Teaching Business: A Phenomenological Study
of Expatriate Tertiary Level Educators’ Experiences in Dubai

A Thesis Submitted In Fulfilment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Doctor of Business Administration

by

Amanda McStay, BSc, MBA (Distinction)

School of Management and Marketing
Charles Sturt University
Australia

December 2015
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TABLE OF CONTENTS</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CERTIFICATE OF AUTHORSHIP</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>xi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL</td>
<td>xii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATIONS</td>
<td>xiii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>xiv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Background – Importance of Topic</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Research Gap</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Research Aim and Question</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Research Value</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Research Methodology</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.6 Potential Contributions</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.7 Summary and Dissertation Outline</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW</strong></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Introduction</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 The United Arab Emirates (UAE) Context</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1 UAE geography and heritage</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2 UAE economy and workforce</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3 UAE education</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3.1 Secondary education sector</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3.2 Tertiary education sector</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3.3 Diversity of Dubai’s higher education sector</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 National Cultural Differences</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.1 Individualism-Collectivism</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2 Masculinity-Femininity</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.3 Power-Distance</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.3.4 Uncertainty-Avoidance 24
2.3.5 Summary of national cultural differences 25

2.4 Strategic HRM Literature Review .......................................................... 26
  2.4.1 Introduction to strategic HRM practice 26
  2.4.2 HRM research from Western and Asian countries 27
  2.4.3 HRM research from Middle Eastern countries 30

2.5 Work Motivation Background .................................................................. 32
  2.5.1 Motivation theories 33
    2.5.1.1 Key content theories 33
    2.5.1.2 Key process theories 36
    2.5.1.3 Other theoretical approaches 38
    2.5.1.4 Measuring work motivation 39

2.6 Work Motivation Literature Review .......................................................... 43
  2.6.1 Western education sector - work motivation research 44
    2.6.1.1 Extrinsic, intrinsic and situational factors in the UK and Europe 45
    2.6.1.2 Induction, mentoring and professional development 48
    2.6.1.3 Adjunct staff 49
  2.6.2 Non-Western education sector - work motivation research 49
  2.6.3 Middle East industry sector - work motivation research 53
  2.6.4 Middle East education sector - motivation and teaching research 57

2.7 Summary of Literature Review ................................................................. 62

CHAPTER THREE – THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK 64
  3.1 Development of the Theoretical Framework ............................................. 65
  3.2 Independent Variables in the Theoretical Framework .............................. 66
  3.3 Demographic Variables in the Theoretical Framework ............................ 68
  3.4 Dependent Variables in the Theoretical Framework ............................... 69
  3.5 Summary of the Theoretical Framework .................................................. 69

CHAPTER FOUR – RESEARCH PARADIGM, METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN 70
  4.1 Introduction ................................................................................................. 70
  4.2 Research Paradigm ..................................................................................... 70
  4.3 Methodology ............................................................................................... 73
4.4 Validity and Reliability ................................................................. 75
  4.4.1 Positivist quantitative perspective 75
  4.4.2 Interpretivist qualitative perspective 76
    4.4.2.1 Trustworthiness and credibility 76
    4.4.2.2 Triangulation 77
    4.4.2.3 Auditing 77
    4.4.2.4 Replicability 77
    4.4.2.5 Generalisability and context 77
    4.4.2.6 Researcher bias and influence 78
  4.5 Design and Procedures ......................................................... 79
    4.5.1 Data generation 79
      4.5.1.1 In-depth interviews 79
      4.5.1.2 Research aim and question 80
      4.5.1.3 Data recording and transcription 82
    4.5.2 Recruitment strategy 84
      4.5.2.1 Sampling strategy 84
      4.5.2.2 Inclusion criteria 84
      4.5.2.3 Sourcing participants 86
      4.5.2.4 Sample size 87
    4.5.3 Data analysis 88
      4.5.3.1 Interpretive phenomenological content analysis 88
      4.5.3.2 Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS) 89
      4.5.3.3 Triangulation 90
  4.6 Ethics and Confidentiality .................................................... 90
  4.7 Summary of Research Paradigm, Methodology and Design ............. 92

CHAPTER FIVE – ANALYSIS .............................................................. 93
  5.1 Overview .............................................................................. 93
  5.2 Intrinsic Factors .................................................................. 94
    5.2.1 Autonomy ..................................................................... 95
      5.2.1.1 Academic freedom ................................................. 95
      5.2.1.2 Level of influence ................................................... 96
      5.2.1.3 Level of responsibility ............................................ 96
5.2.1.4 Self-managed teams 97

5.2.2 Nature of Work 98
5.2.2.1 Clear job role and expectations 98
5.2.2.2 Challenging and stimulating work 99
5.2.2.3 Variety of work and skills 99
5.2.2.4 Impact of student ability 100
5.2.2.5 Impact of student behaviour and motivation 101
5.2.2.6 Impact of student to teacher ratio 102
5.2.2.7 Other classroom management issues 102
5.2.2.8 Workload 103

5.2.3 Professional Development (PD) 106
5.2.3.1 Cross-discipline development opportunities 106
5.2.3.2 Mentoring opportunities 107
5.2.3.3 Personal growth and professional development 107

5.2.4 Rewards (Non-financial) 109
5.2.4.1 Ability to help students – making a difference to others 109
5.2.4.2 Recognition of achievements 109

5.2.5 Summary of key intrinsic factors 111

5.3 Extrinsic Factors 113

5.3.1 Financial rewards 113
5.3.1.1 Salary and cost of living 113
5.3.1.2 Salary comparability 115
5.3.1.3 Gratuity and pension 115
5.3.1.4 Other financial benefits 117
5.3.1.5 Additional remunerated work 117

5.3.2 Interpersonal Relationships 117
5.3.2.1 Co-workers relationships 117
5.3.2.2 Student relationships 118
5.3.2.3 Relationships with other stakeholders 119

5.3.3 Job Security 120
5.3.3.1 Contract length 120
5.3.3.2 Contract renewal and termination 121
5.3.3 Sponsorship restrictions 122
5.3.4 Management Policies and Culture 122
  5.3.4.1 Recruitment and selection policies 122
  5.3.4.2 Pre-arrival and induction policies 123
  5.3.4.3 Curriculum, materials and assessment policies 124
  5.3.4.4 Performance appraisal and grievance policies 125
  5.3.4.5 Student intake policies 126
  5.3.4.6 Organisational culture 127
5.3.5 Promotional Opportunities 129
  5.3.5.1 Performance-based promotion 129
  5.3.5.2 Internal promotional opportunities 129
  5.3.5.3 External promotional opportunities 130
5.3.6 Supervisor Style 131
5.3.7 Work Environment 132
  5.3.7.1 Campus facilities and support services 132
  5.3.7.2 Campus location 133
  5.3.7.3 Staff accommodation 133
  5.3.7.4 Reputation 134
  5.3.7.5 Accreditation 134
5.3.8 Summary of key extrinsic factors 135
5.4 Sociocultural Factors ................................................................. 138
  5.4.1 Adjusting to the culture in Dubai 138
  5.4.2 Adjusting to a new institution in Dubai 139
  5.4.3 Cultural adaptation phases 139
  5.4.4 National cultural differences 140
  5.4.5 Summary of key sociocultural factors 142
5.5 Personal Factors ........................................................................ 143
  5.5.1 Family 143
  5.5.2 Self 144
    5.5.2.1 Reasons for coming to Dubai 145
    5.5.2.2 Work-life balance 145
    5.5.2.3 Stress management 146
5.5.2.4 Opportunities for socialisation 146
5.5.3 Summary of key personal factors 147
5.6 Summary of Analysis ........................................................................................................147

CHAPTER SIX – RECOMMENDATIONS 149
6.1 Recruitment and Selection Recommendations .........................................................149
6.2 Pre-arrival Recommendations ....................................................................................150
6.3 Induction Training Recommendations ........................................................................152
6.4 Ongoing Satisfaction, Commitment and Retention Recommendations ......153
6.5 Additional Organisational Success Recommendations ............................................158
6.6 Summary of Recommendations ..................................................................................158

CHAPTER SEVEN – CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS 161
7.1 Introduction ..................................................................................................................161
7.2 Key Factors ..................................................................................................................161
  7.2.1 Key intrinsic factors 161
  7.2.2 Key extrinsic factors 162
  7.2.3 Key sociocultural and personal factors 163
7.3 Implications for Colleges and Universities .................................................................163
7.4 Limitations ....................................................................................................................163
7.5 Implications for Future Research ................................................................................164
7.6 Final Conclusion ...........................................................................................................166

REFERENCES 167

APPENDIX 1 – DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE 184
APPENDIX 2 – INTERVIEW GUIDE 185
APPENDIX 3 – INFORMATION SHEET 187
APPENDIX 4 – INFORMED CONSENT FORM 188
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Dubai higher education institutions by country of affiliation/curriculum and location/type (2015).

Table 2. Dubai higher education enrolled students by type of institution, nationality and gender (2013/14).

Table 3. Dubai higher education teaching staff by institution type, nationality and gender (2013/14).

Table 4. Hofstede's (1983) national cultural dimensions and key characteristics – individualism-collectivism.

Table 5. Hofstede's (1983) national cultural dimensions and key characteristics – masculinity-femininity.

Table 6. Hofstede's (1983) national cultural dimensions and key characteristics – power-distance.

Table 7. Hofstede's (1983) national cultural dimensions and key characteristics – uncertainty-avoidance.

Table 8. Key factors identified by researchers in the Western and Asian strategic HRM literature.

Table 9. Common independent variables used when measuring workplace motivation.

Table 10. Factors identified by UK university lecturers as influencing their levels of work satisfaction and dissatisfaction by type of factor and percentage of contribution to overall (dis)satisfaction (1994-1995).

Table 11. Intrinsic work motivators by education specific issues, researchers and location of research.

Table 12. Extrinsic work motivators by education specific issues, researchers and location of research.

Table 13. Demographic and situational variables by education specific issues, researchers and location of research.

Table 14. Work motivators - Middle East specific issues by researcher and location of research.

Table 15. Intrinsic factors and items for the conceptual framework.

Table 16. Extrinsic factors and items for the conceptual framework.

Table 17. Sociocultural factors and items for the conceptual framework.

Table 18. Personal factors and items for the conceptual framework.

Table 19. Demographic (institutional) variables for the conceptual framework.

Table 20. Demographic (personal) variables for the conceptual framework.
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Dubai’s population (permanent residents) by age and sex (2013). 9
Figure 2. Fields of study in Dubai’s tertiary education sector (2012). 17
Figure 3. Individualism-Collectivism dimensions in Dubai universities. 21
Figure 4. Masculinity-Femininity dimensions in Dubai universities. 22
Figure 5. Power-Distance dimensions in Dubai universities. 24
Figure 6. Uncertainty-Avoidance dimensions in Dubai universities. 25
Figure 7. Comparison of key content motivation theories. 36
Figure 8. Conceptual framework for examining expatriate teacher satisfaction, commitment and retention in higher education institutions operating in the UAE. 65
Figure 9. Frequency distribution by character count of four themes (intrinsic, extrinsic, sociocultural and personal) covered in narratives. 94
Figure 10. Frequency distribution of intrinsic themes covered in narratives. 94
Figure 11. Frequency distribution of extrinsic themes covered in narratives. 113
# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CAA</td>
<td>Commission for Academic Accreditation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAQDAS</td>
<td>Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSU</td>
<td>Charles Sturt University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHCC</td>
<td>Dubai Healthcare City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIAC</td>
<td>Dubai International Academic City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIC</td>
<td>Dubai Internet City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIFC</td>
<td>Dubai International Financial Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DKV</td>
<td>Dubai Knowledge Village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMC</td>
<td>Dubai Media City – Dubai Men’s College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSC</td>
<td>Dubai Statistics Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSO</td>
<td>Dubai Silicon Oasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eg.</td>
<td>Exempli gratia (for example)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faculty</td>
<td>The term ‘faculty’ is often used in the Middle East region in place of job titles such as teacher, lecturer, professor, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HCT</td>
<td>Higher Colleges of Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ie.</td>
<td>Id est (in other words)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IELTS</td>
<td>International English Language Testing System exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KHDA</td>
<td>Knowledge and Human Development Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOHESR</td>
<td>Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NBS</td>
<td>National Bureau of Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD</td>
<td>Professional Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>The United Arab Emirates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAEU</td>
<td>United Arab Emirates University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZU</td>
<td>Zayed University</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CERTIFICATE OF AUTHORSHIP

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and to the best of my knowledge and belief, understand that it contains no material previously published or written by another person, nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at Charles Sturt University or any other educational institution, except where due acknowledgement is made in the thesis.

Any contribution made to the research by colleagues with whom I have worked at Charles Sturt University or elsewhere during my candidature is fully acknowledged. I agree that this thesis be accessible for the purpose of study and research in accordance with normal conditions established by the Executive Director, Library Services, Charles Sturt University, or nominee, for the care, loan and reproduction of theses, subject to confidentiality provisions as approved by the University.

Amanda McStay

13 December 2015
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thank you to all my participants for so generously sharing your experiences and trusting me with your stories. Your personal accounts add so much richness to understanding the teaching experience in Dubai.

Thanks to my supervisor Dr Pamela Lockhart for all your support and encouragement during our journey together. I sincerely appreciate your patience, feedback, expertise and care.

Thanks to my co-supervisor Dr Dawn Edwards for all your behind the scenes support.

Thanks to the Research Proposal Advisory Committee of Dr Ramudu Bhanugopan, Dr Branka Krivokapic-Skoko and Prof Eddie Oczkowski for your valued feedback.

And finally, thanks to my friends and family for your support, understanding and care.
20 November 2013

Ms. Amanda McStay
School of Management and Marketing
Charles Sturt University
Wagga Wagga

Dear Ms. McStay

The School of Management and Marketing Ethics Committee has approved your proposal “Teaching Business: A phenomenological study of tertiary level educators’ experience in Dubai” for a ten month period from “20 November 2013”.

The protocol number issued with respect to this project is 218/2013/19. Please be sure to quote this number when responding to any request made by the Committee.

Please note that the Committee requires that all consent forms and information sheets are to be printed on School of Management and Marketing letterhead.

You must notify the Committee immediately should your research differ in any way from that proposed.

You are also required to complete a Progress Report form, which can be downloaded from www.csu.edu.au/research/forms/ehrc_annrep.doc, and return it on completion of your research project or by “20 September 2014” if your research has not been completed by that date.

The Committee wishes you well in your research and please do not hesitate to contact Dr. Ramudu Bhanugopan on extension 332696 or email bramudu@csu.edu.au if you have any enquiries.

Yours sincerely

Dr. Ramudu Bhanugopan
Chair
School of Management and Marketing Ethics Committee
Direct Telephone: 69332696
Email: bramudu@csu.edu.au

www.csu.edu.au
CRICOS Provider Numbers for Charles Sturt University are 00005F (NSW), 01947G (AC) and 02060B (ACT). ABN: 83 878 708 551
DEDICATIONS

This is dedicated to my mother, Carole, and father, Robert, who inspired a love of reading, learning and academic accomplishment. I know you both would have been proud.

This is also dedicated to my wonderful, amazing husband. You nurtured me, and kept encouraging me to finish at every step. I could not have done it without your continued support all these years. I share this success with you. Thank you – I love you very much.
ABSTRACT

The higher education sector in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) is growing rapidly, with many of the new universities in Dubai having transnational connections and employing a high proportion of expatriate teaching staff. There is a limited body of qualitative data on the Middle East tertiary education sector, and this research aims to identify issues relating to the adjustment, satisfaction and retention of expatriate lecturers in Dubai, and provide insights for academic institutions operating in the highly competitive Dubai market.

An interpretive phenomenological approach was used to gain insights into the higher education teaching experiences of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members with experience teaching at higher education institutions in Dubai. A purposive sample of ten participants was selected for the research, with the final number of interviews determined based upon the principle of data saturation. The interviewees were six females and four males representing a combined total of ten different nationalities. Interviewees were also selected according to government or private university affiliation, and full- or part-time status.

Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed, with content analysis conducted manually and then via Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS) software to gain insights into the factors influencing participants’ personal teaching narratives. The main findings are summarised into intrinsic, extrinsic, sociocultural and personal factors. While some of the factors are generic to expatriate faculty members, others are unique to tertiary level teaching in the Dubai context. A total of 64 recommendations have been compiled.
CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the background to the dissertation, including the importance of the topic and the identified research gap. This is followed by an introduction of the primary research aim and question, along with their associated value. An interpretive, qualitative methodology was used in this dissertation, and the methodology is introduced briefly in this chapter. Potential contributions to academic practice are then addressed, and the chapter concludes with an outline of the dissertation.

1.1 Background – Importance of Topic
The global workplace has experienced significant changes in recent years due to increased international competition, rapid advancements in information technology, and growing expatriate workforces (Schermerhorn & Hunt, 2005). Likewise, the academic profession is also changing at the global level, with a number of issues linked to staff satisfaction and retention (Arimoto, 2008).

In 1992 and 2007, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching undertook major international surveys, examining the extent to which the education industry had changed (Arimoto, 2008). In both years, more than twenty countries were surveyed, although countries from the Gulf region were not included (Cummings, 2008). The major issues identified included: i) increased levels of internationalisation (Coates, Goedegebuure, Van der Lee, & Meek, 2008; Huang, 2008; Verhaegen, 2005), ii) increased use of contract teaching staff (Huang, 2008), and iii) increased workload/hours spent on teaching and research (Huang, 2008; Marquina & Lamarra, 2008). Also of global concern in the academic profession are: i) the poaching of academic staff by other tertiary education institutions (Williams, 2008), and ii) increased retirement of academic professionals from higher education institutions (Harrison & Hargrove, 2006; Leubsdorf, 2006; Mathews, 2003).

Enrollment in global higher education has increased dramatically “from 32.6 million in 1970 to 182.2 million students in 2011, 46% of which was in the East and South Asia region in 2011” (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2014, p. 16). Strongly linked to the levels of academic internationalisation identified above is the growing importance placed on international students as sources of university revenue (The Economist, 2010a).
International student enrolment has increased from around one million students in 1980, to double that in 2000, and almost three million in 2010 (The Economist, 2010b).

As universities seek to become more competitive and globalised, with students becoming ‘clients’ and degrees and programs becoming ‘products’ (Vora, 2008), pressures are being placed on academic staff to increase productivity and accountability, while at the same time being innovative and entrepreneurial (Coates et al., 2008). In order to address some of these global challenges, and to ensure teaching faculty satisfaction, tertiary education providers must now focus on the retention of quality lecturers as one of their top priorities in order to achieve long term organisational success (Harrison & Hargrove, 2006; Reid & Crisp, 2007; Verhaegen, 2005).

The global rate of growth of international branch campuses has been exponential, with numbers increasing more than ten-fold in just over a decade, from a count of a mere 24 in 2002 (Becker, 2009, cited in Tierny & Lanford, 2015) to some 282 as of October 2015 (Cross-Border Education Research Team, 2015). Industry scoping research indicates that there has been remarkable growth in the number of universities in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), many of which have transnational connections and employ largely expatriate teaching workforces. This sector is operating in a highly competitive environment, and has experienced a number of high profile university closures, due to financial failure. Although multi-national organisations continue to engage expatriate workers for strategic and operational reasons (Pires, Stanton, & Ostenfeld, 2006), many of these workers fail to make the necessary cross-cultural adjustment (Bashir, 2012; Twentyman, 2010). Because the cost to the organisation of expatriate worker failure is so high (Da Silva, 2007), it is essential that tertiary education institutions in the UAE have an understanding of issues relating to the adjustment, satisfaction and retention of quality lecturers, in order to maximise their success in this highly competitive market.

The researcher has lived in the Gulf region for the past decade, and has worked exclusively in the tertiary education sector during this period, predominantly in Dubai. Given that the majority of Dubai’s higher education institutions were opened after 2000 (Lane, 2011), research into this rapidly growing and developing area was a key area of personal interest. Furthermore, in his study, Lane (2011, p. 371) noted that Dubai’s significant advances in developing its international branch campus market “warrant[ed] attention separate from the rest of the Emirates”. 

Amanda McStay  
Teaching Business in Dubai – A phenomenological study
1.2 Research Gap
A review of academic literature indicates that there is a lack of empirical research in Middle Eastern countries on human resource management (HRM) practices in general (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007; Metcalfe, 2007), and job satisfaction specifically (Abdulla, Djebarni, & Mellahi, 2011; Behery & Paton, 2008; Leat & El-Kot, 2009). Researchers from the Middle East region have noted the paucity of research on job satisfaction in Egypt (Leat & El-Kot, 2009), Lebanon (Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003), Oman (Azeem, 2010), and the UAE (Behery & Paton, 2008; Cerimagic, 2010; Connell, Burgess, & Hannif, 2008). Randeree and Chaudhry (2012) note that job satisfaction research in the Middle East region lacks a coherent approach. Additionally, because much of the research on job satisfaction has been conducted in Western countries (Bashir, 2012; Yousef, 1998), the tools for measuring job satisfaction factors and outcomes may have limited applicability to the Middle East (Abdulla et al., 2011).

There is an even greater shortage of research on higher education teaching staff satisfaction in Middle Eastern universities (Al-Rubaish, Rahim, Abumadini, & Wosornu, 2011; Azad & Seyyed, 2007). Smith (2009) acknowledges that although research is now being conducted on transnational education, it focusses on Western academic staff on short-term overseas contracts, and in locations such as Asia, rather than the Middle East.

1.3 Research Aim and Question
For the reasons above, it was felt that there was a strong rationale and value for this thesis which seeks to understand the critical factors facing academic staff in the higher education sector in the UAE. Rather than making a theoretical contribution, the primary aim of this doctoral dissertation is:

“To explore and gain an in-depth understanding of factors influencing the narratives of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members in the multi-cultural higher education sector in the emirate of Dubai in the UAE.”

The primary research question is:

“How are the key environmental and demographic factors identified in the literature regarding teaching experience, satisfaction, commitment and retention reflected in the narratives of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members in the context of the multi-cultural higher education sector in the emirate of Dubai in the UAE?”
1.4 Research Value

The broad intent is that this thesis will contribute to professional academic practice in the UAE by:

a) Offering insights into satisfaction, commitment and retention issues affecting teaching staff in Business and Foundation Business faculties of the multicultural higher education institutions in the UAE;

b) Proposing potential satisfaction, commitment and retention strategies for use by higher education institutions operating in a climate of change in the UAE in order to enhance their chances of long-term viability; and

c) Adding much needed data to the limited body of research currently available on the academic profession in the UAE.

1.5 Research Methodology

An interpretive phenomenological approach was used to explore the narratives of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members with experience teaching at higher education institutions in Dubai. Research suggests that it is better to measure employee motivation at the department rather than organisational level, due to differing internal organisational cultures (Lok & Crawford, 2001). For this reason, the research focussed specifically on higher education teaching staff from Business and Foundation Business faculties, as these two disciplines combined constitute the largest proportion of courses offered in the Dubai tertiary education sector (see Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA), 2012, 2013). A total of 10 participants were interviewed, with the final number of interviews determined based upon the principle of data saturation. Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed, with content analysis used to gain insights into the factors influencing their personal teaching narratives.

1.6 Potential Contributions

The potential contribution of this research to professional academic practice in the UAE is to add much needed data to the limited body of research currently available on the academic profession in the UAE. It is hoped to achieve this by: i) offering insights into the teaching experience of Business and Foundation Business faculty members, and ii) proposing potential satisfaction, commitment and retention strategies for use by higher education institutions operating in a climate of change in Dubai.
For logistical reasons, this research was confined to Dubai, which had the advantage of allowing comparison of factors within the same situational context, as Bashir (2012) notes that Dubai and Abu Dhabi are more advanced than the rest of the UAE in terms of technology and infrastructure.

1.7 Summary and Dissertation Outline
Chapter One introduced the background and focus of the topic, along with the rationale and value of the dissertation. The literature review is summarised in Chapter Two, the next chapter. A number of cross-cultural influences are at play in the UAE’s tertiary education sector in terms of differing national cultural approaches to HRM, workforce diversity and a multi-cultural student base. With this in mind, Chapter Two commences by establishing the UAE’s cultural context, with the work of Hofstede (1983) providing a useful background to identifying these differences.

In order to establish the key variables to explore tertiary educators’ teaching experiences in Dubai, Chapter Two focuses on two main bodies of research. Firstly, the strategic HRM research field, with its focus on the influence of employees on organisational profitability and success across a wide variety of industries. This research has a predominantly Western and non-academic institution focus. Secondly, the motivation research field, with its focus on environmental and demographic factors influencing employee satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention in a variety of industries, including the academic profession; again with a mostly Western focus. Chapter Two concludes with a review of relevant research conducted in the Middle East region.

Chapter Three outlines the theoretical framework that was developed following the detailed review of the literature. The factors for the framework are presented in terms of intrinsic, extrinsic, sociocultural and personal motivators, along with two sets of demographic variables: institutional and personal.

Chapter Four describes the phenomenological research paradigm, qualitative methodology and in-depth interview method used for this dissertation. The results from the interviews are analysed in Chapter Five, while the 64 recommendations arising from the analysis of data are presented in Chapter Six. All recommendations in Chapter Six
are linked back to the relevant sections in the analysis (Chapter Five) and/or literature review (Chapter Two).

The dissertation concludes in Chapter Seven with a summary of key factors and issues identified. Chapter Seven also discusses implications for tertiary education providers in Dubai, limitations of the research, and possible directions for future researchers.
CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter commences with a background section on the UAE, briefly outlining its geography, heritage, economy and workforce, and focuses in particular on the education sector. Data are presented to highlight the diversity of the UAE’s tertiary education sector, and specifically its influence from transnational education providers, diverse expatriate teacher workforce and multi-national student population.

The literature review then explores national cultural differences, and moves on to discuss the research literature from the strategic HRM field, followed by the work motivation field. The work motivation literature section summarises the key motivation theories and issues associated with measurement, and reviews research conducted in both industry and education contexts. To enable cultural comparisons, the review is divided into Western, Asian, and Middle Eastern research.

2.2 The United Arab Emirates (UAE) Context
This section establishes the context within which this research took place. It describes the geography, heritage, economy, workforce and education systems in the UAE.

2.2.1 UAE geography and heritage
The UAE is a comparatively young country (Harry, 2007; Quinn, 2001). It was formed in 1971 based on a federation of seven individual states under the leadership of His Highness, the late Sheikh Zayed (Quinn, 2001; Stephenson, 2005), after gaining independence from the United Kingdom (Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), 2012; Quinn, 2001).

The country is governed by the Federal National Council, which comprises the rulers of the individual emirates and their advisors (Jabeen & Katsioloudes, 2011). The UAE consists of Abu Dhabi, Ajman, Dubai, Fujairah, Sharjah, Ras al-Khaimah and Umm al-Quwain (Abdulla et al., 2011; Cerimagic, 2010; CIA, 2012; Jabeen & Katsioloudes, 2011). It should be noted that all researchers used a variety of spellings for the different emirates.
The UAE is located between Oman and Saudi Arabia, and covers an area of 83,600 sq km (CIA, 2012). The climate is sub-tropical with two seasons: summer, with hot and humid weather and temperatures reaching into the forties, and winter, with limited rainfall (BBC, 2015; Worldweatheronline.com, 2015). Because desert covers 97% of the country (Quinn, 2001), and the UAE is subject to frequent sandstorms, the majority of the population (estimated at 84% in 2010) lives in the cities (CIA, 2012).

The capital is Abu Dhabi with a population estimated at 666,000 in 2009 (CIA, 2012), and it is the largest emirate, covering around 87% of the country’s total land area (Abdulla et al., 2011). Dubai is the second largest emirate (Abdulla et al., 2011), and it has undergone substantial urban growth in the last ten years (Buckley, 2012).

The religious heritage is predominantly Sunni Muslim (Harry, 2007), with the official religion of Islam playing an integral role in the daily life of Emiratis (Abdulla et al., 2011; Cerimagic, 2010). The official language is Arabic, although English is widely used and understood (Abdulla et al., 2011). The UAE is tolerant (Bashir, 2012), and relatively liberal in comparison to other Islamic countries (Smith, 2009).

2.2.2 UAE economy and workforce

When oil was discovered in 1962, the UAE was an extremely undeveloped region (Stephenson, 2005). However, the scale and speed of development has been astonishing, particularly during Dubai’s economic boom period between 2003 and 2008, although the economy has slowed since the global economic crisis (Bloch, 2010). The UAE now has the highest standard of living in the Middle East (Cerimagic, 2010), due to Abu Dhabi’s oil wealth (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012; Stephenson, 2005), and Dubai’s diversification into the services, manufacturing and logistics sectors (Bloch, 2010; Buckley, 2012; Jabeen & Katsioloudes, 2011).

The largest employment growth area in the UAE has been in the services sector, which comprises around 60% of the workforce (Connell et al., 2008), with Dubai fast becoming a focus for international travel, tourism and business (Stephenson, 2005). Since this research commenced, Dubai was awarded hosting rights to the World EXPO in 2020. Given that the EXPO has never been held before in this region, and with organisers anticipating some 25 million visitors (EXPO, 2015), there are potential growth opportunities for Dubai, including within the education sector.
Dubai’s population has grown dramatically, more than doubling in just over a decade from 862,000 in 2000 to just over 2.2 million in 2013, (Dubai Statistics Centre (DSC), 2013a). In addition, a large number of Dubai’s workers live in neighbouring emirates and commute to work, and when these individuals are added to other temporary residents, such as tourists, the population of Dubai was estimated at close to 3.3 million in 2013 (DSC, 2013a).

It is widely acknowledged that expatriates comprise the majority of the UAE’s population (Cerimagic, 2010; Smith, 2009; Yousef, 1998). Reported figures from the Ministry of Labour indicated that 202 nationalities were working in Dubai in 2006, with three quarters of the expatriate population coming from India (50%), Pakistan (18%) or Bangladesh (6%) (Khaleej Times, 2006). The diversity of the workforce has resulting challenges for HRM in terms of dealing with diverse attitudes and values (Behery & Paton, 2008; Yousef, 2000), language, cultural and educational differences (Cerimagic, 2010), and varying perceptions of job roles (Yousef, 2002). Figure 1 below shows a breakdown of Dubai’s 2013 permanent resident population by age and sex.

**Figure 1. Dubai’s population (permanent residents) by age and sex (2013).**
Source: DSC (2013a)
The male to female ratios in Figure 1 show significant imbalance, with males accounting for 76% of Dubai’s total population. The largest proportion of the population is in the male 20-49 year age group, which represents almost two thirds of Dubai’s overall population.

Harry (2007) notes that although some nationals “fear that they are being ‘swamped’ by foreigners” (p. 140), they equally enjoy the benefits accrued from the cheap and easy to dismiss foreign maids, drivers and other service industry workers. Although remuneration packages for the professional Western expatriate workforce often include a number of benefits, such as free housing, flights and children’s schooling, and one month’s bonus salary each year (Quinn, 2001), regional salary surveys indicate that Emiratis are better paid than expatriates, and have considerably more job protection in the government sector (Harry, 2007). Because immigration is based on sponsorship by an Emirati organisation or individual (Buckley, 2012), temporary employment contracts and residency are commonplace for most expatriates (Baker & Abou-Ismail, 1993; Buckley, 2012; Smith, 2009; Yousef, 2000).

2.2.3 UAE education
The following section establishes the background to the UAE’s education sector. It commences with a brief outline of the secondary education sector, followed by a more detailed analysis of the tertiary sector. The higher education sector is profiled in terms of education providers, teaching workforce, student diversity, and course enrolments.

2.2.3.1 Secondary education sector
Learning to read was not a priority in the more traditionally nomadic, seafaring culture of the 1970s and 1980s (Harry, 2007). Literacy rates were low, with some estimates at around 50% (Quinn, 2001), and the primary and high school teaching profession was generally not highly respected in the Gulf region (Harry, 2007; Quinn, 2001). The traditional high school education system in the UAE had a predominantly Arabic expatriate teacher workforce (Harry, 2007), and focussed on rote learning (Quinn, 2001; Walker, 2004). Rote learning is the process whereby students “learn something by repeating it many times, without thinking about it carefully or without understanding it”, which often occurred in “old-fashioned schools” (Longman, 2003, p. 1432). In addition, due to an emphasis on developing a national identity, classes were focussed more on learning Arabic history, language, customs and religion, rather than learning productive
skills (Harry, 2007). Therefore, weaknesses in pedagogical approach and limited course content in the traditional secondary school system left students relatively unprepared for either the workforce or further education.

There has been dramatic growth in the secondary education sector. In 1962, there were 20 schools catering to less than 4,000 students, whereas in 2005, there were a total of 755 government schools, and 470 private schools for both national and expatriate pupils (Stephenson, 2005). Concurrent with this growth in the primary and secondary education sectors, there has been improvement in literacy rates in the UAE overall, with 2003 estimates indicating that 78% of the population aged 15 years and above could read and write (CIA, 2012). Despite this improvement, there is a potential issue for tertiary teachers with regards to new undergraduate national students having possibly lower levels of literacy, in comparison to expatriate students, along with a reliance on rote learning and less productive skills.

2.2.3.2 Tertiary education sector

Tertiary education is comparatively new to the UAE (Smith, 2006). The Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA) defines tertiary education institutions in Dubai as those being physically located in Dubai with either “a dedicated full-time faculty” or with faculty flown in from the parent university (KHDA, 2012, p. 3).

i. Federal tertiary institutions

The three major UAE government universities are the University of the United Arab Emirates (UAEU), Zayed University (ZU), and the Higher Colleges of Technology (HCT). These federally-funded public universities offer free tuition to a predominantly Emirati student base (KHDA, 2012; Smith, 2006; Stephenson, 2005). The first university, UAEU, was founded in Al Ain in 1976 with four colleges, and by the 2014/15 academic year had expanded to 10 colleges with around 1,000 teaching staff and 14,000 students (UAEU, 2015). The HCT system commenced with four colleges in 1988, and is currently the largest highest education institution in the UAE, with around 2,000 staff from 50 countries, and 20,000 national students based at 17 gender-segregated campuses across the UAE (HCT, 2015). ZU was established in 1998 in Abu Dhabi and Dubai, and currently has over 650 faculty and staff members from 35 different nationalities catering to around 8,000 students distributed across the two main campuses and satellite locations in Dubai (ZU, 2014, 2015).
ii. Private tertiary institutions

There has been exponential growth in the private tertiary education sector in the UAE (National Bureau of Statistics, 2009; Smith, 2006, 2009). The expansion of the higher education sector, along with the government’s strategic plan to make the UAE “a hub for international education” has resulted in strong competition among tertiary education providers, with entry into the market of major international universities (Smith, 2009, p. 467).

While some universities have shown good market penetration, there have been several high profile university closures. For example, George Mason University (GMU) announced the closure of its campus in Ras Al Khaimah in 2009, citing a number of issues including the global economic crisis (GMU, 2009). Just a year later, Michigan State University ceased all undergraduate programs after the loss of millions of dollars in its two years of operation (Swan, 2010). Following that, the University of Waterloo (UOW) announced that it was closing its Dubai campus in 2012, after only three years of operation, and relocating students to its home campus in Canada, due to lower than anticipated student enrolments which did not meet strategic targets (Bradshaw, 2012; UOW, 2012).

In 2012, a total of 50 private universities were registered in Dubai (KHDA, 2013), with thirty-two located in free-trade business parks in Dubai (KHDA, 2013). Companies operating from these freezones benefit from full foreign ownership, full profit repatriation, zero tax liability and simplified staff visa processing (Tecom, 2015). This is in contrast to the strict profit-sharing, ownership and labour laws which apply to companies operating outside freezones in the rest of the country (Kanna, 2010).

Tecom Investments was established in 2005 to build and manage a range of freezone business parks in Dubai (Tecom, 2015). Tecom’s educational freezones include Dubai International Academic City (DIAC), the world’s first freezone with a sole focus on higher education, and Dubai Knowledge Village (DKV), which includes universities and a range of other education providers (Tecom, 2015). The 24 universities and colleges on the DIAC and DKV campuses account for the majority of private foreign higher education institutions in Dubai (KHDA, 2013). Tecom also administers Dubai Healthcare City (DHCC), Dubai Media City (DMC), and Dubai Internet City (DIC) (Tecom, 2015).
These three freezones have a total of five universities, each focused on the particular industry of that freezone (KHDA, 2013).

Dubai International Financial Centre (DIFC) is home to two business and finance related institutions of higher education, while the final freezone is the technology-focused Dubai Silicon Oasis (DSO), which has one university (KHDA, 2013). In addition, a further 18 private universities are located outside the freezones (DSC, 2013b; KHDA, 2013).

As of 2015, the Commission for Academic Accreditation (CAA) reported a total of 79 active private and federal universities across the UAE which had been accredited by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MOHESR), including four which were on probation (CAA, 2015). In addition to these MOHESR accredited institutions, there are a number of other private universities which have not sought such accreditation. However, responsibility for accrediting higher education institutions in Dubai freezones was granted to KHDA in June 2011 by the Government of Dubai, which has implications for increased recognition of degrees in Dubai (KHDA, 2012).

It will be interesting to see if conferral of accreditation responsibility to KHDA leads to increased enrolments in the private freezone universities from Dubai’s government sector employees, as the municipalities previously only recognised CAA/MOHESR accredited degrees. If so, this has implications for increased enrolment of Emirati students, and potential issues for tertiary educators in terms of the issues outlined earlier regarding national students’ secondary education learning experiences.

2.2.3.3 Diversity of Dubai’s higher education sector

As noted in the Dubai demographic profile, there is considerable diversity in the population generally. This also holds true for the higher education sector in Dubai, which has a wide range of overseas institutions and a diverse range of nationalities of both teachers and students alike. Differences in these three areas are explored below.

i. Institution diversity

Table 1 below lists all 53 higher education institutions in Dubai by country of affiliation or curriculum, and by location or type of university (ie. private freezone, outside freezone or federal).
Table 1. Dubai higher education institutions by country of affiliation/curriculum and location/type (2015).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affiliation/curriculum</th>
<th>Higher education institutions in Dubai</th>
<th>Type/location</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Cambridge College International</td>
<td>Freezone DKV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Murdoch University</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SAE Institute</td>
<td>Freezone DKV</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SP Jain School of Global Management</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Wollongong</td>
<td>Freezone DKV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Canadian University in Dubai</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>French Fashion University ESMOD</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>Amity University</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Birla Institute of Technology and Science</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Institute of Management Technology</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manipal University</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>Islamic Azad University</td>
<td>Freezone DKV/DIAC</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland</td>
<td>Freezone DHCC</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>University of Saint-Joseph</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Shaheed Zulfikar Ali Blutto Institute of Science &amp; Tech.</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Saint-Petersburg University of Engineering &amp; Economics</td>
<td>Freezone DKV</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>European University College (Dental Medicine)</td>
<td>Freezone DHCC</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>Emirates Academy of Hospitality Management</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>Al Ghurair University</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Computer College</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dubai Medical College for Girls</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dubai Pharmacy College</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dubai Police Academy</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dubai School of Dental Medicine</td>
<td>Freezone DHCC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dubai School of Government</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emirates Aviation College</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emirates College for Management &amp; Info. Technology</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hamdan bin Mohamed e-University</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Higher Colleges of Technology (Dubai Men’s)</td>
<td>Federal</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Higher Colleges of Technology (Dubai Women’s)</td>
<td>Federal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imam Malik College</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Islamic and Arabic Studies College</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jumeira University</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Institute for Vocational Education</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Dubai</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Jazeera</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Modern Sciences (Biotechnology)</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zayed University</td>
<td>Federal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>British University in Dubai</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cass Business School (The City University)</td>
<td>Freezone DIFC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Heriot-Watt University</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>London Business School</td>
<td>Freezone DIFC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manchester Business School</td>
<td>Freezone DKV</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middlesex University</td>
<td>Freezone DKV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Bradford</td>
<td>Freezone DKV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Exeter</td>
<td>Freezone DKV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University of Strathclyde Business School</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>American College of Dubai</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American University in Dubai</td>
<td>Freezone DMC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American University in the Emirates</td>
<td>Freezone DIAC</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hult International Business School</td>
<td>Freezone DIFC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Michigan State University</td>
<td>Freezone DKV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rochester Institute of Technology</td>
<td>Freezone DSO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compiled from multiple sources: DIAC (2015); DSC (2013b); KHDA (2013); Tecom (2015).
Smith (2006) notes that private universities in the UAE tend to have close relations with overseas universities. Table 1 confirms this strong foreign connection; of the 50 private institutions in Dubai, two-thirds are foreign affiliated, with English as the predominant language of instruction. Analysis of overseas country of affiliation/curriculum also highlights the cultural diversity in higher education providers. The 33 private foreign universities are affiliated with a total of 13 individual countries: Australia, Canada, France, India, Iran, Ireland, Lebanon, Pakistan, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, UK and USA.

