocial behavior resulting in individual career success in the MNC.

Second, this thesis broadens the language stream of research on MNCs to unexplored contexts. The current literature primarily focuses on the Nordic, Anglo, continental-European, and Asian clusters (Harzing & Pudelko, 2013; Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017), largely neglecting the Middle Eastern context. The aim here is not to duplicate existing studies in a new context but, rather, to explore how a new context, with different cultural and linguistic composition, contributes to the mainstream findings in the literature. Literature discussing the role of language in MNCs has mainly focused on the UK, the USA, Finland, Sweden, Germany, Japan, and China (Tenzer & Harzing, 2017), all of which vastly differ from the one I present in this research. In those prior research settings, the composition of the workforce emphasizes the dominance of local language, e.g., Kone Elevators (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1999), Siemens (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006), and the merger between the Finnish Merita and the Swedish Nordbanken (Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005). By contrast, the under-researched context of Qatar provides a nuanced perspective in terms of highly diverse population demography and a minority status for nationals. Hence, I aim to investigate how this new context may influence the cultural and language dynamics in an MNC.

Third, this research aims to contribute to the career literature by reinforcing the role of language in career success in MNCs. I will explore the impact of lingua franca fluency on the internal and external dimensions of career success, rather than career mobility as in existing studies (e.g., Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016). Thus, I reinforce the positive relationship between lingua franca fluency and individuals' careers by incorporating employees' objective and subjective view of their career success.

Finally, this research contributes to literature on knowledge sharing in social networks by adding the LAN, as a new network form, to existing networks in the MNC setting. It thus broadens current research on the types of informal networks in MNCs (Nonino, 2013) by introducing a niche form of advice network that arises in multilingual settings. Although language has been recognized as an issue in knowledge sharing among networks (Barner-Rasmussen, Ehrnrooth, Koveshnikov, & Mäkelä, 2014; Brannen, Piekkari & Tietze, 2014; Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; Klitmoller & Luring, 2013), this study provides a new perspective by focusing on language as the exchanged content, rather than the communication tool, in knowledge exchange.

1.3 Personal Motivation for the Thesis

My home country of Qatar is a geographically small nation on the Arabian Gulf coast. Although the local culture is conservative and traditional, Qataris are a minority within a multicultural, diverse population. As a Qatari myself, I experience the combination of the local ethos and global outlook at home. Living in a harmonious composition of cultures and languages, I feel that the literature is limited in portraying multiculturalism and multilingualism as a fragmentation of society.

I developed a cosmopolitan identity through exposure to a myriad of cultures in my social circles, constant traveling, a Western education, and speaking multiple languages fluently. One dilemma I repeatedly face is which language to use and when. I find myself speaking Arabic to enhance my social status in the local sphere; speaking fluent English to access prestigious education and progress in my career; and speaking French to reveal my global identity and love for other cultures. Thus, my background and identity drive my research

interest in the role of language in different realms; triggering the focus of my PhD thesis: the role of lingua franca fluency in MNC career success.

My personal experiences allow me to pursue research in multicultural contexts and individuals through a personal lens, and to share my research with the global academic community. Specifically, I want to share how a harmonious multicultural society change the cultural faultlines and fragmentation in an MNC, how language fluency allows one to span social and cultural boundaries, and whether fluency in a foreign language (e.g., English) facilitate career success in a domestic MNC? I dedicate my PhD research and unfolding academic career to bridging between Qatar, the broader Middle East region, and the rest of the world, advancing new perspectives on management styles, cultural and language implications, and changing dynamics in new contexts.

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

The remainder of this thesis comprises seven chapters. Chapter 2 details the research context of the study. Chapter 3 reviews relevant prior studies to provide a holistic picture of existing literature, and proposes a theoretical model for this research. Chapter 4 discusses in-depth the research designs of the three empirical studies presented in Chapters 5, 6, and 7. In Chapter 4, I investigate how individuals' lingua franca fluency and intra-firm social capital generate LANs. Specifically, I investigate the nature of the LAN and how it differs from other types of informal networks in the MNC. In Chapter 6, I examine individual and dyadic factors related to language advisors in a LAN. I aim to explore whether, beyond lingua franca fluency, there are other significant attributes that explain language advisory role in LAN. In Chapter 7, I extend the research to investigate the impact of LAN advisory role on individual career success. Specifically, I examine why advisors engage and how they benefit. I conclude the

thesis in Chapter 8, which summarizes and reflects on the overall findings of my PhD research, its main contributions to the literature, its practical implications, its limitations, and future research directions.

Chapter 2: An overview:

The Qatari Context & Case Company

Qatar is portrayed as a tiny peninsula in the Arabian Gulf and a small country in the Middle East and the world. It has been recently widely discussed in the media in relation to the imposed political and economic blockade in 2017, the controversial debate of hosting the FIFA world cup 2022, due to the summer heat that skyrockets to 50 degrees Celsius and lack of infrastructure. While many are led to believe that Qatar is a desert-dominated landscape, the capital city of Doha is a glittering façade of international companies of high-end hotels, shopping malls, renewable energy-generated stadiums, artificial islands and smart cities. Uprising since its independence in 1971 from the British Protectorate, the source of wealth in Qatar has been the abundant resources of oil and natural gas that has economically advanced the nation, outpacing developed countries of the world.

Qatar represents a unique and under-researched context in terms of its highly diverse population demography and the minority status of its Nationals (IMF, 2018). With Nationals as a numerical minority in their own land, Qataris embrace global culture in their multilingual educational systems, with English as their official business language across the private and public sectors, and liberal immigration and expatriation laws. A striking feature of its workforce characteristics is the diverse multilingual and multicultural composition, with a National to non-National ratio of 1:20 (IMF, 2018).

My research is based in Qatar, an emerging commercial hub in a region that has absent in prominent IB research. In this chapter, I aim to provide an economic and social profile of the country, discuss the workforce characteristics, the choice of business language. Additionally,

I present the MNC profile in which I conduct my research in, outline of what the context is a case, and review my positionality as a local researcher in the field.

2.1 Qatar through a Socio-economic Lens

Qatar has a short history as an independent state, gaining its sovereignty in 1971 (The Emiri Diwan, 2020). Nevertheless, the extent of change and development it has undergone is drastic (Constant, Sayre, & Abdelkader, 2015; Gray, 2013; Peterson, 2006). It enjoys increasing name recognition in widening circles in the West, in large part because of its long history of oil production and rapidly expanding natural gas projects (Peterson, 2006). Today, Qatar has the largest natural gas reserves in the world (IMF, 2018).

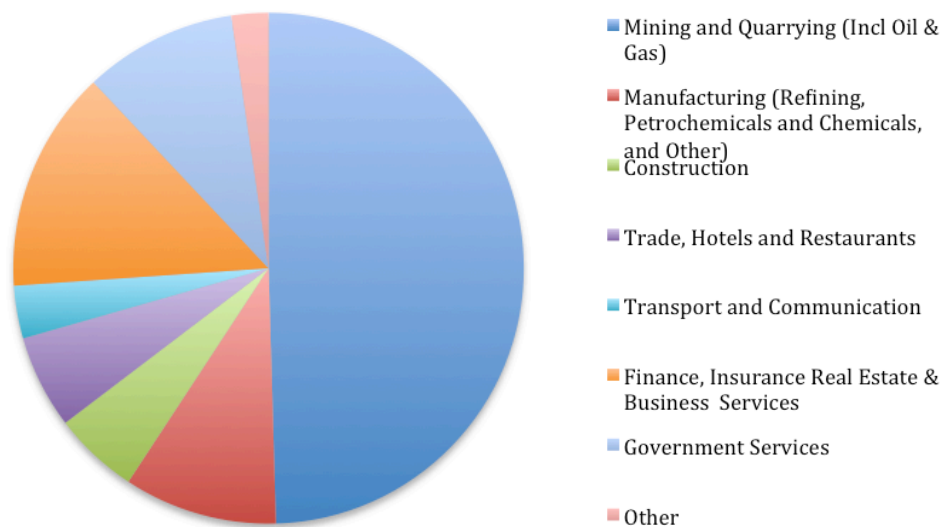


Figure 2.1 Contribution to GNP by Main Activities (% GNP as of 4th quarter of 2018)

In determining the size of the state, geographical area may not be an indicative measure and other factors may be more informative measures, used by economic scholars. In terms of land and population, Qatar is considerably small, if not labeled as a “micro-state” (Peterson, 2006). The total population of Qatar amounts to 2.74 million, with Nationals comprising only

12% of the country's population as of June 2019 (Hukoomi, 2020). It is however large in its GNP, estimated at a little over USD 187.6 billion in 2018, largely from its oil and natural gas production (see Figure 2.1). Qatar's GDP per capital is estimated to be USD 68,794, ranking the highest in the world (IMF, 2018). In comparison to larger neighboring countries, also known for their vast economic growth and commercial activity in the MENA and the world, Qatar yet exceeds The United Arab Emirates and Saudi Arabia in GDP per capita, as portrayed in Figure 2.2.

In an attempt to diversity its source of wealth, Qatar invests heavily in the international markets. For example, the Qatari Investment Authority (QIA) owns or has major stakes in many international firms. In the UK only, they invest in the supermarket chain Sainsbury's, the London Stock Exchange, Barclay's Bank, London's famous department store Harrods, Chelsea Barracks, to name a few (QIA, 2016). Although Qatar's diversification strategy has been somewhat successful, little economic power has shifted from the state to the private sector, and therefore, the economy remains energy-centered (Gray, 2013).

With exceptional measures that portray the country's abundant wealth and vast economic growth and production, the minimum wage, a controversial on-going debate among the media and policy makers, is set as low as USD 200 a month for low-skilled labor workers (Hukoomi, 2020). This strikingly low figure, especially relative to the country's GDP per capita, has also received bad press from human rights activists, in the debate of the World Cup 2020 preparations, claiming that the developments of Qatar's modernity and infrastructure comes at the cost of low paid migrant workers and calling the working condition "modern slavery" (e.g. Pattisson, 2013). This is principally conflicting with the Qatar National Vision 2030, a strategic plan the country has been following since its establishment in 2008.

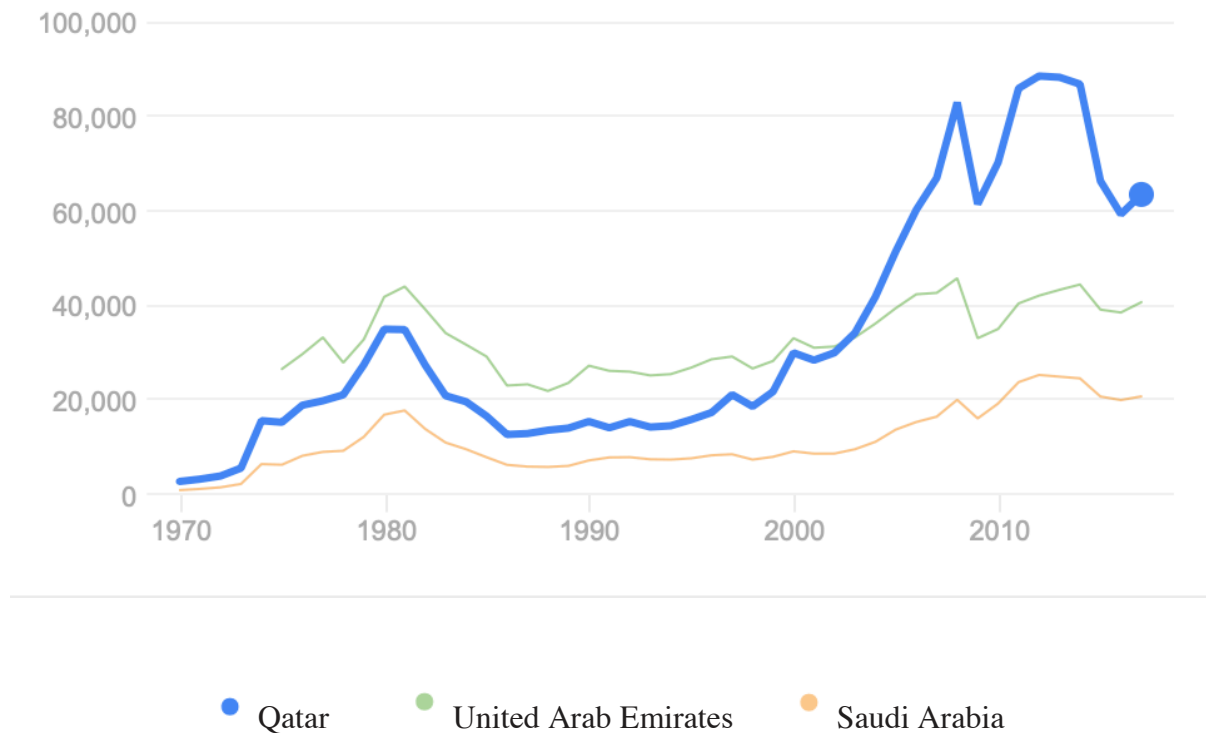


Figure 2.2 *Qatar's GDP per Capita in USD in comparison to Neighboring Countries (Data retrieved on January 5, 2020 from World Bank Organization)*

Qatar's National Vision 2030 was introduced in 2008 by the ruler and his political supporters to transform Qatar into a knowledge-based society: *As Qatar's economy diversifies more from its reliance on gas and oil, success will increasingly depend on the ability to compete in a global knowledge economy. Educating and training Qataris to their full potential will be critical to continuing progress* (Hukoomi, 2020). To achieve this transformation, five strategic objectives are operationalized throughout the country's sectors: (1) Develop human capital, (2) Drive innovation to advance economic diversification, (3) Contribute towards national priorities, (4) Foster a progressive and engaged society appreciative of its heritage, and (5) Promote productive change regionally and internationally. These objectives are reviewed and updated periodically. All these initiatives have one common core value, that is to of all these invest in the country's people.

As of 2018, Qatar's Human development Index (HDI) value is calculated to 0.85, representing a very high development, according to the United Nations Development Program's latest report (2018). The HDI is an average measure of basic human development achievements in a country through assessing three basic dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life (population's life expectancy), access to knowledge (the mean and expected years of schooling) and a decent standard of living (measured by the Gross National Income) (Ul Haq, 1989; UNDP, 2018).

The government largely invests in the education system, from an early stage to higher educational levels. Aside from free education for the Nationals and non-Nationals in public schools, the government also encourages the Nationals to seek international education by providing financial aid that goes up to five thousand British Pounds per child per annum (Ministry of Education & Higher Education, 2016). The aim of the financial aid is to enrich and broaden the knowledge transfer, bringing back to the country vast knowledge and information from abroad. In assessing educational attainment, only 74% of female and 66% of male Qatari youth are educated at least up to a high school degree (UNDP, 2018), despite the government's initiatives – student stipend, establishing World-class universities for easier access to Western education. However, the lack of motivation may largely be due to the family's financial security and well-compensated employment opportunities for Nationals.

To maintain social welfare of its citizens ensuring opportunities for Nationals in the labor market, in 2000, the government has implemented a strategic plan. The Qatarization Strategy enforces quotas requiring fifty percent participation of Nationals in the oil and gas sector and twenty percent participation in all private and semi-private entities (Constant, Sayre, & Abdelkader, 2015). Qatarization, defined "as the identification and development of quality, competent Qatari males and females to assume permanent positions" is to boost the share of

Qataris in the labor market with a particular focus on the private sector (Al Horr, 2011). In a "developmental state", Qatar's government exercises considerable influence on employment practices through its direct intervention in the labor market (See Figure 2.3).

Labor Law No. 14: Targeting private sector and mixed*

Article 23 indicates that a non-Qatari can only be employed in the circumstance that there is not a Qatari available for the work to be stipulated.

Article 26 requires that the Minister of Civil Service Affairs and Housing determine the proportion of Qatari and non-Qatari employed in any sector. There are some sectors where non-Qatari employment is prohibited.

Article 27 requires companies that hire non-Qataris to conduct parallel training for Qataris or hire them as assistants so they can gain experience.

2009 Human Resource Administration Law No. 8: Targeting the Public sector**

Article 14 highlights that Qataris are the first priority to receive any civil service job, after that preference is given to children of a female Qatari national married to a non-Qatari, spouses of Qatari nationals, GCC citizens, Arabs and then all others

Article 169 stipulates that the end of service award for Qatari workers should amount to 1 month of salary for the first five years, 1.5 months of salary for the next five years, and two months of salary for all additional years. End of service (and compensation benefits) indemnity differ for non-Qataris.

*Laws do not apply to private subsidiaries of Qatar Petroleum.

**Laws do not apply to Qatar Petroleum (or their subsidiaries).

Figure 2.3 Labor Law published by Qatar's Ministry of Labor in 2019

As seen in Figure 2.3, in 2000, the labor law No.14 was published by Qatar's Ministry of Labor, indicating priority to Nationals is given in any job opportunity, excluding non-Nationals in certain sensitive administrative positions in the government (such as the military force), and outlining the responsibility that non-Nationals have to Nationals on the job. In 2009, a new policy was published further categorizing Nationals and non-Nationals and their prioritization in the job market. Although these policies have been made to protect the right of the National minority, they undoubtedly have consequences on the workforce. At the foremost, the policies create a power differential in the workplace, giving Nationals a position of advantage and power. Consequently, this may also lead to other unfavorable

outcomes on both ends. Non-Nationals may experience negative emotions, such as fear and/or resentment towards their National colleagues. Similarly, Nationals may exploit the system unjustly.

To implement the policy, the Ministry delegates the responsibility to the HR departments and requests periodic reports in the matter (Al-Horr, 2011). The HR department then follows the guide provided in four main phases (See Figure 2.4). The HR department is responsible for planning and implementing, recruiting National talent, training and developing them in the organization, and motivating them to stay through career advancements, economic and non-economic incentives



Figure 2.4 Implementation Strategy for the Qatarization Policy

[adopted from Al Horr (2011)]

With the lowest unemployment rate in the world, reported as low as 0.1% (IMF, 2018), this indicates that almost everyone gets a job. The concern then becomes the implications of Qatarization on the job. Who gets the promotion? Does the policy lead non-Nationals to

experience negative emotions, leading to fragmentation of the Nationals and non-Nationals? Do Nationals exploit the policy and/or are demotivated to work as hard as non-Nationals? All these concerns effect the dynamic of the workforce.

2.2 English as the Official Language of Business

2.2.1 What makes English the Business Lingua Franca in Qatar

Today, English is the world's common language, and has thus become the world's way of speaking a common language. In the business world, it has become a managerial tool in the to conduct business globally (Latukha, Doleeva, Järllström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016). In the era of globalization, MNC have shifted to an English lingua franca policy to expand globally through operations, trade, and even recruiting human capital (Levy & Reiche, 2018). Thus, one of the biggest drivers of adopting English as the language of operation is the global business demand.

Historically, English became a global lingua franca during the British colonial period, which spread English around the world. This is the case in the choice of language of Qatar's business language. Although Qatar was not colonized, it was under British Protectorate until the 1970s. With cooperation of Britain, the oil and gas reserves were discovered, refined and exported. In 1971, the Qatari government took full control of these operations, but the Western management practices remained, and English continued to be the lingua franca in the country's most prominent industry. Thus, as English has been incepted by the British at the rise of the oil and gas boom, it has led other sectors by example, and the rest of the sectors started adopting their Western managerial practices, including English as the lingua franca. English has then become the country's official business language.

And although the British influence may fade and the local language can revive, it is no longer a story of political influence but rather a practical solution to accommodate the multilingual multicultural workforce. With a National minority population, English has to inevitably become the official *business* language and the primary language used for communication in the country to accommodate the majority population (Hukoomi, 2020). As a country, the Qatari government publishes all its official documents bilingually. To accommodate market demand and the country's diverse population, the educational system also offers a bilingual approach to teaching primary and secondary schools nationwide. This approach extends to Qatar's local universities, while government scholarships are also granted for nationals who prefer to study abroad (Ministry of Education and Higher Education, 2016).

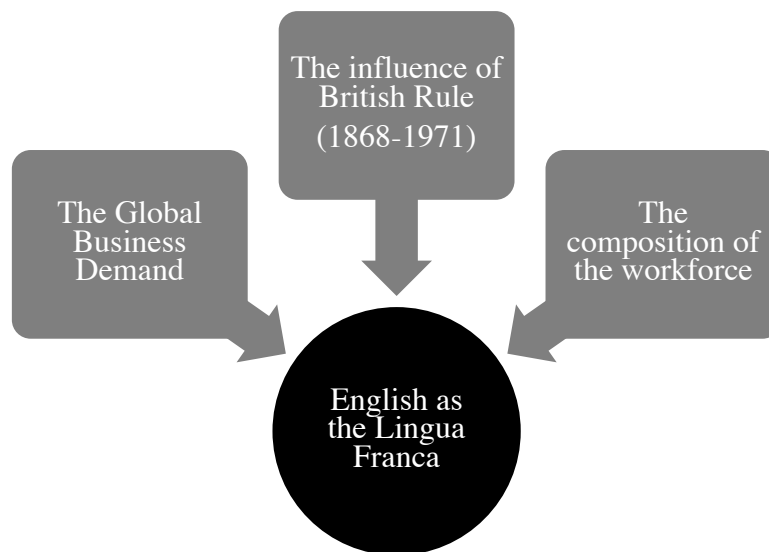


Figure 2.5 *Factors influencing the Choice of Qatar's Business Lingua Franca*

2.2.2 What value does Multilingualism have?

Undeniably, speaking English fluently is an important language skill one has to acquire to participate in the workforce. In the oil and gas industry, especially, it is a pre-requisite to

secure employment. In 2005, Aljazeera Channel established a subsidiary channel, Jeem TV, aimed at kids, broadcasting in the Modern Standard Arabic to restore the use of a dialect is at the core of the Arabic identity yet is no longer taught or used (colloquial Arabic is rather used). In 2006, a national wave to revive the Arabic language started to appear. The national University of Qatar started offering programs taught in Arabic in different disciplines that were previously only taught in English. In the same year, a local newspaper published an initiative by the First Lady Shiekha Moza bint Nasser seeking to *revive* the Arabic language, outlining the importance of the English language and bilingualism in general for the future of the nationals and the country as a whole, but highlights Arabic as equally important to sustain and foster the Qatari, Arab, and Muslim identity and heritage.

Prior to these initiatives, speaking Arabic in the public social sphere gave the misconception of ‘closeness’, narrow-minded and confined, lacking education (as one’s portrayal of their Western Education is via their fluency in English and their ‘Western’ accent). And following the spread of the internet since the beginning of the 21st century, English became widespread among Nationals, in the private social sphere. To date, these misconceptions exist, yet inconsistent outcomes have resulted from the educational and leadership influence to revive Arabic. While some bilingual Nationals choose to speak based on the cues they face, others assimilate to a Western identity and are found only speaking English, even with their fellow Nationals.

In the business sphere, although the Arabic language is not *promoted* as a skill in the workforce, it is expected to be present among Nationals and Arab expatriate. In Figure 2.3, we saw that the policy enforces a priority in employment to Arabic speaking migrants, after Nationals and off-spring of National females, respectively. Although this may largely be due to a political stance, it may also incorporate the restoration of the National and Arab identity

by ensuring the presence of Arabic language and the cultural capital it entails. So, when and where is Arabic important in the workplace and what implications does it have on social status and power?

The Arabic language, and the cultural capital it entails, creates power dynamics in the workplace. It is beneficial to hire an employee who speaks Arabic, though not a business requirement, to cultivate a percentage of the workforce who can establish a line of communication with the local government, with neighboring Arab governments, to build a larger social capital, and to minimize conflict risen from lack of English fluency. Thus, Arabic language may be an unspoken career resource that is beneficial to one's local business and social sphere, all of which lead to better career prospects for Arabic speakers.

2.3 The Qatari Workforce Characteristics

2.3.1 Social Categories

With a National population of a little before 400,000, there is a clear need for a foreign population to match the supply-demand inconsistency. To fulfil the large demand for labor, the country's economy needs to rely heavily on expatriate and migrant workers. To examine the human capital in this context, it is therefore crucial to highlight and differentiate between the social categories present in the workplace. In the previous section, I discussed the National stance in the workplace. In addition to Qatari Nationals, there are two other categories of workers that need to be distinguished: expatriates and migrants. Expatriates and migrants form the majority of the workforce in Qatar [with the exception of the Ministry of Defense (Hukoomi, 2020)].

Due to its geographic location, together with its status as the world's richest country and fastest growing economy (IMF, 2018), Qatar attracts migrants from two main regions: neighboring Arab countries who flee political instability in search of a better living and safer home and Asians seeking economic stability and better living standards. These two migrant groups differ vastly in the roles they take in Qatar's economy. The Arab migrants come from different social class backgrounds. Palestinian immigrants are the first and largest group of origin. Known to have been educated in the most prestigious Arab universities in Jordan, Syria, and Lebanon, they were among the most educated immigrants and a large number of the jobs they occupied has been, to this day, concentrated in the education sector. Many of the Arab immigrants, especially the Palestinians, had been granted citizenship when Qatar gained independence in 1971. Today, many of those Arab immigrants, with and without citizenship, own many small businesses, comprising 23% of the private sector (QSA, 2017). The influx of more Arab immigrants into the country dramatic increased after the Arab Spring (Ulrichsen, 2014).

As seen in Figure 2.3, Arab immigrants have priority in the job market. This policy is reflected in our sample. In Table 2.1, we see that Arabs, hold higher ranking jobs, after Nationals. This reflects on a high job security on the job. With Arabic as a language skill that can be leveraged both in the public and private sector, finding another job in the country may not be as difficult as it is for a non-Arab migrant. In terms of visa status, Qatar has a very lenient immigration policy for Arab countries due to its strong involvement in the region's politics and the role it had played in the Arab Spring (Ulrichsen, 2014). Thus, Arab immigrants are offered many visa statuses to remain in the country including, self-employed, family-visitor visa subject to renewal every 6 months, individual or corporate sponsorship (Ulrichsen, 2014).

Table 2.1 Job Level and Primary Language Cross-Tabulation

		Admin Role	Officer	Supervisory Role	Section Head	Manager
<i>Primary language</i>	<i>Qatari</i>	7	14	6	5	4
	<i>Arabic</i>	5	0	8	3	0
	<i>English</i>	0	1	7	4	0
	<i>Urdu</i>	15	7	4	1	0
	<i>Tagalog</i>	7	3	0	0	0
	<i>Other</i>	1	0	4	0	0
<i>Total</i>		35	25	29	13	4

In contrast to the Arab migrants, the Asian migrants, largely from Southeast Asia and the Indian sub-continent, immigrant for higher economic income with an indefinite date of return back home. The contribution of this group of immigrants is mainly to the blue-collar jobs in the economy, with only 29% holding white-collar jobs (Hukoomi, 2020). Due to the high poverty level in this group, the Ministry of Labor imposed a sponsorship scheme, insuring that a responsible entity, company or individual, for their presence and activity in the country, to avoid illegal residency and crime (Hukoomi, 2020). With a very limited visa opportunities to secure shelter for this category, job security is vital to remain in the country. Thus, Asian immigrants have to find another job and change their sponsor in a period of 3 months to legally remain in the country (Gray, 2013, Pattisson, 2013). In Table 2.1, we see that Asian immigrants tend to occupy the lower ranking job levels in the sample.

While both labelled as migrants, the Arab and Asian groups bring different cultural capital to the economy. The majority of Arab migrants share many similarities to the Nationals, such the Islamic cultural beliefs and norms that include dress codes, family and social obligations, religious holidays, many more. This similarity, namely the Islamic culture, forms a gateway

to integrating into the National population and culture (as many aspects overlap between Islamic and National culture). More prominently, the Arab migrants share a common language with the Nationals, a cultural symbol and communication tool to build and maintain social capital in the country of immigration. On the other hand, Asian migrants bring a different capital than Arabs. Because they migrate with a purpose of economic security, with ties back home in which they provide for, they eventually plan on returning “home”. Thus, this gives them little incentive to learn the local language and assimilate. As they speak a foreign language and the majority have dissimilar religious and cultural norms, integration or assimilation is very rare, if not nonexistent (Al-Naemi, 2012).

Expatriates are mainly recruited from Western countries for their extant experience in equivalent industries in first world countries, such as the UK, the USA, and Australia. People in this category typically stay in Qatar for 2– 7 years, and are drawn to the country by high, tax-free wages and benefits for their families, including Western schooling, medical coverage, and accommodation (Forstenlechner & Rutledge, 2010; Harry, 2007). The expatriate population more than doubled from 2004 to 2010, from 296,000 in 2004 to over 600,000 million in 2010 (QSA, 2019). Today, they make up almost 30% of the country’s population. This growth in the expatriate population has been necessary to fuel the economic growth, especially in the booming oil and gas industry.

Expatriates are known to be ‘headhunted’ for a specific position in mind. Where there is a professional demand and lack of availability or expertise in the National local talent pool, expatriates are brought in, on a definite contract, to fill a position (Al Horr, 2011). The positions they occupy are mainly leadership roles. Their visa status, similar to the non-Arab immigrants are restricted to a sponsorship scheme, affiliated to the organization they have been recruited to work for. Their job security is secure for the period stated in their contract.

It is subject to extension under the condition that there is not a National qualified to fill the position yet (Al Horr, 2011). They thus tend to isolate themselves (Al-Naemi, 2012), due to lack of motivation to integrate given the short-term residency in the country.

An important capital that this category is expected to have and teach, aside from their technical experience for the job, is language capital, specifically English fluency. This is reflected in our sample as portrayed in Table 2.2. In contrast, the Asian migrant category has a disperse finding and Arabs, like Nationals, rank the lowest in English fluency.

Table 2.2 Primary language and Average English Score Cross-Tabulation

		≤3	4	5
Primary Language	<i>Qatari</i>	20	10	6
	<i>Arabic</i>	7	4	5
	<i>English</i>	1	3	8
	<i>Urdu</i>	5	12	10
	<i>Tagalog</i>	5	3	2
	<i>Other</i>	0	3	2
Total		38	35	33

* 5: Native fluency; 4: Good language skills with minor errors; 3: sufficient language skills with major errors; 2: basic knowledge of language; 1: not a speaker.

2.3.2 Opportunities across Gender

Doing research in MENA region always questions the position of gender: gender inequality, gender segregation, and the extent of the role of women in the workplace, especially in male-dominated industries such as the oil and gas. I, thus, address the notion of gender by looking into the gender-disaggregated HDI and their participation in the workforce, or lack of it.

Based on the gender-disaggregated HDI, men have a value of 0.837 while women have a value of 0.873. Although both genders show a high human development score, men are slightly higher. In looking closely at the dimensions that make up the score, I find that this is due to only 9.8 percent of parliamentary seats are held by women. Although this small figure may be surprising after our extant discussion of government initiatives to improve the quality of human capital, it must be noted that this small number does not capture women participation outside politics, excluding their contribution to the educational and business sector. Thus, it is not an indicative figure of the role of women in leadership positions.

Furthermore, to understand the discrepancy in the gender-disaggregated HD, I find that female participation in the workforce is 57.8% compared to 94.7% for men. Interestingly, women are more educated than men with 73.5% of adult women have reached at least a secondary level of education compared to 66.1% of their male counterparts. The abovementioned findings undeniably raise the question: *if women are more education than men, why is their participation in the workforce less?*

Although women have an equal opportunity to employment and take up leadership positions, including ministerial roles (Metcalf, 2007), with equal pay to men guaranteeing women equality in the workplace, a law imposed by the Qatari constitution from 1992 (Williams, Bhanugopan, & Fish, 2011), there is a cultural aspect that must be addressed. It is seen as by some in to be prestigious to have women not work outside the home (Bagaria, 2015; Felder & Vuollo, 2008). Without the need for a second income due to the relatively high wages for Qatari men, the only thing that will push women into the workforce is a changing trend in the social norms and cultural values that start to accept working outside the home is also empowering and aspirational (Sayre, Benmansour, & Constant, 2015). Mainly due to the influence of Western education and multiculturalism that the youth in the country are

exposed to, the workforce participation rate for women shows a substantial increase in the past 20 years. This is particularly apparent among women aged 20 to 24 in recent years (QSA, 2019).

2.4 QatarCo as a Case Study

To study the workplace in Qatar, a demonstrative example is needed. In this regard, I have chosen QatarCo (a pseudonym) as a case study for the Qatari MNC for this PhD research. QatarCo was established in 1984 and has become one of the world's largest liquefied natural gas (LNG) producer. Operating in various locations in Qatar, the headquarters is located in Doha, Qatar's capital city, and various plants are distributed on the coast of the Arabian Gulf. Outside Qatar, QatarCo has liaison offices in China, Japan, Scotland, the USA, and South Africa. Through its various locations, QatarCo is the world's largest distributor of LNG to customers around the globe, with particular focus on the American, European, and Asian markets (Company Website). Therefore, QatarCo is an example of a domestic MNC and a leading organization in Qatar's revenue and GDP (Company Website). The demographic composition of QatarCo is not unique to the organization but is reflective of Qatar's demography.

In QatarCo, I found a distinct division in the Learning & Development Department called "The Qatarization and National Talent Pool Management". The division's main objective is to implement and maintain the Nationalization Strategy throughout the organization. They are responsible for offering internships for high school students who show interest in the oil and gas industry, providing scholarships for higher education in the field of electrical, petroleum, and mechanical engineering, geology, and other relevant fields of study to the industry. They are also responsible for recruiting, training, and developing local talent in a systematic manner through a program called "Individual Development Plan", which is

tailored to the specific needs of each local recruit. This plan not only ensures the training and development of the national employee, but also sets them on a career track that ensures their retainment and success within the organization. The exceptional non-National employees are offered a similar plan by the Succession Planning Division, a sister division within the department. Hence, QatarCo serves as a successful example for the implementation of the enforced Qatarization strategy discussed above.

QatarCo, in compliance with the oil and gas industry, operates only in English. Today, QatarCo's headquarters, located in a skyscraper in Doha, hold 3,500 employees of 65 different nationalities. This cultural mix combines varying degrees of English fluency and extant multilingual skills. However, under the corporate language mandate, all official communication must be conducted in English. Thus, every white-collar applicant must pass a standardized English test for the job they apply for, and are periodically evaluated. The higher the position, higher fluency is demanded. Similarly, some jobs don't have strict language requirements, especially when the technical skill is more important, such as an accountant, or another language is more important, such as an immigration advisor in the Government Affairs division of the human resource department. Nonetheless, a sufficient level of English fluency is required to work at QatarCo (at least 3 on a 5-point scale tool they use). Sometimes the score is overlooked if the potential employee exhibits all other skills required for the job. They are, however, required to undergo language training until they meet the required language skill for the job. Although each employee's score is a confidential HR record, I used two sources of data, self-assessment and supervisory assessment, to rate my sample's English fluency. The descriptive statistics of the average English fluency scores is shown in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Average English Fluency Scores per Department

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
<i>Public Relations</i>	15	3	5	3.97	0.72
<i>Human Resources</i>	42	3	5	4.37	0.72
<i>General Services</i>	23	2	5	3.63	0.88
<i>Learning & Development</i>	26	3	5	4.23	0.71

2.5 Of What is this a case?

Although this PhD is based on a research conducted in QatarCo, a Qatari MNC in the oil and gas industry that has an English Lingua franca and a diverse workforce that consists of more than 60 nationalities, this is a case study that represents a domestic MNC with a foreign lingua franca policy, and a workforce that captures the National minority in the population and majority of foreigners – migrants and expatriates. At a more abstract level, this case study is a distinct example of the country population dynamics in the IB literature. And although the current language in IB literature discusses the Nordic, Anglo, continental-European, and Asian clusters, on which most prior studies have focused (Harzing & Pudelko, 2013; Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017), this thesis broadens language research in the MNC setting to a region beyond the East and West. Qatar, a new emerging market of multinationals, combines aspects of both (Middle) Eastern culture and Western management practices. Although Qatar's official language is Arabic, both international and domestic MNCs operate in English. Hence, our case is to look at what this novel context, as *diverse* case study brings to the IB literature that we have not seen before, and whether it complements the findings or existing case studies or challenges their findings, in terms of language fragmentation in the workplace.

Most language in IB literature focuses on the Nordic, Anglo, continental-European, and Asian contexts (Harzing & Pudelko, 2013; Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017). In multiple

studies, the research context has been the UK, the USA, Finland, Sweden, Germany, Japan, and China (Tenzer & Harzing, 2017). These contexts are characterized by linguistic fragmentations, commonly caused by two dominant language clusters forming the majority of the workforce (e.g., Angouri, 2013; Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1999; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005). Although these case studies have made valuable contributions to the language research stream, building understanding of the important role of language in the MNC, the vast differences in social and cultural dynamics between different contexts greatly limit the generalizability of their findings. In their systematic review of 211 articles on language published in 102 management journals (both English and non-English) from 1982–2013, Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing (2017) suggest that the field would strongly benefit from extending the scope of investigated regions, countries and languages.

Through the case company, I shed light on the Qatari context, an under-researched context that provides a nuanced perspective in terms of highly diverse population demography, with locals in the minority. In practice, new theories may emerge from different contexts across the world. It is important to consider how the context in Qatar might influence the language dynamics in MNCs. Qatari nationals embrace the global culture in their multilingual education systems; English is the official business language across the private and oil & gas sector; and Qatar's immigration and expatriation laws are notably liberal. With a national to foreigner ratio of 1:20, the local workforce is inevitably diverse, and every organization is both multilingual and multicultural.

The above-described political and historical background and socio-economic conditions of Qatar form the backdrop to my research. To understand how they differ from other case studies in the IB literature, it is critical to understand the research context (Flick, 2009),

especially as it has not previously been considered in the management and IB literature (Barkema, Chen, George, Luo, & Tsui, 2015). In the remaining of this PhD thesis, I conduct my research in QatarCo as an exemplar case study of a Qatari context. Reflecting the Qatari futuristic vision, population dynamics, national culture and languages of communication, QatarCo will be able to provide insights of the understudied Qatari context, nuanced perspectives and findings in the IB literature, and generation of new theory.

This case study can be useful in different ways. At a minimum, we are bringing insights of an untapped region in the IB literature on interpersonal relationships, career success indicators, teamwork dynamics, and corporate culture. More significantly, we are bringing novel institutional and environmental factors -- such as a nationalization strategy, minority-based national population, harmonization in diversity – that may vastly impact our findings in studying the relationship between language fluency in the MNC and its career implications. Chapter 4 builds onto what this is a case and highlights the boundaries of the case study (time frame, sample, research objective and design).

2.6 My Positionality as a Researcher

I developed a cosmopolitan identity through exposure to a myriad of cultures in my social circles, constant traveling, a Western education, and speaking multiple languages fluently. One dilemma I repeatedly face is which language to use and when. I find myself speaking Arabic to enhance my social status in the local sphere; speaking fluent English to access prestigious education and progress in my career; and speaking French to reveal my global identity and love for other cultures. Thus, my background and identity drive my research interest in the role of language in different realms; triggering the focus of my PhD thesis: the role of lingua franca fluency in MNC career success.

As a cosmopolitan, I was able to engage and work with anyone without preferences of gender or language group. This made it easy for me to roam comfortably around all gender, language, and age groups in the organization. I was constantly approached for language advice. I believe it was many factors caused this. First, as a researcher who wanted the maximum access to employees I can have, I was very friendly and approachable. Hence, as I took from their time for my personal gain (research purpose), they utilized my knowledge and expertise in the English language. Second, I introduced myself and initiated conversations almost always in English (unless I was approaching an older National colleague, then I believed speaking in Arabic would be the respectful thing to do). Hence, my confidence in speaking a foreign language to my appearance and my clear American accent may have given others the impression that as a Western-taught PhD student must speak fluently and accurately. I believe this had positive impact the quality of my data as the interlocutors' ability to express themselves.

My personal experiences allow me to pursue research in multicultural contexts and individuals through a personal lens, and to share my research with the global academic community. Specifically, I want to share how a harmonious multicultural society change the cultural faultlines and fragmentation in an MNC, how language fluency allows one to span social and cultural boundaries, and whether fluency in a foreign language (e.g., English) facilitate career success in a domestic MNC? I dedicate my PhD research and unfolding academic career to bridging between Qatar, the broader Middle East region, and the rest of the world, advancing new perspectives on management styles, cultural and language implications, and changing dynamics in new contexts.

There are very few research publications conducted in Qatar, none of which in top-tier business management journals. As a small nation on the Arabian Gulf coast, very few people knew where it is until the rise of Aljazeera News Channel, a Qatari-owned controversial news broadcaster that encourages freedom of speech in a region that has been long dominated by censorship. Nevertheless, it had been always confined to being the neighbor of Saudi Arabia, and thus seen and spoken of as a gender-segregated, a male-dominated culture with no female basic rights. As a Qatari myself, I see this as a stereotypical view of the region as whole influenced by the views of larger neighboring countries. Seen through a Western lens, with limited knowledge and engagement of the local culture over substantial time, the current research is biased. As a local, I believe the literature is limited in portraying the region through a Western perspective. Thus, when I read how generalized and misrepresented Qatar is, I am motivated to speak for it myself, who can better analyze within context as a local.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

Language in the Multilingual MNC

This chapter sets the theoretical foundation for this PhD research. First, I review extant studies on the role of language in MNCs. Then, I examine the individual career success in the MNC and the role lingua franca fluency plays in one's career success. Moreover, I review the social capital literature as a mediating factor in the relationship between language and career success. And finally, I conclude by formulating the three main research queries that the remaining chapters investigate.

3.1 Language in the Multinational Organization

What is meant by language in the MNC can be many things. Although the word language seems to be a word that need not be defined, in the organizational context, it carries many facets. First, language is the everyday spoken and written language used for interpersonal, inter-unit, and external communication (Tietze et al., 2003). Second, language consists of company jargon, 'company speak', acronyms, terminology specific to the company (Welch et al., 2005). Third, language may be classified as technical or professional language, a coded language that is common within groups (Argote et al., 2003; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The classifications of language are inter-connected rather than mutually exclusive. In this thesis, we discuss language incorporating all three definitions, unless specified otherwise.

One prominent element of IB often noted as a barrier to effective communication is language differences, especially in cross-cultural encounters. In its broader sense, language is a manmade sign system that holds meaning and connects its speakers. It is a medium of exchange of articulated internal thought and plays a vital role in initiating, creating, and

maintaining social relations (Duranti, 1997). With employees from different backgrounds and nationalities, ranging from the headquarters' country of origin and the host country to other countries throughout the world, MNCs are almost by definition multilingual entities (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Govindarajan & Gupta, 2001; Luo & Shenkar, 2006).

As MNCs are multilingual entities, domestic firms may also be multilingual, as in countries with more than one official language (e.g., Switzerland) or those with multiple linguistic communities (e.g., India) (Piekkari & Westney, 2017). Similarly, a firm can be multinational but not multilingual, such as where the organization originates in an English-speaking country and operates only in other English-speaking countries. Such a firm would qualify as an MNC but would not be multilingual (Welch D., Welch L., & Marschan-Piekkari, 2001).

Therefore, it is important to note that the current research focuses on case studies in *multilingual* MNCs.

To manage language diversity, MNCs have begun to adopt a common corporate language, the lingua franca, to unify communication across all operations (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Luo & Shenkar, 2006). Lingua franca is defined as the “way of referring to communication in English between speakers with different first languages” (Seidlhofer, 2005, p. 339). Although the chosen lingua franca can be the language of the headquarters' or a subsidiary's host country, English is most often selected (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L, 1997; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D, & Welch L, 1999). Historically, English became a global lingua franca during the British colonial period, which spread English around the world. After World War II, the economic power of the USA further promoted English (Feely & Harzing, 2003). Today, English is the world's common language, and has thus become an administrative managerial tool in the workplace (Latukha, Doleeva, Järleström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016).

The shift to an English only policy in the organization starts at a macro-level where the company aims to expand globally through operations, trade, and even recruiting human capital. The impact on the unit-level is a consequence of the global expansion strategy. Taking the Japanese e-commerce firm as an example, Rakuten implemented an English lingua franca policy to extend its international trade and business (Willenborg, 2016). This decision had an unexpected impact on the individual level at its headquarters. Similarly, the current thesis studies the role of language within a unit of operation and how it impacts the employees at the individual level. Specifically, the consequences of implementing English, a foreign language but a global one, in a domestic MNC.

At unit level, a lingua franca strategy aims to provide common ground for managing global expansion and internal communication across different language environments (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Andersen & Rasmussen, 2004; Argote & Ingram, 2000; Barner-Rasmussen & Aarnio, 2011; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Neeley, 2011; Peltokorpi & Vaara, 2012; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005; Welch & Piekkari, 2006). It also avoids time-consuming translations (Janssens & Steyaert, 2014) and breaks linguistic boundaries (Welch & Piekkari, 2006), thus helping to create a sense of belonging and cohesion within the firm (Henderson, 2005; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013) and a platform for knowledge articulation and creation (Buckley, Carter, Clegg, & Tan, 2005; Chen, Geluykens, & Choi, 2006; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000). However, recent research has identified a lingua franca strategy as a “lightning rod” for inter-unit and intra-unit interactions among employees with varying degrees of lingua franca fluency (Hinds, Neeley & Cramton, 2014).

A common language may unite people and organizations but may also divide them. Relevant work (e.g., Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006) exemplifies that the

workplace remains multilingual despite the adoption of a monolingual approach. One key challenge faced by MNCs in this regard is language clustering, a phenomenon defined as “the grouping of people owing to their tendency to interact more with those with whom they share a common native language in multilingual workplaces” (Ahmad & Widén, 2015, p. 431). The underlying mechanism of language clustering is homophily, (Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001), which is the tendency for people to interact with similar others, based on surface-level visible characteristics or deep-level cultural understanding (Ibarra, 1995; McPherson & Smith-Lovin, 1987).

The first recognition of language clustering in IB came in the case study of a Finnish organization, where communication and information were observed to only flow among same-language speaking employees, which formed clusters (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999). They reported the formation of different subsidiary clusters based on language similarity: for instance, Germans and Austrians formed one cluster, while Americans, British, and Australians formed another. Similarly, Tange & Luring (2009) found language clustering to result from employees preferring to interact in their native language, even though English was the lingua franca. Language clustering was especially highlighted in informal discussions and small talk in corridors and cafeterias. Subsequent studies identified the phenomenon’s existence in the multilingual setting of MNCs, though this setting was incidental to their main focus (e.g., Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; Remennick, 2005; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005).

Another related challenge faced by the MNC, despite its unifying lingua franca strategy, is code-switching. As low fluency in the lingua franca becomes a barrier to articulating one’s ideas and thoughts, employees are found to engage in code-switching between their native languages and the lingua franca to improve communication efficiency (Aichhorn & Puck,

2017b; Janssens & Steyaert, 2014; Zhang & Harzing, 2016). Using one's native language allows deep, complex conversation and freedom of expression (Harzing & Feely, 2008; Luring & Klitmøller, 2014). Within language clusters, speaking a common language allows one to understand what is said and meant, which is also known as "shared perspective" (Levin, Walter, & Murnighan, 2016) and "shared cognition" (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). It facilitates interaction and sharing ideas, opinions, and knowledge within the group (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Henderson, 2005; Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; Reiche, Harzing, & Pudelko, 2015), enabling a high level of associability and trust to be established within clusters (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Luring, 2008; Welch & Welch, 2008). The practice of code-switching challenges the monolingual approach of the lingua franca within the MNC (Aichhorn & Puck, 2017b; Zhang & Harzing, 2016) by integrating another language in communication among employees. This poses the dilemma of non-speakers of the second language being excluded from conversations and discussions. Therefore, while code-switching facilitates information and idea sharing and elaboration, it highlights language clusters within the MNC and heightens the linguistic boundaries between them.

While acknowledging the multifaceted approaches to studying the role of language in MNCs, the current research regards language – specifically the lingua franca – as an operational tool, providing a basic medium for interaction by enabling communication (Wardhaugh, 2010), unless specified otherwise (e.g. language clustering in Chapter 6). In the remainder of this thesis, I examine language in the MNC through individuals' varying degrees of lingua franca fluency, language asymmetry as the basis for the formation of an informal knowledge network, and language advisory role's impact on individual career success in the MNC.

3.2 Career Success

Within the MNC, as a network of related job roles, power and capital are not equally distributed, and actors in this network hold a capital endowment reflective of their position in the organization (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 2007; Levy & Reiche, 2018; Swartz, 1997). They, therefore, compete over resources, promotions, and power, all of which may be indicated by higher economic capital (Emirbayer & Johnson, 2008). In this view, individual career success is a source of economic and social capital in the MNC. For decades, the career literature has focused on conceptualizing and empirically examining what constitutes a successful career, and what factors facilitate or hamper building one. Through briefly reviewing the key concepts in the career literature, I define individual career success in MNCs, explore its development in the literature, and establish its dimensions.

