The Adjustment of Self-initiated Expatriate Academics in Higher Education Institutions in Saudi Arabia

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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DECLARATION

I certify that:

a) except where due acknowledgement has been made, the work is that of the author alone;
b) the work has not been submitted previously, in whole or in part, to qualify for any other academic award;
c) the content of the thesis is the result of work which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research programme;
d) any editorial work, paid or unpaid, carried out by a third party is acknowledged;
e) ethics procedures and guidelines have been followed.

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Hammad Alshammari                     Date
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To all the above, I could not have completed the research without you. Thank you.
DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to:

My family, my wife and my beloved daughters, Assma and Sulaf,

for their constant support and unconditional love.

I love you all dearly.
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BCHEAN</td>
<td>Business College Human Ethics Advisory Network</td>
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<tr>
<td>HCC</td>
<td>Ha’il Community College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>IAE</td>
<td>Independent Academic Expatriates</td>
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<tr>
<td>KFUPM</td>
<td>King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMO</td>
<td>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNC</td>
<td>Multinational Corporations</td>
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<td>NCES</td>
<td>National Centre for Education Statistics</td>
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<td>NSOPF</td>
<td>National Study of Post-Secondary Faculty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIE</td>
<td>Self-initiated Expatriates</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical package for the social sciences</td>
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<td>UAE</td>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
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ABSTRACT

The phenomenon of expatriate employment has expanded in recent years as a consequence of increased globalisation of almost all facets of life. Apart from the conventional engagement of expatriates sent on international assignments by their employing organisations, there is a new trend of self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) who, on their own initiative, seek and secure employment in foreign countries. Regardless of which of the above categories one belongs to, the ability to perform well in the new environment will depend on the expatriates’ capacity to harmonise to the conditions prevailing in the host country. These include becoming accustomed to living, working and interacting with the host country nationals—a process described as ‘adjustment’. Given the unlimited number of possible cross-cultural obstacles that every expatriate may confront, it is in the interest of both the expatriate and the employing organisation to understand what factors influence their adjustment and how well they adjust.

This study used a quantitative survey to generate data about the socio-cultural adjustment experiences of academic expatriates teaching at colleges and universities in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The survey was based on the responses to a questionnaire by 237 SIE academics employed at two universities in Saudi Arabia. The research sought to ascertain the influence of cultural distance (a measure of the similarity/difference between the cultures of an individual’s home and that of the host country), previous expatriate work experience, the combination of cultural distance and previous work experience and a set of demographic elements (age, gender, language, religion, marital status and education level) on the adjustment to the conditions of the host country. Analysis of the collected data was also used to examine the applicability
of one of the frequently used models of expatriate socio-cultural adjustment, namely the Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) model.

The results suggest a significant negative relationship between cultural distance and the ease of socio-cultural adjustment. In a test of the combined effect of cultural distance and previous overseas work experience, the cultural distance effect was significant while the previous overseas work experience was not. Of the several demographic elements tested, only age seems to significantly influence the ability to adjust. The data of the present study were found to fit Black et al.’s (1991) model, suggesting its validity in different situations – and the application of this model is a key question in the research. Several recommendations are made based on the results, for consideration by those authorities in Saudi Arabia engaged in expatriate academic employment.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This thesis is a presentation of a research study on self-initiated expatriate (SIE) academics employed in two Saudi Arabian universities. The purpose of the study was to understand some of the issues concerned with these expatriate academics’ adjustment to the host country. A SIE academic refers to a person who has chosen to leave their homeland to live or work in another country for a lengthy period of time, rather than being sent by their company (Vance, 2005), or one who is ‘less organisationally directed and more individually directed’ (Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen & Bolino, 2012, p. 1283).

This doctoral research reviews the currently available body of knowledge on the subject, and reports the primary research carried out with the intent of generating new knowledge relating to SIE academics who work in Saudi Arabian universities. The focus of the research is on the factors influencing the expatriates’ adjustment process to the work and non-work conditions of the host country.

Once recruited, the retention of a SIE is of crucial importance from numerous perspectives, including the human resource management (HRM) perspective, and due to the associated costs to the employing institutions and individual employees. Therefore, researching this subject is important as it will help to shed light on the factors that determine the retention or termination of an expatriate appointment. Although there is some literature on this subject in relation to other countries, there is very limited research on SIE academics in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the work reported here could be considered pioneering, and has the potential to represent ‘a substantial body of knowledge in the field’ (AQF, 2013, p. 17).
The structure of this chapter is as follows. The initial sections cover the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study, and the study objectives and the key questions. A section on Saudi Arabia is also included covering demographic and other information to place the research in its context. Each chapter of the thesis will also be briefly described, and these include the literature review, methodology, results and findings, discussion and the conclusion.