Further analysis of the country of affiliation/curriculum in Table 1 highlights a heavy Western/European presence. A total of 79% of the universities follow a Western/European curriculum (Australia, Canada, France, Ireland, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, UK and USA), 15% are from the subcontinent region (India and Pakistan), while the remaining 6% are from the Middle East region (Iran and Lebanon).

ii. Student diversity
The private universities cater for the large expatriate student population as well as Emirati students (Smith, 2006). As of 2015, the DIAC freezone campus had a student body of some 20,000 students representing a total of 125 nationalities (Tecom, 2015). This is in the context of a growing transnational education market, whereby students prefer to remain in the UAE rather than travel to the West for their tertiary education (Smith, 2009).

With almost 50,000 students registered in higher education programs in Dubai for 2013/14 (DSC, 2013c), enrolments are growing rapidly in Dubai, with an 11% increase in total student numbers in just one year (KHDA, 2013). Table 2 below shows the number of students enrolled in Dubai’s higher education sector in 2013/14 by nationality (Emirati or expatriate), gender and type of institution attended.

Analysis of Table 2 reveals that expatriate students account for 58% of Dubai’s total tertiary sector. There are also slightly more males overall (54%). There is a relatively even distribution between Emirati and expatriate students in private universities outside the freezones; however, there is a marked skew in the private universities inside the freezones with 94% of the population being expatriate. As mentioned earlier, the UAE federal sector caters predominantly for Emirati students and these data confirm this with 99% being national students in Dubai’s three federal institutions.
Table 2. Dubai higher education enrolled students by type of institution, nationality and gender (2013/14).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Outside freezones</th>
<th>Inside freezones</th>
<th>Federal</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emirati</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>7,970</td>
<td>672</td>
<td>2,760</td>
<td>11,402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>2,582</td>
<td>528</td>
<td>6,545</td>
<td>9,655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Emirati</td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>3,738</td>
<td>11,956</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>15,723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>5,397</td>
<td>7,625</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>13,099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emirati</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,552</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td>9,305</td>
<td>21,057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Emirati</td>
<td></td>
<td>9,135</td>
<td>19,581</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>28,822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>19,687</td>
<td>20,781</td>
<td>9,411</td>
<td>49,879</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: DSC (2013c) Courtesy of KHDA

iii. Teaching staff diversity

Private universities in Dubai usually recruit well-qualified and experienced academic staff; however, they are often unfamiliar with the campus of the home country (Smith, 2009). Table 3 below represents the total number of tertiary teaching staff at the 53 higher education institutions across Dubai in 2013/14 by nationality, gender and location. Comparison of employer type in Table 3 reveals that private universities account for 78% of the teaching staff, with half located inside the freezone. Nationality breakdown of teaching staff in Dubai’s higher education sector shows that expatriates account for 99% of the total teacher workforce. Analysing the expatriate workforce by gender reveals that there are more males overall (59%). Private universities employ significantly more males (63%), while the federal institutions have slightly more female teachers (55%).

Table 3. Dubai higher education teaching staff by institution type, nationality and gender (2013/14).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality and gender</th>
<th>Teaching staff location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nationality and gender</td>
<td>Outside freezone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emirati</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Emirati</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emirati total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Emirati total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: DSC (2013d), courtesy of KHDA.

iv. Fields of study diversity

Figure 2 below illustrates the fields of study in Dubai’s tertiary education sector. Business is overwhelmingly the most popular subject area (42%), and when combined with the Foundation studies (which are focused on English language and academic preparation
for business and other subjects), these two fields of study account for 50% of all student enrolments. With one half of Dubai’s tertiary education sector fields of study consisting of Business and Foundation studies, there is a strong rationale for confining the focus of this dissertation to these two areas. It will allow access to a large number of teaching staff, while at the same time enabling comparison of issues specific to these areas of specialisation. Media and design is the next most popular field of study (10%), followed by smaller enrolments of less than 10% each in the fields of engineering (9%), humanities (8%), law (7%), information technology (5%), and architecture and construction (3%). The category of “other” accounts for the final 5% of declared enrolments, and includes health and medicine, education, natural science, and tourism and hospitality.

![Fields of study](image)

**Figure 2. Fields of study in Dubai’s tertiary education sector (2012).**
Source: adapted from KHDA (2013, p. 11)

In summary, Dubai has a rich cultural heritage and has grown from humble beginnings to become a major destination for tourism, and a variety of businesses including a rapidly growing tertiary education sector. This sector is strongly influenced by transnational education, with 13 foreign countries represented in Dubai’s tertiary education sector, and a predominantly expatriate teaching workforce, and multi-national student body. To gain a perspective of these cultural influences on the tertiary education sector, the following section discusses the work conducted on national cultural differences.
2.3 National Cultural Differences

The review of Dubai’s tertiary education sector has revealed a high degree of cultural diversity in tertiary teacher and student demographics, and a strong Western influence in the academic institutions. Before investigating the academic literature on strategic human resource management and workplace motivation, it is useful to analyse national cultural differences to place this literature within the differing contexts.

Management in branch campuses “face environmental pressures to conform to the host country’s practices” (Farrugia & Lane, 2013, p. 418), with suggestions that a branch campus’s viability is linked to its “emergent organizational culture” (Tierny & Lanford, 2015, p. 284). There can be difficulty in meeting the expectations of expatriate staff members at international branch campuses, as in Tierny and Lanford’s (2015) case study of New York University (NYU) in Abu Dhabi. In this case, it was reported that the NYU professors were “used to an environment of shared governance”, with negotiations involving “free and open debate” in comparison to the privately conducted high-level strategic negotiations which are typical in the UAE (p. 292). When the secret negotiations between the Crown Prince of Abu Dhabi and the NYU President became public knowledge, the NYU faculty members were so incensed by the perceived “violation of the basic principle” and “top-down leadership style” that it lead to multiple votes of no confidence in the President (p. 292).

Similarly, Marginson (2011) notes key national cultural differences in the “Confucian education nations”, including but not limited to “Japan, Korea, China, Hong Kong China, Taiwan, Singapore and Vietnam” (p. 587), which “differ in key respects from those of higher education in Western Europe, the UK and the United States” (p. 594). Key features of the Confucian higher education system are “strong nation-state policy drivers and relatively close supervision and control, with more detailed shaping of executive agendas, educational priorities and research creativity from above than in the English-speaking systems and most of Western Europe” (Marginson, 2011, p. 594). As Marginson argues, “edgy university ideas and off-the wall invention achieve their full potential only when discussion and debate can also flourish” such as in “American creative cultures” (p. 607). National cultural differences such as these have led to Westerners working in Confucian education system to complain of issues similar to those raised by the NYU professors (Tierny & Lanford, 2015).
In the context of this study, Dubai “has ensured that it retains a distinct national identity” (Davidson, 2008, p. 2, cited in Lane, 2011, p. 371). As discussed in the previous section of this chapter, Dubai has a strong presence of international branch campuses from a variety of countries, which are all endeavouring to compete and grow in the UAE’s cultural setting. Some of these have heterogeneous management and faculty member populations. However, others are managed and staffed by more homogenous groups, with significantly different cultural backgrounds to that of both the UAE and the original parent campus (although no hard data are available to support this, it has been observed by the researcher, and is also based on anecdotal evidence of colleagues).

In contrast, in line with the national policy of Emiratisation, discussed later in the literature review, the composition of the senior strategic management teams of the government universities is now mostly Emirati, while the faculty member populations comprise of a diverse range of expatriates. For both the private and government institutions, this raises the issue of diverging national cultural differences in terms of expectations. For the above reasons, it was felt important to examine national cultural differences with respect to the countries represented in Dubai’s tertiary education sector.

Culture has been defined as “systems of values, attitudes, beliefs, and behavioral meanings shared by members of a social group (society) and learned from previous generations” (Thomas, Au, & Ravlin, 2003, p. 454). Culture can also be examined at the organisational or national level. Geerte Hofstede is a widely cited investigator of national cultural differences in the workplace. His 1983 article contains the findings of his 1968 to 1972 study of a multinational company with 116,000 participants from 50 individual countries and three regions (Arab world, East Africa and West Africa). Although Hofstede (1983) originally used a pseudonym for the company, later updates identified the company as IBM (see Grisham, 2006). Hofstede proposed four dimensions which explained differences in organisational structure and staff motivation within the context of national culture; namely, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, power-distance and uncertainty-avoidance.

Criticisms of Hofstede’s (1983) dimensions are: i) they do not effectively address universal values which cross both boundaries, such as wisdom and social justice.
(Schwartz, 1990), and ii) they aggregate countries from the “Arab world” into a homogenous data set (Ralston, Egri, Riddle, Butt, Dalgic, & Brock, 2012). Further work by Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) expanded the original research to a total of 70 countries, and included the results from the World Values Survey.

The characteristics of individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, power-distance and uncertainty-avoidance are presented in four tables below. The differences between the 14 countries representing the 53 universities in Dubai’s tertiary education sector are also analysed in four separate figures. Swiss results are presented from the updated data for French-speaking Switzerland, as results for Switzerland differ according to German or French influence (Hofstede et al., 2010).

### 2.3.1 Individualism-Collectivism

Table 4 below summarises the key characteristics of Hofstede’s (1983) national cultural dimensions with regard to individualism and collectivism. Countries with low scores on this dimension are collectivist and tend to be emotionally dependent on the organisation, and value group membership and group decision making. Privacy is less of an issue in collectivist countries, and duty and obligation is highly regarded. In contrast, individualistic countries are more focussed on self, with higher needs for privacy, autonomy and individual decision making. They are less emotionally dependent on the organisation, and place more importance on initiative and achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individualism-collectivism</th>
<th>Low (Collectivist)</th>
<th>High (Individualistic)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person focus</td>
<td>We – collective, extended family</td>
<td>Me – self and immediate family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation focus</td>
<td>Belonging and membership</td>
<td>Initiative, achievement &amp; leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependence</td>
<td>Emotionally dependent</td>
<td>Emotionally independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Privacy</td>
<td>Less important</td>
<td>More important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>From organisation</td>
<td>From self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freedom</td>
<td>Duty, obligation</td>
<td>Autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiring and promotion</td>
<td>Accounts for others’ perceptions</td>
<td>Merit based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment contract</td>
<td>Moral – considers relations</td>
<td>Mutual benefit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Adapted from Hofstede (1983, p. 62) and Hofstede et al. (2010).

Ralston et al. (2012) surveyed almost 1,000 managers who had been born and raised in Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Lebanon, Pakistan, Turkey and the UAE to determine managerial differences in collectivism, individualism and universalism across the countries. They found higher collectivism in the three Arab-Islamic nations of Algeria, Egypt and the
UAE in comparison to the other four countries. Of the three Arab-Islamic nations, the UAE displayed higher individualism and less universalism. This highlighted the rationale behind separating the “Arab world” group into separate countries.

Figure 3 below presents the individualism and collectivism scores for the 14 countries in Dubai’s tertiary education sector. Overall, the Western countries have high individualism scores in comparison to the non-Western countries. The USA, UK and Australia have the highest scores at around 90 each, indicating strong individualism. With a score of 14, Pakistan is the most collectivist of the group, followed by the UAE with the second lowest score overall at 25. With the UAE being such a highly collectivist country in comparison to the other Western countries, this may raise issues of cultural differences such as higher importance on group needs, in comparison to the West.

![Figure 3. Individualism-Collectivism dimensions in Dubai universities. Sources: Adapted from Hofstede (1983, p. 52) and Hofstede et al. (2010).](image)

2.3.2 Masculinity-Femininity

Table 5 below summarises the key characteristics of Hofstede’s (1983) national cultural dimensions with regard to masculinity and femininity. High scores on this dimension indicate that a country has a masculine orientation, with an associated focus on money and possessions, winning, assertiveness, and a hurried pace of life. Masculine cultures showcase their successes, and this plays a role in the workplace in terms of selecting individuals to hire or promote based on achievements (Hofstede et al., 2010). On the opposite side, low scores represent a more feminine profile, with a focus on a slower pace
of life, sympathy for those less fortunate, and more humility. Essentially, feminine cultures tend to focus more on life quality and caring for others, while masculine cultures are driven more by competition and success (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Table 5. Hofstede’s (1983) national cultural dimensions and key characteristics – masculinity-femininity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculinity-femininity</th>
<th>Low (feminine)</th>
<th>High (masculine)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People/objects focus</td>
<td>People</td>
<td>Money and objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Less important</td>
<td>More important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sympathy</td>
<td>Less fortunate</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>Humility – level with others</td>
<td>Achievement – strive for best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pace of life</td>
<td>Unhurried</td>
<td>Hurried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work profile</td>
<td>Work-life balance – quality</td>
<td>High importance on work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict resolution</td>
<td>Consensus and compromise</td>
<td>Resolve at individual level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Adapted from Hofstede (1983, p. 62) and Hofstede et al. (2010).

Figure 4 below presents the masculinity-femininity scores for the 14 countries in Dubai’s tertiary education sector.

![Figure 4. Masculinity-Femininity dimensions in Dubai universities.](image)

With a score of 5, Sweden ranks as a strongly feminine country, indicating an emphasis on quality of life, welfare, and a balance between work and play. France, Iran and Russia also fall within the feminine range. Within the rest of the Western group, with scores ranging from 61 to 68, Ireland, the UK, the USA and Australia all have relatively high masculine scores. Lebanon stands out from the non-Western group, with the third highest score overall, placing it as a masculine country. The UAE and Pakistan have similar mid-
range scores to Canada, while India is just above the mid-range, placing it as slightly more masculine.

2.3.3 Power-Distance
Table 6 below summarises the key characteristics of Hofstede’s (1983) national cultural dimensions with regard to power-distance. In high power-distance cultures, inequality and hierarchy are accepted and expected. There is also a clear distinction between subordinates and superiors, and blame tends to be attributed to people rather than the system. In contrast, low power-distance cultures are less tolerant of inequality, hierarchy is more for convenience rather than a due right, and social change is achieved through redistribution of power rather than by deposing the opposition. Given the recent ‘Arab Spring’ and the associated ongoing social and political changes occurring in countries such as Tunisia, Egypt, Libya, Syria and Yemen, it will be interesting to see the impact on future power-distance relationship scores for countries in the Arabic region.

Table 6. Hofstede's (1983) national cultural dimensions and key characteristics – power-distance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Power-distance</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inequality</td>
<td>Not accepted</td>
<td>Accepted privilege</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td>Created for convenience</td>
<td>Inequality expected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher positions</td>
<td>Viewed as equals – informal</td>
<td>Viewed as superior/different – formal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower positions</td>
<td>Viewed as equals – informal</td>
<td>Viewed as subordinate – formal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blame attribution</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>Subordinate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social system change</td>
<td>By redistributing power</td>
<td>By overthrowing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Shared, consultative</td>
<td>Top down, hierarchical, directive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>Distributed</td>
<td>Centralised</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Adapted from Hofstede (1983, p. 60) and Hofstede et al. (2010).

Figure 5 below presents the power-distance scores for the 14 countries in Dubai’s tertiary education sector. Russia has the overall highest score (93), followed by the UAE (90), indicating a very high acceptance of power-distance inequalities; this is currently reflected in the stability of the UAE’s political system. All Western countries, with the exception of France and French-speaking Switzerland, have low power-distance scores. This means that Australia, Canada, Ireland, Sweden, the UK and the USA are less accepting of inequality and the privileges associated with high rank. Hofstede et al. (2010) note that French employees tend to treat their managers more formally and afford them more privileges, hence the higher power-distance scores.
2.3.4 Uncertainty-Avoidance

Table 7 below summarises the key characteristics of Hofstede’s (1983) national cultural dimensions with regard to uncertainty-avoidance. Countries with low scores on this dimension are tolerant of uncertainty, ambiguity and risk, but tend to avoid emotional displays and aggression. They are also less nationalistic, and accept that rules should be changed if they cannot be kept, and that it is acceptable to express disagreement. In contrast, high scores on this dimension indicate a fear of uncertainty and risk, and a need for controls and clear guidance through rules and regulations. High scores also indicate a higher prevalence for emotional or aggressive displays, and a higher degree of nationalism.

Table 7. Hofstede’s (1983) national cultural dimensions and key characteristics – uncertainty-avoidance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uncertainty-avoidance</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty/ambiguity</td>
<td>Accepted as part of life</td>
<td>Viewed as a threat – need precision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk</td>
<td>Risk takers</td>
<td>Risk avoiders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Time is free</td>
<td>Time equals money – punctuality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggression</td>
<td>Not accepted</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional displays</td>
<td>Less</td>
<td>More</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bureaucracy</td>
<td>Less</td>
<td>More</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationalism</td>
<td>Less</td>
<td>More</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>Change rules if cannot be kept</td>
<td>Keep written rules at all costs – rigid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissent</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
<td>Not accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unorthodox ideas</td>
<td>More accepted</td>
<td>Less accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Adapted from Hofstede (1983, p. 61) and Hofstede et al. (2010).
Figure 6 below presents the uncertainty-avoidance scores for the 14 countries in Dubai’s tertiary education sector. Russia has the highest score overall (95), followed by France (86); both scores indicating a strong dislike of uncertainty. French-speaking Switzerland also stands out with a relatively high score of 70, highlighting the desire for precision and punctuality (Hofstede et al., 2010). The remaining Western countries have low uncertainty avoidance scores indicating higher tolerance for ambiguity. The UAE has the third highest score (80), and this risk avoidance is reflected in the high levels of bureaucracy and centralisation (Hofstede et al., 2010). Pakistan and Iran have the next highest scores in the non-Western group, which again places them as risk avoidant. Hofstede et al. (2010) highlight the lower level of tolerance for unorthodox ideas and the rigidity of rules in these two countries. In contrast, the mid-range Lebanese risk profile score is similar to Australia and Canada.

![Figure 6. Uncertainty-Avoidance dimensions in Dubai universities. Sources: Adapted from Hofstede (1983, p. 52) and Hofstede et al. (2010).](image)

### 2.3.5 Summary of national cultural differences

Overall, analysis of national cultural dimensions reveals significant differences between the UAE and its Western education partners. In particular, the UAE is collectivist, while the Western countries have an individualistic focus. Most of the countries have a masculine focus, placing an importance on a competitive work environment. Power-distance scores revealed that the UAE has a high tolerance for inequality and hierarchy, compared to its Western counterparts. The UAE also has a much higher risk aversion...
than the majority of other countries. These differences highlight the importance of separating the literature into Western and non-Western, as will be done throughout the subsequent literature review, and also for examining the cultural influences on the expatriate teaching staff as part of the dissertation’s research focus.

2.4 Strategic HRM Literature Review
This section discusses the research literature on strategic HRM. It commences with an introduction to strategic HRM practice and definition of key terms, and follows with a synthesis of the key research studies conducted on strategic HRM in Western, Asian and Middle Eastern countries. The primary focus of the Western and Asian literature is on organisational profitability and success, while the Middle Eastern research focuses on key strategic and cultural challenges facing HR managers in the region.

2.4.1 Introduction to strategic HRM practice
The strategic management process can be defined as “the set of ongoing decisions and work activities in which managers engage as they plan, organise, lead and control” (Robbins, Bergman, Stagg, & Coulter, 2003, p. 11), while business strategy generally includes vision, mission, goals, values and stakeholders (Littler & Lewis, 2005). Thompson, Strickland, and Gamble (2005) list an organisation’s top two strategic priorities as: i) developing strategy to ensure long term competitive positioning, and ii) adapting to changing market conditions, customer needs, emerging technology and competitors’ strategies. Competitive advantage through production capacity, research and development, financial resources, effective distribution channels and economies of scale are all necessary elements for organisational success, with the people element being the most important determinant (Vokic & Vidovic, 2008). Numerous researchers highlight the competitive advantages which arise from devolving the strategic management function from senior managers to line managers and work teams (eg. Bonn & Christodoulou, 1996; Ginsberg, 1997; Mintzberg, 1994; Taylor, 1997). With regard to the academic profession, strategy should be implemented “at the closest possible point to teaching and learning” (Kettunen & Kantola, 2006, p. 257). Organisational performance can be measured by comparisons with competitors, market share growth, sales growth, product sales, and return on assets and investment (Matsuno, Mentzer, & Rentz, 2005). At an individual level, performance outcomes can be measured by enhanced employee knowledge, skills, abilities, motivation or commitment (Vanhala & Tuomi, 2006).
In terms of competitive advantages offered to a company, regardless of the type of industry, researchers have consistently “uncovered the disproportionate effects of talent” (Groysberg, Sant, & Abrahams, 2008, p. 41). Schalm (2010) estimates that it takes an average of three years before an employee generates a good return on investment, with equal amounts of time to both learn the job and then become proficient, highlighting the critical importance of effective retention strategies. This is of specific interest to this dissertation due to the highly competitive environment within which Dubai’s private universities are currently operating.

2.4.2 HRM research from Western and Asian countries

There has been extensive research interest on the impact of a variety of HRM practices on company performance (Delaney & Huselid 1996; Tutuncu & Kozak, 2007). In examining the Strategic HRM literature, two major theoretical approaches were found: ‘best practice’ and ‘best fit’. Stredwick (2013) defines the ‘best practice’ approach as establishing a group of practices which are deemed to lead to improved organisational performance, while the ‘best fit’ approach considers the context, vision and values of an organisation. In comparing these two approaches, it is important to note that “what works well in one organisation may fail dismally in another”; for example, the use of pay incentives would be a less likely motivator for improved staff performance in the voluntary sector compared to the manufacturing sector (Stredwick, 2013, p. 29). An overview of some of the numerous research studies on HRM practices and organisational profitability, presented in chronological order over the past two decades, reveals a predominantly Western focus, and diverse approaches taken in terms of variables used.

Long-term organisational profitability has been linked with personnel policies, including rewards, grievance procedures and employee training (Narver & Slater, 1990), and departmental conflict and connectedness, commitment to the organisation, rewards, and ‘esprit de corps’ (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). Reukert (1992) correlated profitability with training and compensation practices, and resultant employee satisfaction, intention to leave and trust in management. According to Pfeffer (1998), companies achieved better long-term organisational profitability by: i) practising selective recruitment, ii) having high salaries and benefits, iii) offering ongoing training and development, iv) promoting from within, v) encouraging information sharing, vi) empowering staff through self-managed teams, vii) establishing clear job roles and expectations, and viii) creating environments where employees felt secure.
The nature of the work relationship has also changed over the past two decades. Roehling, Cavanaugh, Moynihan, and Boswell (2000) conducted a content analysis of 51 articles published between 1995 and 2000 which explored key strategic changes in the work environment. The new work relationships were characterised by flexibility, commitment, trust, fairness and respect. The most common themes identified, from the perspective of employer responsibility, and in order of reported occurrence, were: i) professional development opportunities, ii) empowerment and participative decision making, iii) effective communication channels, iv) remuneration based on performance, v) mentoring and coaching to assist with career management, vi) meaningful, stimulating work, vii) job security based on employee’s contribution, viii) work/life balance, ix) feedback on performance, x) promotional opportunities, xi) non-financial rewards and recognition, and xii) cooperative and friendly work environment.

Following interviews with more than one million employees over two decades, the Gallup Organisation identified the following workplace strength measures which directly linked to productivity, profitability, retention and customer satisfaction: i) clear roles and expectations, ii) sufficient resources to do the job, iii) working to strengths, with regular feedback on progress, iv) regular recognition and encouragement, v) treated as individual, vi) opportunity to contribute opinions, vii) focus on work/company mission and quality, viii) teamwork/belonging, and ix) opportunity to learn and grow (Collins, 2001).

Research in the last decade also supports earlier findings, particularly regarding training and professional development linkages with organisational vision (Castro, Armario, & Rio, 2005; Jacobs, Jones, & Neil, 2006; Vargo & Lusch, 2004), along with the importance of empowerment and teamwork (Birdi, Clegg, Patterson, Robinson, Stride, Wall, et al., 2008). If an organisation has a reputation of offering superior career and professional development opportunities, it is more likely to gain a competitive advantage due to its enhanced ability to attract and retain quality staff (Younger, Smallwood, & Ulrich, 2007).

Strategic HRM research has also focussed on organisational profitability in Asia, with two large-scale HRM studies conducted in China and Taiwan. Both countries display similar national cultural tendencies to the UAE in terms of high collectivism scores (see Hofstede et al., 2010). Cooke (2008) analysed HRM practices of 30 of the top 50 Chinese private companies in 2004, and found training and development, promotion through competence, and welfare benefits were key determinants of organisational success. Wang
and Shyu (2008) studied performance indices of 181 Taiwanese manufacturing firms and surveyed employees on the recruitment and selection process, training and development opportunities, performance appraisal and appeals process, work environment, compensation and benefits, and job security. They concluded that a “firm's competitive advantage can be enhanced by HRM practices and strategy fit” (p. 99). Table 8 below summarises the key organisational profitability factors identified by researchers in the review of Western and Asian strategic HRM literature.

Table 8. Key factors identified by researchers in the Western and Asian strategic HRM literature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Researchers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Appeals and grievance process (including fairness)</td>
<td>Narver &amp; Slater (1990); Roehling et al. (2000); Wang &amp; Shyu (2008) Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care / treated as individual / respect</td>
<td>Collins (2001); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear job roles and expectations</td>
<td>Collins (2001); Pfeffer (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment / loyalty</td>
<td>Jaworski &amp; Kohli (1993); Kohli &amp; Jaworski (1990); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication - participative decision making, able to contribute ideas</td>
<td>Collins (2001); Pfeffer (1998); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer focus</td>
<td>Castro et al. (2005); Roehling et al. (2000); Vargo &amp; Lusch (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment (including self-managed teams and ability to use initiative)</td>
<td>Birdi et al. (2008); Pfeffer (1998); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback / performance appraisal</td>
<td>Collins (2001); Roehling et al. (2000); Wang &amp; Shyu (2008) Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdepartmental conflict and connectedness</td>
<td>Jaworski &amp; Kohli (1993); Kohli &amp; Jaworski (1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>Pfeffer (1998); Roehling et al. (2000); Wang &amp; Shyu (2008) Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaningful, stimulating work with opportunity to learn and grow</td>
<td>Collins (2001); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotional opportunities (including internal promotion and competence-based)</td>
<td>Cooke (2008) China; Pfeffer (1998); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality focus</td>
<td>Collins (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reputation as offering superior career and professional development opportunities</td>
<td>Younger et al. (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards and recognition (non-financial)</td>
<td>Collins (2001); Jaworski &amp; Kohli (1993); Kohli &amp; Jaworski (1990); Narver &amp; Slater (1990); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary and benefits (including performance based incentives)</td>
<td>Cooke (2008) China; Pfeffer (1998); Reukert (1992); Roehling et al. (2000); Wang &amp; Shyu (2008) Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork</td>
<td>Collins (2001); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training / professional development / mentoring / coaching</td>
<td>Birdi et al. (2008); Castro et al. (2005); Cooke (2008) China; Jacobs et al. (2006); Narver &amp; Slater (1990); Pfeffer (1998); Reukert (1992); Roehling et al. (2000); Vargo &amp; Lusch (2004); Wang &amp; Shyu (2008) Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust in management</td>
<td>Reukert (1992); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vision and mission (employees understanding business and working towards achieving goals)</td>
<td>Castro et al. (2005); Collins (2001); Roehling et al. (2000); Vargo &amp; Lusch (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work environment generally</td>
<td>Wang &amp; Shyu (2008) Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working to strengths</td>
<td>Collins (2001); Roehling et al. (2000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The research highlighted in Table 8 shows that training and development, salary and benefits (both financial and non-financial rewards), and providing a secure, trusting, and fair work environment are key personnel policies which can enhance an organisation’s success. The job itself should be clearly defined, with opportunities to grow and advance within the organisation, while the organisational culture should encourage initiative, open communication and participative decision making. Additionally, staff members should be selectively recruited, and empowered to work to their strengths in order to achieve organisational goals and provide a quality customer service. Despite the wide range of factors identified above, after two decades of intensive research, HRM best practices and their link with organisational performance remain “problematic to define and measure” (Vanhala & Tuomi, 2006, p. 241). Nevertheless, despite these difficulties in defining and measuring organisational or individual performance outcomes, it is clearly advantageous for an organisation to ensure that the best and most productive staff are recruited and retained.

2.4.3 HRM research from Middle Eastern countries

In contrast to the wealth of research in Western countries, there is considerably less research on strategic HRM practices in the Middle East. In addition, the focus has been on pinpointing key issues facing the region rather than on linking employee related factors to organisational profitability. This section discusses the HRM research undertaken in recent years in the Middle East. Noting a lack of research on HRM practices in the Middle East within the context of both national culture of individual countries and external influencing factors, there was a flurry of research in 2007, which explored potential issues to be addressed by HRM policy makers in the Middle East in general, and Bahrain, Egypt, Jordan, Oman, Saudi Arabia, and the UAE, specifically. These studies and the key issues highlighted are summarised below.

In a detailed review of HRM literature from the Middle East, Budhwar and Mellahi (2007) identified a small number of prior studies over the previous two decades which had attempted to examine either the transfer of Western management practices to the region, or the impact of Arab culture, values and religion on Middle Eastern workplaces. However, Budhwar and Mellahi (2007) contend that although there are many parallels in approaches to management practices across countries in the Middle East region, there are also several differences between countries which are due to factors not associated with national culture, so results cannot be generalised.
Legislative changes were found to have impacted HRM practices in Saudi Arabia, the UAE and Oman. Researchers in Saudi Arabia highlighted recent labour law reforms with implications for employers to increase employee rights and protection (Mellahi, 2007). Job security for expatriate workers was found to be a factor, due to the implementation of government programs to boost employment of national staff in the UAE (Rees, Mamman, & Braïk, 2007), Saudi Arabia (Mellahi, 2007) and Oman (Al-Hamadi, Budhwar, & Shipton, 2007). HRM practices in Oman were influenced by a mixture of cultural and non-cultural factors which, in order of reported importance, were: religion, the expatriate workforce, customs and family, organisational culture, and the value of an overseas education (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). Metcalfe (2007) reinforced the cultural influence of Islam in shaping HRM policies for women in Bahrain, and recommended incorporating gender issues in future HRM policy development.

In their analysis of Egyptian workplace practices, Leat and El-Kot (2007) found that HRM practices were influenced by a combination of sociocultural and external factors. The sociocultural influences included collectivist tendencies, such as preference for team-based training, and the influence of the Islamic work ethic, while factors external to the Egyptian culture were a higher prevalence performance-based salary increases and formalised performance appraisals, and a wider acceptance of Western management practices generally. Abu-Doleh and Weir (2007) found similar external Western influenced changes to HRM practices in Jordan, as private organisations relied more on information from the performance appraisal process to determine promotions, terminations and training needs.

The following two studies from the UAE identified general issues associated with job quality in Dubai, and the cultural issues faced by Western expatriate managers in working with Arabic staff. In the first study, Connell et al. (2008) interviewed three HR professionals, who had been living in the UAE for between four and seventeen years, to determine their perspectives on recruitment issues in the UAE. Although the study lacked a theoretical underpinning, and relied on essentially anecdotal evidence from three participants, the researchers highlighted issues which may prove valuable in investigating job quality in the UAE:

- Dubai’s high cost of living, resulting in job seekers’ emphasis on salary and benefits.
- Dubai’s traffic congestion problems, impacting upon the distances employees are prepared to travel to work.
- Long work hours, with some organisations requiring staff to work a six-day, forty-eight hour week.
- Job insecurity, with many UAE expatriate staff on short-term (three-year average) temporary contracts.
- Difficulties in finding suitably qualified staff to fill available vacancies.

In the second UAE study, Cerimagic (2010) surveyed expatriate Australian project managers, in the context of Hofstede’s dimensions, to gain insights into cultural influences at play. She noted that UAE staff preferred a more direct supervision style in comparison to the more hands-off approach favoured by the Australian staff. She recommended patience, as time was less critical to the Arab staff. She also highlighted the importance of saving face, and recommended a less confrontational approach when counselling staff members on work issues. Finally, she noted that in the UAE, relationships are prioritised over work. Her recommendations included pre-arrival and on-site cross-cultural training which focuses on UAE culture, religion, laws, ethics, and living conditions, along with networking to increase the managers’ successful adaptation to the environment.

In summary, the literature review confirmed the lack of research identified by previous researchers on strategic HRM in the Middle East. The research has not focused on HRM practices linked to organisational profitability, as in the Western and Asian literature, but rather on the influence of culture, religion and Western management practices in workplaces. Key strategic issues facing HR managers in the Middle Eastern region include the role of women in the workforce in Bahrain, expatriate job insecurity due to short-term contracts in the UAE, and nationalisation strategies in the UAE, Saudi Arabia and Oman. Job quality issues were also identified relating specifically to Dubai.

2.5 **Work Motivation Background**

A renewed interest in work motivation has come about due to increased global competition, changing workplace dynamics, and substantial growth in the service industry with its associated focus on employees as assets (Bjorklund, 2001). Although there is a marked overlap between variables identified in the strategic HRM and work motivation research fields, the primary difference is the focus of the two areas of research.
The strategic HRM research in the Western and Asian literature reviewed thus far has focused on linkages between ‘best practice/fit’ HRM policies and organisational success, while the work motivation field focuses on causal relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee turnover.

The following section briefly introduces the most widely known motivation theories, and critiques them in the context of their workplace application. A literature review then follows, which is broken into Western versus non-Western research, and general industry versus educational industry. The primary aim of the following literature review is to ascertain key environmental and demographic factors identified through motivation research studies, which may have useful application for determining issues facing teachers in Business and Foundation Business faculties in Dubai’s culturally diverse tertiary education sector.

2.5.1 Motivation theories
At a simple level, motivation can be described as “the psychological processes that cause the energising, direction and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed” (Werner & DeSimone, 2006, p. 665). A more work specific explanation can be found in an earlier definition from Pinder (1998, p. 11) who defines work motivation as “a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration”. Locke and Latham (2004) advise that a newcomer’s reaction to the field of motivation studies is sometimes one of “bewilderment at the enormous variety of concepts and approaches” (p. 389). The numerous motivation theories developed over the past decades, can be broadly divided into needs/content theories and cognitive process theories (Abdulla et al., 2011; Bjorklund, 2001; McShane & Travaglione, 2005). Content or needs theories focus on factors that motivate people, while process theories focus on how to motivate (Erez & Isen, 2002).

2.5.1.1 Key content theories
The majority of content theories were developed in the 1950s and 60s. Two were based on a hierarchical model of needs (Maslow and Alderfer), while Herzberg took a more job content approach, separating variables into extrinsic and intrinsic influences. Still focussing on needs, McClelland moved beyond the primary needs to examine learned needs. The final approach was developed in the 1970s by Hackman and Oldham, and
expanded Herzberg’s work on job content. These key content theories and approaches are outlined below.

i. **Maslow’s (1954) Hierarchy of Needs Theory** has an underlying premise that satisfaction of needs moves through progressive stages from physiological, security and belongingness to esteem and self-actualisation (Maslow, 1954). The workplace application is as follows: i) physiological needs are met by the work environment, such as: air-conditioning, heating and access to food and drink; ii) security includes workplace safety, job security, salary and benefits; iii) social needs cover relationships with co-workers and supervisors; iv) self-esteem includes respect and recognition; and finally, v) self-actualisation addresses professional development, challenging and creative work, and growth and advancement (Dalton, Hoyle, & Watts, 2010). Maslow’s theory has been largely discounted, as research has found that meeting one need does not necessarily result in progression to the next level (McShane & Travaglione, 2005).

ii. **Alderfer's (1967) ERG Theory** reduces Maslow’s categories from five to three, and allows both progression and regression through the model in contrast to Maslow’s one direction (McShane & Travaglione, 2005; Werner & De Simone, 2006). The three categories are: existence (pay and benefits), relatedness (emotional states and respect), and growth needs (using talents and skills), with each need category measured by strength of desire and level of satisfaction derived (Alderfer, 1967). The two-way movement through the model provides a more accurate picture for explaining changing employee needs (McShane & Travaglione, 2005).

iii. **Herzberg’s (1959, 1966) Motivator-Hygiene (Two Factor) Theory** expands Maslow’s Theory into a more work specific context (Dalton et al., 2010), and is based on the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic factors on employee motivation (Herzberg, 1966, 1968; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). It theorises that motivators such as job content, recognition and other intrinsic factors lead to motivation and satisfaction, while extrinsic hygiene factors such as pay, benefits, work relationships and environment lead to dissatisfaction if they are absent but not motivation if they are present (Herzberg, 1968; McShane & Travaglione, 2005). The hygiene or maintenance factors can be mapped onto Maslow’s three
lower order needs, while the motivators match Maslow’s self-esteem and self-actualisation needs (Dalton et al., 2010). After some review, Herzberg found that only recognition, achievement, job content, responsibility and advancement were useful for predicting increases in satisfaction or decreases in dissatisfaction (Hagedorn, 2000). Herzberg (1968) also highlighted the importance of job enrichment. Although support has been found regarding the motivating effects of job enrichment, the validity of Herzberg’s theory has been challenged by numerous researchers (Werner & De Simone, 2006).

iv. **McClelland’s (1955) Learned (Acquired) Needs Theory** proposes that needs result from “early personality development” and “cultural exposure”, and more specifically that needs for achievement, affiliation and power are learned (Dalton et al., 2010, p. 73). While Maslow, Alderfer and Herzberg focused on “primary or instinctive needs”, McClelland examined secondary or learned needs (McShane & Travaglione, 2005, p. 152). Achievement needs include challenging goals, responsibility, and feedback, affiliation needs relate to work relationships, while power concerns influence, authority and autonomy (Dalton et al., 2010). The applications to the work setting are that individuals have either high or low desires for each of the three needs, which impacts on work behaviour and job choice, and that learned needs can be reshaped and improved through training (McShane & Travaglione, 2005).

v. **Hackman and Oldham’s (1976) Job Characteristic Model** is an extension of Herzberg’s Theory (Locke & Latham, 2004), and delineates a job in terms of its characteristics of: i) task variety (the job requires different skills), ii) task identity (completion of a whole task), iii) task significance (impact), iv) autonomy (freedom), and v) feedback (on performance) (Werner & De Simone, 2006). The intrinsic motivation aspect of this theory focuses on enriching the job so it has meaning, with the employee having accountability and responsibility, and receiving feedback to determine the results of their efforts (Roby, 2012). In order to improve an individual’s work performance or attitude, this theory advocates the benefits of altering job characteristics rather than the person themself (Werner & De Simone, 2006). There has been some research support for task variety, autonomy, and feedback correlations with work outcomes; however, task significance and task identity have received less support (Abu Elanain, 2009).
Summary of key content theories

The key factors from all five content theories are summarised below in Figure 7. In essence, the factors can be divided into two sections, with the top section being intrinsic motivators, and the bottom, extrinsic. The figure shows how Maslow’s Hierarchy was reduced from five to three factors by Alderfer’s ERG theory, and to only two factors by Herzberg. McClelland’s needs for achievement and power lie within the upper spectrum of intrinsic motivators, while the need for affiliation is more aligned with extrinsic motivators relating to the influence of other people, similar to Maslow’s belongingness and Alderfer’s relatedness. Hackman and Oldham’s five job characteristics deal with intrinsic job enrichment factors, and fit with Maslow’s two higher order needs, Alderfer’s growth, Herzberg’s motivators, and McClelland’s need for achievement and power.