Traditionally, career success is defined as a linear progression in which individuals advance hierarchically over the course of their tenure in the organization (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003). Derived from this view are the popular metaphorical notions of “climbing the ladder” and “making my way to the top”. However, the changing nature of careers has generated alternative, modernized views of career success (Baruch, 2004; 2006; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996). Careers have become transitional and flexible, demanding a new perspective on what constitutes success (Baruch, 2004). Career systems have evolved from linear to multi-directional. Today, organizations and individuals no longer limit the definition of career progression to the traditional notion of vertical mobility, and now also embrace horizontal mobility (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996). Progressing to a different assignment within another department or operation, sometimes at the same hierarchical level, may bring higher career satisfaction and compensation (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005).

Both organizations and people change their expectations, giving employees an array of career options and paths that they may choose to navigate, rather than letting the organization decide for them (Baruch, 2006; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Spreitzer, Porath, & Gibson, 2012). A body of literature has adopted Arthur, Claman, & DeFillippi's (1995) framework of "intelligent" careers, in which the notion of intelligence is reflected in knowing "why," "how," and "whom." They argue that career success depends on understanding the values, attitudes, and needs of the organization: knowing "why." Similarly, employees need to acquire and practice the right set of career competencies, such as skills, expertise, and both tacit and explicit knowledge: knowing "how" to succeed. Finally, knowing "whom" refers to the employee's network and ability to identify the right people with whom to engage. Scholars have further developed this framework to include knowing "what," "where," and "when" (Jones & DeFillippi, 1996). Knowing "what" constitutes awareness of opportunities, threats, and requirements to sustain and/or progress one's career. Knowing "where" reflects the ability to detect when to train and advance. Finally, knowing "when" concerns the timing and choice of activities conducted. Thus, the intelligent career requires self-management of the effective qualities needed for a successful career.

Career success can be measured through external and internal indicators (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). The external indicators are objective measures that are evident to others, such as hierarchical position, salary level, formal structures and titles (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Sturges, 1999). These external indicators are others' evaluation of one's career success. Through vertical and horizontal career mobility, one is likely to experience career success via objective measures, such as higher pay, job level, and status (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Sturges, 1999; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005).

Equally important is internal success, referring to one's own perception of success, sense of achievement, and pride, which can be measured through subjective indicators such as career satisfaction (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Poole, Langan-Fox, & Omodei, 1993; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). From the internal lens, one may experience career success through growth in competence, opportunities to learn and develop, work-life balance, and sense of empowerment (Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006).

Nevertheless, different people seek different career success outcomes. For some, the aim is financial success, seeking higher pay and financial rewards. On the other hand, some claim to be motivated to achieve more internal satisfaction from their job. With sufficient money to cover their basic needs, the financial incentive is not their most important aspect of career success (Baruch, 2006). Although the external indicators of career success are more visible measures, a high level of internal career success and satisfaction should also be considered success (Baruch, 2004; 2006). This study, therefore, examines both internal and external aspects of individual career success in the organization.

To manage their careers, employees must take on roles and responsibilities, such as engaging in self-monitoring and setting career goals, while critically assessing and operationalizing the prosocial behaviors that management seeks to promote in the organization (Baruch, 2006). Prosocial behavior, or organizational citizenship behavior, is "self-initiated and future-oriented action that aims to change and improve the situation or oneself" that is not a part of one's job description (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006, p. 636).

Prosocial behavior can be in the form of any help one offers to others that is not a part of their job description (e.g. Bolino & Grant, 2016; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). It may be as little as quick favors (Flynn & Lake, 2008) or more substantial input, such as problem-

solving advice (Perlow & Weeks, 2002), emotional support (Toegel, Kilduff & Anand, 2013), and feedback about performance (Harrison & Rouse, 2015). There are multiple simultaneous drivers of engaging in prosocial behavior ranging from forming one's identity in the organization (Elsbach & Flynn, 2013), networking and broadening one's own knowledge-base (Grodal et al., 2015), and/or to fulfill a self-defined sense of one's own in-role obligations (Toegel et al., 2013).

The intent of helping another employee, by allocating one's time and resources, can also be instrumental (De Vos, De Clippeleer, & Dewilde, 2009). Prosocial individuals secure mentoring relationships, develop interpersonal relationships with senior colleagues, negotiate higher-level positions in the hierarchy, and access higher incomes (Blickle, Witzki, & Schneider, 2009; Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001; Spreitzer, Porath, & Gibson, 2012). Additionally, prosocial behaviors increase career satisfaction and decrease intention to leave the organization (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Frese & Fay, 2001; Morrison, 1993; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005).

From a social capital perspective, prosocial behavior in the form of advice-giving is an instrumental way for the actors to build a network, get access to information, and furthermore, it creates an obligation to reciprocate for the advice seeker and creates entitlements to future benefits for the advice giver (Agneessens, 2012, Fisher et al., 2018, Sparrowe et al., 2001). The relational dimension of social capital is thus strengthened by mutual trust, norms, and obligations (Agneessens, 2012; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). This view of prosocial behavior encompasses three elements. First, it encompasses self-initiation, which means that proactive behavior is implemented without being instructed or required. Second, it encompasses future-orientation, with anticipation of long-term problems or

opportunities. Third, it encompasses change-orientation, with engagement in changing a situation to secure a different (or better) future (Chia & Sharon, 2013).

3.3 The Role of Lingua Franca Fluency in Individual Career Success

The IB literature has identified a relationship between language competence and career success. It has holistically described the role of language skills in all aspects of the intelligent career competence framework. Similarly, language fluency has been linked to external and internal career success indicators. Latukha, Doleeva, Järleström, Jokinen, & Piekkari (2016) conducted one study of the relationship between language skills and career mobility, proving that proficiency in corporate language facilitates internal and external career mobility. A high level of fluency in the lingua franca has also been proved to hone one's confidence and empowerment (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005), motivation (Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014; Neeley, 2013; Tenzer, Pudielko & Harzing, 2014), and job satisfaction (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005); it also reflects one's high knowledge perception among peers (Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014). In this section, I discuss the role of lingua franca fluency as a career capital in the MNC.

In the contemporary knowledge-based economy, MNCs strive to create a culture of learning and knowledge. Using a lingua franca as a shared language throughout the workforce allows employees to not only acquire knowledge but also share it with others (Dhir, 2005). Lingua franca fluency not only enables the articulation of thoughts, but also, facilitates value creation through exchanging ideas.

In the corporate context, lingua franca fluency may be viewed as the storehouse of that organization's knowledge (Gundersen, 2009). Like money and skills, it is an asset and, when

used, it is a capital. In IB scholarship, it is conceptualized as a skill possessed by the individual (Angouri & Piekkari, 2016). Specifically, in the 21st century, lingua franca fluency is proven to be a significant form of capital in MNCs (Angouri & Piekkari, 2016; Brannen, Piekkari, & Tietze, 2014; Brannen, Piekkari, & Tietze, 2014; Heikkilä, & Smale, 2011; Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016; Peltokorpi & Vaara, 2012; Piekkari, 2006; Yao, 2013).

The level of fluency in the lingua franca can either facilitate or impede internal and external communication in the MNC (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Piekkari & Zander, 2005). Key responses and coping behaviors to language demand depends on the fluency in the requisite language, work situation, and immediacy or required response time. They range from avoidance to different forms of acceptance. Harzing et al. (2011) found cases of which employees who lack fluency in the requisite language resist using the language and passively ignoring or throwing away documents that they come across in English. Similarly, Marchan et al. (1997) found that Spanish managers in KONE's Spanish subsidiary "filing away" documents in English to avoid translating and distributing them. Another coping behavior or response found to be experienced by less fluent employees is "withdrawal" and reported responses such as distrust, resentment among employees with varying levels of fluency. Uniquely, in our research context, we do not anticipate resistance towards English as a lingua franca. As seen in Chapter 2, English is incorporated in the educational system. It is the means of communication across nationalities and ethnic groups. It has become a part of the local's everyday lives before starting a job that requires them to speak it.

Nonetheless, less fluent employees face numerous challenges (Harzing & Feely, 2008). In cognitive terms, it is difficult for less fluent employees to process and produce a message in a foreign language (Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Säntti, 2005). From an emotional perspective,

less fluent employees tend to feel uneasy and tongue-tied in a foreign language. They feel challenged by the environment, as they are perceived as less knowledgeable among peers due to the language barrier (Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014), causing continuous frustration and anxiety (Aichhorn & Puck, 2017a; 2017b; Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014; Neeley, Hinds, & Cramton, 2012; Hinds, Neeley, & Cramton, 2014; Tenzer, Pudenko, & Harzing, 2014). The behavioral reaction of less fluent employees is to switch to a different language, such as their native languages or others in which they are more fluent, forming clusters of similar language speakers (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014; Lauring & Tange, 2010; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1997, 1999). For less fluent employees, all of these challenges affect their perceived professional ability, lower their status, and reduce their belongingness (Neeley, 2013; Neeley, Hinds, & Cramton, 2012), thus hindering network building and negatively impacting their career (Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016).

Contrarily, despite their lack of fluency in the lingua franca, employees may be “accepting” of working with lingua franca foreign to them in different level of commitment (Piekkari, Welch, D., Welch, L., 2014, p.58). Faced with the requirement to work and communicate in a lingua franca, research indicates various behavioral responses such having a work colleague act as a translator, using expatriates as language nodes, and using internal networks (Piekkari, Welch, D., Welch, L., 2014, p.58). In various research, MNC employees has elaborated on the above responses by saying “I am the only reference person in all the office due to language problems” hoping this task could be delegated more people in the unit (Marschan et al., 1997, p.594). Additionally, a Japanese expatriate working in a German headquarters became the focal point to communicate with the Japanese as his only job function (Harzing et al., 2011).

At the other end of the scale, high language fluency in an MNC strongly influences the capacity to share knowledge. Peltokorpi (2015) found that employees' language fluency influenced their ability to coordinate with local competitors and the MNC's head office. Thus, language fluency enhances formal reporting and communication across different levels and units of the organization (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999), as well as the transfer of information and skills (Van Der Born & Peltokorpi, 2010) and understanding of tacit knowledge (Henderson, 2005) across linguistic, cultural, and geographic boundaries.

High language fluency is also positively related to shared vision and perceived trustworthiness between MNC units (Barner-Rasmussen & Bjorkman, 2005; 2007). It can, thus, be viewed as a pre-requisite for employees to use a common platform for communication, such as networks. At a basic level of lingua franca fluency, formal structural ties may be formed among colleagues, supervisors, subordinates, etc. As the level of lingua franca fluency increases, interpretive frames and meaning systems improve, creating a shared language and cognitive frame within the workplace or community. Through the creation of formal and informal ties as social capital, a fertile ground is nurtured for knowledge transfer (Brannen, Piekkari, & Tietze, 2014) and socialization with cultural-specific acts of speech (Henderson, 2005).

Nonetheless, asymmetry in lingua franca fluency persists in MNCs. From a top management and headquarters perspective, this may hinder efficiency as the diverse workforce has different language capabilities and a common corporate language cannot necessarily facilitate control between units (Andersen & Rasmussen, 2004; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999). This has been explored in multiple case studies (e.g., Luo & Shenkar, 2006; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1997; Neeley, 2011; Van Der Born & Peltokorpi, 2010) on well-known MNCs, such as Kone, Citigroup, and Rakuten. The common

denominator in all these case studies is that, despite management efforts, low lingua franca fluency among employees negatively influenced internal communication and knowledge sharing.

Lingua franca fluency is undoubtedly advantageous to the individual and the MNC. Lack of fluency brings cognitive, emotional, and behavioral challenges that impact individuals' performance and success in the MNC, creating faultlines and clusters (Barner-Rasmussen & Aarnio, 2011). Building on the faultlines of lingua franca asymmetry, the next section discussed the role of individual intra-firm social capital in sharing knowledge. It discusses the different forms of informal networks that may support less fluent employees by sharing knowledge from which they can benefit, gained from their social capital.

3.4 The Role of Social Capital

The MNC is defined as a broad network of relationships across different boundaries in the organization, designed to accomplish tasks (Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993) with a common purpose (Fukuyama, 1995). Within the MNC, informal networks emerge and establish an informal hierarchy, regardless of organizational levels (Diefenbach & Sillince, 2011).

Informal networks are often referred to as social networks, personal networks, informal organizations, and emergent networks (e.g., Allen, James, & Gamlen, 2007; Bryan, Matson, & Weiss, 2007; Ibarra, 1993; Kilduff & Tsai, 2003).

Formal and informal networks differ in both structure and purpose. A formal network is imposed by the organizational hierarchy, and predefined tasks and responsibilities are assigned by the organization. In these goal-directed networks, the organization mandates activities and relationships (Ibarra, 1993). By contrast, informal networks are “unsanctioned and ungoverned organic structures connecting a potentially unbounded group of individuals”

(Allen, James, & Gamlen, 2007, p. 181). The content and purpose of relationships in an informal network may be work-related, social, or both (Ibarra, 1993). What differentiates a formal from an informal network is that the latter involves voluntary social bonding that may not be visible to management (Hansen, Podolny, & Pfeffer, 1999; Kilduff & Tsai, 2003; Salancik & Burt, 1995).

For a network of connections to exist, an act must be initiated for a social tie to form (Bourdieu, 1986). Following the formation of a network, efforts must be invested in maintaining these relationships, or they will lose their efficacy (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Bourdieu, 1984; Bourdieu, 1986; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). Efforts to maintain a social network can range from simply expressing feelings of gratitude, respect, and friendship to exchanging gifts (Bourdieu, 1986) or knowledge (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). People rely on informal networks on multiple occasions throughout their careers. This is referred to as social capital.

The literature examines the social capital construct at multiple levels. Macro-level analyses view social capital as a public good, whether for a nation, community, or organization. Micro-level analyses focus more on individual networks of relationships within a community or organization (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). From the former perspective, an individual can access a network without participating in developing those relationships (Kostova & Roth, 2003): membership is by association, such as nationality, neighborhood, or kinship. By contrast, the latter perspective recognizes the need for individual investment. It should be noted that the levels of social capital are inter-related, such that personal-level relationships can contribute to public good at the organizational level (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). This research focuses on the micro-level analysis of a network, treating individuals as the unit of analysis and are the actors in the network.

The abundant social capital literature assigns multiple definitions to the concept. While they largely present the same construct from multiple viewpoints, some focus on the sources of social capital, whereas others consider its effects. Broadly divided into three main viewpoints, the first group of scholars (e.g., Bourdieu, 1986; Burt, 1992; Portes, 1998) present social capital as a mechanism that facilitates the connection of actors in a way that influences individual and organizational success. The second group of scholars (e.g., Coleman, 1990; Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, 1995) present a collectivity characteristic of social capital. They focus more on examining the internal structure of network ties in a given network, regarding the end goal of social capital to be collective rather than individual success. The third group (e.g., Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) combines both views, treating external links and internal cohesiveness as interdependent, such that external ties for an employee may be considered internal to the firm. As the concept evolved and research into social capital became more advanced, different definitions emerged. A recent definition that encompasses all three categories is provided by Alder & Kwon's (2002, p. 23) synthesis of the social capital literature: *social capital is the goodwill available to individuals or groups. Its source lies in the structure and content of the actor's social relations. Its effects flow from the information, influence, and solidarity it makes available to actors.*

In an organizational setting, informal networks provide a mechanism for knowledge sharing between individuals (Dalkir & Liebowitz, 2011; Granovetter, 1973; Hansen, Podolny, & Pfeffer, 1999; Hasan, 2017). They provide a basic structure for information flow, which is necessary given the organizational need for knowledge creation and diffusion to generate competitive advantage (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Most day-to-day work is done through the collaborations that emerge from informal relationships, rather than formal ties and procedures decreed by the organization (Behrend & Erwee, 2009; Brown & Duguid, 2001; Bryan, Matson, & Weiss, 2007; Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993). Social capital is created when

the relations among people change in ways that facilitate instrumental action (Coleman, 1990).

In examining the multiple conceptualizations of social capital, three prominent ones exist. The first conceptualization of social capital is the theory of weak ties (Granovetter, 1973), in which the scholar argues that weak ties are often a bridge between densely interconnected social cliques and thus provide a source of unique information and resources. Second, Burt's (1992) structural holes theory focuses on the pattern of relations among the alters in an ego's network, and not on the ego's direct ties. Finally, social capital has also been conceptualized as in a resource's theory perspective (Lin, Ensel, Vaughn, 1981), which focuses on the nature of the resources embedded within a network. The latter argues that it is not the weakness of ties that conveys advantage but rather the likelihood of reaching out to someone with the type of resources the ego requires to fulfill their instrumental objective. (e.g. Lin et al., 1981).

As the above literature review reveals, multiple definitions and conceptualizations of social capital exist. While each theory focuses on a different view of social capital, the definition that aligns with the aim of current research is the resource theory view. This is because our research focuses on the content of the network rather than the structure of the network (weak tie and structural hole theory). Nonetheless, we tap on the structure of the network to gain a wholistic understanding of our emerging phenomenon.

Knowledge sharing within informal networks is influenced by various micro- and macro-level factors related to the individual and the organization (Widén-Wulff, 2007). Wang and Noe (2010) classify the influential factors for knowledge sharing into three categories: environmental, individual, and motivational. The environmental factors include organizational culture, (Wang & Noe, 2010), national culture (Michailova & Hutchings, 2006), management support, and reward systems (Brock, Zmud, Kim, & Lee, 2005).

Individual factors include employees being proactive in the organization, helping others, and being achievement-oriented (Matzler, Renzl, Müller, Herting, & Mooradian, 2008).

Motivation in knowledge sharing, which can be a time-consuming activity, is very crucial (Wang & Noe, 2010). Motivations at the individual level include monetary rewards offered by the organization (Hansen, Podolny, & Pfeffer, 1999), and non-monetary rewards, such as recognition, increased credibility, and reciprocal benefits (Burgess, 2005).

Motivation to share knowledge is a complex phenomenon (Wang & Noe, 2010). Sharing knowledge is sometimes seen as a time-consuming activity (Davenport & Prusak, 1998). In addition, knowledge sharing is perceived as extra work, and people's tendency to avoid excess work is well known (Schiuma, Vuori & Okkonen, 2012). Therefore, motivation is extremely important for promoting knowledge sharing at individual level. Organizations that provide monetary rewards to encourage knowledge sharing between employees experience an increase in this activity (Hansen, Podolny, & Pfeffer, 1999).

Motivation can also be non-monetary, such that the immediate perceived value that induces employees to share knowledge cannot be measured in monetary terms (e.g., recognition, increased credibility, reciprocal benefits, avoiding isolation). Burgess (2005) showed that employees spend more time, sharing knowledge when they perceive these efforts will be rewarded by the organization in terms of favorable transfers, positive evaluations, recognition by superiors, and acknowledgment of their contributions when future work tasks are assigned. Schiuma, Vuori and Okkonen (2012) found that altruism and enjoyment are important intrinsic motivations for knowledge sharing in online environments. Knowledge ownership and trust are also motivating factors in knowledge sharing. Employees who perceive knowledge as their own, rather than the organization's, are highly motivated to share it with others (Constant, Kiesler, & Sproull, 1994). Similarly, employees who trust their

colleagues are more likely to engage in knowledge-sharing activities (Butler & Purchase, 2008).

Nonino (2013) provides an exhaustive list of informal network types in organizational settings: information, access, hindrance (the network of negative working relationships within the organizational boundaries), knowledge, advice, communication, feelings, friendship, trust, and Simmelian (the network of relationships of trust *and* friendship within the organization that form Simmel triads). These networks may be classified into informal *working* networks (information, access, hindrance, knowledge, and advice) and informal *non-working*-networks (the other types listed above). Informal working networks may be formed on the bases of the network's structural dimension (information, access, hindrance) or its relational dimension (knowledge, advice).

There is vast literature discussing the link between social capital and access to information and resources. One body of research has examined the relationship between bridging and bonding with type and quality of information access (Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1973; Ibarra, 1995; Hasan, 2017; Podolny & Baron, 1997) and jobs (Brown, Setren, & Topa, 2016; Ferguson & Hasan, 2013; Granovetter, 1973; Kramarz & Skans, 2014). *Bonding* social capital considers the ties between people in similar conditions, such as family members, friends and neighbors (Nonino, 2013). *Bridging* social capital are the weak ties that connect the absence of ties, or structural holes in the network (Burt, 1992). Greater access to information and resources through social capital enhances work performance (Methot, 2010; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001), empowers and motivates (Spreitzer, 1996), and increases job satisfaction (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). For example, employees who engage in networking more than their peers are more successful. Luthans, Hodgetts, & Rosenkrantz

(1988) found that those who spend at least 70% more time networking and at least 10% more time on routine communication compared to their counterparts are more successful managers.

Many scholars also distinguish the types of informal network, instrumental or expressive, and explore the association of each with internal and external career success (Bozionelos, 2003; Hansen, Podolny, & Pfeffer, 1999; Kilduff, 2003; Methot, 2010). There is an important difference between *having* social capital and *using* social capital (Kwon & Alder, 2014). It is not necessarily the case that access to social capital guarantees mobilization (Smith, 2005). To use social capital, “activation” of the network is necessary. This is demonstrated by Obukhova & Lan (2013), who found that having social capital does not predict its use among job seekers, although those that did use it were more likely to achieve better job search outcomes. Thus, networks facilitate access to network nodes who have knowledge or information, *but access does not guarantee knowledge transfer* (Inkpen & Beamish, 1997; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Inkpen & Tsang, 2016; Kwon & Alder, 2014; Obukhova & Lan, 2013; Smith, 2005).

The benefits that yield from social capital are non-diminishing and non-exclusive (Adler & Kwon, 2002). They are not the private property of those who benefit from them and are available for others to utilize (Coleman, 1988). The benefits of social capital can be stratified into three groups: information, influence, and solidarity (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Social capital facilitates access to information in a timely manner (Burt, 1992; Coleman, 1988), e.g., to find a job (Burt, 1992) or access knowledge in the job (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Podolny & Page, 1998). Just as different levels of social capital are intertwined, so too are their benefits. In this regard, just as employees benefit from their social capital, the MNC also benefits in turn. Knowledge creation and transfer provide a

basis for the firms' competitive advantage (Argote & Ingram, 2000; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Inkpen & Tsang, 2016).

The second group of benefits include influence and power through connecting disconnected nodes (Burt, 1997). "Power helps get things done" as some members of a network may have leadership roles in the network or organization and can be beneficial to be connected to. In a study of migrants returning from the USA to their home country, Wang (2015) states that the returnees are advantaged by being cross-border knowledge brokers, able to directly compare practices in the two distinct settings with which they are familiar. They can also offer a new perspective on how to resolve conflict or enhance processes, which can influence the success of knowledge transfer (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998; Levin & Cross, 2004; Wang, 2015).

Finally, solidarity is associated with a high degree of closure and trust in networks. In organizational settings, strong culture and solidarity benefit the organization through low turnover rates and high organizational commitment (Coleman, 1988; Nelson, 1989; Putnam, 1993). Language commonality appears to be the primary criterion for friendship and social engagement (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Remennick, 2009), as people feel more comfortable communicating in their native language (Aichhorn & Puck, 2017a), which enables them to easily create and maintain interpersonal relationships and exchange knowledge (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006). Monge and colleagues (2003) explain this view with the "theory of self-categorization," suggesting that individuals define their social identity by forming psychological groups.

Scholars' views diverge on which properties of a network derive higher social capital benefits. Burt (1992) suggests that a sparse network of weak ties has fewer redundancies that provide greater benefits. Inkpen & Tsang (2005) argue that larger social capital provides a larger knowledge resource base, presenting various opportunities to tap into embodied

expertise. For Coleman (1988), the strength of closeness among network actors ensures and maintains trustworthiness among members of the network, excluding free-riders. While all viewpoints recognize that social capital yields benefits, they differ with regard to the end goal. While bridging structural holes (*absence* of ties in a network) providing efficiency in cost and resources (Burt, 1992), bonding ties providing cohesiveness and sense of community among members (Coleman, 1988).

This research aims to capture how lingua franca fluency impacts individual career success in the MNC, and how individual roles may mediate the pace of success. The preceding sections have outlined the role of language fluency as career capital in the MNC that may derive career success. However, despite important contributions by the literature, it is necessary to further investigate the role of social capital in the relationship between lingua franca fluency and individual career success in MNCs. Language fluency can thus go beyond formal status or job description and pertain power. It is a key factor in controlling knowledge flow, acting as gate keepers, establishing a network of critical contacts. As outlined in the preceding section, fluent employees have greater access to information and contacts. This advantage gives employees the power to make choices about whether, when and how they might employ any language skills they possess, for themselves or organizational benefit, or even use them in any way that is contrary to company interest (Marschan et al., 1996; Welch & Welch, 2008). “Personal interests may dictate the type of actions taken, while the ability to undertake any language-related tasks, such as translation, will be driven by the language skills and experience of an individual employee.” (Piekkari, Welch, D., Welch, L., 2014, p.12).

Social capital is tacit in nature, and based on the understanding that a favor today will be returned at a future time (Adler & Kwon, 2002). A vast body of literature explores the use of

social capital within different cultures. In many Eastern cultures, social relationships, such as friendships, influence market and hierarchical relationships. There are terms for such constant use of these social relationships in specific cultures: *blat* in Russia (Batjargal, 2003); *guanxi* and *kankei* in Chinese and Japanese networks; and *wasta* in Middle Eastern cultures (Al-Enzi, Rothwell, & Cooke, 2017; Hitt, Lee, & Yucel, 2002; Hutchings & Weir, 2006; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011).

Although knowing someone or creating a tie does not guarantee an economic return, there are many factors that motivate “donors” to offer help without immediate return. Trust and associability are two key factors (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Leana & Van Buren, 1999; Putnam, 1993). The reciprocity of social exchange can be summarized thus: “I’ll do this for you now, knowing that somewhere down the road you’ll do something for me” (Putnam, 1993, pp. 182-183). Another key factor is shared norms, as experiences gained through socialization may be the underlying motivation to contribute to social capital by offering resources (Portes, 1998). Finally, another instrumental motivation for social capital may be obligation, through the “enforced trust” that characterizes kinship or hierarchy (Portes, 1998).

The popularity of the notion of social capital began in the mid-1980s with the seminal contributions of Bourdieu (1986), Coleman (1988), and Burt (1992). Since then, it has been widely used across a range of social science disciplines, such as economics, political science, public health, and management, and has now matured into a research field (Baker & Faulkner, 2009; Inkpen & Tsang, 2016; Kwon & Alder, 2014; Portes, 1998). In management studies, the concept of social capital has been employed across all levels of the organization. At individual level, it has been found to significantly impact career success (Burt, 1992; Burt, 1997; Granovetter, 1973; Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015). The research framework, which is detailed in the next section, aims to elucidate the creation of an informal network to

mitigate linguistic asymmetry and faultlines in pursuit of efficiency, and to explore this network's impact on individual career success in the MNC.

3.5 Research Framework

The IB language research stream has largely focused on the negative aspects of the lingua franca as a monolingual strategy, portraying it as “an impediment” (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999), an “obstacle” (Henderson, 2005), a “barrier” (Harzing & Feely, 2008), and a “disruptive element” (Tenzer, Pudelko, & Harzing, 2014). Scholars argue that it leads to conflict and misunderstanding due to low lingua franca fluency (Henderson, 2005), with non-native speakers experiencing discomfort and reluctance to openly speak the lingua franca (Neeley, Hinds, & Cramton, 2012). Moreover, the perception of incompetence among low-fluent individuals can increase power differentials and lower these individuals' status (Neeley, 2013). Another negative outcome is failure to communicate effectively (Harzing & Feely, 2008).

Language in knowledge sharing is not a new research area. In fact, in the field of business management alone, language has received substantial attention, particularly in relation to diversity (Barner-Rasmussen, Ehrnrooth, Koveshnikov, & Mäkelä, 2014; Brannen, Piekkari & Tietze, 2014; Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; Klitmoller & Luring, 2013). The literature has focused on language as an impediment to cross-border knowledge sharing, despite the lingua franca policy (Barner-Rasmussen & Arnio, 2011). By contrast, the current research *does not* focus on the impact of language on the quality of exchanged content; instead, it focuses on *language as the content of exchanges* in informal networks.

After thoroughly examining the literature on language in IB and social capital, the interrelationship and applicability of these two bodies of literature emerged as the basis for

my research queries. I want to establish whether, in a context of linguistic faultlines, there is a new harmonic, instrumental, and informal network that can be activated to mitigate the “fragmented” workforce (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Feely & Harzing, 2003; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2014). Accordingly, three distinct yet related research queries are investigated.

The first research query investigates the interplay of the individuals’ language capabilities and intra-firm social ties. Specifically, it aims to understand how individuals with asymmetric language capabilities deploy their social capital to exchange (request and offer) language-related knowledge, with the aim of working more efficiently. The following key questions are explored:

1. *What is a LAN? Is it a new form of intra-firm social capital?*
2. *Who are the language advisors in a LAN and what makes them stand out?*
3. *Why do advisors engage in LAN and what benefits do they yield?*

I dedicate *Chapter 5* to detailing the LAN construct and identifying its dimensions as a form of social capital. The second research query examines the formation of the LAN, the dyadic and nodal attributes that make certain individuals the advisors. Therefore, *Chapter 6* is dedicated to investigating the formation of a LAN in an MNC. The third research query complements the other two by answering the perplexing question of why advisors engage in a LAN and what they gain from doing so. Accordingly, I dedicate *Chapter 7* to investigating why advisors engage and how their social capital activation can also yield benefits, specifically individual career success. A research model for each chapter is presented in Figure 3.1.

Both language and knowledge sharing are complex phenomena that can be broken down into different aspects for investigation, especially in relation to one another. Thus, it is important

to clearly frame the research queries, with defined concepts, for conceptual clarity and in-depth analysis. As discussed earlier, I will focus on language as a career capital in the MNC. Language is a broad phenomenon, so for the purpose of my research queries, I focus on two aspects: language fluency (throughout the whole thesis) and language-based homophily (in Chapter 6 only). Other related variables are also brought forward and examined in Chapter 6. Similarly, although there are formal and informal networks in any organization, this study solely focuses on informal networks. Specifically, I investigate the LAN as a form of informal knowledge network, in which the content of knowledge flow is language-specific. To holistically observe the role of language in MNC employees' career success, I investigate the influence of advisory engagement in a LAN on individual career success in the MNC.

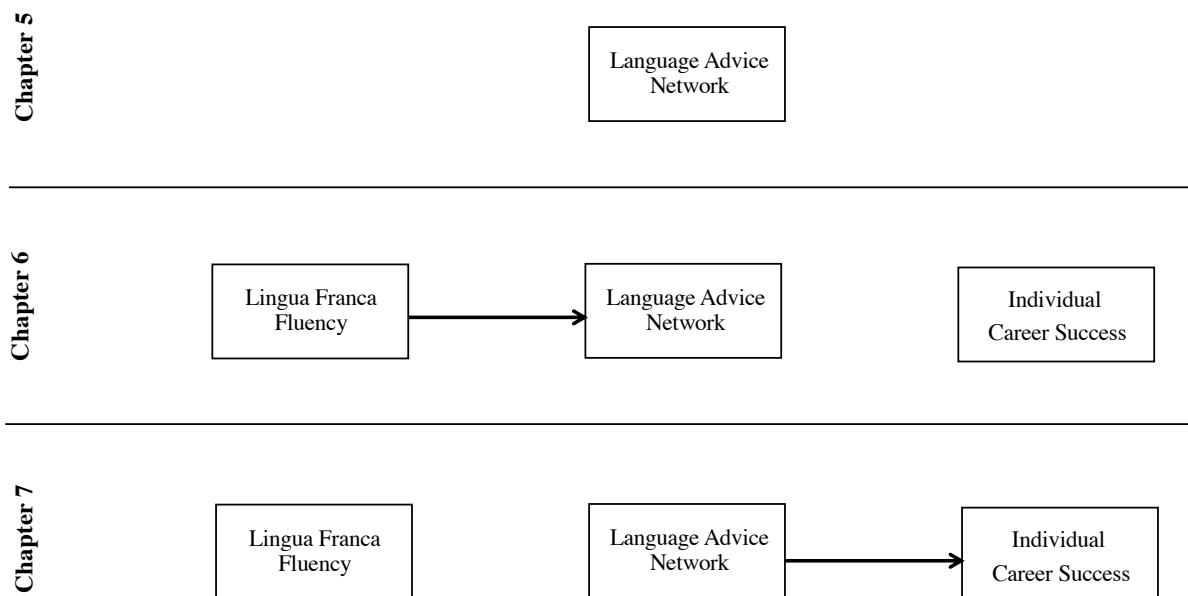


Figure 3.1 Graphical Representation of the Research Queries

Chapter 4: Research Design & Methodology

This chapter introduces the thesis' research design and the methods adopted to answer the research queries. I start by highlighting the importance of the research paradigm and introducing positivism as the research paradigm selected for this thesis. This includes an explanation of the corresponding epistemological commitments that underpin the studies conducted. Then, I outline the research model that encompasses the three distinct empirical studies. After describing the research model and design of each study, I unfold all the qualitative and quantitative methods used, conduct a reflexive review to locate myself in proximity to the research, and discuss research quality for the multiple approaches adopted. It is important to note that this chapter provides an overarching explanation of the thesis' research design and methodology; more specific methodological sections are included in the subsequent chapters.

4.1 Case Study Strategy

The strategy selected for the current research is a study of a single organization. The study is exploratory in its nature for the purpose of theory-building i.e. LAN and its role in the relationship between lingua franca fluency and individual career success. Due to prior employment in QatarCo, I was already familiar with the management team at the MNC. I had known that QatarCo's demographics and policies are a good representative organization for the country's workforce characteristics and laws (as seen in Chapter 2). Soon after joining the PhD program at LSE, I started negotiating with them data access for my research. Our negotiations lasted months until we agreed and signed the research internship contract in August 2016. I was offered access to 6 departments of the administrative group of QatarCo, all of which are located in the headquarters tower in Doha. I was provided a single-entry

visitor's pass to the plants, north of Doha, as part of the induction process to the organization, to familiarize myself with the core production of the MNC. We agreed on 10 months of fieldwork access during which I am able to attend meetings and events with permission of the organizers, observe and annotate, interview, arrange focus groups, and send out questionnaires. A formal email was sent out from the head of the Qatarization Division in the Learning & Development Department to the corresponding 6 departments introducing me as a research intern and encouraging them to voluntarily collaborate with me for the purpose of my fieldwork, whenever it doesn't conflict with their working schedule and deadlines. I have then relied on this email as an introduction to my presence back at the organization, and utilized my existing connections with the employees to immediately start data collection without a repetitive personal introduction, yet with verbal consent prior to any form of data collection method. As a research intern, I had to perform unpaid tasks in return. Due to my background in operational research, I worked closely with the Training & Education division to optimize the budget allocation for the outsourced training courses based on needs of the organization. Similarly, I was assigned a project in the Succession Planning & Talent Management Division that predicts a successor in the organization based on the characteristics of the existing talent pool. Additional less significant translation and administrative tasks were also assigned to me as my responsibilities as a research intern.

Using Lund's (2014) analytical matrix, we are able to be more conscious of what our work might be a case and what potential it has. In Table 4.1, I unfold the analytical movements of generalization, specification, abstraction, and concretization of the current study below. Lund (2014) defines a case study as "an edited chunk of empirical reality where certain features are marked out, emphasized, and privileged while others recede into the background" (p.224). To know what this case is about, we first unfold the most basic observations, such asking for or

offering language advice. At an abstract level, the same observation may be thought of as knowledge exchange or mentoring, coaching, teaching, informing. Hence if we were to generalize these observations, we can say that they are derived from a more general way of coping with language asymmetry in the setting where some are more privileged in knowledge than others, thus ‘language-related’ knowledge is exchanged. Our study aims to position LAN as a theory that lies in a general more abstract spectrum and is explained by concrete observations and patterns in our context.

Table 4.1: ‘Of what is it a case’ Analytical Matrix (Lund, 2014)

	<i>Concrete</i>	<i>Abstract</i>
<i>Specific</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Asking for language-specific help • Offering language advice • Foreign lingua franca in domestic MNC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge exchange • Language fluency as career capital
<i>General</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language asymmetry in the MNC • Lingua franca policy • Social capital and advice networks 	<p>LAN is an informal, work-related network in which individuals with <i>low</i> and <i>high</i> levels of lingua franca fluency voluntarily activate their intra-firm social capital to <i>seek</i> and <i>offer</i> language-related advice. Endeavoring to improve internal knowledge transfer and efficiently conduct the job at hand, employees activate their social capital on a need-basis to benefit from the knowledge of their more fluent colleagues.</p>

While there were many aspects of language that could have been studied (e.g. bilingualism & code-switching, formal versus informal use of language, impact of a foreign lingua franca mandate on locals’ motivation and morale), my research aims to focus on the role of lingua franca fluency on individual career success and the mechanism of LAN in the process. Thus,

using Lund's (2014) analytical matrix 'of what is it a case', I define the objective of the research and confine research lens to the research question to focus on developing in-depth knowledge about the sets of processes, events, configurations, and practices of LAN as a new phenomenon in the literature. In words, it is a case of generalizing, abstracting, and theorizing *to make* the case of the phenomenon (i.e. LAN).

This case study may be useful in many ways. First and foremost, at a minimum, we are studying interpersonal relationships in a diverse workforce, motivations to engage in language-advice seeking and offering, and a novel mechanisms of language competence and individual career success. All these elements paint a bigger picture of the structural factors of the organization, institutional or industrial features, and environmental factors that are the theory is contingent on for our understanding. In our current case, for example, the Nationalization strategy 'Qatarization' in hand with the National vision set the basis for our understanding of why a friendly knowledge-sharing platform is voluntarily created to enhance the employees' performance in their language skills. Similarly, these broad macro-level factors may help explain why certain people are motivated to behave the way they do.

4.2 Research paradigm

A paradigm is the perspective, or thinking, or school of thought, or set of shared beliefs, that informs the meaning or interpretation of research data (Kuhn, 1962). A research paradigm enables me to formulate questions and select methods capable of answering them in order to design appropriate avenues of inquiry (Kuhn, 1962). Thus, a paradigm will allow me to define what is relevant and to establish meaning from what I have learnt. It is the conceptual lens through which I, as a researcher, examine the methodological aspects of my research project to determine the research methods that I will use and how I analyze the data.

One of the crucial elements of a research paradigm is choosing an epistemology, a philosophical stance that describes how we know something is the truth and why we consider it knowledge (Cooksey & McDonald, 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 1990). Choosing a research paradigm is said to be a crucial step *before* ‘doing’ research, and not an optional one (Kuhn, 1962). Thus, I discuss my research philosophy before outlining my research model and design. In research philosophy, knowledge is said to come from different sources (Kuhn, 1962). In business research, in particular, these sources may be summarized in four categories: intuitive, authoritative, logical, and empirical knowledge (Slavin, 1984). The empirical one relies on objective facts that have been established and can be demonstrated. In this research, I adopt an empirical epistemological stance. Thus, my research process is generated as a result of analyzing primary data findings. Therefore, conclusions of the research can be perceived as empirical knowledge. Throughout this PhD research, I adopt a positivist philosophical stance. By doing so, I acknowledge that knowledge and conclusions I make come from scientific methods of investigation such as experimentation, observation, and reason based on experience, to help us understand human behavior (Comte, 1856). In other words, my work is a positive affirmation of theory through the scientific method of investigating a phenomenon based on gathering observable, empirical and measurable evidence.

There are five main principles behind Positivism (Hacking, 1981). In this thesis, I adopt four methods – participant observation, interviews, focus groups, and questionnaires – in different phases of my fieldwork to answer my main research query. In all four scientific approaches, I aim to prove the existence of a phenomenon, thus I look for positive affirmations of its existence across all methods, as per the *first principle* of positivism which suggests that the

researcher must follow the same logic across different scientific methods. In Chapter 5, I argue that Language Advice Networks (LANs) exists subject to five conditions in the MNC or any other work setting. My discovery and explanation of necessary and sufficient conditions for the phenomenon to consists of the *second principle* of positivism. The *third principle* suggests that knowledge should be testable. In all three studies of this thesis, I prove the theory with empirical means, both qualitative and quantitative, using inductive logic.

Although my approach has been to discover and analyze an emerging phenomenon within context, I consistently provide an explanation of the context to help explain any surprising or conflicting to mainstream research findings. As a local working within context rather than away from it, I rely on facts and outline them to the reader rather than my frame of reference and common sense in order not to bias the research. In instances where my identity and positionality impact the findings, I openly discuss it in the research, making sure that the knowledge produced is logical, value-neutral and not held back by any politics or morals. In doing so, I acknowledge with the *fourth* and *fifth principles* of positivism.

4.3 Research Model

This thesis focuses on Language Advice Networks (LANs), a new form of social capital in the MNC. The aim of this research query is to introduce the phenomenon and investigate its mediating role on language competence and individual career success in the MNC. To answer the research query, I provide three empirical chapters, each addressing a distinct query: (1) What is LAN and how is it different from other informal networks? (2) What characteristics lead one to be an advisor in LAN? (3) Why do advisors engage and how does it impact their careers? The remainder of this section unfolds the purpose and design of each empirical chapter.

Chapter 5 introduces and defines LAN as a new form of social capital in the MNC. As a new phenomenon, LAN is examined using mixed methods. A qualitative study is first undertaken to explore and investigate the definition of LAN, the roles of engagement in the network, the conditions for its existence, the process of language advising, and the content exchanged.

Using grounded theory as a rigorous qualitative approach, I conduct participant observation and extensive one-to-one interviews. As this network type is novel in the literature, the topic is best explored through an inductive approach. Through probing and seeking elaborations to collect details and stories of employees' experiences and encounters, I collect the data for theory-development. Data for this chapter is collected from both advisors and advisees.

Consequently, I aim to prove that LAN is distinct from the work-related general advice network to give my research a valid and significant contribution. For this purpose, I employ a sequential exploratory design to quantitatively examine the LAN's distinctiveness from a general advice network by comparing the network features using visual representations and descriptive social network analyses.

Chapter 6 then quantitatively explores *what drives seeking language advice* using social network analysis. It is therefore an examination of the factors that contribute to a person seeking someone else for language advice. Although I used an inductive approach (data to theory-building), I also test the phenomenon using existing theory, deriving hypotheses from existing literature to test for aspects such as approachability and homophily in the network. I propose that four individual and dyadic attributes – the advisors' language fluency, job level, language-based homophily, and advisors' cosmopolitanism – influence on the decision to seek language advice and a formation of a language advice link. This chapter connects lingua

franca fluency, among other attributes, to the advisory role in a LAN: a distinct position that, as I argue in Chapter 7, yields career success in the MNC.

Specifically, Chapter 7 consists of a qualitative study that aims to examine the career consequences of language advising and the underlying mechanisms for achieving them.

Using an inductive approach in grounded theory, I successfully identify in depth and detail the patterns of organizational behavior through which beneficial outcomes of a LAN emerge.

I extend my findings to examine how different categories of employee – national, migrant, or expatriate – vary in their career success measures and mechanisms.

Table 4.2 Summary of Research Design

<i>Chapter</i>	<i>Topic</i>	<i>Methodology (Analytical Approach)</i>	<i>Justification</i>	<i>Data Sources</i>
5	Language Advice Networks: A form of social capital in the MNC	Mixed Methods <i>(Sequential Exploratory Design)</i>	As an emerging phenomenon, inductive grounded theory is necessary to explore and understand the construct. A quantitative approach has been incorporated to test how the LAN is structurally distinct from the GAN.	- Participant Observation - Interviews - Questionnaire
6	What drives seeking language advice? An examination of the factors that contribute to a person seeking someone else for language advice.	Quantitative Network Analysis <i>(ERGM)</i>	This method allows us to test for individual and dyadic attributes that explain the formation of the network.	- Questionnaire
7	The Impact of LAN Advisory Engagement on Career Success: A Relationship Mediated by Rewarding Reputation and Intra-firm Social Capital.	Qualitative <i>(Thematic Analysis)</i>	As a new phenomenon, a qualitative examination of the consequences and mechanisms is required.	- Participant Observation - Interviews - Focus Groups

4.4 Timeline of Fieldwork

In negotiating my research internship contract with QatarCo, they agreed to offer me a flexible working schedule to allow time for writing fieldnotes and reflection. I was permitted to rotate around seven departments for greater exposure to company employees and work functions. I was also allowed to attend corporate events and meeting, subject to approval from the organizers. In return, I agreed to perform two main projects with the Training & Education Division and Succession Planning & Talent Management division, respectively. Other translation and administrative tasks were also assigned day to day, which became useful for starting conversations with employees and embedding myself in the team. The organization has however limited my access to archival data and human resource databases. They also limited the duration of scheduled interviews and focus groups to one hour per employee, to minimize workflow disruption. Both parties signed the contract at the end of August 2016, and I started my fieldwork the following week, after security passes and badges had been issued. The research contract lasted ten months, and I worked in a total of six departments. I was already familiar with the workplace and most employees due to my past employment with them prior to joining the LSE PhD program. This familiarity helped me to start conversations and navigate the workplace, yet aware to keep a distance from the subject and participants to eliminate any bias.

On the 10th of August 2016, from the head of the Qatarization Division in the Learning & Development Department sent out a formal email to all agreed six departments introducing me to the employees as a ‘research intern’ and encouraging them to voluntarily participate in my research activity if it didn’t hinder their work efficiency. I have then relied on this email as an introduction to my presence in the organization, and connected with my colleagues with to immediately start data collection without a repetitive personal introduction. I must note,

however, that a verbal consent prior to any form of data collection method had been obtained to proceed, as per the company policy and my contract.

In the ten months of fieldwork, I went to work five days a week, for approximately eight hours a day. I allocated a time frame to each phase that corresponds to a data collection method. Phase 1, dedicated to interviews, was conducting in the first 12 weeks of my fieldwork. The following 6 weeks were allocated for transcribing, analyzing and reflecting. Follow-up interviews were also conducted during the reflection period. Phase 2 consists of conducting focus groups over the span of 5 weeks, followed by 2 weeks of data analysis. At this stage, post Phase 2, I had sufficient evidence for the existence of LAN in the workplace to proceed with Phase 3. In Phase 3, I aimed to survey the six departments in the remaining 15 weeks of my contract. Through adopting a convergent parallel design, data were collected concurrently and analyzed separately, and the two research strands were merged during the overall interpretation of results. I discuss the data collection methods and analyses in detail in the next section.

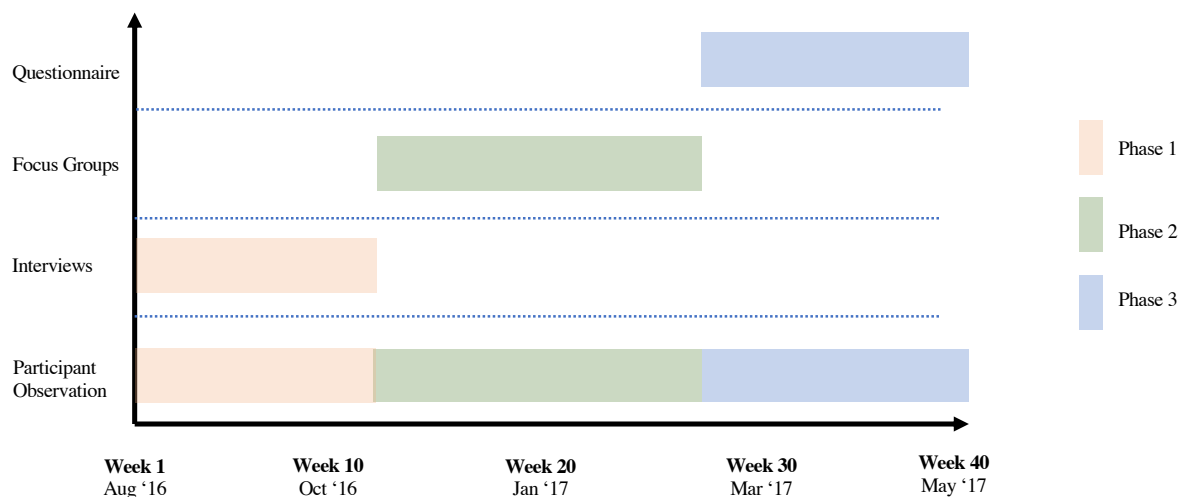


Figure 4.1 *Timeline of Fieldwork*

Every source of data used played a vital stage in the development of my research. Prior to commencing data collection, I familiarized myself with the International Business (IB) literature on social capital, networks, career, and language, aiming to understand the theoretical contributions and methodological approaches commonly used in prior studies (Flick, 2009). My main fascination, and the area to which I most wish to contribute, is the language stream of IB research. Upon starting my fieldwork, I familiarized myself with the language stream of research in IB and had a set of hypotheses and propositions regarding the role of language in the MNC. Halfway through Phase 1, I experienced an element of surprise in the research, where LAN was discovered and labelled. The scope of research then shifted to the investigation of the LAN phenomenon. I revisited the literature to engage in social capital and social networks. I revisited more literature during Phase 2. Specifically, I looked into the literature on prosocial behavior to understand the instrumental roles employees take on outside their job description. By the end of Phase 2, the phenomenon had been confirmed and validated.