1.1. Background of the Study

By increasing the utilisation of expatriates on international assignments to complete strategic tasks and achieve competitive advantages, global organisations have paved the way for greater emphasis on the importance of international operations and expatriate employees (Gregersen & Black, 1990; Selmer & Lauring, 2010). This has also led to a great deal of interest among expatriate management scholars to identify the various factors that will contribute to successful expatriation experiences from the viewpoint of organisations and the expatriates (Hechanova, Beehr & Christiansen, 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer & Luk, 2005; Takeuchi, 2010).

In today's modern global business, various organisations and enterprises continue to thrive despite different business challenges and obstacles that can be quite complex. One of the key productivity challenges facing organisations is retention (KPMG, 2012). In buoyant labour markets, people become increasingly confident to change jobs, but organisations face dual risks: a loss in terms of intellectual property to competitors and the time and money expended in hiring 'new people and having them adjust to the new
role. It’s even tougher for companies who need people in sectors where there are skill shortages’ (KPMG, 2012, p. 6).

The result of organisational successes often includes foreign expansion and an internationalisation process, which drives these organisations to employ individual expatriates to fulfil overseas vocational assignments (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison & Shaffer, 2005). This so-called ‘globalisation’ of human resources practices has indeed proven to be an inevitable outcome of modernisation within the business realm and the global search for talent. For the Manpower Group (2011) ‘the world stands on the brink of a global employability crisis’ (p. 2). For example, 40,000 employers in 39 territories and countries were surveyed by the Manpower Group (2011) and a high percentage (89 per cent) of ‘companies reported a lack of experience, technical skills deficiencies or poor soft skills among available candidates as a bar to employability’ (p. 2). In this worldwide survey, one in three employers conveyed a major problem of being unable to ‘find the talent they need to fill key vacancies within their organisation’ (Manpower Group, 2011, p. 2).

Characterised by the continuously changing roles that the human resource function plays within a globally competitive marketplace, globalisation has also influenced business organisations through the adoption of expatriation practices (Richardson, 2006). Today’s global organisations must rely on an expatriate labour force as staff need to be recruited on an international and domestic basis (Gulick, 2007). Major changes in the business processes of these organisations are driving an expansion of expatriate recruitment (Gulick, 2007; Manpower Group, 2011). Global organisations need to engage more and more employees on international assignments as their work and business operations increasingly become dynamic, complex and global (Gulick, 2007).
Global organisations today enhance and improve their employees’ capacity to perform by means of exposure to international assignments: such employees may ultimately become a potential source of competitive advantage for the organisation (Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; Carpenter, Sanders & Gregersen, 2001; Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen & Bolino, 2012). Because of the belief of various business organisations of the potential advantages and benefits that may be gained from expatriation, business enterprises and multinational corporations (MNCs) allocate huge investments for their employees to be sent for expatriation to fulfil overseas assignments (Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen & Bolino, 2012). Data released from the 1990s shows companies and enterprises paid huge amounts of costs not only on training and taking care of the needs of these employees but also on their competitive compensation packages, which amount to about $250,000 per year; this rate, at present, would have tripled already given the competitive compensation packages (Black et al., 1991; Carpenter et al., 2001; Gulick, 2007).

Studies have identified that the primary motivation of most global organisations today in sending their employees for expatriation and the fulfilment of overseas assignments is primarily profit-based as well as for the improvement of their international reputation (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Caligiuri & Tarique, 2006). These motivational drivers are indeed quite compelling for business organisations, which spend huge amounts of money to train, hone and send their employees on an overseas assignment. However, this leaves the question of whether or not these business organisations are aware of the risks involved in expatriation (Shrinivas, Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Takeuchi, 2010).

While many issues relating to expatriation have surfaced throughout the years, scholars have focused considerably on the high failure rates among expatriates, which has been
defined as a ‘premature return home’ (Black et al., 1991; Harvey & Wiese, 1998; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer & Luk, 2004; Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen & Bolino, 2012). Where high failure rates among SIEs occur, costs to organisations and individuals are significant (Black et al., 1991; Harvey & Wiese, 1998; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer & Luk, 2004; Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen & Bolino, 2012).