Overall, difficulties have been found in testing and applying needs-based motivation theories, and as such they have not received much support in the motivation research literature (Werner & De Simone, 2006). However, they do provide some understanding of factors which influence behaviour (Werner & De Simone, 2006).

2.5.1.2 Key process theories

While the above content theories focus on an individual’s needs, the following theories focus on the cognitive processing which influences motivation, through “conscious thoughts, beliefs and judgments” (Werner & De Simone, 2006, p. 49). Two major theories in this area were developed in the 1960s by Adams and Vroom, which related to concepts of equity and expectancy, respectively. Some twenty years later, Bandura (1982) proposed a social learning theory, followed another decade later by Locke’s theory of goal setting. These four main theories are summarised below.
i. *Adams*’ (*1963*) *Equity Theory* is concerned with perceptions of fair treatment, as an individual compares their own inputs and outcomes with others (Locke & Latham, 2004). There is some support in the literature regarding predicted behaviour for under-reward; however, less support has been reported for over-reward predictions (Werner & De Simone, 2006). Additionally, individual differences exist with respect to views on equity, such as ‘benevolent’ versus ‘entitled’ personality types (McShane & Travaglione, 2005; Miles, Hatfield, & Huseman, 1994), along with national cultural variations due to differences in power-distance and collectivist-individualist profiles (Hofstede, 1983; McShane & Travaglione, 2005).

ii. *Vroom’s* (*1964*) *Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy Theory* builds on the earlier work of Maslow, Hertzberg and McClelland, and links effort to performance, and performance to outcomes (Dalton et al., 2010). It proposes that employees direct efforts towards behaviours they expect can be performed well, and that this effort is directly connected to (or instrumental in) either achieving desired outcomes (positive valence) or avoiding undesirable outcomes (negative valence) (McShane & Travaglione, 2005; Vroom, 1964; Werner & De Simone, 2006). Although difficult to test, because it must predict a variety of potential performance levels and outcomes, Vroom’s theory has received some support in the literature, particularly with regard to the motivating effects of performance to outcome expectancies (McShane & Travaglione, 2005).

iii. *Bandura’s* (*1986*) *Social Learning Theory* builds on his earlier work on the importance of self-efficacy (see Bandura, 1977, 1982), and links thought and actions with social influences (Bandura, 1986). Social learning theory proposes that an individual’s belief about the degree to which they can successfully perform an activity is a motivating force linked to task performance, and this theory has had some useful applications in behavioural modelling training (Werner & De Simone, 2006).

iv. *Locke’s* (*1997*) *Goal-Setting Theory* and the revised *Locke and Latham’s* (*2002*) *Goal-Setting Theory* posit that consciously set goals act as task performance motivators (Locke & Latham, 2004). The goals should be specific, relevant, challenging and achievable, and should include employee participation in setting
the goal, as well as feedback on results (McShane & Travaglione, 2005). Of all the work motivation theories, goal-setting has received the most support (Werner & De Simone, 2006).

**Summary of key process theories**

To summarise, the four process theories recommend different approaches for motivating staff. These include treating employees fairly (Adams), establishing links between effort and outcome (Vroom), increasing an employee’s belief they can change prior learning (Bandura), and finally setting clear performance goals (Locke).

**2.5.1.3 Other theoretical approaches**

In addition to the above needs-based content and cognitive-based process theories, there are a number of other approaches from the psychology literature. These include behaviourism and personality-based approaches. Reinforcement theory is an example of a behaviourist approach with a focus on behaviour modification, which has influenced many human resource development programs, and which has also received support from research literature (Werner & De Simone, 2006).

Personality-based approaches have analysed the influence on work motivation of conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness to experience, agreeableness and extroversion, known as the ‘Big Five’ personality dimensions (Caligiuri, 2000; McShane & Travaglione, 2005). Although the personality-based approaches have waxed and waned in popularity over the years (Locke & Latham, 2004), some support has been found, with conscientiousness being one of the more reliable predictors of job performance (Locke & Latham, 2004; McShane & Travaglione, 2005).

Individual traits such as ‘A’ type personalities have also been shown to contribute to increased stress in industry (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996), and the teaching profession (Jepson & Forrest, 2006). Type ‘A’ behavioural dispositions include impatience, fast speech, and poor listening skills, with these individuals reportedly having a higher incidence of heart disease in comparison to their Type ‘B’ colleagues, who have a calmer, more relaxed demeanour and steady workplace (McShane & Travaglione, 2005). Fatigue and high job demands have been correlated with lower job satisfaction and intention to leave (Glazer & Beehr, 2005; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In a number of studies in the
education field, teacher stress and burnout due to environmental factors have been linked with attrition (Jepson & Forrest, 2006).

2.5.1.4 Measuring work motivation
Following on from the key approaches identified above, the question remains, how do you measure employee motivation? This section identifies and defines the most common dependent and independent variables which have been examined in industry research on motivation to clarify potential variables which may be useful for determining staff satisfaction in the dissertation.

i. Dependent variables - satisfaction, commitment and turnover
The study of motivation is useful for explaining factors that influence an individual’s job satisfaction, work performance, organisational commitment, absenteeism and turnover intentions (Bjorklund, 2001). Some researchers have also focused on volitional approaches to motivation, examining how willing a person is to work (Bjorklund, 2001), and Locke and Latham (2004) suggest that analysis of volition could be a useful direction for future research into motivation. Of the above variables, the most widely researched are job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions, with job satisfaction leading the field (Adonisi, 2003; Behery & Paton, 2008; Currivan, 1999).

While satisfaction, commitment, and turnover are considered dependent variables in this thesis enquiry, they can be independent variables in other research enquiry depending on the nature of the research questions under examination. The concepts of job satisfaction and commitment relate to an employee’s attitudes (Currivan, 1999), and numerous studies have found strong correlations between organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996), although causal directions have been much debated (Currivan, 1999).

Job satisfaction is essentially how much someone likes their job (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996) or “a person’s attitude regarding their job and work content” (McShane & Travaglione, 2005, p. 660). Organisational commitment involves a worker’s attachment to their organisation (McShane & Travaglione, 2005), and includes the concept of loyalty (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996). It is the extent to which an employee identifies with and involves themselves in their organisation, in terms of accepting the organisation’s objectives and beliefs, being prepared to work hard to achieve those goals, and aspiring
to be a good member of the organisation (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Allen and Meyer (1990) refined the definition into three concepts of affective, normative and continuance commitment, which considered, respectively, the emotional attachment, perceived cost of leaving, and feelings of obligation to stay.

In contrast to job satisfaction and organisational commitment, turnover intention refers to an employee’s behaviour, and this measure is frequently used in studies as a proxy for attrition due to the difficulty in obtaining actual turnover data (Currivan, 1999). Turnover intention includes “thinking of quitting, intention to search and intention to quit” (Abu Elanain, 2009, p. 460). This is particularly relevant to strategic HRM, as Bjorklund (2001) notes high absence rates and high turnover can be very expensive for an organisation. There is a link between all three variables in that dissatisfied employees often become less committed at work and may either withdraw mentally from their work or seek external offers (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012). A large body of research evidence also correlates the attitudinal factors of job dissatisfaction and organisational commitment with the behaviour of turnover intention (Currivan, 1999; Egan, Yang, & Bartlett, 2004; Keiser, 2007; Saari & Judge, 2004).

ii. Independent variables

As with the strategic HRM research field, a wide range of variables have been studied in the motivation research field, and there is a repetition of factors between both fields of study. However, as mentioned earlier, the research objectives differed, with an HRM focus on identifying employee related factors leading to organisational success, and a work motivation research focus on factors which underlie an employee’s job satisfaction, commitment and turnover intention.

With intrinsic motivation, employees work because they are interested in and enjoy the job, rather than being motivated by external or extrinsic rewards or benefits (Lauber & Wimer, 2008). A number of early work motivation research studies established that job satisfaction was positively correlated to both intrinsic job characteristics (such as challenging work, recognition, autonomy and the nature of the work itself), and extrinsic job characteristics (such as job security, income, promotional opportunities and working conditions) (Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003).
In 1967, a team from Minnesota University identified 20 key job satisfaction factors which they separated into intrinsic or extrinsic influences in their Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). This was subsequently revised into a short form questionnaire ten years later (University of Minnesota, 2012). The MSQ intrinsic factors relate to the job role in terms of level of activity, variety, creativity and opportunity to demonstrate abilities, amount of autonomy and responsibility, ethical values and the ability to help others, and finally, sense of achievement derived from the work (Weiss et al., 1967). In contrast, their extrinsic factors relate to the work environment, and include job security, pay and benefits, interactions with colleagues and supervisors, and management policies and procedures. Weiss et al. opined that these satisfaction variables applied to a range of industries, including the teaching profession.

In their review of the work motivation literature, Randeree and Chaudhry (2012) listed the following independent variables as the most frequently used across a variety of industries in the context of employee satisfaction and organisational commitment: i) demographic variables (eg. age, gender, qualifications, length of employment, type of organisation), ii) effective communication, iii) employer reputation and level of professionalism, iv) job achievement, v) job autonomy, vi) job importance, vii) job security, viii) rewards and recognition, ix) salaries and benefits, x) supervisor support, xi) teamwork and colleague relationships, xii) workplace conditions and organisational climate, and xiii) workplace flexibility.

Abdulla et al. (2011) reiterate many of the above factors and add promotional opportunities and performance appraisal fairness. Fields, Dingman, Roman, and Blum (2005) also reviewed scholarly articles on employee turnover across a variety of industries and reported the most common correlations were with security, skill level, variety, autonomy, pay and benefits, supervision, current performance rating and stress. A number of other industry motivation researchers have also found direct correlations between job satisfaction and stress resulting from ambiguous roles, highlighting the importance of clear job roles and expectations (Murray, Murray, & Summar, 2000).

As well as the intrinsic and extrinsic work influences identified above, other factors impact upon an employee’s motivation such as “personality, culture, …current life situation, and socialization experiences” (Lauber & Wimer, 2008, p. 36). Research on
gender differences has revealed mixed results, as it seems that gender satisfaction is context and culture specific. The subsequent literature review highlights these gender differences in the varying contexts.

The age of employees has an impact on workplace behaviour. Dalton et al. (2010, p. 83) describe the generally accepted differences in workplace behaviour of ‘traditionalists’ (born prior to 1946), ‘baby boomers’ (1946 to 1964), ‘generation X’ (1965 to 1979), and ‘generation Y’ and subsequent cohorts (1980 onwards). ‘Traditionalists’ tend to be loyal with well-developed work ethics, ‘baby boomers’ prefer meaningful, rewarding, challenging, flexible work, while subsequent generations tend to be less conformist and more likely to change jobs when bored (Dalton et al., 2010). Age differences have been confirmed in satisfaction and commitment studies. For example, older workers and those with longer tenure have generally been found more satisfied than younger workers (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996) and more committed (Lok & Crawford, 2001).

Table 9 below summarises the variables identified above which have been used to measure workplace motivation. Essentially, they can be divided into intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, demographic variables and other situational factors. Intrinsic motivators are the internal factors related to the nature of work which fit within the theories of higher order needs (Maslow), growth (Alderfer), job enrichment motivators (Herzberg), learned needs for power and achievement (McClelland), and job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham). In contrast, the extrinsic motivators (or overall hygienes, according to Herzberg), are related to the work environment. These include working conditions, pay, benefits, and management policies (Maslow’s physiological and safety needs, and Alderfer’s existence needs). The influence of co-workers and supervisors is linked to Maslow’s concept of belongingness, Alderfer’s relatedness, and McClelland’s affiliation.

Table 9 also shows that as well as demographic variables relating to the individual, additional organisational variables have been controlled for when measuring motivation, such as type of organisation (eg. service, manufacturing, education), and type of department (eg. finance or marketing). Other situational factors external to the organisation also influence work motivation, such as cultural background, current life situation, prior work experience and socialisation influences.
Table 9. Common independent variables used when measuring workplace motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic work motivators</th>
<th>Extrinsic work motivators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ability to help others - meaningful work - job impact - significance - importance</td>
<td>co-worker interactions/affiliations - colleague relationships - teamwork</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>achievement - sense of accomplishment - fulfillment - meeting/exceeding goals</td>
<td>employer reputation and level of professionalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autonomy - freedom - empowerment</td>
<td>job security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>challenging work</td>
<td>management communication style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creativity</td>
<td>management decision-making style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ethics - ability to keep own moral code</td>
<td>management policies and procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feedback on performance</td>
<td>organisational culture, values, ethics and fairness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level of activity - keeping busy - workload</td>
<td>performance appraisal fairness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level of influence - power</td>
<td>promotional opportunity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nature of work generally - job role/characteristics</td>
<td>salary and financial benefits (e.g. accommodation, healthcare, leave, retirement, and travel)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional development - growth - new skills</td>
<td>supervisor interaction/affiliation - level of support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>responsibility</td>
<td>work environment and physical conditions (e.g. air-conditioning, heating, access to food and drink, safety)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rewards, recognition and praise (non-financial benefits)</td>
<td>workplace flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skill level and variety - demonstrate skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic variables (personal)</td>
<td>Demographic variables (employment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>length of employment – current job and company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>type of organisation/department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qualifications</td>
<td>type of employment (full-time/part-time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic variables (personality)</td>
<td>Other situational variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>predisposition to stress (‘A’ or ‘B’ type)</td>
<td>cultural background</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sense of benevolence vs entitlement</td>
<td>current life situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Big Five’ - conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness to experience, agreeableness and extroversion</td>
<td>previous work experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>socialisation experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In summary, a number of environmental and demographic variables were identified from the industry work motivation literature. These provide guidance for establishing a model from which to explore influences on tertiary teaching experiences.

2.6 Work Motivation Literature Review

Given the diversity of Dubai’s higher education sector, as identified earlier in this chapter, in terms of transnational providers, expatriate teaching staff and multi-cultural student bodies, it is important to place the literature within the context of cultural differences. However, many studies on motivation did not take account of the influence of differing cross-national values (Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003).

Large scale cross-cultural studies on job satisfaction in non-education contexts have identified motivational differences based on national culture. For example, employees from Western individualistic countries generally derive higher levels of satisfaction from
intrinsic factors related to the characteristics of the job, such as job level and mentally challenging work, which is not the case with collectivist countries (Abdulla et al., 2011; Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003, 2004). Conversely, employees from countries with higher power-distance orientations have been found to derive more job satisfaction from extrinsic rather than intrinsic job characteristics (Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003). Overall, strong correlations have been found between extrinsic job characteristics and job satisfaction across almost 50 countries, both individualistic and collectivist (Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003).

Cultural factors also influence an expatriate worker’s adaptation to a foreign work environment, and research has linked success on overseas assignments with individual personality traits and family adjustment to the new environment. For example, personality trait predictors of an expatriate’s success on an assignment include extroversion and agreeableness (Caligiuri, 2000), and flexibility, adaptability, independence, curiosity and emotional stability (Copeland & Griggs, 1988). In addition, the expatriate worker’s family members’ adjustment is also a concern, with up to two-thirds of failed expatriate adjustment linked to partner dissatisfaction and homesickness (Twentyman, 2010).

The following section of the literature review on work motivation research is divided into a number of segments. The first segment discusses key studies from the education sector undertaken in Western settings from the UK, the USA, Western Europe, Australia and Canada. This is followed by a small number of job satisfaction studies completed in non-Western education contexts, specifically in Taiwan, China, and Pakistan, chosen due to their collectivist national cultural tendencies. Studies from the Middle East region complete the review.

2.6.1 Western education sector - work motivation research
The work of university professors has been defined as “high-pressured, multifaceted, and without clear borders” (Hagedorn, 2000, p. 6), and researchers note the difficulties in measuring academic job satisfaction due to “the complexity of roles, duties and responsibilities” (Al-Rubaish et al., 2011, p. 1). At the same time, research supports the use of multiple items to determine job satisfaction levels, as single item measures simultaneously over-estimate satisfaction and underestimate dissatisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1999). This adds to the complexity of choosing factors to measure academic job
satisfaction, commitment and turnover intentions. In addition to the above complications with measuring academic staff satisfaction, many of the studies, such as those detailed in the previous section, have been conducted in non-education settings, and are not directly applicable to the academic context.

2.6.1.1 Extrinsic, intrinsic and situational factors in the UK and Europe

In a noteworthy survey from the mid-1990s, Oshagbemi (1997a, 1997b) analysed the job satisfaction of around 550 university teachers from 23 UK universities from the perspective of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. Academics self-reported a wide range of factors which influenced their levels of work satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The key factors and items, along with percentage of the factors’ contribution to overall (dis)satisfaction levels are summarised in Table 10 below. The nature of the academics’ work (teaching and research) accounted for half the overall satisfaction and almost a third of the dissatisfaction. Colleagues’ behaviour and physical environment were also significant, explaining 18% and 13% of satisfaction and dissatisfaction respectively. Administration, management, pay, promotions, and supervisor behaviour contributed to the academic staff’s dissatisfaction, but these same factors had negligible impact on satisfaction. Additional situational factors not falling into the above categories also contributed to over a quarter of either satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Oshagbemi (1997b) concluded that the results did not support Herzberg’s theory, as elements from the nature of the job, work environment, and various situational influences contributed to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, rather than being discrete motivating or hygiene factors.

Further analysis of the UK university results provided insights into various inter-relationships of the above factors with demographic variables. Although gender and age were not significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction (Oshagbemi 1997a, 1997c, 2003), there were inter-relationships between rank, tenure, age, gender and workplace relationships. For example, academic rank was correlated with increased satisfaction in higher-ranking academics (senior lecturer and professor) and lower satisfaction in more junior academics (Oshagbemi, 1997b, 2003). Gender variations were found with respect to rank, with female academics of senior lecturer rank or higher more satisfied than male colleagues of similar rank (Oshagbemi 1997b, 2003). Pay was also correlated with gender and rank, but not age, with females more satisfied than males, and senior lecturers and professors more satisfied than lecturers and readers (Oshagbemi, 2000a). As Hagedorn (2000) wryly notes, “it is an unwritten truism among faculty that the fastest
and most direct path to a promotion in rank or a substantial raise in pay may be an offer from another institution” (pp. 11-12).

Table 10. Factors identified by UK university lecturers as influencing their levels of work satisfaction and dissatisfaction by type of factor and percentage of contribution to overall (dis)satisfaction (1994-1995).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction factors</th>
<th>Dissatisfaction factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching (25%)</td>
<td>Teaching (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• pleasant, enthusiastic, respectful students</td>
<td>• increased class sizes without increased support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• positive student feedback and recognition</td>
<td>• mismatch between evaluation procedures and teaching or learning environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• stimulation from working with and learning from young people</td>
<td>• contradiction of management rhetoric of valuing teaching versus reality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• reward from inspiring students to develop, and do better than expected</td>
<td>• lack of recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• supervising student projects</td>
<td>• stress from individual student demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• academic freedom in teaching delivery and course development</td>
<td>• marking workload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• interesting courses</td>
<td>• over-assessment of students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research (25%)</td>
<td>Research (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• thrill of being accepted for publication</td>
<td>• deteriorating quality of student intake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• possible fame from being published</td>
<td>• increased student to staff ratios</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• academic freedom</td>
<td>• bureaucratic interference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• collaborating with colleagues, other departments and overseas universities</td>
<td>• lack of student motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• attending/setting up conferences</td>
<td>• routine, automated teaching and marking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• stimulating, and rewarding research</td>
<td>Co-workers/environment (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• new information about own research area</td>
<td>(No factors given)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• time off for research and sabbaticals</td>
<td>Administration and management (8.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• supervising interesting research projects</td>
<td>• lack of communication and planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• winning grants - financial autonomy</td>
<td>• lack of coherent teaching and research strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers/environment (18%)</td>
<td>• lack of organisational leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• stimulating work environment</td>
<td>• management - authoritarian and incompetent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• physical quality of campus environment</td>
<td>• bureaucracy and changes to funding procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• teaching, computing and library facilities</td>
<td>• government policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• administrative and technical support</td>
<td>Pay, promotions, supervisor behaviour (16.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• happy, social environment</td>
<td>• current pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• teamwork - collaborative, co-workers</td>
<td>• promotional opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• competent and committed co-workers</td>
<td>• supervisor behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• friendships with colleagues/support staff</td>
<td>Other (30.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration/management (1%)</td>
<td>• retirement benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(No factors given)</td>
<td>• hours of work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pay, promotions, supervisor behaviour (3.5%)</td>
<td>• campus location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• current pay</td>
<td>• competing workloads - teaching, administration and research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• promotional opportunities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• supervisor behaviour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (27.5%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• retirement benefits/options</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• professional development opportunities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• recognition of achievements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• long vacations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• work variety</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Oshagbemi (1997a, 1997b)
Oshagbemi’s study also discovered that length of service was negatively correlated with overall job satisfaction, with longer serving faculty members less satisfied than more recent joiners (Oshagbemi, 2003). Contrary to Oshagbemi’s findings, other researchers suggest that workers with longer tenure are more satisfied than younger workers (Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996). However, Luna-Arocas and Tang (2004) note that professors have a reputation for risk aversion in terms of job security, and tend to avoid changing jobs after securing tenure. As mentioned earlier, some researchers of length of service and age suggest that younger employees are less likely to remain with an organisation, while older employees are more likely to stay (Dalton et al., 2010; Daves, 2004) and are more committed (Lok & Crawford, 2001).

The final findings from Oshagbemi’s study revealed interactions between demographic variables and satisfaction with workplace relationships and the nature of the work. Satisfaction with co-worker and line manager behaviour was age related, with younger academics less satisfied with colleagues’ behaviour (Oshagbemi, 2000a), and older employees less satisfied with their line manager’s behaviour (Oshagbemi, 2001). With respect to satisfaction with the nature of the job, gender was not a significant factor; however, age and rank were (Oshagbemi, 2000b). Higher ranked and older academics were more satisfied with research than younger colleagues or those in lower ranked positions, while older faculty members were more satisfied than younger ones with teaching, administration and management (Oshagbemi, 2000b).

Two European studies highlight the influence of both intrinsic and extrinsic variables, as well as giving insight into gender differences in specific contexts. In Verhaegen’s (2005) survey of 350 lecturers from 12 European countries, the top four factors relating to satisfaction and retention of higher education teaching staff were academic freedom, research time, school’s location and professional development opportunities. Verhaegen also found that lecturers ranked remuneration only midway in the scale of importance, and he noted gender differences in that female lecturers ranked work-life balance, job security, professional development and work environment higher than male lecturers. This finding supports Daves (2004) who also reported that females value work-life benefits and a family-friendly organisation higher than males. In another European study, Van Maele and Van Houtte (2012) analysed the job satisfaction of over 2,000 teachers from 80 secondary schools in Belgium, and found that the teachers’ satisfaction was positively correlated with trust in colleagues, management, and students and their parents.
2.6.1.2 Induction, mentoring and professional development

A recurring theme in the research literature is the importance of effective induction, mentoring and professional development of teaching staff. Professional development was also emphasised in the strategic HRM literature.

Veenman (1984) reviewed 83 articles on problems faced by teachers within the first three years of teaching. All the articles were from Western countries, with the majority (68%) from the USA, 17% from Western Europe, and the remainder from the UK, Australia and Canada. The most common problems faced by newer teachers were related to: i) students (discipline, motivation and determining needs); ii) nature of work (heavy workloads for lesson preparation, assessment and administrative duties); iii) relationships (with parents, colleagues and management); iv) lack of administrative support; and v) lack of understanding of policies and procedures.

Parker, Ndoye, and Imig (2009) analysed data reported from the 2006 North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions survey on almost 9,000 novice teachers to determine the impact that two years of mentoring had produced. They found that new teachers had higher levels of commitment when they were able to have regular meetings with mentors who were teaching at the same grade level. Other researchers highlight the importance of training and development in the form of mentoring to help address higher education teaching staff attrition and increase commitment (see Mathews, 2003; Mathews & Edwards, 2005). Teachers need to be empowered during mentoring, training and development, as Keiser (2007) notes that teacher empowerment is directly correlated with organisational commitment.

In a longitudinal phenomenological case study, Sumsion (2002) recorded an Australian early educator’s experiences in the teaching profession over a seven year period to determine factors contributing to attrition. Sumsion highlighted the importance of mentoring and support from colleagues, preparing new educators for the emotional aspects of teaching, as well as the nuances of internal workplace politics, and providing challenging work related to the various stages of a teacher’s career. Other research studies have linked teacher satisfaction with the use of effective induction and mentoring programs to help acclimatise teachers entering the academic profession in North American secondary schools (Wayne, Youngs, & Fleischman, 2005) and Belgian elementary schools (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002).
2.6.1.3 Adjunct staff

As identified in the introduction, the use of adjunct staff in the teaching profession is a growing trend. Maynard and Joseph (2008) note that universities in the United States are increasingly using non-tenured staff, and estimate that between 40 to 45% of teaching faculty are employed on an adjunct basis. In a survey of 160 lecturers from a university in the north-eastern United States, Maynard and Joseph (2008) found that involuntary part-time faculty were less satisfied than full-time or voluntary part-time faculty in the areas of career advancement, compensation and job security.

Backhaus (2009) highlighted the need for professional development of adjunct lecturers in higher education in United States business schools. She noted that many are recruited based on industry experience, and often lack an education background, specifically an understanding of basic pedagogical concepts or experience in developing curricula.

Similar to the USA, part-time and temporary teaching staff also constitute a large segment of the academic workforce in the UK (Bryson & Blackwell, 2006). In their study of adjunct lecturers, Bryson and Blackwell (2006) reported that part-time and temporary academic staffing ratios at five institutions ranged from 20% to 80%, and these staff were found to have reduced organisational commitment and motivation. They recommended the following proactive initiatives for adjunct staff members: i) reduced responsibility for curriculum development, student pastoral care and academic progression, ii) increased support and obligations on reaching a certain level of annual hours, iii) increased probation and performance appraisal processes, and iv) pro-rata lecturing contracts.

In summary, the review of the Western academic literature revealed a range of intrinsic and extrinsic variables which have been used to measure faculty members’ motivation. Additionally, the review highlighted the growing use of adjunct faculty in both the USA and the UK, and the importance of professional development, training and mentoring in the academic profession generally. The following section briefly discusses research from the non-Western academic sector. It contains a final summary table with variables identified from both the Western and non-Western education sector research.

2.6.2 Non-Western education sector - work motivation research

Reiterating Western researchers’ comments on the challenges of measuring academic staff satisfaction, due to the influence of a range of variables, Chen, Yang, Shiau, and Wang (2006) also noted difficulties in applying a single model in an Asian tertiary
education context. Therefore, Chen et al. (2006) developed their own model to establish
lector satisfaction at a private university in Taiwan, and measured “organisation vision,
respect, result feedback, management system, pay and benefits, and work environment”
(p. 489). From their survey of around 200 lecturers, the following factors, in order of
importance, were deemed to have the most impact on satisfaction: i) salary, ii) fair
promotional opportunities, iii) retirement system, iv) work security, v) sufficient research
resources, vi) principal’s vision, vii) recognition of teaching and research achievements,
and viii) respect for professional knowledge. The heavy weighting of satisfiers from
Chen et al.’s (2006) survey towards extrinsic factors is not surprising, as collectivist
countries, such as Taiwan, are influenced more by extrinsic rather than intrinsic factors
(see Abdulla et al., 2011; Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003, 2004). This is confirmed in a
review of teacher satisfaction literature by Song (2008), who concluded that Chinese
teachers were generally satisfied with intrinsic factors such as fulfillment and recognition,
but were dissatisfied with a number of extrinsic factors including salary, promotional
opportunities, working environment, the quality of students, and levels of work stress.

Two studies from Pakistan emphasise the importance of both extrinsic and intrinsic
motivating factors in tertiary education in a collectivist country context. Quraishi,
Hussain, Syed, and Rahman (2010) analysed the satisfaction levels of 450 lecturers from
three universities in Pakistan, and highlighted the importance of fair decision making,
opportunities for research, empowerment of female academics, and creativity and
innovation in teaching. In the second Pakistani study, Habib, Mukhtar, and Jamal (2010)
surveyed intention to quit among 133 private sector university lecturers, and found the
top five factors were lack of opportunity to grow, university policies, salary, working
conditions and supervision. Their gender analysis revealed that female lecturers were
more likely to quit due to lack of career growth opportunities and salary factors, while
males were more concerned with extrinsic factors such as university policies,
administrative support and salary.

Table 11 below summarises education specific issues relating to intrinsic work motivators
found in both Western and non-Western contexts. The literature highlighted the positive
influence of the nature of academic work, particularly the rewards derived from working
with students, recognition from research, and the value of academic freedom, challenge
and creativity. The primary issues of concern included balancing teaching, administration and research workloads, coping with increased class sizes, and dealing
with the diminishing quality of student intakes. Also highlighted was the importance of ensuring ongoing professional development.

Table 11. Intrinsic work motivators by education specific issues, researchers and location of research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic work motivators</th>
<th>Education specific issues, researchers and location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ability to help -</td>
<td>• reward from inspiring students to develop, pass exams, and do better than expected (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meaningful work</td>
<td>• winning research grants and thrill of being accepted for publication (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• personal fulfillment (Song, 2008 - China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>achievement -</td>
<td>• academic freedom: delivery/development (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sense of accomplishment</td>
<td>• financial autonomy from research grants (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• academic freedom (Verhaegen, 2005 - Europe)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• teacher empowerment (Keiser, 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• empowerment for female academics (Quraishi et al., 2010 - Pakistan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autonomy - freedom -</td>
<td>• challenging work - stages of teacher’s career (Sumison, 2002 - Australia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>empowerment</td>
<td>• developing interesting courses (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• creativity and innovation in teaching (Quraishi et al., 2010 - Pakistan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creativity</td>
<td>• contradiction of management rhetoric of valuing teaching versus reality (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• positive student feedback and contacts (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level of activity -</td>
<td>• increased class sizes and student to staff ratios without increased support (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>workload</td>
<td>• heavy workloads for lesson preparation, assessment and administrative duties (Veenman, 1984 - USA, Europe, UK, Australia &amp; Canada)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• teaching/administration/marking workload (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• research time (Verhaegen, 2005 - Europe)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• workload - levels of work stress (Song, 2008 - China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>level of influence -</td>
<td>• supervising interesting research projects and possible fame from being published (Oshagbemi, 1997a,1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>power</td>
<td>• student demands/lack of motivation (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nature of work</td>
<td>• students (discipline, motivation, determining needs) (Veenman, 1984 - USA, Europe, UK, Australia &amp; Canada)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generally - job</td>
<td>• students - deteriorating quality of student intake (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK; Song, 2008 - China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>role/characteristics</td>
<td>• emotional aspects of teaching (Sumison, 2002 - Australia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• adjunct staff - job role eg. reduced curriculum development, student pastoral care and academic progression (Bryson &amp; Blackwell, 2006 - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• research opportunities (Chen et al., 2006 - Taiwan; Quraishi et al., 2010 - Pakistan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional development</td>
<td>• induction, mentoring and professional development programs (Kelchtermans &amp; Ballet, 2002 - Belgium; Mathews, 2003 - Australia; Mathews &amp; Edwards, 2005 - Australia; Parker et al., 2009 - USA; Sumison, 2002 - Australia; Veenman, 1984 - USA, Europe, UK, Australia &amp; Canada; Verhaegen, 2005 - Europe; Wayne et al., 2005 - USA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– growth - new skills</td>
<td>• adjunct development (Backhaus, 2009 - USA; Bryson &amp; Blackwell, 2006 - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• new information about own research area (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>responsibility</td>
<td>• opportunity to grow (Habib et al., 2010 - Pakistan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• professional contribution (Song, 2008 - China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rewards/recognition</td>
<td>• attending and setting up conferences (Oshagbemi, 1997a,1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(non-financial benefits)</td>
<td>• stimulation - working with young people (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skill level and variety</td>
<td>• recognition of teaching and research achievements (Chen et al., 2006 - Taiwan; Song, 2008 - China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• work variety (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 12 below summarises education specific issues relating to extrinsic work motivators in both Western and non-Western contexts. The issues raised were similar to those from industry research relating to the work environment, the influence of management policies, and job security, particularly for adjunct staff.

Table 12. Extrinsic work motivators by education specific issues, researchers and location of research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic work motivators</th>
<th>Education specific issues, researchers and location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>co-worker relationships</td>
<td>• relationships (with parents, colleagues and management) (Veenman, 1984 - USA, Europe, UK, Australia &amp; Canada)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• research collaboration with colleagues, other departments and overseas universities (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• trust in colleagues, management, students and parents (Van Maele &amp; Van Houtte, 2012 - Belgium)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• colleague support (Sumasion, 2002 - Australia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• colleague relationships (Song, 2008 - China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>job security</td>
<td>• job security - adjunct staff (Bryson &amp; Blackwell, 2006 - UK; Maynard &amp; Joseph, 2008 - USA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• job security (Chen et al., 2006 - Taiwan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management communication</td>
<td>• lack of leadership, consultation, communication, planning, coherent teaching/research strategy (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management decision-making</td>
<td>• fair decision making processes (Quraishi et al., 2010 - Pakistan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management leadership style</td>
<td>• bureaucratic interference (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management policies and procedures</td>
<td>• university policies (Habib et al., 2010 - Pakistan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• research publish or perish pressure (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• mismatch between evaluation procedures and teaching/learning environment (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• over-assessment of students (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• nuances of internal workplace politics (Sumasion, 2002 - Australia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• principal’s vision (Chen et al., 2006 - Taiwan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>promotional opportunity</td>
<td>• promotional opportunities (Chen et al., 2006 - Taiwan; Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK; Song, 2008 - China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• adjunct staff - less career advancement (Maynard &amp; Joseph, 2008 - USA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salary and financial benefits</td>
<td>• salary - adjunct staff (Maynard &amp; Joseph, 2008 - USA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• salary and benefits (Chen et al., 2006 - Taiwan; Habib et al., 2010 - Pakistan; Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK; Song, 2008 - China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supervisor support</td>
<td>• supervision (Habib et al., 2010 - Pakistan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work environment and physical</td>
<td>• working conditions (Habib et al., 2010 - Pakistan; Song, 2008 - China)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conditions</td>
<td>• campus location (Oshagbemi, 1997a, 1997b - UK; Verhaegen, 2005 - Europe)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final table in this section (Table 13) summarises education specific issues relating to demographic and situational work motivators in both Western and non-Western contexts. The literature revealed age, gender and rank differences in specific contexts, for example, female academics were more concerned with opportunities to grow and work-life balance, and senior academics were more satisfied with pay and supervisor behaviour. The issue of adjunct staff’s recruitment from industry with a lack of educational background was also a concern.
In summary, the review of Western and non-Western literature on work motivation in specific education contexts gave insight into the complexity of the teaching and research role and the influence of students, assessment procedures and other management policies. Professional development and the increased use of adjunct teaching staff were also highlighted as concerns.

### 2.6.3 Middle East industry sector - work motivation research

This section summarises work motivation literature from the Middle East in non-education sectors. Firstly, three studies from Lebanon, Egypt and Oman are examined, followed by a number of industry studies on work motivation conducted in the UAE.

The Lebanese, Egyptian and Omani studies highlight the impact of sociodemographic variables, intrinsic motivation, and length of service on satisfaction and organisational commitment. Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) surveyed around 200 Lebanese bank employees and found that female staff were more satisfied with pay than males, while the males were more satisfied than their female counterparts with respect to supervision. In addition they found that the least satisfied staff were those with the lowest educational qualifications.

Leat and El-Kot (2009) found that in the manufacturing and service industries of Alexandria and Cairo in Egypt, job satisfaction was linked with intrinsic motivation, trust
in management competence and lack of work stress. However, these results may have been biased, as the 140 respondents were generally long-serving, having been in their jobs for an average of almost 11 years. Leat and El-Kot recommended that consideration be given to using team-based training due to the Arab world’s collectivist focus.

In a Gulf study, Azeem (2010) surveyed 128 service industry employees from Muscat in Oman. He found significant correlations, consistent with the previous Western literature reviewed, between organisational commitment and salary, supervision, age and length of service.

Yousef was an early researcher of motivational factors influencing both national and expatriate employees in UAE workplaces. Yousef (1998) surveyed around 450 employees in the UAE to determine their levels of satisfaction with job security, and found correlations with age, education level, marital status, salary, position in the organisation, and length of service in the job and organisation. Of particular note, Yousef (1998) found that service organisation workers were less satisfied with job security than manufacturing employees, while Western and Asian expatriates were more worried about job security than UAE nationals or expatriates from Arabic countries.

In a follow-up study on job security, Yousef (2000) again found expatriate employees were less satisfied with pay and security. He suggested this was because expatriates generally received lower pay than Emiratis, and faced the prospect of job loss with little notice. Yousef (2002) elaborated on role stress and ambiguity in a subsequent study and found high levels of continuance commitment with respect to low perceived alternatives and high personal sacrifice, suggesting there was a possible shortage of alternative jobs.

In a study focusing on job characteristics, using Hackman and Oldham’s Model, Abu Elanain (2009) surveyed 350 employees from five Dubai companies and found that feedback and skill variety were correlated with satisfaction, commitment and turnover intentions, consistent with previous Western research. The research also highlighted employee’s high levels of uncertainty avoidance consistent with Hofstede’s (1983) model, with staff preferring well-defined rules, clear reporting lines, and less autonomy. Abu Elanain concluded that in order to increase satisfaction and commitment and reduce turnover intentions, UAE companies should increase feedback and skill variety, and train their staff on how to be more accepting of autonomy in the workplace.
Behery and Paton (2008) analysed organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intent with respect to the performance appraisal process and organisational culture issues in the UAE. Their findings supported Western literature in terms of performance appraisal correlations with commitment, satisfaction and intention to leave. Behery and Paton (2008) concluded that their results were consistent with the UAE’s profile as high uncertainty-avoidance in that managers preferred a clear performance appraisal process as a way of formally dealing with uncertainty. As Earley and Stubblebine (1989) note, feedback reduces uncertainty regarding work roles and helps employees from countries with high-uncertainty avoidance orientations to plan and organise their work.