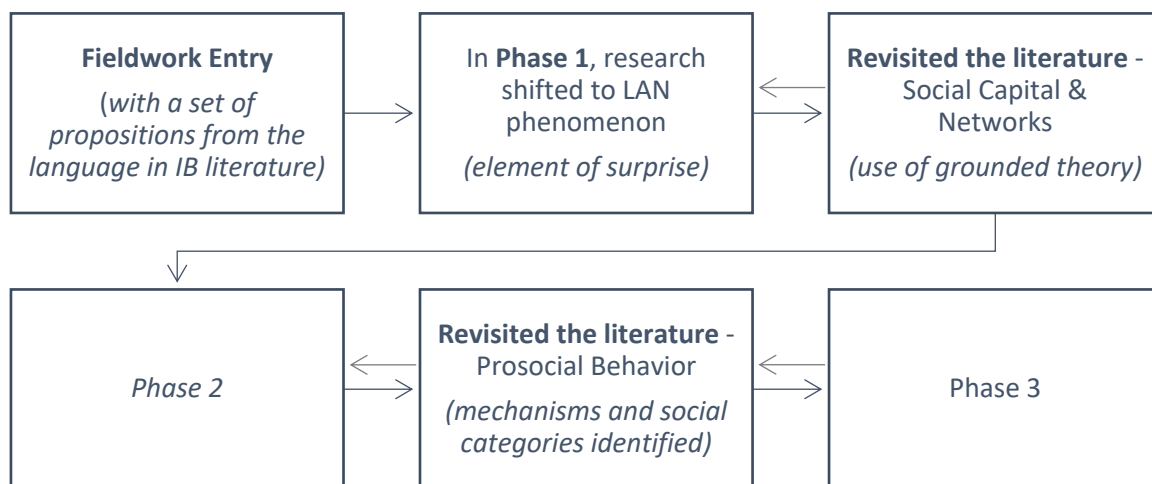


Figure 4.2 Research Process & Inception of the LAN Phenomenon

4.5 Data Collection Methods

Case studies in the language stream of IB use either qualitative or quantitative methods, allowing a promising potential of methodological diversification through complementing the two (Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017). The mixed methods approach has hardly been deployed for language in IB (with the exception of Angouri (2013) and Barner-Rasmussen, Ehrnrooth, Koveshnikov, & Mäkelä (2014)). Hence, pioneering IB scholars have called for mixed methods studies to enhance the robustness of emerging theories in this field (Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017). Accordingly, I use mixed methods in this research.

My choice of both qualitative and quantitative methods is intentional and in line with my positivist epistemological stance. I conducted qualitative methods throughout the fieldwork period. As LAN is a new construct, an inductive grounded theory approach is necessary to capture multiple perspectives, including those of the advisors and advisees, and to identify the subjective and social meaning related to engaging in a LAN (Flick, 2009). Linguistic and cultural aspects related to the LAN are also essential data that allow us to better understand the processes and consequences of this new phenomenon (Flick, 2009); thus, perceptions, feelings, and the content of knowledge exchanged are aspects of data that can only be documented qualitatively (Flick, 2009). Therefore, qualitative data are the primary object of research in this thesis.

Quantitative methods are secondary in this research, though they are equally important to capture the structural and relational aspects that the qualitative findings cannot explain. The quantitative methods used allowed for positive affirmation of our theory and findings, thus, in line with our epistemology. First, network descriptive statistics were conducted to compare the LAN and another general network. Second, ERGM was conducted to examine the

individual and dyadic attributes that predict a person being named by another as a language advisor. Third, some findings in the qualitative study of Chapter 5 are confirmed by results of the quantitative study of Chapter 6. Thus, the quantitative approach complemented the qualitative approach in this thesis.

Theory-building through triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods provides strong substantiation of constructs and hypotheses (Eisenhardt, 1989). Quantitative data, in synergy with qualitative data, can strengthen and support theory-building through convergent findings. Use of a mixed methods approach provides many facets to the research: the qualitative part provides detailed, in-depth analysis of a small sample, while the quantitative part provides a generalization of a relatively larger sample (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), as detailed in Chapters 5 and 6, respectively. Through a convergent parallel design, I provide holistic answers to the research queries by obtaining complementary data and validating my findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). I collect and analyze the two types of data independently, giving each method equal priority. Below, I discuss in-depth the employed research methods.

4.5.1 Participant Observation

Participant observation was adopted to gain insight into the organization's day-to-day operations, socialization, and both formal and informal use of language. I joined the organization on a research contract to access the MNC's employees, offices, oil field plants, emails, and policies; in return, I worked as a research intern, assigned to two main projects in the Learning & Development (L&D) department of QatarCo. For 10 consecutive months, I carried out this method of data collection, in conjunction with and during all three phases of data collection. I attended the headquarters offices for approximately eight hours a day, five

days a week, in which I spent attending meetings, taking fieldnotes, talking to employees, working on my assigned projects and performing the daily administrative tasks. Such exposure provided good opportunities to informally observe employees during their working hours and breaks. As I worked side by side to them, I was able to fit in and spend more time with employees casually, during their lunch and smoking breaks. I avoided carrying the notebook I annotated my fieldnotes in to avoid awkwardness and making them feel “observed”. Although all employees in the six departments I was given access to were formally informed via email from management regarding my status in the organization, in the course of 10 months, the employees eventually overlooked my position as a researcher and data collector due to our daily engagement in various projects and tasks and casual informal chats during the breaks. They eventually started seeing me as one of their own rather than withholding data and treating me like an observer. My presence in the workplace – an example of “going native” (Flick, 2009) – was largely unobtrusive (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

While not all phenomena can be observed and studied using this method, I personally found it to be highly effective in examining the role of language in the workplace and the social interactions among employees. As a multilingual able to fluently speak both the lingua franca and local language, I could understand the two most spoken languages in the workplace, which eased my observation and analysis of situations. My language capabilities also allowed me to engage in the salient language advice networks. Thus, having this (language) knowledge gave me access to and strengthened my participation in the field (Flick, 2009). By taking the role of an active participant, I took part in conversations and gained employees’ trust.

The degree of observation and participation varied across different activities. During business meetings, I observed quietly and took notes. In addition to direct observations, I privately recorded the recollection of numerous conversations with employees in a small notebook that I kept hidden in my pocket away from their sight when I was around. Collecting these fieldnotes proved invaluable for understanding the context and employees' behavior.

As a cosmopolitan, I was able to engage and work with anyone without preferences of gender or language group. This made it easy for me to roam comfortably around all gender, language, and age groups in the organization. I was constantly approached for language advice. I believe it was many factors caused this. First, as a researcher who wanted the maximum access to employees I can have, I was very friendly and approachable. Hence, as I took from their time for my personal gain (research purpose), they utilized my knowledge and expertise in the English language. Second, I introduced myself and initiated conversations almost always in English (unless I was approaching an older National colleague, then I believed speaking in Arabic would be the respectful thing to do). Hence, my confidence in speaking a foreign language to my appearance and my clear American accent may have given others the impression that as a Western-taught PhD student must speak fluently and accurately.

Grounded theory was selected to gain a holistic view of LANs in the MNC. Due to the limited timeframe of my research contract, I spent most of my 10 months onsite, even while working on my fieldnotes or literature review, to maximize exposure to the context and acquire detailed descriptions and evaluations of daily practices in the MNC (Flick, 2009). Thus, I pursued a research goal that is achievable in this timeframe to portray relevant and accurate knowledge about my subject of study (Maxwell, 2005).

4.5.2 Interviews

Over the course of Phase 1, which comprised of the first 18 weeks of my fieldwork, I was able to conduct a total of 55 one-to-one interviews, comprising 40 primary and 15 subsequent interviews. The primary interviews were conducted in the first 12 weeks, then the following 6 weeks were allocated for transcribing, analyzing and reflecting in which follow-up interviews were also conducted. Initially, I started off the interview process by selecting people in the department that I was already familiar with due to my prior employment. I then deployed the method of snowball sampling by asking interviewees to identify individuals from whom they seek or to whom they give language-related advice. I then interviewed the individuals they named and posed this same question to them. This was done by recording the names of employees, hierarchy level, demographics, and functional areas. The snowball sampling method proved useful for gaining insight from those who engage in a LAN. Table 4.3 provides basic information on the interview respondents.

Prior to starting the interview session, I explained that participation was voluntary, identities of participants are concealed, and data provided will be used for the sole purpose of research, then asked permission to voice record the session. As per the organization's policy, once I had verbal consent from them, I was able to proceed with data collection. I followed a semi-structured interview guide comprising both standardized and tailored questions, allowing flexibility with the content and level of detail with every interviewee. Interviews ranged in duration from 40 to 60 minutes. Although most interviews were recorded, some refused, hence detailed notes were made immediately afterwards to the best of my recollection.

All interviews were conducted in English, but with minor code-switching to Arabic with the Arabic-speaking interviewees. This may be attributable to my ethnic appearance and local

attire as the interviewer. Nonetheless, the amount to be translated into English was neither substantial nor technical, so third-party translation support was not required. My choice of English for the interviews and questionnaires was pre-determined by the fact that everyone in the organization not only had to be familiar with English but had to pass a language exam before securing the job. Thus, this eliminates an extra step on interpretation of data during my on-going iterative process of data analysis between interview scripts and fieldnotes. There were many occasions where the conversations shifted to and I allowed the conversation to flow as it may have seemed to be the preferred choice of language for the interviewee. This code-switching was not a setback in my data analysis as the quality and quantity of translation was minimal and could be done without professional outsourcing. I believe this may indeed have had a positive impact on the quality of my data, showing accuracy and a high level of detail in the interlocutors' expression of themselves and their experiences.

The interview questions are divided into three parts, each tackling a distinct yet related topic. The first part contains questions on demographics and the business context; the second discusses the role(s), frequency, and experiences of engagement in a LAN; and the third addresses the impact of LAN engagement on the individual. The interview questions are presented in Appendix A. I moved on to the next part every time I reached meaning saturation, with no more insights to be gained from further probing (Gaskell & Bauer, 2000). Due to the time-constraints mandated by my research contract, I was unable to cover all three parts in every interview. In each interview, I had to choose between in-depth exploration of personal context and covering broad range topics: the challenge of combining both in one interview has previously been recognized (Flick, 2009). Hence, I used my personal judgment during each interview, contingent on interviewees' awareness, depth of knowledge, and willingness to share.

The questions I asked during the interviews were intentionally non-directive to avoid biases of predefined priori knowledge and allow the inductive process to be more natural, providing a stronger grounding for theoretical insights (Eisenhardt, 1989). Additionally, to increase *specificity*, I recalled specific situations that I encountered during my observations. Explicit references to stimuli enabled interviewees to elaborate on the impact and meaning of particular situations, providing as much detail as possible (Eisenhardt, 1989; Flick, 2009).

I re-interviewed some respondents to follow up on the data they provided in initial interviews, which is critical to the iterative process of data collection and theory development (Flick, 2009). Follow up interviews were scheduled to confirm certain details and obtain additional information on aspects that were not discussed in detail in initial interviews, or to address issues that had subsequently arisen in my data collection. Due to the one-hour time limit per employee per day (agreed in with Management), I had to re-schedule some respondents for a second interview. For example, IR32 was very open to providing recent examples of how her employees improved their image to management and built social ties based on providing advice. She then talks how this impacts her decision in promoting an employee. As a rich source of data, one that provides both a perspective of an advisor in LAN as well as a decision-maker in the appraisals and promotions of her employees, it was crucial to follow-up in a second interview. Follow-up interviews were not only useful in collecting more data, they however proved useful in validating the information collected and my initial research findings (Flick, 2009). Additionally, the follow-up interviews included isolates that were identified through continuous data analysis.

With a total of 55 interviews, I was able to obtain relevant information to formulate the qualitative study of Chapter 5. As an overview of LAN, the study required multiple perspectives, both the seeker and the advisor in LAN. Hence, the sample was maximally utilized to provide a wholistic view of the phenomenon. In Chapter 7, however, the research question is concerned with the motives and career outcomes of language advising. Hence, two perspectives were relevant, the advisors' and the advisors' superiors whose decisions impact the advisors' careers. Consequently, only 33 of the interviews are used in the data analysis of Chapter 7, eliminating advisees as they are irrelevant in the research question.

Table 4.3 Interview Respondents' Profiles

<i>ID</i>	<i>Department</i>	<i>Job Role</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Primary language</i>	<i>Nationality</i>	<i>Social Status</i> *	<i>English fluency**</i>	<i>Tenure in QatarCo (Years)</i>	<i>LAN Role***</i>	<i>Follow-up</i>
IR_01	Marketing & Sales (Acc)	Officer	24	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	4	2	Dual	
IR_02	Marketing & Sales (Acc)	Admin	35	M	Arabic	Egyptian	M	3.5	5	Advisee	X
IR_03	Marketing & Sales (Acc)	Admin	32	M	Hindi	Indian	M	3.5	4	Dual	
IR_04	Marketing & Sales (Acc)	Specialist	41	M	English	English	E	5	3	Advisor/ AS	
IR_09	Marketing & Sales (Acc)	Accountant	23	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	4	1	Advisee	
IR_10	Marketing & Sales (Acc)	Accountant	25	F	Urdu	Pakistani	M	3	3	Advisee	
IR_26	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Engineer	28	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	4	5	Dual	X
IR_27	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Supervisor	54	M	Urdu	Indian	E	4.5	3	Advisor/ AS	
IR_28	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Technician	38	M	Urdu	Nepali	M	3	5	Dual	X
IR_29	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Technician	35	M	Urdu	Nepali	M	3.5	7	Dual	X
IR_30	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Technician	29	M	Tagalog	Filipino	E	3.5	3	Advisee	
IR_31	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Engineer	24	M	Arabic	Qatari	N	4	2	Advisee	
IR_32	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Manager	52	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	20+	Advisor/ AS	X
IR_33	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Engineer	34	F	Tagalog	Filipino	E	4	1	Dual	
IR_34	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Engineer	28	F	Hindi	Indian	E	4	2	Advisor	
IR_35	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Manager	47	M	English	American	E	5	5	Advisor/ AS	
IR_11	GS	Supervisor	41	M	Urdu	Indian	M	4	2	Dual	X
IR_12	GS	Head	36	M	Urdu	Indian	M	5	7	Advisor/ AS	
IR_13	GS	Admin	45	F	Arabic	Syrian	M	3	15	Dual	X
IR_36	HR	Manager	35	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	12	Dual/ AS	X
IR_05	HR (Government Affairs)	Head	43	M	Arabic	Jordanian	M	4	8	Dual/ AS	X
IR_06	HR (Government Affairs)	Specialist	55	M	Arabic	Sudanese	M	3	10	Dual	X
IR_14	HR (Policy & Procedures)	Specialist	40	F	English	Australian	E	5	3	AS	

IR_17	HR (Recruitment)	Admin	39	M	Urdu	Sri Lankan	M	3.5	3	Advisee	
IR_18	HR (Recruitment)	Head	37	M	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	12	Dual	X
IR_07	PR (Events & Conferences)	Head	50	F	English	English	E	5	4	Advisor	
IR_08	PR (External Relations)	Specialist	34	F	Arabic	Egyptian	E	4	2	Dual	
IR_19	PR	Manager	35	M	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	8	AS	
IR_20	PR (External Relations)	Head	41	F	Hindi	Indian	E	5	10	Advisor	
IR_15	L&D (Competence Mgt)	Specialist	33	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	5	Dual	
IR_16	L&D (Qatarization)	Head	34	M	Arabic	Qatari	N	4	10	Dual	
IR_21	L&D (Training)	Head	53	M	Hindi	S. African	E	5	3	Dual	X
IR_22	L&D (Training)	Specialist	58	F	Tagalog	Filipino	E	5	7	Advisor	
IR_23	L&D (Succession Planning)	Head	44	F	English	Australian	E	5	5	Advisor/ AS	
IR_24	L&D (Succession Planning)	Specialist	38	F	English	English	E	5	2	Advisor/ AS	
IR_25	L&D (Succession Planning)	Officer	24	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	3	Dual	X
IR_37	Corporate Planning & Strategy	translator	39	M	Arabic	Jordanian	M	5	7	Advisor	
IR_38	Corporate Planning & Strategy	translator	46	F	Arabic	Sudanese	M	5	4	Advisor	X
IR_39	Corporate Planning & Strategy	Specialist	38	F	Urdu	Pakistani	M	5	6	Advisor	X
IR_40	Corporate Planning & Strategy	Manager	59	M	English	American	E	5	4	AS	

Notes: * N: National; E: Expatriate; M: Migrant.

** My assessment of their English fluency on a scale of 1 to 5 (5= fluent).

*** Dual: Engages in both roles; AS: Advisors' Superior.

4.5.3 Focus Groups

After Phase 1, I had preliminary insights into the workplace through my observation, participation, and interviews. Phase 2 consists of conducting focus groups over the span of 5 weeks, followed by 2 weeks of data analysis. By the end of this phase, my aim had been to have sufficient evidence for the existence of LAN in the workplace to proceed with Phase 3.

My choice of conducting focus groups had been with the intent to create a situation in which participants could interact and discuss multiple viewpoints in one room. My objectives were 1) to capture a wholistic image of the LAN process using the advisors' and advisees' perspectives, simultaneously; 2) to act as an observer and mediator to the flow of discussion, rather than the leader or interviewer, to allow a more natural approach; 3) to compare and contrast data provided individually and collectively; and 4) to triangulate data across sources. By end of Phase 2, I must be convinced that LAN exists and has positive career implications.

As an observer in the focus groups, I started off the discussion with explaining that participation was voluntary, identities are concealed, and data provided will be used for the sole purpose of research, then asked permission to voice record the session. Once I had verbal consent from all attendees, I began the discussion with the lines of "LAN has been a voluntary practice I had observed across all six departments. What roles do you each believe you have in it?" Once the conversation started to flow naturally, I no longer had to participate. I, however used prompts to stir the discussion back to topic, to fulfil the objectives of the focus group. Although the prompts were taken from the interview questions, they were very different in their use in a group discussion. As the discussion is less focused on one person, the variation in answers lead the discussion to flow on its own. Once I

believed the group has completed their discussion of one aspect, say content of LAN, I would like a prompt, like “how about outcomes of LAN? What do you feel you lose or gain from engaging?”. The discussion would then shift to address another aspect of my research objectives.

Although I initially attempted to arrange and conduct four focus groups, the scheduling and arrangements were harder than the interviews as they involved the participation and attendance of a larger group and I was able to successfully conduct two focus groups.

Although 15 employees and 12 employees were scheduled to participate in the first and second focus groups, the first focus group comprised 8 employees (FG_01 to FG_08) and lasted 90 minutes; and the second group comprised only five employees (FG_09 to FG_13) and lasted 50 minutes. A complete list of focus group attendees is provided in Table 4.4. As I anticipated we may exceed the 1-hour time limit per employee, I scheduled the interviews at 11 AM to ensure that any extra time would run over their lunch break (12-1PM). In doing so, lunch was provided, which motivated the participants to engage more and stay longer. Unlike the interviews that were conducted in English with code-switching to Arabic, the focus groups were fully carried out in English due the presence of non-Arabic speakers in the attendees.

The two focus groups brought different insights to my research in many ways. First, the objective of each focus group was different. While the first group was conducted with the purpose of bringing multiple viewpoints in one room, both the advisors’ and the advisees’ perspectives into one discussion to simultaneously examine the LAN process and outcomes; the second group aimed to address career outcomes of language advising in the MNC.

Second, in line with the objective of each group, participants in each group differed. In the

first group, I invited participants of different job ranks, ages, and tenure. The second group however comprised of senior employees at the supervisory and management level. The groups' homogeneity was intended to allow open discussions, overcoming participants' reservations about sharing honestly and removing fear of judgment.

By the end of Phase 2, I was able to collect multiple viewpoints, insights, and personal experiences on certain topics, providing both depth and personal context (Eisenhardt, 1989; Flick, 2009). I had been successfully able to gain a wholistic image of the LAN process using the advisors' and advisees' perspectives, simultaneously, and validate my analysis from my observations and interview. By end of Phase 2, I had enough evidence that LAN exists and has positive career implications on the advisors.

4.5.4 Questionnaires

In Phase 3, I aimed to survey the six departments in the remaining 15 weeks of my contract. I constructed a questionnaire to validate certain aspects of the research model that could be measured and tested. The questionnaire comprises three sections. The first section contains demographic questions and a self-assessment of English fluency. The second section tabulates the names of all employees in the respondent's department and asks the respondent to rate the frequencies of their interaction with each employee for both general advice and language advice. The third section asks supervisors to assess their subordinates' English fluency. This section was sent independently to each supervisor and was not shared with their subordinates. A sample questionnaire is provided in Appendix B. The questionnaire was only available in English. It was generated and distributed electronically using *Qualtrics*. This website facilitated the generation of different versions of the questionnaire's second section for each department, as well as response tracking.

Table 4.4 Profiles of Focus Group Attendees

	<i>ID</i>	<i>Department</i>	<i>Job Role</i>	<i>LAN Role*</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Primary language</i>	<i>Nationality</i>	<i>Social Category**</i>	<i>English fluency***</i>	<i>Tenure in QatarCo (Years)</i>
Focus Group 1	FG_01	HR (Recruitment)	Officer	Advisor	26	F	Tagalog	Filipino	E	4	5
	FG_02	L&D (Succession)	Officer	Advisor	24	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	4	3
	FG_03	L&D (Training)	Admin Ass.	Advisor	33	M	Urdu	Pakistani	E	3.5	10
	FG_04	Marketing & Sales (Operations)	Jr. Engineer	Dual	30	F	Urdu	Pakistani	M	3.5	2
	FG_05	Marketing & Sales (Accounting)	Analyst	Advisee	28	M	Tagalog	Filipino	M	3.5	1
	FG_06	PR	Admin Ass.	Dual	31	M	Arabic	Sudanese	M	5	5
	FG_07	Corporate Planning & Strategy	Officer	Dual	35	M	Hindi	Indian	M	4	4
	FG_08	Marketing & Sales (Accounting)	Admin Ass.	Advisee	38	F	Arabic	Syrian	M	3	2
Focus Group 2	FG_09	General Services	Manager	AS	54	M	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	12
	FG_10	Administration Group	COO	AS	57	M	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	20+
	FG_11	HR (Policy & Procedures)	Head	AS	43	F	French	Beninese	E	5	5
	FG_12	PR (External Relations)	Head	AS	36	M	Arabic	Canadian	E	5	6
	FG_13	Corporate Planning & Strategy	Counsel	AS	49	M	Dutch	Dutch	E	5	4

Notes: * Dual: Engages in both roles; AS: Advisors' Superior.

** N: National; E: Expatriate; M: Migrant.

*** My assessment of their English fluency on a scale of 1 to 5 (5= fluent).

4.6 Data Analysis

Current literature and existing theories were critical to my qualitative analysis. Theories are versions of the world, offering different perspectives and social constructions. Thus, they are preliminary and relative, requiring continuous revision, evaluation, construction, and reconstruction (Flick, 2009). During my qualitative data analysis, I continuously revisited existing theories and literature. Below, I discuss my data analysis process in greater detail.

4.6.1 *Qualitative Analysis*

My choice of qualitative analysis is to demonstrate a social phenomenon based on empirical evidence and context. I applied thematic analysis to analyze my qualitative data, a process to formalize the reading of the text by labeling and categorizing re-occurring themes, then synthesizing and interpreting them. The phase of analysis was an ongoing process, which started during and continued alongside my data collection. Using the interview and focus group transcripts, together with my fieldnotes, I worked toward two goals. At an early stage of data analysis, my goal was to use interpretations of the text as a foundation for collecting additional data, both qualitative and quantitative; at a later stage, my goal was to develop theory and generate the final output of my data analysis. To analyze the qualitative data, I employed thematic analysis, using the NVivo software (version 11) to code and analyze transcripts.

I began my thematic data analysis with “open coding” (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Through disentangling the text and breaking it down into words or short excerpts expressing a single concept or “code,” I formulated different codes as a starting point. With dozens of codes, I then categorized them by grouping into emerging themes from

the text, referred to as “first-order codes” (Attride-Stirling, 2001). These themes were then organized into more abstract, constructed codes, which represent the content of their “theoretical categories” (Attride-Stirling, 2001).

I then progressed to “axial coding,” a more formal coding method to identify and classify the links and relations between categories (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). This enabled the contexts, conditions, causes, and consequences to be identified in relation to language skills (and their use), networking, and career success in the MNC. This coding paradigm helps to establish relations between concepts that may be found in the existing literature, or novel relations that can be further examined and tested (Flick, 2009).

At this point in my research, I could have formulated my entire thesis on the relationship between language skills and career success in the MNC, however, unexpected findings have arisen. I had sufficient evidence of the existence of a Language Advice Network, which has shown to be a key mediating mechanism in the relationship I had initially aimed to study. At this point, an inductive approach of not only coding to create a summary of the text but to incept new and innovative theory from the data was my main goal. And consequently, I have developed this data-driven theory that has now become the title of my thesis: Language Advice Networks.

At this stage, an iterative process of reviewing text and data is essential to verify and solidify my findings. I practiced inductive thinking to develop conceptual themes and categories from the text; and deductive thinking to test them against the text across different contexts and cases. Through axial coding, I had developed a tentative model and selected the categories relevant to my research queries. In line with my contextual understanding of the interview

and focus group participants, I reviewed the transcripts to triangulate the data with observation fieldnotes, so as to improve accuracy and completeness.

Finally, I advanced to selective coding to focus on more abstract core concepts and variables, or “global themes,” resulting in the formulation of my research model. After collecting sufficient data and forming an adequate understanding of the emerging model, I reached theoretical saturation and decided to end data analysis (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). At this stage, I examined the distinctiveness of each category to ensure the clusters were discrete. After rounds of code refinement to ensure each code’s distinction from the rest and no overlap, I related my findings to existing bodies of literature on social capital, social networking, career development and success, and language in IB to identify the similarities and differences (Eisenhardt, 1989).

By the end of the qualitative analysis, using an inductive data-driven approach to link theory and data, I had comprehensive evidence on the construct of the LAN as a discrete phenomenon deserving acknowledgement in this field. I map out my thematic tree into different diagrams in the consequent chapters, each corresponding to the research question of the chapter. In chapter 5, my thematic analysis is a more focused analysis of LAN, the sequence of events, conditions for its existence, roles of engagement, and more. In Chapter 7, a more macro analysis of LAN is presented, focusing on its impacts and mechanisms on the individual in the MNC context. Thus, qualitative analysis has served this thesis vastly as a method to answering the research question and sub-questions.

4.6.2 *Quantitative Network Analysis*

I had initially intended to collect and analyze quantitative data from all six departments I had been granted access to. However, due to the remaining time in my research contract when I started Phase 3, I was only able to chase and complete datasets from four departments, namely HR, L&D, PR, and GS. The two remaining departments had to be excluded due to incomplete data. The response rate for the four completed datasets was 100%, due to support from management, who endorsed my questionnaire with a follow-up email encouraging employees to participate. I further describe the datasets in the quantitative studies.

Using data from the matrix table in the second section of the questionnaire, I was able to create a social network, mapping the advice seeking activity among the employees. Each employee in our sample is presented by a node. Each node has a set of independent attributes, such as age, gender, job level, and English fluency. Each advice-seeking relationship is represented by an arrow, known as an edge in the social network map, where the edges point to the advisors. After mapping the social networks, the advice seeking interactions among the employees become visually clear.

I start with data exploration prior to network model development. In Chapter 5, I aim to provide network visualization and descriptive statistics to gain some insight into the structure of the network that may be helpful in the latter stage of model development and inference. As network representations of data are a fundamental tool for understanding how a group of social entities operate, our aim is to examine the motivations for link creation in the network. This cannot be directly observed by visual representation nor descriptive statistics. Hence, a more in-depth analysis is required. As we also aim to examine the interaction mechanisms of the network, a more specialized form of regression analysis is needed.

I choose Exponential Random Graph Modelling (ERGM) due to the inherently relational data, which violates the assumptions of independence and identical distribution of standard errors of linear regression. ERGM permits inferences about the relative frequency of the observed network. It presents a probability distribution that determines if a given interaction mechanisms, dyadic, and individual variable is under- or over-represented. That is, the frequency of the variable in the observed network is compared to its average frequency in an appropriate random network (null model), given the conditional presence of other configurations or structural features (Snijders, Pattison, Robins, & Handcock, 2006). Simply stated, ERGM produces estimated parameters that occur more (or less) frequently than might be expected by chance, given all the other parameters in the model.

ERGM is a family of statistical models used for analyzing data on social networks. ERGM is referred to as “the most promising class of statistical models for expressing structural properties of social networks observed at one moment in time” (Snijders, Pattison, Robins, & Handcock, 2006, p. 99). ERGM can describe the structural mechanisms of an observed network, such as reciprocity and transitivity, at a single time period, considering the weighted similarity to a set of all possible alternative networks (Snijders, Pattison, Robins, & Handcock, 2006; Lusher, Koskinen, & Robins, 2013).

Using the software R, I employ ERGM on four departments comprising 107 nodes. In Chapter 6, I aim to examine what contributes to a person being ‘named’ as someone sought for language advice. I propose that four individual and dyadic attributes – the advisors’ language fluency, job level, language-based homophily, and advisors’ cosmopolitanism – influence on the decision to seek language advice and a formation of a language advice link.

The ERGM model aims to measure the likelihood of a tie existing in LAN. More specifically, the individual and dyadic characteristics (independent variables) predict the likelihood that one individual seeks language advice from another (response variable). They account for the presence (and absence) of network ties, and so provide a model for network structure.

4.6.3 Sample Characteristics

I had been given access to six departments: Human Resources (HR), Public Relations (PR), Learning & Development (LD), General Services (GS), Marketing & Sales, Corporate Planning & Strategy. Although my qualitative data involved the analysis of all six departments, I was only able to analyze the former four in my quantitative analysis due to the time constraint.

The HR department is responsible for recruitment, employee relations, payroll and benefits, and government affairs. The latter division is responsible for the HR activities that must be in accordance to the policies of the Ministry of Labor and Department of Immigration. It is one of the biggest departments in the administration group of QatarCo and is structurally more vertical and centralized compared to the rest. Its employees have the highest level of seniority compared to the rest of the sample. It has an equal distribution among employees whose primary language is Arabic, English and other. The LD in QatarCo is not a subset of HR, but rather its own department. It manages the individual performance, succession planning, training, and Qatarization of the organization.

The GS department is responsible for providing planning, designing, constructing and maintenance of the organization's facilities. One of the intriguing characteristics of this department is the primary language of its employees with an almost equal distribution of

Arabic and Urdu speaking staff. This may be due to the nature of the jobs in this department, that either have to deal with local suppliers, most likely Arabic, and blue-collar labor in Urdu. Here, the importance of local and labor language may explain the low mean score of the English fluency score, compared to the rest of the departments.

The PR department is responsible for managing the spread of information within the organization and to the public. It is relatively small in size and is among the younger age groups of the organization. Interestingly, it has a concentration of employees of two primary languages, English and Arabic, which can also be explained by the nature of the jobs and the level of fluency required to communicate to the employees in English and externally in Arabic.

Table 4.5 Descriptive Statistics of Quantitative Data

	<i>Sample</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Frequency</i>			
			<i>20-29</i>	<i>30-39</i>	<i>40-49</i>	<i>50-59</i>
Age	<i>LD</i>	<i>28</i>	2	14	5	7
	<i>GS</i>	<i>23</i>	5	8	7	3
	<i>PR</i>	<i>19</i>	4	9	6	0
	<i>HR</i>	<i>37</i>	9	12	11	5
	<i>Total</i>	<i>107</i>	20	43	29	15

		<i>N</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Gender	<i>LD</i>	<i>28</i>	16	12
	<i>GS</i>	<i>23</i>	15	8
	<i>PR</i>	<i>19</i>	8	11
	<i>HR</i>	<i>37</i>	23	14
	<i>Total</i>	<i>107</i>	62	45

Job Level			<i>Admin</i>	<i>Officer</i>	<i>Supervisor</i>	<i>Head</i>	<i>Manager</i>
	<i>LD</i>	28	8	7	8	4	1
	<i>GS</i>	23	8	6	5	3	1
	<i>PR</i>	19	5	6	4	3	1
	<i>HR</i>	37	12	13	9	2	1
	<i>Total</i>	107	33	32	26	12	4

Tenure in QatarCo (years)			<i>0-5</i>	<i>6-10</i>	<i>11-15</i>	<i>16-20</i>	<i>21+</i>
	<i>LD</i>	28	12	7	5	2	2
	<i>GS</i>	23	5	8	7	2	1
	<i>PR</i>	19	6	6	3	3	1
	<i>HR</i>	37	11	9	7	6	4
	<i>Total</i>	107	34	30	22	13	8

Primary Language			<i>Arabic</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Urdu</i>	<i>Other</i>
	<i>LD</i>	28	11	5	7	5
	<i>GS</i>	23	11	0	12	0
	<i>PR</i>	19	8	7	3	1
	<i>HR</i>	37	13	12	8	4
	<i>Total</i>	107	43	24	30	10

		<i>Sample</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Supervisor rating of English Fluency	<i>LD</i>		28	2	5	4.24	0.78
	<i>GS</i>		23	2	5	3.7	0.97
	<i>PR</i>		19	3	5	4.33	0.72
	<i>HR</i>		37	3	5	4.48	0.59
	<i>Total</i>		107	2	5	4.23	0.8

Cosmopolitanism Scores	<i>LD</i>	28	2.58	4.58	3.72	0.53
	<i>GS</i>	23	2.56	4.61	3.62	0.55
	<i>PR</i>	19	2.54	4.38	3.6	0.7
	<i>HR</i>	37	2.75	5	3.69	0.59
	<i>Total</i>	107	2.54	5	3.76	0.62

Notes:

LD: Learning & Development Department.

GS: General Services Department.

PR: Public Relations Department.

HR: Human Resources Department.

4.7 Research Quality

To compensate for the weaknesses and blind spots of each method, I deploy twofold triangulation. First, within the qualitative exploratory study, I collected several sources of data. While the primary source of insight is the interviews and focus group discussions, participant observation is mainly used to contextualize the data collected. Employing multiple qualitative methods (triangulation) increases the accuracy of emergent theory. Second, the qualitative and quantitative studies are used complementarily, and their roles in the research are equally important as each approach addresses a different aspect of the research queries.

One limitation of triangulation in a single case study is the overlap of data provided by the same informant through multiple methods (Flick, 2009). To avoid such data redundancy, respondents in the sample were assigned unique IDs. Each individual was only allowed to participate in one data collection process. For example, since IR01 was interviewed, she was not invited to participate in a focus group or complete a survey.

4.7.1 Qualitative Research Quality

To assess the quality of my qualitative research, I adopted the six quality indicators of Gaskell & Bauer (2000):

1. *Triangulation* is a strategy used for improving the quality of research by extending the approaches used. Within qualitative research, I deployed between-method triangulation by combining the different methods of participant observation, interviews, and focus

groups (Flick, 2009). I believe that although each method had its benefits, triangulating strengthened the findings.

Participant observation, for instance, had been the primary method in the recognition and inception of LANs and its ordinal meaning. Its elements, conditions, roles of engagement were all observed from a distance. However, a more in-depth analysis of experiences, motives, norms and values was possible with one-to-one interviews. The duality or multiplicity of the methods not only complemented the data present but also verified some parts of it.

In another occasion, triangulation served the purpose of pertaining data from multiple sources. In some of the case where employees during their one-to-one interviews would describe their roles, experiences and how it had impacted their career, I found that their names were also discussed during the managerial-level focus group. Upon asking for more examples of names of employees and probing to determine the extent of their success, I was able to capture multiple perspectives, employees' and their superiors', on the data I collected.

2. *Reflexivity* is a criterion that acknowledges bias in the research. As the researcher and observer in the field, my identity may have impacted my position. As a local, migrants and expatriates may have been hesitant to engage with me and sufficiently trust me to share negative opinions of local employees or the local culture; this may have caused inaccuracy in my research findings. To minimize this problem, I assessed my "localness" intermittently to ensure I presented myself as a neutral person by constantly communicating in English and speaking openly about my time abroad, thereby exhibiting

similar experiences to the non-local community. This may have somewhat mitigated the trust issue that the migrants and expatriates may have with me as an interviewer and observer.

Similarly, as a fluent speaker in both the local language and the lingua franca, I deployed my language skills as an asset by code-switching in appropriate situations. At times where I thought I was secluded or avoided because of my position as a researcher or a “spy”, I would use my localness to fit in. Speaking the local language and portraying the local identity allowed you to be an insider in the social group, which was a basis of trust and openness. Similarly, speaking English fluently and portraying a cosmopolitan identity had an impact on establishing relationships with the expatriates. I referred to London as “home” and English as my default language of communication. I talked about American TV and international politics to find a common ground and establish a relationship that may allow for trust and a way in the other social groups.

Instead of causing bias, I find my cosmopolitan identity and multilingual skills an asset to my research and ability to connect to the field. During the data collection, my localness and foreignness, (language) codeswitching, choice of topics I discussed allowed me to break the binary subject position of “us” versus “them”, and penetrate into the group that served the purpose of discussion (*the ‘us’ versus ‘them’ fragmentation is further reflected upon in Chapter 8*). Likewise, during my analysis and interpretation, I able to understand the tropes and literary figures of speech from different languages, cultures, and contexts, to better interpret the discourse of the text. It gave me an advantageous position to natural observe and report the power of institutional and social context, the social position of participants, and power relations between participants.

3. *Transparency and procedural clarity* in the way data were collected was ensured by following standard protocol. First and foremost, my access to the organization and employees was consensual and ethical via a research contract with the organization. Both parties agreed on the terms of the research contract, scope of access, time frame, and intern's responsibilities. Although *the practices* of the LSE PhD Academy and QatarCo were different, they had the same policy regarding use of data and informants' confidentiality. Thus, data collection consent was a two-step process. Upon reaching an agreement with the management and signing the research contract, a formal email had been sent out to the employees in all six departments of the scope of my research introducing them to me and encouraging them to voluntarily participate in my research, ensuring them that their identity and data is protected by law. As a second step of consent, I continued to follow transparency and procedural clarity with my informants. I started the interviews or focus groups with a brief introduction of my research, explained the anonymity and confidentiality of their data, and asked permission to be audio recorded. Once verbal consent was granted, I continued with my data collection.

In Phases 1 and 2, there were many instances where I had been rejected. In extreme cases, some employees refused to participate in any research activity by simply stating they are not interested to too busy to participate, in which I respected their boundaries and didn't attempt a second time. In other cases, interviewees refused to be audio recorded, in which I had to rely on recollections of our discussion to transcribe and annotate. In Phase 3, instances of rejection were more critical as it obstructs my whole dataset which would then be an incomplete analysis. In the four departments of which I have completed the datasets with 100% response rate, I personally dropped by the employees who did not

respond to explain to them the importance of their contribution to my research and ensure the confidentiality of the data they provide. In the two departments that had been excluded from the quantitative analysis, there were cases that preferred not to participate and due to the limited time I had left, I was not able to convince them otherwise.

Additionally, prior to data collection, I chose a clear research paradigm and decided to adopt a positivist epistemological stance. This allowed for a more defined logic of inquiry, goal of inquiry, and guidelines to follow. I therefore followed scientific methods that are observable, empirical, and measurable evidence to positively confirm the theory under study. Where bias may arise, I clearly stated my position as a researcher and how I attempted to eliminate the bias to the best of my ability. My data analysis was performed following procedures and standard protocol to capture and validate emerging themes. Using the format presented by Attride-Stirling (2001) in how to conduct thematic analysis, I followed the guidelines and presented a clear description of my processes in writing this thesis.

Following the criteria and procedures of the qualitative positivism approach to evaluate my thesis (Welch & Piekkari, 2017), I meet the “good” qualitative research standards based on my philosophical orientation. I ensure *construct validity* through adopting multiple sources of evidence. For example, in constructing the LAN process, I verified the data from two sources of informants, the advisor and the advisee. I further provide another source of evidence by using two different data collection methods to verify the findings. In another example, I do not solely rely on the informants’ own perceptions of the impact language advising has on their career success, I also present evidence from another source, namely, their superior or talent pool management team, when applicable.

Moreover, I ensure construct validity through providing a clear link between the data and the conclusions I derive when reporting the findings of each study by providing excerpts of fieldnotes, interview and focus groups transcripts.

As “good” research, I also ensure *internal* and *external validity*. In establishing a relationship between constructs, I use observation fieldnotes, interview and focus group transcripts to code and find patterns and establish a link between theoretical categories and my data. In cases where new data is evident that cannot be matched to the existing literature, I explicitly discuss it in my findings and conclusion, elucidating its link to the context as cultural-specific or organization-specific.

4. *Corpus construction*, as an indicator for qualitative research, requires choosing a representative sample of the organization by maximizing the variety of unknown representations (Gaskell & Bauer, 2000). To fulfill this criterion, I diversified my sample in terms of rank, demographics, and level of language fluency, and only stopped the interviewing process after reaching meaningful saturation. Although I adopted a snowballing sampling technique, I consciously kept a count of the hierarchical levels, social groups, age, functional areas, nationalities and social categories my sample involved. I maximized the variety of representation to present unbiased sample. A summary of the representative sample is exhibited in Tables 4.2 and 4.3.
5. *Thick descriptions* are provided in my results through verbatim reporting of sources, thus providing the reader with sufficient details to assess the assertions in my research (Gaskell & Bauer, 2000). Even the Arabic transcripts were translated and transcribed where it was necessary to be present.

6. Finally, Gaskell & Bauer's (2000) sixth suggested indicator is *surprise as a contribution to theory and/or common sense*. In the current research, the phenomenon of LAN is an unexpected finding. Although I initially intended my PhD research to focus on the relationship of language and career, the mediating mechanism of LAN was an element of surprise, that has contributed to developing a new theory and innovative contribution to the language in IB literature. In prior studies, language asymmetry causes conflict, distortion and gatekeeping of information, and dismantling of the corporate culture; my findings are, therefore, likely to be contrary to readers' expectations. This element of surprise has become the main focus on my research, highlighted as the thesis title.

4.7.2 Quantitative Research Quality

In modeling the observed network, I combined the four datasets, one for each department. To mitigate the inclusion of all network databases, I applied a method known as 'structural zeros' that informs the model that the employees in the four departments will not have communication with one another. There were two reasons for applying structural zeros. First, I had to account for the ways I collected my data. As the questionnaire sent to each department only included individuals in that department in the matrix table, cross-departmental relationships could not be detected. Second, the organization's structure does not encourage inter-departmental communication due to information confidentiality; consequently, inter-departmental interactions in LANs were not expected to be present. Thus, the ERGM in this thesis accounts for structural zeros, and therefore controls for differential tie probability of nodes across networks (dependency across networks).

There are several ways to examine model fit for statistical network models. In the quantitative study of Chapter 6, I assess the quality of the model using three distinct ways. First, I conduct a Goodness of Fit (GOF) diagnostics. This diagnostic allows us to know whether the specified model, with the combination of network mechanisms, dyadic and nodal attributes, is a good representation of our observed data. Second, I examine the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) diagnostics. This diagnostic is applied to monitor whether the model has converged to an equilibrium. Using the visual representation of the MCMC graphs, we can assess whether the model has converged to an equilibrium, confirming the validity of our fitted model. Third, I produce a simulation of the ERGM. By doing so, I can visually compare the observed data and predicted model by identifying similarities and differences in clusters, isolates, density, and other visual features.

Chapter 5: Language Advice Networks:

A New Form of Social Capital in the MNC

5.1 Introduction

MNCs operating across national borders have employees from multiple countries. With a myriad of nationalities in MNC workforces, the demography of MNCs calls for a common corporate language to facilitate communication across all functions and units (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Mahajan & Toh, 2014; Tenzer, Pudelko, & Harzing, 2014). IB scholars explain that MNCs should apply a lingua franca strategy to ease internal communication between organizational units, which consequently increases efficiency by overcoming misunderstandings, reducing costs, and communicating and delivering in a timely manner (Welch & Welch, 2015). Although the aim of establishing a shared language is to enhance the sense of belonging and cohesion within the firm (Henderson, 2005; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013), and provide a platform for knowledge articulation and creation (Buckley, Carter, Clegg, & Tan, 2005; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013), the IB literature has identified language standardization as a “lightning rod” (Hinds, Neeley, & Cramton, 2014) for problems where employees speak a wide range of languages and levels of lingua franca fluency vary.

This chapter investigates the interplay of individuals’ language capabilities and intra-firm social ties. Specifically, it aims to understand how individuals with asymmetric lingua franca fluency activate their social capital to exchange language-related knowledge in order to

complete tasks efficiently. It thus introduces the emerging phenomenon of the LAN in MNCs.

Using a sequential exploratory design comprising a qualitative study followed by a quantitative study, I find that the LAN is an informal, work-related network in which individuals with *low* and *high* levels of lingua franca fluency voluntarily activate their intra-firm social capital to *seek* and *offer* language-related advice. Endeavoring to improve internal knowledge transfer and efficiently conduct the job at hand, employees activate their social capital on a need-basis to benefit from the mass of information and knowledge embedded in the firm's human capital (Horton, Millo, & Serafeim, 2012; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013). I also find the LAN to be a distinct form of advice network, differing structurally a work-related GAN.

The remainder of this chapter is structured as follows. I first review the existing literature on language asymmetry in MNCs and informal organizational networks with respect to social capital. Second, I describe the research design, research context, data collection, and analyses. I then discuss the findings on the roles, conditions, processes, content, and dimensions of the LAN. Finally, I conclude the chapter by discussing the theoretical and managerial implications and limitations of this study.

5.2 Literature Review

5.2.1 Language in IB

The importance of language in IB has been recognized for the past three decades (Maclean, 2006; Neeley, 2013; Piekkari & Zander, 2005; Reiche, Harzing, & Pudelko, 2015; Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017). This research stream has interested scholars since Marschan-

Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L. (1997) called language a “forgotten factor in international business.” Since then, language has been studied in relation to many individual-level constructs in IB.

Language has been proven to impact individual cognition and identity (Bordia & Bordia, 2015; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Luring, 2008; Reiche, Harzing, & Pudelko, 2015; Tenzer, Pudelko, & Harzing, 2014), as well as individuals’ power, status, and inclusion in the organization (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000; Hinds, Neeley, & Cramton, 2014; Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993; Minbaeva, Pedersen, Björkman, Fey, & Park, 2003; Neeley, 2013; Reiche, Harzing, & Pudelko, 2015; Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017). Language has also been proven to impact individuals’ career in the organization (Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016; Zander, Mockaitis, & Harzing, 2011). This chapter focuses on the role of language in creating informal advice networks within the organization.

With employees from a range of different backgrounds and nationalities, almost all MNCs are multilingual entities (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Govindarajan & Gupta, 2001; Luo & Shenkar, 2006). With multiple language capabilities within their workforces, MNCs have begun adopting a common corporate language (*lingua franca*) to unify communication across all operations (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Luo & Shenkar, 2006). In most cases, English is chosen (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D, & Welch L, 1997; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D, & Welch L, 1999), rather than the local language of the headquarters’ or subsidiary’s host country. As the world’s way of speaking a common language, English has become an “administrative managerial tool” (Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016) in the workplace.

By adopting a lingua franca strategy, the MNC aims to provide common ground for managing global expansion and internal communication across different language environments (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Andersen & Rasmussen, 2004; Argote & Ingram, 2000; Barner-Rasmussen & Aarnio, 2011; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Neeley, 2011; Peltokorpi & Vaara, 2012; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005; Welch & Piekkari, 2006). The objectives of imposing a lingua franca include avoiding time-consuming translations (Janssens & Steyaert, 2014) and break linguistic boundaries (Welch & Piekkari, 2006), cultivating a sense of belonging and cohesion within the firm (Henderson, 2005; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013), and providing a platform for knowledge articulation and creation (Buckley, Carter, Clegg, & Tan, 2005; Chen, Geluykens, & Choi, 2006; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000).

The level of fluency in the lingua franca can act to facilitate or impede internal and external communication in the MNC (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Piekkari & Zander, 2005). Lingua franca fluency positively impacts the transfer of information and skills (Van Der Born & Peltokorpi, 2010), and understanding of tacit knowledge (Henderson, 2005). Additionally, a high level of fluency positively influences coping with emotional challenges on the job. It hones one's confidence and job satisfaction (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005), and increases motivation (Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014; Neeley, 2013; Tenzer, Pudenko, & Harzing, 2014). Consequently, a high level of language fluency among employees has two principal impacts on the MNC. First, it creates a unifying corporate culture by strengthening employees' sense of belonging to the organization (Feely & Harzing, 2003; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2014). Second, it facilitates

resource and knowledge sharing and transfer across organizational units (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Buckley, Carter, Clegg, & Tan, 2005; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000).

Having a lingua franca as a common language of communication in the organization facilitates the formation of formal and informal ties. A high fluency level in lingua franca increases the understanding of the knowledge being shared, be it formal knowledge sharing, such as between an employee and his/her supervisor, or informal knowledge sharing through socialization of colleagues. The high level of fluency allows for shared cognitive frames of reference and a better understanding of the meaning systems and cultural references (Brannen, Piekkari, & Tietze, 2014; Henderson, 2005).