Numerous research studies conducted in the last decade with regard to the development, design and needs of expatriates dispatched to international employment assignments have revealed that multiple and varying factors influence the level of risks involved in expatriate failures (Lee, 2005; Takeuchi, 2010; Aryee & Stone, 1996). As previously defined, expatriate failure pertains to the ‘premature return home’ of employed expatriates, which is attributed to a variety of physical, emotional, financial and other factors that commonly influence an expatriate’s decision to return home during their international assignments. It is to be expected that expatriate employees will encounter many difficulties in shifting to a new working environment; however, in most cases, it is not the expatriation difficulties necessarily that influence them to return home and cease fulfilling their organisational duties overseas (Black et al., 1991; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Lee, 2005). Generally, issues emanating from home are the issues that motivate SIEs to resign their jobs and simply pack their bags (Black et al., 1991; Khatri et al., 2001; Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Lee, 2005; Zheng & Lamond, 2010).

Globalisation has led various educational institutions becoming increasingly involved in academic expatriation manifested through the rapid increase in the number of academic expatriates in recent decades (Richardson, 2006). Interestingly, academic expatriation is another dimension recently added to the existing expatriate management literature (Richardson, 2006). The ongoing trend in expatriation at present mainly includes not
only the traditional form of expatriation but also SIEs, who are the individuals who take ‘personal responsibility’ for their own career trajectories even without any direct organisational support (Carr, Inkson & Thorn, 2005; Richardson, 2006). The timeline of their employment abroad is less clear. Unlike their counterparts who are merely on an international assignment, they can stay for an extended period or in some circumstances opt to remain permanently (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

SIE can be regarded in the context of modern careers where individuals manage their own professional livelihood. It has been noted that women seeking to address unfair treatment in their own countries have been trying to find employment abroad in light of having difficulties finding managerial positions in their home (O’Neal et al., 2008; Tharenou, 1997, as cited by Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). The protean career concept was introduced by Hall (1996), who claimed that careers in the 21st century are ‘driven by the person, not the organisation and careers will be reinvented by the person from time to time, as the person and the environment change’ (p. 8).

Evidently, SIE is more common as a trend among academic expatriates or teachers who opt for self-expatriation to teach in higher institutions (e.g., universities/colleges) in one or more foreign countries. These individuals perceive particular benefits and advantages of SIE, which is why they actively choose to take responsibility for their careers even without the sanctity of direct support of the educational institutions for whom they may work (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010).

Work transition and the many issues involved in shifting from one career to another alongside the transfer to a completely new working environment and culture in another country build to illustrate the difficulties and challenges typically encountered by both
academic and organisational expatriates (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010). According to Howe-Walsh and Schyns (2010), there are three primary reasons why academic SIEs pursue applications for work in a new culture and country. The first reason is to pursue a different career in another country (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010). The second is for personal reasons such as following or pursuing a relationship and the third reason involves simply migrating to a specific country due to an interest or passion to explore and experience a new culture (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

By definition, SIE pertains to the act by which certain employees decide to migrate to work for another country. SIEs are, therefore, people who generally forfeit their current work positions in their home country in order to pursue their desire to migrate. The term SIE pertains to the people who may decide either to live for an extended period or to permanently migrate to another country, as opposed to the people who simply go on a ‘career break’ to spend some time abroad. The reason why they are called SIEs is because these individuals initiate their own expatriation effort despite cumbersome processes involving visas, immigration and so forth, in order to find a position in another country through their own efforts (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

This means that the time perspective for the organisational expatriates is clear in contrast with the SIEs, whose time perspective is less clear as they are the ones who carefully plan their length of stay within a country and they are the group who decide whether or not they will stay permanently within their chosen country of destination (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010). Nevertheless, despite the significant differences between the experiences of organisational expatriates and the SIEs, these expatriates’ adjustment experiences may prove to have similarities. According to Lee (2005), most expatriates, regardless of whether they are self-initiated
or organisational expatriates, experience adjustment difficulties in the area of work transition.

The common expatriate experience is that work transition presents significant changes in the way they practiced and performed their work back in their home countries and in many cases proves to be immense, inducing at times frustration and sometimes even confusion with regard to how they must change their work strategies and adapt (Aryee & Stone, 1996; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, 2005). Since the expatriates are expected to discover, know and adjust to their new work environments and the culture to which they are newly immersed into, the pressure placed upon these expatriates continuously increases (Lee, 2005). As Aryee and Stone (1996) state, the changes and adjustments associated with expatriate adjustment often proves to be a major source of stress. Clearly, stress is already considered an issue inherent in the majority of work and role transitions, especially in the case of the expatriates, as this stress is derived from the uncertainties associated with being able to successfully re-establish an expatriate’s behavioural routines within a new working environment (Aryee & Stone, 1996).