In an exploratory study of job satisfaction factors in the Dubai police force, Abdulla et al. (2011) found that the top determinants of job satisfaction were, in order of effect: salary and incentives, positive perception of the work and status, organisational policies, supervision, co-worker relationships, and promotional opportunities. Abdulla et al. posited that the strong focus on salary and benefits was due in part to the high cost of living in Dubai. They also noted that the focus on public perception and relationships with co-workers was consistent with extant Western research placing this as a high priority for collectivist societies. The focus of Islam on strong group relationships was also deemed an important influence.

Randeree and Chaudhry (2012) surveyed 251 staff in the UAE construction industry and found that the strongest influences on job satisfaction and organisational commitment were salary and benefits, the work itself in terms of job type, flexibility and security, and finally, supervisor and leadership styles. They also identified cultural influences on job satisfaction, with European staff’s job satisfaction more influenced by organisational culture and line manager behaviour, and Far East Asians more influenced by salary and job security. Demographic differences were also found in that males and younger employees were more influenced by salary, while females and older staff were more influenced by job security.

Randeree and Chaudhry (2012) highlighted the importance of culturally appropriate leadership styles in the construction industry in the UAE. They noted that leaders in the study encouraged a participative, discursive decision-making process, and posited this was due to the cultural diversity of the country. They recommended that staff retention
could be enhanced by clear pay structures and renewable contract options for those influenced by salary and job security, and flexible work arrangements, and a less hierarchical organisation structure for those influenced by working environment.

Table 14 below summarises the key work motivation issues identified in the Middle East.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work motivators variables</th>
<th>Middle East specific issues, researchers and location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>autonomy</td>
<td>high uncertainty-avoidance - staff preferred clear rules, reporting lines, and less autonomy - train staff to accept autonomy (Abu Elanain, 2009 - UAE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co-workers</td>
<td>co-worker relationships (Abdulla et al., 2011 - UAE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feedback</td>
<td>feedback and skill variety - need to increase (Abu Elanain, 2009 - UAE)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| job security              | renewable contract options (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012, UAE)  
Western and Asian expatriates more worried about job security than UAE nationals or Arabic expatriates (Yousef, 1998 - UAE)  
job security correlated with age, education, marital status, salary, position, length of service in job and organisation (Yousef, 1998 - UAE)  
expatriate employees less satisfied - pay & security (Yousef, 2000 - UAE)  
role stress and ambiguity - shortage of alternatives (Yousef, 2002 - UAE) |
| management decision-making | participative, discursive decision-making process encouraged - possibly due to cultural diversity (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012 - UAE) |
| management policies       | organisational policies (Abdulla et al., 2011 - UAE) |
| promotions                | promotional opportunities (Abdulla et al., 2011 - UAE) |
| salary and financial benefits | salary (Azeem, 2010 - Oman)  
salary and benefits - pay structures (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012 - UAE)  
salary and incentives - cost of living in Dubai (Abdulla et al., 2011 - UAE) |
| supervisor style          | trust in management competence (Leat & El-Kot, 2009 - Egypt)  
supervisor and leadership styles (Abdulla et al., 2011 - UAE; Azeem, 2010 - Oman; Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012 - UAE) |
| work environment and conditions | need flexible work arrangements, less hierarchical organisation structure (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012 - UAE) |
| age                       | age (Azeem, 2010 - Oman)  
older staff influenced by job security and environment and younger employees influenced by salary (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012 - UAE) |
| gender                    | females influenced by job security (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012 - UAE)  
females more satisfied with pay (Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003 - Lebanon)  
males influenced by salary (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012 - UAE)  
males satisfied with supervision (Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003 - Lebanon) |
| type of organisation       | service workers less satisfied than manufacturing with job security (Yousef, 1998 - UAE) |
| sociocultural             | Islam’s influence on group relationships (Abdulla et al., 2011 - UAE)  
Europeans influenced by organisational culture and line manager behaviour and Far East Asians influenced by salary/job security (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012 - UAE)  
team-based training approaches preferred due to Arab world’s collectivist focus (Leat & El-Kot, 2009 - Egypt)  
performance appraisal process - prefer clear structure - high uncertainty-avoidance (Behery & Paton, 2008 - UAE)  
public perception and relationships high priority for collectivist societies (Abdulla et al., 2011 - UAE) |
| qualifications            | least satisfied staff had lowest educational qualifications (Crossman & Abou-Zaki, 2003 - Lebanon) |
Table 14 highlights collectivist and high uncertainty-avoidance cultural issues, such as the importance of group discussion, and the need to train staff to accept autonomy. Job security was clearly an issue for expatriate workers in a number of countries. Other issues relating to intrinsic and extrinsic motivators were similar to those raised in the Western literature. Age, gender and sociocultural differences were also highlighted.

The review of Middle East industry literature on work motivation raised a number of issues specific to the region. It is now necessary to review the literature on work motivation in the Middle East in the context of the education sector to gain further insight into issues specific to teaching in the region.

2.6.4 Middle East education sector - motivation and teaching research

This final section reviews tertiary education sector research conducted in the Middle East. The first two studies show researchers’ attempts to develop academic job satisfaction questionnaires specific to the region, while the final six studies explored factors influencing teacher satisfaction and the teaching experience in Dubai. Although most of the research from Dubai is not strictly on motivation, it provides valuable insight into factors which influence the tertiary teaching experience in Dubai; therefore these studies are included in this section.

Azad and Seyyed (2007) surveyed 115 full-time business lecturers at three universities in the UAE, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia to determine factors linked with research productivity and faculty satisfaction. Expatriates represented almost 80% of respondents. The overall finding was that lecturers expressed a desire to spend more time on research than they were able to. This research was essentially exploratory to determine potential factors relating to research productivity. The researchers stated that their 53 item questionnaire was based on Blackburn and Lawrence’s (1995) framework and that the questionnaire was tested for reliability; however, they did not provide any details on testing or questions. In addition, the 7,000 word article contained only 13 references in total, which indicated a lack of theoretical support. These factors limit the utility of this research in developing a model for this dissertation.

Al-Rubaish et al. (2011) developed a 46 item Academic Job Satisfaction Questionnaire specifically for use at a large Saudi Arabian university. The eight factors were authority, supervision, policies and facilities, nature of work itself, interpersonal relationships, commitment, salary, and workload, with overall satisfaction as the dependent variable.
Almost 250 academic staff at professor level from the University of Dammam, Medicine and Health Science faculties participated in the survey. The majority of respondents were males and expatriates (62% each respectively). The researchers advised that testing of the questionnaire revealed good construct validity and internal consistency in the sample overall and across the individual colleges; however, they did not elaborate on this, nor did they provide sample questions, so this study is again of limited utility for establishing potential questions for the dissertation.

Research on tertiary teachers’ satisfaction and experiences in the UAE is extremely limited. The literature review revealed only six studies suitable for inclusion. Two are from Zayed University in Dubai, one is from the HCT system and was conducted across the UAE, and two are from a private university in Dubai with Australian affiliations. The sixth study is particularly relevant to this dissertation, and was conducted at six universities across the UAE. The studies are presented in chronological order.

Quinn (2001) reported on his experiences teaching Emirati students at Zayed University in the newly-opened journalism course, and highlighted the following points as relevant to the UAE tertiary education context. Firstly, Islamic values were an influencing factor. For example, university course materials required committee approval before use so as not to cause offense, and they could not include “nudity, references to sex, or material the committee considers ‘un-Islamic’” (p. 158). There was also caution on the part of students and teachers alike in avoiding classroom topics which may be deemed offensive or inappropriate. Another issue was differences in news values, and the priority given to the royal family. For example, news coverage of an awards ceremony concentrated almost exclusively on the sheikhs presenting the awards rather than on the winners. A final point was that the university followed an American assessment method, which took some adjustment from students, particularly regarding grade expectations and deadlines.

In a small phenomenographic study, Stephenson (2005) completed an auto-ethnography on her learning journey as a member of teaching faculty in the College of Education at Zayed University. She noted the early feelings of isolation, and struggles with departmental structure, including the predominance of male leadership at an all-women’s campus. She commented on the value of supportive colleagues, and the importance of effective leadership, including the ability to communicate a shared vision, build consensus and offer recognition and rewards.
Smith (2006, 2009) examined teachers’ experiences at an Australian off-shore campus in two small-scale exploratory studies. Smith (2006) interviewed six lecturers regarding their conceptions of teaching on the university foundation program in the context of a culturally diverse student population. She found the most important issues related to helping students understand the syllabus by adapting it to meet students’ needs, and encouraging independent, student-centred learning. Smith (2006) recommended flexible teacher development programs which focussed on meeting the needs of both teachers and students, particularly in the context of the university’s diverse student and teacher profile.

Smith (2009) then interviewed 12 academic staff from five different nationalities at an Australian university, and found the key issues raised were the importance of supportive relationships with colleagues to deal with adapting to a new institution, the insecurity and feeling of impermanence due to the three-year contract, and the different experience compared to teaching at previous institutions. Smith (2009) recommended a suitable induction process, professional development, and recognition of achievements.

Within the scope of transnational education, it is important to maintain academic quality, and establish a collaborative, two-way communication process between the UAE offshore campus and the home campus (Smith, 2009). This is supported by Heffernan and Poole’s (2005) findings that the most important factors for successful higher education transnational partnerships were a combination of building trust and commitment, and having open, honest, face-to-face communication.

Anderson (1994) defines culture shock as “a frustration reaction”, and describes the process of cross-cultural adaptation as going through cycles as the expatriate overcomes difficulties and solves problems in their new environment (p. 293). Bashir (2012) proposed a U-shaped model (adapted from Pires et al., 2006), whereby expatriates have an initial honeymoon phase when they perceive their competence to be high, followed by the onset of culture shock, leading to a dip as they adjust to their new reality, then a subsequent upswing again as they begin to master their environment.

In the context of cross-cultural shock and adaptation, Bashir (2012) investigated perceived organisation support, satisfaction, intention to quit, and cross-cultural adjustment of over 200 expatriate academic and administrative staff from 12 Higher Colleges of Technology campuses. The survey targeted expatriates who had been living
in the UAE for a minimum of three months. Over 85% of respondents were from Western individualistic countries including Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, the UK and the USA. Bashir (2012) found that teachers overall were generally satisfied, and noted that increased perceived organisational support was positively correlated with levels of work adjustment. He concluded that staff had adapted to their work environment, company performance standards, job responsibilities, and lifestyles, in terms of housing, food, and socialising opportunities with colleagues and locals. Bashir recommended strategies to facilitate cross-cultural adjustment, including: i) regular communication, ii) the use of mentors, iii) social networking, iv) reward systems to acknowledge extra work, v) cultural inductions, vi) emotional support, vii) sufficient resources, viii) skills training, and ix) timely performance appraisal feedback.

However, Bashir (2012) noted two cautions in interpreting the results. Firstly, over half the participants had lived in the UAE for more than five years, and had therefore more opportunity to adapt, while 10% were new arrivals, who may have been in a honeymoon or cultural shock phase. Secondly, he noted the majority of respondents were from the more technologically developed cities of Abu Dhabi, Dubai and Sharjah, in comparison to a smaller number of responses from the less advanced cities of Al Ain and Fujairah.

In summary, the key issues raised from the first five pieces of research on tertiary education in the UAE outlined above were as follows:

- influence of Islamic values on teaching delivery
- restrictions on materials and topics in course curricula
- implications of students adjusting to foreign university assessment strategies
- impact of students adapting to time-keeping and deadline requirements
- importance of adapting the syllabus to meet students’ needs
- importance of encouraging independent student-centred learning
- importance of professional development and mentors
- importance of flexible, culturally appropriate induction programs and supportive colleagues to help new teachers adapt to new and unfamiliar environments
- importance of social networking
- influence of management structure, including male dominance in female teaching environments
- importance of effective management communication and organisational support
- importance of recognition and rewards
• need for more timely performance appraisal feedback
• prevalence of job insecurity due to three-year contracts
• importance of the royal family in all situations
• research considerations:
  o differences between technologically advanced cities of Abu Dhabi, Dubai and Sharjah compared to other UAE cities
  o length of residency in the UAE – links with cross-cultural adaption

The above factors prove useful in two ways. Firstly, they add to the list of variables to be considered in this dissertation, which are specific to the tertiary education sector in Dubai. Secondly, they reinforce the rationale to constrain the research to Dubai, and highlight the importance of establishing length of residency to clarify issues related to cross cultural adaptation.

The sixth piece of UAE research is a very recent and relevant qualitative study on expatriate faculty member satisfaction, motivation and commitment in the UAE, which was published in the latter stages of this dissertation. Austin, Chapman, Farah, Wilson, and Ridge (2014) interviewed full-time expatriate academic staff who were teaching undergraduate level students at three federal and three semi-public universities in the UAE. Interviewees were selected from the fields of education, media, humanities, social sciences, science, engineering, business and economics. The final sample is unclear as two different numbers were reported: “29 expatriate faculty [were] studied” (p. 541), and “among the 37 interviews conducted were 33 expatriates” (p. 545). The research team was interested specifically in the nature of the academic staff’s work experiences in the UAE tertiary education sector.

Austin et al. (2014) identified issues relating to: i) teaching, research, and service expectations; ii) equity, in terms of compensation packages and incentives; iii) autonomy and academic freedom; iv) relationships with colleagues and level of institutional engagement; and v) professional growth opportunities. The key areas of concern raised were job insecurity due to the short-term contracts and arbitrary terminations, and a lack of recognition for achievements and workplace contributions. Unfortunately, the research was published after the interviews had been conducted, transcribed and analysed. However, it will be useful to refer to in comparing findings.
2.7 Summary of Literature Review

The academic profession has been impacted by the rapidly changing global workplace, and higher education providers worldwide need to focus on strategies to ensure the satisfaction and retention of quality staff, if they are to remain competitive. This chapter commenced with a background review of the UAE, to set the context for this research, and focused mainly on the higher education sector in Dubai. It was identified that this sector is highly competitive, and a number of private universities with overseas affiliations have recently entered the market. Each is competing for a finite number of multi-national students, while at the same time endeavouring to ensure they employ and retain the best teaching staff.

Along with the diversity in providers and students, it was shown that the teaching workforce is almost exclusively expatriate, and from a wide range of nationalities. This brings with it associated issues of cross-cultural adaptation in Dubai. The review of Hofstede’s work on national cultures was useful for establishing a background from which to compare the UAE’s collectivist, uncertainty-avoidant and high power-distance profile against its Western counterparts.

The review of the Western and Asian HRM literature showed that a large body of research has linked a wide range of factors with organisational profitability, and highlighted the key role that employees play in achieving an organisation’s success. The small body of research on HRM practices in the Middle East identified a number of issues which should be considered such as job insecurity for expatriates and workforce nationalisation.

The subsequent review of the work motivation literature of both the industry and education sectors revealed a number of useful environmental and demographic variables for gaining insights into tertiary teacher satisfaction and teaching experiences. It was shown that there is significant overlap in terms of variables identified from both the HRM and motivation fields of studies. However, despite the useful findings regarding retention and satisfaction at the global level, the literature review revealed there is a distinct shortage of HRM and workplace motivation data available in the Gulf region, and the UAE specifically, and an even smaller body of research on the tertiary education sector in this region. Nonetheless, a useful range of environmental and demographic factors were identified through the literature review which will inform the exploration of factors influencing tertiary teaching staff in Dubai.
In conclusion, the UAE tertiary education sector has undergone remarkable change in a short period of time. With the increased competition, and recent economic crisis, it is crucial that Dubai’s universities are able to attract and retain quality lecturers. This dissertation aims to examine the factors identified in this literature review to clarify issues facing Business and Foundation Business faculty members in the higher education sector of Dubai, and to offer insights to help universities maximise satisfaction and retention of quality teaching staff. This literature review has clearly highlighted the need for further research into higher education teaching staff satisfaction, commitment and retention in Dubai, and establishes the potential value that a doctoral dissertation could contribute to this field. Chapter Three now outlines the conceptual framework which was developed following the review of literature.
CHAPTER THREE – THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter summarises the process for developing the conceptual framework used for this dissertation, and presents the model in both figure and table format. This chapter links the results of the literature review in Chapter Two with the methodology in Chapter Four. It serves the function of bringing together the findings of the literature review so far as the research question is concerned, without suggesting whether a quantitative or qualitative research approach should be utilised. This should allow flexibility for future researchers interested in using either methodology.

It should be emphasised that in the case of this particular study, a qualitative approach has been used to address the primary research aim. As presented in Chapter One, the primary aim of this research is not to make a theoretical contribution, but rather:

“*To explore and gain an in-depth understanding of factors influencing the narratives of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members in the multi-cultural higher education sector in the emirate of Dubai in the UAE.*”

The primary research question to address this aim is:

“*How are the key environmental and demographic factors identified in the literature regarding teaching experience, satisfaction, commitment and retention reflected in the narratives of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members in the context of the multi-cultural higher education sector in the emirate of Dubai in the UAE?*”

Therefore, this study focusses on examining how the identified factors presented in the following conceptual model are reflected in faculty members’ narratives. The intention is not to try to establish causal relationships and correlations with antecedents. The conceptual model offers flexibility for quantitative researchers who may wish to focus on different elements of the framework.
3.1 Development of the Theoretical Framework

Development of the conceptual framework commenced with a synthesis of factors from the organisational profitability and success literature with factors from the higher education motivation literature in Western, Asian and Middle East contexts. The framework was then expanded to include the key HRM issues pertinent to the Gulf region, and considers the models developed by Chen et al. (2006), Hagedorn (2000), and Verhaegen (2005).

It is acknowledged that no individual model can fully represent the concept under consideration (Hagedorn, 2000). That said, it is believed that the following model represents the first attempt to group variables into a formalised, theoretical framework to explore influences on expatriate academics’ satisfaction, commitment and retention within the context of the UAE’s culturally diverse, competitive, internationalised higher education sector. Figure 8 below illustrates the conceptual framework developed for examining expatriate teacher satisfaction, commitment and retention in the UAE’s tertiary education sector.

![Conceptual Framework Diagram](image)

**Figure 8. Conceptual framework for examining expatriate teacher satisfaction, commitment and retention in higher education institutions operating in the UAE.**
The model’s first four independent variables are intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors, and situational influences relating to sociocultural and personal background. Institutional and personal demographics are additional independent variables that interact with the first four sets of factors to impact on the three dependent variables: satisfaction, commitment and retention.

3.2 Independent Variables in the Theoretical Framework

Tables 15 to 20 describe the model in further detail. Table 15 below lists the intrinsic factors and items. There are four intrinsic motivational factors: autonomy, nature of work, professional development and non-financial rewards. These four intrinsic factors have a total of 16 items.

Table 15. Intrinsic factors and items for the conceptual framework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic motivational factors and items</th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic freedom/empowerment – course/assessment development and delivery</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of influence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of responsibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-managed teams</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of work</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear job role and expectations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenging and stimulating work – sense of achievement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of work and variety of skills used – working to strengths</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of student ability, language level, behaviour and motivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of student to teacher ratio – quality, effectiveness and discipline</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workload – course/material development, lesson preparation, marking, paperwork</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional development</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-discipline development opportunities (eg. English to content teaching)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring opportunities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal and professional growth opportunities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards (non-financial)</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to help students and colleagues – making a difference to others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback and recognition for teaching and research achievements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other non-financial rewards and benefits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 below lists the extrinsic motivational factors and items. The seven extrinsic motivational factors are salary and benefits, interpersonal relationships, job security, management policies, promotions, supervisor style and work environment. These seven factors have a total of 24 items.
Table 16. Extrinsic factors and items for the conceptual framework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Extrinsic motivational factors and items</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial (salary and benefits)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Salary (amount, comparability, cost of living, increments)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Benefits (housing, insurance, indemnity, leave, schooling, travel, other)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Opportunities for additional remunerated work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Co-workers – communication, collaboration, friendships, support, trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Students – quality of relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Other stakeholders (parents, business partners and home campus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Contract terms and conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Contract renewal and termination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Sponsorship restrictions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management policies and culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Recruitment and selection policies and practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pre-arrival and induction policies and practices, including cross-cultural training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Curriculum development, training delivery and assessment policies and practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Performance appraisal and grievance policies and practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Student intake and management policies (student quality and number)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Culture (vision, planning, bureaucracy, communication, decision-making)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotional opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Performance-based promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Internal promotional opportunities within the college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. External promotional opportunities – remaining competitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Supervisor’s style – empowerment, direction and flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Supervisor’s communication and decision-making style – fairness and clarity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Supervisor’s level of respect, trust and support – treated as an individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Confidence in supervisor’s competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Administration and support services – quality and availability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Campus quality, location, facilities, internationalisation, reputation, resources</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17 below outlines the two sociocultural factors of culture shock and national cultural differences. These factors have a total of three and four items respectively.

Table 17. Sociocultural factors and items for the conceptual framework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Sociocultural factors and items</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture shock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Adjusting to a new country/culture – clothing, cost of living, cultural diversity and norms, entertainment, food, friends, language, housing, political and legal system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adjusting to a new institution – organisational culture, curriculum and procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Cultural adaptation phases: honeymoon period, culture shock, adaptation, mastery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National cultural differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Collectivism-individualism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Masculinity-femininity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Power-distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Risk aversion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The personal factors and items are listed in Table 18 below. The family factor contains three items, while the personal factor comprises of four items.

Table 18. Personal factors and items for the conceptual framework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal factors and items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Children’s schooling – availability, cost, quality, international comparability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Partner’s work opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Family’s cross-cultural adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Reasons for teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Work life balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Stress management strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Opportunities for socialisation and travel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Demographic Variables in the Theoretical Framework

Tables 19 and 20 list the demographic variables designed specifically to measure data relevant to the expatriate teaching experience and the nature of the foreign universities operating in the UAE. Table 19 below lists the eight institutional variables.

Table 19. Demographic (institutional) variables for the conceptual framework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutional variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. College type (public/private)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Curriculum (national/international)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Country of affiliation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Programs (types of courses, degrees, majors)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Student body (number, age, gender, nationality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Faculty body (national/expatriate, male/female)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Teaching/research focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Accreditation status (local/international)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20 below is the final table of the conceptual model. It lists the 11 personal demographic variables.

Table 20. Demographic (personal) variables for the conceptual framework.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personal variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ethnicity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Marital status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Employment type (full-time/adjunct)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Rank/position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Years of teaching experience (local/international)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Years of residency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 Dependent Variables in the Theoretical Framework

The three dependent variables for this conceptual framework are workplace satisfaction, commitment and retention. The dual arrow between satisfaction and commitment reflects the ‘chicken or egg’ debate on the causal order. These two dependent variables then impact directly upon the third dependent variable, which is turnover intention.

3.5 Summary of the Theoretical Framework

In summary, the conceptual model’s four independent variables are intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors, and situational influences relating to sociocultural and personal background, while the three dependent variables are satisfaction, commitment and retention. Two sets of demographics variables are also included, which relate to personal and institutional factors.

The identified independent variables for this study are a synthesis of factors derived from the organisational success literature, higher education motivation literature in Western, Asian and Middle East contexts, and key HRM issues relevant to the Gulf region. The choice of dependent variables and the factors and subfactors for the independent variables was based on those which were deemed to recur most frequently in the literature, and which were felt to be most relevant to the higher education setting in the Middle East region with respect to common terminology used and issues faced. The following chapter discusses the research paradigm, methodology and design used in this dissertation.
CHAPTER FOUR – RESEARCH PARADIGM, METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.1 Introduction
The first two chapters outlined the background and context of this study, and presented a review of the literature to support the rationale for this thesis. The third chapter then discussed the development of the conceptual framework, and identified potential factors and items to consider during the interviews. As identified in the introduction, this dissertation aims to provide insights into factors influencing the narratives of higher education teaching staff, as well as to propose possible satisfaction, commitment, retention and other organisational success strategies relevant to higher education institutions in Dubai. The qualitative methodology associated with an interpretive phenomenological approach was deemed most suitable to achieve these aims.

This chapter examines the research paradigms, methodology and methods identified in the review of scholarly articles, and analyses them in terms of appropriateness in addressing the respective research questions. Validity and reliability are then discussed with respect to issues associated with quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. Justification and description of the design and procedures follow this, including the chosen method of in-depth interviewing and its associated data gathering issues. Finally, the recruitment strategy, data analysis strategies, ethical issues and potential limitations are addressed.

4.2 Research Paradigm
This research was conducted with a constructivist phenomenological approach. Issues associated with paradigm choice, ontology, epistemology and the ability to achieve the inquiry’s aims are explained in this section. Paradigm choice should be the precursor to conducting any research, as it informs aims and expectations, and provides a foundation for decisions regarding methodology, research design and data sources (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). At a broad level, a paradigm is “a set of propositions that explain how the world is perceived” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 30). The paradigm’s framework outlines the overall philosophy in terms of beliefs and values, the underpinning ontological and epistemological positions, and the methodology used to conduct the research (Joubish, Kjurram, Ahmed, Fatima, & Haider, 2011).
The majority of scholarly articles reviewed in Chapter Two embraced a combination of positivist and postpositivist paradigms, with a smaller number using constructivist approaches. The positivist approach focuses on scientifically provable facts (Longman, 2003), while postpositivists take a critical realist position (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). Constructivism is also known as phenomenology, interpretation, ethnographics and social construction (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006; Veal, 2005), and interpretive phenomenology and hermeneutics (Howard, 2011).

Critical theorism, the fourth and final paradigm, has a historical perspective, and is concerned with power, oppression, advocacy and emancipation (Guba & Lincoln, 1998; Kincheloe & McLaren, 2002; Sumner, 2003). The literature review did not examine any critical theorist approaches, so this chapter discusses the first three approaches only. The interpretive phenomenological research paradigm was identified as best suiting the purpose and application of this research in terms of its fit with ontology, epistemology and methodology.

The aims of positivist and post-positivist paradigms differ considerably to those of a constructivist approach. The inquiry aims of both positivist and post-positivist paradigms are description, explanation and prediction (Guba & Lincoln, 1998; Onwuegbuzie, 2002; Veal, 2005). Both paradigms use theories or models established prior to the study to inform their research (Veal, 2005). Positivists believe that knowledge comes from “verified hypotheses established as facts or laws”, while postpositivists consider that knowledge is obtained from “nonfalsified hypotheses that are probable facts or laws” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998, p. 210). This is consistent with the deductive, cause and effect focus of quantitative methodology (Sarantakos, 2005; Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013), which was the primary focus of the research contained in Chapter Two, particularly regarding staff satisfaction generally, and teacher satisfaction more specifically.

In contrast to the positivist and postpositivist philosophies, Guba and Lincoln (1998) advise that interpretivist knowledge constructions are “more informed and sophisticated”, as they are constantly revised until they merge into a “consensus” (p. 210). They add that knowledge is accumulated dialectically, in that both researcher and subject interact together, so results and conclusions are virtually “created as the investigation proceeds” (p. 206). In other words, there is a greater focus on subjects proffering “their own explanation of their situation or behaviour” (Veal, 2005, p. 25).
In the constructivist approach, the researcher endeavours “to ‘get inside’ the minds” of participants, and “see the world from their point of view” (Veal, 2005, p. 25). This approach is more subjective and has a stronger focus on interpretation of meaning, rather than statistical analysis of cause and effect (Sarantakos, 2005). For example, one of Sumsion’s (2002) aims from her extended interview process was “to contribute insights that might further existing understandings of attrition” (p. 870). The investigator achieved this aim, noting that a teacher’s personal qualities, work context and colleagues can directly impact upon decisions to remain in education.

In a recent review of qualitative research published in counselling journals, Woo and Heo (2013) found that phenomenology and grounded theory were the most frequently used research approaches. This interpretive approach examines phenomena that cannot easily be quantified, including “beliefs, meanings, attributes and symbols” (Joubish et al., 2011, p. 2083), and focuses on “people’s feelings, thoughts and experiences” (Longman, 2003, p. 1229). To gain the necessary insights, it was felt that a phenomenological approach best met the aims of this dissertation.

Ontology deals with “the nature of existence” (Longman, 2003, p. 1151), or “the nature of reality”, in terms of objectivity, subjectivity and construct (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 30). The primary ontological question outlines the research focus (Sarantakos, 2005). Epistemology is based on the study of knowledge attainment (Sarantakos, 2005; Webster, 2002), and how the truths underpinning this knowledge are derived (Goldman, 2010). The questions include “how [do] we come to know what we know?” (Bodner, 1986, p. 873), and “what can be known?” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998, p. 201).

The positivist paradigm has a realist or objectivist ontology (Guba & Lincoln, 1998; Sarantakos, 2005). Guba and Lincoln (1998) consider positivism a form of “naïve realism” (p. 204), while in contrast, the postpositivist paradigm is more critical, with realities that are “imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable” (p. 203). Both paradigms are based on “a single reality”, but postpositivism considers a reality that can be “perceived differently by different people” (O’Neill, Macklin, Jarratt, & Bisman, 2010, p. 44).

The positivist epistemology is empirical, with a focus on facts (Sarantakos, 2005; Veal, 2005). Guba and Lincoln (1998) add that positivists examine “how things really are”
through research that does not influence the subject, as if using “a one-way mirror” (p. 204). Postpositivists diverge, believing “reality is objective, but not perfectly knowable” (O’Neill et al., 2010, p. 44), with their research focusing on whether “findings ‘fit’ with pre-existing knowledge” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998, p. 204). The majority of quantitative research articles reviewed were postpositivist in this regard, with investigators analysing their results according to their ‘fit’ with previous findings.

There is little difference between ontology and epistemology in the constructivist approach (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). Its ontology is “relativist”, with “mind-created realities” (O’Neill et al., 2010, p. 45), while the epistemology is “transactional and subjectivist” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998, p. 207), as it seeks to provide in-depth understanding of the participants’ individual views and perspectives (Cousin, 2010; Delamont, 2012; Stroh, 2000a; Yin, 2011). Schwartz-Shea and Yanow (2013) further explain that interpretive researchers seek to make sense of “multiple, intersubjective social realities” (p. 41), to gain insights into how individuals “understand their contexts, explicitly and/or tacitly” (p. 52). The constructivist ontological and epistemological orientations were considered the most appropriate to gain understanding of the teachers’ individual experiences in this study.

4.3 Methodology

Sarantakos (2005) summarises methodology as “theoretical principles and frameworks”, with the primary questions examining the construct and conduct of the research (p. 51). More specifically, methodology deals with choices, for example, whether to use a quantitative, qualitative, scientific, structured, deductive or inductive approach (O’Neill et al., 2010). In contrast, the research design (or method) outlines the data collection instrument, such as experiment, case study, interview or survey (O’Neill et al., 2010; Sarantakos, 2005). The quantitative and qualitative research methodologies are discussed below, while the research method is detailed at the end of this chapter.

Positivist methodology is quantitative (Crossan, 2003; Guba & Lincoln, 1998; Veal, 2005), with a focus on fixed or deductive techniques (Sarantakos, 2005; Veal, 2005). Their research tools include experiment, survey or structured interview, with analytical techniques including hypothesis testing, and correlation and regression analyses, whereas postpositivist methodology may employ a mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches (O’Neill et al., 2010).
While both paradigms may use surveys (O’Neill et al., 2010), the postpositivist approach uses a form of triangulation, with research conducted in more naturalistic environments to obtain contextual information and individual perspectives (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, cited in Guba & Lincoln, 1998). In the quantitative literature reviewed in Chapter Two, triangulation and contextual background are rarely elucidated; therefore, those methodologies tend to be positivist.

A disadvantage of the positivist approach is that behaviour cannot be analysed in detail (Crossan, 2003). This is the case in the majority of the quantitative research reviewed, which used generic, validated questionnaires as their primary method. Al-Rubaish et al. (2011) noted this was a limitation in examining issues surrounding teaching staff motivation in the Middle East region.

The list below outlines some of the most frequently used instruments identified in the quantitative literature review for determining satisfaction, commitment and turnover intention. These are presented in alphabetical order, and include the questionnaires’ authors and dates, along with applied examples of these tools in use in the motivation research field.

- **Affective, Normative and Continuance Commitment Scales** by Meyer and Allen (1990). (See Keiser, 2007)

- **Job Descriptive Index** by Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969).
  (See Azeem, 2010)

- **Job Diagnostic Survey** by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1976).
  (See Abu Elanain, 2009)

- **Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire** by Weiss et al. (1977).
  (See Maynard & Joseph, 2008; University of Minnesota, 2012; Yousef, 2000)

  (See Azeem, 2010; Maynard & Joseph, 2008; Yousef, 2000)


- **School Participant Empowerment Scale** by Short and Rinehart (1992).
  (See Keiser, 2007)
In contrast, the interpretivist methodological approach is qualitative and dialectical (Guba & Lincoln, 1998), relying upon reflection, induction and subjectivity (Veal, 2005). Qualitative research has grown in popularity and acceptability in recent years (Savin-Baden & Major, 2010), particularly in the fields of education and management (Delamont, 2012; Sinkovics & Alfoldi, 2012; Yin, 2011).

Qualitative studies are written and presented in a more engaging style. They consist of “detailed, rich, and thick (empathic) description”, which is characteristic of the constructivist voice (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 14). This level of detail is obtained from methods such as in-depth interviews, which is not possible with a quantitative survey. It was felt that this comprehensive narrative approach best met the needs of this dissertation.

4.4 Validity and Reliability
This section discusses the concepts of validity and reliability from both a quantitative and qualitative perspective. The considerable differences in approaches are detailed below.

4.4.1 Positivist quantitative perspective
The widely accepted standards in quantitative methodology are ‘validity’, ‘reliability’, ‘replicability’, ‘objectivity’ and ‘falsifiability’ (Guba & Lincoln, 1998; Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). Studies are deemed to have higher validity when data have been collected and interpreted as precisely as possible, so the conclusions “accurately reflect and represent the real world (or laboratory) that was studied” (Yin, 2011, p. 78). The majority of surveys reviewed in Chapter Two appear to have been self-administered. Self-reported surveys have well-known limitations, as data can be inaccurate and biased (Yin, 2011). However, some researchers are aware of this; for example, Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) acknowledged their subjects’ possible over-estimation of performance ratings.

Reliability measures, such as inter-rater reliability, analyse the extent to which it is likely that two or more investigators from the same project will achieve the same result using the same procedure (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). Whereas, replicability refers to the ability for a separate researcher to repeat the same project using the same research design to yield the same results (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). While some of the quantitative literature reviewed contained detailed overviews of research designs, a number did not, making replication difficult.
Guba and Lincoln (1998) submit that positivist research questions take the form of “propositions” to be verified, with strict control of variables, whereas the postpositivist approach is based on “critical multiplism” and falsifying hypotheses (p. 208). Although many of the quantitative research articles reviewed included broad aims, some failed to develop them into precise questions which could be verified or falsified.

Traditional validity measures used in quantitative research include significance tests and confidence intervals (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013), while common analytical approaches with quantitative research include Pearson’s correlation analysis, regression analysis and ANOVA testing (Behery and Paton, 2008). These were used in a number, but not all, of the quantitative studies reviewed. A smaller number of researchers reported only frequency distributions, with no analysis of validity.

In both positivist and post-positivist approaches, the researcher remains separate from the subjects (Onwuegbuzie, 2002; Veal, 2005), with the role of a “disinterested scientist” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998, p. 210). The majority of articles reviewed took the technical, quantitative approach, and the writing styles were formal and impersonal, which Onwuegbuzie (2002) advises is a feature of both paradigms.

4.4.2 Interpretivist qualitative perspective
The interpretive qualitative perspective differs significantly in its approach to the traditional quantitative focus on validity, reliability, replicability, objectivity and falsifiability discussed above. The different perspectives and concepts used are outlined below.

4.4.2.1 Trustworthiness and credibility
The most important consideration for qualitative studies is to establish “trustworthiness and credibility” (Yin, 2011, p. 3). These two constructivist concepts are analogous with validity (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). As this type of research focuses only on the subjects’ reported experiences, studies may be criticised as having limited trustworthiness or credibility. However, Woo and Heo (2013, p. 13) advise that a qualitative study’s trustworthiness can be increased through the use of “investor triangulation… peer debriefing and external auditors”, while credibility is enhanced through “member checking” and “audit trails”. These concepts are explored further below.
4.4.2.2 Triangulation

In qualitative research, the assimilation and presentation of data obtained from multiple sources, such as interviews, observation and the examination of documentation and other objects, is a form of triangulation designed to increase the trustworthiness and credibility of a study (Yin, 2011). However, Schwartz-Shea and Yanow (2013, p. 88) diverge when multiple data sources are used, and prefer the term “intertextuality” to triangulation to distinguish from the positivist realist focus, and more accurately reflect that convergence is not necessarily an expected outcome of interpretivist research.

4.4.2.3 Auditing

Data analysis is possibly “the most secret of activities” in qualitative research (Delamont, 2012, p. 373). Trustworthiness and credibility can be improved by providing expanded detail on the research design, as an ‘audit trail’, confirming the appropriate use of methods and evidence (Perry, 1998). The procedures used should be “publicly accessible” in that external reviewers should be able to inspect the data used to determine results (Yin, 2011, p. 19). Additionally, participants can be shown interview transcripts to confirm the researcher’s accurate “sense-making” (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013, p. 106).

4.4.2.4 Replicability

Just as validity and reliability are unsuited to qualitative research, as explained above, so too is the concept of replicability (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). This is because phenomena are more “dynamic and fluid” and should be viewed in context (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013, p. 93). Additionally, research subjects and researchers in interpretive qualitative research are viewed as unique and not “interchangeable”, reducing the possibility that a study can be replicated (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013, p. 93).

4.4.2.5 Generalisability and context

While positivist research produces generalisable findings, it is the opposite case with interpretivist research (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). The limited utility regarding generalisability can be considered a weakness of the qualitative methodology (Yin, 2011; Zikmund, 2003). Schwartz-Shea and Yanow (2013, p. 38) recommend that interpretivist researchers critique their own research to establish that their study is “sufficiently contextualized so the interpretations are embedded in, rather than abstracted from, the settings of the actors studied”. Interpretive researchers can enhance the trustworthiness and credibility of their work through the provision of contextual detail (Yin, 2011).
Phenomenological researchers in the education field concede that their research is context specific and findings cannot be generalised. For example, Sumsion (2002) cautioned that her research was specific to one early childhood educator’s experiences in Australia, while Smith (2006) acknowledged that her findings on conceptions of teaching were specific to a small sample of lecturers at one UAE university. Therefore, both sets of findings should not be used to generalise about other teachers or academic institutions.

4.4.2.6 Researcher bias and influence

In the positivist quantitative approach, values or biases should not influence findings, and should be largely eliminated, providing “procedures are rigorously followed” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998, p. 204). Conversely, in the interpretivist, qualitative approach, researchers are inescapably linked to the study (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013; Veal, 2005), as the researcher is both “orchestrator and facilitator of the inquiry process” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998, p. 214).

New researchers, unfamiliar with the interpretivist approach, must understand how their research may face external influences, such as society, politics, culture, economics, ethnicity, gender and history (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). Schwartz-Shea and Yanow (2013, p. 101) advise that researchers should reflect carefully on how their “personal characteristics” may influence their analytical approach or interactions with participants. Yin (2011) adds that transparency is a qualitative research imperative, and suggests researchers should disclose their personal profile in terms of relevant demographic details and any personal affiliations with the participants or organisations.