Although it is advantageous to exhibit a high level of lingua franca, asymmetry in lingua franca fluency among employees in the MNC persists. The managerial perspective on this issue is that it hinders the efficiency and communication across the diverse workforce and knowledge sharing across individuals, units, and subsidiaries of the MNC (e.g., Luo & Shenkar, 2006; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1997; Neeley, 2011; Van Der Born & Peltokorpi, 2010).

For employees who lack fluency in the lingua franca, there are various consequences. Emotionally, less fluent employees feel challenged by the environment, as they are perceived as less knowledgeable among peers due to the language barrier (Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014). This causes continuous frustration and anxiety (Aichhorn & Puck, 2017a; 2017b; Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014; Neeley, Hinds, & Cramton, 2012; Hinds, Neeley, & Cramton, 2014; Tenzer, Pudelko, & Harzing, 2014), leading them to experience job and relational dissatisfaction (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari,

& Sääntti, 2005). The challenges posed by the language barrier are almost always mitigated by employees switching to a different language, such as their native languages or one in which they are more fluent, forming clusters of similar language speakers (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Luring & Klitmøller, 2014; Luring & Tange, 2010; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1997, 1999).

In this section, I overview the impact of asymmetric lingua franca fluency on the individual and the MNC as a network. I view lingua franca fluency as an advantage in the MNC setting, and acknowledge limited fluency creates both practical and psychological barriers. Building on the faultlines of lingua franca asymmetry in the MNC, the next subsection discusses the role of individual intra-firm social capital in sharing knowledge. It considers the different forms of informal networks that support less competent employees to receive the information and knowledge they need, as a benefit derived from their social capital.

5.2.2 Social Capital

Social capital is defined as “the aggregate of the actual and potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition,” which provide collective benefits to each member of the network (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 248). These relationships range from family ties to community members, such as neighbors, to workplace colleagues. Once a network has been formed, efforts must be made to maintain these relationships, or they will lose their efficacy (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Bourdieu, 1984; Bourdieu, 1986; Inkpen & Tsang, 2016). Such efforts range from expressing gratitude, respect, and friendship to exchanging gifts (Bourdieu, 1986) or knowledge (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). The production and reproduction of social capital results from continuous exchanges requiring both time and energy, and thus the direct or

indirect use of economic capital (Bourdieu, 1986). Provided it is neither misused nor abused, social capital continues to grow and become stronger (Adler & Kwon, 2002).

Nahapiet & Ghoshal (1998) argue that social capital comprises three dimensions: structural, relational, and cognitive. The structural dimension embodies the pattern of relationships between nodes in the network, and can be analyzed from the perspective of network ties, network configuration, network stability, and/or appropriability (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The relational dimension represents the outcome of network interactions (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), such as trust and individuals' willingness to share their knowledge (Hasan, 2017; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). Finally, the cognitive dimension represents the cultural approach, which postulates the cultural artifacts such as knowledge, norms, and rules that underlie individual interactions and choices (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Nonino, 2013). Although cultural capital is recognized as a discrete form of capital, it is considered in parallel with cognitive capital as they cover similar aspects (Butler & Purchase, 2008). All these elements impact on the ease of knowledge exchange in a network (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

Social capital exists in the organization in the form of formal and informal networks. As a formal network, an employee in the MNC has established connections through pre-existing ties and hierarchical functions. Unlike the explicit nature of the hierarchical organizational chart, informal networks arise implicitly. Defined as a network of relationships across different boundaries in the organization, designed to accomplish tasks fast (Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993) and sharing a common purpose (Fukuyama, 1995), informal networks emerge in all organizations and, over time, establish an informal hierarchy, regardless of organizational levels (Diefenbach & Sillince, 2011).

Formal networks are goal-directed networks where activities and relationships are mandated by the organization (Ibarra, 1993). By contrast, informal networks are “discretionary patterns of interaction, where the content of relationships may be work-related, social, or a combination of both” (Ibarra, 1993, p. 58). They are “unsanctioned and ungoverned organic structures connecting a potentially unbounded group of individuals” (Allen, James, & Gamlen, 2007, p. 181). Informal networks in the organization are classified into informal working (information, access, hindrance, knowledge, and advice) and informal non-working (communication, feelings, friendship, trust, and Simmelian) (Nonino, 2013). Of the informal working network types, some are based on the network’s structural dimension (information, access, hindrance) and others on its relational dimension (knowledge and advice). Nonino (2013) explains that an advice network, in a work setting, is highly correlated to knowledge networks and access networks. It is also strongly correlated to Simmelian networks (relationships of trust and friendship).

In organizations, informal networks provide an important mechanism for knowledge sharing between individuals. By providing the basic structure for information flow, informal networks add considerable value to organizations’ formal knowledge management efforts (Conway & Sligar, 2002), impacting the development of knowledge creation and diffusion and minimizing knowledge search and exchange costs (Phelps, Heidl, & Wadhwa, 2012). To acquire and transfer knowledge, employees rely on their contacts (Ipe, 2003). The exchange of knowledge in the informal network is a voluntary, conscious activity, unlike reporting in formal organizational networks (Davenport, 1997; Ipe, 2003).

To use the social capital one possesses, “activation” of the network is necessary. One of the

various definitions of social capital is the number of people one expects to offer support, when needed, and the resources these people can offer (Boxman, De Graaf, & Flap, 1991). The difference between *having* social capital and *using* social capital is important to note (Kwon & Alder, 2014), since having access to social capital does not necessarily guarantee mobilization (Smith, 2005). This is demonstrated by Obukhova & Lan's (2013) finding that access to social capital does not predict its use among job seekers. Thus, networks facilitate access to network nodes who have knowledge or information, but access does not guarantee knowledge transfer (Inkpen & Beamish, 1997; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Inkpen & Tsang, 2016; Kwon & Alder, 2014; Obukhova & Lan, 2013; Smith, 2005).

There is vast literature discussing the link between social capital and access to information and resources. Greater access to information and resources through social capital enhances work performance (Methot, 2010; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001), empowers and motivates (Spreitzer, 1996), increases job satisfaction (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001), and enables individuals to add greater value to the organization (Burt, 1992; Burt, 1997; Kwon & Alder, 2014; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). For example, employees who engage in networking more than their peers are more successful.

In a setting characterized by job roles, hierarchy, and shared mission and vision, how do individuals with varying capabilities in the mandated lingua franca form an informal network to help one another overcome the language barrier for work-related tasks? The rest of this chapter elucidates the emerging phenomenon of the LAN in MNCs.

5.3 Methods

5.3.1 Research Design

In this chapter, I adopt a mixed methods approach. Specifically, it adopts a sequential exploratory design, as proposed by Creswell (2003). To answer the research query *what is LAN and is it a distinct form of social capital*, the study is conducted in two phases: qualitative data collection and analysis, followed by quantitative data collection and analysis. The findings of these two phases are then integrated in the interpretation phase, where data from the quantitative phase are used to assist interpreting the qualitative findings (Morgan, 1998). Therefore, this chapter's primary focus is to explore the LAN as an emergent theory, with quantitative data used to expand on the qualitative findings (Creswell, 2003).

Qualitatively, I aim to explore and investigate the elements of the LAN to develop a holistic description of the network. Since the LAN is an emerging social phenomenon, it requires a rigorous qualitative approach through grounded theory. Additionally, as the investigated subject matter is novel to the literature, and pre-defined categories ought not be imposed, it is best to conduct a multi-faceted exploration of the topic using a method that enables probing and seeking further elaborations to collect details and stories of employees' encounters, capturing diverse perspectives of the different social actors (*how* and *why*) (Yin, 2006). Quantitatively, I aim to prove that the LAN is structurally distinct from the GAN. The remainder of this section discusses the two phases in depth.

5.3.2 Study 1- Qualitative Approach

Using a preliminary research model to investigate the relationship between language fluency and social capital formation, I went into the field with the goal of collecting data that back my model. This inductive process transitioned into an abductive one when the field offered me a new perspective on the topic. The inception of Language Advice Networks emerged on the field and I decided to further investigate its existence in context.

Following grounded theory standards, I interrelate data collection and analysis (Suddaby, 2006) to ensure an integrative theory-building process. The use of thematic analysis, driven by grounded theory, is informative for this study's research area. The prominent literature on language in IB promotes a negative image of its workforce by describing it as "fragmented" (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Feely & Harzing, 2003; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2014). The grounded theory approach to thematic analysis allows me to explore the detail and nuances of the LAN as a form of social capital in the MNC, including its underlying cognitive, relational, and structural dimensions. Through theoretical sampling, iterative coding, and comparison between theory and data to reach saturation, I iterate and refine the emerging categories in my findings. My selection of respondents for data collection (see Table 4.2) and of the interview questions (see Appendix A) was aimed at expanding the emerging theory of LAN to the greatest possible extent through diversity in situations and respondents.

During my qualitative data analysis, I continuously revisited existing theories and literature. My data analysis was an ongoing process, which started during and continued alongside my data collection. I began my thematic data analysis with "open coding" (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). I categorized these codes by grouping them into emerging themes from the text, or "first-order codes" (Attride-Stirling, 2001). For example, statements

concerning “who seeks your help in language-related issues” reveal the characteristics and attributes of an advice seeker in a LAN. I then progressed to “axial coding,” to establish relations between concepts that may be found in the existing literature, or novel relations that can be further examined and tested (Flick, 2009), organizing the codes into the second-order categories relevant to my research queries. For example, “linguistic faultlines” emerges as a second-order category from the recurring codes in the first round of analysis. Finally, I advanced to selective coding to focus on more abstract core concepts and variables – global themes or aggregated dimensions –resulting in the formulation of the data structure presented in Figure 5.1.

Data for the qualitative study were collected through two methods. First, participant observation was used to gain insight into the role of languages in day-to-day operations and socialization within the organization. Second, 65 semi-structured, one-to-one interviews were conducted with employees in QatarCo’s headquarters and at the Ras Laffan plant in Qatar’s North Fields.

Participant Observation

For ten consecutive months, I attended the headquarters offices for six to eight hours each working day, which I spent attending meetings, taking fieldnotes, interviewing employees, and performing weekly administrative tasks as an intern. Such exposure provided good opportunities to informally observe employees during their working hours and breaks; as an intern, I was able to fit in as an employee and spend time with employees during their lunch and smoking breaks. Employees informed via email from management that as I interned in the organization, I collected data for a research project.

Being present for long hours over the course of months broke down the barriers of researcher status to them. Employees eventually started treating me like I'm a colleague, an insider. My presence in the workplace – “going native” (Flick, 2009) – was largely unobtrusive (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As a fluent English speaker, I was constantly approached for language advice. This helped me in experiencing LAN first-hand as well as analyze the kind of data being asked for and exchanged. At first, only Nationals would approach me for help and the non-Nationals especially expatriates seemed reluctant. Three months into my contract, I was approached by everyone, not just the Nationals. I found out that it wasn't trust that held them back but it's because I looked “inexperienced. They believed as I looked “young and came straight from school” so I wouldn't know much. The Nationals, however, could tell from my English accent and bilingual conversations I had with them that my English was advanced compared to someone straight out of school locally.

My multifaceted identity -- a Qatari National, an Arabic speaker, A fluent English speaker, a cosmopolitan – allowed me to gain membership in different social groups and take an active role in engagement to gain employees' trust as an insider (Flick, 2009). The locals treated me as one of their own, as I spoke the dialect and dressed like them (National attire to work). Similarly, the Arabs approached me in Arabic and I responded in the expected manner (in Arabic, using Muslim salutations and expressions). Although I didn't look Western, my fluent English and un-local openness (engaged with men and women equally, shook hands with male counterparts, wore an unconventional national attire) portrayed me as “un-local” compared to the locals. Hence my cosmopolitanism outlook also facilitated my access to the Western and other foreign social networks within the workplace.

Notes from numerous conversations with the employees were recorded in a small notebook kept in my pocket at all times all done in English. I annotated all my fieldnotes in English, not only because it was my default language, but also for convenience as to save time in the transcription and data analysis phases. In a few instances, my notes were jotted in Arabic. At times it was because I couldn't immediately translate a phrase to English or needed help in accurate translation of the phrase (such as a proverb). Collecting these fieldnotes proved invaluable for understanding the setting and employees' behavior.

Interviews

In total, I was able to conduct 65 one-to-one interviews, comprising primary and subsequent interviews. I followed a semi-structured interview guide comprising both standardized and tailored questions, allowing flexibility with the content and level of detail with every interviewee. Interviews ranged in duration from 40 to 60 minutes. Most interviews were recorded with the consent of the interviewees; for the minority that refused to be recorded, detailed notes were made immediately afterwards to the best of my recollection. All interviews were conducted in English, but with minor code-switching to Arabic with some Arabic-speaking interviewees.

The interview questions were divided into three parts. For the purpose of this chapter, only the first and second parts are analyzed. The first part contains demographic questions, such as job level, age, and tenure in the organization; the second part concerns interviewees' role in a LAN and the extent of their engagement. I moved from the first to the second part each time I reached meaning saturation, with no more insights to be gained from further probing (Gaskell & Bauer, 2000).

The questions I asked during the interview were intentionally non-directive to avoid biases of predefined priori knowledge and to allow the inductive process to be more natural, providing a stronger grounding for theoretical insights (Eisenhardt, 1989). Additionally, to increase *specificity*, I reviewed my fieldnotes to identify unclear situations encountered during my observation. To explore and gain understanding of these situations, I explicitly referred interviewees to situations in which they were involved. Thus, the content of interviews elaborates on the impact and meaning of each situation, collecting as much detail as possible from interviewees (Eisenhardt, 1989; Flick, 2009).

I re-interviewed some respondents to follow up on the data they provided in initial interviews, which is critical to the iterative process of data collection and theory development (Flick, 2009). Follow-up interviews were scheduled to confirm certain details and obtain additional information on aspects that were not discussed in detail in initial interviews, or to address issues that had subsequently arisen in my data collection. This method proved useful in validating the information collected and initial research findings (Flick, 2009).

5.3.3 Study 2 - Quantitative Approach

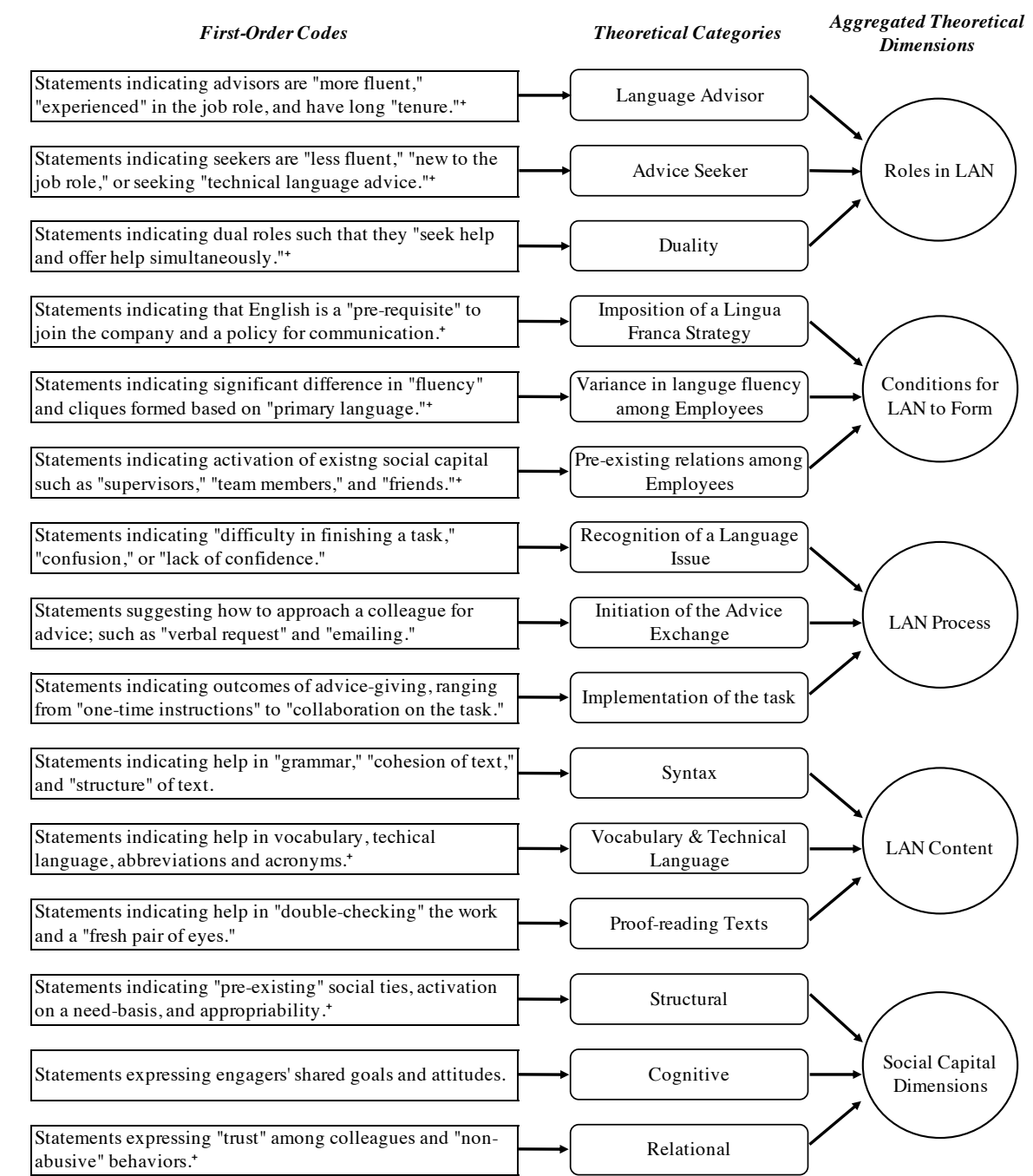
As discussed earlier, I employed a quantitative approach to interpret and complement some findings from the qualitative study. Prior to applying the quantitative approach, I have had a clear empirical model from the qualitative study, with some weak conclusions that need further investigations preferably using a different approach to validate. Thus, combining quantitative and qualitative studies of data allows the initial detection of general patterns in the data, which are then elucidated through in-depth contextual evidence. This yields a quantifiable yet contextualized analysis, and increases the robustness and validity of both

methods. Thus, this quantitative study has two aims: (1) to investigate whether and how a LAN is structurally distinct from a GAN; and (2) to support interpretations from the qualitative study (Creswell, 2003).

I collected data through a survey comprising three sections, only the first and second of which are used for quantitative data analysis in this study. The first section comprises demographic questions; the second tabulates the names of all employees in the respondent's department, and asks the respondent to rank the frequencies of their language-advise seeking engagement with each employee.

The response rate for the questionnaire was 92%, thanks partly to support from management, who encouraged employees to complete my questionnaire through a follow-up email. For the 107 participants spread across four departments, interactions in LANs and GANs were mapped and structurally compared. Using the software R, I employed ERGM. This type of network analysis was chosen to understand the formation of the networks' structure. Using the same 107 employees (nodes), their 188 connections (edges) in the LANs, and 512 connections in the GANs, I compared the two structures using comparable measures such as reciprocity, preferential attachment, transitivity, and density (Handcock, Hunter, Butts, Goodreau, & Morris, 2008).

Figure 5.1 Overview of Data Structure*



Notes:

* All data were derived from semi-structured interviews.

⁺ indicates "supplemented with observations".

5.4 Findings of Study 1

In this section, I will discuss the main findings of the qualitative study. Figure 5.1 depicts an overview of the data structure of the findings. First, I explore the definition of LAN and the terminology associated with the phenomenon (5.4.1). Second, I clarify the conditions that must be present to enable a LAN to form (5.4.2). Third, I reveal the content exchanged in a LAN (5.4.3) and the process of advice exchange (5.4.4). Finally, I qualitatively compare the LAN and GAN (5.4.5).

5.4.1 LAN Definition and Terminology

Under pressure to efficiently complete tasks, employees often find it unnecessary to pursue mainstream language advice solutions, such as taking an English training course, using a translation tool, calling a paid agency, or making an official request to the legal department for translation: all of these may be considered time-consuming, a waste of resources, or costly (Janssens & Steyaert, 2014). Instead, one simply calls a trusted friend, turns to a friendly colleague, or requests help from superiors:

We skip this long process by just seeking help from within the department, and so long as we have the resources, it's more efficient this way. I mean we save time, a lot of time! Imagine having to run back to my office, make an official request through the portal, which then requires approval from my department manager, who is always busy in meetings or out of the office in Ras Laffan [the plant]. Once that is received, it will still take time at their [legal department's] end. We're talking a week or so [sighs]. Let's leave this to something we can't do ourselves [pointing to the department members]. [IR_02]

Everyone here doesn't speak fluent English and it's ok because it doesn't mean they're incompetent. It just means we need to collaborate to succeed [...] It just happens naturally I guess when you're surrounded with fluent colleagues that you work with on a daily basis. [IR_12]

The seeking and giving of language-specific knowledge is an unstructured, voluntary use of social capital by individuals with, respectively, low and high language capabilities. It represents an attempt to improve knowledge transfer and efficiently conduct the job at hand by utilizing the mass of information and knowledge embedded in the firm's human capital. There are two notable aspects in this definition. First, the importance of efficiency as a shared goal among LAN members; and second, the roles of engagement. The following illustrations are taken from my fieldnotes:

Reem is the newest member of the Competence Development & Performance Management team. A Qatari, dressed in the traditional abaya, in her late twenties, she had a relatively lower voice compared to her team members. Her conversations are discrete (orienting information). She got up and walked to Dane's cubical, late 50s, British, Senior Specialist.

"What do they mean by 'on probation'? I found it on the latest excel sheet of the performance summary," she asked.

"Oh yeah, yeah. I forgot to explain this in our meeting yesterday... those are the individuals who got a rating of 1 in last year's appraisal," he clarified.

The conversation continued for another two minutes and ended with Reem thanking Dane and walking back to her desk, two cubicles away from Dane's.

[Fieldnotes from February 13, 2017 at 10:34]

Several aspects of the above excerpt are particularly important. First is the need for an employee to rely on another employee for efficiency. Aside from trying to save time, Reem was seeking accurate knowledge by asking for the definition in the context of this particular document. She was later asked why she did not use a translation tool, such as Google Translate. She replied:

I know what “probation” means but just not in this reference [...] It was just quicker to ask Dane for the meaning because he wrote it. Google [Translate] would have given me different scenarios in which the word probation is applicable. But I chose to ask Dane because he is our Google Translate [laughs] [...] Also, Google wouldn’t have explained the term in context... how would it [Google] know what’s the company’s threshold for probation [...] but Dane knows because he assigns employees on probation.

[Fieldnotes from February 13, 2017 at 13:10]

Another aspect of such knowledge exchange is the roles in this interaction, with one individual requesting help and the other offering it. A *language-advice seeker* is an employee, often with low language fluency, who has a language-related query hindering their completion of a task at hand. A *language advisor* is a sought-after employee, often with higher language fluency, who offers to help by answering the language-related query, either as a responsibility of their job or a manifestation of goodwill. In the case of Reem and Dane, Dane had responsibility for answering Reem’s query as her superior and the original author of the document on which she was working. In another situation, Ali, the head of the Nationalization Strategy known as Qatarization, made a call to a subordinate, Ibrahim. I noted the following:

Both Arabs, around the same age, and portrayed native level fluency (orienting characteristics). Ali goes straight into his question after Ibrahim picks up the call, “Salam [Arabic/Muslim salutation]. Are you busy?” [Silence for 10 seconds] “I’m working on the March report for COO, give me another word or phrase for ‘just enough.’ The budget was just enough.” The replacement word was “sufficient.”

[Fieldnotes from November 27, 2016 at 13.05]

The phone conversation with Ibrahim continued with the same pattern of Ali requesting synonyms for words he had written in his report. In Ali’s interview after this encounter, he clarified as follows:

Ibrahim is a member of my team and I trust his expertise and opinion... He lived in the US for almost all his life, so English comes easy to him... There are situations where I advise him on what [linguistically] sounds better in an email, especially if it’s going out to the organization with my name [as the Head of Qatarization]. So, we help each other all the time because he’s a native speaker and his communication skills are professional and I know what’s better in the context of his job. [IR_16]

This excerpt highlights a very intriguing characteristic of the LAN, namely the possibility of dual roles. As an unstructured network, LAN members are not designated as advice seekers or language advisors but can engage in both roles in different situations involving a different type of language-related advice:

Even though I advise mostly, I, too, need to be advised. There are times you just need a new pair of eyes to spot what you've missed or ask for elaboration on something I wrote because as they say, "the meaning is in the heart of the poet" [Arabic proverb], so not everyone will understand what you mean and this is where the advisor becomes helpful. [IR_36]

5.4.2 Conditions to Form a LAN

The findings indicate the need for certain underlying conditions for a LAN to form. First, a LAN emerges in a field or entity that restricts communication to one language. In the specific case of MNCs, a lingua franca strategy is often imposed. QatarCo's lingua franca is English. Although it originated in and continues to operate from Qatar, its workforce is very diverse and multilingual. As my fieldnotes confirm, all work is in English as there is almost never another common language in a given team. A respondent elaborated:

Because we are obliged to talk and write in English inside [QatarCo], we need help from time to time because not everyone has excellent language skills in the company language. In our case, it is English. I am Filipino, my colleagues are from elsewhere, and we can't work in our native languages. If we did, no one would need help but still no communication would happen across people from different countries. But because English is there, help is necessary. [IR_11]

The English is good in a way and bad in another. Its good because I now have friends from the other side of the world and we can communicate and understand each other perfectly well [...] but it's also bad because it can be a weakness to some people to get their message out there, so they need proper training or help to get to a good level

for communication [...] in the meantime, they need [language] help in any form
[IR_21]

In my ten months of observing and participating, the lingua franca policy has been the number one cause of encouraging and facilitating the emergence of LAN. As the employees are confined to communicate in one language, their performance lies in how well they deliver the message. Lingua franca, in this case acts like a *black box*, a good idea can go through the black box and either come through well-articulated or poorly said, a language advisee explains during his smoking break:

“Language is a big deal when your performance is based on it. In here, we are not on a holiday so it is appreciated if we show a waiter that we can say hello or thank you in his language. No, no... English is our language and how well you speak reflects on your competence so I will get every help I can to get my message perfectly said or written and transmitted in this black box [laughs]”.

[Fieldnotes from March 2, 2017 at 9:10]

Another underlying condition for a LAN to exist is *variance* in lingua franca fluency. MNCs operating across national borders comprise employees from multiple backgrounds with varying degrees of English fluency. The introduction of a lingua franca is helpful, yet the issue of varying fluency inevitably arises. Thus, on the foundation of linguistic faultlines and differences, a LAN emerges. Advisees expressed the following views:

If I want to make friends, I look for someone like me. Like someone who shares my backgrounds and beliefs, I guess. But if I need English help, I will look for someone

who's nothing like me. Someone who studied abroad or lived in an English-speaking country [...] not the typical local that had my education and probably makes the same mistakes as me. [IR_09]

We are all different in obvious ways: where we come from and the cultures we belong to. But the one thing that brings us together is the workplace [...] and suddenly we don't see our differences when we work together for a common vision. Plus, working in one language, even if we are not so good at it, makes it possible [...] The level of language is not an issue because we have the good ones to compensate for the poor ones. [IR_17]

In the former quote, the diversity highlighted goes beyond the variance in lingua franca fluencies among employees. It also captures the different types or sources of education and cultural frames that one looks for or refrains from when seeking language advice. In Chapter 2, we saw that the education system in Qatar is diverse, where one can choose from the public bilingual education to private Western (including some Ivy League) institutions. Thus, the source of education and cultural frame may be a precursor for the choice of a language advisor (further examined in Chapter 6).

The former and latter quote complement one another in resembling unity in the workplace, despite the fragmentation caused by language asymmetry. During my fieldwork, I experienced a harmonic culture that brings together otherwise unconnected colleagues. Although no personal relationship connects them, the language advisor and seeker create a new layer of relationship based on their language asymmetry.

The third underlying condition is pre-existing relations among employees. Also referred to as one's intra-firm social capital, pre-existing relations range from familiar colleagues to helpful employees and to close work friends. The language advisors seem to be chosen based on their friendly character, high language competence, and peers' recommendation:

I won't walk up to a random person even if I know he's good [fluent in English].

Asking for help needs courage because you're vulnerable and showing your weakness to others [...] First, it has to be someone I know, then I trust. [IR_10]

My superior colleagues are the best option because I see them all the time, so it's not weird I ask for any sort of help [...] Plus they know my job because they were one day in my position to get to where they are. [IR_31]

Although the qualitative analysis doesn't highlight *who* is seeking and *whom* they're seeking from language advice, it only confirms seeking advice from someone with a positive image personally and professionally. This observation becomes interesting when you want to know more about who is sought and why. The preceding findings show that it is not "a friend" or someone "alike". Now, we find out it is someone with a positive reinforced image, either from personal experience or from peers' recommendations. From these observations, two intriguing queries arise: first, who are the language advisors and what attributes makes them an advisor? Second, if peers' recommendation is a significant influence on whom to seek advice from, then transitive relations must exist.

In sum, the pre-existing relationships condition expects the advice seeker to seize the *opportunity* by asking who they know to be *motivated* to share their knowledge and

competent in the subject matter. This condition aligns with Alder & Kwon's (2002) Opportunity-Motivation-Ability framework by suggesting that all three sources must be present for social capital to be activated.

5.4.3 LAN Content

The language advice in an LAN varies in content, from asking for the meaning of a word to proofreading and editing text. The content of LAN had been the most difficult data to collect and analyze. First, I asked each advisee on the content they were asked advice on; second, I had to work with recalled memories as some were less frequently asked than others; third, I had to assess whether it fell into the language-related advice category, and if so, which category of language advice. Three main categories of advice emerge. The first and most basic category is asking advice on language syntax, which incorporates grammar, sentence structure, and cohesion of a document or text. This category of advice was asked by the least fluent advisees and had no prior experience in business writing (reports, emails, minutes, etc.). However, there was also a standard writing format that QatarCo followed. One respondent explained:

It doesn't necessarily mean that I don't know the spelling of a word, but it could be that I want to double-check. Sometimes it is small things like the difference between the English and American spelling. Does the "r" come before the "e" or after? Like in "center." So my issue may be what spelling should be followed according to QatarCo. [IR_25]

Similarly, another respondent explained the content of language advice:

My education was in Arabic so for me to write in English might be bizarre because my colleagues who know me say you're translating your words from Arabic to English and it's not done right. As another Arab, they understand. But for another person, they won't get it maybe. So most of my help is for if this makes sense to a non-Arab: the use of correct English. [IR_13]

The latter quote portrayed an issue I frequently observed during my fieldwork: translating verbatim from one's mother tongue to English. To someone of the same cultural frame, the meaning is understood. However, to someone who can't speak the original language from which the phrase was translated from, the meaning is lost. In one instance, I was approached by an Arab colleague who said "are you leaving work early today?" and I asked why, surprised. He said "its pouring with blessings outside". As another Arab, I understood that he meant it rained and rain in this region symbolized blessings as the region experiences drought all year round and people pray special prayers asking God for rain for their livestock and harvest to survive. To an English person, this phrase is not only untranslatable but ironic as rain resembles a miserable weather in the UK. From my personal cultural frames, I was able to understand the verbatim translation that another person wouldn't have and I observe this type of linguistic errors frequently in the workplace.

The second category of LAN content is vocabulary and technical language. This may include context-specific meanings (e.g., "probation" in the example of Reem and Dane), technical terms, and acronyms specific to the organization or industry. The example below demonstrates that some basic words, such as "plant," may be unclear to someone unfamiliar with industry jargon:

When we get newcomers from business school or even other industries, they are rarely aware of the terms we use here to refer to key elements of the company [...] A plant is a plant, green leaves or flowers, whatever. But here, it is an industrial term for a unit of operation where we extract and refine natural gas. See what I mean? If I tell you I'm going to the plant, you are going to be confused, unless you are aware of it [...] and this is a big portion of the language content that we advise on. [IR_32]

Many of our staff are referred to as IDP [Individual Development Plan]. In meetings we say, "who's IDP here?" In marketing training courses, we say it's "IDP friendly" or "for non-IDPs." [...] Basically, IDP stands for "Individual Development Program," which is a group of local fresh graduates, recruited on a tailored career development plan. [...] so it's an important acronym here in QatarCo, and because it's used a lot, I get asked about it a lot. [IR_18].

Similarly, I had a personal experience during the fieldwork with their unfamiliar work jargon. In one of the meetings I attended with Marketing & Sales, they were referring to the output and bottleneck of each *train*. Trying to make sense of the situation, I whispered to Lloyd, the head of training whom I've worked with for the first three months of the fieldwork. "LNG *train*, a facility that convert natural gas into Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) and transports it". This industry-specific jargon may not make sense to someone unfamiliar with the field and in this case, I realized I engaged in the LAN to ask about the meaning of an industry-jargon.

Finally, the most complex and time-consuming language advice content is proof-reading and editing text. This allows "a fresh pair of eyes" to check the consistency and standards of a

prepared document. It is very common even among fluent English speakers. A respondent explained:

We encourage teamwork. So there is nothing wrong with asking for help here and there. Most of the company staff are [English] second language speakers. So it doesn't mean this person or that person didn't learn how to write if he asked for someone to review his work to submit a document of excellent standards... I personally do it myself. I will ask a colleague to have a thorough look if the document is sensitive and needs to be carefully wordsmith-ed. [IR_19]

Official documents that leave this company represent this company, its people, its skill set. We can't send out documents that aren't checked over and over by the most talented individuals in the organization. [...] While this is usually done by external editors or trained people in the legal department, sometimes, especially when there is a deadline, it is done in-house by one of us. So, this sort of language help is requested even by the best of us. [IR_35]

The practice of asking a colleague to proof-read a document is common among all professions, such as academics. Similarly, when employees feel that their work will be exposed to a manager, a high-profile official, and/or published for the entire organization, more pressure is placed on the quality of writing produced. This category has been the most reported form of language-advice in the content analysis of LAN. The three categories discussed represent the majority of content exchanged in a LAN, but are not exhaustive. They constitute the three main areas of advice seeking. Language advice content varies in complexity and time consumption, contingent on the content.

5.4.4 LAN Process

The LAN entails a three-step process of *recognizing* a language problem, *initiating* advice seeking, and *implementing* the advice to complete the task. Recognition of a language issue is the mental realization by the language-advice seeker that they need to request help to complete a task. It may take the form of confusion due to the language barrier, or lack of confidence in the quality of an output. Advice seekers explained their experience of recognition:

It's the moment I tell myself "uh-oh, I need a nudge of confidence in my work." And this makes me write the email or make the phone call or shout out to Lloyd across the room. [IR_01]

When I stare at it [task] for too long and it still looks gibberish and I'm unsure how to proceed, then I know I may be misunderstanding what's required from me. This is when I know I need [language help]. [IR_30]

It's the minute I ask myself "what does that even mean? Too technical for me to absorb and I'm just new to all of this language" [...] that's a problem because, in my line of work, there is no space for error. [IR_29]

Having recognized the problem, the employee moves onto the second and most complex stage: *initiation*. Complexity derives from involving another person in the situation, requiring an individual to make the right choice on whom to approach for advice and how to contact them. To participate in a LAN, one surveys existing social capital to find a language advisor (Chapter 6 discusses whom to approach, so the remainder of this chapter focuses on initiation

methods). Once the right advisor is found, the language-advice seeker initiates a request.

Advice seekers explained their initiation methods:

It really depends who I'm asking. If it's someone in my team, they most probably are sitting next to me or close by. I'll just ask right then and there [...] My go-to person is usually my supervisor. He sits at a closed desk, so I'll knock on his door and ask [...] for more extensive requests, I'd probably email him [supervisor]. [IR_26]

Usually with big documents or big tasks like proof-reading, I prefer sending an email to clarify what I'm looking for from them. Not just because of the convenience, but written requests and consent are always safer, even if they are not required to do it. But for documentation purposes, and who knows, if anything goes wrong. [IR_08]

Finally, once the employee initiates a request for language advice, the implementation process begins. When the language advisor responds by providing the help needed, in the form of verbal instructions or cooperation on a particularly time-consuming task, the language advice exchange is complete. Respondents explain how they approach their advisors:

Dana and I share an office, so we just talk. I ask and she replies [laughs]. Maybe because we're always in each other's face, so she doesn't really expect a formal request from me [...] in big assignments, we move to the meeting table to discuss. [IR_25]

My supervisor, who knows best, is not here [HQ building] all the time. He's between Ras Laffan [the plant] and here. So the best way is to email him and he doesn't take long to reply [...]. Not just language-related issues: most of our communication is this way. [IR_34]

This section simplifies the LAN process to three stages. As more resource- and time-consuming language advice is involved, the process may vary in length. During my fieldwork, I observed a LAN process of the Qatarization Report for 2016, a compulsory document that has to be submitted to the Ministry of Administrative Development, Labor & Social Affairs by each organization to report their goal benchmarks and community outreach initiatives. This document involved multiple rounds of advice-seeking from more than one advisor, relating to more than one content category. Thus, although LAN may range, it is a three-stage process in its simplest form.

5.4.5 LAN as a form of Social Capital

This subsection aims to establish the dimensions of the LAN as a form of social capital, and to distinguish the LAN from the work-related GAN detailed in the literature. Endorsed by scholars (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Inkpen & Tsang, 2016; Nonino, 2013) as an established social capital model, I use Nahapiet & Ghoshal's (1998) framework to explain the dimensions of the LAN and highlight how it differs from a GAN in the workplace. Table 5.1 compares a broad range of social capital dimension across the LAN and GAN.

The structural dimension of social capital reflects the pattern of relationships between nodes in the network, and can be analyzed from the perspective of network ties, network configuration, network stability, and appropriability (Inkpen & Tsang, 2016; Nahapiet &

Ghoshal, 1998; Nonino, 2013). All these elements impact on the ease of knowledge exchange in a network (Inkpen & Tsang, 2016; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). As stated earlier, network ties in a LAN are pre-existing, although *whom* is sought for advice remains unclear for now. Network ties are the basis of opportunity and access in social capital (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). This makes the relationships in the network highly appropriable. An advice seeker explained:

It's always someone I know and I have worked with many times before. I know what they're capable of, their strengths [...] and its always easier to ask someone you're already close to. [IR_15]

It will most probably be someone from the team. Someone that knows the scope of my job and its requirements. So, it'll be easy to instruct or guide me. [IR_02]

It could be a friend. But a friend may not know since she works in accounting and its completely different there [...] it has to be a friend for sure, even if not a close one, just one that is close enough that I know she's capable of what I ask from her. [IR_17]

In line with the literature, the findings prove that tie strength can help to overcome the initial barrier of the knowledge transfer (Granovetter, 1973; Tortoriello, Reagans, & McEvily, 2012). The stronger the tie, such as in deep interpersonal connections, the greater degree of trust and cooperation (Granovetter, 1973) and the greater the knowledge of both the source's and recipient's expertise (Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015). Additionally, with greater tie strength, there is commitment to the recipient, resulting in willingness to devote time and effort to sharing knowledge (Tortoriello, Reagans, & McEvily, 2012). This is portrayed in the last quote where the respondent expresses her choice of a language advisor having to be

friend as someone she is aware of her knowledge and expertise. Similarly, the second quote highlights a suitable language advisor as a team member, reflecting a history of collaboration, and greater knowledge of one another's level of expertise.

Network stability detects the extent to which network membership is subject to change (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). Unstable networks result in the loss of ties and opportunities for social capital. Unlike friendship networks, a LAN is only voluntary and depends upon the recognition of language problems. Thus, it lacks an official structure, such as an organizational chart, and has no titles, such as "supervisor" or "friend." An interview respondent explained:

I won't ask for it [language advice] unless I absolutely need to... to avoid work interruption and also for personal reasons... not to come across as stupid [laughs].

[IR_19]

It's not an everyday thing. It's on a need-basis, I guess. When doing it [language-advice seeking] a lot, then there is a bigger problem than just a language-related question. It means the person lacks the necessary competence to perform their job [...] so I guess the level of language advising is acceptable when it is occasional.

[IR_40]

The configuration of a network explains its underlying connectivity. Elements of hierarchy, density, and connectivity impact the way a network is formed and maintained (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The qualitative findings provide no clear evidence on this. Consequently, a quantitative analysis of the LAN's configuration is essential for better understanding the network structure (see Study 2).

The cognitive dimension of social capital represents the cultural approach, which postulates

the cultural artifacts – such as knowledge, norms, and rules – that underlie individual interactions and choices, and thus influence the ease of knowledge exchange in a network (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Nonino, 2013). The two facets that form the cognitive dimension are shared goals and shared culture among network members (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Shared goals embody a shared understanding of the network tasks and outcomes (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). The shared goal in a LAN is efficient job performance.

I help because, as a team, we help each other be efficient. It's our number one goal in the organization. I do it to lead by example. Then the advisee will also do it for someone else. And so forth... [IR_04]

It saves time and company resources. What I already know as common knowledge might be new knowledge to others. This is where experience comes from. So when I help, I am teaching them [advisees], showing them how to do it themselves, rather than showing them the way to outsource it [editing and proofreading]. [IR_22]

The second quote also shows the shared culture facet of the cognitive dimension. It reflects the set of institutionalized rules and norms that control the network, such as corporate culture (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). Indeed, the overarching corporate culture, friendliness, and learning environment combine to enable the initiation and interaction in a LAN to occur and thrive. Another explains how her learning continues in the organization:

No one starts a job knowing everything. Yes, we apply what we learned in school here, but I soon found out that school is a small part of the learning. Once you're here in the workplace, the true learning begins. [IR_01]

Finally, the relational dimension of social capital represents the outcome of network

interactions (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The findings highlight trust as a key ingredient in a LAN. It may be personal or institution-based (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). Institution-based trust arises merely from the affiliation of an organizational employee (such as one's supervisor) to the firm, in which the norms of the corporate culture and common goals are shared. By contrast, personal trust is developed according to personal judgment. When engaging in a LAN, personal trust and judgment play a key role in choosing from whom to seek advice and whom one should help. With uncredited collaboration and voluntarily sharing time and knowledge, there is a significant risk of opportunism.

I have to trust not just them as a person but also that the information they give me is correct. So, they have to be more fluent than me [...] and they have to care about me and want the best for me, and not feed me false information to sabotage my image in front of the team. [IR_22]

In almost all encounters, I manage to offer the help they ask me for. But sometimes I apologize and explain to them that I have pending tasks that are time-sensitive. As a native English speaker, it may be a little overwhelming being the one that is always checking the work for them, and with so much time I spend helping others, I don't get credit for it. [IR_03]

This section elucidated each social capital dimension of the LAN. In comparison with the GAN, the LAN differs in the cognitive and relational dimensions, but they share many features in the structural dimension, such as pre-existing network connections and appropriability. Many structural facets could not be examined qualitatively. Therefore, a sequential exploratory study is carried out to quantitatively examine the structural dimension of the LAN and how it compares to the GAN.

Table 5.1 *Social Capital Dimensions across Network Types**

Social Capital Dimensions	<i>(Work-related) General Advice Networks</i>	<i>Language Advice Networks</i>
Structural		
Network ties	Pre-existing	Pre-existing
Network Stability	High level of stability due to supervisory roles and mentorship	Dynamic, on a needed-basis; dual roles exist
Appropriability	Highly appropriable	Highly appropriable
Cognitive		
Shared goals	Seekers' wellbeing	Efficiency
Shared culture	Could be national and/or corporate culture	Corporate culture
Relational		
Trust	Little risk of opportunism; institutional-based trust	Significant risk of opportunism; personal trust

**The information provided in this table is derived from the study's qualitative data.*

5.5 Findings of Study 2

In the previous section, the structural dimension of the LAN and the GAN appear very similar. Since various factors accounting for the structural dimension of a network could not be qualitatively examined, this section is dedicated to extending understanding of the structural dimension of each network type. It aims to demonstrate that the LAN is significantly *structurally* distinct from the GAN through social network maps, descriptive statistics and network measures.

Networks are not only a powerful mathematical tool that enables the statistical testing of connections; they also allow these connections to be charted on a two-dimensional map. This map is a visual representation of the nodes and edges, portraying the characteristics of the network, such as transitivity, reciprocity, and popularity (average node in-degree). Scholars (e.g., Adamic, 2001) have been able to use visual networks to map the activity of the World Wide Web, despite its complexity and undefined boundaries. This study focuses on a much less complex network with defined boundaries. Using data collected from 4 departments of QatarCo, I analyze and compare LAN and GAN.

To create a clear visual representation of the network, employees were assigned an ID, combining two letters to signify their department and an arbitrary number. Each node represents an employee in the sample. Thus, each node is labelled with an ID for reference and anonymity. The edges connecting the nodes represent advice seeking, with the arrow pointing to the advisor. The thickness of each arrow reflects the frequency of interaction. For example, HR02 is an employee in the Human Resources Department arbitrarily assigned the number two for reference. HR02 seeks language advice from HR39 only. He or she is however highly connected (seeking and offering advice) in GAN.

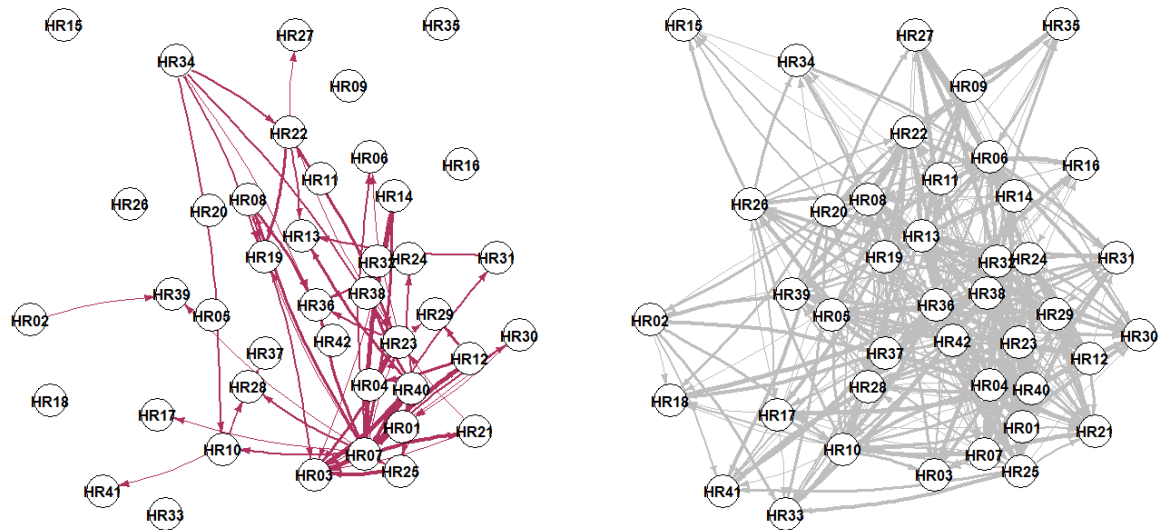


Figure 5.2 Visual Representation of the LAN (left) and GAN (right) for the Human Resources (HR) Department

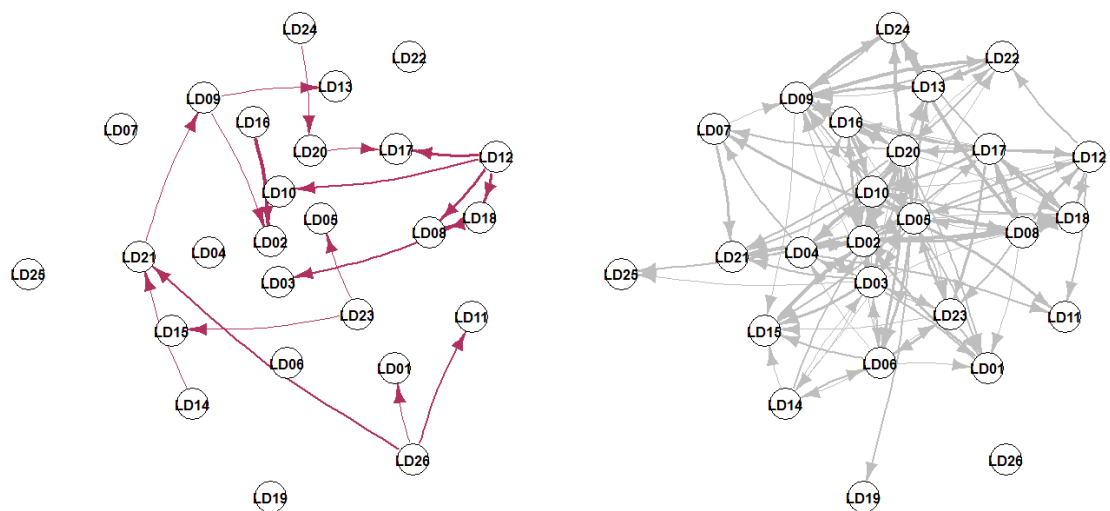


Figure 5.3 Visual Representation of the LAN (left) and GAN (right) for the Learning & Development (L&D) Department

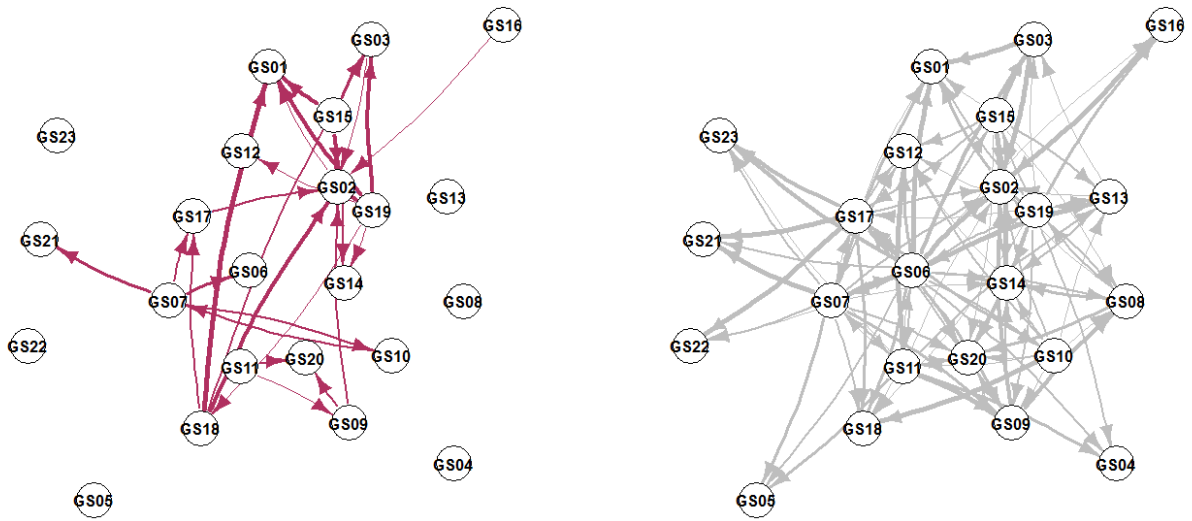


Figure 5.4 Visual Representation of the LAN (left) and GAN (right) for the General Services (GS) Department

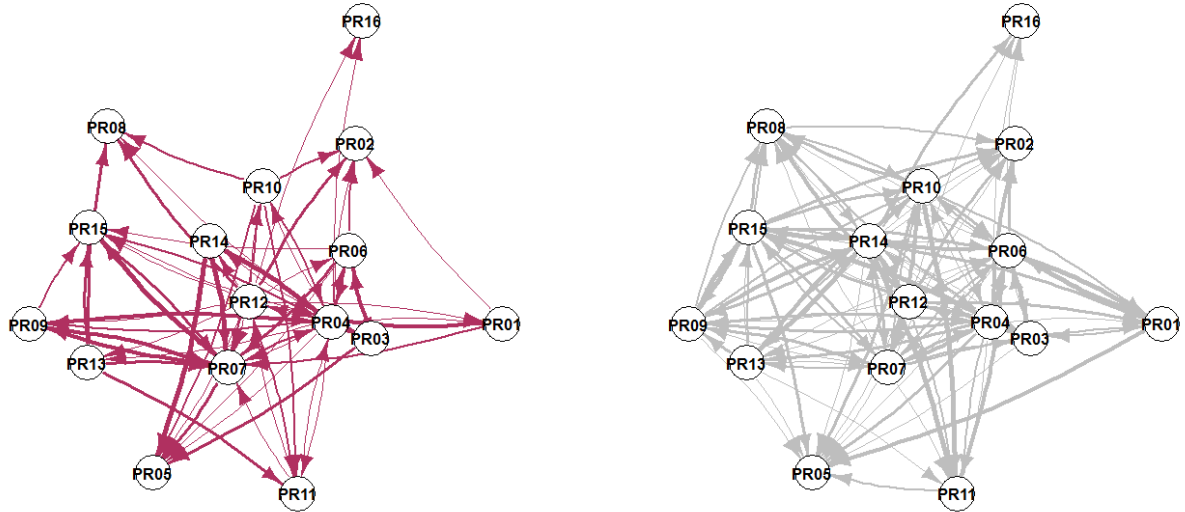


Figure 5.5 Visual Representation of the LAN (left) and GAN (right) for the Public Relations (PR) Department

Although the observed networks have an equal number of nodes, corresponding to the same number of employees in each department, the level of interaction differs in each network. In the LAN, overall interaction across the four departments total 167 connections, whereas the number in the GAN is much higher, totaling 768 connections. This is reflected in the density of the two networks. Density can be examined both visually and statistically. In Figures 5.2–5.5, there are evidently many more edges, representing advice-seeking interactions, in the GAN than in the LAN. It can also be inferred from the visual representations that the LAN is denser in some departments than others: for example, it is most dense in the PR department and least dense in the L&D department.

Statistically, network density measures the actual connections among potential connections in a network. In Table 5.2, we see that GAN is exponentially higher than LAN across all four departments. The density is similar across HR, L&D and GS in both LAN and GAN. In the PR department however, both the LAN and GAN have significantly higher density than the rest of the departments. For LAN in PR, the density of the network is 30%, which means that 30% of the possible ties among all employees are present. This is relatively higher than a density of 3.4%, 2.9%, and 5.3% for HR, L&D, and GS, respectively. This is not surprising given the nature of the work in the public relations department, where communication is the scope of work and language is key. Similarly, the GAN in PR is 54.3%, which is also high compared to the rest of the departments. The relatively high interactions in both networks resembling a highly connected department compared to the others may be a result of the management style, team collaboration and corporate culture of that particular department. Overall however, in line with the qualitative findings, the LAN seems to be a relatively sparser network than the GAN, which is likely attributable to its niche pre-defined content.

Unlike the GAN, which entails advice-seeking on an array of work-related issues as the content of advice, the LAN is focused solely on exchanging language-related advice.

The popularity or average in-degree of nodes is another way to compare the two networks.

Visually, nodal popularity may be hard to detect in denser networks. In the LAN, some nodes stood out due to their high in-degree: e.g., HR03, GS02, and PR07. That is, they are highly sought after for advice. Table 5.2 shows that individuals in the PR LAN have an average of 4.4 advice seekers (also relatively higher than the LANs of HR, L&D and GS), whereas individuals in the PR GAN have an average number of 7.6 advice seekers. The different nodal popularity between the LANs across departments is anticipated as we have seen that PR has a denser LAN compared to the rest. The GAN however is also higher than LANs across all departments as seen in its density. This may be justified that GAN is not confined to only language-related advice, however it entails a broad range of work-related topics, such as immigration status, HR policies, mentorship, career mobility opportunities, and work-life balance. Thus, as a network covering broader content than the niche LAN, the higher degree of advice seekers in the GAN is as expected.

To gain a deeper understanding of nodal popularity, I integrated the frequency of in-degree. By doing such, we find out how many times each employee is sought for advice instead of just how many people approach him or her. The weighted in-degree across all departments, for both networks, are at least twice as high as the one of the binary networks. This is because the binary network tells us who approaches whom for advice but doesn't account for the number of times the dyad interact. Thus, a person may be approached for advice more than once from the same person and thus this measure account for this frequency.

Table 5.2 Descriptive Properties of Networks

		HR		LD		GS		PR	
		<i>LAN</i>	<i>GAN</i>	<i>LAN</i>	<i>GAN</i>	<i>LAN</i>	<i>GAN</i>	<i>LAN</i>	<i>GAN</i>
<i>Size:</i>	<i>Nodes</i>	42		26		23		15	
	<i>Edges</i>	58	413	19	139	27	102	63	114
	<i>Density:</i>	3.4%	24%	2.9%	21.4%	5.33%	22%	30%	54.3%
	<i>Nodal</i>								
	<i>Popularity:</i>								
	Binary ²	1.4	9.8	0.7	5.3	1.2	4.6	4.2	7.6
	Weighted	3.1	24.3	1.5	11.6	2.8	9.2	8.4	17.9
	<i>Reciprocity:</i>								
	Binary	6.9%	29%	0%	35%	7.4%	15.7%	38%	49.6%
	Weighted	3.6%	17%	0%	21%	3.8%	8.5%	23.5%	32.9%
	<i>Transitivity:</i>	20.5%	52%	13%	54%	38.4%	51%	55%	81%

Note:

¹ mean in-degree

² Binary vs. weighted correspond to the type of network we are analyzing. The binary only analyzes the presence and absence of ties, whereas the weighted accounts for the frequency/ strength of ties.

Reciprocity is the tendency of pairs of nodes to be mutually connected, that is, when an individual in a given network equally offers and seeks advice from the same person. Reciprocity can be visually detected by finding unidirectional edges in the network. Statistically, the degree of reciprocity quantifies how many “ties” (directed links) are reciprocated. Both the LAN and GAN show mutual advice giving. However, the GANs report a higher degree of reciprocity than in the LANs, as reported in Table 5.2. Although reciprocity in LAN is significantly lower than in GAN across all departments, there still existed reciprocated connections in HR, PR, and GS. However, in the L&D department, we find that 0% of the advice given is reciprocated. Alternatively, 35% of the advice given in GAN is reciprocated. Again, this may be due to the variety of advice topics. In the GAN, an individual in the dyad may offer workplace policy-related advice and ask for help in completing their annual appraisal form. Conversely, in the LAN, the scope of advice is confined to topics related to the lingua franca. Thus, many individuals need to seek advice, but lack sufficient fluency to be able to offer it.

Another way of making sense of reciprocity in this context is by defining it as the likelihood of dual roles in the network, where one both receives and offers advice, simultaneously. In the qualitative section, we found that dual roles in the LAN exist, where an individual seeks advice in one interaction and gives language advice in another. Thus, although a small percentage, this is statistically confirmed in our current findings.

Upon further investigation of the LANs and GANs, the frequency of interactions between nodes were integrated in our analysis. By doing such, our reciprocity measure gets effected as we are not testing the absence or presence of a reciprocated link, however we are now evaluating the decomposition of the dyadic fluxes of reciprocated links into a bidirectional

(fully reciprocated) interaction, plus a unidirectional (non-reciprocated) interaction (Squartini et al., 2013). Thus, accounting for the strength of the interactions (i.e. frequency) in our networks, we derive a new measure of reciprocity. In Table 5.2, the corresponding row is the *weighted* cells under Reciprocity. As we account for the weights, we find that the reciprocity measures decrease. Here, the measure of reciprocity defines the proportion of mutual connections in a directed graph (i.e. the probability of a mutual connection between a vertex pair). The decrease in the weighted reciprocity reflects on the nature of interaction between a give reciprocated dyad, that although we have seen them to be reciprocated in our binary network, with the frequency of how often one seeks advice from another, a smaller portion of the interaction is reciprocated. This finding highlights the prominent role of the language advisor, even though he or she too seeks advice.

Another comparative structural network measure is transitivity. Transitivity is the likelihood of collaborating with an additional common neighbor, i.e., if i seeks advice from j , and j seeks advice from k , transitivity is the likelihood that i seeks advice from k . Visually, we can detect triads in Figures 5.2-5.5. Statistically, we confirm that transitivity is present all both GANs and LANs across all departments. PR reports the highest level of transitivity in both LAN and GAN. In PR's LAN, there is a 55% chance that two neighbors of a vertex are themselves connected. Hence, when two employees both name someone as their language advisor, there is a 55% chance that they also named each other. Put differently, 55% of the triads in LAN are closed triads (i.e. triangles). In the same department, GAN reports 81% of the triads are closed triads. In the rest of the departments, transitivity is also present in both LANs and GANs, although the GANs report higher transitivity than LANs. These findings are expected. First, in advice networks generally, relationships are likely to be transitive. This is because if A receives advice from B and B receives advice from C, then there is a high

likelihood that A also seeks advice from C for two reasons: (1) A will realize that C may be more expert than B, if B goes to him for advice; (2) A and C are very likely to know each other as our sample entails small departments. To further understand the forms of triads in each department for each network, a triad census identifying the number of each of the 16 possible isomorphic classes of triads is provided in Appendix C.

5.6 Discussion

This chapter aimed to elaborate the construct of the LAN in MNCs. Qualitatively, it defined the LAN, roles within it, and its purpose. It then compared the LAN to the GAN, first qualitatively and then quantitatively, thereby demonstrating how the two network structures are distinct. The two studies complemented, rather than contradicted, one another. The qualitative study, which was the primary means to answer the current research query, was limited in explaining the LAN's structure and how it compares to that of the GAN. The sequential quantitative study was carried out to mitigate this, thereby providing a holistic view of what the LAN comprises in terms of roles, processes, and structure.

5.6.1 Theoretical Contribution

The study detailed in this chapter makes two main theoretical contributions. First, it enriches the language research stream in the IB literature by introducing an emerging distinct network, built on the linguistic faultlines of the MNC. It thus challenges the negative view of the lingua franca strategy, previously portrayed as a significant barrier to individual (Aichhorn & Puck, 2017a; 2017b; Henderson, 2005) and cross-unit communication (Barner-Rasmussen & Aarnio, 2011; Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Björkman & Piekkari, 2009; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Harzing & Pudelko, 2013; Luo & Shenkar, 2006), providing an opportunity for a positive outcome, such as a learning platform.

Second, it contributes to the knowledge sharing in social networks literature by adding LAN to existing networks in the MNC setting. It thus broadens current research on the types of informal networks (Nonino, 2013) by introducing a niche form of advice network that arises in multilingual settings, in the presence of certain conditions. Although language has previously been recognized as an issue in knowledge sharing among networks (Barner-Rasmussen, Ehrnrooth, Kovesnikov, & Mäkelä, 2014; Brannen, Piekkari, & Tietze, 2014; Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; Klitmoller & Luring, 2013), this study provides a nuanced view of language as the content exchanged in knowledge sharing.

5.6.2 Practical Implications

This study's findings also have two practical implications. First, through utilizing the mass of information and knowledge embedded in the firm's human capital (Horton, Millo, & Serafeim, 2012; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013), the LAN may facilitate effective utilization of existing capabilities and reduce organizational slack (Szulanski, 1995). Second, the LAN may potentially enhance a friendly culture that creates a platform to share knowledge, encourage collaboration among employees, and become a substitute for costly language training courses.

Chapter 6: What drives seeking language advice? An examination of the factors that contribute to a person seeking someone else for language advice.

6.1 Introduction

Building on Chapter 5, this chapter aims to advance the LAN model by investigating the significant individual and dyadic attributes that help explain the network's formation. In advice networks, the advisory role is acquired by *being known* as resourceful and capable of knowledge transfer. Advisors are sought after for their work-related input (Klein, Lim, Saltz, & Mayer, 2004). They are those viewed as having the ability to share resources, such as information, assistance, and guidance (Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001). The language research stream in IB literature refers to those resourceful individuals in a network as language nodes, boundary spanners, and information gatekeepers, depending on the context (Barner-Rasmussen, Ehrnrooth, Koveshnikov, & Mäkelä, 2014; Heikkilä, & Smale, 2011; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999; Peltokorpi & Vaara, 2012). In this chapter, I refer to those key individuals in a LAN as *language advisors*.

In the preceding chapter, we concluded that LAN is a distinct form of advice network that arises from a language-based skill shortage due to asymmetric lingua franca fluencies in the workforce. This chapter aims to examine what contributes to a person being 'named' as someone sought for language advice. I propose that four individual and dyadic attributes – advisors' language fluency, advisors' job level, language-based homophily, and advisors' cosmopolitanism – influence on the decision to seek language advice and the formation of a language advice link.

The remainder of this chapter is structured as follows. I first review the current social networks literature to generate four hypotheses for testing factors that may influence the decision to seek language advice and a formation of a language advice link. I then explain my choice of ERGM as a statistical method to examine the individual and dyadic attributes that predict a person being named by another as a language advisor. My investigation reveals that language advisors are more senior and fluent in English, as anticipated; however, they are also cosmopolitan boundary spanners that manage to cross linguistic and cultural states of mind to articulate language advice in a manner comprehensible to a culturally *dissimilar* counterpart. The findings reveal that primary language may only be a *surface* cultural similarity, overshadowed by advisees' search for deeper connection with a cosmopolitan advisor. I conclude with a discussion of this chapter's findings, theoretical significance, and managerial implications.

6.2 Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

This section sets the theoretical foundation and formulates the study hypotheses, drawing on research about network positionality and its relationship with language fluency, job level in the organizational hierarchy, language-based homophily, and cosmopolitanism.

The social capital literature has long focused on the value inherent in people's connections and network of relationships, and the set of resources embedded therein (Borgatti & Foster, 2003; Burt, 1992; Kwon & Alder, 2014; Lin, 2001; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998). In this view, language-advice seeking is, therefore, focused on accessing language-based knowledge and support. In organizations, informal networks provide an important mechanism for knowledge sharing between individuals. Such networks are very dynamic and operate under the radar,

beyond the direct influence of organizational management (Ibarra, 1993). What differentiates formal from informal networks is that the latter emerge from voluntary social bonding and are usually invisible to management (Salancik & Burt, 1995).

6.2.1 Language Fluency

In the MNC, the lingua franca has become an “administrative managerial tool” (Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016), creating a platform for knowledge articulation and creation (Buckley, Carter, Clegg, & Tan, 2005; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013). A high level of lingua franca fluency facilitates internal and external communication in the MNC (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Piekkari & Zander, 2005). Employees exhibiting high lingua franca fluency are more valued than those who exhibit low fluency. Thus, language fluency is viewed as a career capital in the MNC (Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016).

High lingua franca fluency influences the transfer of information and skills (Van Der Born & Peltokorpi, 2010), and the understanding of tacit knowledge (Henderson, 2005). An employee with high lingua franca fluency is qualified to become a “language node” (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1999), with above-average access to information. Thus, language nodes take on intermediary roles, such as information “gatekeepers” and translators for less fluent colleagues. They nurture a fertile ground for transferring information (Brannen, Piekkari, & Tietze, 2014). This enhances peers’ perceptions of the employee’s knowledge (Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014), so language-advice seekers may seek more fluent colleagues given their perceived knowledge level.

Additionally, lingua franca fluency may be viewed as a pre-requisite to socialization and network building. High fluency improves the interpretive frames and meaning systems, creating a shared language and cognitive frame in one's workplace or community (Henderson, 2005). Therefore, the process of socialization with cultural-specific acts of speech is better among more fluent individuals (Henderson, 2005), enabling the formation of informal ties as an element of social capital. In informal networks, one needs not only the *motivation* to share but also the *ability* to do so (Adler & Kwon, 2002), in a manner that can be understood and absorbed (Ipe, 2003). Thus, lingua franca fluency facilitates knowledge sharing in informal networks, making fluent individuals sought after for their specific knowledge.

In investigating the roles of employees in LAN, Chapter 5 emphasized the role of lingua franca fluency in determining roles in the LAN, indicating that less fluent individuals seek language-specific advice from more fluent colleagues. Accordingly, the most obvious factor to consider in language advisors is fluency:

H1: Individuals are more likely to seek language advice from more fluent colleagues than less fluent colleagues.

6.2.2 Job Level

The MNC is a network of related job levels and positions that require forms of power or capital (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 2007; Levy & Reiche, 2018; Swartz, 1997). Individuals in leadership roles require a set of skills and knowledge expertise that make them influential. Thus, the job role is associated with the level of knowledge and expertise that one acquires. For example, the chief executive officer is a recognized position in every organization, and

the holder of this title achieves this level of authority and visibility due to their unrivalled knowledge and excellence relative to their colleagues (Bourdieu, 1984).

An individual's job level indicates the extent of their career progression, exposure to the job and industry, competence level, knowledge base, perspective, and control over the flow of knowledge and resources (Cross & Cummings, 2004; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001; Levin, Walter, & Murnighan, 2016). In Hagström & Hedlund's (1998) model of the MNC's internal structure, they consider three dimensions – knowledge, action, and position – and argue that top management know more, do more, and (by definition) have more formal authority than lower ranks of the hierarchy.

Nonetheless, it is important to differentiate between formal and informal networks, since the LAN is a form of informal network in the context of the larger formal network of the MNC. Informal networks, such as the LAN, are defined as “discretionary patterns of interaction, where the content of relationships may be work-related, social, or a combination of both” (Ibarra, 1993, p.58). They are “unsanctioned and ungoverned organic structures connecting a potentially unbounded group of individuals” (Allen, James, & Gamlen, 2007, p.181). However, as this network emerges in a formal context, some influence of the MNC's hierarchy may spill over to LAN relations. In this regard, it has been empirically shown that higher job levels in the organization occupy central positions in informal networks (Škerlavaj, Dimovski, Mrvar, & Pahor, 2010).

In the broader context of advice seeking, individuals are likely to seek someone with high ability, professionalism, and dedication, who is more likely to know more useful things that can be shared during an advice-seeking interaction (Levin, Walter, & Murnighan, 2016).

Chapter 5 discussed the recognition–initiation–implementation process of LAN engagement, highlighting that the initiation stage requires the advice seeker to find a capable advisor within their social circle. In this regard, the most visible and least time-consuming option is the advice seeker’s supervisor, as someone who is capable, approachable, and highly aware of the content of the task they assigned.

Nonetheless, individuals in higher job levels may be hard to approach. Behrend & Erwee (2009) found that team members preferred to seek knowledge within their informal networks, rather than from their formal superiors in the organizational hierarchy. Similarly, in their study of informal networks, Bryan, Matson, & Weiss (2007) found that most day-to-day support on work tasks is sourced through personal, rather than professional, links in the organization. In observing the role of formal hierarchy in network centrality, studies show that most senior managers are on the boundaries of informal networks, while middle managers and those of lower rank are at the center (Cross, Parker, Prusak, & Borgatti, 2001). Scholars believe this may be due to senior managers’ external management orientation and isolation from social circles (Cross, Parker, Prusak, & Borgatti, 2001).

While individuals in higher job levels have a broader knowledge-base to share, they tend to be harder to approach. In our qualitative study of LAN, Chapter 5 highlighted content availability and the role of vertical and unilateral relationships as relevant to the choice of language advisor. Contrary to the views posited by the informal network literature on higher job levels and informal network centrality, I hypothesize that individuals in higher job levels are more likely to be sought as language advisors, given the instrumental knowledge-sharing orientation of the LAN and the efficiency of choosing a more visible advisor in the advice seeker’s social circle. Thus, I propose the following:

H2: Individuals are more likely to seek language advice from more senior colleagues than less senior colleagues.

6.2.3 Language-based Homophily

Language and culture have an intertwined relationship, with some scholars considering language to be an embodiment of culture (Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Säntti, 2005; Welch & Welch, 2008). Giles & Byrne (1982) assert that a language group is also an ethnic group, since language is one of the most characteristic identity markers. Language, in other words, becomes the embodiment of ethnicity. Thus, language may also be symbolic (Edwards, 2009), rather than just instrumental. In this subsection, I argue that language-based homophily may also be a factor associated with choosing a language advisor.

The core idea is that a connection between a dyad, namely the advice seeker and language advisor in the LAN, is more likely to occur between speakers of the same primary language, rather than colleagues whose primary languages differ (Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001). This similarity-based hypothesis is referred to as homophily. The sociology literature has found support for homophily in social networks. Similarity in terms of social class, gender, race, and occupation (among other factors) have all been found to be bases of homophily (e.g., Brass, 1995; Ibarra, 1993; McPherson & Smith-Lovin, 1987).

Language clustering is a phenomenon defined as “the grouping of people owing to their tendency to interact more with those with whom they share a common native language in multilingual workplaces” (Ahmad & Widén, 2015, p. 431). The underlying mechanism of

language clustering is homophily (Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001).

Language clustering in IB was first observed in the case study of a Finnish organization, where communication and information were observed to only flow among same-language speaking employees (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999). The authors reported the formation of clusters based on language similarity. They observed that Germans and Austrians formed one cluster; Americans, British, and Australians formed another. In a similar case study, Tange & Luring (2009) found that employees preferred interacting in their native language, despite the imposition of the lingua franca strategy. This has led the formation of language clustering in the MNC. Language clustering was especially highlighted in informal socialization among employees. Subsequent studies identified the phenomenon's existence in the multilingual setting of MNCs, though this setting was incidental to their main focus (e.g., Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; Remennick, 2005; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005).

A common language has been found to be the primary criterion for friendship and socialization (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Remennick, 2009). A valid explanation for this is that people are more comfortable and more confident expressing themselves in their native language, which in return becomes a basis of creating and maintaining interpersonal relationships (Aichhorn & Puck, 2017a; Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006). Using one's native language allows deep, complex conversation and freedom of expression (Harzing & Feely, 2008; Luring & Klitmøller, 2014). Within language clusters, speaking a common language allows one to understand what is said and meant, which is also known as "shared perspective" (Levin, Walter, & Murnighan, 2016) and "shared cognition" (Nahapiet

& Ghoshal, 1998). It facilitates interaction and sharing ideas, opinions, and knowledge within the group (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Henderson, 2005; Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; Reiche, Harzing, & Pudelko, 2015), enabling a high level of associability and trust to be established within clusters (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Luring, 2008; Welch & Welch, 2008). Monge & Contractor (2003) support this view by explaining that “the similarity-attraction hypothesis” reduces psychological discomfort and conflict arising from cognitive or emotional disparity.

Empirical evidence shows that a greater tendency for interaction can influence knowledge sharing. Carley (1991) suggests that relative similarity between individuals leads to interaction and influences the choice of interaction partners. Moreover, Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve, and Tsai (2004) suggest that similarity is an antecedent for interpersonal network formation, which can generate informal, business-related connections over formal team formation. Mäkelä, Kalla, and Piekkari (2007) found a homophilic impact of shared language in all three case companies of their study. Thus, given the fragmentation of the workforce into language-based clusters (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Feely & Harzing, 2003; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2014), I hypothesize that language-advice seekers tend to interact with colleagues who share their primary language, driven by similarity-attraction and self-categorization theories as mechanisms facilitating engagement (Monge & Contractor, 2003):

H3: Individuals are more likely to seek language advice from same-language-speaking colleagues than from different-language-speaking colleagues.

6.2.4 Cosmopolitanism

As a consequence of globalization, exposure to multiple cultures, and crossing geographic boundaries, the MNC entails a vast stock of individual resources and capabilities. Chapter 2 discussed cultural resources as a valued form of capital in the MNC. It also highlighted boundary-less careers as an outcome of working for a multinational entity. In this regard, cultural multiplicity is a feature of MNC demography (and in the specific case of Qatar, a feature of the country's workforce). Hence, this section considers the existence of cosmopolitan identities within the MNC workforce, and proposes cosmopolitanism as characteristic of the language advisor in a LAN.

This section views cosmopolitanism as a characteristic found in language advisors for two reasons. First, bicultural individuals are likely to be perceived as more competent than monoculturals (Brennan & Thomas, 2010; Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martínez, 2000; Tadmor, Tetlock, & Peng, 2009). Second, I posit that advice seekers may look for a culturally “dissimilar,” universal other when seeking language-related knowledge. By stepping outside their frame of reference, advice seekers aim to avoid the “false familiarity” observed in a homophily-based linguistic cluster (Henderson, 2004), which leads to a failure to appreciate differences. I, thus, examine cosmopolitanism as an element of cultural capital in the MNC and an individual attribute of a LAN advisor.

Cosmopolitanism is a state of “openness” toward divergent cultural experiences (Hannerz, 1990; Lee, Levy, Peiperl, & Jonsen, 2018) and exploring the interrelations between the local and the global; an attitude of openness to foreign others and cultures (Lee, Levy, Peiperl, & Jonsen, 2018; Levy & Reiche, 2018). It is the ideology of believing oneself “a citizen of the world” (Lee, 2014, p. 13). The rise of cosmopolitanism is due to high exposure to and

awareness of the world (Tomlinson, 1999), and exposure to cultural multiplicity through meeting diverse people (Szerszynski & Urry, 2002), such as in an MNC. A cosmopolitan exhibits high levels of “cultural transcendence and openness” in situations that highlight cultural embeddedness in their own culture and cultural engagement with other cultures (Lee, Levy, Peiperl, & Jonsen, 2018). It embodies a motivation to engage with people, places, and experiences of cultures different to one’s own (Hannerz, 1990; Lee, 2013, Urry, 1990).

Cosmopolitans possess knowledge, taste, and a lifestyle “outside their national frame of reference” (Prieur & Savage, 2013, p. 259), which is desirable globally by MNCs (Igarashi & Saito, 2014). They have inclusive moral and ethical core values, and can understand and appreciate others outside their local and national boundaries (Lee, 2013). Cosmopolitans are ideally positioned to act as bridge-makers because they develop and maintain expansive transnational social networks (Kennedy, 2004; Mau, Mewes, & Zimmermann, 2008) that span cultural and national boundaries (Levy, Peiperl, & Bouquet, 2013). The cultural engagement of a cosmopolitan influences their capacity to bridge across dissimilarity between cultural forms (Pachucki & Breiger, 2010; Lee, Levy, Peiperl, & Jonsen, 2018; Obstfeld, Borgatti, & Davis, 2014).

Cosmopolitanism is a new source of power in globalizing social arenas, in which access to privileged positions is reserved for those capable of effectively interacting with people of multiple nationalities (Weenink, 2008). Cosmopolitans are competent in venturing “into other cultures, through listening, looking, intuiting, and reflecting” (Hannerz, 1990, p. 239), and feel at ease with people from diverse cultures, which can be recognized from a distance (Lee, 2014). An effective language advisor must be capable of transferring meanings across cultural contexts, rather than just having language expertise. Thus, a language advisor is more

likely to be a cosmopolitan, approachable by cultural “others” due to their ability and openness to engage with multiple cultures and thereby bridge linguistic faultlines.

Accordingly, I predict the following:

H4: Individuals are more likely to seek language advice from colleagues with higher cosmopolitanism than from those with lower cosmopolitanism.

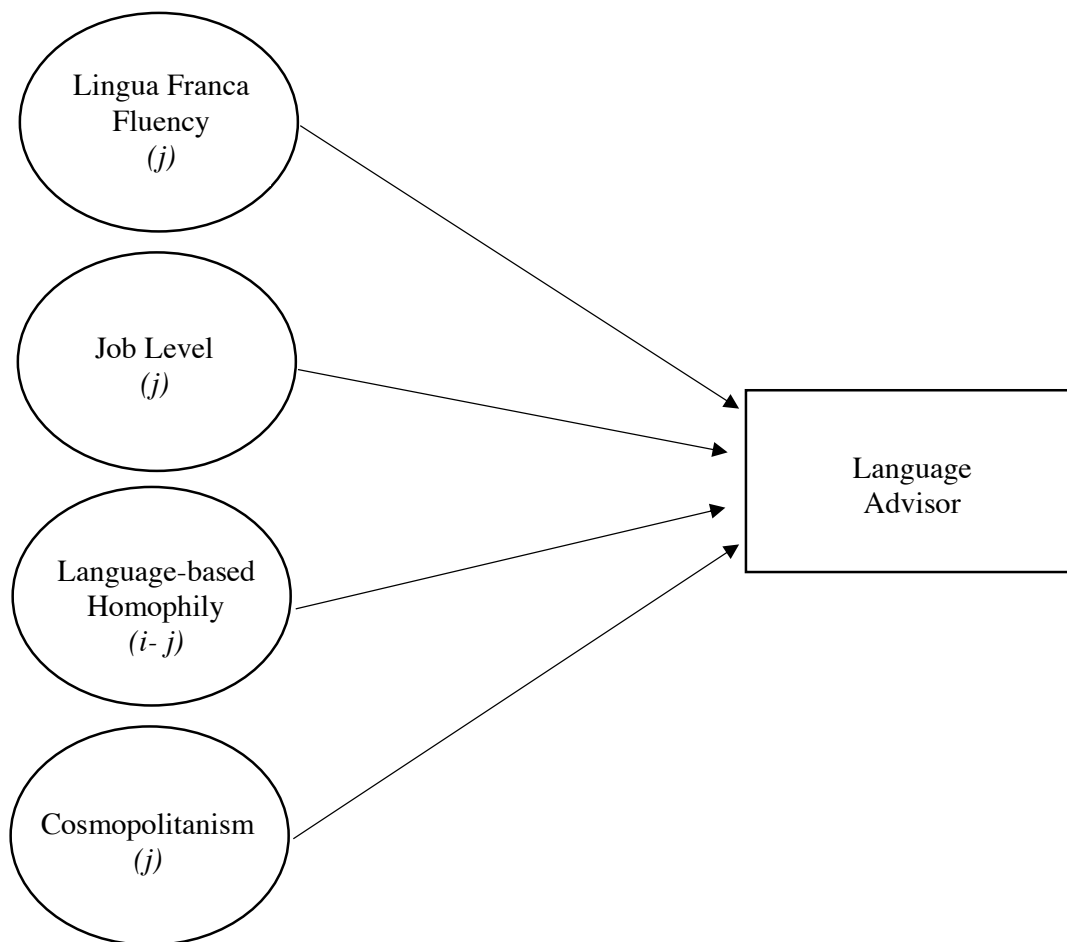


Figure 6.1 *Research Hypotheses*
(*i* indicates the attributes of the advice-seeker and *j* indicates that of the advisor)

6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Sample

Using the same sample of 107 employees (nodes) and 188 interactions (edges) across four departments, this chapter examines the factors that contribute a person seeking someone else for language advice. A detailed description of the sample is found in Chapter 5.

6.3.2 Measures

I collected data with a survey comprising three sections. The first section contains demographic questions. The second tabulates the names of all employees in the respondent's department, and asks the respondent to rank their frequencies of language-advice seeking engagement with each employee. The third section of the survey was sent directly to each respondent's direct supervisor. It asks the supervisor to rate the respondent's language fluency on a scale of 1 to 5. A sample questionnaire is provided in Appendix B.

The sample includes five job levels, ranging from administrator to senior manager, with a positively skewed distribution. The average mean of lingua franca (English) fluency is high among the sample, which can be explained by the organization requiring entry-level English proficiency of all employees. The cosmopolitan scores are also high in the sample, with a negatively skewed distribution. The sample comprises five major language groups: Qatari (local), Arabic, Urdu, Tagalog or other Asian languages and English. I discuss the main variables in more detail below.

Language Fluency. The lingua franca of QatarCo is English. I, therefore, measure English fluency in two ways: a self-assessed measure and a supervisory rating, for each employee,

ranging from 1 to 5, with 5 meaning native fluency. The two sets of scores were found to be 89% correlated. The dispersion in correlation is because of what each score stands for. The two measures reflect different meaning in this context. First, the self-assessment score reflects one's view of their capability and confidence in the language. A high score would indicate that a given employee believes they are a native speaker and confident of their level of fluency on the job. Contrarily, a low self-assessed score indicates a given employee believes that they face trouble with their language skills on the job and are likely to seek advice in the area of weakness. Second, the supervisory rating indicates others' perception of a given employee's English fluency and his or her ability to perform on the job. A high supervisory rating would indicate that the employee is skilled and capable of providing language advice. Alternatively, a low supervisory rating indicates others' perception of lack of fluency. While the self-assessment score is useful for determining one's acknowledgement of his or her strength or weakness in English, which is a determinant factor *to seek* language advice or not; the supervisory score is useful as a determining factor for a person being 'named' as someone sought for language advice. Although the two measures are highly correlated (Pearson correlation= 0.73, $p < 0.01$), I use the supervisory rating in my data analysis to resemble others' perception of one's language fluency, instead of one's own assessment.

Job level. This variable measures the rank of the individual in the organization: 1 is assigned to administrators and entry-level jobs, 2 to the supervisory level, and 3 to divisional heads and department managers. I group the variables into categories due to the small sample size (with the most senior category representing only 16% of the sample and the least senior category representing 57%). Theoretically, the grouping resembles three levels of hierarchy: junior staff, supervisory staff, and managerial staff.

Job level	
Admin roles (1)	35
Officer (1)	25
Supervisors (2)	29
Div. heads (3)	13
Manager (3)	4
Total	106

Primary language. This is a self-reported categorical variable to test for language-based homophily. Self-reported primary language was used instead of ethnic origin for two reasons. First, I wanted to avoid the bicultural identity debate, where an individual can be an Arab-American and affiliate themselves to two identities, I rely on the self-reported primary language of each individual. Second, as language holds more than just words and their meanings (Henderson, 2005), shared references and interpretations may be able to explain cultural homophily more than ethnicity. Ahmad and Widén (2015) highlight that language clusters do not have clear-cut, visible boundaries and may not be as clearly identifiable as teams and communities of practice, as they are unstructured groups of people whose members interact more with one another due to their linguistic similarity.

In the case of our sample, language homophily is more interesting than ethnic homophily. For example, in our sample of Arab ethnicity, the sample has many differences that shape their clustering; the most obvious being the socio-economic factor. For instance, Qataris are the natives. They share similar lifestyles and they speak a common Arabic dialect. On the other hand, another Arab nationality is either an immigrant or an expatriate, with a different dialect and cultural values, such as cross-gender friendships. Additionally, since the majority of the

sample falls within 5 distinct primary language groups, the other Asian languages are subsumed in the Tagalog category as it is the smallest language group in the sample.

Primary Language	
Qatari	36
Arab	16
English	12
Urdu	27
Tagalog or other Asian languages	15
Total	106

Cosmopolitanism. Cosmopolitanism is calculated using the Cosmopolitanism Self-Assessment Scale (Cosmo V12) (Lee, 2014). Using 14 statements and a 5-item scale (1: strongly disagree; 5: strongly agree), different dimensions are captured in three categories: cosmopolitan outlook (four statements), cosmopolitan values (six statements), and home country embeddedness/rootedness (four statements). My analysis tests for cosmopolitanism as a measure of cultural openness.

Due to the limited research on cosmopolitanism in IB, I extend our analysis of the cosmopolitanism measure to include other correlated variables noted in the literature. In the advice network literature, high education positively relates to advice network centrality. The view that education offers benefits that can be shared with advisees (Klein, Lim, Saltz, & Mayer, 2004) may be the cause of seeking language advice or any other type of advice from highly educated individuals. Thus, as education is another possible explanation for cosmopolitans' contribution to the advisory role in LAN, I test for foreign education (receiving an educational attainment abroad, outside to one's country of origin). In the sample, high levels of cosmopolitanism and foreign education are significantly positively

correlated (Pearson correlation= 0.68, $p < 0.05$). Since cosmopolitanism and foreign education appear to be significantly correlated, foreign education in this case represents the cultural exposure gained through an individual's educational experience abroad—outside their cultural frame of reference.

Control variables. I include additional variables that may be beneficial in explaining the formation of the LAN. First, I aim to examine two main mechanisms: reciprocity and transitivity. Reciprocity is seen as a basic and universal human activity, in social networks, we expect ties to be reciprocated (Blau, 1964). Beyond dyads, triadic relations also exist. Triangulation among social network ties, also known as “path closure” or “network closure”, has become a central theme in social network research. In this regard, I examine both mechanisms in LAN. In terms of reciprocity, we do not expect a significance level due to the asymmetric knowledge of the dyad, where one is more fluent than the other. However, we expect network closure under the assumption that “friend of a friend is my friend”. Especially in our sample size, everyone knows the other as colleagues.

Second, I control for gender homophily due to the cultural context of the study. I expect to find positively significant gender homophily due to the research context: in Qatar, some schools, universities, and even governmental institutions prefer to stay gender-segregated due to public demand, conforming with the conservative Middle Eastern culture (Berrebi, Martorell, & Tanner, 2009).

Third, I control for the advisors' tenure in the organization. I anticipate a significant positive effect that indicates that employees are more likely to seek language advice from someone who has been in the organization for a relatively longer time. In the previous chapter, our

qualitative study shows that certain company and industry jargons are only known to people who have had experience in the field.

6.3.3 Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using Exponential Random Graph Modelling (ERGM), which models the processes governing tie formation in the network. Although my data represent a snapshot of a network at a given time, this method can be used to understand how the network might have evolved and to identify the underlying interaction mechanisms that explain its formation.

This study aims to estimate the likelihood of a tie existing in LAN. More specifically, the individual and dyadic characteristics (independent variables) predict the likelihood that one individual seeks language advice from another (response variable). The LAN is modeled as a directed network, with links pointing from the advice seeker to the language advisor. If we ask how network ties come into being, we need to focus on pairs, not on individuals one at a time. Hence, ERGMs are tie-based models for understanding how and why social network ties arise. They account for the presence (and absence) of network ties, and so provide a model for network structure.

Using ERGM on my data may be problematic. The issue originates from the sample size which is considered relatively small to conduct a network analysis. This issue is further compounded with a structural constraint on the data, that is, the overall sample must also be broken down into 4 separate networks, each network representing a department. Thus, this poses an analytical dilemma. There are three possible strategies: a) conduct an ERGM for

each department; b) conduct an ERGM for all the departments together while accounting for structural zeros; and c) construct a multilevel ERGM (ML-ERGM).

Option (a) is eliminated for two reasons. First, departments range from 15 to 42 employees, making it hard for us to analyze data and make inferences about a theory based on samples as small as these. Second, we anticipate the behavior of advice seeking to be consistent throughout all the departments. The main research question concerns the attributes that are attractive in an advice seeker. Thus, the data shouldn't give us different results across the departments, especially since all of them fall under the same administrative group and management.

In considering options (b) and (c), we compare the two methods. Firstly, ML-ERGM involves more than one network and their interconnection with one another (within Network A, within Network B, but also across Networks A and B) and is interested in the variation across these levels. It therefore does not mitigate the issue of structural zeros (i.e. impossible for one tie to access another tie in a different department) but solves the issue of structural dependencies across networks. However, we do not expect LAN to function across networks as it exists to "efficiently" get the job done; thus, we assume network activity within departments only. Additionally, I don't expect a big variability based on department in the effect of attributes that explain the formation of LAN. LAN's formation should be similar in any department. Thus, the structural zeros approach then becomes the preferable method given my assumptions and focus.

Secondly, due to my research design, my data does not capture the LAN activity in the wholistic organization. Thus, the network activity in my sample(s) are only partial.

I therefore treat the four departments as four independent samples that I use to investigate the LAN formation (thus no structural dependencies across the departments). My theory is that LAN forms in this sort of environment (lingua franca policy, asymmetric language skills, efficiency required on the job). Thus, in any sample, the structure is expected to be similar, especially in terms of our main variables (hypotheses) and structural variables (network configuration).

Given the two above mentioned rationales, I chose to use ERGM, accounting for structural zeros (Lewis, 2016). The method requires to enter a variable into the ERGM equation that creates a matrix where values for all ties within networks are set to zero, and all ties across networks are set to one. Unfortunately, this method precludes AIC and BIC measures by definition. This means that in interpreting the results, I must focus on alternative diagnostics of the models.

Using the ERGM package in R, I build a model using structural, individual and dyadic attributes as main effects to test the hypotheses. For the structural terms I adopt the functions *mutual ()* for reciprocity, and *GWESP ()* and *GWDSP ()* for transitivity. The reciprocity function tests whether the ties among employees are reciprocated or not. As for transitivity, the function *gwesp()* indicates the degree of closure and multiple clusters of triangles in the data and the function *gwdsp()* indicates whether 2-paths (i.e. Person A to Person B and Person B to Person C) tend to be closed (Person A to Person C) (Lusher et al., 2013).

Additionally, to test for group similarity, the homophily function I use is *nodematch ()*. This function was utilized to test for the probability of association within same gender as a control

variable and primary language as stated in H3. Then, individual attributes were incrementally added to the model.

Moving to the model's main effects, I test for the language advisors' job level (H1), English fluency (H2), and cosmopolitanism (H4). As individual attributes, I must specify in the functions that I am testing the advisor's characteristics, and not entire sample. For example, in the case of English fluency, I use *nodeicov* () instead of *nodecov* () to specify whose attributes I am testing. As for job level (H2), *nodeifactor* () was used since the variable is categorical with the reference variable being the administrator and entry level officers.

To test for cosmopolitanism (H3) in the model, I add foreign education as a dichotomous variable to test for the likelihood that a language advisor reaches out to someone who had exposure to travelling abroad and pursuing foreign education.

Finally, I include the structural zeros to the model by using the function *edgescov* (). As explained earlier, this method precludes AIC and BIC measures by definition. Hence, in interpreting the results, I must focus on alternative diagnostics of the models, such as visual Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) diagnostics, the goodness of fit test, and a simulation output of the model we created. The final model is produced using the following function in R, using the ERGM package:

```
ergm <- ergm (LAN_simple ~ edges + nodeicov ("english_other") + nodeifactor ("job") + nodematch  
("primary_language") + nodeicov ("cosmo") + nodeifactor ("foreign_edu") + nodematch ("gender") +  
nodeicov ("tenure") + mutual() + gwesp (0.1, fixed=TRUE) + gwdsp (0.1, fixed=TRUE) + edgescov  
(str_zero), control = control.ergm (MCMC.burnin = 50000, MCMC.samplesize = 50000))
```


6.4 Results

Respondents range in age from 20 to 66, but most are aged 30 to 49, with a median age of 38. The female to male ratio is nearly even, with females comprising 48% of the sample. Tenure in QatarCo ranges from 0 to 26 years, with the majority (70%) spending less than 10 years in the organization. A correlation table is provided in Appendix D.

6.4.1 Network Visualization

Figure 6.2 and 6.3 display the structure of communication ties within the four departments of QatarCo in relation to actor attributes. To visually inspect the hypotheses, I modified the size and color of nodes to portray the individual attributes of interest. Figure 6.2 illustrates job level (node size) and English fluency (color intensity): the larger the node, the more senior the employee; the darker the node, the more fluent the employee.

To investigate the research hypotheses using the visual representation, a few remarks can be made. Brighter nodes appear to have a relatively large number of incoming arrows. This appears to support H1's prediction that individuals are more likely to seek language advice from more fluent counterparts due to their language expertise. Similarly, a recurring pattern in the network is that larger nodes are relatively central within each cluster, appearing to support H2's prediction that individuals seek language advice from more senior counterparts in their department.

I construct another map to illustrate employees' primary language and cosmopolitanism (see Figure 6.3). Unlike job level and language fluency, primary language (represented by node color) shows no noticeable pattern. To observe language-based homophily, I examine the clusters. In the L&D department, the figure shows no visible homophily. The first cluster connected a group of one Urdu speaker and two Arabic speakers. The second cluster connected a larger group of nodes with absolutely no connection between similar primary language speakers. By contrast, the GS department shows some connections, although this may be due to its lack of diversity.

Cosmopolitanism is portrayed by node size in Figure 6.3. The variation in node size is very small, denoting close cosmopolitan scores in the sample. Therefore, a visual representation might not be a useful way of examining cosmopolitanism for this sample. Overall, the research queries of this chapter are not ideally examined through visual analysis. Although language fluency (H1) and job level (H2) seem to, at least partly, explain the scope of the research question i.e. what contributes to a person being 'named' as someone sought for language advice in the network, there were some prominent cases of language advisors being neither senior employees nor native-level speakers. Therefore, at this point, I expect positive relationships, but cannot be sure of their significance. For the other two hypotheses, neither language-based homophily (H3) nor cosmopolitanism (H4) showed any visual relationship with seeking a language advisor.