Qualitative researchers should retain a neutral stance to minimise potential bias. For example, interviewers should avoid conveying voice tones or nonverbal signals indicating their own personal position or bias, as subjects might amend answers to please the interviewer rather than express their honest views (Yin, 2011).

An additional possible bias in the qualitative approach relates to the selection of data to analyse. Logistically, it is not possible to scrutinise in depth every piece of data that has been gathered, especially within the space constraints of academic articles; however, it is important to avoid the potential bias of excluding certain data because they are contrary to expectations (Yin, 2011).
4.5 Design and Procedures
Following the above explanation of the phenomenological interpretive approach and qualitative methodology, the next step is to outline the chosen design and procedures. This section justifies and describes the chosen data generation procedures, and highlights the sampling and analysis strategies and issues.

4.5.1 Data generation
Schwartz-Shea and Yanow (2013) suggest that interpretivist research data are created and generated rather than collected; therefore, these terms will be used in this section. The choice of in-depth interview to generate data is justified below, along with a description of the audio-recording and transcription process and issues.

4.5.1.1 In-depth interviews
A quantitative focused questionnaire typically obtains limited fixed numerical responses such as ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘how many’ or ‘how often’ (Stroh, 2000a), or strength of response Likert scale measures, such as ‘strongly agree or disagree’ (Yin, 2011). Similarly, structured interviews tend to use close-ended questions, again limiting the possible responses, and as such are more suited to surveys or polls (Yin, 2011). In-depth one-to-one interviews are one of the most frequently used qualitative methods (Stroh, 2000a).

In contrast to quantitative questionnaires, in-depth interviews, which are also known as qualitative or semi-structured interviews, endeavour to gain insight into ‘why’ individuals behave, think or feel as they do (Joubish et al., 2011; Stroh, 2000a).

Qualitative one-to-one interviews use open-ended questions, which require longer answers to gain a deeper understanding by interpreting responses within a given context (Yin, 2011). The qualitative interviewing approach is also flexible (Delamont, 2012; Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). Because the interaction between the interviewer and interviewee is largely unscripted, with no formal questionnaire, questions can be varied depending upon each interview’s context (Yin, 2011).

Yin (2011) lists four methods of data gathering relevant to an interview: i) the interview itself, to obtain participants’ explanations of behaviours, situations or feelings; ii) observation of body language; iii) collection of written documents; and iv) a record interpreting participants’ perceived feelings and comfort levels. Successful in-depth interviews tend to take the form of a conversation (Stroh, 2000a).
To develop rapport and indicate genuine attentiveness, Yin (2011) recommends that interviewers speak less and listen more, and give respondents ample opportunity to answer questions. Researchers should also avoid directing the participants during the interview, instead allowing them “to vocalize their own priorities as part of their own way of describing the world as they perceive it” (Yin, 2011, p. 136). For this reason, participants in this study were not given the Interview Guide initially.

During the data-gathering phase, qualitative interviewers need good interpersonal skills to cope both with potentially “embarrassing or difficult” situations (Yin, 2011, p. 31), as well as observational skills to read body language and assess participants’ “energy levels” (Delamont, 2012, p. 372). Researchers should also be open to improvisation, given the flexible nature of qualitative research, and have excellent organisational skills to manage the volume of data produced (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013).

4.5.1.2 Research aim and question
As introduced in Chapter One, this study has the following major aim:

“To explore and gain an in-depth understanding of factors influencing the narratives of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members in the multi-cultural higher education sector in Dubai in the UAE.”

As part of the informed consent process of ethical research, participants were asked to read and sign a consent form indicating that they were aware the interview would be recorded and transcribed, and that they had the right to withdraw. They were also asked if they had any questions before the interview proceeded.

To achieve the aim of this study, participants were asked two open-ended questions at the start of the interview. Delamont (2012) recommends that the opening question should establish personal background to provide contextual detail, and to develop rapport with the participant. This was the intent of the first question below:

**Question 1:** Can you tell me a little about yourself and your teaching background?
After establishing the background context and demographics, participants were asked to complete a short demographic profile, included as Appendix 1. The participants were then asked the second question below, intended to gain insight into contextual issues surrounding satisfaction, commitment and retention, and to gain insight into the participants’ views, feelings and beliefs about factors impacting on their teaching experience: the study’s first aim. The semi-structured interview gave flexibility in how or when this question was delivered.

**Question 2:** Can you tell me your story about your experience of teaching in Dubai, and how it compares to other places you have taught? In particular, what has influenced your levels of satisfaction, commitment and intention to stay/leave?

The Interview Guide was pilot tested with a colleague prior to interviews to ensure clarity of questions and relevance of topics. Two sub-factors were subsequently merged for the final version. The researcher then referred to the Interview Guide and ticked off the topics discussed and the sequence in which they were covered. In this way, the participants had more control in elucidating their primary areas of concern or interest, rather than being directed by the interviewer. After all the topics of interest had been covered in depth, the interviewer then gave a copy of the Interview Guide to the participants to determine if there were any secondary areas of interest which the participant wished to cover or had not thought about. Again, the researcher noted the topics covered and the sequence, but with a note that these topics were covered following this prompt.

Three respondents spoke very freely for the majority of the interview in an unstructured format without any significant prompts. However, the remaining seven required the list of prompt topics from the Interview Guide, some after only five or ten minutes. Two of these seven skipped through prompts to focus on points of interest, while the remainder worked through the list methodically. The Interview Guide is included as Appendix 2.

After the participants had covered all the topics they wished to discuss, they were then asked the third, and final question regarding recommendations for their institution.
Question 3: What recommendations do you have for your college/university to improve faculty member satisfaction, commitment and retention, or other issues related to the teaching experience?

The closing of the interview addressed the process recommended by Delamont (2012). Participants had the opportunity to raise any other topics, which had not been covered, and asked if they had any further questions. They were advised about the follow-up procedure for second interviews, if required, and opportunities to review the transcript. They were asked if they could recommend anyone to participate in the study, as part of the snowballing sampling method, which was used for subsequent participant recruitment. This method is detailed later in this chapter. Finally, they were thanked for their participation.

4.5.1.3 Data recording and transcription

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, all interviews were recorded and transcribed. Audio-recording is useful for capturing the detail of the interview, including “the narrative itself, pauses, intonation [and] laughter” (Delamont, 2012, p. 289). Interviews were captured on a small portable recording device (Sony IC Recorder, 4GB). This device had the advantage of a built-in USB connection, enabling direct backup of recordings, and offering an alternative power source from the computer in case of battery failure.

To enhance confidentiality, all recordings were deleted from the recorder following download, and stored on a password-protected computer within a folder that was also password protected. Additionally, documents were maintained in a locked filing cabinet within a locked office, to which only the researcher had access. It was decided that to increase security, raw data and transcripts would not be backed up on cloud servers.

As recommended by Yin (2011), recordings were transcribed as soon as possible after the interview to help ensure the integrity of the data gathered, and so the researcher could include additional notes and recollections regarding body language and other relevant factors. Participants were also offered a copy of the recording and transcripts as a further measure to enhance the trustworthiness and credibility of the study. Only three participants accepted this offer.
Transcript length can vary greatly. Delamont (2012) reported average transcript lengths per interview of between 20 and 30 pages (15,000 to 20,000 words). In contrast, Howard (2011) recorded a total of 62,000 words from her 16 narratives (averaging just under 4,000 words per interview), and noted differences in word counts per interview due to variations in the participants’ rates of speech and level of detail shared. The average transcript length for this dissertation was 8,510 words with a range from just over 5,000 to almost 11,000 words. A total of 85,485 words were transcribed from the ten interviews. Rates of speech also varied, with the transcript from the slowest speaker averaging 110 words per minute, while the fastest speaker averaged 155; almost 50% faster.

In standard transcription, original scripts “lack punctuation, and include verbatim every word or word fragment that was spoken, including fillers such as ‘um’, ‘uh’, repeats, false starts, etc.” (Jones et al., 2003, p. 1). This study followed standard procedures with original responses transcribed verbatim, including conversational fillers such as ‘um’, ‘yep’, ‘yeah’, ‘uh’, ‘er’, ‘you know’ and ‘I mean’. The original transcripts also included all false starts, repetition of words and minor grammatical inconsistencies, as respondents searched for an idea, along with the interviewer’s responses, such as ‘uhuh’ and ‘mmm’.

As part of the initial analysis, identifying information was removed to ensure confidentiality, as described in the Ethics section below. Minor editing was also performed to improve readability, and respect what the respondent wanted to say, as recommended by Jones et al. (2003). Example original and transformed responses are shown below:

Example original verbatim response:

When I worked at um, when I was at [name of university], um [name of person] you know [he/she] was the the uh [title of position] at the time, well, [he/she] told us we have to work over-time, and we um we didn’t have a choice.

Example transformed response:

At my previous university, our supervisor at the time told us we had to work over-time, and we didn’t have a choice.
4.5.2 Recruitment strategy

According to Robinson (2014), a rigorous sampling strategy should be developed to help increase a study’s trustworthiness and credibility. This strategy consists of the following four elements, which are elaborated below:

- Sampling strategy
- Participant sample pool, in terms of inclusion and exclusion criteria
- Method of sourcing participants
- Sample size based on epistemology and practicality

4.5.2.1 Sampling strategy

The recruitment strategy used in this study was purposive sampling, which is one of the most frequently used non-probabilistic sampling methods (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). Purposive sampling enables the selection of participants with specific knowledge and experience in the area of study (Robinson, 2014). The purposive sample for this study was tertiary level Business and Foundation Business faculty members in Dubai who met the below inclusion criteria.

4.5.2.2 Inclusion criteria

The sampling inclusion criteria are listed below. They are also stratified in terms of geographic, demographic and teaching faculty variables.

- Adult over the age of 20.
- Possession of a relevant teaching qualification or equivalent experience.
- Expatriate (ie. Non-Emirati).
- Business or Foundation Business faculty member.
- Currently teaching (or have taught within the past two years) at a higher education institution in Dubai.
- Minimum of one year’s teaching experience at higher education level in Dubai.
- Willing to sign the informed consent form.
- Willing to participate in a one-to-one in-depth interview.
- Willing to have the interview audio-recorded and transcribed.
- Understand the interview time could take 60 to 90 minutes.
- Understand they may be contacted for a second interview or follow-up questions.
- Native English language speaker (equivalent to IELTS Band 7 or higher).
- Live in Dubai or a nearby location (for logistical reasons).
As part of the recruitment strategy, a representative mix of participants was selected. It is common practice to present participant data in a table format. However, due to the small inter-related tertiary education environment in Dubai, and given that six of the initial participants were former colleagues of the researcher, a conscious decision was made to present participant data in the following aggregated format in order to protect identities and ensure confidentiality. The participants’ demographic details were as follows:

- **Gender:** Six females and four males participated in the study.
- **Ethnicity:** The ten participants reflected a diverse range of ethnic backgrounds with a total of ten nationalities identified. However, of these, four participants identified themselves as having dual ethnic backgrounds, hence four nationalities were counted twice (represented as ‘x2’), and the total count was fourteen. The count of nationalities for the ten participants was American (x1), Australian (x1), Canadian (x2), Chinese (x1), English (x2), Greek (x1), Indian (x1), New Zealand (x2), Pakistani (x1), and Scottish (x2).
- **Age:** Participants’ ages ranged from 32 to 60, with the average age being 48 years. In order to reflect the widest range of perspectives possible, participants were selected to represent as equal a distribution of ages as possible; specifically, two in their thirties, four in their forties, three in their fifties and one 60 year old.
- **Marital and family status:** Four of the participants were married, four were divorced, and two were single. With respect to families, eight had children. Of those with children, one had a pre-school child, two had either children or grandchildren currently at schools in Dubai, one had children who had been through the Dubai school system, and the remainder had grown up children.
- **Business and Foundation Business faculty members:** All participants had Business and/or Foundation Business teaching experience, with a number having experience in additional disciplines such as Aviation, Engineering, English, General Education, Liberal Arts and Science. Courses taught ranged from Diploma level through to Postgraduate courses. With the exception of one adjunct, all participants had taught in overseas locations in addition to Dubai. Years of teaching experience ranged from two years to twenty years.
- **Full-time and part-time:** Seven full-time (permanent) and three adjunct (temporary) staff members participated. One of the adjuncts had a full-time job, and was lecturing part-time in the evenings. The other two adjuncts were working close to full-time loads; one was adjunct by choice, while the other was building up experience and hoping to get a permanent full-time position.
- **Institutional affiliation**: Participants had collective experience teaching in nine Dubai universities: the three federal universities and six private foreign universities. All nine universities taught business programs. The curricula of the six private universities covered in this study were: American, Australian (x2), British, Canadian and Indian. These combined international curricula are taught in 28 of the 35 private foreign universities in Dubai. Four of the full-time staff and all three adjuncts had worked in more than one of the universities, so they were able to provide multiple perspectives. The majority of participants also knew colleagues who were working at other universities, so they were able to include additional anecdotal evidence. Seven individual private foreign universities were outside the business-focussed scope of this dissertation. Their specialties and countries of affiliation were: fashion (French), law (Lebanese), science and technology (Pakistani), engineering and economics (Russian), hospitality (Swiss), dentistry (Western), and the Islamic University (Iranian).

4.5.2.3 **Sourcing participants**

Access to participants willing to provide the amount of detail required of an in-depth interview is a constraining factor to the number of interviews one can conduct (Sinkovics & Alfoldi, 2012). Additionally, despite the researcher’s best efforts, access may be impeded by logistical factors such as subjects’ vacations, transfers or leaving the organisation (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013).

Initially, the participants were known to the researcher. Six expatriate faculty members indicated willingness to participate prior to the study; they were former colleagues, but not close, personal friends. Following, the first six interviews, four additional participants were recruited using the snowball or referral method. This method is widely used in qualitative research as a means of gaining access to new participants, who are referred to them by their existing participants, which then leads to “snowballing as these new referrals open the doors to further new contacts” (Noy, 2008, p. 330).

Schwartz-Shea and Yanow (2013, p. 88) caution that snowballing “risks enmeshing the research in the network of the initial participant interviewed”, meaning a particular group’s set of views may be over-emphasised, while other groups’ ideas remain unheard. To avoid this potential bias, the researcher endeavoured to ensure the sample was as representative as possible.
4.5.2.4 Sample size

Sample sizes in qualitative research are smaller than in quantitative research (Joubish et al., 2011). The size of a purposive sample is based on the ‘data saturation’ concept, whereby participants are recruited until no additional new themes are discovered, at which stage data gathering can be concluded (Fayers & Machin, 2007; Guest et al., 2006).

In an analysis of 60 qualitative interviews, Guest et al. (2006) discovered that saturation was achieved within 12 interviews, while initial metathemes were identified with half the number. Robinson (2014) recommends that sample sizes should be small enough to enable “individual cases to have a locatable voice within the study” (p. 7). In Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis, the recommended minimum is three participants for undergraduate research, with a maximum of 16 participants for large-scale funded projects (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009, cited in Robinson, 2014).

The time required to conduct and describe each interview also constrains the sample size (Stroh, 2000a). Although qualitative interview lengths reported in recent academic literature vary, an average of between 60 to 90 minutes seems to be the norm. Delamont (2012) recommends up to 90 minutes per interview as a general rule. Individual interview lengths have been reported from 40 minutes to three hours with 30 interviews (Stroh, 2000a); an average of 45 minutes with 16 interviews (Howard, 2011); 60 to 90 minutes with 24 interviews (Smollan, 2012); and one hour with 20 interviews (Peart, Roan, & Ashkanasy, 2012). The average length of interview in this study was 65 minutes, with the shortest interview lasting 46 minutes and the longest taking almost 90 minutes.

Analysis and transcription are also time consuming. Stroh (2000a) noted that it took an average of one week to transcribe and analyse each interview in depth. This was the case also with this dissertation, with transcription and analysis averaging around one week per one hour interview. An incrementally longer period was required for the ninety minute interview.

Following recommendations by the Research Proposal Committee, the total number of participants to be interviewed for this dissertation was flexible, with particular consideration paid to reaching a sufficient level of data saturation. Potential numbers for reaching data saturation, such as those reported by Guest et al. (2006) and in Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis were used as a broad guideline. The final number also

Amanda McStay  Teaching Business in Dubai – A phenomenological study  87
considered access to a sufficiently diverse and representative group of participants, the
time required to transcribe and analyse the interviews, and ensuring for individual voices
to be heard, as recommended by Robinson (2014).

For this study, it was determined that data saturation was reached with a total of 85,485
words transcribed from ten interviews, hence this was the final number of participants
interviewed. With seven of the ten participants having worked at more than one of the
universities, this further corroborated data, and reduced the need to interview additional
subjects. Three of the participants were also able to provide further insights, because as
well as their own personal teaching experiences, they had been in leadership roles with
supervision of other teaching staff and additional management responsibilities.

4.5.3 Data analysis

This dissertation used interpretive phenomenological content analysis to examine the
interview data gathered, augmented by Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis
(CAQDAS) to gain further insight into emerging themes and sub-themes. After
completing the interviews, the next step was to analyse all the data generated, and assign
meaning to make sense of the participants’ views of their worlds.

4.5.3.1 Interpretive phenomenological content analysis

Content analysis is commonly used in qualitative research to gain understanding and
insight from the data generated in the interview (Hsiu-Fang & Shannon, 2005). This
technique was used to gain insight into the participants’ teaching experiences.

The first stage of this analysis can be described as a “naïve reading” (Howard, 2011,
p. 79), where transcripts are read and re-read, and checked for accuracy and initial
categories (Yin, 2011). The researcher then disassembles and reassembles the data in a
process of continual interpretation, concurrently with ongoing interviews, until it is
possible to draw final conclusions that are complete, fair, empirically accurate and
credible (Yin, 2011).

Initial analysis in this study was guided by Jonker and Botma’s (2012) approach in the
content analysis of their research on South African miners’ work experiences. After the
verbatim transcription of interviews, they followed a four-step process, as explained
below:
1. Define and categorise data into sets of responses and initial themes.

2. Analyse words and themes by reading notes to determine an overall view, and then re-read to establish more detailed themes and subthemes.

3. Determine unnecessary data and link subunits to form an overview.

4. Convert the participants’ language into scientific codes and themes, with selected extracts and words to support the narrative generated.

4.5.3.2 **Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDAS)**

For this dissertation, in addition to the initial manual interpretive content analysis, the data were further analysed with the assistance of a CAQDAS program. Although Howard (2011) noted that her choice not to use multiple reviewers was a possible limitation in her doctoral research, she felt that using CAQDAS software to support her initial manual analysis was a suitable substitute to the use of external reviewers to establish credibility and trustworthiness. This was also the approach adopted in this dissertation.

CAQDAS software is designed specifically for the interpretive analysis of qualitative text, and includes proprietary software such as Atlas.ti, Ethnograph, NVivo and Qualrus (Sinkovics & Alfoldi, 2012), Leximancer and Discursis (Angus, Rintel, & Wiles, 2013) and NUD∙1ST (Stroh, 2000b). In addition, free online, open code CAQDAS software is available, such as InterviewStreamliner, which is designed to operate within a MS Access database environment (Pruijt, 2012).

Sinkovics and Alfoldi (2012) posit that CAQDAS software streamlines the analysis of bulk data by making the process “more manageable and transparent, through systematic comparison and record-keeping” (p. 839), and by “articulating and defining codes and themes” (p. 835). Although CAQDAS software is useful for increasing a study’s trustworthiness, it is not “a golden bullet that helps to document rigour or takes over the analytical process” (Sinkovics & Alfoldi, 2012, p. 819); the researcher is still required to be fully engaged in the interpretive process. There is generally a steep learning curve to gain mastery of most CAQDAS software (Pruijt, 2012; Sinkovics & Alfoldi, 2012).

The final decision on which CAQDAS program to use in this dissertation was determined after examining issues of access, cost, ease of use, and application to the study’s aims. NVivo was examined initially as this was provided through the University library. However, as the researcher was based outside Australia, there were logistical issues in
accessing the database. InterviewStreamliner was also reviewed as a potential add-on to MS Access; however, it was determined that it lacked the flexibility required.

Interviews were transcribed initially in MS Word, and subsequently exported as tables from MS Excel for upload to MS Access. Given the researcher’s high level of expertise with MS Access, and previous experience in developing a large scale research database, it was decided that a customised MS Access database with tailor-made data entry forms, coding tables and flexible queries would best suit the needs of the study. This approach was also cost-free and required negligible learning time.

4.5.3.3 Triangulation

Prior to the interview, participants were asked to provide any relevant documents they were willing to share, such as details of curriculum, courses taught, supervisor or student feedback, work examples, journal notes, and so on. Because these documents were produced for a reason not associated with the study, they were deemed to be free from the study’s influence, thereby providing a useful source of triangulation, and enhancing the study’s trustworthiness and credibility (Yin, 2011).

Half of the participants provided such documentation. These were referred to during the transcription stage to confirm any unfamiliar terminology. The documents also provided confirmation of workload data and materials development strategies generally. Data were further triangulated with six of the ten participants having worked in more than one university. Furthermore, three of the participants had been in leadership roles with supervision responsibilities for a number of faculty members, thus providing additional triangulation, through their observation of issues faced by others. These participants were not (and had not) been direct supervisors of any of the other participants.

4.6 Ethics and Confidentiality

Ethical research requires external controls such as ‘codes of conduct’ and ethics committee guidelines (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). As such, this study was subject to approval by the Faculty of Business Human Research Ethics Committee of Charles Sturt University. The final approval letter is included at the beginning of this dissertation. Informed consent, including the right to withdraw, is also a key ethical consideration in qualitative research (Delamont, 2012). Participants were provided with an information
sheet to read prior to the interview, available as Appendix 3, along with a consent form to sign, included as Appendix 4.

To address some of the concerns of the ethics approval process, the following observations are made. The study was conducted with adults only; therefore, the ethical consideration of working with minors was not an issue. The participants and the researcher were all high-level English language users, reducing possible concerns regarding language misunderstandings. The researcher was also not in a supervisory position with any of the participants, thereby eliminating possible ethical concerns regarding power or coercion. Additionally, this study did not use deception nor were participants offered inducements; participation was voluntary.

Ethically, the close relationship necessary for qualitative research may lead to issues regarding “confidentiality and anonymity” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998, p. 215). Researchers deal with these potential ethical concerns by using a pseudonym and changing personal information that may lead to the subject’s identification (Yin, 2011). Pseudonyms were used in this study, and participants were also able to choose their own names to enhance engagement, a practice used in some interviews (see Cotterall, 2011). It was observed that some participants took great delight in choosing their new name, while others were happy for one to be assigned.

The data in this dissertation are provided in a generic and non-identifying format. When it was felt that an incident reported was so unique that it might identify the individual, the decision was made not to include these quotes. For the remaining quotes that were used, minor editing changes were made when necessary to ensure confidentiality. For example, while most of the British affiliated participants referred to ‘the UK’, in cases when they referred to Scotland or England specifically, it was changed to ‘the UK’. Additionally, responses referring to Canada and the United States were reported as ‘North America’, and Chinese and Pakistani were amended to ‘Asian’. On other occasions, when it was felt the participant might be identified through listing a specific set of countries where they had worked, or a particular nationality of students they had taught previously, or their own nationality, these were changed to generic regions, such as ‘Europe’, ‘Gulf country’, ‘back home’ or ‘my country’.
Potentially identifying job titles of supervisors were changed to generic job titles to further protect participants. This was also the case for certain course titles or department names, which were amended to the generic field of study, such as ‘marketing’, ‘finance’ and ‘cross-cultural studies’. The term ‘faculty’ was recorded as reported by participants. In addition to the traditional use of this term to represent a department, the term ‘faculty’ is often used in the Middle East region in place of job titles such as teacher, lecturer, professor, etc. For example, ‘Business faculty’ could represent the Business Department, a single business teacher’s job title, or more than one business teacher.

4.7 **Summary of Research Paradigm, Methodology and Design**

Chapter Four described and justified the chosen research paradigm, methodology, research design and content analysis approach. Validity, reliability and ethical issues were also addressed. Qualitative, in-depth interviews associated with the interpretive phenomenological approach were found to be the most suitable method to meet this dissertation’s research aim of providing insights into tertiary education staff’s teaching experiences. This method was also deemed best suited to gaining the depth of information required to assist with developing potential satisfaction, commitment and retention strategies of relevance to Dubai’s higher education providers. The following chapter discusses and analyses the results of the interviews.
CHAPTER FIVE – ANALYSIS

The process of content analysis was described in the preceding methodology chapter. This chapter summarises and discusses the findings according to the themes and sub-themes identified in the interviews. These themes were explored within the context of teaching business in the tertiary education sector in Dubai. Recommendations arising from the analysis are contained in the following chapter. This chapter commences with an overview of the most common themes identified, with results divided into four sections: intrinsic, extrinsic, sociocultural and personal factors. Where possible, results have been compared to findings from relevant research on UAE academic institutions.

5.1 Overview
According to Stroh (2000c), “it is not ‘scholarly’ to talk about the piles of paper so vital to a qualitative approach” (p. 227). Indeed, in-depth qualitative research has the capacity to generate thousands of words of text, as acknowledged earlier. Following the coding process, the challenge was in choosing which data to include in the Analysis Chapter. As mentioned in the previous chapter in Section 4.5.3.2, a customised Access Database was used to code and store the data; queries were then run to sort the content by themes and individual factors. Due to the limit of 60,000 words for this dissertation, it was not feasible to include all quotations. As far as possible, the extracts and content selected for examination were felt to be either most representative of participants’ views, or to reflect divergent views regarding factors influencing satisfaction, commitment and retention of Dubai expatriate tertiary educators. A total of 120 extracts were attributed directly to the respective interviewees, with a number of additional statements anonymised where it was felt that direction quotation could lead to identification of the individual participant.

Figure 9 below illustrates the frequency with which intrinsic, extrinsic, sociocultural and personal factors were raised in the individual interviews. This was determined by a character count per theme and calculated as an overall percentage. General administration and general context setting questions from the interviewer were excluded from the calculation. Data were exported from Access to Excel and a LEN function was performed to calculate the number of characters per cell per theme. The most common theme identified was extrinsic factors with over half of all responses (56%), followed by intrinsic with one third (33%). Sociocultural and personal factors accounted for just over one tenth of the remaining factors, 6% and 5% respectively.
5.2 Intrinsic Factors

Figure 10 below illustrates the frequency distribution of intrinsic themes identified. The nature of the work itself accounted for just over half (54%) of these discussions, followed by autonomy and professional development, with 21% and 16% respectively. Other non-financial rewards made up the remaining 9% of narratives on intrinsic factors.
5.2.1 Autonomy

Autonomy is the first of the intrinsic factors to be examined. It includes academic freedom and empowerment regarding curricula, coursework and assessment development and delivery, the degree of autonomy in terms of both level of influence and level of responsibility, and finally, the extent of empowerment in teams.

5.2.1.1 Academic freedom

The general consensus was that most faculty members felt there was no autonomy in the overall course design and final assessments, but that there was more freedom in developing the coursework and, in some cases, individual assessments. In their study of UAE universities, Austin et al. (2014) also reported a top-down approach to curricula-setting and course design, with greater autonomy in course delivery.

Lack of autonomy was particularly the case with branch campuses, where the curricula and assessments were set by the parent campus overseas, and also in the larger public sector universities, which were run by a central body. There was an expressed desire for greater autonomy and cooperation between campuses regarding curricula development and assessments, as Allie explained.

Allie: We are not necessarily free from the shackles of the master authority. With the branch campuses, you still have to follow the curricula that’s set by the main commissioning body. You also have to ensure that you keep parity, not only so as your marks can look comparable, but so you can appease the authorities like KHDA. So, we’re not very free.

In addition to the constraints of international parent campuses setting the curricula, there was concern that material may not be so relevant in the UAE, and that there was little flexibility in adapting materials to meet the regional needs. As an adjunct faculty member, Rob felt that he did not have as much input.

Rob: Within the universities in Dubai, I’ve had little chance to make adaptations, especially being a part-time lecturer. I add my own experiences, but quite often if the work is set in say an Australian or UK context, it may not be so relevant here, but I have to teach it. I think we should have more ability to make courses that are more reflective of the regional needs rather than the Western context.

One faculty member provided a middle-road perspective, and noted that she had more autonomy than others in terms of course development, and highlighted the role that individual supervisors played in terms of their level of prescriptiveness. She also
commented on the importance of working strategically, as she volunteered to take the less popular courses, where she had more autonomy.

**Elizabeth:** It's totally random if you have autonomy or not. If you’re teaching big courses with lots of people, the supervisor’s input can mean it’s very prescriptive. Fortunately, I have managed to get into little niches here because they’re less popular courses, so it means I have greater autonomy. I feel I know what I’m doing, and how the students are going to react, what’s going to work in the classroom, and what’s not. So, although I enjoy a lot of autonomy, I see people around me who do not. You have to be a little bit strategic.

One of the participants acknowledged the positive aspect of potential professional development which came from writing assessments. She reported that assessments were all written in-house, which meant that anybody interested in assessment could join the team of item writers or editors, and receive training on assessment item writing.

### 5.2.1.2 Level of influence

At the faculty level, it was reported that there was a limited level of influence. In particular, there was a lack of faculty representation on senior academic teams and boards, in comparison to other Western countries. Another participant commented that they used to have a faculty representative on the board, but noted that this had been discontinued several years ago. Similarly, Austin et al. (2014) reported a lack of faculty representation in the federal and semi-public universities studied in the UAE.

Allie reported that she had to be persistent in trying to get her message across, but that management was slow to respond to requests.

**Allie:** To be fair, there is a slight influence, only in the fact that my whinging is listened to. But whether that actually translates to any changes, we’re always told manyana, bukra, later. And consequently, the proof of the pudding will be in the eating, and we haven’t had the dessert yet.

Adjunct staff, in particular, felt that they had very little influence. Comments included: “I don’t feel like I have voice” and “As far as management is concerned, we are interchangeable pegs”.

### 5.2.1.3 Level of responsibility

The level of responsibility increased with faculty members who also held (or had held) management positions, whereas there was no reflection on this point from faculty who only taught. Perspectives ranged from strongly negative to strongly positive.
Two of the participants spoke of “team leader” roles where they were ultimately responsible for the quality of course materials and assessments, following up on team member assessment results, and a variety of other tasks. The position was felt to have a lot of responsibility, but without authority, freedom or compensation. The faculty members complained that they were not empowered, but that management expected them to make everything work. As one participant noted: “It was as though they assumed you had authority without positing any with you; it was a somewhat invidious position”. Only those participants who had experienced management roles reported a satisfying level of autonomy and responsibility.

At the branch campus level, Allie had less responsibility and input than her colleagues in the parent campus. This was also a theme that appeared for other participants working in branch campuses.

Allie: I do have responsibility, partially, but not the level that my UK counterparts have, because although my responsibility is to ensure that certain standards are upheld, I don’t have the kind of responsibility that would allow me to make the changes that I feel should be made in order to get the results I would like.

5.2.1.4 Self-managed teams

Similar to discussions on autonomy, participants reported both strongly positive and strongly negative experiences of working in self-managed teams. When team members were willing to cooperate and share, self-managed teams were felt to work well and were generally viewed as a positive, empowering experience. However, teams with poor decision making, unclear communication, and uncooperative team members were universally agreed to be dysfunctional and a great source of dissatisfaction. Miranda’s review, highlighted both ends of the spectrum of working in self-managed teams.

Miranda: We were self-managing a lot last semester because we were waiting for a new line manager to be appointed, and it worked well. At other times, I’ve worked in teams where there’s been an ‘in group’ and an ‘out group’, and if you’re in the out group then it’s a cold place to be. You don’t know why decisions are made, or even if decisions are made, and communication is poor.

The majority of participants spoke of the preferred management style in terms of self-managed teams and autonomy in general. Gregor’s perspective below encapsulates the majority of views.

Gregor: Autonomy – by having my boss trust me – that’s fine. I think I’m quite good as a manager because I trust people to just get on with it, and I don’t interfere. I think people respond best to that type of approach, and my teams perform well.
5.2.2 Nature of Work

The second intrinsic factor, the nature of the work itself, was a predominant theme which emerged during the course of the interviews. This topic is divided into a number of subsections, including clear job role and expectations, and challenging and stimulating work, with the accompanying sense of achievement. These are followed by the variety of work and variety of skills regarding working to strengths, and the ability to make a difference generally in terms of meaningful, significant work. This section concludes with an analysis of the workload and teaching impact associated with students’ ability, level, behaviour and motivation.

5.2.2.1 Clear job role and expectations

Some faculty members appeared to have a higher awareness and acceptance of their job roles and employer expectations than others. Some participants clearly understood the vision and their role in it. Comments included: “We fulfilled a need in society”, and “We knew what we were doing, and they knew why they were there”. In contrast, other faculty members, while perhaps clear on their officially reported job roles, were less clear when additional duties were assigned, and less satisfied with the extra workload expected of them outside their normal role.

Penny: As teachers, certainly you were supposed to be managing your classes and all the administration, teaching, assessing and doing your part in teamwork. Sometimes, particularly if you were team leader, the expectations were not spelled out, and you had no time allowed for it.

The extra workload was particularly an issue in start-up universities, which often required staff to attend Open Days, exhibitions, and other student recruitment initiatives without remuneration or time allowances. It was felt that in Dubai, staff had to give far more work hours than their colleagues at home, and that there was no freedom to refuse to work weekends or evenings. As one participant put it, “If something crops up, there is an expectation that you will show face and support it, regardless of when it is”.

Adjuncts offered a different perspective, which reflected that although part-time, there was an expectation that they should be available to students for extended consultation times, as would a full-time staff member, but without the compensation. During the interview, one participant acknowledged that this was difficult given that he had a full-time day position, and was only lecturing in the evenings. Another noted that he was happy to see students before or after lectures, or by special appointment, but that he
objected to having to sit and wait for hours in case someone came. All the adjuncts indicated that they maintained email contact with students for any queries.

5.2.2.2 Challenging and stimulating work

Participants reflected on the rewards of stimulating work with respect to the sense of achievement from students’ accomplishments, their own personal learning achievements, and succeeding in challenging, professional endeavours. These factors were also highlighted in Austin et al.’s (2014) UAE academic staff study. Penny and Gregor recounted how they derived satisfaction from helping guide students’ growth and sharing in their success stories.

Penny: Normally, we expect the students to be autonomous learners, but I find they need an awful lot of support. There’s a sense of achievement when at the end they acknowledge that your input has helped them with that transition. It’s definitely challenging and exhausting, but it’s good to see they’ve made it.

Gregor: Our students had the best scores, so we also had great satisfaction from the competitive side as well.

Miranda’s enjoyable personal challenge came through learning and designing online courses. However, not all participants shared her enthusiasm for online design, citing the negative aspects of the additional workload.

Miranda: A lot of the materials provided are international publisher materials; they’re not written for our students, so you end up having to rewrite course material. While the extra workload has been challenging, I’ve learnt how to develop online courses, and I have an interest in e-learning and online design. I’ve felt that I’ve been at the forefront of it in many ways.

For one participant, in particular, a sense of challenge and stimulation in her work was essential for her personal satisfaction. When that was no longer there, and she could not make the work any more challenging, it was a prime motivating factor in leaving.

5.2.2.3 Variety of work and skills

Closely linked to the concept of challenging and stimulating work, was the importance of having a variety of work, and being able to use and develop a range of skills. Three of the participants acknowledged that although some of their colleagues enjoyed routine and repetition, and were happy doing the same thing every day, they needed variety to be satisfied at work. Gregor expanded on the importance of variety, while, at the same time, highlighting some colleagues’ resistance to change.
**Gregor:** I was given the role of manager, which was brilliant. It opened up new areas, and took me into a new environment in which I had to prove and stretch myself. Some people didn’t like the changes though. People get into their comfort zone, and when someone comes and shakes things up, it’s just a bit too difficult.

A number of participants spoke of teaching courses for which they were not really qualified. While some embraced the challenge, and enjoyed learning and teaching different programs, others found it “challenging” and “unprofessional”. This highlighted the importance of management maintaining an employee skills register, and allowing staff to voice their preferred courses to deliver and student levels to teach. The ability to teach a variety of business courses was a key factor for Jess, who, as an adjunct, needed to have flexibility in the contracts she is offered and accepts. Her skills with the university’s online systems also enhanced her employment opportunities.

**Jess:** I have lots of variety; I like it, but I kind of have to. I’ve taught myself Blackboard Learn (an e-education platform). I love it, it’s a great learning tool, and they use it at a number of the universities in one form or another.

### 5.2.2.4 Impact of student ability

Austin et al. (2014) reported that the UAE faculty members in their study were frustrated that their students were not sufficiently prepared for work at university level. In addition, Smith (2006) noted the importance of adapting the syllabus in the UAE to meet students’ needs. The findings from both pieces of research were similar to the themes which emerged from participants’ narratives in this study.

The impact of students’ ability was a recurring theme. While the majority of the participants’ students were not native English language speakers, some had been to schools where English had been the language of instruction. The abilities of the cohorts depended very much on the individual universities and the students’ backgrounds. It was acknowledged that there were substantial differences with regard to the range of English language skills. Reading and writing were the primary areas of concern, while listening and speaking were generally not seen as such an issue.

The issues in writing related mainly to the quality appropriate at a tertiary level, and the need for more training on basic study skills. Participants highlighted the issue of plagiarism. Although software such as Turnitin and SafeAssign was used at a number of universities, there was a need for more student training on paraphrasing and referencing assignments. Rob’s comment summarised the common theme about writing issues.
Rob: Most of the students are not used to university level writing, and there’s a lot of ‘cut and paste’. I found that surprising for postgraduate students. I would introduce more study skills, like a College 101 course.

Participants also complained about the low level of math skills in some of their students, with some undergraduate students unable to do basic percentages without a calculator. It was posited that the local schooling system had not prepared students as well as it could have. In contrast, students who went to international schools were generally found to be coping mathematically.

John: One of the math teachers told me she was doing something with her undergraduate students that she did when she was in grade 7, because that never happened in their grade 7. In some ways, we’re making up for gaps in the local high school or junior high school systems.

5.2.2.5 Impact of student behaviour and motivation

There was general consensus that students were respectful, but that behaviour and motivation levels, and discipline differed depending on the university environment. Similarly, Austin et al.’s (2014) UAE academics reported a lack of industry in a number of their students. It was felt that it was important to have consistency in management policies regarding appropriate behaviour expected from students in terms of attendance and punctuality, as rules and policy implementation varied between universities.

Jess: My students are all very respectful, but the level of motivation differs. One university has super competitive students who will fight for even half a mark extra, the second has the usual range, while the other has less hardworking students in general and only a few high achievers. Because I work at different universities, I have to make sure I’m implementing the correct lateness and attendance policies – some have a policy of not allowing entry after five minutes, others allow entry, but with a late penalty noted in the attendance records, while others don’t record the time – we just mark them present as long as they turn up.

Individual lecturers’ approaches were reported as having an impact on students’ motivation levels. Katerina recounted how she was always given the “difficult class” that other colleagues had given up on, and that within a week students had a changed attitude.

Katerina: Suddenly they’re in a class where someone takes an interest in their development and finds their strengths. Not only did they not fail, but they have masters and are managing companies. You have to have faith in students, it just changes the whole vista of what you’re doing.