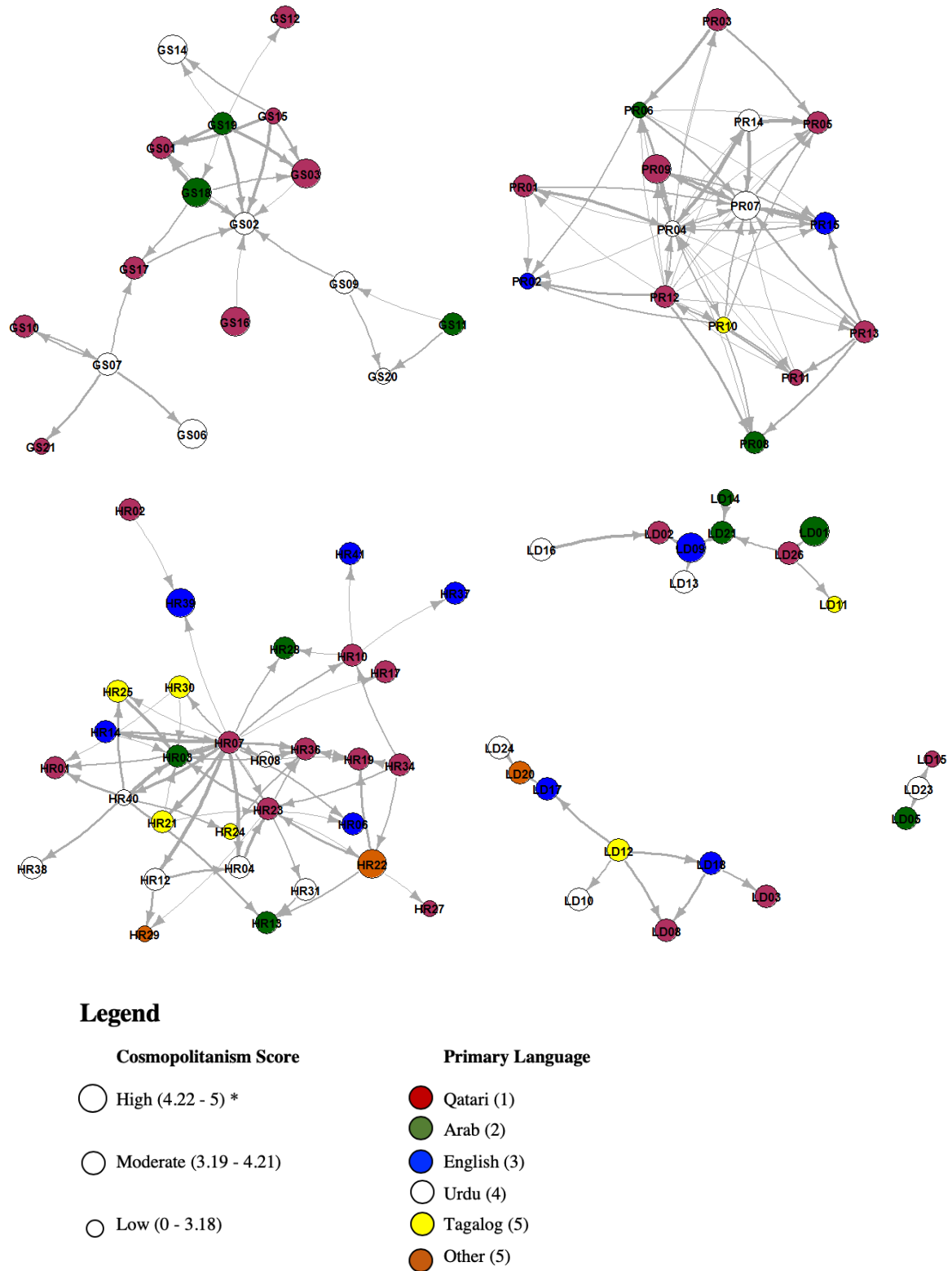


Figure 6.3 Visual Representation of primary language (color) and cosmopolitanism (node size) in the LANs.

While visual representations of networks are helpful for detecting patterns and identifying extreme relationships/cases, they cannot yield statistically sound generalizations. PR02 and GS03 are fluent managers, who can be pinpointed as central in their network as language advisors. However, PR07, HR03, and GS20 are also somewhat central in their network despite lacking native English fluency and having relatively low hierarchical job levels. Hence, a more thorough approach is needed to statistically test the research hypotheses.

6.4.2 ERGM Output and Interpretation of the Model

Moving onto our main statistical approach to test the hypotheses, the results of the ERGM are presented in Table 6.2. The ERGM helps us understand what contributes to a person being named by another as someone they go to for language advice. The model parameter estimates (and standard errors) for the LAN are provided. A positive (negative) estimate indicates more (less) of the configuration in the network than expected (given the other effects in the model). The magnitudes of parameter estimates are not directly comparable across different effects because the scaling of the variables is different.

Table 6.2 Summary results for ERGM

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Estimate (Std. Error)</i>
Edges (constant)	-4.13 (0.53) ***
<i>Structural terms</i>	
Mutual ()	0.13 (0.37)
GWESP (alpha = 0.1)	1.84 (0.15) ***
GWDSP (alpha = 0.1)	- 0.26 (0.05) ***
<i>Homophily</i>	
Gender	0.00 (0.14)
Primary Language (H3)	-0.12 (0.07) *
<i>Main effects</i>	
Advisor's English Fluency (H1)	0.02 (0.01) *
Advisor's Job Level (H2)	
<i>Administrative</i>	Reference
<i>Supervisory</i>	0.09 (0.16)
<i>Managerial</i>	0.50 (0.18) **
Advisor's Cosmopolitanism (H4)	0.06 (0.10)
Foreign Education	0.42 (0.14) **
<i>Other control variables</i>	
Advisor's Tenure	0.02 (0.01) *
Structural Zeros	-INF

Notes:

*** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05

To interpret the parameters in our model, we estimate the odd ratios of the coefficients. The below table presents the odd ratios and the 95% confidence intervals.

Table 6.3 Odd Ratios and 95% Confidence Intervals of ERGM Significant Coefficients

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Odd Ratio</i>	<i>Upper</i>
Edges	0.0057	0.0161	0.0451
Mutual ()	0.5492	1.1398	2.3656
GWESP (alpha = 0.1)	4.6601	6.2799	8.4627
GWDSP (alpha = 0.1)	0.6940	0.7679	0.8498
Gender	0.7596	0.9973	1.3095
Primary Language	0.6123	0.8913	1.2974
English Fluency	0.8874	1.0179	1.1677
Job Level	0.7929	1.0931	1.5070
(Supervisory)			
Job Level	1.1531	1.6462	2.3503
(Managerial)			
Cosmopolitanism	0.8683	1.0652	1.3066
Foreign Education	1.1506	1.5197	2.0070
Tenure	1.0041	1.0235	1.0433

As shown in Table 6.2, H1 supports the claim that English fluency is a significant attribute for language advisors. English fluency for receiver effect measures the degree to which actors with a specific attribute have the propensity to receive ties. In the model, there is a significant positive receiver's effect for English fluency. For every additional English fluency level an employee is perceived to have, the likelihood of being approached for language advice increases by 1.02 times.

H2 is partially supported: job level, as an indicator of job expertise, is partially statistically significant in predicting the existence of a tie in the LAN. There is a significant receiver's

effect for the managerial job level compared to the administrative level. The positive significant coefficients mean that employees at a management level have the tendency to receive ties more than employees in the administrative level. More precisely, employees in managerial roles are 1.6 times more likely to be approached for language advice than administrative job level employees.

Regarding H3, the results reveal a significant *negative* relationship in language homophily. As such, the estimate indicates heterophily for primary language i.e. employees tend to seek advice from advisors with different primary languages than their own. More precisely, two employees are 0.9 times as likely to have a language advice tie if they speak the same primary language, than if they had different primary languages. Thus, our findings imply that language-advice seekers are more likely to seek culturally and linguistically *dissimilar* advisors, rather than those within their cultural and linguistic frame.

H4 is not directly supported using the cosmopolitan scale. It is, however, supported using foreign language as an alternative operationalization for cosmopolitanism, revealing foreign education as a significant attribute in seeking a language advisor. This indicates that advice seekers turn to culturally “open” and integrated individuals for language advice. The positive significant coefficient of foreign education means that employees with exposure to foreign education outside their country of origin have the tendency to receive ties more than employees with a local education (in their country of origin). Precisely, foreign educated employees are 1.5 times as likely of being approached for language advice compared to locally educated employees.

In examining control variables, we find that there is a significant receiver's effect for tenure in the organization. The positive significant coefficients mean that employees with more experience in the organization have the tendency to receive ties more than employees with less tenure. Specifically, for every additional year at the organization an employee works, the likelihood of being approached for language advice increases by 1 time. This is supported by the qualitative study of Chapter 5 that shows that with experience in the industry comes fluency in work jargon.

Moving onto endogenous structural effects, reciprocity is nonsignificant i.e. employees do not reciprocate language advice. This may be due to the power being in the hand of the fluent person so the direction of tie is clear. As for transitivity, it is strongly significant, indicating the power of knowledge perception among employees. The function *gwesp()* has a significant positive parameter, indicating a high degree of closure, or multiple clusters of triangles in the data. Additionally, a significant negative estimate for the function *gwdsp()* has, in conjunction with a positive triangulation estimates, indicates that 2-paths tend to be closed and triangles are thus formed (Lusher et al., 2013).

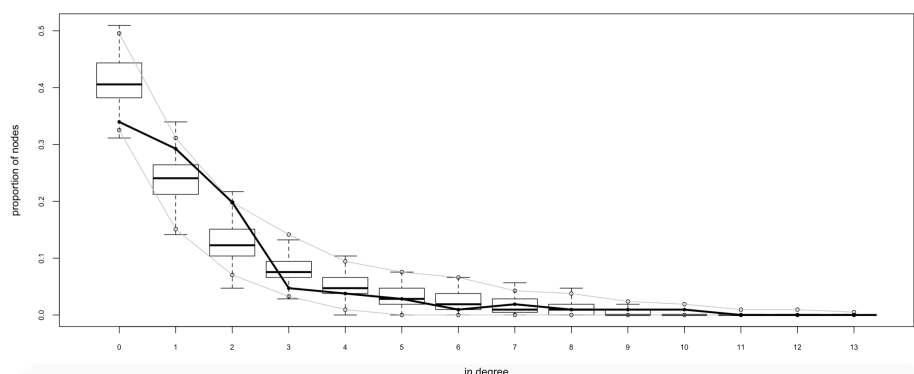
To this point, we have examined the estimates of the model and highlighted the effects of purely structural effects. That is, each type of network effects has an independent explanatory capacity for the presence of ties in the communication network. Conclusively, we can deduce that language advice ties depend on individual characteristics of actors and similarity (or dissimilarity) of actors in the network. Thus, the inclusion of attributes, along with interaction mechanisms simultaneously help us explain the formation of LAN ties. In sum, our findings indicate that language advisors are more senior and more fluent in English. Interestingly, they are also culturally dissimilar individuals who don't share the same primary language.

6.4.3 Network Diagnostics

As expected by the method proposed by Lewis (2016), controlling for structural zeros produces a variable with infinite coefficient, eliminating AIC and BIC measures.

Nonetheless, there are other methods we can implement for network diagnostics. I implement three different methods to examine the validity of the model. First, I examine the goodness of fit of the model. See Figure 6.4

To say a model fits the data is to argue that the combination of the network structures specified in the model is a good representation of how this particular network could have been formed. Goodness of Fit (GOF) diagnostics therefore allow us to know whether the specified model for our observed data represents particular network structures or graph features well. The GOF procedure gives us an indication of whether our model is able to represent important graph features. In Figure 6.4, we see that the observed and expected values for each variable are statistically significant as the observed line graph falls to be plausible, not too far from the mean, and not extreme in the distribution. Figure 6.4 confirms that the model can explain the selected features of the data – in other words, that such a feature is well fitted by the model. It must be noted that the extreme values in the minimum geodesic distance and the model statistics of Figure 6.4 are due to the infinite value produced by the model for the structural zeros constraint.



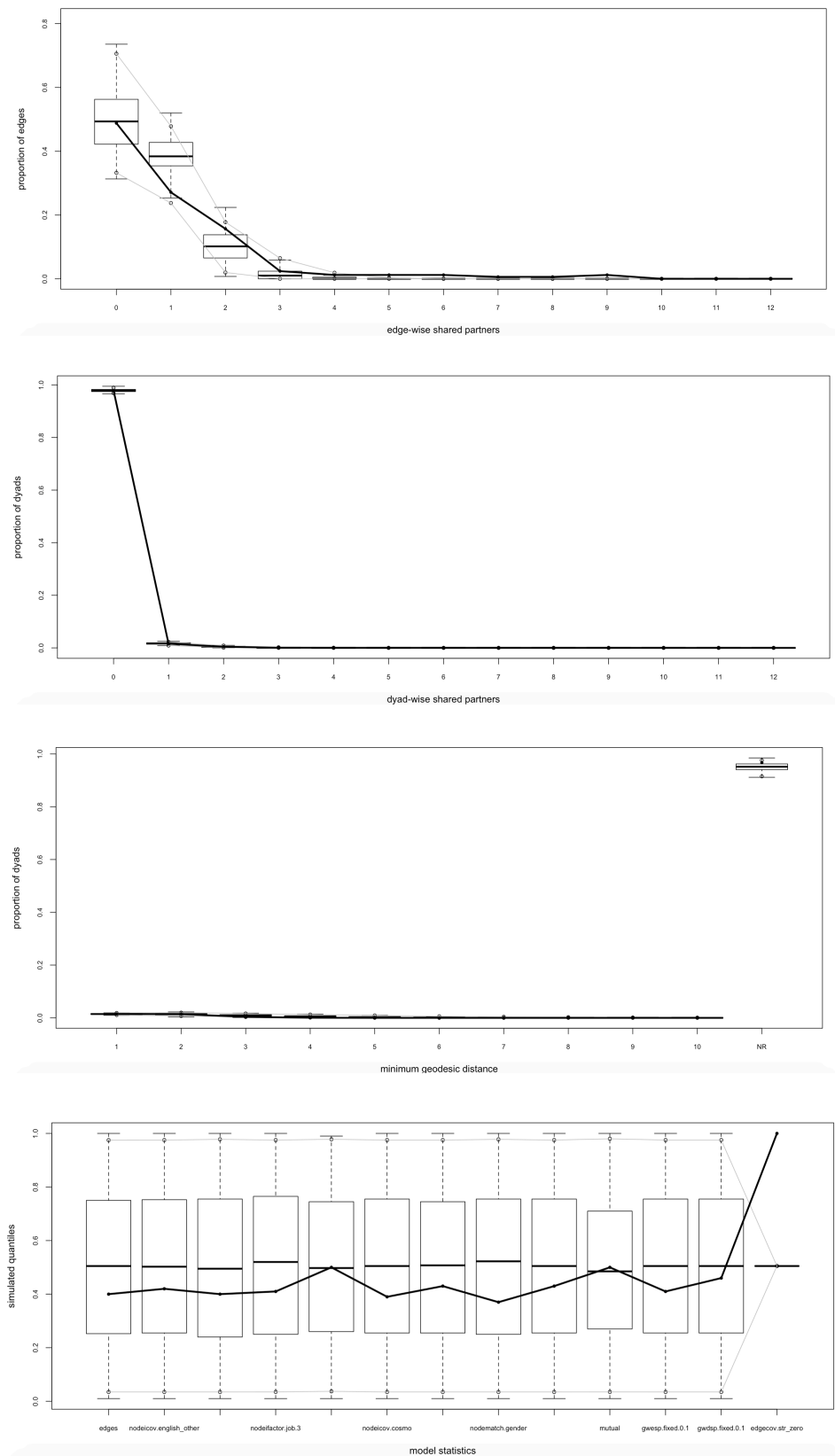


Figure 6.4 Goodness of Fit Diagnostics

Second, we examine the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) diagnostics. This particular diagnostic is applied to monitor whether the model has converged to an equilibrium.

Appendix E presents a visual representation of the MCMC diagnostics after fitting a Bayesian model. The ‘hairy caterpillar’ outcome in the graph and the normal distribution indicate that the model has converged to an equilibrium, confirming the validity of our fitted model.

Finally, we produce a simulation of our model. The simulated network is depicted in Figure 6.5. Through simulation, we are able to gain insight into the outcomes of the model. Firstly, the clustering in the simulation portrays the departments. Even for the L&D department, represented in green nodes, we see that it has created three groups within the department. Secondly, the proportion of isolates in the simulation seems to mirror the reality in our data. Our simulation thus depicts a good model for our data. A full R code is available in Appendix F.

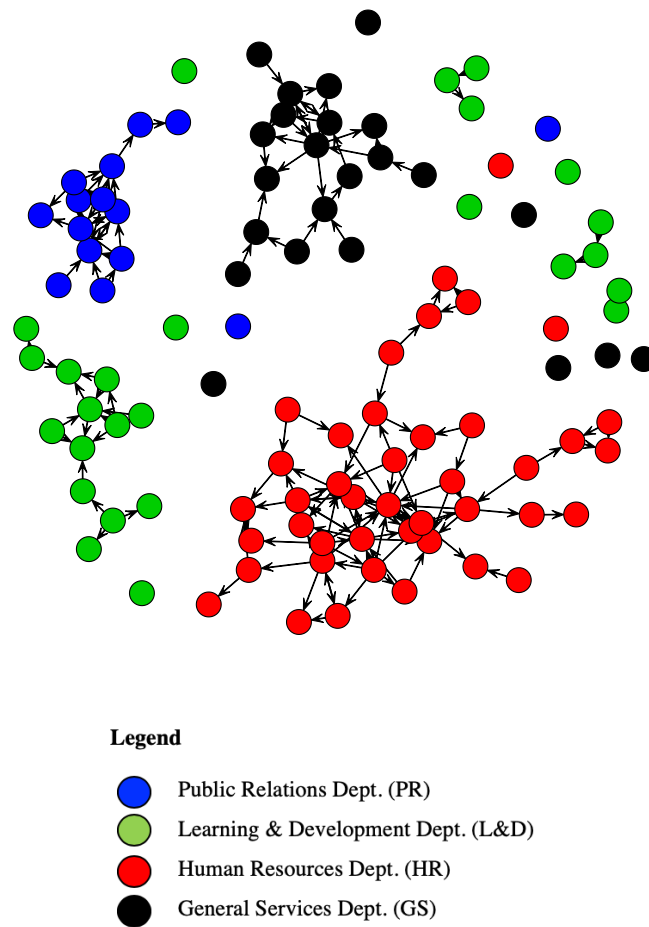


Figure 6.5 Simulation of ERGM

6.5 Discussion

This chapter extends our understanding of LAN's formation by examining individual and dyadic factors associated with language advisors. Although the findings for language fluency and higher job level are consistent with the results from our qualitative study in Chapter 5, cultural heterophily and cosmopolitanism are new findings of this study: cultural

heterogeneity and cosmopolitanism differentiate the network dynamic of the LAN in comparison to other informal networks in the MNC.

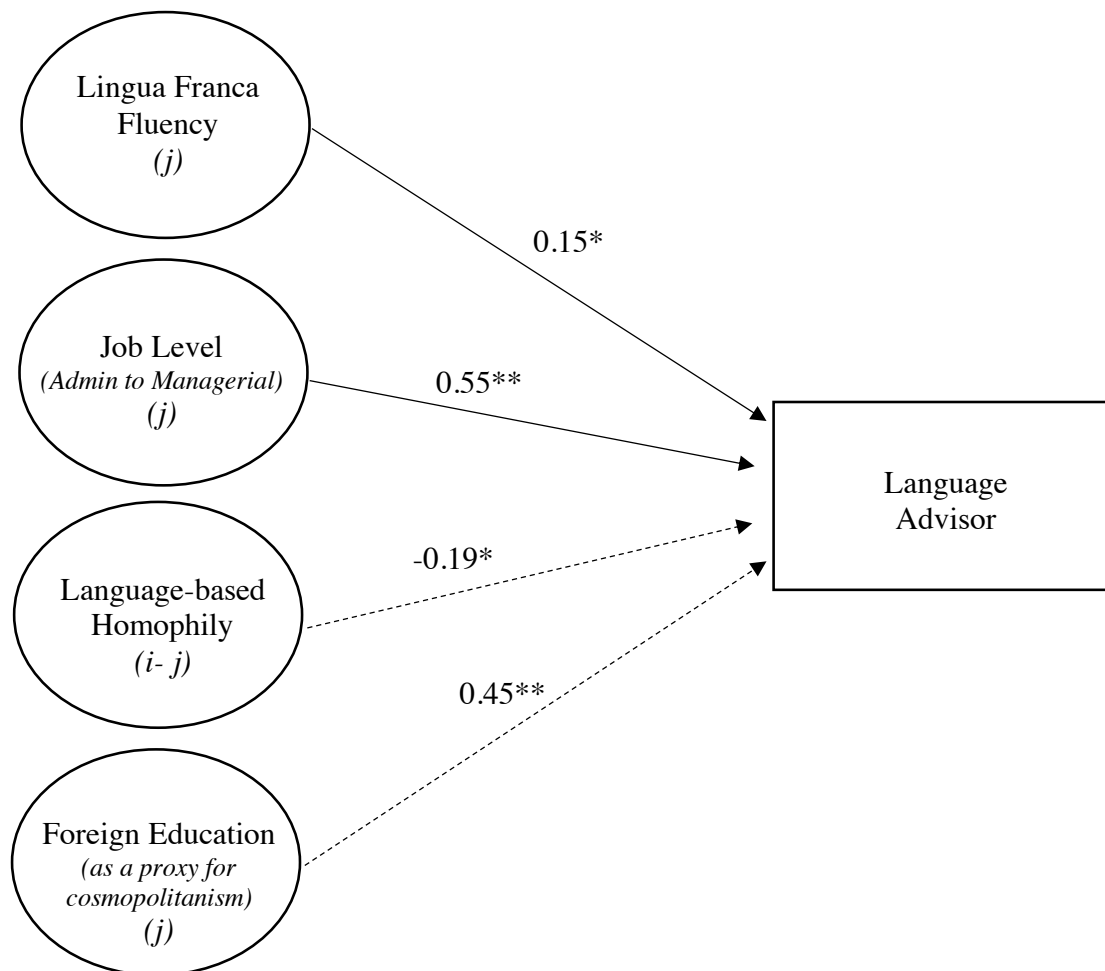


Figure 6.6 Results of Hypotheses Testing

As defined in Chapter 5, the LAN entails exchanges of language-based knowledge among individuals with varying language competency. This chapter supports the qualitative findings by confirming the significance of language fluency in the LAN advisory role. By definition, I anticipated the significance of language fluency, ideally with the more proficient transferring their knowledge to the less proficient. In line with this logic, advise seekers are more likely to

seek language-related knowledge from more fluent speakers due to their depth of language expertise. In line with the current findings, the literature in IB has highlighted lingua franca fluency as a facilitator in transferring skills (Ipe, 2003; Van Der Born & Peltokorpi, 2010) and tacit knowledge (Henderson, 2005). Therefore, language seekers can recognize fluent individuals as a good source of knowledge as they have the ability and competence to advise.

The literature has presented contradictory views on whether individuals at higher job levels can hold central positions in an informal knowledge network. While some argue that such employees have the competence and required job knowledge to be sought after by colleagues (Cross & Cummings, 2004; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001; Levin, Walter, & Murnighan, 2016), others believe they are unlikely to be available to advise or may be unapproachable due to their external management orientation and isolation from social circles (Cross, Parker, Prusak, & Borgatti, 2001). My analysis supports the former view: advice seekers in a LAN are likely to approach more senior colleagues for language-related advice. Two possible explanations can help to understand this hierarchically prone structure. First, language advisors in a LAN may have proactive personalities and/or exhibit proactive behaviors that encourage seekers to approach them for help. Second, the advisor-advisee relationship may thrive from macro-level organizational factors. For example, the organization may use rewards to encourage language advisors at high job levels to engage with subordinates.

Chapter 5 presented three main areas of language advising: syntax, technical language, and proof-reading. To advise correctly, language advisors are expected to have the right skill-set for the task on which they advise. For syntax advice and proof-reading, advice seekers may be more prone to seek fluent English speakers, rather than senior advisors. They expect fluent English speakers to excel in these two areas. In contrast, technical language requires technical

skills and knowledge, as in the example of the word “plant” in QatarCo: in such cases, a fluent English speaker may be less aware than a senior colleague with extensive workplace exposure to the terminology in question. Thus, for technical language advice, employees may be more likely to choose senior colleagues.

In examining language-based homophily, new and unexpected insights arise that have not been encountered in the extant literature. The similarity-attraction theory suggests that individuals are attracted to similar individuals and communicate less with those they perceive to be different from them (Chatman, Polzer, & Barsade, 1998; Riordan & Shore, 1997). Accordingly, homophily based on primary language was anticipated. I expected individuals sharing similar demographic characteristics to be drawn to one another, finding their similarity to be a source of trust due to familiarity, predictability, comfort, and validation (e.g., Klein, Lim, Saltz, & Mayer, 2004; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Contrary to H3, my model shows a negative effect of language-based homophily, represented by a dashed line in Figure 6.6.

Indeed, the model shows a significant relationship in the opposite direction (i.e., language-based heterophily), which indicates that advice seekers in a LAN are more likely to seek help from advisors who *do not share* their primary language and linguistic “frame of reference.” One possible explanation could be that LANs are constructed of weak ties, as an instrumental network that yields structural holes and informational advantages (Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1973; Hasan, 2017; Ibarra, 1995; Podolny & Baron, 1997), whereas strong, dense ties are more evident in friendships, kinship, and social support networks (Nonino, 2013). Hence, language clusters are anticipated in bonding networks with a deeper connection and stronger

ties, while the LAN is an instrumental bridging network of weak ties, activated on a need basis for work-specific tasks.

A possible explanation for the lack of language-based homophily is that primary language may be perceived as a surface-level similarity among employees. As individuals become acquainted with their surroundings, the influence of surface-level traits is replaced by deep-level traits, such as similarity in values and attitudes (Harrison, Price, Gaving, & Florey, 2002). Thus, in seeking to find the right advisor, advice-seekers may search for deeper similarity, such as values of hedonism or of tradition (Klein, Lim, Saltz, & Mayer, 2004). In this case, primary language may be a surface similarity that is overshadowed by a deeper similarity.

The findings for H3 and H4 complement each other. Cosmopolitanism is a significant attribute for language advisors. Due to the nature of MNCs, employees are likely to have spanned cultural, geographic, and language boundaries as part of their job. One may work in one's home country, but in an organization with a foreign corporate lingua franca (i.e., crossing language boundaries); or one may work in a culturally diverse team (i.e., crossing cultural boundaries); or one may be assigned to a long-term project in a new venture as part of the firm's global expansion (i.e., crossing geographic boundaries). In some cases, an individual may even experience all three within the MNC. Thus, while "openness to experience" may be a frustrating trait in intimate relationships, such as marriage and friendship (Klein, Lim, Saltz, & Mayer, 2004), it is valued in language advisors: these individuals' experiences and exposure enable them to step out of their own "frame of reference" and become better at articulating ideas and transferring knowledge to culturally *dissimilar* others. Language advisors may, thus, also be "language mediators" and "bridge

builders” (Feely & Harzing, 2003; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999), information gatekeepers, liaisons, and translators (Janssens & Steyaert, 2014).

The finding of foreign education in language advisors may also help explain to the absence of language-based homophily within the LAN. First, homophily can restrict access to new knowledge and increase redundancy in knowledge shared within a group (Burt, 1992; Leana & Van Buren, 1999). Thus, advisees may have experienced this in the past, and seek to break the redundancy cycle by approaching “others” who are capable of understanding their cultural frame of reference, i.e., a *cosmopolitan* language advisor. Second, a homophily-based linguistic cluster may reflect “false familiarity” (Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007). For instance, members of an Arabic language cluster may be from culturally and socio-economically different backgrounds, comprising nationals, expatriates, and migrants. Thus, the primary language masks cultural differences, which are therefore overlooked (Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007).

Finally, the endogenous structural effects of the model give us new insights. Although reciprocity or exchange of knowledge is seen as a basic and universal human activity (Blau, 1964), it is not a feature of LAN. This may be due to the nature of the network; that is, unlike general advice networks where actors can have a broad array of knowledge, LAN is only interested in one aspect—language expertise—that for one to have a substantial level of knowledge, they only would seek knowledge from someone who is even more experienced than them. The chance of that person being that same one that seeks their advice is therefore low. Reciprocity is a form of dependency, whereby the two possible directed ties within a dyad are dependent on each other. In other words, the presence of a tie from Mohammed to Maria does not increase the chances of a tie from Maria to Mohammed.

Another more complex form of structural effect is transitivity. Our network shows strong tendency to transitivity, which is not surprising, especially for a small network where everyone knows the other. Suppose Noor seeks advice from Sara, and Sara seeks advice from Karim. The chance of Noor seeking advice from Karim is substantially high.

6.5.1 Theoretical Contribution

This study provides several important theoretical contributions. First, it extends understanding of the emerging LANs in MNCs. Building on the structural model presented in Chapter 5, the current study highlights an array of significant individual and dyadic attributes of language advisors. Its discussion of the roles of hierarchical job levels, English fluency, cultural homophily, and cultural openness capture the relational and cognitive dimensions of the LAN. Thus, following Nahapiet & Ghoshal's (1998) dimensional framework of social capital, a full investigation of dimensions has now been conducted.

Second, the study broadens understanding of informal networks in the MNC. While Nonino (2013) provides a list of working and non-working informal networks, I extend the research by presenting a novel view of a language-specific advice (or knowledge) network. The LAN is a niche advice network, instrumental in its use, and dynamic in its nature. Additionally, while many empirical studies discuss the homophilic impact on network formation, this study also challenges the view that similarity breeds connection. This may be explained by the nature of the relationship, since interpersonal connections in the LAN are only activated on a need basis and comprise weak ties. Consequently, individuals rely on cosmopolitans to transfer knowledge, rather than culturally-similar colleagues.

6.5.2 Managerial Implications

Performing the role of a language advisor and maintaining an instrumental intra-firm network may be indicative of leadership skills, the ability *and* motivation to share knowledge, and a positive contribution to the organization's learning culture beyond one's job responsibilities. Such talented individuals may be identified as valuable assets to the organization to be retained and promoted.

Additionally, the level of LAN engagement may allow managers to identify strengths and weaknesses in their employees, not just in terms of competence development and performance management but also in identifying cultural brokers and boundary spanners. Given the prevalence of cultural (e.g., Bhagat, Kedia, Harveston, & Triandis, 2002; Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez, & Gibson, 2005) and language (e.g., Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Feely & Harzing, 2003; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch D., & Welch L., 1999; Neeley, 2012) barriers in the MNC, language advisors are likely to be significant resources for facilitating inter-group communication across linguistic, cultural, and geographic boundaries.

6.5.3 Future Research

In this chapter, I presented an array of factors that contribute to a person seeking language advice from another. In examining LAN content, as discussed in Chapter 5, I expect certain individual factors to be more important than others for different advice content. Thus, I propose to conduct further investigations into the necessary attributes across LAN content.

Second, in discussing my main findings, I presented two possible scenarios that may explain the availability and approachability of senior colleagues in a LAN, despite contrary views in the literature. I, thus, propose to conduct an examination of the significance of proactive

personalities in a LAN and motives for exhibiting proactive behaviors that encourage seekers to approach one for help.

Finally, I propose to conduct a study that explains the benefits of LAN engagement. Chapter 5 discussed the motives (lack of confidence, insufficient language fluency, unfamiliarity with context), content (syntax-related, technical jargon, and proofreading), and processes (recognition, initiation, implementation) from language-advice seekers' perspective. Thus, a follow-up study that presents language advisors' motives and benefits may enable holistic understanding of the two roles in a LAN. Additionally, from a social capital perspective, this chapter captured how cultural capital shapes the network's formation; what remains to be explored is the benefit (i.e., economic capital) it may yield.

Chapter 7: The Impact of LAN Advisory Engagement on Career Success:

A Relationship Mediated by Rewarding Reputation and Intra-firm Social Capital

7.1 Introduction

Having introduced the LAN construct and examined its formation as a network, this chapter extends the research to investigate the impact of LAN advisory engagement on individual career success. Chapter 5 identified two roles in the LAN: language-advice seekers and language advisors. The advice seekers anticipated their LAN engagement to result in improved language fluency, higher confidence in their performance, and greater efficiency by utilizing knowledge provided by the advisor (as seen in Chapter 5). However, as LAN is voluntary and advisors are linguistically competent, what remains unclear is *why advisors engage and how they benefit?*

IB scholars in the language stream have focused on language competence as a career capital in the globalization era, impacting career mobility (Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016), and satisfaction (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Luring & Klitmøller, 2014; Neeley, 2013; Tenzer, Pudenko, & Harzing, 2014; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005). Congruently, the current research has thus far demonstrated the LAN to be a new layer of intra-firm social capital, built on the foundation of language asymmetry. It has investigated the factors that make advisors sought after in a LAN, highlighting language fluency as a key factor. Hence, as the LAN is a form of intra-firm social capital that operates to exchange language-based knowledge, how does advisory engagement in the LAN impact career success in the MNC?

The remainder of this chapter is structured as follows. I first review the current literature on career success in the MNC and the role of language fluency in career success, and accordingly propose that advisory engagement in a LAN mediates between language fluency and career success. Then, through a grounded theory approach, I find that language advisors experience internal and external career success, in the form of a sense of empowerment, non-financial rewards, financial incentives, and enhanced status. I also find that this impact is mediated by establishing a rewarding reputation and enhancing one's intra-firm social capital, portraying the LAN as an example of generalized reciprocity. I then explore the similarities and differences between national, expatriate, and migrant advisors in terms of their career success dimensions and the explanatory mechanisms. Finally, I conclude by discussing this chapter's findings, theoretical significance, and managerial implications.

7.2 Literature Review

This section reviews key concepts from the career and language literature in the IB context. I conclude the section by presenting this study's research query.

7.2.1 Career Success in the MNC

For decades, the career literature has been dedicated to conceptualizing and empirically examining what constitutes a successful career, and what factors facilitate or hamper building one. Through acknowledging and briefly reviewing the key concepts in the career literature on individual career success in MNCs, I define career success, address its development in the literature, and establish its dimensions.

Definition of Career Success

Traditionally, career success has been defined as a linear progression in which individuals advance hierarchically over the course of their tenure in the organization (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003). The metaphorical notions of “climbing the ladder” and “making my way to the top” are derived from this popular view. However, the changing nature of careers has generated alternative, modernized views of career success (Baruch, 2004; 2006; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996). Careers have become transitional and flexible, demanding a new perspective on what constitutes success (Baruch, 2004). Career systems have evolved from linear to multi-directional. Today, organizations and individuals no longer limit the definition of career progression to the traditional notion of vertical mobility, and now also embrace horizontal mobility (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996). Progressing to a different assignment within another department or operation, sometimes at the same hierarchical level, may bring higher career satisfaction and compensation (Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005).

Both organizations and people change their expectations, giving employees an array of career options and paths that they may choose to navigate, rather than letting the organization decide for them (Baruch, 2006; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Spreitzer, Porath, & Gibson, 2012). A body of literature has adopted Arthur, Claman, & DeFillippi’s (1995) framework of “intelligent” careers, in which the notion of intelligence is reflected in knowing “why,” “how,” and “whom.” They argue that career success depends on understanding the values, attitudes, and needs of the organization: knowing “why.” Similarly, employees need to acquire and practice the right set of career competencies, such as skills, expertise, and both tacit and explicit knowledge: knowing “how” to succeed. Finally, knowing “whom” refers to the employee’s network and ability to identify the right people with whom to engage. Scholars have further developed this framework to include knowing “what,” “where,” and “when” (Jones &

DeFillippi, 1996). Knowing “what” constitutes awareness of opportunities, threats, and requirements to sustain and/or progress in one’s career. Knowing “where” reflects the ability to detect when to train and advance. Finally, knowing “when” concerns the timing and choice of activities conducted. Thus, the intelligent career requires self-management of the effective qualities needed for a successful career.

Measures of Career Success

Career success can be measured through external and internal indicators (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). The external indicators are objective measures that are evident to others, such as hierarchical position, salary level, and job titles (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Sturges, 1999). These external indicators are others’ evaluation of one’s career success. Through vertical and horizontal career mobility, one is likely to experience career success via objective measures, such as higher pay, job level, and status (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Sturges, 1999; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005).

Equally important is internal success, referring to one’s own perception of success, sense of achievement, and pride, which can be measured through subjective indicators such as career satisfaction (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Poole, Langan-Fox, & Omodei, 1993; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). From the internal lens, one may experience career success through growth in competence, opportunities to learn and develop, work-life balance, and sense of empowerment (Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006).

Nevertheless, different people seek different career success outcomes. For some, the aim is financial success, seeking higher pay and financial rewards. On the other hand, some claim to

be motivated to achieve more internal satisfaction from their job. With sufficient money to cover their basics, the financial incentive is not their most important aspect of career success aspect (Baruch, 2006). Although the external indicators of career success are more visible measures, a high level of internal career success and satisfaction should also be considered success (Baruch, 2004; 2006). This study, therefore, examines both internal and external aspects of individual career success in the organization.

7.2.2 Language as a Career Capital

To unify communication across all operations (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Luo & Shenkar, 2006), MNCs adopt a common corporate language. English is most commonly chosen English (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1997; Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999), and has become an administrative managerial tool in the workplace (Latukha, Doleeva, Järleström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016). However, employees speak a wide range of languages, and their lingua franca fluency varies.

High lingua franca fluency among employees leads to positive consequences for an MNC's formal and informal communication. First, it facilitates knowledge sharing and transfer (Buckley, Carter, Clegg, & Tan, 2005; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000). High language fluency in the MNC strongly influences the capacity to share knowledge. Peltokorpi (2015) found that employees' language competence influenced their ability to coordinate with local competitors and the MNC's head office. Thus, language fluency influences the "know how" central to one's career success.

Second, it enhances the shared vision and perceived trustworthiness between employees and units (Barner-Rasmussen & Björkman, 2007). Given that trust and shared vision are central

to knowledge sharing, language fluency is thus crucial to sustaining the “transnational” MNC (Barner-Rasmussen & Aarnio, 2001; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1987, 1989). Thus, language fluency enhances formal reporting and communication across different levels and units of the organization (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999), as well as the transfer of information and skills (Van Der Born & Peltokorpi, 2010) and understanding of tacit knowledge (Henderson, 2005) across linguistic, cultural, and geographic boundaries (i.e., knowing “when” and “where”).

Third, it impacts interpersonal and professional communications by strengthening team-building (Hinds, Neeley, & Cramton, 2014; Luring & Tange, 2010; Tenzer, Pudenko, & Harzing, 2014) and the sense of belonging to the workforce (Luo & Shenkar, 2006; Feely & Harzing, 2003; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2014). In this line of reasoning, language fluency is viewed as a career capital by the MNC (Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016). In line with the literature, Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari (2015) establish an empirical relationship between language skills and career mobility. Their study tests the significance of language skills in external, internal, geographically foreign, and geographically domestic career mobility. Their findings demonstrate that language skills resemble the knowing “how,” “why,” and “whom” required for career success.

The literature has evidently identified a relationship between language competence and career success. It has holistically described the role of language skills in all aspects of the intelligent career competence framework. Similarly, language fluency has been linked to external and internal career success indicators. Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari (2016) conducted one study of the relationship between language skills and career mobility, proving that proficiency in corporate language facilitates internal and external career mobility. A high level of fluency in the lingua franca has also been proved to hone one’s confidence and

empowerment (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005), motivation (Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014; Neeley, 2013; Tenzer, Pudulko & Harzing, 2014), and job satisfaction (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005); it also reflects one's high knowledge perception among peers (Lauring & Klitmøller, 2014).

7.2.3 The Mediating Role of LAN Advisory Engagement for Career Success

To manage their careers, employees must take on roles and responsibilities, such as engaging in self-monitoring and setting career goals, while critically assessing and operationalizing the proactive behaviors that management seeks to promote in the organization (Baruch, 2006). Proactive behavior is “self-initiated and future-oriented action that aims to change and improve the situation or oneself” (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006, p. 636). This view of proactive behavior encompasses three elements. First, it encompasses self-initiation, which means that proactive behavior is implemented without being instructed or required. Second, it encompasses future-orientation, with anticipation of long-term problems or opportunities. Third, it encompasses change-orientation, with engagement in changing a situation to secure a different (or better) future. In the same vein, advisory engagement in a LAN is a form of proactive behavior given its voluntary nature, initiative-taking process, and unnegotiated exchange of offered knowledge (Chia & Sharon, 2013). All three characteristics indicate that advisory engagement in a LAN indicate that it constitutes proactive behavior in the organization.

One individual-level antecedent of proactive behavior is the knowledge and ability the individual is able to portray and offer. As Fay & Frese (2001) explain, “To be able to take initiative, one needs a good and thorough understanding of what one's work is, that is, one needs job-relevant knowledge, skills, and cognitive ability” (p.104). Therefore, job

qualifications, a strong educational background, and a deep level of knowledge of the task are all relevant. In Chapter 5, I found that language advisors are central individuals, sought after by colleagues for their language expertise, experience, and ability to cross cultural and linguistic boundaries and clearly articulate the knowledge transferred. Language advisors voluntarily engage in providing language-specific knowledge to individuals with low lingua franca fluency. Thus, language advisors are able to portray and offer their knowledge and ability, which is a key antecedent of proactivity.

The language-advice seeker requests language-related help, guidance, and uncredited collaboration from their colleagues. Through exposure to their fluent colleagues via the LAN, language-advice seekers engage as it is beneficial to their job performance. What remains ambiguous is why language advisors engage in a LAN, and what is reciprocated for their knowledge exchange. According to the theory of conversion of capitals, language advisors' "outstanding-ness," visibility in the group, and the knowledge they contribute to others without agreed reciprocation must generate some return (Bourdieu, 1984). The behavioral view of proactivity has been examined in the social sciences and management domains, revealing that proactivity is positively related to career success, socialization, and work performance (Chia & Sharon, 2013). Thus, the literature has conceptualized proactivity as a goal-directed process (Bindl, Parker, Totterdell, & Hagger-Johnson, 2012; Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Language advisors are, thus, career-resilient workers who prepare for and anticipate change in their careers. They engage in voluntary advisory roles in a LAN to prepare for new job opportunities (Sturges, 1999). By engaging in networking behaviors (De Vos, De Clippeleer, & Dewilde, 2009), proactive individuals can secure mentoring relationships, develop interpersonal relationships with senior colleagues, negotiate higher-level positions in the

hierarchy, and access higher incomes (Blickle, Witzki, & Schneider, 2009; Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001; Spreitzer, Porath, & Gibson, 2012). Additionally, proactive behaviors increase career satisfaction and decrease intention to leave the organization (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Frese & Fay, 2001; Morrison, 1993; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005).

The remainder of this chapter is dedicated to understanding why advisors engage in a LAN and how the LAN advisory role is reciprocated. As a form of proactive behavior in the organization, advisory engagement may be reciprocated with career success. The research model in Figure 7.1 depicts the relationship between language fluency and career success recognized in the literature. Having established in Chapter 6 that language fluency is a significant factor in LAN advisory engagement, I aim in this chapter to examine whether and how such engagement is related to career success. As Figure 7.1 shows, I propose that the relationship between language fluency and career success in the MNC is mediated by advisory engagement in a LAN.

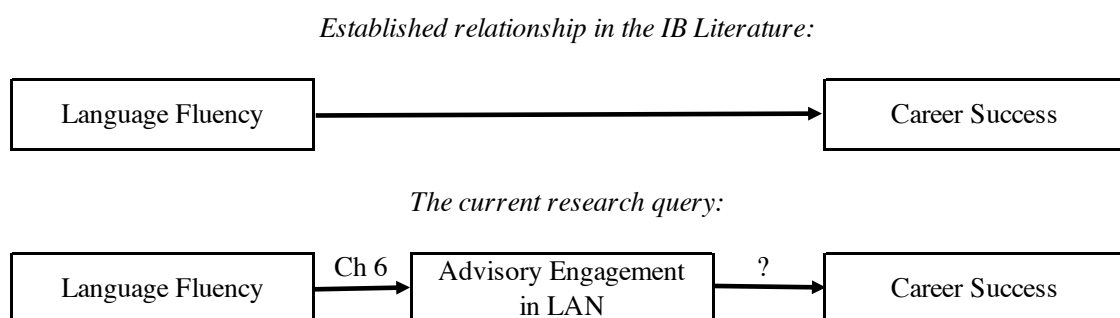


Figure 7.1 Base model and current research contribution

7.3 Methods

7.3.1 Research Design and Theory Development

Following grounded theory standards, I interrelate data collection and analysis (Suddaby, 2006) to ensure an integrative theory-building process. The use of thematic analysis, driven by grounded theory, is informative for this study's research area. The prominent literature on language in IB promotes a negative image of the "fragmented" workforce (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Feely & Harzing, 2003; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2014). The grounded theory approach to thematic analysis allows me to explore the detail and nuances of the LAN, the underlying mechanisms of LAN engagement (for the advisor), and the impact of such engagement on advisors' career success in the MNC. Through theoretical sampling, iterative coding, and comparison between theory and data to reach saturation, I iterate and refine the emerging categories in my findings. My choice of respondents for data collection, and of the discussion questions, was aimed at expanding the emerging LAN theory to the greatest possible extent through diversity in situations and respondents.

The literature and existing theories were critical to my qualitative analysis. Theories are versions of the world, offering different perspectives and social constructions. Thus, they are preliminary and relative, requiring continuous revision, evaluation, construction, and reconstruction (Flick, 2009). During my qualitative data analysis, I continuously revisited existing theories and literature. My data analysis was an ongoing process, which started during and continued alongside my data collection. I began my thematic data analysis with "open coding" (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). I formulated different codes as a starting point and with dozens of codes, I then categorized them by grouping into emerging themes from the text, referred to as "first order codes" (Attride-Stirling, 2001).

These themes were then organized into more abstract, constructed codes, which represent the content of their categories (Attride-Stirling, 2001).

I then progressed to “axial coding” to establish relations between concepts that may be found in the existing literature and creates novel relationships for this study that can be further examined and tested (Flick, 2009). Finally, I advanced to selective coding to focus on more abstract core concepts and variables, or “global themes,” resulting in the formulation of the thematic tree presented in Figure 7.2. A comprehensive explanation is offered in Chapter 4.

7.3.2 Data Sources

Data were collected using three methods: interviews, focus groups, and participant observation. I took time off each data collection method to allow for reflection and data analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). I triangulated the data obtained from all three methods to improve the validity of the theory developed (Yin, 1984). Evidence for cross verification of the data sources is provided in Figure 7.2.

Interviews

I conducted 33 one-to-one interviews with advisors, dual roles (individuals who both give and seek advice), and their supervisors. A detailed sample classification is provided in Table 7.1. I followed a semi-structured interview guide comprising both standardized and tailored questions, allowing flexibility with the content and level of detail with every interviewee. The interview questions are divided into three parts. The first contains questions on demographics, such as tenure in the organization; the second covers interviewees’ role in LAN and extent of engagement; and the third focuses on the consequences of LAN for the individual. I moved on to the next part every time I reached meaning saturation, with no more

insights to be gained from further probing (Gaskell & Bauer, 2000). In line with the inductive research approach, the interview questions were slightly modified across advisors, dual roles, and/or advisors' superiors in order to reflect data saturation and verify information provided about the emerging themes (Spradley, 1979). The questions of the interview, length, and validation methods used for the qualitative analysis have been discussed in Chapter 4 and 5 in greater detail.

Table 7.1 Sample Classification based on Social Category

Sample Size			
<i>All</i>	<i>Nationals</i>	<i>Expatriates</i>	<i>Migrants</i>
45	13	21	11
LAN Advisors (including dual)			
<i>All</i>	<i>Nationals</i>	<i>Expatriates</i>	<i>Migrants</i>
37	10	16	11
Advisors' Superior			
<i>All</i>	<i>Nationals</i>	<i>Expatriates</i>	<i>Migrants</i>
17*	5	11	1

* 9 also engage in an advisory role; the rest are treated as a verification sample.

Table 7.2 Chapter 7 Interview Respondents' Profiles

<i>ID</i>	<i>Department</i>	<i>Job Role</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Primary language</i>	<i>Nationality</i>	<i>Social Status</i> *	<i>English fluency**</i>	<i>Tenure in QatarCo (Years)</i>	<i>LAN Role***</i>	<i>Follow-up</i>
IR_01	Marketing & Sales (Acc)	Officer	24	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	4	2	Dual	
IR_03	Marketing & Sales (Acc)	Admin	32	M	Hindi	Indian	M	3.5	4	Dual	
IR_04	Marketing & Sales (Acc)	Specialist	41	M	English	English	E	5	3	Advisor/ AS	
IR_26	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Engineer	28	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	4	5	Dual	X
IR_27	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Supervisor	54	M	Urdu	Indian	E	4.5	3	Advisor/ AS	
IR_28	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Technician	38	M	Urdu	Nepali	M	3	5	Dual	X
IR_29	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Technician	35	M	Urdu	Nepali	M	3.5	7	Dual	X
IR_32	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Manager	52	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	20+	Advisor/ AS	X
IR_33	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Engineer	34	F	Tagalog	Filipino	E	4	1	Dual	
IR_34	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Engineer	28	F	Hindi	Indian	E	4	2	Advisor	
IR_35	Marketing & Sales (Ops)	Manager	47	M	English	American	E	5	5	Advisor/ AS	
IR_11	GS	Supervisor	41	M	Urdu	Indian	M	4	2	Dual	X
IR_12	GS	Head	36	M	Urdu	Indian	M	5	7	Advisor/ AS	
IR_13	GS	Admin	45	F	Arabic	Syrian	M	3	15	Dual	X
IR_36	HR	Manager	35	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	12	Dual/ AS	X
IR_05	HR (Government Affairs)	Head	43	M	Arabic	Jordanian	M	4	8	Dual/ AS	X
IR_06	HR (Government Affairs)	Specialist	55	M	Arabic	Sudanese	M	3	10	Dual	X
IR_14	HR (Policy & Procedures)	Specialist	40	F	English	Australian	E	5	3	AS	
IR_18	HR (Recruitment)	Head	37	M	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	12	Dual	X
IR_07	PR (Events & Conferences)	Head	50	F	English	English	E	5	4	Advisor	
IR_08	PR (External Relations)	Specialist	34	F	Arabic	Egyptian	E	4	2	Dual	

IR_19	PR	Manager	35	M	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	8	AS	
IR_20	PR (External Relations)	Head	41	F	Hindi	Indian	E	5	10	Advisor	
IR_15	L&D (Competence Mgt)	Specialist	33	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	5	Dual	
IR_16	L&D (Qatarization)	Head	34	M	Arabic	Qatari	N	4	10	Dual	
IR_21	L&D (Training)	Head	53	M	Hindi	S. African	E	5	3	Dual	X
IR_22	L&D (Training)	Specialist	58	F	Tagalog	Filipino	E	5	7	Advisor	
IR_23	L&D (Succession Planning)	Head	44	F	English	Australian	E	5	5	Advisor/ AS	
IR_24	L&D (Succession Planning)	Specialist	38	F	English	English	E	5	2	Advisor/ AS	
IR_25	L&D (Succession Planning)	Officer	24	F	Arabic	Qatari	N	5	3	Dual	X
IR_37	Corporate Planning & Strategy	translator	39	M	Arabic	Jordanian	M	5	7	Advisor	
IR_38	Corporate Planning & Strategy	translator	46	F	Arabic	Sudanese	M	5	4	Advisor	X
IR_39	Corporate Planning & Strategy	Specialist	38	F	Urdu	Pakistani	M	5	6	Advisor	X
IR_40	Corporate Planning & Strategy	Manager	59	M	English	American	E	5	4	AS	

Notes: * N: National; E: Expatriate; M: Migrant.

** My assessment of their English fluency on a scale of 1 to 5 (5= fluent).

*** Dual: Engages in both roles; AS: Advisors' Superior.

Focus groups

In an attempt to create a situation in which participants could interact and discuss multiple viewpoints, I organized and conducted two focus groups. The first focus group was conducted during the first three months of my contract. At that stage, I had preliminary insights from my interviews. I targeted lower hierarchical positions, comprising administrative assistants and fresh graduates (undergoing training). The first focus group comprised eight employees and lasted 90 minutes.

The second focus group was scheduled at a later stage, after I had performed substantial data analysis and developed a clearer picture of the relationship between advisors' intent to engage and their experienced consequences of engagement. Thus, for the second focus group, I targeted senior employees at the supervisory and management level, aiming to verify the findings that required their input, such as "management recognition" and "increased autonomy." The second group comprised only five employees and lasted 50 minutes. The turn-up rate was 40%, reflecting the significant challenge of scheduling the attendance of senior employees at one session and avoiding last-minute cancellations. Nevertheless, the data collected were sufficient for analysis, and the homogeneity between the two groups was useful in triangulating career success findings. A complete list of focus group attendees is available in Chapter 4, Table 4.4.

The interviews and focus groups were similar in structure. Although the focus group discussions were lengthy, which limited the number of questions that could be addressed, they proved to be highly time-efficient. I was able to collect multiple viewpoints, insights, and personal experiences on certain topics, providing depth and personal context (Eisenhardt, 1989; Flick, 2009). Using the same semi-structured questions to guide the discussion, I

focused on the questions on which I needed more insights on. To avoid taking notes, I audio recorded the focus group sessions and subsequently transcribed them. Unlike interviews, which were carried out in English with code-switching to Arabic, the focus groups were fully conducted in English due to the presence of non-Arabic speakers.

Participant Observation

For ten consecutive months, I attended the headquarters offices for six to eight hours each working day, which I spent attending meetings, taking fieldnotes, interviewing employees, and performing weekly administrative tasks as an intern. Such exposure provided good opportunities to informally observe employees during their working hours and breaks; and as an intern, I was able to fit in as an employee and spend time with employees during their lunch and smoking breaks. The degree of observation and participation varied across different activities. During business meetings, I mostly observed, whereas in the canteen and at social gatherings I mainly participated. In addition to direct observations, I recorded numerous conversations with employees in a small notebook that I kept in my pocket at all times. Collecting these fieldnotes proved invaluable for understanding the context and employees' behavior. I discuss this data collection method in greater detail in Chapters 4 and

7.3.3 Reflexivity

One of the key observations in my fieldwork was the employees' use of "us" and "them" referring to different features or attributes that brought a group together or disconnected them. One of the main ones was the grouping of Nationals versus non-Nationals (migrants and expatriates). Although the ratio of Nationals to non-Nationals was very small, the presence of the Nationals was bigger than just their numbers. The Nationals had more *power* than an average employee. Departments bragged by how many Nationals worked for them.

Supervisors whom coached Nationals felt superior to others. This may be due to the Qatarization Strategy that promotes the notion that the more Nationals you harvest and retain, the more achieved (and rewarded) you are as an organization (and evidently the individual responsible as well).

The same cannot be said for the non-Nationals as they are perceived as *temporary* in the organization. This means that it may be a highly-needed ‘expert’ employee who is headhunted and required for a definite contract or a low-paid administrative role that can be easily replaced. This can be one of the reasons to form jealousy and resentment towards the Nationals as they are job-secured and treated as a permanent employee in the organization who escalates the hierarchy.

The grouping of Nationals and non-Nationals also extended to social interaction and socialization. Nationals hung out with their own, not exclusively, but the majority. In the lunch breaks, they would meet on the ground floor or the canteen to grab lunch together. This grouping is also clear visually when I walked into recreational spaces of the building, away from the offices. One of the main causes of these groupings could be existing family and friendship ties among the Nationals. Another main cause is the cultural and language similarity. This is also visible among other language groups: all Indians hang together, all Filipinos hang together, etc.

I also got the impression that the Nationals were respected as a pretense of an interaction. The notion that the National is “well-connected” in and out of the organization leads to that. As a small population, the Nationals always “know someone who knows the CEO” or the minister or the Emir (Ruler). Thus, a pre-determined level of respect is self-imposed by the non-

Nationals when interacting with the Nationals. This may be caused by distrust or fear of job loss that non-Nationals experience towards Nationals (that may limit their interaction).

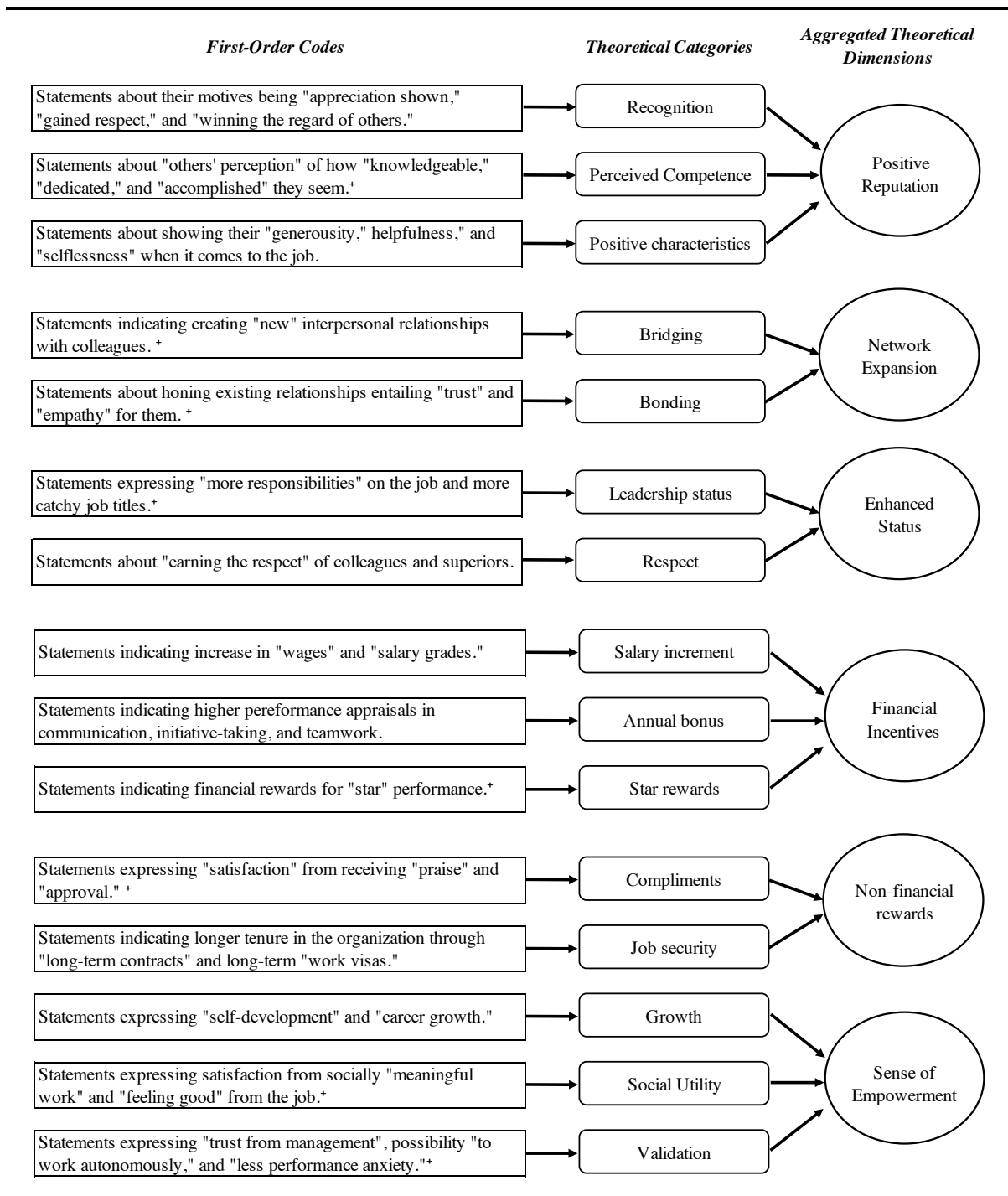
The “us” versus “them” dynamic may have led some non-National employees to hold back from interacting with me or speaking openly about their experiences that involved Nationals. This may have been one of the difficulties I faced during my fieldwork to gain trust of the non-Nationals I interviewed.

7.4 Findings

The four main findings are as follows: (1) advisory engagement in a LAN positively related to individual career success in the MNC; (2) generalized exchange, in the form of rewarding reputation, is the main explanatory mechanism to explain the relationship between advisory engagement in a LAN and career success; (3) network expansion is a secondary explanatory mechanism to explain the relationship; and (4) there are notable similarities and differences across national, expatriate, and migrant advisors.

It is important to note that the mechanisms and outcomes diverge in the data analysis from the context in which they were retrieved from. When the category is explained by the respondent as a means to achieving a different outcome, I labeled it as a mechanism. When the category is however the final outcome that the respondents aimed to achieve, I labelled it as the career outcome. This stage in the data analysis was the most critical to revolve Figure 7.2 into an interactive model that explains the relationship between the categories, as in Figure 7.3 and 7.4.

Figure 7.2 Overview of Data Structure*



Notes:

* All data were derived from semistructured interviews and focus group discussions.

* indicates "supplemented with observations".

7.4.1 Advisory Engagement in a LAN Positively related to Career Success

As discussed in the literature, career success can be measured through external and internal indicators (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001); (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). I found both external and internal career success measures.

The external indicators are objective measures that are evident to others, such as hierarchical position, salary level, and job titles (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988; Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006; Sturges, 1999). These external indicators are others' evaluation of one's achievement, which I find to be influenced by advisory engagement in a LAN. My findings report two external career success measures: financial incentives and enhanced status.

Financial Incentives

Financial incentives are an external form of career success. In this study, three forms of financial incentives were identified: small financial rewards throughout the year, called "Star rewards"; a higher annual bonus; and salary increments. In line with the social capital literature, greater access to information and resources has a direct, significant, and positive influence on both salary (Hasan, 2017; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001) and status (Levy & Reiche, 2018). Similarly, employees are more willing to go beyond their prescribed job description and show extra-role behavior, such as helping others, when they see their efforts rewarded financially, such as through increased income (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013).

In QatarCo, Star rewards are financial rewards given to "star" employees who excel in a high-profile project and/or engage in voluntary work outside their job description. The Star reward ranges from £100 to £400. Advisors, by exhibiting prosocial behavior in the organization, are eligible for Star rewards. A supervisor explained:

As we [an engineering team] are located off-shore, our work is very delicate and precision is a must. One mistake can really hold us back and cost us millions. I have a few exceptional team members who I trust. If I am back on-shore or for some reason, away, sick leave, then I trust they can oversee my plant and teach and train the others... some of the language we use in the plant is highly technical and so new staff are not really aware of it... I expect some of my star employees to advise [in technical language] [...] Once in a while, I grant them a Star reward. HR lets us, you know, to keep everyone motivated. [IR_27].

To confirm the eligibility of Star rewards, the HR policy team reinforced that LAN advisors are deserving of them. A Policy & Procedure specialist elaborated:

We try not to make a habit of granting them [Star rewards, including for language advisors] whenever requested. But some individuals exceed our expectations of them, and in order to encourage teamwork and collaboration, we reward them [...] they get motivated, others want the same and imitate, and so their collective performance drastically improves. [IR_14]

In a similar discussion with a Competence Development and Performance Appraisal specialist, she highlighted the importance of engaging in a LAN for both the advisor and advisee. For the advisor, she emphasized their communication skills as a desired core competence in the organization:

Many employees think that we only highly rate those who speak English with native fluency when in fact this is not enough to score highly in communication skills [...] we

are specifically looking for the ability to articulate their ideas in a coherent form and voice negative feedback in a constructive manner [...] we find that in the language helpers around here. [IR_15]

The discussion also elaborated on other behavioral core competences the organization promotes. Their desired behavioral core competences include language advising as proactive behavior. She elaborated:

When we are facilitating the rating and ranking sessions, we highlight information sharing, ethics and integrity, teamwork and supporting others, and trust and empowerment as behavioral core competences; all of which LAN advisors' score highly in. [IR_15]

To investigate the implications of the performance appraisals, language advisors were asked about their ratings. In the case of Malcolm in Corporate Planning, he confirmed receiving exceptional ratings (the highest being 4 and the lowest 1) throughout his tenure in QatarCo:

I'm not sure if I'm allowed to share this [laughs]. I have had the pleasure of receiving a 4 two years in a row. Before that, I had a 3. I'm just active in the department, and I mentor the little ones that join [...], and I guess they [management] see, I mean, appreciate it. [IR_39]

To assess his proactivity in language advisory engagement, I asked his superior to evaluate him. The manager of his department said:

Malcolm's been here since before I joined QatarCo. When the previous manager was handing over, he praised the guy. But I wanted to make my own judgment, and I soon found out that he's a valuable asset and even the native speakers go to him for help [...] regarding the QatarCo communication style and acronyms. [IR_40]

Equivalent cases to Malcolm's were identified throughout the research study. Such individuals' advisory engagement helps them attain Star rewards but also larger scale financial rewards. Their high ratings in the annual performance appraisal yield a greater annual bonus, which financially rewards their performance and contribution. Since prosocial behaviors are not enforced job requirements, as they are regarded as "extra role behavior," they are not directly rewarded by the organization (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). However, they are factored into supervisory appraisals (Baker & Buckley, 2014) to capture employees' whole contribution, including their positive extra-role behaviors.

Aside from Star rewards and annual bonuses, the most reoccurring form of financial incentives reported is a salary increment. With or without a change in title, employees can move to a higher salary grade, and so receive a larger salary monthly. A manager who has granted one of his team members a salary increment explained how salary increments can be rewarded within the same job role:

There is no such thing as a free lunch. Work hard and see it pay off, literally. These initiatives get recognized in the long run [...] I promoted Sheila this year, but she's still my assistant, you see? [IR_21]

Sheila has been the Training & Education Team Assistant for 13 years. Although her salary increases every two to three years, her title remains the same. When asked if remaining an assistant impeded her career success, she responded:

No, not really. Nobody is competing for my job, so it's mine [...] Anyway, I am here to offer my family a better life. My child gets free healthcare and education. I am paying my sisters' tuition for college back in the Philippines, and I send money to my parents as they're old now and can't work [...] So, the money is more important than the title. [IR_26]

As discussed in the literature, different people seek different career success outcomes. For Sheila, like many other employees who seek financial security, financial rewards are more meaningful than “catchy” status-bearing titles. Nonetheless, my research also identified advisors who also achieve enhanced status.

Enhanced Status

LAN advisory engagement, as a prosocial behavior, is a goal-directed process with future self-benefits in mind, such as higher position in the hierarchy (Bindl, Parker, Totterdell, & Hagger-Johnson, 2012; Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008). In this study, I found that advisory engagement in a LAN has also been rewarded by enhanced status, as another dimension of external career success. Enhanced status is visible to others through status-bearing titles allocated by management. The differential status enhancement varies, ranging from informal day-to-day roles to periodical leadership roles. Conjointly, leadership status brings more respect.

Day-to-day operations in the organization may produce significant roles on a need basis.

Advisors are immediately considered to perform these roles. A LAN advisor explains:

I suddenly get a call from Abdul [General Services Manager] saying, “Come over to my office! You’re our interpreter for the day.” [Laughter]. Why me? Even though most of us here [in the department] speak Urdu [...] Because I fix the suppliers’ contract in English based on a verbal agreement conducted in Urdu. I spot the errors in signs we print for Training. I translate for the laborers, you know the helpers, in Urdu of course, because they don’t speak English fluently. So, by default, I am the translator here [laughs]. [FG_07]

Being an interpreter is not a part of Mohammed’s job, but his bilingual ability to transfer knowledge from Urdu to English and vice versa, as well as the brokering position between his Arabic manager and Nepali colleagues, allow him to be recognized and professionally respected. Similarly, more critical and central roles in the department also emerge. During the data collection period, the PR department was preparing a directory about the organization to introduce the role of every department and its contribution. To ease collaboration, ensure clear communication, and avoid redundant submissions across units, the PR team asked every department to designate a PR liaison. Most liaison roles were assigned to language advisors. A respondent explained the process:

My supervisor was upfront about it. He asked me to do it because he has seen me offer [language] help here and there.... He said I’m a good fit because of my language skills and energy. [IR_12]

Enhanced status also comes in the form of leadership positions for an extended period. To replace someone who has left their job or is on temporary leave, the organization needs an individual who is knowledgeable and can “fill their shoes” [IR_01]. LAN advisors are often selected as replacements. In a discussion with Management, they confirmed advisors as potential leaders:

[FG_11]: *As the head of policy, we always urge management to appoint as “acting manager” or “acting head” someone who knows the job inside out, has a good relationship with their peers and subordinates, and who’s better than the advisor you’re talking about.*

[FG_10]: *That’s right! When they start showing us that they can handle more responsibility, it means they are ready for a higher role. The same is applied for all the levels of hierarchy. The managers, too, want to take my job.*

Career success can be perceived in many ways. While some aim for financial success, and so seek status and financial rewards, others claim that status and money are not motivators, and instead seek internal satisfaction from their job (Baruch, 2006). Internal career success refers to one’s own internal sense of achievement and pride in one’s career (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). From the internal lens, one may perceive career success as good work–life balance, growth in competence, and opportunities to learn and develop (Hay & Hodgkinson, 2006). My findings show that internal career success has also been experienced as a consequence of LAN advisory engagement. I found that language advisors experience a sense of empowerment and gain non-financial rewards.

Sense of Empowerment

Sense of empowerment is an internal career success dimension. Advisors found the experience of LAN engagement to be empowering as they felt both personal and professionally growth through the opportunity to make meaningful contributions to others and the organization. This also elevated their confidence.

First, language advisors have the opportunity to grow and develop personally and professionally. Through this growth, they became “gurus” among colleagues due to their reputation as highly knowledgeable and approachable. Their skill sets are valued and encouraged in the organization. High exposure to their advisees’ projects and emails further heightens their awareness of developments around them, and knowledge of what each of their colleagues is working on at a given time. A supervisor explained the growth of one of his language advisors:

Lipi is one of those people who had a hand in everything [...] The team goes to her for reviews and revisions [...] I consult her on their progress, and she knows their abilities and projects more than I do... [IR_12]

Lipi was asked about her advisory role experience. She responded,

I am known to be helpful and supportive, which makes me feel great [...] Sometimes I think if I was given a chance, I can run this whole company alone [laughs] [...] I know so much that I might as well be the next CEO. [IR_10]

Similarly, Imran in the Training Division shares Lipi's experience of empowerment through professional growth. He is empowered by the level of knowledge he has accumulated throughout the years by helping his peers:

Ask me about any job or position here in Training, or there in Qatarization. I know them all better than anyone. [FG_03]

Second, advisors feel empowered by the opportunity to make meaningful contributions to the environment by improving adverse situations. Advisors expressed that offering help made them feel "powerful in the organization," "relevant to the company's mission," and an "important part of the community," able to show their heroic attributes as "life-savers." Some even referred to Superman's slogan, "to the rescue." One respondent valued "Knowing I am fixing something before it goes wrong for them... I'm a fixer!" [IR_55]. Another respondent elaborated:

*Even though I don't have to do it, I still do it. It is so rewarding to help others [...]
It's good karma. Someday, someone will help me when I'm in need and this is what makes this act so admirable. [IR_03]*

Finally, advisors found their contribution to the organizational community to be inspiring to their peers, which makes them feel validated. Thus, advisors experience increased confidence in their performance. They feel "trustworthy" and worthy of others "confiding in" them. An advisor explained:

People approach me because they trust my work and knowledge and they see something they lack [...] this gives me more confidence in the work I do and the information I help them with, and I feel I want to give more. [IR_39]

As I assess myself compared to others, I find myself more competent than the average employee. And as I put my knowledge out there, I see how appreciated my skills are in the workplace [...] this makes me less anxious to present in public, like at corporate events. [FG_06]

Our findings align with the social capital literature in that the LAN as a form of social capital enhances work performance (Methot, 2010; Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001), empowers, and motivates (Spreitzer, 1996). Similarly, as LAN advisory engagement is a form of proactive behavior, I also found that it enhances subjective career success (Morrison, 1993; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001).

Non-Financial Rewards

As language advisors are career-resilient workers who prepare for and anticipate change in their careers, they engage in preparation for new job opportunities (Sturges, 1999), to negotiate and secure their positions in the organization (Chia & Sharon, 2013; Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003). In this regard, my findings reveal that language advisors do indeed secure their position in the organization. They felt that their dedication and selflessness was reciprocated with “renewed” and “longer contracts” in the organization:

When you reach my age, you need to do more than what is asked of you to maintain this job [...] I have a family to look after so it's not easy to watch them replace you with a 20-year-old [...] a very clever way is to show how much you know in this job.

My job involves contracts and official letters to the immigration office, so language accuracy and choice of words has to be top, top... Very professional. Because my job is office-based and I don't get to see many people, I decided to engage with them by offering a bite-size training session during lunchtime. Since then, everyone comes to me: "Malik, how do you say this?" "Malik, how do you write this?" [laughter] [...] now the company wants me here for as long as I can work. [IR_06]

Non-financial rewards were also experienced in a simpler form of compliments. As employees seek praise and compliments as a form of approval, they expressed these compliments to be “motivating” and “satisfying”:

It makes you feel good, you know? It creates a friendly zone here in the department [...] Say I help you when you're in difficulty, a small gesture, and my boss says "well done," and they [the advisees] say "thank you," and you start to hear nice things [...] I will offer whatever I can, whatever I'm asked: job-related, English-related, life-related, the list goes on [laughter]. [IR_07]

7.4.2 Positive Reputation is a Primary Explanatory Mechanism

The previous subsection highlighted that LAN advisory engagement is reciprocated through career success in the organization. In the same vein, social exchange theory posits interactions among actors as exchanges of resources, such as help, recognition, and rewards (Blau, 1964). The theory assumes relationships and exchanges among members to be instrumental and benefit-driven. That is, individuals engage in an exchange relationship only for as long as it remains personally beneficial.

In generalized exchange exemplified by the LAN, the flow of resources is not bound by a dyadic relationship; rather, resources flow more flexibly within a social group, with no guaranteed balance between giving and receiving (Levine & Prietula, 2012). In organizational settings, generalized exchange is a form of prosocial behavior (Baker & Buckley, 2014). To understand how generalized exchange is spread and sustained in the workplace, scholars recently proposed a form of reciprocity known as rewarding reputation (Baker & Buckley, 2014).

Rewarding reputation is driven by intentional reputation building. To build a rewarding reputation in the organization, the employee is hence concerned with their professional image and others' perception of their knowledge and character (Roberts, 2005; Zinko, Ferris, Humphrey, Meyer, & Aime, 2012). Aligned with the literature, my findings show that advisors engage in a LAN to gain management recognition and approval. They help others in the hope that their name is mentioned repeatedly until it becomes familiar to management. They aim for their name to connote an important "contributor," a "knowledgeable colleague," and "the go-to employee" to get the job done. Thus, management and superiors' recognition of their proactivity mediated their career success. A respondent elaborated:

When asked who helped, they will mention you. Your name will come up here and there. This one, then that one, until your name becomes known to them. This is how you gain their respect and approval [...] The next time you're in an elevator with one of the big guys, they'll salute you by your name. [IR_03]

Offering a similar view, another advisor added:

Once my name appears in every project and my face appears in every meeting, they [management] will see how much I'm contributing [...] this will make me a valuable asset and they will see it too. [IR_25]

Additionally, many of the excerpts in this section expressed advisors' knowledgeable reputation as a means to their career success. The findings show that advisors engage in a LAN to heighten their peers' perception of their knowledge and skills. In an environment where individuals compete for promotion, employees want to spread awareness that they have skills and knowledge worthy of recognition. They fear being underestimated and that their "hard work to attain a prestigious ivy league education" [FG_02] may account for little to nothing. In a discussion, advisors explained their motivations:

[FG_02]: *Because I'm new here [QatarCo], they might not trust in my abilities...*

[FG_01]: *We're fresh graduates, that's why! No experience.*

[FG_02]: *Yeah... So, we have to offer everything we have to prove ourselves as competent to everyone around us [...] I went to one of the best business schools in the world, so I have so much to showcase.*

[FG_04]: *When they know, we won't be on training for long...*

In multiple interviews with Marketing & Sales department employees, Daniel was specifically praised for being "the most helpful person in this organization" regarding language-related issues. In Daniel's interview, he emphasized how his peers' positive perception of his skills and knowledge can open up opportunities in the future. He manifested this point by sharing the story of how he came to be employed by QatarCo:

I was in Shell Brunei on a two-year contract. Towards the end of my stay, I really wanted to come to the Middle East. So I emailed some of the guys over at Shell Qatar and Saudi Aramco. Nikki, a former colleague I had worked with in the UK, got my email and told me she's moving to QatarCo and wants to recruit me in her team after she joins [...] I got the job four months after. That's the power of others' perception of you. If I hadn't made a positive impression with the experience and skills I had acquired, I wouldn't be here right now. [IR_04]

The above examples show that language advisors aim to heighten their management recognition and their knowledge perception among others. In the same vein, they also aim to heighten their peers' perception of their generosity and helpfulness. They want their reputation of good character to be widely known. They also want to be thought of as “smart,” “approachable,” “helpful,” “generous,” and “selfless.” One advisor shared an inimitable view of elevating one's positive character:

If you're a good-hearted person, good things will come to you. Of course, with your hard work. Good things come to good people [...] in every religion of this world, kindness and positive characteristics are promoted. So here we are. In the real world, God will reward us. In the company, the management will reward us. Simple rule, isn't it? [IR_18]

To assess the role of character perception among management, I raised the issue in the second focus group. Participating managers emphasized the importance of generosity and helpfulness:

[FG_09]: *As a manager, when I recruit or promote, I look at the personalities just as much as the competence... A leader is not only his work; he's also the example he sets for his subordinates.*

[FG_12]: *That's true. Even us as managers, we need to show the characteristics that we promote here in QatarCo... such as initiative taking.*

[FG_09]: *You don't want to promote a lazy assistant. We all know this place will shut down.*

[loud laughter]

7.4.3 Network Expansion is a Secondary Mechanism

One of prominent representations of networks in the career literature is the theory of “weak ties” (Granovetter, 1973). There is a classic trade-off between the benefits cultivated from strong and weak ties. Strong ties imply a high level of mutual obligation, shared norms, and trust (Hasan, 2017), whereas weak ties are bridges between social groups and circles. In this study, my findings show network expansion to be a mechanism entailing both bridging and bonding aspects. Advisors reported the LAN engagement enabled them to establish new connections in the workplace between otherwise unconnected individuals and to simultaneously bond with existing ties.

First, the findings show that through establishing new connections, new friendships are developed and a wider social network is generated (i.e., bridging). Advisors expressed their wider social capital through a “bigger lunch group in the canteen” including “new friends.” Many respondents reported that, after commencing LAN engagement, they started to see “more friendly faces” in their surroundings. Respondents further explained:

You see these people every day in the lift and less frequently in meetings, and have no connections whatsoever with them [...] after helping out [through language advising] a couple of trainees with their work, you start forming a connection. You relate to them. You get to know them at a personal level and not just professional level, so they become a part of your professional network now and in the long run, if the relationship is maintained. [IR_40]

I have many work friends. I maintain these relationships by going out to lunch and small talk before or after meetings or even doing professional favors. Nothing illegal or frowned upon, just like helping out with translations from Arabic to English, [...], proofreading their work [...] in my case, it has been helpful because so many of my work friends help me back. Like, for example, once I was told by a work friend that I am actually entitled to higher wages since my family joined me in Qatar a year later. I had not known that I can do that. She helped me with the application for HR and put in a good word for me to get the approval. [IR_20]

Thus, in line with the literature on bridging social capital, advisors activate these weak ties to access timely information from a range of sources and career opportunities (Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1973; Hasan, 2017; Lin, 1999a).

Second, the findings show that LAN engagement simultaneously develops bonding ties, allowing advisors to deepen their existing relationships with others. Through constant LAN engagement, respondents agreed that they were able to identify “trustful colleagues”; those

who offer “valid” and “genuine” advice. As trust grows, their interpersonal relationships advance and new layers of relationships are formed. An interviewee explained:

I never knew Nancy at a personal level. We only saw each other once a month in the department meetings. At first, she seemed stuck up and condescending having studied abroad and travelled around working for Shell. But when Moe introduced us, she was more than happy to go through my CDPM presentation, to proofread and edit, or offering help in anything else involving her division [...] Now, she has left to work for Shell again and we are still good friends. Sometimes, I text her things like “I wish you were here to help” [with language advice]. [IR_25]

Another respondent expressed a similar situation:

My colleagues become like my family. I go to them for everything. I trust them because there were many instances when they helped me with [re-writing] my technician summary reports and they didn’t tell the supervisor about their input. They are like a real support system, especially as my close friends and family are all back in Nepal. [IR_29]

Holistically, the findings portray how LAN engagement expands advisors’ social capital through connecting unconnected ties and creating a new layer of bonding relationships, such as friendships and support groups. In line with the literature, I find that the bridging and bonding nature of networks may be harnessed to access scarce opportunities for one’s career development and success (Granovetter, 1973; Reiche, Harzing, & Kraimer, 2009; Seibert,

Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). The model in Figure 7.3 was constructed to capture the concepts and their relationships in my findings.

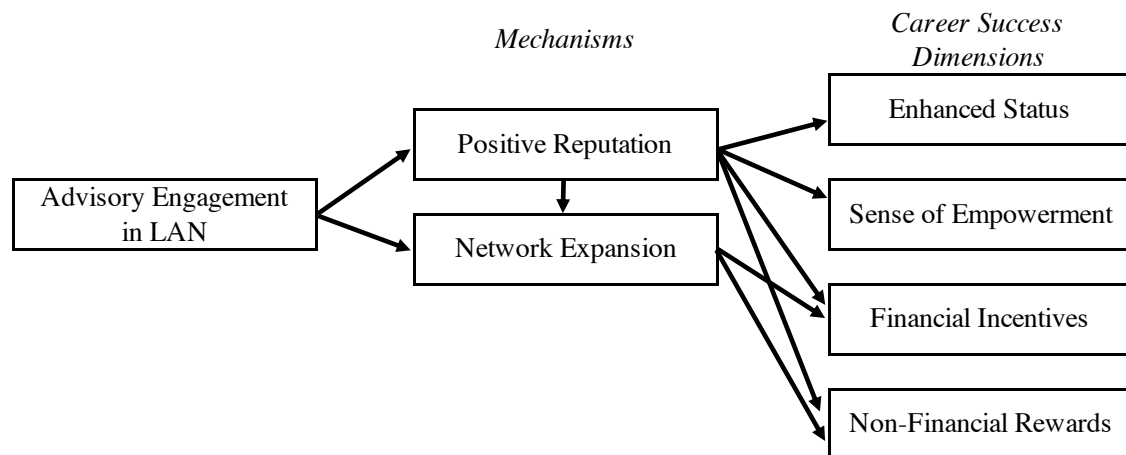


Figure 7.3 LAN Advisory Engagement, Career Success Dimensions, and Mechanisms.

7.4.4 Similarities and Differences across Social Categories

As discussed in Chapter 2, QatarCo's workforce is composed of Nationals, Expatriates, and Migrants. This section reveals the similarities and differences in career success experiences and the mechanisms to achieving them between these three categories of employees.

Nationals' Perspective

As consequences of their LAN engagement, National advisors primarily emphasized experiencing: (1) a sense of empowerment in the form of validation; and (2) enhanced status in attaining leadership roles in the organization. One respondent explained that validation is her internal measure of career success:

Through helping others, even if they're more experienced than me, I'm just showing them what I know so far. Is it good? Is it enough? Is it even right? ... If yes, then I am showcasing what I achieved so far... [IR_01]

Similarly, another young National advisor expressed her view:

It's not like school, where you have to sit an exam and pass or fail. Here, you have to prove yourself until they trust your ability [...] Adnan [LDM] used to always tell me to check my work with Salah first. It used to annoy me because he thinks I don't know my job even though I've been doing it for more than five years [...] One day I told him that Salah is busy and doesn't have time to check it. I lied so he can see my raw work. And it was good. Since then, I started speaking up in meetings, mentoring the new staff, checking everyone's work, even if it's just for minor errors like typos or grammar, quality checks [...] just like, you know, thinking outside the box, to show him [LDM] that I know all this stuff. [IR_15]

Equally important to National advisors is the opportunity to experience leadership roles in the organization through their LAN engagement. A young fresh graduate, with less than two years' experience, explained:

We [Nationals] are the future of Qatar. They [non-Nationals] come and go but we remain... So we have to learn the ins and outs of how this place is run and pass it over to the new generation, the Nationals of course! [...] expatriates that come from Shell, BP, Total, and all these big names come with valuable experience to teach us. They [expatriates] coach us and mentor us to excel in the work. [IR_01]

The Head of Qatarization, the Nationalization Strategy in QatarCo, confirmed this finding:

When we [the Qatarization recruitment team] interview them [Nationals], we usually ask, “where do you see yourself in five years?” And immediately they respond, “a manager”! [Laughs]. This is what drives them to work hard, to grow in QatarCo [...]
And it happens! Of course, they will not be a manager in five years, but they will get somewhere. [IR_16]

For National advisors, career success – through validation and leadership status – are achieved by elevating others’ perception of their competence, thus creating a rewarding and positive reputation for themselves. The majority of the National advisors expressed a similar view:

You always hear the Qataris don’t do the work. It’s always the foreigners. That’s not true anymore. Every generation is better than the one before because we travel more and study and [...] are just more open to foreigners than they [older generations] were. Maybe it’s the language barrier. Maybe it’s the cultural barrier. But now, with the internet, there is no such thing. So how do we change this perception that the world has of us? We work hard and show them [non-Nationals] what we can do... we start with the people we live and work with. [FG_02]

Another National advisor explained:

They [Expatriates] read horrible experiences of expats online and come with a negative misconception of the Arabs or the “Gulfies” [people of the Arabian Gulf region]. And the Western media doesn’t make the situation any better for them. But we’re not all the same. Every nation has good and bad. I want to show them that Qatari females are not “oppressed” and “silenced” [uses air quotations]; they are open-minded and educated, work in and manage a co-gender workplace. [IR_32]

Migrants’ Perspective

Among locally employed Migrants, language advisors appear to measure career success in terms of achieving: (1) validation from management and peers, (2) job security; and (3) salary increments.

Migrant advisors emphasized experiencing validation in the work they perform. Prior literature on migrants offers conflicting views on the capital they can contribute. Some view migrants’ cultural capital as a package of resources that may or may *not* fit with their country of residence (i.e., the “rucksack approach”). However, this has been challenged by the view that migrants bring new resource sets that build on, rather than mirror, the capital in their country of migration (Anthias, 2007; Bennett, Savage, Silva, Warde, & Gayo-Cal, 2009; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 2007; Erel, 2010). Thus, to feel valued, migrants appreciate others’ validation of the knowledge they have to offer as LAN advisors:

I have a degree in Marketing and almost 10 years of experience in PR, but I’m still an admin assistant... I am bilingual and fluent in both Arabic and English [...]
Sometimes I help others, language and what not, not to get anything in return from

them. The fact they know my ability is enough for me. I'm good at what I do and I'm smart even if I'm just an admin. [FG_06]

The majority of the labor work in this country is done by Indians. So when people see an Indian person, they assume she is on a low-income job because she is uneducated. The Indians are actually well-educated with very very good English because of the British [...] So I try to change this mentality by showing everything I know... [IR_34]

The findings also reveal job security as a career success measure for Migrant advisors. While Nationals are hired on indefinite contracts, and a tailored career development program, the IDP, to “cultivate national talent, training them to lead and run the place” [FG_10]; it is unsurprising that Migrant advisors, who do not similarly benefit, emphasize attaining job security:

I was born and brought up in Qatar; this is my home. But I've been on a family visa since I was born. Now, my father is about to retire and move back to Goa, so I have to find a decent long-term job that can grant me a work visa... I am happy here and I will earn my place with my actions [IR_03].

Salary increments are the third career success measure experienced among Migrant advisors. This is also unsurprising given the socio-economic status of Migrants who have uprooted to enhance the quality of their lives. Many share the same dilemma faced by Sheila, as discussed in the preceding section (6.4.1):

I have three children in private school and one of them is going off to college next year. So there are many responsibilities on my shoulders. So this point in my career is

about ensuring I secure my children the best home, nutrition, education, before they fly off to college and take care of themselves. [IR_38]

My initial plan was to move to the US. But I was offered a really good package here... Accommodation, annual tickets, annual bonus [...] So the plan is to spend five years and save some money before moving to the US. [IR_08]

Similar to Nationals, Migrant advisors attain career success through elevating others' perception of their competence:

I've been fortunate enough to get this job and I do my best at it to keep showing everyone what I am capable of [...] I push myself to do the work hard to maintain the positive image my friends have of me. I show them I can work in English, communicate in Urdu and Hindi with the electricians and teaboys, and help and mentor new staff. [FG_07]

The vast body of the career management literature has been dedicated to study the issues that ethnic minorities – such as migrants – face in the organization (Kandola, 1995). Despite having remarkable credentials, migrants – often from Third World countries – experience job downgrading and slow upward career mobility (Liversage, 2009; Weiss, 2005). This is portrayed in my study by Migrant advisors emphasizing internal career success measures, such as empowerment through validation, as well as salary increments and job security within the same hierarchical level. Their common goals were reported to be “to sustain an average living standard,” rather than seeking “superficial” status-bearing titles and leadership positions [IR_11].

Expatriates' Perspective

The Expatriates in this study have experience in the energy sector and are headhunted for their extensive access to information, influence, and connections to a large network of MNCs (Harzing, Pudelko, & Reiche, 2016). They are employed on renewable two-year contracts at or above supervisory level. Among an array of motives for self-initiated expatriation, two significant reasons are financial incentives and securing future career prospects (Selmer & Luring, 2012). Consistent with the literature, my findings show that Expatriate advisors emphasize attaining financial rewards:

I am retired in the Philippines. I was a criminal lawyer for more than 30 years. But you have to retire after a certain age. When I reached this age, I started looking for jobs in the Middle East as I have to support my husband, children, and grandchildren [...] So now I am trying to do my best at this job [...] to maintain a good living standard for my family back home. [IR_22]

Expatriate advisors create and maintain bridging relationships with their superiors and colleagues, enabling them to activate these relationships and negotiate their career success:

You must always maintain a good relationship with the people you work with. I call it workplace politics and it's a big part of my coaching sessions with my talent... One day your colleague becomes your boss and you have to suck it up, excuse my French, and learn to cope with it... Your destiny in this company now lies in their hands. [IR_24]

There were some noteworthy similarities between the National and Migrant advisors. Both suffer from stereotypical perceptions and post-colonial mindsets in the workplace, which explains their focus on building a positive reputation. Meanwhile, Expatriates – mainly from

the West – were already perceived as competent, being hired into high-level hierarchical positions, and thus felt no need to elevate others’ perception of their competence, especially since native language fluency was expected of them. Consistent with the social exchange literature, those who built a good reputation through their prosocial behaviors gained elevated social status among their peers through the perception of their generosity and selflessness (Blau, 2017; Flynn, Reagans, Amanatullah, & Ames, 2006; Willer, 2009; Willer, Flynn, & Zak, 2012). Thus, Nationals and Migrants aim to elevate peers’ perception of their weak language skills through building a positive reputation.

Similarly, National and Migrant advisors both emphasized validation as a career success measure. In line with their eagerness and frustration to challenge stereotypical assumptions, they found it empowering to receive validation of their knowledge level and performance. Thus, their prosocial advising behavior becomes a source of positive affect toward one’s self (Aknin, et al., 2013), self-efficacy, and self-worth as a capable contributor (Alessandri, Caprara, Eisenberg, & Steca, 2009), elevating both self-satisfaction and self-empowerment. Figure 7.4 depicts the findings for National, Migrant, and Expatriate advisors.

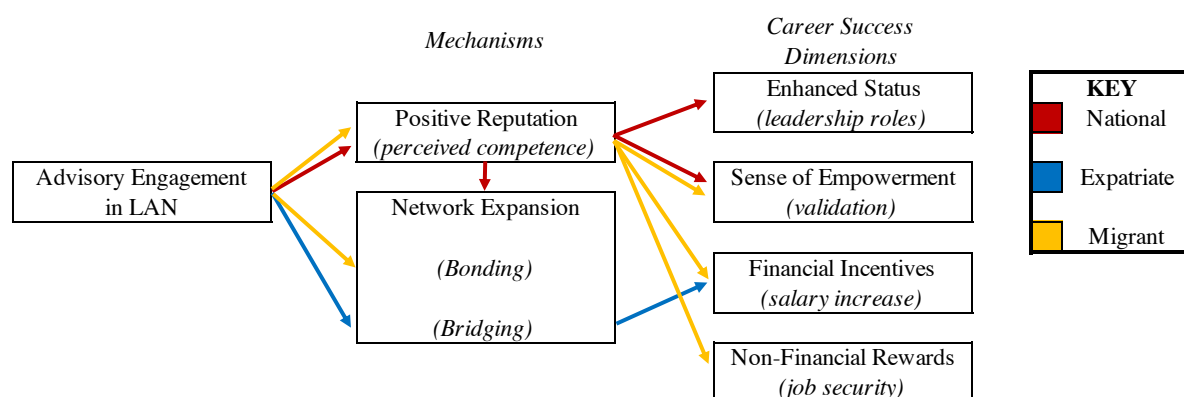


Figure 7.4 Career Success Dimensions and Mechanisms Across Social Categories.

7.5 Discussion

This study's purpose was to gain deeper understanding of the impact of LAN advisory engagement on career success and the mechanisms through which this is achieved. First, I found that LAN advisory engagement positively influences individual career success in the MNC. Second, I found that generalized exchange, in the form of rewarding reputation, is the main explanatory mechanism and network expansion a secondary mechanism to explain the relationship between advisory engagement in a LAN and career success.

The primary finding is the existence of a relationship between advisory engagement in a LAN and career success. As a form of proactive behavior, LAN advisory engagement had been anticipated to produce a positive influence on career success. As career-resilient workers who prepare for and anticipate change in their careers, language advisors have indeed experienced various forms of external and internal career success.

As a form of intra-firm social capital, advisors reported that access to information and resources through their ties is enhanced, which elevates their knowledge, growth, and motivation (Spreitzer, 1996). They also reaped financial benefits from their advisory position in a LAN. As management seek to reward proactivity that aligns with the corporate values and goals, their promotion is inevitable. This finding also reinforces the view that language competence is a significant career capital in the 21st century (Angouri & Piekkari, 2016; Heikkilä, & Smale, 2011; Itani, Järlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016; Yao, 2013).

The role of positive reputation as a mechanism in the relationship demonstrates that the LAN is a form of generalized exchange. The social exchange literature explains why employees

are willing to go beyond their prescribed job description and show extra-role behavior, such as helping others. Through rewarding reputation, the management recognize these extra-role behaviors and reward these efforts financially, such as through increased income (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013) and annual bonuses by getting exceptional supervisory appraisals (Baker & Buckley, 2014).

Network expansion, as a secondary mechanism to achieving career success, has been portrayed through both bridging and bonding. Through bridging, advisors have reported securing professional and interpersonal relationships to enhance their career success measures (Blickle, Witzki, & Schneider, 2009; Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001; Spreitzer, Porath, & Gibson, 2012). Conversely, although the findings highlighted that many advisors have built and sustained bonding relationships, the activation of these connections to achieve career success was not reported. Thus, bridging manifested a strong mediating role in the relationship between LAN advisory engagement and career success, whereas bonding ties were formed for friendships and support groups, especially among migrants and expatriates.

The fourth main finding is that national, expatriate, and migrant advisors exhibited both differences and similarities in the forms of career success they emphasized and their mechanisms for achieving such success. Nationals primarily sought leadership and status. This may be due to the structure and objective of the IDP program, which is tailored for them to fill critical roles in the organization, in compliance with The Nationalization Strategy. Their mechanism is to elevate others' perception of their competence, as they are stereotyped as non-competent and reliant on foreign labor. By contrast, both Expatriates and Migrants sought financial incentives and job security. While Expatriate advisors achieved this through

establishing positive connections in the organization and activating them to reap career success, Migrant advisors, like Nationals, relied on reputation-building to enhance others' perception of their competence.

At this point in our research, it is inevitable to think and reflect on whether the explicit rewards for language skills are a cultural-specific or an organization-specific trait. In understanding the context of the research in Chapter 2, we have a clear understanding that explicit rewards for language skills is nation-wide and not just organization-specific. Specifically, the Qatar National Vision 2030 highlights the importance of different resources to bridge people across different cultures and boundaries; language is one way. As a State-driven vision, rewards for helping the community's growth and development is expected.

7.5.1 Theoretical Contribution

This study broadens perspectives on language asymmetry in the MNC. There is a strong agreement among IB scholars that language asymmetry causes many communication obstacles to surface. The vast literature on lingua franca imposition in MNCs casts it as a negative policy that creates communication avoidance, lack of self-esteem, dissatisfaction, and faultlines, operating as a "lightning rod" for problems in the MNC. This study breaks new ground by demonstrating the LAN as a new layer of social capital that enhances individual career success and may also improve the organizational corporate culture and intra-organizational communication where LAN engagement is encouraged and rewarded. My findings also reinforce the current view that language is a significant career capital in the 21st century (Angouri & Piekkari, 2016; Heikkilä, & Smale, 2011; Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016; Yao, 2013), by

introducing the LAN as a new mechanism of the established link between language fluency and career success in the MNC.

By providing a nuanced understanding of linguistic faultlines and language asymmetry in the MNC, the study elaborates a new mechanism through which individuals can connect with colleagues with whom they might not otherwise connect. On the surface level, language asymmetry creates two structural groups: advice seeker and language advisor. On closer examination, it becomes evident that people are connecting *because of* language asymmetry, as the basis for an additional layer of relationships. In other networks, relationships are built based on similarities (gender, personality, or culture). By contrast, the LAN is an additional network layer based on differences: specifically, language differences. Ironically, in the LAN, differences bring people together, rather than dividing them; the faultlines becomes the reason they are connected.

7.5.2 Managerial Implications

This study has several practical implications. Though utilizing the mass of information and knowledge embedded in the firm's human capital (Horton, Millo, & Serafeim, 2012); (Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013)), the LAN may address employees' language weaknesses, enhance their interpersonal relationships, and ultimately empower them. These benefits may positively impact individual job satisfaction, and help the organization to attract and retain good employees.

The positive impact of LAN may extend to organizational outcomes. First, through its contribution to knowledge creation and sharing, the LAN may constitute a basis of competitive advantage (Argote & Ingram, 2000; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Inkpen & Tsang,

2016). Second, employee empowerment may enhance the corporate culture by creating a safe, friendly, and trusting atmosphere that enables information sharing. Strong culture and solidarity in the organization leads to lower turnover rates and generate high organizational commitment (Coleman, 1988; Nelson, 1989; Putnam, 1993). Hence, this positive corporate culture promotes a learning platform that may greatly benefit communication channels within the organization.

Encouraging LAN engagement to increase work efficiency and enhance inter-employee communication and collaboration promotes a friendly corporate culture and learning environment. Therefore, MNCs may benefit from the LAN as an informal network promoting learning and teamwork throughout the organization. Additionally, the level of LAN engagement may allow managers to identify employees' strengths and weaknesses, both for competence development and performance management purposes. Performing the role of a language advisor and maintaining a web of social capital may be indicative of leadership skills, ability to share and exchange knowledge, and proactivity in contributing to the learning culture beyond one's job responsibilities. Such talented individuals may be identified as valuable assets to the organization to be retained and promoted.