Other participants reported that their possible lack of cultural awareness in certain contexts, along with the rote learning pedagogical approach of the local schooling system sometimes hindered non-Arabic faculty members’ ability to motivate Arabic students.
Three participants noted that there was a tendency for some students who had come through the local system to expect to be highly rewarded for doing and knowing little.

Quinn (2001) also reported that students at his UAE university expected higher grades than were awarded. While the expatriate teachers in this study endeavoured to set more realistic expectations for grades and rewards, it was suggested that Arabic teachers might be better able to deal with the students in these particular contexts, as Elizabeth explained.

Elizabeth: *One of the problems is that the students' high school background and peer influence is much stronger than any kind of influence that you can exert over them. I don't know if it's different for Arabic or Emirati teachers, who maybe know how to appeal to them.*

### 5.2.2.6 Impact of student to teacher ratio

Current class sizes varied from lows of 15 to highs of 200 students, with larger class sizes generally being the norm. Staff noted that class sizes had increased dramatically over the years, and that this impacted negatively on their ability to provide effective, quality, personal learning experiences, as shown in the excerpts below.

**Miranda:** When I first joined, we had classes of 14 students, just recently classes started off with 26 to 28 on the register.

**Sanjay:** The student to teacher ratio varies a lot. Some of my classes have 200 students and some are only 15, so I can't get round everyone, even with tutorials.

**Penny:** For low level, misplaced students, to have 24 in a class made it difficult to teach them to do academic writing when you can't get to them one on one.

**John:** Larger class numbers have not helped. Last semester, I had classes in the high twenties, and when I first came to the university I had classes of thirteen.

### 5.2.2.7 Other classroom management issues

Miranda described an interesting classroom management dilemma she had faced, which was fairly unique to this region, regarding the prevalence of certain Emirati first names. Although the class size was manageable, nineteen of the twenty students shared only three first names between them. She reported that this made it difficult to get students’ attention and provide feedback, and suggested that, where possible, students with the same first name should be distributed equally across classes.

**Miranda:** This semester I don’t know who on earth put together the classes, but they have never taught here before. They did it alphabetically by first name, because I have ten Aishas, five Aliyas, four Amiras and one Amna. They have no idea how difficult it is for faculty to learn students’ names when they’re all the
same. The only distinguishing thing is the father’s name, so do I say ‘daughter of Fahad, can you answer this question please?’ That’s just downright silly.

5.2.2.8 Workload
The issue of workload was a prevalent theme, with agreement that the expected workload was high in Dubai universities. Interviewees focussed primarily on the excessive number of face to face delivery hours, the large amount of time required for preparation, and heavy marking workloads.

i. Teaching delivery workload
It was universally agreed that the teaching delivery workload had increased over the years, and was high across both the private and government sector. In addition to the generally larger class sizes, in the majority of cases faculty members were teaching considerably more hours per week than their counterparts in their home countries. The maximum reported teaching load was close to 30 hours of delivery a week, with 24 hours per week common. The teaching workload was for face to face scheduled classes or group tutorials, and did not include lesson preparation, marking, administration, or meetings with students or other staff. The high teaching workloads were reported across the board by both newer and older staff, and impacted on participants’ levels of satisfaction and intention to leave. The excerpts below are typical example responses.

Gregor: People generally have a fairly heavy workload. When I arrived, I was given close to 30 hours teaching. It reduced to 20 at the end, but most of the time I was doing something in between, which is more than most faculty in any other university.

Miranda: We used to teach for 15 hours with small classes. Recently, we were just told that we were on 24 hours, and they didn’t ask; it was compulsory overtime.

Elizabeth: We had a teacher who only stayed one year because when he arrived, he was immediately given a full timetable with overtime. It was too much, so he left.

The above reported teaching workloads were substantially higher than the 12-15 hour class teaching averages reported at the UAE public and semi-public universities by Austin et al. (2014).

Staff also resented having to be on campus for a specified number of hours, noting that their full-time colleagues overseas usually had more flexible timetables, with prescribed lecture hours and student consultation times, so that it was possible for them to work from
home to prepare and mark. One university had recently introduced finger scanning to monitor working hours, which had encountered some resistance from faculty members. Austin et al. (2014) also reported differences between their universities, with some expecting a set number of hours’ attendance, while others were more flexible.

**Allie:** In my previous place, I didn’t like the fact that I had to be there consistently even when I wasn’t teaching. In my current place, I’m not expected to be there any set number of hours, but it’s very busy, so I tend to go to work and find that between students and colleagues coming in, I sometimes have to come home just to get time to work.

**John:** We have to be there for eight hours. I actually do more work now, but I do it at home, and I do it in an environment that I like to be in. It benefits the institution, but do they see that?

ii. Preparation and marking workloads

There was general consensus that course development and lesson preparation time was very time consuming. This included the physical amount of time to develop courses and prepare for individual lessons, high marking workloads, and the extra workload associated with delivering more than one course. Penny’s excerpt illustrates a breakdown of her typical workload of up to sixty hours per week, which included working from home. It also reflected her frustration at having to reinvent materials, and she noted that this occurred at many of the universities where she had worked.

**Penny:** Working an extra hour till five was standard, working till six, a couple of times a week, and then usually part of a weekend. I had a lot of assignments in my course, so there was a lot of marking at home. Because the students are often misplaced, you have to make extra materials, then you’re stuck with the extra hours. So, fifty to sixty hours a week easily. I’ve only had one job in this country where I was under that. They were more organised; and still had people in assessment and curriculum positions, so you weren’t reinventing the wheel.

Most of the universities had (or were introducing) a requirement that courses should be available to students online. So, in addition to having to develop courses and materials, staff had to gain mastery in their particular online environment and allocate time to upload materials. There was a general feeling that university management could do more in terms of reviewing the effectiveness and currency of their coursework content sharing databases, and the associated workload and training requirements for staff.

The issue of extra lecture preparation time was particularly prevalent in the branch campuses, where material had been sent from overseas, and required contextualising to a regional focus. There is a reported lack of organisational learning on the part of parent
campuses in terms of adapting curricula to meet host countries’ needs (Farrugia & Lane, 2013). This was also reported by participants in this study. Significant time was required to ensure that materials were culturally sensitive. There were reported instances of participants having to revise materials containing profanities, sexual references, alcohol and drug use, and other topic areas not considered appropriate for this region. Additionally, the level of background information provided varied significantly in terms of supporting materials. Allie’s account is indicative of a number of branch campus participants’ experiences.

Allie: For each lecture, I may only get a cursory two or three sentences of an outline and somebody else’s slides. Sometimes you get 16 slides for three hours, or sometimes 200 – both are challenging. It can take up to 16 hours to create the lecture: I’ve got to contextualise it, edit it for appropriacy, and fathom what the original person meant.

The total number of courses taught also influenced workloads. In some cases, faculty members were teaching up to six different courses in one semester, with no choice in the courses assigned, and no allowances for the extra preparation time involved in mastering the variety of subject areas. It was posited that this was due to staffing shortages. Staff felt that there should be policies to ensure equity in the number of courses delivered, as well as allowances for a reduced number of courses for new staff coming in, so that they could familiarise themselves with the institutional requirements. Elizabeth’s account expressed the concerns of a number of faculty members.

Elizabeth: I’m teaching courses that I like, and I’m doing only two subjects, but there are staff who have six different courses, and their total hours are counted the same as mine. However, we’re also very short of teachers in all departments.

In cases where there was a heavy workload with several different courses to prepare, some staff resorted to survival mechanisms. John described how he learned the material in the classroom, but acknowledged that the quality of delivery was impaired.

John: In the past, I had a very heavy workload, so if I taught the same class with three different groups, the first class was getting to know the material, the second class was repeating it, and I think by the third class I actually did quite a good job. I trained myself in those courses to the students’ detriment. Now, I’m only doing one course, so I’m the goose that laid the golden egg. I know others are doing a lot more, and they’re suffering.

Adjunct staff acknowledged the issues faced with marking in terms of appropriate compensation. It was noted that some universities compensated lecturers with an amount over and above the hourly lecturing rate, while others did not. Additionally, marking workloads varied between and within universities, with one course alone reportedly
having a total of seven student assignments, which the lecturer was expected to mark without additional compensation. Jess and Rob’s accounts provide the two perspectives.

Jess: At one of the universities where I work, they pay a grad student – and I think it’s quite a small amount – to mark the assignments and exams for my course. She does a good job, and I’m glad I don’t have to do it.

Rob: One of the universities has only one assignment – group work, and then a mid- and end-semester exam, but the other has seven – mostly individual. Plus you have to give feedback. The thing is I get paid the same hourly lecture rate, and it doesn’t take all the marking into account.

5.2.3 Professional Development (PD)
The importance of professional development was highlighted in a number of the studies on UAE universities (see Austin et al. 2014; Bashir, 2012; Smith, 2006; Smith, 2009). The topic of professional development is explored in terms of cross-discipline development, mentoring, and personal growth and development opportunities.

5.2.3.1 Cross-discipline development opportunities
With respect to cross-discipline development opportunities, a number of faculty members described their experiences of working in disciplines outside the business area, including Aviation, Engineering, English, General Education, Liberal Arts and Science. This cross-discipline work was generally viewed as a favourable development opportunity. However, the main issues raised were in relation to a lack of willingness or awareness on the part of some staff to collaborate across disciplines, resulting in poorer preparation and learning experiences for students.

Katerina spoke of how students were disadvantaged through a lack of collaboration of business teachers with the English Department. This highlighted the importance of the business faculty understanding issues faced by non-native English language speakers.

Katerina: Business teachers were far less interested in talking to English teachers than vice versa. When the business teachers wrote materials, they had to go through a committee of proof readers from the English Language department, because if you haven’t been trained in teaching English as a second language, you have no idea that what you think is easy to teach is actually really hard. As far as they were concerned, students are going to be in the business world which speaks English, so they should know.

The reverse was also found to be the case, with preparation course teachers not having a clear understanding of the requirements of the various undergraduate business courses which their students would be undertaking. It was seen as important for closer
collaboration between teachers to link lower level learning outcomes to more current business related themes and vocabulary. It was noted that a lot of the preparation course teachers had not taught the undergraduate courses, so they lacked awareness of what they should be preparing students for. It was felt that the focus was more on English for no particular purpose rather than properly preparing them for business studies.

5.2.3.2 Mentoring opportunities

It was generally agreed that there was a lack of formal mentoring, with the exception of the initial induction processes in some universities, outlined in the Management Policies section. This was consistent with Austin et al.’s (2014) UAE findings. Bashir (2012) also reported on the importance of mentoring at UAE universities.

Most of the workplace mentoring that took place was on an informal basis when colleagues offered to help; for example, “Colleagues come to me when they don’t want to walk to IT, and ask me to help with quick fixes”. Allie and Miranda’s accounts exemplify the informal mentoring support provided at their universities. Miranda also highlighted the personal growth benefits of mentoring.

Allie: I do mentor other staff members, but it is completely on an informal basis, and probably 'cos I’ve got the biggest box of tissues and I cry the most.

Miranda: I have my own little personal learning network with friends and colleagues that I respect, and I’ve learnt a lot from them. It’s that kind of informal learning from each other. It’s also about rediscovering what you may have forgotten over the years, and refreshing yourself, and refreshing your own professionalism, if you like. I would quite like to get involved in formal mentoring.

5.2.3.3 Personal growth and professional development

There was considerable discussion on the topic of personal growth and professional development training opportunities. A number of staff commented on how their personal and professional growth was mainly self-driven rather than being provided by their employer. There were also time management implications of balancing work with study.

In the case of adjuncts, participants spoke of limited training opportunities generally. This was consistent with Backhaus (2009) who reported a need for professional development of adjunct staff at business schools in the US, as many were recruited for their industry experience, and lacked formal teacher training. Both Rob and Sanjay spoke of learning on the job, or using their previous experience as students to guide their lecturing.
Rob: Other than sitting in on the first lecture, I haven't had any formal lecturing training, as such. I guess I've just learnt what works on the job, and, of course, I think back to when I was a student.

Sanjay: I knew the lecturing style since I'd already been a student there, so I followed that.

As well as training not being provided by the employer, there was a sentiment that there should be some funding provided or time given to assist faculty members in furthering their qualifications, particularly in the case of a university which had increased the credential requirement for existing staff members. It was noted that the majority of universities did not provide funding or extra time to pursue postgraduate qualifications. Not only were these studies seen to benefit the individual faculty members, but also the university as a whole would profit in terms of more knowledgeable, motivated, and enthusiastic staff.

The majority of interviewees spoke about the motivating factor of professional development. One participant also noted the importance of developing skills as “a kind of insurance for possible other jobs in the future”, particularly in a climate of job insecurity (covered later in this chapter).

It was noted that some training was compulsory, whether faculty members felt they needed it or not, and this was seen to be a de-motivating factor.

John: I see PD as Periodic Detention. It’s like, here are these things, and you’ve got to fulfil these requirements.

Rob: Full-time staff at the university were told they had to do ICDL (International Computer Driving Licence). It was a good thing they did it, but maybe forcing people is not a good thing.

Penny: Because it’s compulsory, a lot of people get quite jaded, and just go to anything and tick the box so they can report it for their performance appraisal.

Some staff commented on the lack of variety in the professional development opportunities offered, noting that most of the training was IT focussed. There were a number of suggestions for additional potential professional development opportunities, including: teaching innovations, classroom management, current business related topics, current political issues, emotional intelligence, soft skills, English language learning issues, Arabic language classes, student counselling skills, work-life balance and stress management.
5.2.4 Rewards (Non-financial)

Non-financial rewards included the ability to help students, in terms of making a difference, and feedback and recognition for teaching and research achievements. Helping colleagues has been addressed previously in the Mentoring section.

5.2.4.1 Ability to help students – making a difference to others

This was one of the areas about which participants spoke most passionately, with genuine satisfaction from making a difference in their students’ lives, so that their work had meaning. These findings were consistent with Austin et al. (2014) who reported that their UAE faculty members were highly dedicated and enjoyed helping their students. The following examples are representative of the majority of responses. Participants derived significant satisfaction from watching their students grow as individuals, to try, fail and then see them go on and make contributions in the workforce.

**Katerina:** Why didn’t I leave – the main reason – my students! Whichever way you looked at it, it was great to be teaching a bunch of ambitious young people. It’s very rewarding being part of the country’s transformation.

**Jess:** When students have come from rote learning backgrounds, and they realise they’ve actually got to be more self-reliant, and make that transition, hopefully they will go on to be more successful employees in the future; that’s meaningful.

**Gregor:** The intrinsic rewards were the students’ successes and their smiles, their tears etc. There was nothing better than seeing those students succeed—some of them on the eighth or ninth attempt. Some of them worked during the day and studied at night, and then looked after their families and had families themselves. It was remarkable what they did, and it was very satisfying.

Although participants derived intrinsic rewards from helping students, one participant raised a concern that there was no formalised student support mechanism at her university. She noted that it was “emotionally draining”, and that she was “not equipped to deal with some of the issues” which the students were facing. This highlighted the need for either a trained counsellor or at least formal training to cope with some of the issues students were raising.

5.2.4.2 Recognition of achievements

All the universities had student evaluation systems in place, whereby the students provided feedback on the course and faculty member. However, in terms of feedback and recognition for teaching and research achievements, the majority of participants
agreed that this was lacking. This applied across the board in the areas of the ability to research, the ability to publish, and feedback on teaching achievements.

In the private universities, there was a concern about the lack of opportunities to research, and that their remit was primarily that of a teaching university. While one of the private universities was considering providing research opportunities, no firm decision had been made, and staff were feeling dissatisfied by the lack of opportunity. This was in contrast to the federal and semi-public universities in the UAE, which were reportedly moving in recent years towards more research opportunities, although it was noted that “rhetoric about research importance seemed to exceed actuality” (Austin et al., 2014, p. 548). Ultimately, the lack of research opportunities at the private universities was seen as a management bottom-line decision to gain revenue from teaching rather than seeking funding opportunities for research. There would seem to be potential scope for private universities to both augment their incomes and increase their research profile through seeking research grants, and encouraging staff to conduct research.

It was acknowledged that at one of the universities, there was the opportunity to publish your works, but that there were generally few accolades associated with this. The fact that you could be published was one of the factors that drew one person there in the first place: “Can you imagine, your own book being published, like a real publisher?”

One of the participants acknowledged that her university had a system whereby the line manager could nominate staff for teaching achievements in terms of a teaching excellence and innovation award. However, it was generally agreed that, at most of the universities, recognition of achievements was not done as well as they would like.

In Austin et al.’s (2014) study, “a general sense of being unappreciated pervaded the comments of the majority of expatriate faculty respondents” (p. 553). This was also the case with the respondents in this study. There was a feeling that there should be more support and appreciation of the credentials, experience and commitment of the staff. A number of participants expressed the sentiment that they were just supposed to make things work, and be quiet about how they did it.

It was also felt that staff should be trusted more as professionals, rather than bringing down a set of punitive rules and regulations because of a minority of staff that were not
trustworthy. For the three adjunct faculty, positive feedback was deemed to be in terms of the absence of complaints, receipt of positive student evaluations, and offers of ongoing contract renewals.

5.2.5 Summary of key intrinsic factors

**Autonomy:** Faculty members with dual teaching and management roles felt more empowered than their lecturer colleagues, while lecturers generally felt a lack of freedom in developing curricula and assessments, although there was more freedom with coursework. There was a need to contextualise material to ensure its regional relevance. It was reported that there was limited faculty representation on senior academic teams and boards in comparison to other countries. It was felt that additional responsibilities had been assigned without necessarily considering the time involved, or suitable financial compensation. There was a need for more input and delegated responsibility from parent to branch campuses in general. When working in self-managed teams, there was a requirement sometimes for improved communication and decision-making.

**Nature of Work:** The overall consensus was that a variety of challenging, stimulating, meaningful work made teaching a more satisfying experience. Job roles and expectations needed to be clearer. For example, faculty members felt that the extra workload was not acknowledged when additional responsibilities were assigned, such as team leader roles, student consultation hours for adjunct staff, and attendance at Open Days, exhibitions, and other student recruitment initiatives. The importance of maintaining a skills register was highlighted, along with a greater level of staff consultation regarding choices in courses and student levels.

**Student ability:** There were considerable differences in the range of English language abilities of students, with the primary areas of concern being academic reading and writing and basic math. Students were respectful, but differed in behaviour and motivation levels, depending on their educational and cultural background, thus requiring a more personalised teaching approach.

**Classroom management:** Class sizes had grown over the years, and varied dramatically, which negatively impacted on the quality of teaching and learning. A unique regional issue regarded the prevalence of certain Emirati students’ first names, highlighting the
necessity, where flexibility allowed, of equally distributing students with the same first name across classes to improve classroom management and personalised learning.

**Workload:** The expected workload was high in Dubai universities, especially for face to face delivery hours, preparation and marking. There was also a disparity in “on-campus” requirements between Dubai and overseas universities, with less flexibility for Dubai staff to work recognised hours from home. Internationally published materials required both contextualising to account for regional examples, and editing for cultural sensitivities and second language learner requirements. The level and quality of background information provided varied between universities. Staffing shortages had led to increased workloads with a number of staff working compulsory overtime, and/or teaching multiple courses. It was felt that the compensation packages of some adjunct staff did not include sufficient remuneration for marking coursework.

**Cross-discipline collaboration:** There was an expressed need for greater collaboration between Business and English departments to improve the learning experiences and outcomes for students.

**Mentoring and professional development:** There were no significant ongoing formal mentoring policies in place, with the exception of formalised induction processes in some universities. It was suggested that some funding or time be given to assist faculty members further their qualifications, which would encourage individual teachers’ growth, and benefit the university in terms of a more qualified workforce. Lack of variety and flexibility in training and professional development opportunities was reported.

**Making a difference:** Participants gained genuine satisfaction from making a difference in their students’ lives. There was an expressed need for additional student counselling in the form of either a dedicated counsellor, or training for staff.

**Recognition of achievements:** It was widely agreed that there could be improvement in feedback and recognition for teaching and research achievements, and more opportunities to research.
5.3 **Extrinsic Factors**

The extrinsic factors are divided into seven areas: namely, financial rewards, interpersonal relationships, job security, management culture, promotional opportunities, supervisor style and work environment. Figure 11 below illustrates the frequency distribution of the extrinsic themes which emerged from the narratives. The topics of management culture and supervisor style combined accounted for almost half (49%) of the extrinsic factors. There was overlap on occasions on these two topic areas with “management” and “they” sometimes used in place of “supervisors” and vice-versa. These were followed by financial rewards and job security, which together accounted for just over quarter (28%) of the extrinsic themes. The remaining discussion focussed on interpersonal relationships, work environment and promotional opportunities, with less than 10% each.

![Frequency of extrinsic themes](image)

**Figure 11. Frequency distribution of extrinsic themes covered in narratives.**

5.3.1 **Financial rewards**

The financial rewards include the salary and other benefits, along with opportunities for additional remunerated work. There was significant discussion on the area of financial rewards, in particular the comparison of current to previous circumstances.

5.3.1.1 **Salary and cost of living**

This topic generated a high degree of interest, with all participants contributing their thoughts. Although it was noted that an attractive factor of working in Dubai was the tax-free salary, it was universally acknowledged that the cost of living had increased dramatically from previous years, particularly for housing and school fees.
**Katerina:** They cut the increment which was pretty mean because the cost of living has just shot up. Housing is viciously expensive; now they're battling against pretty greedy land agents. A lot of people are struggling to pay school fees too, which have gone out of this world.

There was anecdotal evidence of landlords trying to increase rents by as much as 40% in one year. Where tenants complained about the exorbitant increases, it was reported that some landlords had refused to renew tenancy contracts, and instead put in new tenants who were willing to pay the higher amounts. However, rental increase percentages and evictions are governed by law, and tenants who are aware of this are able to raise complaints with the Dubai Rental Disputes Committee.

It was felt that the standard of living had dropped significantly in comparison to previous years, and that employers were not making allowances for this with their salary packages.

**Gregor:** The remuneration isn’t as good now. I have taken cuts in salary for things I thought might be better, and I would also in the future if it was a nice place, nice people, and nice job. I just want to cover my costs and save a bit.

**Miranda:** I’m not so happy with how far my money stretches now, and how little spending power I have left at the end of the month. Where I’m living and rents are a headache I never had to worry about.

Other than the directly observable increases in housing rents and school fees, it was noted that there are few published indices on the cost of living in Dubai, which one participant felt impeded her ability to negotiate salary increases. In addition to the increased living costs, buying power had been further reduced for expatriate staff due to exchange rate fluctuations, as Katerina explained her situation.

**Katerina:** There was a point after I’d been here ten years that because of the exchange rate, although I was on three times my original salary compared to back home, I hadn’t moved one step more because of the exchange rate.

The buying power of salaries was also a topic of interest relating to the lack of home ownership as an expatriate, as John and Penny recounted their stories.

**John:** I checked recently, and I could be on a similar salary in Australia or New Zealand or the UK. Now the only difference would be that I’d be living there and my home would be paid off.

**Penny:** Some people’s housing allowances weren’t enough, so they had to augment them. If I were in North America or Australasia, anything that I was paying would be going into a property that would then be an asset.
The high home purchase costs in Dubai, and difficulties in saving a sufficiently large deposit and obtaining a mortgage was a further issue for adjunct staff, as Jess elaborated.

*Jess: I can’t afford to buy in Dubai; you’ve got to put a very large deposit down, plus the cost of properties is higher than it would be in North America or Asia or, in fact, most places. It's almost impossible to get a mortgage when you're an adjunct. There’s also the fear that if you miss any payments, you can be incarcerated – I’ve seen that happen.*

### 5.3.1.2 Salary comparability

In terms of institutional salary comparability, there was variation both between and within universities. One participant who had been at his university for around ten years noted that he was earning almost AUS $2,000 equivalent a month more than a colleague in his department who had been there for four years, and was doing the same work. Another participant recounted how teachers at one of the federal universities had not had a pay-rise in seven years, and that after all those years of service, they were getting paid less than starting teachers at her institution. These salary variations were consistent with those of Austin et al. (2014), who added that salary levels differed based on nationality, with Emiratis on the highest pay scales, followed by English-speaking expatriates, then expatriate Arabs, and finally other expatriates.

The salary was deemed comparable to most other Western countries, and higher than the sub-continent region, but with acknowledgement that the cost of living was not taken into account. For some participants, the lack of employment opportunities in their own countries was the main reason for staying. This was particularly the case for the participant with Greek heritage who, in the initial interview, had indicated a desire to quit and move to Greece to be closer to family. The researcher was advised in a short follow-up interview that given the recent escalation of the Greek economic crisis, those plans were on hold indefinitely. “My family said, ‘Don’t come, there’s nothing here for you’. So, I guess I’m stuck here.”

### 5.3.1.3 Gratuity and pension

A common practice in Dubai is the payment of a gratuity (end of service bonus) on completion of the contract. The amount varies between organisations, but the minimum amount is governed by law. Participants reported figures of three weeks to one month’s salary for every year worked based on the last year’s salary. At face value, this seems an attractive proposition; however, some staff would prefer to have this money upfront to invest rather than waiting. This was especially an issue for staff who had been with their
It was also felt that the organisation could benefit from paying gratuities earlier, to avoid a large accruing amount. Two participants were concerned that their organisations might not honour payments at the end of the contract.

**John:** You could be earning more if they paid you out after ten years and you start again. If they paid you every five years, they would actually save money because there wouldn’t be this large accruing amount. If six or seven people leave in one go, they’ve had 50 years’ experience; that’s a reasonable rack of money.

**Katerina:** Although you get a lump sum at the end of it, you’ve always got this sword over your head – behave or you might not get your gratuity. I know the law says you’ll get your gratuity, but the fact is people have missed out because they’ve annoyed someone, so a three year rotational gratuity makes sense.

Some universities are aware of the cost of paying out large gratuity amounts, and have amended lecturers’ contracts to reduce their liability. One of the interviewees recounted how management at their previous university had told the permanent staff that they had to sign an amended contract, and instead of receiving a total monthly salary inclusive of benefits, it would be itemised to a lower base salary with separate allowances for housing and travel. The rationale was that end of service bonuses calculated on a total salary figure would be much higher than a gratuity calculated on a lower base salary with benefits paid separately. This effectively cut the gratuity by close to a third. The participant advised that “staff were told if they didn’t sign, they would be sacked”.

The gratuity payments are in some way viewed as a payment in lieu of a pension scheme. However, the amount is not comparable to what could potentially be accruing at home, with employer contributions to superannuation schemes or government pension schemes. This is particularly an issue for expatriate workers living long-term in Dubai. It was felt that access to employer sponsored pension schemes would offer greater long-term financial security. Allie’s excerpt summarises these concerns.

**Allie:** I can’t afford to stay if I’m not able to put the same into a pension scheme as I would have been if I was living in a Western country, because ultimately I need to retire. The tax-free salary doesn’t compensate for that. Even if you take three weeks’ end of service for each year as your pension, in comparison to my colleagues’ pensions back home, we’re at less than 50% on an immediate cash for cash basis. If you said to a colleague back home: “There you go, there’s a couple of months’ salary, and you have to live off that for the rest of your life when you leave work” then I think they’d be pretty terrified.
5.3.1.4 Other financial benefits
Additional financial benefits are included in most, but not all, of the salary packages, such as accommodation, health insurance, and private schooling allowances for staff with children. There was also usually an annual travel allowance for return to the base country. Holiday lengths were generally seen as generous, but necessary in terms of recuperation, travel and visiting family back home. Participants in Austin et al.’s (2014) study reported a similar range of benefits at their UAE universities. Where health insurance and schooling allowances are provided, Allie explained some of the limitations.

Allie: I understand that organisations with around 100 staff must have health coverage for their employees, but it is not compulsory for spouses and children, nor do they have to give schooling allowance. Some places that provide schooling limit it to two children, so it’s not great for people with larger families. As tertiary education providers, we’re not looking after the young people from our own staff.

5.3.1.5 Additional remunerated work
The opportunities to earn extra income outside the normal work varied considerably. Some organisations allowed it, while others did not. Where the university did not object to their staff working at another venue, three of the participants advised that their current workloads were too heavy to consider seeking additional remunerated work. For those staff who chose to do extra work, the most commonly available option was IELTS exam marking. The IELTS exam is the International English Language Testing System exam from Cambridge University, which is administered at testing centres across the UAE. However, this work was available only to faculty members with an English language teaching background, who had obtained approvals to mark from the governing bodies.

5.3.2 Interpersonal Relationships
The relationships with co-workers, students and external stakeholders are included in this section. Both colleague and student relationships have been touched upon briefly in the Intrinsic Factors section, with respect to making a difference and personal growth from mentoring; however, they are discussed in this section in terms of their extrinsic value.

5.3.2.1 Co-workers relationships
Collegiality was deemed an important factor in three of the UAE studies (see Austin et al., 2014; Smith, 2009; Stephenson, 2005). Almost all participants in this study were satisfied with the level of communication, collaboration, support and trust they had with colleagues. Collaboration with colleagues was seen as essential to more effective work performance, with examples such as: “You talk about what you're doing and spark ideas”,...
and “It’s great to share ideas”. Close friendships were also formed through the workplace, with some participants commenting that interpersonal relationships at work were a driving force.

Where there had been issues, these were generally isolated, and it was acknowledged that not everyone can always get along. One participant felt her colleagues were simply “ships that pass in the night”. Additionally, when there was a work environment where people were less collegial, it was seen as a major impediment, and a key factor in determining whether to stay or leave. Gregor’s excerpt explained the importance of good working relationships.

Gregor: What gave me satisfaction at my first university was working with people who chip in and do their bit, people you can trust. There’s not a team feeling or camaraderie in this place unfortunately. I think when it comes to satisfaction and intentions to stay, it definitely comes down to who you’re working with.

5.3.2.2 Student relationships
This section focuses more on the extrinsic motivating factor of the quality of the faculty members’ relationships with their students. As well as relationships with colleagues, this was seen as a particularly rewarding area of teaching. Indeed, one participant noted that he had better rapport and confidence with his students than he did with management.

Participants spoke of how they enjoyed that their students wanted to remain in touch, and followed up on their progress after the teaching was finished. However, it was noted that the depth of relationships formed with students differed between universities and cohorts.

Jess: I recently moved to another university, and I miss my old students. I’ve had emails from them and Facebook and LinkedIn requests – it’s lovely that they’re keeping in touch. I often bump into old students in the malls, and it’s great to catch up and see what they’re up to. At the other university, the cohort is different; they’re more competitive, and I haven’t developed the same depth of relationship.

Even when there had been less motivated students, and classroom issues, it was agreed that there was a great deal of satisfaction in having quality relationships with students, and getting to know them as individuals.

Penny: The students are lovely, especially when you’re not trying to teach them. Just to know them as people has been a pleasure. I’m often a writing teacher, so you get extra insights about their lives.

An interesting theme raised by half of the participants, which had not been previously highlighted in the literature review, regarded students in Dubai enjoying a much more
personalised approach. So much so, that students referred to them as ‘mummy’, ‘mother’, ‘auntie’, ‘uncle’ and ‘brother’. This was the case for both Emirati and international students. Amongst the international students, it was more prevalent in the non-Western cohorts. Participants felt that new staff coming from overseas might be surprised at this level of personal interaction.

**Allie:** When I was in Europe, my students were very deferential, but less keen for your approval. Some of the students here are very needy for your approval, and I think they see me almost as a kind of surrogate mother – I know some of them call me mummy. I just want them to be confident in themselves, so like any mother, you just want them to stand on their own two feet.

**Elizabeth:** I think perhaps this explains the kind of handholding that they want from you. If they do any kind of tasks, they’re ‘Miss, do we do this and this?’ and it’s the same question they asked two minutes before. So they see teaching maybe as a kind of mothering. What they’re hoping from you is this kind of caring.

**Penny:** I was advised to give them sweets, and to be more like a mother. It’s not about the material; it’s much more about the approach. The students are going to be happier if they feel they’re liked, preferably loved.

**Jess:** I was told that they called me auntie. That was funny. I think maybe because they’re away from home. They come here for a year, and then go to another country to complete their studies; maybe they’re missing home.

**John:** There used to be this question that went out in earlier years, “What do you want your teacher to be?” They said like an uncle; we’re like an older brother.

### 5.3.2.3 Relationships with other stakeholders

There was agreement by the three participants who spoke on the topic that there was little contact with parents and students’ potential future employers. Opportunities to meet parents was generally at graduation ceremonies. With respect to employers, one participant noted that her university had Career Fair Days, which students attended, but faculty members were not involved. Another participant commented on the value of attending networking events and exhibitions, where she had met potential guest lecturers and organisations willing to give work placement opportunities.

According to Heffernan and Poole (2005), the most important factors in successful transnational partnerships in higher education are a combination of trust, commitment, and open, honest, face-to-face communication. Smith (2009) also highlighted the importance of establishing collaborative, two-way communication between the UAE branch and parent campuses. In this study, the feedback regarding relationships with parent campuses yielded mixed results. Two participants revealed that they had both had
positive and negative encounters with their various counterparts in the parent campuses, as described below. However, it was agreed that it was essential to have clear communication, and to develop open and trusting relationships.

**Gregor:** The parent campus at one university wouldn’t share their marking criteria with me; that was frustrating. When I went to the next place, the first thing I did was contact my counterpart on the other campus, and said, “Let’s share, let’s co-mark”. We established trust and agreement, and I was given their marking criteria, so I certainly appreciated that openness.

**Allie:** The moderation will involve me doing a first marking, and then sending the work back to the home campus, where the course leader has absolute autonomy to change marks. Quite often there is discussion, and marks have been moved slightly up or down. There have been other occasions where it has been arbitrary, with a course leader changing marks without discussion.

### 5.3.3 Job Security

The narratives on job security focussed on the contract length and renewal options, sponsorship restrictions from the employer, arbitrary dismissals, and the insecurity felt with the government policy of increasing the level of Emiratisation amongst staff. These same job security themes were also identified by Austin et al. (2014), who added that employers in the UAE “have the right to fire at will” (p. 544).

#### 5.3.3.1 Contract length

Contracts are usually for three years, although one year contracts also exist. Smith (2009) highlighted the feelings of insecurity and impermanence due to the short-term contracts in the UAE, and this was also expressed by participants in this study. It was felt that longer contracts led to increased performance, as staff had more opportunity to learn and grow. However, there was general agreement that the contracts, regardless of length, did not really offer security, which made it hard to plan for the future.

It also emerged that not only did adjunct staff face difficulties in obtaining mortgages, due to their sometimes irregular incomes (as outlined earlier in the Salary and Cost of Living section), permanent staff also experienced problems in obtaining mortgages, due to contract lengths, as Katerina described.

**Katerina:** A three year contract makes sense. You’ve got time to settle into the job, learn the ropes, and then perform. There is no such thing as security in a one year contract, even when the university says it’s renewable. You can’t plan, and you can’t go to the bank and say, “Well I’ve actually got a good job in Dubai, so can I have a mortgage?”; they’ll say, “A one-year contract, no way”.

---

Amanda McStay  
Teaching Business in Dubai – A phenomenological study  
120
5.3.3.2 Contract renewal and termination

Contract renewal is not automatic, and there was a strong feeling that the process should have a higher degree of transparency and fairness, so staff knew where they were going to be, and could better plan for the future. A common theme was that contract renewal was a somewhat arbitrary process, and that you could be fired if you fell out of favour with your line manager, or if you had been too vocal in expressing concerns. This theme was also reported by the UAE participants in Austin et al.’s (2014) study.

Participants expressed that they did not feel safe in their jobs, even when they had been performing well. One participant spoke of how a number of her colleagues “were frightened of not having their contracts renewed”. At one university, the notice period was six months, which two participants felt was “ridiculous”.

**Elizabeth:** It makes you anxious; everything is tied in like your family life, kids’ schooling, accommodation, job, friends, and your life here. There were cases last semester where newer people had come in and were getting substantially less than us old-timers. When their contract came up for renewal, they said we won’t renew because we can’t live on that, and they were told they had to serve out six months; they hadn’t given enough notice - and you have to work it to the bitter end.

**Gregor:** Great people were sacked not because they were inefficient, but because they took away the shine from their managers. You had an awful lot to lose, because you only had three year contracts. Nobody had a guarantee – this was not a career. You kept your nose clean, and kept your head below the parapet, because that way you would survive.

John expanded on the topic of insecurity at contract renewal time with respect to older staff members. He reported the following incidents of ageism that two of his 60 year old colleagues had faced.

**John:** A colleague’s contract renewal was coming up, and her manager said ‘I want to give you a good review because age could be an issue’. Imagine – all of a sudden she was experiencing this ageism that I’ve always heard about. It’s like a sword of Damocles over your head as you get older. It’s also hard to get back in if you’ve left. A teacher that had worked for us went back to his country and put in a request to come back; he got turned down because he was just over 60.

As an adjunct, Sanjay felt even less secure, and subject to the whims of management. He described how he felt compelled to sign a new contract at a reduced amount.

**Sanjay:** You can't be very secure when you're adjunct. When I went to get my timetable and sign the contract again like normal, they told me they had cut both the hourly rate and the number of hours. There was no warning. It’s made it difficult. I've got a family, so what choice did I have?
Although the concept of Emiratisation was accepted as an appropriate and logical step for the country’s growth and development, it was a factor which affected participants’ feelings of security regarding contract renewal. Regardless of whether staff had been performing well in their positions, or if they had been working there for a long time, the prospect of the contract not being renewed made staff feel insecure. It was felt that the contract renewal process lacked transparency.

**Miranda:** I don't feel particularly secure, although I’ve been here for many years. I had no idea whether I was going to be renewed or not, and that's not through any sense of me not doing my job, it was really in terms of they’ve been talking about Emiratising the faculty.

### 5.3.3.3 Sponsorship restrictions

In the UAE, all expatriate staff are sponsored by their employer, with visas granted for three years (Austin et al., 2014). This means staff are subject to any restrictions that the employer may impose. It is commonplace to have to obtain a “Letter of No Objection” from the sponsor in order to obtain certain services, such as bank accounts, driver’s licences, and to be able to work part-time for other institutions. Katerina explained how some people chose to quit when they were not allowed to augment their salaries, and she elaborated on the benefits to an organisation in terms of employee enrichment derived from additional external work.

**Katerina:** I do know people who’ve left because they were banned from working externally, and they got jobs for the same salary with other organisations who don’t mind if you do other jobs in your own time. People grow when they work for other organisations, and you get the benefits as the mother organisation, because people learn different ways of doing things.

### 5.3.4 Management Policies and Culture

This section summarises the narratives on management culture and practices. This topic generated a high level of interest, accounting for close to a third of the discussions on extrinsic factors. Participants focussed on policies related to recruitment and selection, induction, curriculum development, training delivery and assessment, performance appraisal and grievances, and student intake. Management culture is also outlined in this section in terms of vision, planning and information sharing.

### 5.3.4.1 Recruitment and selection policies

Some universities recruited internationally, either using video-conferencing to interview full-time applicants, or flying in temporary professors for three to six months at a time. However, it was noted that there was a growing tendency for institutions to recruit locally;
it was posited that this was to reduce costs. For the adjunct staff in this study, recruitment had been through local referrals: one through a chance networking meeting, one through a former student, and the last through his experience of having studied there. Participants acknowledged that faculty were not involved in the recruitment process, other than occasionally being asked to refer potential faculty members. It was noted that the recruitment process was generally fairly rigorous, with a high rate of rejection at most of the universities. However, in contrast, one participant reported credibility issues in the hiring policies at his recently opened university, as well as high staff attrition, and he questioned the organisation’s long-term viability.