Understanding what different categories of employees typically seeks as career outcomes may be useful for management, particularly in selecting appropriate rewards. For example, management can grant employees their desired career goal to reward their proactive and extra-role behaviors. By doing so, they can elevate employees' career satisfaction and maintain a happy workforce.

Chapter 8: Discussion & Conclusion

This thesis aimed to investigate the role of language as content exchanged in informal networks of the MNC, and the career consequences of language advisors. Accordingly, I have empirically explored the influence of lingua franca fluency in career success, by the emergence of LANs in the MNC. This research breaks new ground by demonstrating a new mediated relationship between language fluency and MNC career success, using an emerging phenomenon that changes perceptions of language asymmetry in the MNC.

In the extant IB literature, the MNC entails a bundle of resources exchanged across boundaries (Carlile, 2004), conscious of the importance of global coordination as a source of competitive advantage (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989). Language, in this equation, has been portrayed as the ultimate barrier to aspirations of international harmonization (Feely & Harzing, 2002). This research challenges that view by demonstrating lingua franca fluency, despite language asymmetry among employees, is a key contributor to MNC competitive advantage. That is, in the absence or lack of sufficient lingua franca skills, and/or time and finance to use training or traditional translation approaches, employees depend heavily on linguistically skilled connections within their intra-firm social capital.

In the remainder of this chapter, I will reflect on the findings of the empirical studies and discuss their implications for theory and practice. Then, I will discuss the overall contribution of this thesis and its implications for the literature and management practices. Finally, I will discuss the limitations and propose areas for future studies.

8.1 Summary of Findings

This thesis introduces the emerging phenomenon of LANs in multilingual MNCs. The LAN is an informal network of individuals utilized on a need basis to seek and offer language-related advice, with the common goal of performing efficiently and avoiding more time-consuming traditional translation. Through three separate yet related studies, I introduced the LAN, its structural and relational formation, and the career implications of LAN engagement for individuals.

Study 1 explored how employees with varying degrees of lingua franca fluency deploy their intra-firm social capital to exchange – seek and offer – language-related knowledge, on a need basis. The LAN is unique to multilingual MNCs. It is a form of advice network that exists among pre-existing relationships, under the imposition of a lingua franca strategy, which creates asymmetry in linguistic capabilities. The LAN process starts with recognition of a language issue, progresses to the initiation of advice seeking, and is concluded by implementing the advice to complete the task. The content of knowledge exchanged has been identified as syntax, vocabulary and technical language, and requests for proof-reading texts. Structurally, the LAN is distinct from the GAN in terms of density, degree of reciprocity, and preferential attachment.

Extending the structural formation presented in Study 1, Study 2 explored the relational dimension of the LAN, investigating which factors are related to the central resourceful individuals in the LAN, termed *language advisors*. The findings reveal that lingua franca fluency is not the only factor to determine language advisors' position in LAN; language advisors are also cosmopolitan senior employees. High cosmopolitanism in language advisors indicate that LAN centrality is associated with the ability to articulate advice in a manner

comprehensible to a culturally dissimilar counterpart. In line with my cosmopolitan finding, I also discovered a significant negative association between same-language clusters in a dyadic relationship. Therefore, LAN engagement connects different language clusters, rather than being confined within discrete clusters.

Study 3 revealed LAN advisory engagement to be associated with career benefits: enhanced status, both financial and non-financial incentives, and a sense of empowerment. My findings also indicate that the LAN engagement–career benefit link is explained via two mechanisms: establishing a rewarding reputation and enhancing one’s intra-firm social capital. Finally, I identified variations across social groups of national, migrant, and expatriate language advisors in their desired career benefits and primary mechanisms for accomplishing career success.

Although this case study can be viewed as a diverse case study of the impact of language asymmetry in the multilingual MNC. It can also highlight the variation of cases in language fragmentation in IB (Flyvberg, 2006; Gerring, 2017) and posit as an *index case study* for future investigations. An index case study is one that develops knowledge about an individual occurrence of an event where you might expect further instances of this event in the future. It is a case of something that there happens to be no other cases of it reported.

8.2 Theoretical Contribution

This thesis contributes to three research areas:

Language in IB: This research stream has largely focused on the negative aspects of lingua franca as a monolingual strategy, portraying it as “an impediment” (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999), an “obstacle” (Henderson, 2005), a “barrier” (Harzing & Feely, 2008), and a “disruptive element” (Tenzer, Pudelko, & Harzing, 2014). Scholars argue that it leads to conflict and misunderstanding due to low lingua franca fluency (Henderson, 2005), with non-native speakers experiencing discomfort and reluctance to openly speak the lingua franca (Neeley, Hinds, & Cramton, 2012). Moreover, the perception of incompetence among low-fluent individuals can increase power differentials and lower these individuals’ status (Neeley, 2013), and failure in communicating effectively (Harzing & Feely, 2008). Against this background, this research contributes a nuanced perspective on language asymmetry in the MNC, focusing on language as a facilitator of informal networking in the MNC, strengthening collaboration as a basis for competitive advantage. The LAN frames the lingua franca policy more favorably, opposing the fragmentation and faultlines theory of language asymmetry.

Additionally, this thesis broadens language research in the MNC setting to a region beyond the Nordic, Anglo, continental-European, and Asian clusters, on which most prior studies have focused (Harzing & Pudelko, 2013; Tenzer, Terjesen, & Harzing, 2017). A new emerging market of multinationals was chosen as the context for this research. Although Qatar’s official language is Arabic, both international and domestic MNCs operate in English. To accommodate market demand, the educational system throughout Qatar offers a bilingual approach to teaching in public schools and local universities. Although

linguistically well-equipped for the workforce, nationals form only 12% of the country's population, unfulfilling the large demand in the labor market, which creates an interesting dynamic in the workplace. Thus, this research offers a fruitful context for studying the language dynamic alongside other IB-related theories on diversity, national and organizational culture, and international human resource management, especially since similar contexts has not previously been considered in the management and IB literature (Barkema, Chen, George, Luo , & Tsui, 2015).

Social capital/ social networks: This research also contributes to the literature on knowledge sharing in social networks by adding the LAN to existing networks in the MNC setting. It broadens current scholarly research on the types of informal networks present in MNCs (Nonino, 2013) by introducing a niche form of advice network that arises in multilingual settings, in the presence of certain conditions. The LAN is an informal, work-related network, where individual employees with *low* and *high* levels of lingua franca fluency voluntarily activate their intra-firm social capital to *seek* and *offer* language-related. In an attempt to improve internal knowledge transfer and efficiently perform the task at hand, employees activate their social capital on a need-basis to benefit from the mass of information and knowledge embedded in the firm's human capital (Horton, Millo, & Serafeim, 2012; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013). This research has also proved quantitatively that the LAN is a distinct form of advice network, differing structurally from the work-related GAN.

Social networks literature in the IB context has been mainly focused on knowledge sharing across subsidiaries (Ahmad & Widén, 2015; Andersen & Rasmussen, 2004; Argote & Ingram, 2000; Barner-Rasmussen & Aarnio, 2011; Harzing & Feely, 2008; Neeley, 2011;

Peltokorpi & Vaara, 2012; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005; Welch & Piekkari, 2006). In studying knowledge sharing within organizations between employees with diverse linguistic backgrounds, scholars have found language-based homophily within informal networks (Mäkelä, Kalla, & Piekkari, 2007; McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001; Remennick, 2005; Tange & Luring, 2009; Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, & Sääntti, 2005). However, this research challenges language-based homophily: its findings reveal that primary language is only a *surface-level* similarity, overshadowed by advisees' search for a *deeper* connection with a cosmopolitan advisor. On the surface level, language asymmetry creates two structural groups: advice seekers and language advisors. On closer examination, though, it becomes evident that people are connecting *because of* language asymmetry, as the basis for an additional layer of relationships. In other networks, relationships are built based on similarities (gender, personality, or culture). By contrast, the LAN is an additional network layer based on differences: specifically, language differences. Ironically, in the LAN, differences bring people together rather than dividing them: the faultlines becomes the reason they are connected.

Careers: This research also contributes to the career literature by reinforcing the current view that language is a significant career capital in the 21st century (Angouri & Piekkari, 2016; Heikkilä, & Smale, 2011; Itani, Järnlström, & Piekkari, 2015; Latukha, Doleeva, Järnlström, Jokinen, & Piekkari, 2016; Yao, 2013). I introduce the LAN as a new mechanism of the relationship between language fluency and career success in the MNC. I found that language advisors experience both internal and external career success, namely, a sense of empowerment, non-financial rewards, financial incentives, and enhanced status. Second, I found that this impact is mediated by establishing a rewarding reputation and enhancing one's intra-firm social capital, portraying LAN as an example of generalized reciprocity.

8.3 Practical Implications

This research also yields several practical implications:

Promoting Individual Career Growth: Employees must be aware of the consequences of LAN engagement. By actively performing the role of a language advisor, an individual can significantly enhance their external and/or internal career success. As language advisors, employees can enhance their intra-firm bridging and bonding social capital, and build a rewarding reputation for themselves. Consequently, an array of career success outcomes may be achieved. More importantly, employees must be aware of their social classification as a national, migrant, or expatriate, since this influences the mechanisms through which career success is achieved.

Nurturing a Learning Culture: The organization must be aware of the LAN's potential to improve employees' language weaknesses through utilizing the mass of information and knowledge embedded in the firm's human capital (Horton, Millo, & Serafeim, 2012; Piekkari, Welch, Welch, Peltonen, & Vesa, 2013). A vibrant advice network can be an important organizational resource for successful problem solving and learning (Agneessens 2011, Blau, 1955; Cross et al., 2001; Cross and Parker, 2004; Krackhardt and Hansen, 1993). Thus, encouraging LAN engagement to increase work efficiency and enhance inter-employee communication and collaboration promotes a friendly corporate culture and learning environment. Therefore, MNCs may benefit from the LAN as an informal network promoting learning and teamwork throughout the organization.

Among the most important activities of an organization's employees are the exchange of existing knowledge and the creation of new knowledge through mutual collaboration (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Krogh, 2002; Widen & Suomi, 2007). Knowledge sharing

between organizational employees is important, not only for performing basic administrative tasks but also for major and critical organizational activities, such as developing and executing organizational strategies aiming to establish competitive advantage in the market (Wang & Wang, 2012; Widen, 2007). In this regard, the LAN may facilitate language-related knowledge sharing and transfer among individuals.

In this line of reasoning, the LAN may contribute to organizational success. First, through its contribution to knowledge creation and sharing, the LAN may constitute a basis of competitive advantage (Argote & Ingram, 2000; Inkpen & Tsang, 2005; Inkpen & Tsang, 2016). Second, employee empowerment may enhance the corporate culture by creating a safe, friendly, and trusting atmosphere that enables information sharing. Strong culture and solidarity in the organization lead to lower turnover rates and higher organizational commitment (Coleman, 1988; Nelson, 1989; Putnam, 1993). Hence, this positive corporate culture promotes a learning platform that may greatly benefit communication channels within the organization.

Leadership identification: The level of LAN engagement may allow managers to identify employees' strengths and weaknesses, both for competence development and performance management purposes. Performing the role of a language advisor and maintaining a web of social capital may be indicative of leadership skills, ability to share and exchange knowledge, and proactivity in contributing to the learning culture beyond one's job responsibilities. Such talented individuals may be identified as valuable assets to the organization to be retained and promoted. On the contrary, individuals who constantly seek language advice may warrant managerial attention. Does their high level of language-advice seeking indicate insufficient language skills to work without supervision? Are employees with good language skills abusing the learning environment to delegate work in the guise of advice-seeking? Is an

employee consistently seeking advice on language or technical issues? All of these questions should be considered to assess talent in the organization.

8.4 Limitations

This thesis has several limitations that need to be acknowledged. First, the sample used in this research focuses on a single organization, which may limit the generalizability of the findings to other organizations. Although the demography of Qatar is reflected in the workforce of QatarCo, it cannot be assumed that the same corporate culture is found in other MNCs based in Qatar. The corporate culture may have been a macro-level factor that promoted the emergence of LAN in this organization, due to its learning culture. Nonetheless, this limitation does not deny the existence of LANs in other multilingual MNCs; in a context where learning is not encouraged to the same level as in QatarCo, the LAN may be less evident and elaborate but rather more salient and invisible.

Second, the sample used for the quantitative studies in Chapters 5 and 6 was relatively small to be modeled with ERGM, which requires large samples. Due to the short time of the field research and limited access to employees in the organization, I was only able to collect complete social network data from four departments, whose managers fully endorsed the study. Although I also collected data from two other departments, their limited cooperation in data collection yielded inconclusive and incomplete networks that could not be properly analyzed. The final sample comprised 107 employees across four departments. Although the sample was small compared to those of other social network analyses in the literature, this limitation was accounted for during data analysis by combining the data into one set and including structural zeros (see Section 4.5).

Third, in collecting qualitative data, I allowed occasional code-switching to Arabic so respondents could freely voice their experiences, thus preventing the language barrier from impeding the quality or quantity of data collected. Therefore, another possible limitation is translation bias pertaining to transcripts being translated from Arabic to English. This limitation does not significantly impact my findings as the volume of Arabic text was neither extensive nor technical, and so did not require a professional translation service. As a fluent speaker of both Arabic and English, I took into consideration the context of the discussion topics, the identity of the respondents, and the level of English fluency they exhibited in allowing the conversation to flow in Arabic before switching back to English. In this regard, bias may have risen from Arabic proverbs with no direct English translation: in such cases, I tried to sensically interpret the proverb for non-Arabic speaking readers.

Finally, I believe a bigger issue that I have faced is the reservations in sharing they had because I'm a National. One of the key observations in my fieldwork was the employees' use of "us" and "them" referring to different features or attributes that brought a group together or disconnected them. One of the main ones was the grouping of Nationals versus non-Nationals (migrants and expatriates). Although the ratio of Nationals to non-Nationals was very small, the presence of the Nationals was bigger than just their numbers. The Nationals had more *power* than an average employee. Departments bragged by how many Nationals worked for them. Supervisors whom coached Nationals felt superior to others. This may be due to the Qatarization Strategy that promotes the notion that the more Nationals you harvest and retain, the more achieved (and rewarded) you are as an organization (and evidently the individual responsible as well).

This cannot be said for the non-Nationals as they are perceived as *temporary* in the organization. This means that it may be a highly-needed ‘expert’ employee who is headhunted and required for a definite contract or a low-paid administrative role that can be easily replaced. This can be one of the reasons to form jealousy and resentment towards the Nationals as they are job-secured and treated as a permanent employee in the organization who escalates the hierarchy.

The grouping of Nationals and non-Nationals also extended to social interaction and socialization. Nationals hung out with their own, not exclusively, but the majority. In the lunch breaks, they would meet on the ground floor or the canteen to grab lunch together. This grouping is also clear visually when I walked into recreational spaces of the building, away from the offices. One of the main causes of these groupings could be existing family and friendship ties among the Nationals. Another main cause is the cultural and language similarity. This is also visible among other language groups: all Indians hang together, all Filipinos hang together, etc.

I also got the impression that the Nationals were respected as a pretense of an interaction. The notion that the National is “well-connected” in and out of the organization leads to that. As a small population, the Nationals always “know someone who knows the CEO” or the minister or the Emir (Ruler). Thus, a pre-determined level of respect is self-imposed by the non-Nationals when interacting with the Nationals. This may be caused by distrust or fear of job loss that non-Nationals experience towards Nationals (that may limit their interaction).

The “us” versus “them” dynamic may have led some non-National employees to hold back from interacting with me or speaking openly about their experiences that involved Nationals.

This may have been one of the difficulties I faced during my fieldwork to gain trust of the non-Nationals I interviewed.

8.5 Future Research Areas

There are many interesting directions for future research. First, language in IB research has highlighted the importance of other languages, aside from the lingua franca. Scholars have claimed that, despite the lingua franca (monolingual) approach, MNCs remain multilingual in their use of multiple languages in day-to-day operations and socialization (e.g., Angouri, 2013; Angouri & Piekkari, 2016). The importance of other languages, alongside the lingua franca, is undeniable. For example, among the national workforce and in external communication with local shareholders, the host country language may also be viewed as a valuable cultural capital in the MNC. Accordingly, I recommend research to explore the use of a LAN in the host country language (HCLAN), and investigate how it interacts with the lingua franca LAN. Does an advisor in the LAN become an advisee in the HCLAN (reciprocity across networks)? Do the advisors have similar characteristics in both networks, or do the sought-after characteristics differ for different language, and why? Does the language advisory role in the host country impact individuals' career success? Exploring these questions would provide valuable insight into the roles of each language and their significance in MNC knowledge networks and for individual career prospects.

Second, this research provides a starting point for further comprehensive studies examining the LAN's effects. At the micro-level, I propose an investigation into the impact of the LAN on advice seekers' language improvement over time, emotions associated with advice seeking, coping mechanisms, perception by peers, and career implications. These factors are all important for understanding the impact of the LAN on advice seekers. Whereas language

advisors experience more success through their proactive role in the network, do advice seekers experience negative consequences, either emotionally (shame, sense of disempowerment, less competent than their colleagues) or in their career prospects (low perceived knowledge, negative appraisals, demotions)? Additionally, the scope of the current research does not capture isolates in the network, although they are visible in the network maps in Chapters 4 and 5. Therefore, an interesting direction would be to examine the lack of activity of these isolates: who are they and why do they not engage? Factors such as job role, time to expiry of their employment contract, and language fluency may all be of interest in helping explain the nature of their job, motivational level, and needs.

Finally, another interesting research direction may encompass the LAN's role in power-authority distortion. This research has shown that language fluency allows an individual to advise in a LAN with positive impacts on their career success. Thus, it would be interesting to investigate if authority is relinquished when senior colleagues seek advice from their subordinates. If so, then the role of language advisors could extend beyond career implications. Does the language advisory role become a source of power in the MNC? In a multilingual MNC, does offering knowledge in the language of power –the lingua franca – overwrite formal authority? In Chapter 6, language advisors were found to experience enhanced status through earning authoritative titles, such as “interim head” and “project lead,” as chosen by upper management. This raises the question of whether the advisory role as a source of power distorts direct authority.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Sample of Interview/ Focus Group Questions

The following questions are used as guidelines for the interview/focus group conversations.

Section A: Business Context

1. Why do you believe English is the official business language in:
 - a. Qatar?
 - b. QatarCo?
2. Do you believe Arabic will ever be the official business language? Why?
3. How beneficial/detrimental do you anticipate a bi-lingua franca strategy will be in QatarCo?
4. What [and when] do you speak other languages, besides English, at work?
5. When do you strictly stick to English communication?
6. If you're a non-native English speaker, do you believe your English has improved on: the job? If so, what aspects of it?
 - a. Written communication
 - b. Public speaking
 - c. Work-related terminology
 - d. Confidence
7. What is the source of your language competence/knowledge?
 - a. Training courses
 - b. Translation software
 - c. Socialization
 - d. Advice on the job

Section B: Language Advice Networks

8. Do you need English language help on the job? If so, what type of help?
 - a. Technical language
 - b. Semantics

Provide examples of each.
9. When do you seek language advice? How often?
 - a. When you're confused? What's the source of confusion?

- b. When you lack expertise? Provide examples.
 - c. Is it often from the same advisor?
- 10. Who do you seek language advice from?
 - a. Nature of relationship
 - b. job level
 - c. nationality
- 11. Do any names particularly stand out when you think of language experts or “language gurus” in the department?
 - a. What makes them special?
- 12. Does anyone ask you for language-related advice?
 - a. Why you?
- 13. What comes first: _____ or the exchange of (language) advice?
 - a. Friendship
 - b. Trust
 - c. Common primary language
 - d. Other types of advice
- 14. How do you approach your language advisor for help?
 - a. Email
 - b. Telephone
 - c. Face to face
 - d. Off the job
- 15. Please explain the steps of the process for identifying an advisor and requesting help.
- 16. How often do you successfully accomplish a task due to the advice given?

Section C: The Impact of Language Exchange

- 17. [To non-native English speakers]: How does practicing a foreign language contribute to your identity?
 - a. More accepting of other cultures
 - b. More understanding
 - c. No barrier to travel and try different foods
 - d. Greater confidence and self-esteem

18. [To non-native English speakers]: How does practicing a foreign language contribute to your career?
 - a. A barrier or facilitator?
19. [To native English speakers]: How do your language skills impact:
 - a. Your work performance?
 - b. Others' perception of your knowledge?
 - c. Promotion prospects?
 - d. Socialization?
20. How does engaging in Language Advice Networks help you?
21. How does engaging in Language Advice Networks help the team (department)?
22. How does engaging in Language Advice Networks help the organization?

Appendix B: Social Network Analysis Questionnaire

Section A: Demographics

1. Staff Number (input text):
2. Full Name (input text):
3. Gender: Female Male
4. Age: 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60+
5. Position: Admin Assistant Officer Supervisor/Specialist
 Section Head Manager
6. Level of Education: High school diploma Technical diploma (college level)
 Bachelor Masters
7. Country of Education (input text):
8. Country of Origin (if different from nationality) (input text):
9. Years of experience in QatarCo:

0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	20+
-----	------	-------	-------	-----
10. Total years of experience (including in QatarCo)

0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	20+
-----	------	-------	-------	-----
11. Languages Spoken (input text):
12. Career Satisfaction Scale

(1: very dissatisfied; 2: somewhat dissatisfied; 3: neither satisfied nor dissatisfied; 4: somewhat satisfied; 5: very satisfied)

I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career. 1 2 3 4 5

I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals. 1 2 3 4 5

I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my income goals. 1 2 3 4 5

I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my advancement goals 1 2 3 4 5

I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for developing new skills 1 2 3 4 5

13. English Fluency: Circle one

- 1 Below the minimum requirements for language competence.
- 2 Barely meet the minimum requirement for language competence.
- 3 Exhibit good language skills but often make major mistakes in the language.
- 4 Exhibit fluent language skills with minor mistakes.
- 5 Exhibit native fluency in the language with almost no mistakes.

14. Arabic Fluency: circle one

- 1 No to little knowledge of the language.
- 2 Beginner level in the language.
- 3 Exhibit good language skills but often make major mistakes in the language.
- 4 Exhibit fluent language skills with minor mistakes.
- 5 Exhibit native fluency in the language with almost no mistakes.

15. The Cosmopolitanism Self-Assessment Scale (Cosmo V12) (Lee, 2014):

(1: Not at all; 2: a little; 3: Somewhat; 4: A lot; 5: Very well)

I enjoy trying new foods and products from many different cultures. 1 2 3 4 5

I like music and arts from many different cultures. 1 2 3 4 5

I like meeting people from different cultures.	1 2 3 4 5
I go to places where people from diverse cultures mingle together.	1 2 3 4 5
I feel close to the world affairs that occur in other countries.	1 2 3 4 5
I keep up-to-date with news and events around the world.	1 2 3 4 5
I am comfortable when I encounter very different customs and behaviors of people from another culture.	1 2 3 4 5
I often think about my cultural norms and traditions from the perspective of people from another culture.	1 2 3 4 5
I feel more comfortable when I am surrounded by a variety of people from different cultures, rather than only people from my home country.	1 2 3 4 5
I like learning about different social norms and traditions of other cultures.	1 2 3 4 5
I follow the customs and traditions of my home country.	1 2 3 4 5
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my home country.	1 2 3 4 5
I keep up-to-date with news and events in my home country.	1 2 3 4 5
I am most comfortable when I am with people from my home country.	1 2 3 4 5

Section B: Social Network Analysis Data Collection

Subject: Advice Networks within the Department

Department: General Services (GS)

Number of Employees: n

Name	I seek their advice in <i>language-related</i> issues.	Frequency	I seek their advice in <i>general work-related</i> issues.	Frequency	Reason for seeking their advice.
GS01					
GS02					
...					
GS _n					

Section C: This section is completed by the supervisor

16. Please assess the employee's English fluency (circle one):

- 1 Below the minimum requirements for language competence.
- 2 Barely meets the minimum requirements for language competence.
- 3 Exhibits good language skills but often makes major mistakes in the language.
- 4 Exhibits fluent language skills with minor mistakes.
- 5 Exhibits native fluency in the language with almost no mistakes.

17. Please assess the employee's Arabic fluency (circle one):

- 1 No to little knowledge of the language.
- 2 Beginner level in the language.
- 3 Exhibits good language skills but often makes major mistakes in the language.
- 4 Exhibits fluent language skills with minor mistakes.
- 5 Exhibits native fluency in the language with almost no mistakes.

Appendix C: Triad Census for LAN & GAN

Triad Census of each Department & Type of Network

<i>Census</i>	<i>PR</i>		<i>HR</i>		<i>GS</i>		<i>LD</i>	
<i>Label</i>	<i>LAN</i>	<i>GAN</i>	<i>LAN</i>	<i>GAN</i>	<i>LAN</i>	<i>GAN</i>	<i>LAN</i>	<i>GAN</i>
003	102	10	9553	2704	1300	414	2190	898
012	107	38	1586	3974	389	516	389	708
102	6	6	51	599	18	26	0	204
021D	70	69	174	861	21	237	11	248
021U	27	12	41	620	22	89	3	94
021C	6	9	25	724	7	26	6	37
111D	10	4	3	322	0	7	0	33
111U	39	36	24	472	3	50	0	139
030T	27	73	21	461	11	110	1	95
030C	0	0	0	39	0	0	0	0
201	18	12	0	103	0	5	0	19
120D	4	10	1	73	0	0	0	20
120U	14	87	1	267	0	49	0	68
120C	6	5	0	102	0	6	0	5
210	16	60	0	118	0	3	0	27
300	3	24	0	41	0	2	0	5

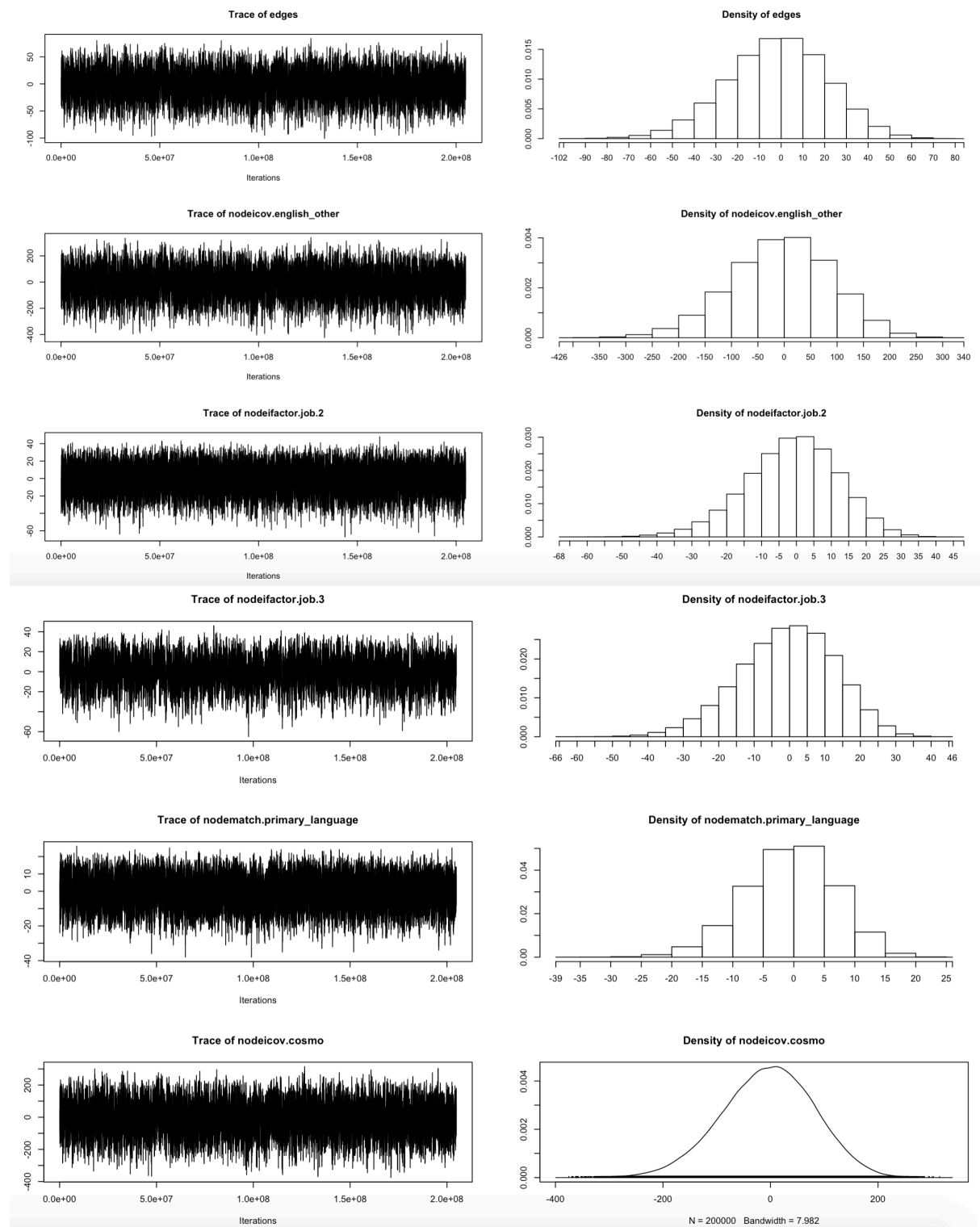
Appendix D: Correlation Table for the variables examined in Chapter 5

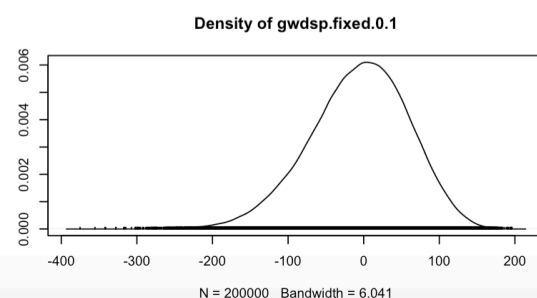
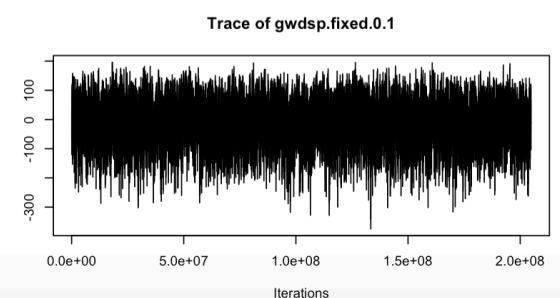
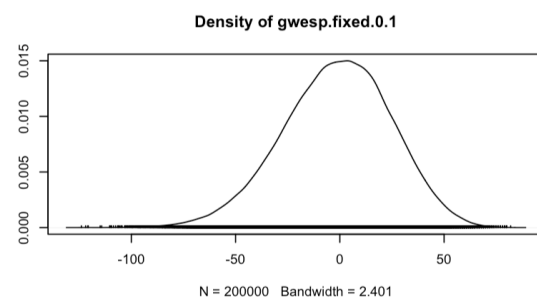
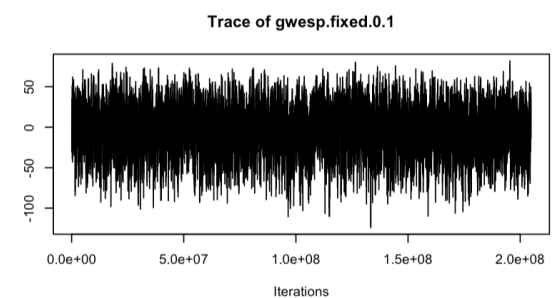
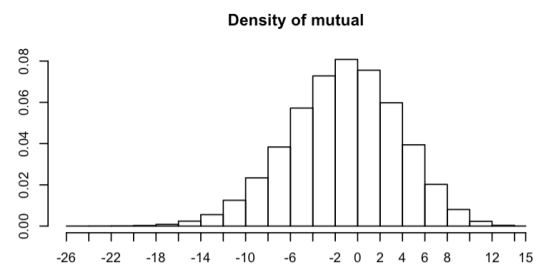
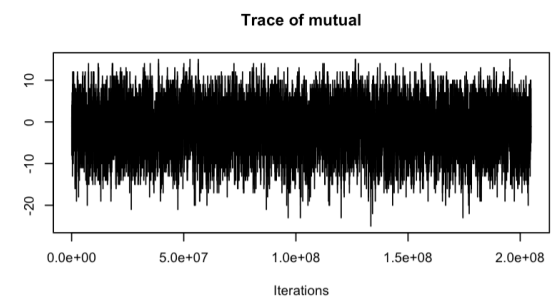
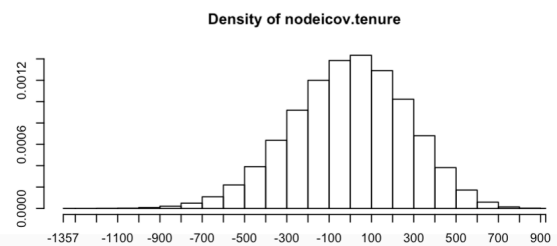
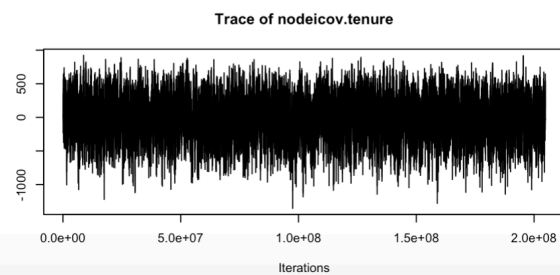
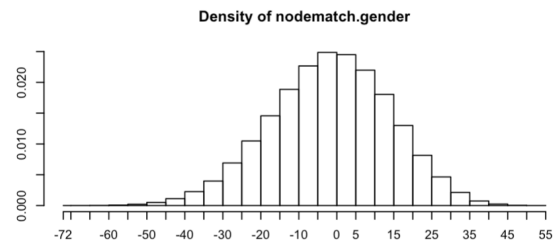
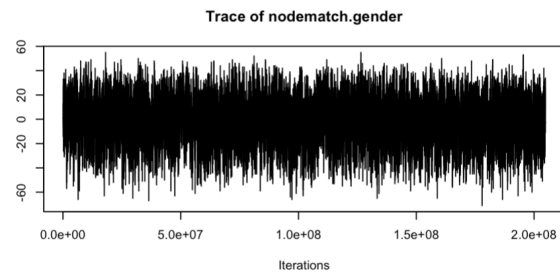
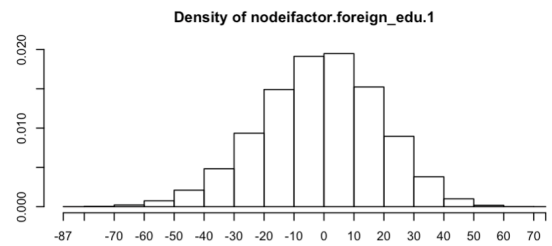
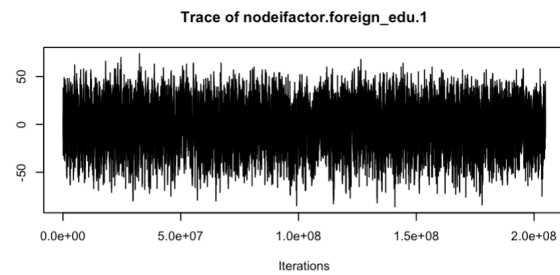
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Gender (1)	1										
Job Level (2)	-0.13	1									
Level of Education (3)	0.12	.360**	1								
Foreign Education (4)	-0.12	0.537**	0.285**	1							
Primary language (5)	0.15	-.294**	0.1	-0.16	1						
Multilingualism (6)	-0.13	-.264**	0.11	-0.79	.281**	1					
Tenure (7)	-.221*	0.184*	-0.14	-0.01	-0.05	0.08	1				
Cosmo (8)	-0.04	-0.03	.356**	0.68*	.249**	.207*	-0.05	1			
English (<i>self</i>) (9)	0.05	.316**	.293**	0.22*	0.19*	0.03	0.02	.244**	1		
English (<i>other</i>) (10)	0.12	.309**	.382**	0.247*	.322**	0.1	0.01	.252**	.728**	1	
English (<i>avg.</i>) (11)	0.1	.336**	.368**	0.252*	.282**	0.08	0.01	.267**	.916**	.942**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix E: A visual representation of the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) diagnostics





Appendix F: R Code

```
#####
#### LAN WEIGHTED network descriptives (Chapter 5) ####
#####

library(igraph)

#### 1. Loading the Data and creating matrices ####

elw_PR <- read.csv("~/Desktop/edgelist_LAN_PR.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)
elw_HR <- read.csv("~/Desktop/edgelist_LAN_HR.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)
elw_GS <- read.csv("~/Desktop/edgelist_LAN_GS.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)
elw_LD <- read.csv("~/Desktop/edgelist_LAN_LD.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)

  ## Creating a network without weights (we'll use in the for loop later)

g_PR <- graph_from_edgelist(as.matrix(elw_PR[,1:2]))
g_HR <- graph_from_edgelist(as.matrix(elw_HR[,1:2]))
g_GS <- graph_from_edgelist(as.matrix(elw_GS[,1:2]))
g_LD <- graph_from_edgelist(as.matrix(elw_LD[,1:2]))

  ## Making empty matrices (for each department) with names as the Node ID

PRdistancemat <- matrix(nrow=length(V(g_PR)$name),ncol=length(V(g_PR)$name),
, dimnames=list(as.vector(V(g_PR)$name),as.vector(V(g_PR)$name)))
HRdistancemat <- matrix(nrow=length(V(g_HR)$name),ncol=length(V(g_HR)$name),
, dimnames=list(as.vector(V(g_HR)$name),as.vector(V(g_HR)$name)))
GSdistancemat <- matrix(nrow=length(V(g_GS)$name),ncol=length(V(g_GS)$name),
, dimnames=list(as.vector(V(g_GS)$name),as.vector(V(g_GS)$name)))
LDdistancemat <- matrix(nrow=length(V(g_LD)$name),ncol=length(V(g_LD)$name),
, dimnames=list(as.vector(V(g_LD)$name),as.vector(V(g_LD)$name)))

  ## Filling in the values from each distance file

for(i in 1:nrow(elw_PR)){PRdistancemat[rownames(PRdistancemat)==elw_PR[i,1],colnames(PRdistancemat)==elw_PR[i,2]] <- as.numeric(elw_PR[i,3])}

for(i in 1:nrow(elw_HR)){HRdistancemat[rownames(HRdistancemat)==elw_HR[i,1],colnames(HRdistancemat)==elw_HR[i,2]] <- as.numeric(elw_HR[i,3])}

for(i in 1:nrow(elw_GS)){GSdistancemat[rownames(GSdistancemat)==elw_GS[i,1],colnames(GSdistancemat)==elw_GS[i,2]] <- as.numeric(elw_GS[i,3])}

for(i in 1:nrow(elw_LD)){LDdistancemat[rownames(LDdistancemat)==elw_LD[i,1],colnames(LDdistancemat)==elw_LD[i,2]] <- as.numeric(elw_LD[i,3])}

  ## Replacing the NAs with 0:

PRdistancemat[is.na(PRdistancemat)] <- 0
HRdistancemat[is.na(HRdistancemat)] <- 0
```



```

GSdistancemat[is.na(GSdistancemat)] <- 0
LDdistancemat[is.na(LDdistancemat)] <- 0

#### 2. Creating the networks (igraph objects) ####

PR_wnet <- graph_from_adjacency_matrix(PRdistancemat, mode = "directed", w
eighted = TRUE)
HR_wnet <- graph_from_adjacency_matrix(HRdistancemat, mode = "directed", w
eighted = TRUE)
GS_wnet <- graph_from_adjacency_matrix(GSdistancemat, mode = "directed", w
eighted = TRUE)
LD_wnet <- graph_from_adjacency_matrix(LDdistancemat, mode = "directed", w
eighted = TRUE)

#### 3. Adding vertex attributes ####

## Loading the metadata

nodelist<-read.csv("~/Desktop/nodelist.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)
nodelist$dep <- substr(nodelist$ID,1,2) # Here we've extracted the first t
wo characters of ID to create a new column (variable) with the department
short name

## Separating by department

nodelist_PR <- subset(nodelist, nodelist$dep == "PR")
nodelist_HR <- subset(nodelist, nodelist$dep == "HR")
nodelist_GS <- subset(nodelist, nodelist$dep == "GS")
nodelist_LD <- subset(nodelist, nodelist$dep == "LD")

## Matching the file with vertex attributes (nodelist by department) wit
h each network

wg_PR<- graph_from_data_frame(d=elw_PR,directed=TRUE,vertices=nodelist_PR)
wg_HR<- graph_from_data_frame(d=elw_HR,directed=TRUE,vertices=nodelist_HR)
wg_GS<- graph_from_data_frame(d=elw_GS,directed=TRUE,vertices=nodelist_GS)
wg_LD<- graph_from_data_frame(d=elw_LD,directed=TRUE,vertices=nodelist_LD)

#### 4. Descriptive Statistics ####

mean(strength(wg_PR, vids = V(wg_PR), mode = "in", loops = TRUE, weights =
E(wg_PR)$weight))

mean (degree(wg_PR), mode= "in")

transitivity(wg_PR)

reciprocity(wg_PR, mode= "ratio") #repeat for all departments

```

```
#####
#### LAN ERGM with Structural Zeros (Chapter 6) ####
#####

library(igraph)

#### 1. Setting up the data for ERGM ####

##Loading the data

elw_PR <-read.csv("~/Desktop/edgelist_LAN_PR.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)
elw_HR <-read.csv("~/Desktop/edgelist_LAN_HR.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)
elw_GS <-read.csv("~/Desktop/edgelist_LAN_GS.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)
elw_LD <-read.csv("~/Desktop/edgelist_LAN_LD.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)

nodelist <- read.csv("~/Desktop/nodelist.csv",header=TRUE,as.is=TRUE)
nodes <- as.vector(nodelist$ID)

## Making empty matrix with names as the Node ID

LANDist <-matrix(nrow=length(nodes),ncol=length(nodes),dimnames=list(as.ve
ctor(nodelist$ID),as.vector(nodelist$ID)))

## Filling in the values from each distance file

for(i in 1:nrow(elw_PR)){LANDist[rownames(LANDist)==elw_PR[i,1],colnames(L
ANDist)==elw_PR[i,2]] <- as.numeric(elw_PR[i,3])}
for(i in 1:nrow(elw_HR)){LANDist[rownames(LANDist)==elw_HR[i,1],colnames(L
ANDist)==elw_HR[i,2]] <- as.numeric(elw_HR[i,3])}
for(i in 1:nrow(elw_GS)){LANDist[rownames(LANDist)==elw_GS[i,1],colnames(L
ANDist)==elw_GS[i,2]] <- as.numeric(elw_GS[i,3])}
for(i in 1:nrow(elw_LD)){LANDist[rownames(LANDist)==elw_LD[i,1],colnames(L
ANDist)==elw_LD[i,2]] <- as.numeric(elw_LD[i,3])}

## Replacing the NAs with 0 for the ERGM to read (this is not for structu
ral zeroes)

LANDist[is.na(LANDist)] <- 0
LANDist <- ifelse(LANDist[,]>=1,1,0) #turning matrix into binary data. Don
t run this line for weights (for GERGM).

net <- graph_from_adjacency_matrix(LANDist, mode = "directed", weighted =
TRUE)

summary(net)

E(net)$weight #checking if the weights are zeros and ones.

LAN_simple <- simplify(net, remove.loops = TRUE) #removing one self loop (
LD9) as a misreport.
is_simple(LAN_simple)

summary(LAN_simple)
```

```

## Adding vertex attributes ##

nodelist$dep <- substr(nodelist$ID,1,2) # Here we've extracted the first two
characters of ID to create a new column (variable) with the department
short name

## Matching the file with vertex attributes

el <- as_edgelist(LAN_simple, names = TRUE)
g <- graph_from_data_frame(d=el,directed=TRUE,vertices=nodelist)
summary(g)

summary(LAN_simple)

V(LAN_simple)$gender <- nodelist$gender
V(LAN_simple)$job <- nodelist$job # combines job levels to "management", "
supervisory", & "administrative" roles.
V(LAN_simple)$foreign_edu <- nodelist$foreign_edu
V(LAN_simple)$primary_language <- nodelist$primary_language
V(LAN_simple)$tenure <- nodelist$years_of_exp_cont
V(LAN_simple)$cosmo <- nodelist$cosmo
V(LAN_simple)$english_other <- nodelist$english_other
V(LAN_simple)$dep <- nodelist$dep

## Controlling for Structural zeros

#create a matrix where values for ALL ties WITHIN networks are set to zero
, and ALL ties ACROSS networks are set to one.

structural_zeros <- matrix(nrow=length(nodes),ncol=length(nodes),dimnames=
list(as.vector(nodelist$ID),as.vector(nodelist$ID)))

#structural_zeros <- ifelse(structural_zeros[,]>=0,NA,NA) #RESET Matrix to
NA

for (i in 1:26) { for (j in 1:26) { structural_zeros[i, j] <- 0 }}
for (i in 27:49) { for (j in 27:49) { structural_zeros[i, j] <- 0 }}
for (i in 50:64) { for (j in 50:64) { structural_zeros[i, j] <- 0 }}
for (i in 65:106) { for (j in 65:106) { structural_zeros[i, j] <- 0 }}

structural_zeros[is.na(structural_zeros)] <- 1
str_zero <- graph_adjacency(structural_zeros)

#### 2. Constructing the ERGM ####

detach(package:igraph)
require(intergraph)

require(sna)

require(texreg)

LAN_simple <- asNetwork(LAN_simple)
str_zero <- asNetwork(str_zero)

```

```

ergm <- ergm (LAN_simple ~ edges + nodeicov("english_other") + nodeifactor(
"job") + nodematch("primary_language") + nodeicov("cosmo") + nodeifactor(
"foreign_edu") + nodematch("gender") + nodeicov("tenure") + mutual() + gwe
sp(0.1,fixed=TRUE) + gw dsp(0.1,fixed=TRUE) + edgecov(str_zero), control =
control.ergm(MCMC.burnin = 50000, MCMC.samplesize = 50000))

screenreg(list(ergm))

## Adding structural zeros to the Model using edgecov() method: create a m
atrix where values for ALL ties WITHIN networks are set to zero, and ALL t
ies ACROSS networks are set to one. Feed this into your model using an edg
ecov term, and again fix that effect at -Inf using the offset() function,
e.g. offset(edgecov(X))... (source: Dr. Kevin Lewis)

#### 3. Model Diagnostics ####

par(mfrow=c(3,2))
plot(gof(ergm ~ idegree + esp + dsp + distance))
dev.off()

mcmc.diagnostics(ergm)

dev.off()

plot(simulate(ergm),vertex.col="dep", vertex.cex=2)

#### 4. Converting coefficients for interpretation ####

summary(ergm)

or <- exp(ergm$coef)
or

ste <- sqrt(diag(ergm$covar))
lci <- exp(ergm$coef-1.96*ste)
uci <- exp(ergm$coef+1.96*ste)
oddsratios <- cbind(round(lci,digits = 4),round(or,digits = 4),round(uci,d
igits = 4))
colnames(oddsratios) <- c("Lower","OR","Upper")
oddsratios

## Example of Model Output

ergm <- ergm (LAN_simple ~ edges + nodeicov("english_other") + nodeifactor(
"job") + nodematch("primary_language") + nodeicov("cosmo") + nodeifactor(
"foreign_edu") + nodematch("gender") + nodeicov("tenure") + mutual() + gwe
sp(0.1,fixed=TRUE) + gw dsp(0.1,fixed=TRUE) + edgecov(str_zero), control =
control.ergm(MCMC.burnin = 50000, MCMC.samplesize = 50000))

estoprob <- function(logit) {
  exp(logit)/(1+exp(logit))
}

one<-c(1,5,3,4,3.5,1,2,2) # (1) edges term, (5) Fluent English speaker, (3
) in a managerial job level, (4) with Urdu as primary language, (3.5) cosm

```

o score, has foreign education, female, 6-10 years of the experience in the MNC.

```
estoprob(sum(one*(ergm$coef)))
```

```
## Warning in one * (ergm$coef): longer object length is not a multiple of  
## shorter object length
```

```
## [1] 0
```

```
two<-c(1,3.5,2,1,0,5,1,2,2) # (1) edges term, (3.5) below average English  
speaker, (3) in a supervisory job level, (4) with Qatari as primary language,  
(5) cosmo score, has foreign education, female, 6-10 years of the experience  
in the MNC.
```

```
estoprob(sum(two*(ergm$coef)))
```

```
## Warning in two * (ergm$coef): longer object length is not a multiple of  
## shorter object length
```

```
## [1] 0
```

```
##### 5. Printing as PDF #####
```

```
gof_ergm <- gof(ergm ~ idegree + esp + dsp + distance)
```

```
pdf("gof_ergm.pdf")
```

```
plot(gof_ergm)
```

```
dev.off()
```