Staffing shortages were also discussed, and addressed earlier in terms of the impact on teachers’ satisfaction through the increased teaching workload. With respect to policies to have a sufficient number of suitably qualified teachers, there was a view that it was a top-down approach, which was often poorly managed.

*John:* It’s like “Let’s have these classes, and let’s put the students in there”, and then “‘Oops’ - have we got the teachers?” Then “Okay, you’re not quite qualified, but it’s close enough, so you can teach that”. Shouldn’t it be the other way round? Shouldn’t management be supportive to ensure that there is the best teaching possible with the most adept staff? I feel like an after-thought.

Participants also highlighted that once the institution had selectively recruited the best and most qualified people then they needed to be valued and treated with respect in order to ensure retention. This theme was also touched on in the Austin et al. (2014) research.

### 5.3.4.2 Pre-arrival and induction policies

For some universities, it was felt that there should be better pre-arrival information about the living situation in Dubai, particularly in terms of the cost of living and general logistics of getting settled in. Rob highlighted some of the common issues faced.

*Rob:* A new colleague has just come from another Gulf country, and is shocked at how expensive everything is. He felt he wasn’t properly advised about the costs here, and has found it tough with a large financial outlay – house deposit and all the fees, and getting sorted with DEWA (Dubai Electricity and Water Authority).

It is a requirement in Dubai that marriage certificates and academic transcripts are attested in the country of origin by the relevant government department and/or embassy, and then again by the concerned municipality in Dubai. This is so the marriage certificate can be formally recognised to legitimise couples living together, and to facilitate receipt of accommodation allowances. Proof of academic qualification is also required as part of
the employer contract process and for provision of the sponsor’s visas. Therefore, the importance of having the required documentation in place prior to arrival was highlighted. Participants expressed concern that they had not been advised in advance, and this had led to delays and additional expenses.

In terms of specific cross-cultural training to help with adaptation into Dubai, it was felt that there could be additional training for those unfamiliar with the culture. The value of learning cultural differences directly from students was also noted. Adjunct staff reported varying degrees of support with induction at their respective universities, and indicated that their learning had been mostly self-driven rather than formally provided. It was felt that there needed to be better induction regarding the relevant policies and procedures at the university, and where staff members could locate the required information.

For other universities, the induction consisted of a mentor being placed with new staff. This was felt to work well, when the mentor was collaborative, but there had been incidences when new recruits had been negatively influenced by a dissatisfied mentor. It therefore highlighted the importance of choosing appropriate staff for the induction and mentoring process.

**Katerina:** When I arrived, just the fact that someone picked us up at the airport, and accommodated us and looked after us and gave us some buddies – that was huge. The mentoring has to do with the settling into Dubai, into the university, and it works very well, if you get a good mentor. It's been proven that choosing the wrong mentor has meant we’ve lost a good teacher.

There was also the issue of the importance of an induction system which ensured that new staff felt part of the team, as the two excerpts below highlight.

**John:** We’re in week 12, and I went up and introduced myself to a teacher who I’d seen but had never been introduced to us. So you feel a little bit disengaged.

**Katerina:** People get hired in batches. In this batch you get your orientation, and buy furniture and house-hunt together. It creates a little community, but people who miss out on the induction become outsiders, and it takes a lot to break into.

### 5.3.4.3 Curriculum, materials and assessment policies

The workload associated with curriculum development, delivery and assessment was outlined earlier in the Nature of Work Section in relation to its impact on intrinsic motivation. This section focuses on management practices related to this topic area.
Curriculum development was generally viewed as set at the top levels of management, with faculty members having little input. There was sometimes a reported lack of freedom, or lack of consistency in the policies regarding materials development. This was particularly the case when new managers had been appointed to a department. Comments included: “reinventing the wheel”, “throwing the baby out with the bathwater”, and “taking a step backwards”.

As an adjunct, Sanjay reported both a lack of support, and a lack of compensation for the work he had undertaken in order to deliver his course.

Sanjay: I got a Course Outline with a list of learning outcomes, and a textbook, but no materials. At the end of the semester, after I’d developed all the materials, and put it online, they told me I wouldn’t be teaching this course again because they were giving it to a full-time Professor. I didn't get any extra payment for all the materials.

Some participants reported clear assessment guidelines at their universities, while a few commented on a lack of consistency, noting that assessments had been changed with little advance warning, sometimes only weeks or even less. In these cases, faculty members were advised that they had been teaching content which would no longer be assessed, so they then had to suddenly “invent” or introduce new content at very short notice. When this occurred, it was felt to be detrimental to students, as it negatively impacted on their learning outcomes and caused them considerable stress. It was also frustrating for the teachers, who not only had to increase their workloads, in terms of additional materials development and extra student tutorials, but also had to contend with numerous student complaints. It was felt that there was no support from management, and they “just had to deal with it” by themselves.

5.3.4.4 Performance appraisal and grievance policies

The performance appraisal policies were similar across the universities, although they differed in the degree of implementation. In some cases, classroom observations were advised in advance; however, in others, there were surprise visits. It was generally felt that classroom observations should be advised prior to the session, particularly when they were to be used as part of a formal review. Performance appraisal interviews for full-time faculty members with their line managers were usually held on a six monthly or annual basis. Participants agreed generally that it was a bureaucratic process, with one participant describing it as “merely a tick box exercise”.
In terms of grievance policies, some participants either did not have access to a policy, or were unaware of them. It was also noted that there were no unions in the UAE. Those that had observed colleagues with issues commented on the lack of communication and documentation to support the grievance process.

Allie: We don’t have access to a grievance policy. We’re also not allowed to be unionised, which might surprise people, and therefore we’re not able to articulate concerns about employment with any degree of voracity. You have anecdotal evidence of people who have tried to raise issues with the court unsuccessfully.

Miranda: I do know of staff who have had issues, and it feels that there hasn’t really been a policy, and there’s been bad communication, and limited or missing documentation.

Student evaluations of teachers were also commonplace, and an accepted part of good academic practice. However, there were problems reported with implementation, as one participant recounted a story from one of her students. In this case, the student’s negative evaluation had been given to the concerned teacher with the student’s name on it, and the teacher had subsequently challenged him in front of his classmates. This highlighted the importance of anonymising feedback from students.

Participants also highlighted the emphasis that was placed on student grievances. Teachers at one university spoke of a “complaints culture”, whereby students who did not receive an A grade would automatically go and complain to the supervisor. One participant also noted that teachers sometimes received poor evaluations from students due to factors outside their control, such as organisational policies. While acknowledging the rights of students to complain and have their concerns heard, some participants alluded to the fact that rather than following a formal grievance process, it depended more on the individual supervisor’s approach, and it was felt that some managers tended to show favouritism towards certain students or teachers.

5.3.4.5 Student intake policies

The impact of student ability and class sizes was analysed earlier in relation to teachers’ workloads and intrinsic motivation. This section deals with the student intake policies themselves. Examples were given of entry requirements being both too low and too high, each with their own resulting disadvantages. In the case of students being accepted with lower than expected entry requirements, it was suggested that there needed to be better vetting of certain student recruitment agents who were recommending the students.
Allie: I get to sign off on the students coming onto my degree program, but there’s also pressure to make sure that I do have students there. It’s very hard to tell sometimes just from one piece of paper, because we don’t always meet the students. The forms are filled in by agents, and they know how to work the system.

In the opposite case, where it was felt that the entry requirements had been set too high, it was seen to have negatively impacted on student enrolment, with the long-term viability of the particular institution suggested to be in question. One participant noted that at his university the enrolment numbers had not increased as anticipated, while other universities that had established themselves around the same time were seen to be going from strength to strength. He noted that his university had significantly higher entry requirements than its competitors.

The final issue raised with respect to student intake policies was the validity and reliability of the tools used to assess initial student level. This led to students being placed in inappropriate levels, which created stress for faculty members trying to manage the misplaced students, and for the students themselves who were struggling to cope. It was felt that the intake assessment tools could be improved.

5.3.4.6 Organisational culture

Tierny and Lanford (2015) highlighted three key points to consider when establishing an overseas campus; namely, 1) the amount of value which would be added to the parent and branch campuses, 2) the extent to which the branch campus reflects “the unique culture of the home campus”, and 3) the “rights, institutional status, and expectations of shared governances” of branch campus faculty members in comparison to their home campus counterparts (p. 283). Academic scholars generally recognise the six key constructs of organisational culture as leadership, mission, strategy, information, environment and socialisation (see Beech & MacIntosh, 2012; Burnes, 2014; Tierny & Lanford, 2015). These organisational culture constructs are, in turn, directly cross-linked with leadership style (Tierny & Lanford, 2015), such as the manner in which leaders share information and communicate vision, mission and change strategies (Beech & MacIntosh, 2012). Additionally, leaders influence the type of environment that is promoted and encouraged with respect to decision-making style, and generally accepted organisational norms and values (Burnes, 2014; Tierny & Lanford, 2015).

Participants’ reflections on the topic of organisational culture also touched on the need for clearer strategic vision, communication, decision making and change management.
practices in their universities. In terms of vision, although the universities had vision and mission statements, it was felt that this vision was generally not conveyed clearly and inspirationally down the line to the staff. Comments included: “Our university has a lot of managers but no leadership”, “It’s overly managerialistic”, and “I don’t know what the vision is, but I would like some vision”.

Communication from senior managers was also seen to be lacking in the majority of universities. There were a number of examples given when the senior managers were not engaging on any level with the staff, with one participant reporting that the two senior managers, whose offices were located just one floor above, had never visited the faculty area. This was not just the case with the larger universities, but also, surprisingly was reported in the smaller, private universities and the more recent start-up university. The lack of communication appeared to be occurring across the board. The excerpt below highlights the degree of separation felt.

Elizabeth: There’s no communication. The director has never spoken to the staff as a whole; he’s maybe spoken to individuals. There are things that happen on the campus and we haven’t got a clue what’s happening, and these are major issues; it disassociates you from the organisation.

Inclusive decision making was also an area which was seen to need improvement, with some staff noting a lack of trust in management. One participant described how she had “never encountered such a low level of trust in management” during her 20 years of teaching. Other accounts highlighted a degree of management self-interest to the detriment of inclusive decision-making, with comments including: “Managers promote their survival with policies that down the line, with you at the coalface, you know don’t work”.

Finally, with respect to organisational culture, it was noted that change management strategies were often implemented poorly. In particular, participants reported “a lot of wasted energy and frustration”.

John: The same idea, coming in restructuring departments, making big changes, and when managers are only in place for two years, and then they’re out again, that continuity and the good things that are there get lost.
5.3.5 Promotional Opportunities

Promotional opportunities examined the topics of performance-based promotion, promotional opportunities within the universities and external promotional opportunities outside of the organisations.

5.3.5.1 Performance-based promotion

Discourse on performance-based promotion centred on the ‘business model’ adopted by a number of the private universities, in comparison to the ‘traditional academic approach’ of other international universities. This focus meant that there were fewer opportunities for faculty members to follow the usual tenured professorial promotional pathways. The emphasis on teaching, rather than research was seen to be the main limiting factor.

Allie: *I think if I wanted to go along a management route, there are a few more opportunities. Here it’s very much ‘management’ if you’re looking at international branch campuses. If you’re interested in research and being a professor then there aren’t many opportunities.*

Penny: *It doesn’t really follow the university promotion framework. There is no tenure, and no rolling contracts; you follow the same contract each time.*

5.3.5.2 Internal promotional opportunities

Other than occasional supervisor positions reported at one of the government universities, in general, it was agreed that there was a lack of internal promotional opportunities, and that this had led to staff dissatisfaction for those who wished to advance through the university. Comments included: “There are not a huge number of promotional opportunities”, and “A few people were ambitious, and were frustrated because there were no opportunities”.

Lack of career progression was reported by Maynard and Joseph (2008) in their study of American university adjunct staff. This was also an issue for two of the adjunct staff interviewed. While one was currently enjoying the freedom of part-time work, lack of promotional opportunities and financial dissatisfaction were factors that would make her consider moving into a more permanent position. In contrast, the other adjunct reported that he had been unable to obtain a full-time position, as they required doctorates. At Katerina’s previous university, she noted that internal promotions had been done well, which had encouraged people to stay. She compared it to her current situation, where they did not promote internally, and commented that this had led to reduced staff commitment and staff leaving.
Katerina: In terms of the management, what I think they did well with my first university was promoting from within. If you see there is a pathway, you’re more prone to stay, because you might actually have a career path. Where I’m working at the moment, they don’t promote from within, so that means people have no interest whatsoever in the place. They come, take the money, and go.

One of the universities was described by a number of those who had worked there, using a variety of similar terms, such as “your typical old-boys club”. Indeed, it was noted that many of the universities, in general, were lacking senior female representation. This was also reported by Stephenson (2005) who noted the predominance of males in leadership roles at the all-women’s campus in the UAE she had studied. This imbalance was seen to be a potentially limiting factor for the promotion of women into more senior positions.

Miranda: At my university it’s mostly middle aged, western males. The feeling amongst the women is that you won’t get promoted if you’re a woman.

Along with the limited number of positions, and the gender imbalance in senior positions, the government universities have been gradually implementing a policy of Emiratisation, with more locals now moving into senior management positions. Although supported by participants, in addition to increasing feelings of job insecurity (covered earlier in this chapter), this was also seen as a factor limiting the internal promotional opportunities for many of the expatriate participants.

Gregor: The government universities have an emphasis on Emiratisation. We’re in an Emirati culture and they deserve to take some of the management roles, if they’re good enough. So for expats there are less opportunities, particularly now.

Katerina: I’m in the Emirates, and I’ve come to live in their country. The way I look at it is I’ll be here as long as I’m needed, and hopefully then they’ll take over and do it themselves.

5.3.5.3 External promotional opportunities

While reflecting on their external promotional opportunities, two of the participants explained that they felt their extended stay in Dubai had limited the opportunities for promotion back in their home countries. In Allie’s case, her curtailed responsibilities, and limited research opportunities from having worked at a branch campus compared to her colleagues in the parent campus with more authority, meant that she was less likely to be considered for promotion at home.

Allie: Unfortunately there are very few external promotional opportunities. Positions in Europe would demand that I was involved in research, and that I led and wrote courses, and since I can’t do that here, it actually precludes me completely from being considered for promotion, which is quite upsetting.
The second participant reported that her long-term employment in Dubai, had counted against her, when it was highlighted as the reason she was unsuccessful in a recent overseas job application. She explained how she felt that she had exhausted what the current university could offer, and so had applied for an interesting position back home. Although she felt she had performed well in the interview, she was subsequently advised that the reasons they had given it to someone else were because “I didn’t have enough recent experience teaching in my country”, and also that “They have one level of students, while most of my experience has been with different groups”. She felt that this was now a serious issue for her in terms of the currency, relevancy and marketability of her CV.

5.3.6 Supervisor Style

McShane and Travaglione (2005) describe effective leaders as having the following competencies: drive, ability to motivate, self-confidence, above average intelligence (both cognitive and emotional), and business knowledge. When examining desirable leadership styles, the transformational approach has been used successfully in educational settings, whereby the leader is a role model who inspires staff to achieve goals at a high standard, intellectually stimulates them to be creative and innovative, and is considerate of their individual needs (Bass, 1999).

The topic of supervisor style generated a significant amount of interest, with all participants recounting experiences with line managers which they and colleagues had been through. On the whole, the accounts were slightly more negative than positive. It was observed that when reporting negative experiences, some participants had a slightly more emotional response than they had displayed when talking on other topic areas. There was also evidence of some discomfort displayed through changes in body language, such as increased fidgeting and throat clearing. Further, when analysing the data in terms of fluency, it was noted that there tended to be a higher frequency of conversational fillers, false starts and repetition of words.

In this section of the analysis, responses have been completely anonymised, as some of the accounts, when pieced together, could potentially lead to participants’ identification for those familiar with the stories. Almost all participants spoke of negative experiences with line managers, where the above desired competencies and behavioural style had been lacking. Behaviours and characteristics which were considered undesirable included: “not transparent”, “has never taught and is making decisions on staff and students”, “don’t
practise what they preach”, and “overly managerial in terms of clockwatching, so you feel infantilised”. One participant had actively chosen to teach a different level class, which was much more challenging in terms of workload and the level of student motivation, in order to avoid working with a particular supervisor, because of that person’s personality and management style.

In the more extreme accounts of negative experiences, participants described their respective supervisors as “a megalomaniac” (twice for two separate supervisors), “a complete lunatic”, “useless”, “an idiot” and “only got the job because of ‘wasta’ (favouritism)”. The associated behaviours were: “outrageous”, “disgraceful”, “terrible” and “highly erratic”, while the situations were: “very challenging”, “unsafe” (x2), and “a complete massacre of our department”. One of these supervisors was subsequently fired, and it was reported that staff “felt a great sense of relief – no sadness whatsoever”.

Although participants had encountered poor supervisors, they also reported positive supervision experiences. The positive qualities reported in line managers included: “supportive” (x3), “transparent” (x2), “straight”, “inspirational” (x2), “cheer-leader”, “didn’t interfere”, “involved us in decisions”, “great communicator”, “go round and walk and talk”, “could be trusted”, “approachable” and “always had a smile”. Gregor’s approach to managing summed up the majority of participants’ views on the preferred supervisor style.

*Gregor: I hate micro-managers; I’ve worked with a few. I always think of how I would like to be managed. When you’re working with professional, experienced, mature people, and you just tell them to do something without a reason, it doesn’t go down well. I always try to be a role model; you can’t say one thing and do another. You have to include people in decisions, and I encourage my team to come up with solutions. You need to be able to trust people, and give people space. I think I choose the right people most of the time.*

5.3.7 Work Environment

The discussion on work environment covered the campus facilities and support services, the campus location, staff accommodation, and finally the reputation and accreditation status of the university.

5.3.7.1 Campus facilities and support services

In general, participants were satisfied with the campus facilities themselves. However, in universities with rapidly increasing enrolments, the issue was crowding. Staff who were working in large, open spaces found the environment noisy and difficult to work in,
and would have preferred their own offices. Lecture room configuration was also seen as different in some instances compared to their home countries. For example, one participant deemed the use of large rooms with folding table chairs as inappropriate for larger students, and felt the lack of larger tables reduced the effectiveness of group work. There were mixed responses regarding the quality and availability of support services. Jess and Miranda’s excerpts are indicative of the two poles of opinion.

**Jess:** Support services are great here; IT can see I’m in the lecture room, and they come straight in as soon as they see me having any difficulties.

**Miranda:** A lot of the time the teaching faculty joke is that it’s us supporting the support services, rather than the other way round. We have technology in the classroom, but if something goes wrong, you have to troubleshoot yourself, so that is really annoying.

### 5.3.7.2 Campus location

It was noted that the majority of universities are located in Academic City on the outskirts of Dubai. A smaller number are on the opposite side of the city in Knowledge Village, while one government campus is in the city centre. A complaint relating to Academic City was the congested traffic during the commute to and from work, particularly for those coming from Sharjah, and the western and central areas of Dubai. Traffic jams in Dubai were also reported as a dissatisfaction factor by Connell et al. (2008).

**Jess:** If you choose to live near Academic City, it becomes a good location, but if you want to live down at the Marina (a popular and more expensive suburb), it’s quite far. I’m close enough to work, but some people have terrible traffic.

**Rob:** At the moment, I’m finding the commute really bad. Working on a part-time lecturing basis, the choice was take it or leave it. At the last university, I used to be there in five minutes, so I see all this driving as a waste of my time. I don’t think I’ll take that contract again next semester.

The location of the campus was also considered to be an issue affecting the long-term viability of one of the universities. One participant described how their university was suffering from low enrolments, and that the campus’s current temporary accommodation was “not really suited at all for a university”.

### 5.3.7.3 Staff accommodation

It was acknowledged that the staff accommodation had an impact on satisfaction and retention. One participant noted that some of her colleagues had been provided excellent accommodation, while others had endured issues with air-conditioning, which is a major concern due to Dubai’s desert climate. She also recounted stories of colleagues who were
sleep-deprived for a year due to noise pollution from long-term building construction. In John’s example, a lack of care and communication from the management side regarding poor housing, led to a newly recruited colleague resigning.

**John:** When she arrived, she was moved into a temporary place that had mould growing on the walls. She told the university, “I’m going to leave if it’s not resolved”; they did nothing, and they were shocked when she left.

### 5.3.7.4 Reputation

According to Farrugia and Lane (2013, p. 418), branch campuses with strong reputations more readily attract student enrollment, along with government and public support and goodwill; when reputations are lacking, campuses may be unable to attract sufficient resources, with closure a likely outcome. The topic of reputation was addressed from the perspective of perceived esteem derived from working in a reputable international university. In the opposite cases, where the reputation was not as high, faculty members were less satisfied, and some were planning to leave. Allie described how she felt proud to work as a lecturer for her university, and that it kept her motivated as a life-long learner.

**Allie:** There’s always been a notion that to be a university lecturer is to be the top of your field, and it makes you determined to remain one step ahead, so you can contextualise what you’re teaching. I think there’s a certain esteem to be held when you’re working for a university that has some sort of global presence.

There was also a feeling of pride and satisfaction when the reputation of the university, its teaching staff and its graduates was held in wide regard in the community.

**Gregor:** We had a reputation for producing very good graduates. It was very satisfying to meet your old students in senior positions, standing next to the sheikhs, and running the country. And it was also great to visit government officials and be told “Oh, I was a graduate of your university and your students are great and you’re great teachers”. We got a lot of very positive feedback.

### 5.3.7.5 Accreditation

The issue of university accreditation, in terms of faculty satisfaction, was mostly concerned with the high workload. John noted that one of the universities was denied accreditation because of the heavy teaching workloads of its staff. He also highlighted the additional workload on faculty members in fulfilling the bureaucratic requirements for accreditation review record-keeping.

**John:** They’re reasonably successful in getting accreditation for certain programmes, because it’s on the material we produce. Whereas they failed to get university accreditation because they didn’t meet the requirements that faculty should only be teaching 12 or 15 hours; we teach a lot more than that. Faculty
find the paperwork very time-consuming – repeating what we’ve already done, but in a different format.

5.3.8 Summary of key extrinsic factors

Salaries, benefits and cost of living: The tax-free salary package was seen as an incentive; however, all participants felt that the cost of living in Dubai had increased considerably over the years, especially for accommodation and private schooling. Salary packages varied both between and within universities, and it was felt that they did not adequately allow for the rapidly rising costs, with reported decreases in the standard of living, nor did they account for exchange rate fluctuations. Some organisations permitted staff to earn extra income outside the normal work, while others did not. Concern was expressed that the end of service bonuses did not compensate for the lack of pension schemes. Participants were largely satisfied with other benefits such as holiday periods, health insurance, and travel allowances for return to the base country.

Relationships with colleagues and students: These were seen to be a highly rewarding area of work. Faculty members valued their relationships with colleagues in terms of collaboration and friendships; however, some branch campus staff described incidents where communication could be improved with colleagues in the parent campuses. Positive relationships with students were also highly valued, and it was felt that new staff should be aware of the need for a personalised approach with local and non-Western international students in this region.

Job security: Participants were unanimous that the three year contracts did not offer sufficient security, as there was no guarantee they would be renewed. Factors such as age limits and the growing Emiratisation of the government sector further increased job insecurity. There were concerns regarding the restrictions that employer sponsorship placed on them such as the requirement to obtain approvals for services such as tenancy contracts and drivers’ licences.

Recruitment, selection and induction: The recruitment process was fairly rigorous at most universities. Faculty members were usually not involved in the process, although some had been asked to encourage people they knew to apply. The importance of sufficient pre-arrival information about the living situation in Dubai was highlighted, especially regarding the cost of living and the logistics of settling in. Participants spoke of ensuring that appropriately experienced and motivated staff were chosen for both
inducting and mentoring new staff, so that they were sufficiently prepared, and felt included in the team. Adjunct staff members reported a lower level of support during the induction process.

**Curriculum, materials and assessment development:** Faculty members felt they had little input into curriculum development, as it was normally set at the top levels of management. There was more freedom with coursework development, although some staff, particularly at branch campuses, reported variation in the quantity and quality of materials provided. This was especially an issue for adjunct staff, some of whom felt they were not adequately compensated for the extra work required. In the government institutions, there was a reported lack of communication and sharing of materials at times, with some staff complaining they were ‘reinventing the wheel’. While some participants spoke highly of the assessment policies at their universities, others reported a lack of consistency, with assessments sometimes changing with insufficient notice, resulting in poorer student learning outcomes, larger teacher workloads, and stress for both students and teachers.

**Performance appraisal and grievance policies:** Performance appraisal policies were similar across the universities, as were student evaluations of teachers. However, opinions on grievance policies varied, with a reported lack of transparency and fairness in some cases.

**Student intake policies:** There was variation in the perceived effectiveness of student intake policies; some universities were growing, while others were struggling to attract students. The validity and reliability of the tools used to assess initial student levels was questioned for some universities. It was noted that some students were being accepted with lower than expected entry requirements, while one university appeared to be having difficulty increasing its enrolments, as the entry requirements had been set higher than its competitors. Improved vetting of student recruitment agents was also suggested.

**Organisational Culture:** Desired areas for improvement in the organisational cultures of a number of universities were clearer communication, articulation of an inspirational vision, smoother implementation of change management strategies, and the recruitment of more females to senior management level. Trust in senior managers was also lacking
in a number of cases. Finally, it was felt that management decision making should include more faculty members’ perspectives.

**Promotional Opportunities:** With an absence of tenure, Dubai universities were seen to operate more on a business model than the traditional academic approach of many international universities. Therefore, lecturers felt there were less promotional or research opportunities. Lack of career progression was felt more strongly in the female and adjunct staff interviewed, and Emiratisation was also seen to be reducing the number of opportunities across the board. Furthermore, some teachers who had been based at their university for longer periods felt this may have reduced their opportunities for promotion in their home countries due to a feeling they had stagnated.

**Supervisor style:** This was a major influence on the satisfaction, dissatisfaction and retention of staff. Faculty members who had experienced a more empowering and transformational leadership style indicated they were happier, more committed, and more likely to stay at their respective institutions.

**Work Environment:** Most participants were happy with the campus facilities themselves; however, staff working in large, open spaces sometimes found it noisy and difficult to work, and would have preferred their own offices or a quieter environment. Lecture room configuration sometimes differed to their home countries, such as the use of chairs with folding tables. Some staff were impressed with the quality and availability of support services, while others felt they received less support. For staff who did not live close to Dubai Academic City, the commute to and from work was time-consuming and stressful due to high traffic volumes in Dubai and Sharjah at peak times. One participant suggested that the temporary location of their campus was not appropriate, and that it was negatively impacting student enrolment. A few participants spoke of air-conditioning, noise and cleanliness issues in their employer-provided accommodation, which had significantly affected satisfaction and retention.

**Reputation and accreditation:** Participants spoke of the esteem derived from working for international universities with good reputations. The accreditation status of the university affected participants only with respect to the workload associated with fulfilling bureaucratic requirements for reviews.
5.4 Sociocultural Factors

Participants’ reflections on cultural influences included adjusting to a new country and culture, adjusting to the new institution itself, the cultural adaptation phases, and national cultural differences.

5.4.1 Adjusting to the culture in Dubai

Participants had adapted well to life in Dubai, with the majority having lived here for a number of years. They all spoke of enjoying the rich and varied multi-cultural lifestyle offered. Participants offered a range of advice for newcomers to consider. The first point was that new staff should familiarise themselves with the cultural norms before they arrive, in order to avoid potential cultural mistakes. The most obvious differences included: i) a respectable dress code, ii) no public displays of affection, iii) observing religious protocols, such as no smoking, drinking or eating in public during the holy month of Ramadan, iv) restrictions on medications and books which can be brought into the country, v) laws governing alcohol purchase and consumption, and vi) severe penalties for drug related offences.

In terms of accommodation differences, one participant commented that it took a while to get used to the fact that there were not many houses with big gardens that he had been used to at home. He also noted that because everything is so high rise, he did not tend to see his neighbours, which was quite different to his North American experience.

With regards to language, although one of the participants spoke fairly fluent Arabic, most of the participants did not. Some had endeavoured to learn the language, and regretted that they had not made more progress. It was felt that a stronger grasp of the language could assist in developing relationships with locals, and gaining closer insights into their lives. Two of the participants commented that they had attended Arabic lessons which their universities had provided, but noted that the quality of the lessons was not high, and that they had stopped attending.

Bashir (2012) recommended a number of strategies to help staff make the initial cross-cultural adjustments in the UAE. These included: i) providing an initial cultural induction, ii) ensuring ongoing communication with new staff, iii) allocating mentors, and iv) providing social networking opportunities for the staff and their families.
5.4.2 Adjusting to a new institution in Dubai

In terms of adapting to the different institution, participants gave varied perspectives which could assist faculty to adjust to the different cultural norms. Gregor offered a positive account of his experience, and compared it to teaching in UK schools.

**Gregor:** *I think the teaching experience here in Dubai is pretty good, when you compare it perhaps to secondary and modern school experiences in the UK. You don’t have the massive discipline problems. It’s a soft teaching and learning environment, so that’s another reason why people shouldn’t complain. Let them go back and teach in a real tough environment, and they’ll find out what it’s really like.*

It was noted that certain cultural transgressions could result in immediate dismissal and a return to the home country. These included public profanities, and anti-Islamic and anti-government statements. Two of the participants noted that they had to be careful about having music in class. It was felt that teachers should be aware of the politics going on in the world, and what people might be sensitive about at the time. One of the participants noted there had been quick dismissals at two of her universities for what she deemed to be “a huge cultural faux pas”. Quinn (2001) and Austin et al. (2014) also noted the importance of avoiding culturally inappropriate comments in classes in the UAE.

**Jess:** *You need basic cultural awareness of where you are, but anybody coming here should. The universities generally have a formal dress code – you obviously have to dress with respect to the culture. Some universities are quite prescriptive about things like the type of jewellery you can wear, acceptable hair-styles, make-up, and even footwear. You also shouldn’t have visible body piercings or tattoos.*

The division of students into male and female campuses was the practice in the government universities, while the private universities generally had mixed classes. For those not used to teaching single gender classes, they need to be aware of the different class dynamics.

To assist staff in adapting to a new institution in the UAE, Bashir (2012) recommended reward systems to acknowledge extra work, ongoing emotional support, the provision of appropriate resources and skills training, and timely feedback through performance appraisals. Stephenson (2005) and Smith (2009) highlighted the importance of supportive relationships with colleagues in adapting to UAE university life.

5.4.3 Cultural adaptation phases

When someone encounters a new cultural environment they go through a period of cultural shock as they adjust to their new environment. This process of settling in generally comprises the honeymoon period, culture shock and negotiation, adaptation,
and finally mastery (Pires et al., 2006). For some new arrivals, it was suggested they may well go through a honeymoon period if they have not been to the region before.

**Gregor:** If people arrive now, and this is the first experience they have of Dubai, they’ll be happy. If they’ve been here a long time, and they know how things were, and they know that the good days have passed, then it’s not so easy.

With respect to the current living and working conditions in Dubai, it may be that there is little opportunity for the honeymoon period, and new staff may encounter more of an instant cultural shock upon arrival, particularly for those with little knowledge of the region. Two of the longer-term employees recommended that new arrivals should be aware of the rapid developmental changes which have occurred in Dubai, as they compared it from twenty years ago to today.

**Katerina:** For teachers who come in nowadays, I think they’re expecting much higher salaries with far more laid on, and I think the world has changed. When I came, Dubai was sort of an outpost and a bit of a novelty, and people didn’t necessarily know where they were going and thought they would be riding camels.

**Elizabeth:** Dubai has changed dramatically in the last 20 years. When I came, it still felt very post-colonial, and the way we were treated was almost as if this was a place where we needed incentives to be here, whereas that has flipped now.

The discourse on cultural adaptation focussed mostly on the reverse culture shock that longer-term employees were anticipating upon returning to their countries. Issues included the weather, queues, and lack of cultural variety, and these participants were worried at the prospect of coping with the return.

**Elizabeth:** Having been out of my country for the past 30 years, I don’t remember being in culture shock in Dubai, even when I first arrived, but going back to the UK for sure. You know the sort of obsession they have with queues, and how uptight people get about things, it just drives me mad. And you kind of get a bit depressed, but you’ve got to go back; you can’t live here forever.

**John:** I think it’s the breadth of people I meet. We work with Emiratis and a lot of expats. When I go back to my country, I’m not sure I can go back, because I’ve got used to the varied environment, so in that sense I’m still happy to be here.

### 5.4.4 National cultural differences

Hofstede’s cultural dimensions include: collectivism-individualism, masculinity-femininity, power-distance and risk aversion. Although only two participants commented specifically on Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, other issues that would fit his categories were raised, but not referred to using the cultural dimensions’ terminology. These issues were addressed elsewhere throughout the thesis, with examples covering collectivism-individualism, masculinity-femininity, and power-distance. The topic of risk aversion did
not emerge. Comparisons were made between homogenous groups, such as the Emirati culture and European cohorts. Applied examples were given for: power-distance, in terms of student respect and complaints, the collectivist focus of Emirati students, particularly in regard to group work, and the masculine, achievement orientated society and university.

A major difference was that some, but not all of the private universities had varied international student bodies, as opposed to the homogenous groups that were often more typical in people’s home countries. It was noted that along with the homogenous group of Emirati nationals at the government institutions, there is a predominantly Indian sub-continent culture, and a growing body of African students, in addition to a variety of other nationalities. This impacted on teaching delivery, as lecturers needed to be aware of the differing needs within their cohorts to ensure that students from different cultures fully understand and relate to the concepts being taught. There was an identified national cultural difference between student cohorts in terms of a preference for a highly personalised teaching approach, particularly among Emirati and non-Western international students. This was addressed previously in Section 5.3.2.2.

With regard to reading, there were significant national cultural differences between Emirati students and their Western counterparts. Between student cohorts, there was a significant difference in terms of the amount of reading that students were prepared to do, while for Western faculty members, there was an expectation for students to do a greater amount of reading, as John elucidated.

**John:** The course I teach in terms of structure and subject matter is the same as a university in say the UK, Australia or New Zealand. There, you read chapters a week, but you’re lucky if they read here. In what kind of university do students refuse to read? It's like you’re asking them to do something totally unreasonable. An old student is in the UK doing his masters, and couldn't get over the amount of reading. He learnt when he was shown up in a lecture, so now he reads more.

John noted that he had to use different strategies than he would in his home country in order to get the local students to read.

**John:** I had what I thought was a really interesting topic but I had to design the lesson in such a way to manipulate them into reading quite a short article in order to have a discussion. You cannot just present them with reading material and say please read this, even during class time, because they will not do that. So it has to be in a way that, say, they get points for it. You have to think strategically when you’re planning your lesson; you can’t just take the material and run with it.
Miranda and Allie’s comments below were the only specific references to Hofstede’s dimensions.

**Miranda:** You talk about Western as individualistic and Emiratis as more collectivist sometimes – you see this in their group-work, where one student does the work and they all put their names on it. Masculinity-femininity, yes it’s quite a masculine country and culture, and the university is quite a masculine, achievement orientated kind of culture. Power distance - if there is a complaint, you go straight to the head or Sheikh to sort it out rather than going to the teacher.

**Allie:** Maybe it’s power-distance when people call me “ma’am”. Back home, they’d call you by your first name, and I think they’d be a lot less deferential. There is more deference here definitely from the students and it’s nice.

On a similar issue relating to power-distance and deference, naming conventions differed significantly between institutions. Whereas in, say, Western countries, there is a fairly rigorous process involved in obtaining the title of Professor, including publications’ history, formal and deferential titles are used more frequently in Dubai, as in Sanjay’s example.

**Sanjay:** The universities all have different titles. I’m doing the same work but in one the students call me Professor, another is Sir and another is Mister. They never call me by my first name. Same for the job titles: Assistant Professor, Lecturer, and Instructor or Faculty.

### 5.4.5 Summary of key sociocultural factors

**Sociocultural differences:** To avoid potential cultural transgressions, it was recommended that new staff familiarise themselves with the norms in Dubai before arrival, or at least be advised of the most obvious differences as part of formal induction training. Such behavioural differences included the requirement for respectable dress codes in public, no public displays of affection, and observance of specific religious protocols, particularly during the holy month of Ramadan. Legal implications included restrictions surrounding alcohol purchase and consumption, and severe penalties for drug use. It was also suggested that new staff should be aware of accommodation differences, such as the prevalence of high-rise apartment blocks rather than houses or villas. Although English is widely spoken, it was recommended that new staff consider learning basic Arabic to gain an insight into the lives of locals.

**Adjusting to a new institution in Dubai:** In addition to the above cultural sensitivities, participants advised that faculty members should be careful about the use of music in class in the government institutions, and overall be aware of the politics going on in the world and people’s sensitivities. There were reported differences in the international
cohorts, with multiple cultural backgrounds within one class in most of the private universities, as opposed to the generally more homogenous groups in people’s home countries. Same sex campuses were generally the norm in the government universities, while the private universities had mixed classes.

**Cultural adaptation phases:** It was noted that Dubai had changed dramatically in the last 20 years, and that the cultural adaptation of new staff depended on their previous experience and levels of expectation. Discussion also centred on the reverse culture shock which longer-term employees were anticipating upon leaving the UAE.

**National cultural differences:** National cultural differences were noted with respect to reading expectations of both students and teachers. Homogenous student group differences were also important in terms of adapting materials. Hofstede’s dimensions were not covered in detail other than power-distance, in terms of student respect and complaints, the collectivist focus of Emirati students, particularly in terms of group work, and the masculine, achievement oriented society and university.

### 5.5 Personal Factors

Personal factors have been analysed regarding issues for participants’ family members, and for themselves, in terms of reasons for coming to Dubai, work-life balance, stress, and opportunities for socialisation and travel.

#### 5.5.1 Family

Three participants had children or grandchildren either currently at school, or who had been through the school system in Dubai. They all spoke of the generally high quality of the international schools, with popular schools often having long waiting lists. There was also a wide range of curricula, including American, Australian, British and Indian. However, all noted how expensive the private schooling system was here.

For Elizabeth, a major influence in her decision to come to Dubai was the offer of private schooling for her child in a safe, multi-cultural environment.

*Elizabeth:* Possibly one of the main reasons that I came to Dubai was that part of the package was private schooling for my child. I mean we could have gone back home, and gone back to a perfectly good state school, but for the kind of multi-cultural environment, I think that Dubai is really very rich in that area. And it’s a safe environment, you don’t have the same kind of social problems.
The children and grandchildren of the participants appeared well adapted to life in Dubai, and the family’s cross-cultural adaptation was a factor for staying. For those with children who had been born here, there was a dilemma of where to call home; the country where they were born and raised, or the country that they would ultimately have to return to.

Miranda: I probably should have left about ten years ago, but once your children are born in a place, and go to school and make friends, it becomes difficult to up sticks. If your children are born in a country, you have a special feeling for the place, and they’ve not known anything else. People ask them “Where are you from?” and they say “Dubai”, and they laugh at them for saying Dubai. So you have to bring them up thinking this is their home, but it’s not. I really value the fact that my kids are in a school they love, and it’s covered by my employer.

Given that partner dissatisfaction and homesickness have been linked to two-thirds of failed expatriate adjustments (Twentyman, 2010), partner satisfaction was an important consideration for participants. Two of the faculty members had spouses who worked in full-time jobs, one was working freelance, and the last had a wife who was at home with their pre-school child. There was agreement that there was sometimes difficulty for spouses to find employment, and that their institutions did not offer any support in that regard. It was seen as essential for partners to have the relevant skills or qualifications to obtain independent work.

Allie: Unfortunately, I would say we’re each the author of our own fate, so if you’re not qualified or you don’t have a niche, there’s not a part-time work option here. You really have to have something that your partner would be able to sell to somebody, so they need to be pretty skilled.

Katerina: At my institution, they refer to your partners as “trailing spouses”. Makes them sound like a kind of impediment, don’t you think?

Participants also noted that the laws in Dubai precluded unmarried couples living together, and felt that this was a concern for a few of their unmarried colleagues with partners. One participant spoke of a colleague who had got married “in undue haste” just before coming out, because of this law, but that the marriage had not worked out.

5.5.2 Self

This section focuses on the initial reasons participants chose to come to Dubai, work-life balance, stress in their daily lives, and finally, opportunities for socialisation.
5.5.2.1 Reasons for coming to Dubai

A common reason for academic staff to come to the UAE is for the sense of adventure (Chapman, Austin, Farah, Wilson, & Ridge, 2014). The unique, exciting, multi-cultural lifestyle was a feature which had attracted four of the participants to Dubai initially. Chapman et al. (2014) would define them as “academic nomads” (p. 27). For John, it was the notion of a place completely different to his home country, as he explained below.

**John:** I wanted it to be a hardship post because of the excitement of it. If it were 15 years ago as it is now, I wouldn’t have come. I mean the reason I initially came was because it was going to a place that was different, where you felt as though possibly you were part of a developing education system, developing a tier of educated native people to move forward. Now I’m just in a city, in an educational institution; I could be almost anywhere in the world.

The quality of the life was another feature which had brought people initially to Dubai. However, participants noted that the cost of living had made it less attractive than previously.

**Gregor:** Most people had swimming pools, access to gyms, cars, maids, things like that, which was ridiculous. You didn’t pay taxes, and you lived a luxurious life; you lived in an unreal world. If people complained, I’d just say think about what you’d be getting back home. Of course, it’s getting more expensive now.

Some participants had been attracted here by the warm climate. Although it was noted that temperatures during summer could reach the high forties, this period generally coincided with semester breaks, so it was possible to leave the country. Others spoke of the opportunity to travel easily to a variety of destinations, with Dubai as a hub to Europe, Africa and Asia. One participant noted, “It’s only three hours from Dubai to Goa and Mumbai, so I can visit family and friends often”.

5.5.2.2 Work-life balance

All participants spoke of how hard they were working here. Some were able to find a balance between their home and personal lives better than others, but most agreed that their work took up a significant portion of their time. One participant felt that she had to be so work-oriented, because it was “the only way to keep on top of the game”. Another mentioned how he had recently completed a “circle of life” exercise, which identified that he was spending too much time on work, and that he was going to try to find a better work-life balance. Miranda explained how she would like to take a complete break.

**Miranda:** My work is energy sapping, so I haven’t been doing the other things I like to do. I’ve got to manage my time a lot better. What I’d really like is to take
a year off to freshen myself up personally and professionally, or just do something that’s been on the back burner, that would be wonderful, but it’s a luxury.

For one of the participants, it was not until he had a health scare that he started to prioritise his personal life, and learned to say no. He reported that his work-life balance was much improved now. With the online learning system at his university, he was able to do more work at home, and in a comfortable environment.

5.5.2.3 Stress management

Closely linked to the heavy workloads, were the issues of stress and burnout, which have been linked to teacher attrition (Jepson & Forrest, 2006). Most participants agreed that they felt stress in their jobs, although, again, stress was managed in some better than others. Comments included: “I have to get to grips with my stress levels”, “I don’t feel I’ve been managing my stress very well”, “It’s difficult with study and the heavy workload”, and “By the end of semester, I’m totally wiped out”.

One of the participants described the stress caused through the knock on effects of delays in obtaining security clearance. This meant he started teaching his course three weeks late, and had no access to internal mail or online materials for another month. Some participants spoke of one of the universities, which had a gym and offered fitness classes, and these were popular with staff. The other universities did not appear to offer such extensive facilities.

5.5.2.4 Opportunities for socialisation

Long working hours were seen as an impediment to participants’ ability to socialise, with some explaining how busy they were in the evenings and weekends doing marking, answering emails or doing class preparation. The end of semester and holidays were reportedly the main opportunities for socialising and relaxing. The increasing costs in Dubai also reduced the ability to socialise for some. Participants also expressed a desire for increased opportunities for socialisation through the workplace, noting that different universities achieved this more successfully than others. It was suggested that some universities could consider offering more social activities for faculty members.

Gregor: Have fun events, have extra curricula events. I think I found that lacking in some of the places I worked; one was fantastic; the other had no social gatherings at all.
5.5.3 Summary of key personal factors

**Family:** Participants spoke of the generally high quality of international schools, and the availability of a wide range of Western curricula taught in a relatively safe multi-cultural environment. It was noted that many private schools had long waiting lists, meaning that early enrolment was essential. Private schooling was also expensive; therefore, it was important to consider this when evaluating remuneration packages. A dilemma raised by the parents of school-aged children was instilling the notion of two homes – the country where the children had been born and raised, and the country that they would ultimately be returning to. With respect to partners, it was advised that unmarried couples are not allowed to live together in Dubai, and that it was important to consider the qualifications and skill sets of spouses, as there was generally no assistance from the universities in helping them to find employment.

**Reasons for coming to Dubai:** The unique multi-cultural lifestyle had attracted a number of participants initially, as had the warm climate, and the opportunity to travel to a variety of places due to Dubai’s proximity to Europe, Africa and Asia. The quality of life in Dubai was also appreciated, such as easy access to gyms and swimming pools, and relatively inexpensive cars and maid services; however, as highlighted previously, the cost of living had risen significantly.

**Work-life balance and stress management:** Most participants agreed that work took up too much of their free time, and that it was often stressful. Some faculty members were more adept than others at managing stress, and balancing their work and personal lives.

**Opportunities for socialisation:** The opportunity to form workplace friendships and participate in organised social activities differed between universities. The ability to socialise was affected by heavy workloads and increasing costs in Dubai.

5.6 Summary of Analysis

This chapter summarised and analysed the participants’ narratives in terms of the most commonly identified themes. Findings were presented in four major sections: intrinsic, extrinsic, sociocultural and personal factors. Results were compared, where possible, to previous research findings on UAE tertiary education institutions.
All of the motivation, commitment and retention factors identified in the Literature Review chapter emerged during the course of the participants’ narratives. However, a new theme was also highlighted with respect to the need for personalised teaching, which was particular to this region. Further exploration of the need for a personal approach and its prevalence in the Middle East region may prove to be a fruitful area for further investigation. The following chapter outlines the recommendations arising from the analysis of key factors and issues from the interviews.
CHAPTER SIX – RECOMMENDATIONS

Following the literature review and analysis of narratives described in the earlier chapters, a total of 64 recommendations were compiled. These recommendations reflect the concerns and suggestions raised by the interviewees when describing their teaching experiences.

It is intended that these recommendations address the second aim of contributing to professional academic practice by:

“Proposing potential satisfaction, commitment and retention strategies for use by higher education institutions operating in a climate of change in the UAE in order to enhance their chances of long-term viability.”

The recommendations have been divided into the following five sections:

1. Recruitment and selection recommendations
2. Pre-arrival recommendations
3. Induction recommendations
4. Ongoing satisfaction, commitment and retention recommendations
5. Additional organisational success recommendations

For each recommendation, the relevant sections of the Analysis and/or Literature Review chapters have been highlighted, if more detailed background information is required.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendations</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.1 Recruitment and Selection Recommendations</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Faculty member involvement in recruitment and selection</td>
<td>Consider including faculty members in the recruitment and selection process, such as:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) Inclusion on selection panels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) Seeking referrals of potential recruits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Lifestyle advantages of Dubai</td>
<td>Highlight the unique aspects of the lifestyle in Dubai to potential international recruits, such as:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) The multi-cultural lifestyle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) The warm climate throughout most of the year (although hot in the summer months).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) The local attractions and activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| 5.3.4.1 | 2.2.1 |
| 5.5.2.1 | 5.5.2.4 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendations</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>d) The opportunities to travel to a variety of places due to Dubai’s proximity to Europe, Africa and Asia.</td>
<td>5.5.2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) The quality of life, such as easy access to gyms and swimming pools, air-conditioned accommodation, and relatively inexpensive cars and maid services.</td>
<td>2.2.2 5.5.2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highlight possible challenges in Dubai, such as the increased costs of living, in order to increase transparency for potential international recruits.</td>
<td>5.3.1.1 5.3.1.2 5.5.2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.2 Pre-arrival Recommendations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Accommodation advice</th>
<th>Pre-arrival advice on accommodation should include the need to consider that:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a) The commute to and from the university may be time-consuming (particularly when universities are located on the outskirts of Dubai in Academic City) due to high traffic volumes in Dubai and Sharjah at peak times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b) The cost of accommodation in Dubai is high.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>c) The available accommodation will probably be in high-rise apartment buildings, as individual villas (houses) are very expensive.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5. Administration advice: documentation</th>
<th>Pre-arrival advice on documentation should include a list of specific documents (such as marriage certificates and academic transcripts) which must be attested in the country of origin prior to arrival.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.3.4.2 5.5.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. Administration advice: sponsorship</th>
<th>Pre-arrival advice on sponsorship should ensure staff are aware that approvals from the university in the form of “No Objection Certificates” may be required to obtain services such as bank accounts and drivers’ licences.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>7. Behavioural differences advice</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-arrival advice on behavioural differences and norms should include the need to:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Be aware of the potential for “culture shock” generally, if unfamiliar with the region.</td>
<td>5.4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Wear ‘respectable’ dress in public.</td>
<td>5.4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Refrain from public displays of affection.</td>
<td>5.4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Observe specific religious protocols, particularly during the holy month of Ramadan.</td>
<td>5.4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8. Dress code advice</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-arrival advice on the required dress and personal grooming codes of the university should ensure incoming staff:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Bring a culturally and climate appropriate wardrobe.</td>
<td>5.4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Understand the differing university norms concerning personal grooming, such as jewellery, hair-styles, make-up, body piercings, tattoos, etc.</td>
<td>2.2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>9. Family advice</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-arrival advice on family considerations should include awareness that:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Unmarried couples are not allowed to live together in Dubai.</td>
<td>5.5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Qualifications and skill sets of spouses should meet the needs of the Dubai job market.</td>
<td>5.5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Schools may have waiting lists, so enrolment may be required a significant amount of time in advance.</td>
<td>5.5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10. Language advice</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-arrival advice on languages should include awareness that:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) English is widely spoken, and is the language of instruction in almost all of the universities in Dubai.</td>
<td>2.2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Amanda McStay  
Teaching Business in Dubai – A phenomenological study  
151
**Recommendations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b) Basic Arabic language skills could assist in gaining an insight into the lives of locals.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.2.2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 11. Legal implications advice

Pre-arrival advice on legal implications should include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-arrival advice on legal implications should include:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) There are no labour unions in the UAE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) There are restrictions on certain books, materials and medications that can be brought into the UAE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) There are restrictions surrounding alcohol purchase and consumption.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) There are restrictions surrounding public profanities, and anti-Islamic and anti-government statements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) There are severe penalties surrounding illegal drug use.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.3.4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.3 Induction Training Recommendations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>12. Induction: cross-cultural differences in classroom management between students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ensure that new staff are aware of cross-cultural differences between students in the Dubai classroom environment, such as:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Emirati students tend to come from a more traditional, rote learning background.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Emirati students tend to have a collectivist approach, particularly in terms of group work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Both local and non-Western international students in this region generally prefer a more personalised teaching approach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Teaching delivery should be adapted to meet the widely varying student needs and cultural backgrounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) There are culturally and politically sensitive topic areas which should be avoided in classroom discussions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.2.3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3.2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2.2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>13. Induction:</strong> cross-cultural differences in classroom management between universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) The federal institutions may have restrictions around the use of music in the classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) The federal institutions usually have same sex campuses, while the private universities generally have mixed classes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) The federal institutions generally have a homogenous, Emirati student population, whereas some, but not all of the private universities have students from multiple cultural backgrounds within one class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Universities have different policies regarding appropriate behaviour expected from students in terms of attendance and punctuality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>14. Induction:</strong> policies and procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>15. Induction process: adjuncts</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>16. Induction process: mentors</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.4 Ongoing Satisfaction, Commitment and Retention Recommendations</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>17. Accommodation:</strong> employer sponsored</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>18. Administration:</strong> class sizes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>student learning needs and to consider teacher workload.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Administration: skills register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintain a skills register to ensure that courses are assigned to the most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appropriately qualified and experienced staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Administration: student names</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review the prevalence of Emirati students’ first names when allocating students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to classes in government institutions, and, where flexibility allows, distribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students with the same first name equally across classes to improve classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management and personalised learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Administration: timetables and “on campus” hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consider more flexible timetables, with the opportunity for staff to work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recognised hours from home for course development, preparation and marking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Assessment policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure assessments are:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) linked to learning outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) fair and consistent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) provided or amended with sufficient notice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) appropriate to the student level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Compensation: additional work opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review sponsorship restrictions around allowing staff to perform additional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remunerated work with other organisations, so staff have the opportunity to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>augment their salaries, and then bring enhanced knowledge and networking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contacts back to the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Compensation: competitiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review compensation packages to take account of:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) competitiveness with other universities, both locally and overseas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) internal parity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Compensation: cost of living</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review compensation packages to take account of:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) exchange rate fluctuations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Recommendations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recommendations</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b) increased costs of living in Dubai, particularly accommodation and private schooling</td>
<td>5.3.1.1, 5.3.1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Compensation: indemnities Review payout periods for end of service bonuses, and consider offering earlier payout for long-term employees in order to reduce employer liability for large payments, and to increase flexibility for staff seeking investment opportunities.</td>
<td>5.3.1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Compensation: pension schemes Consider offering access to pension schemes.</td>
<td>5.3.1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Compensation: workload Acknowledge the added workload, in terms of extra time allowances or compensation, for: a) Additional responsibilities, such as team leader roles. b) Student consultation hours and marking for adjunct staff. c) Attendance at Open Days, exhibitions and other student recruitment initiatives. d) Additional preparation and course mastery requirements for staff teaching multiple courses.</td>
<td>5.2.1.3, 5.2.2.1, 5.2.2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Contract length Consider the option of longer contracts, or a policy similar to tenure for high-performing faculty members.</td>
<td>5.3.3.1, 5.3.5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Contract renewal Ensure transparency in the contract renewal process, particularly regarding: a) age limits b) performance c) Emiratisation d) notice periods</td>
<td>5.3.3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Coursework development Encourage sharing of materials across campuses to avoid ‘reinventing the wheel’.</td>
<td>5.2.2.8, 5.3.4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Coursework maintenance Review the effectiveness and currency of coursework content sharing databases.</td>
<td>5.2.2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Curriculum development Link lower level learning outcomes of business</td>
<td>5.2.3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students in preparatory courses to current business related concepts and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocabulary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Grievance and appraisal policies To enhance transparency and fairness,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ensure staff:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) can access grievance policies and procedures</td>
<td>5.3.4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) have notice of classroom observations</td>
<td>5.3.4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Job role: clarity Ensure job roles and expectations are clearly defined.</td>
<td>5.2.2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Job role: nature of work Offer a variety of challenging, stimulating and</td>
<td>5.2.2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meaningful work.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Job role: workload Review teaching workloads with respect to:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) face to face delivery hours</td>
<td>5.2.2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) coursework preparation</td>
<td>5.2.2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) marking</td>
<td>5.2.2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) student administration reporting requirements</td>
<td>5.2.2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) accreditation reporting requirements</td>
<td>5.3.7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Promotional opportunities: Emiratisation Ensure transparency in conveying</td>
<td>5.3.5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the policy of Emiratisation in federal institutions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Promotional opportunities: female faculty members Review the career</td>
<td>5.3.5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progression of female faculty members to achieve a greater gender balance at</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor level.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Recognition Increase the level of feedback and recognition for teaching and</td>
<td>5.2.4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>research achievements.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Student evaluation policies Share student evaluations of teachers in an</td>
<td>5.3.4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anonymised format.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Student preparation courses Review the provision of bridging courses for:</td>
<td>5.2.2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) academic reading</td>
<td>5.4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) academic writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) basic mathematics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) basic study skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Supervisor style</td>
<td>Recommendations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encourage a more empowering and transformational leadership style in supervisors, particularly where they have high-performing staff members.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 44. Teacher autonomy: curricula, assessments and coursework | Allow greater autonomy for faculty members in terms of:  
   a) Increased consultation in decision making when developing curricula.  
   b) More freedom in developing assessments.  
   c) Continued freedom in developing coursework. | 5.2.1.1 |
| 45. Teacher autonomy: self-managed teams | Continue to encourage self-managed teams, and monitor their effectiveness. | 5.2.1.4 |
| 46. Teacher decision making: faculty representation | Increase faculty representation on senior academic teams and boards. | 5.2.1.2 |
| 47. Teacher decision making: staff consultation on courses | Increase staff consultation regarding choices in courses to deliver and student levels to teach. | 5.2.1.1  
   | 5.2.2.3  
<p>| 5.2.2.8 |
| 48. Teacher training: business courses | Ensure that preparation course teachers understand the requirements of the relevant diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate business courses which their students will be undertaking. | 5.2.3.1 |
| 49. Teacher training: funding | Consider providing funding or time allowances to assist faculty members further their qualifications in order to encourage individual teachers’ growth, and to ensure a more qualified workforce. | 5.2.3.3 |
| 50. Teacher training: non-native English speaking students | Ensure that business faculty members understand the issues faced by non-native English speaking students. | 5.2.3.1 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Recommendations</strong></th>
<th><strong>Analysis</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>51. Teacher training:</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>ongoing mentoring</strong></td>
<td>Review the formal mentoring policies to ensure that ongoing mentoring takes place after the initial induction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>52. Teacher training:</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>potential courses</strong></td>
<td>Review the training and professional development opportunities on offer, and consider providing a greater variety of courses, beyond IT, such as:&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;a) Teaching innovations&lt;br&gt;b) Classroom management&lt;br&gt;c) Current business related topics&lt;br&gt;d) Current political issues&lt;br&gt;e) Emotional intelligence&lt;br&gt;f) Soft skills&lt;br&gt;g) English language learning issues&lt;br&gt;h) Arabic language classes&lt;br&gt;i) Student counselling skills&lt;br&gt;j) Work-life balance and stress management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>53. Work environment:</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>social activities</strong></td>
<td>Consider offering social activities for faculty members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>54. Work environment:</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>faculty work areas</strong></td>
<td>Review the noise and comfort levels for faculty members located in large, open spaces in order to improve productivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.5 Additional Organisational Success Recommendations</strong></td>
<td><strong>55. Campus location</strong>&lt;br&gt;Consider the location and amenities for start-up universities, in relation to facilities already located in Dubai Academic City and Dubai Knowledge Village.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>56. Organisational culture</strong></td>
<td>Examine the organisational culture of the university, and identify potential areas of improvement, particularly with respect to:&lt;br&gt;&lt;br&gt;a) Clearer communication from senior management to enhance trust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recommendations</strong></td>
<td><strong>Analysis</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Stronger articulation of an inspirational vision.</td>
<td>5.3.4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Smoother implementation of change management strategies.</td>
<td>5.3.4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Greater representation of women at the senior management level.</td>
<td>5.3.4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Increased consultation with faculty members in decision making.</td>
<td>5.3.4.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

57. Parent and branch campus: assessments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Recommendations</strong></th>
<th><strong>Analysis</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Review the assessments provided by the parent campus to the branch campuses, as suggested:</td>
<td>5.3.2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Assessment marking criteria should be clearly defined and shared at the start of the course.</td>
<td>5.3.2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Assessment moderation strategies should be clearly defined, and shared with the faculty member marking the assignments.</td>
<td>5.3.2.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

58. Parent and branch campus: course materials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Recommendations</strong></th>
<th><strong>Analysis</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Review the course materials provided by the parent campus to the branch campuses to ensure:</td>
<td>5.2.2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Materials are of sufficient quantity and level of detail to be replicated / delivered at the branch campus.</td>
<td>5.2.2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Materials are (or can be) contextualised to the Dubai context.</td>
<td>5.2.2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Materials are appropriate to the cultural and political sensitivities of this region and its international and Emirati student cohorts.</td>
<td>2.6.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

59. Parent and branch campus: relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Recommendations</strong></th>
<th><strong>Analysis</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Review the relationship between parent and branch campuses to ensure:</td>
<td>5.3.2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Communication is an effective two-way process between campuses.</td>
<td>5.3.2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Adjuncts are adequately briefed in terms of expectations, workload and processes.</td>
<td>5.2.1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Delegation of responsibilities to branch campuses is enhanced, where possible.</td>
<td>5.2.1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. Research funding</td>
<td>5.2.4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigate avenues for funding from external bodies to offset research costs,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>such as grants from other universities or research bodies, particularly for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>universities which currently do not provide research opportunities to faculty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>members.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61. Student intake: assessment tools</td>
<td>5.3.4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review the validity and reliability of tools used to assess initial student</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>levels.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62. Student intake: low entry requirements</td>
<td>5.2.2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure support mechanisms are in place for students to transition to the</td>
<td>5.3.4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>required level, particularly for universities accepting students with lower</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>than expected entry requirements.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63. Student intake: high entry requirements</td>
<td>5.3.4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review the rationale for high student entry requirements, particularly for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>universities with entry requirements set higher than their competitors, which</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are struggling to increase enrolments.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64. Student recruitment agents</td>
<td>5.3.4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve the vetting of student recruitment agents, and ensure requirements are</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clearly advised, particularly if the students recommended are not at the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>required level.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.6 Summary of Recommendations

This chapter outlined the 64 recommendations which were compiled to reflect the commonly identified concerns arising from the analysis of interviews from the Dubai faculty members sampled. These recommendations are intended to offer potential strategies for tertiary education providers in Dubai relating to the recruitment, selection, induction, satisfaction, commitment and retention of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members. Although the study focussed on the teaching experiences of a small number of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members, it is likely that the recommendations would also apply to expatriate staff working in other faculties. This could be explored in future research. Additional general organisational success strategies were also proposed. To offer contextual detail for each recommendation, relevant sections were highlighted of the preceding Analysis and/or Literature Review chapters from which the final recommendations were derived. The next and final chapter addresses the conclusions and implications of this dissertation.
CHAPTER SEVEN – CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter discusses the conclusions and implications arising from the conduct of this dissertation. The key intrinsic, extrinsic, sociocultural and personal factors are summarised, and implications for both tertiary education providers and future researchers are presented.

7.1 Introduction
Despite significant global changes to the academic profession in recent years, there is an identified lack of empirical evidence on expatriate teacher satisfaction, commitment and retention in the tertiary education sector in the Middle East. A review of the academic literature provided valuable insights into factors and items suitable for a conceptual framework for use in the competitive, culturally diverse higher education sector in the UAE. An interpretive, phenomenological approach was used to examine themes emerging from the narratives of ten expatriate Business and Foundation Business teachers who described their experiences of the tertiary education sector in Dubai.

All of the extrinsic, intrinsic, sociocultural and personal factors which were identified through the literature review, and used in the theoretical framework, appeared throughout the participants’ narratives. This highlighted the utility of the conceptual framework in exploring teaching experiences in Dubai’s higher education sector. Key themes were identified and analysed, which led to a set of 64 recommendations for tertiary education providers. Future areas for research have also been identified.

7.2 Key Factors
The key issues raised are summarised below in terms of intrinsic, extrinsic, sociocultural and personal factors. Extrinsic factors emerged as the most common theme, followed by intrinsic factors. Sociocultural and personal factors accounted for just over one tenth of the remaining themes.

7.2.1 Key intrinsic factors
The nature of the work itself was the most prevalent intrinsic motivation theme addressed. It was agreed that a variety of challenging, stimulating and meaningful work made teaching more enjoyable, and that a personalised teaching approach was best suited to the Dubai university context. However, job roles needed greater clarity, particularly in terms...
of expected workload, which was felt to be heavier in Dubai than in participants’ home countries. Additionally, increased class sizes and the variety of student levels within a class were felt to contribute to the workload.

There was an expressed need for greater autonomy in developing curricula and assessments, along with increased faculty representation on senior academic teams. The importance of consultation in contextualising materials was also highlighted for business students in Dubai. Finally, it was agreed that a greater variety in professional development and research opportunities would be appreciated, as well as support with ongoing mentoring and qualifications upgrades.

### 7.2.2 Key extrinsic factors

Organisational culture and supervisor style together accounted for almost half of the extrinsic factors. On the one hand, there was a general desire for improved communication, inclusive decision making, smoother management of change, and more empowering, transformational leadership. On the positive side, participants valued their relationships with colleagues and students, and enjoyed working for international universities with good reputations and quality campus facilities.

Staff appreciated the tax-free salaries, holidays, health insurance, and travel allowances. However, concern was expressed that remuneration no longer accounted for increasing costs in Dubai, particularly housing and children’s schooling. Opportunities to augment incomes outside the universities were limited, and it was felt that the accrual of an end of service bonus did not compare to a pension. The importance of sufficient pre-arrival information about the living situation in Dubai was also raised, especially regarding the costs of living and the logistics of settling in.

The rate of Emiratisation at government universities is increasing, and was accepted as necessary for the country’s strategic development and empowerment of its citizens. Both Emiratisation and the lack of tenure opportunities impacted on expatriate faculty members’ satisfaction and intention to stay, in terms of reduced job security and promotional opportunities.
7.2.3 Key sociocultural and personal factors

Participants spoke favourably of Dubai’s unique multi-cultural environment, quality of life, and opportunities to travel. To reduce potential culture shock, it was recommended that new staff understand basic cross-cultural sensitivities and laws in Dubai before arrival. These include behavioural norms relating to dress codes, public displays of affection, and observance of religious protocols, along with laws surrounding alcohol and drug use, and unmarried couples’ cohabitation. Work-life balance was an issue for some staff, due to heavy workloads and increasing costs in Dubai. Reverse culture shock was also highlighted as a potential issue facing longer-term expatriate staff and their families upon leaving the UAE.

7.3 Implications for Colleges and Universities

This study adds further perspectives from Business and Foundation Business faculty members working in the tertiary education sector in Dubai. Rather than making a theoretical contribution, this study addresses the identified gap in literature in this area, and could be useful for policy makers in Dubai’s universities and colleges. The literature review and conceptual model have potential value for higher education institutions interested in identifying key HRM factors impacting organisational profitability and performance, and for highlighting issues surrounding the attraction and retention of expatriate academic staff.

A total of 54 recommendations have been proposed with respect to the recruitment, selection, pre-arrival, induction, and ongoing satisfaction, commitment and retention of expatriate faculty members. An additional ten organisational success recommendations relate to branch campus locations and materials, culture, research funding opportunities, and student intake policies.

7.4 Limitations

As outlined in the introduction, the primary limitations of this research are those inherent in the qualitative methodology. Specifically, it is not possible to generalise results, and the results are relevant only to the context of this particular study. Although this study cannot be fully replicated, it is hoped that the provision of the detailed methodology and research design will be a useful guide for conducting future similar research.
The research was restricted to expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members at Dubai universities. This was for both logistical reasons and to allow comparison of factors within the same situational context. Although the sample contained a mix of participants from Asia, Australasia, Europe and North America, there were no participants from Africa, South America or Arabic speaking countries; this was due to both English language speaking requirements at the selection stage and access issues.

Sociocultural and personal themes emerged less frequently during the interviews, which may simply have been a reflection of fewer topic areas of interest. However, it might also have been due to interviewee fatigue / response bias, as these questions were at the end of the interview prompt questions list. In future studies, it might be worth placing these two factors earlier in the list to determine if it generates further discussion.

Although distinct national cultural differences emerged during the discussions, the terminology for Hofstede’s dimensions did not appear frequently. This may have been a reflection of Dubai’s diverse, multi-cultural environment, or due to placement of the item at the end of the topic list. It may also have been due to a coding issue during the analysis phase, where items which also related to cultural differences were placed elsewhere within the discussion.

### 7.5 Implications for Future Research

It is hoped that the conceptual model will provide a useful starting point for other researchers in the field who are interested in testing and validating the proposed factors and items. Although the model was developed specifically for the UAE context, there is potential application to other colleges and universities in the Middle East region, operating in similarly culturally diverse environments.

Additional research could focus on different samples to the one used in this dissertation. As this research was confined to Dubai universities, there is a potential to conduct similar research in other emirates in the UAE, for example, in Abu Dhabi, Ajman, Fujairah, Sharjah, Ras al-Khaimah and Umm al-Quwain.

The research was also limited to expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members; therefore, future research could focus on different faculty areas. Future
sampling could also include the perspectives of faculty members from African, South American or Arabic-speaking backgrounds.

With respect to future interview protocol changes, researchers could consider reordering the interview question prompts, so that sociocultural and personal factors appear earlier in the list. This could potentially increase dialogue on these points.

Increased Emiratisation of the workforces at government institutions is now becoming an accepted way of life in Dubai. The impact at federal universities on the recruitment opportunities for new expatriate faculty members, and the job security and promotional prospects for existing staff are potentially new topic areas to be investigated.

Future researchers could investigate faculty member workloads in Dubai universities. Potential research could include satisfaction and workload comparisons between: i) parent and branch campuses, ii) Dubai government and private universities, iii) Dubai universities with other emirates in the UAE, and iv) Dubai norms generally with international universities.

With regard to teacher-student relationships, a theme that emerged from the narratives was the expressed need for a personalised teaching approach to the extent that students considered teachers to be more akin to family members. This topic was not highlighted in the literature review, and is a potential future area to research.

The economic impact for long-term expatriate staff members is also a potential area for future research. The real buying power and investment options of the tax-free remuneration packages offered could be analysed with respect to: i) the costs of living in Dubai compared to other cities, ii) payout amounts and timings of end of service benefits, iii) pension and superannuation options, and iv) exchange rate fluctuations.

During the course of this research, Dubai was awarded the rights to host the World EXPO in 2020, which will be the first time such an event has been held in this region. As the organisers are expecting around 25 million visitors (EXPO, 2015), there are substantial potential growth opportunities for Dubai, including the education sector. Although the topic was not raised in this research, it could prove an interesting area for future research.
7.6 **Final Conclusion**

The literature review identified a shortage of data on satisfaction, commitment and retention of tertiary educators in the Middle East region. This dissertation developed a theoretical framework to examine key issues faced by expatriate tertiary level faculty members in the UAE, explored in the context of Dubai.

It is hoped that the analysis and recommendations will shine a light on some of the issues faced by Business and Foundation Business faculty members in this region, and provide further insights into factors influencing satisfaction, commitment and retention. Additionally, it is hoped that this study might prove a useful guide for researchers interested in further exploring this topic area.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX 1 – DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this interview. In order to provide contextual background for the study, and to ensure a representative mix of participants, it would be appreciated if you could please complete this short profile. Please be assured that no personal identifying information will be used in reporting the results. Please circle the relevant answer, or fill in short details, for questions you feel comfortable answering. Thank you.

1. **Pseudonym:**

2. **Gender:** Male        Female
3. **Age range:** 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60+
4. **Ethnicity:** ________________________________
5. **Qualifications:** _________________________________
6. **Marital status:** Single       Married       Divorced
7. **Children:** No        Yes        No. of children: _________
8. **Years in the teaching profession:** _________ years
9. **Years in the UAE:** _________ years
10. **Years at current college/university:** _________ years
    (or previous college, if recently left)
11. **Type of college/university:** Private        Government
12. **Employment type:** Permanent        Temporary/adjunct
13. **Discipline(s):** Business        Foundation        Other
14. **Course level(s) taught** - Business (or Foundation preparation for):

   Diploma        Higher Diploma        Undergraduate        Postgraduate

   Other:

15. **Other teaching experience (UAE and overseas):**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Types of colleges</td>
<td>Private</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment type</td>
<td>Permanent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplines</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course levels</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you very much.
APPENDIX 2 – INTERVIEW GUIDE

INITIAL OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS
1. Can you tell me a little about yourself and your teaching background?
2. Can you tell me your story about your experience of teaching in Dubai and how it compares to other places you have taught? In particular, what has influenced your levels of satisfaction, commitment and intention to stay/leave?

CLOSING OPEN-ENDED QUESTION
3. What recommendations do you have for your college/university to improve faculty member satisfaction, commitment and retention, or other issues related to the teaching experience?

POTENTIAL DISCUSSION AREAS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRINSIC MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS AND ITEMS

Autonomy
- Academic freedom/empowerment – course/assessment development/delivery
- Level of influence
- Level of responsibility
- Self-managed teams

Nature of work
- Clear job role and expectations
- Challenging and stimulating work – sense of achievement
- Variety of work and variety of skills used – working to strengths
- Impact of student ability, language level, behaviour and motivation
- Impact of student to teacher ratio – quality, effectiveness and discipline
- Workload – course/material development, lesson preparation, marking, paperwork

Professional development
- Cross-discipline development opportunities (eg. English to content teaching)
- Mentoring opportunities
- Personal and professional growth opportunities

Rewards (non-financial)
- Ability to help students and colleagues – making a difference to others
- Feedback and recognition for teaching and research achievements
- Other non-financial rewards and benefits

EXTRINSIC MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS AND ITEMS

Financial (salary and benefits)
- Salary (amount, comparability, cost of living, increments)
- Benefits (housing, insurance, indemnity, leave, schooling, travel, other)
- Opportunities for additional remunerated work

Interpersonal relationships
- Co-workers – communication, collaboration, friendships, support, trust
- Students – quality of relationships
- Other stakeholders (parents, business partners and home campus)

Job security
- Contract terms and conditions
- Contract renewal and termination
- Sponsorship restrictions
Management policies and culture
- Recruitment and selection policies and practices
- Pre-arrival and induction policies and practices, including cross-cultural training
- Curriculum development, training delivery and assessment policies and practices
- Performance appraisal and grievance policies and practices
- Student intake and management policies (student quality and number)
- Culture (vision, planning, bureaucracy, communication, decision-making)

Promotional opportunities
- Performance-based promotion
- Internal promotional opportunities within the college
- External promotional opportunities – remaining competitive

Supervisor style
- Supervisor’s style – empowerment, direction and flexibility
- Supervisor’s communication and decision-making style – fairness and clarity
- Supervisor’s level of respect, trust and support – treated as an individual
- Confidence in supervisor’s competence

Work environment
- Administration and support services – quality and availability
- Campus quality, location, facilities, internationalisation, reputation, resources

SOCIOCULTURAL FACTORS AND ITEMS

Culture shock
- Adjusting to a new country/culture – clothing, cost of living, cultural diversity and norms, entertainment, food, friends, language, housing, political and legal system
- Adjusting to a new institution – organisational culture, curriculum and procedures
- Cultural adaptation phases: honeymoon period, culture shock, adaptation, mastery

Hofstede’s national cultural dimensions
- Collectivism-individualism
- Masculinity-femininity
- Power-distance
- Risk aversion

PERSONAL FACTORS AND ITEMS

Family
- Children’s schooling – availability, cost, quality, international comparability
- Partner’s work opportunities
- Family’s cross-cultural adaptation

Personal
- Reasons for teaching in Dubai
- Work-life balance
- Stress management strategies
- Opportunities for socialisation and travel
APPENDIX 3 – INFORMATION SHEET

Teaching business - a phenomenological study of tertiary level educators’ experiences in Dubai.

**Purpose:** Your participation in this study will be highly valued, as it will contribute to the completion of a Doctor of Business Administration thesis with Charles Sturt University in Australia. It is intended to interview expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members with experience teaching at higher education institutions in Dubai. Interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed, with the content analysed to gain insights into factors impacting on teaching experiences. It is anticipated that interviews will take around 60 to 90 minutes, with the possibility of follow-up questions. It is intended to publish the results in a dissertation and possibly a journal.

**The primary research aim:** “To explore and gain an in-depth understanding of factors influencing the narratives of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members in the multi-cultural higher education sector in Dubai in the UAE.”

This study aims to contribute to professional academic practice in the UAE, as follows:

**Aim 1:** “To offer in-depth insights into issues affecting teaching staff in Business and Foundation Business faculties of the multicultural higher education institutions in the emirate of Dubai in the UAE.”

**Aim 2:** “To identify potential satisfaction, commitment and retention strategies, and highlight other potential factors influencing the narratives of expatriate Business and Foundation Business faculty members for higher education institutions operating in a climate of change in the emirate of Dubai in the UAE in order to enhance their chances of long-term viability.”

**Aim 3:** “To add much needed data to the limited body of research currently available on the academic profession in the UAE.”

**Confidentiality:** In order to ensure the study includes a representative mix of participants (for example, gender, country of origin, age, faculty, full-time/adjunct, and government/private institutions), you will be asked to complete a short, anonymous demographic profile. Please note that any personal details gathered are completely confidential, and neither your name nor any other identifying information will be used or published. Pseudonyms will be used to protect identities. Participation in this study is voluntary, and you can withdraw at any time.

**Approvals:** Charles Sturt University’s Ethics Committee has approved this study (Protocol Number 218/2013/19). If you have any complaints or concerns about this research you can contact:

Dr Ramudu Bhanugopan, Ethics Committee, Charles Sturt University
Bathurst, NSW 2795, Australia  Phone: +61 2 6933 2575  Fax: +61 2 6933 2790

[www.csu.edu.au](http://www.csu.edu.au)
CRICOS Provider Numbers for Charles Sturt University are 00005F (NSW), 01947G (VIC)
APPENDIX 4 – INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Research project: Teaching business – a phenomenological study of tertiary level educators’ experiences in Dubai.

Principal researcher: Amanda McStay, CELTA, BSc, MBA, FAIM, CAHRI
Doctoral student, Doctor of Business Administration
School of Business, Charles Sturt University, NSW, Australia
Student ID: 11367742
e-mail@hotmail.com

Research supervisor: Dr Pamela Lockhart
BA(Hons), MA, DipBusAdmin, MBS, MEd, EdD
School of Business, Charles Sturt University, NSW, Australia
plockhart@csu.edu.au

1. I understand that I am free to withdraw my participation in the research at any time, and that if I do I will not be subjected to any penalty or discriminatory treatment.

2. I understand that any information or personal details gathered in the course of this research about me are confidential, and that neither my name nor any other identifying information will be used or published without my written permission.

3. The purpose of the research has been explained to me, including the possibility of a feeling of discomfort that might arise through the reflective interview process, and I have read and understood the information sheet given to me.

4. I understand that interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed, and I understand that I will have the opportunity to review the transcript.

5. I understand the interviews could take between 60 to 90 minutes, and that I may be contacted for a second interview or follow-up questions.

6. Charles Sturt University’s Ethics Committee has approved this study (Protocol Number 218/2013/19). I understand that if I have any complaints or concerns about this research I can contact:

   Dr Ramudu Bhanugopan
   Ethics Committee, Charles Sturt University
   Bathurst, NSW 2795, Australia
   Phone: +61 2 6933 2575    Fax: +61 2 6933 2790

Signed by: …………………………………………………………… Date: …………………