Since expatriates’ sense of control is significantly reduced, a tendency emerges where many experience difficult work transition periods, which in certain cases even result in their retention failure or their decision to simply go back to their home country (Aryee & Stone, 1996). This lack of control and the difficulties associated with adjusting to their new working environment’s culture usually causes high levels of psychological discomfort, which ultimately leads to job dissatisfaction (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison & Shaffer, 2005). Clearly, based on most cases of dealing with expatriates, there is a high correlation between work adjustments and the possibility of an expatriate staying too
long in a host country (Black et al., 1991; Aryee & Stone, 1996; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison & Shaffer, 2005).

While most expatriates will inevitably reach the point of full adjustment and mastery of their new workplace and its working processes and schemes, there will always be a significant point of comparison that will play a huge role when it comes to the individual expatriate’s perception of their existing job position in a new workplace as compared to their previous position in a workplace in their home country (Lee, 2005; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Aryee & Stone, 1996; Black et al., 1991). The concept of role novelty, which essentially describes the extent to which an expatriate’s role differs from their past role and experiences, is a critical aspect of the adjustment process of an expatriate and affect the chances of the individual staying for a longer period of time in the new job position (Aryee & Stone, 1996; Lee, 2005).

Indeed, apart from role novelty, there are many other issues related to expatriate adjustment, which include a wide range of family-related issues and gender issues. According to Howe-Walsh and Schyns (2010), family-related issues and factors may include family reunions, sickness or death of a family member, special occasions such as a graduation or wedding wherein the expatriate’s presence is required and many others. Gender-related issues may include the gender discrimination issues in the individual expatriate’s new workplace (Black et al., 1991; Aryee & Stone, 1996; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison & Shaffer, 2005; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

Given the array of factors and possible reasons why the expatriates experience a great deal of difficulty adjusting to their new working environment in the host country where they have been deployed, it is certainly not surprising to witness many cases of failures
to retain academic expatriates stemming from varied reasons that may be externally or internally induced (Selmer & Lauring, 2010).

Despite this group’s long history of mobility, Welch (1997) observes that academic expatriates remain a cohort about which very little is known. Even less is available in the literature on ‘self-selecting’, ‘self-initiated’ or ‘independent’ academic expatriates (IAEs). While there is now more academic scholarship devoted to this group, it is observable that many of the articles have been written by the same dedicated researchers with different co-authors viewing the same data through a different lens (Richardson, 2000, 2006; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Richardson & McKenna, 2000, 2002; Richardson & Zikic, 2007; Selmer & Lauring, 2010). The key issue here is that this is common practice in most academic disciplines but commentators in this field of research are thin.

Western researchers, such as Scullion and Brewster (2001) and Selmer and Lauring (2009), have pointed out that an expatriate assigned to a culture that is similar to the person’s home could experience similar or even greater difficulties as those posted to a completely different culture (Selmer & Lauring, 2009). This is because expatriates moving to a very different culture will usually be aware of what to expect and be somewhat prepared, whereas those moving to a similar culture to their own may not recognise the subtle variations that exist (Selmer & Lauring, 2009). The latter, due to the lack of awareness, may not recognise cultural clashes and experience difficulties in adjustment to the new environment. It is, therefore, important to gain more information on the adjustment process for expatriates in the host culture (Saudi Arabia).
Socio-cultural adjustment is a concept that has been often referred to in the literature of international adjustment (Ward & Kennedy, 1992). It is defined as an individual’s ability to fit in with a new cultural environment, as measured by the degree of difficulty experienced in the management of day-to-day life situations (Ward & Kennedy, 1992).

Based on the principle employed in the U-curve framework, it is asserted that the adjustment process that expatriates undergo within a host country is quite predictable (Lee, 2005). In the beginning of the adjustment phase, upon the arrival of the expatriate to the host country, most expatriates often become excited and fascinated with the new culture to which they have been newly exposed (Lee, 2005). However, after a few months, the level of excitement slowly diminishes until the reality begins to set in within the minds of the expatriates and the so-called ‘culture shock’ phase commences (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison & Shaffer, 2005). In the final stage of the adjustment process, the individual expatriate then begins to adapt to his workplace’s culture and working schemes until such time that he is able to fully adjust to his workplace (Black et al., 1991; Aryee & Stone, 1996; Lee, 2005).

A model for socio-cultural adjustment has been proposed by Black et al. (1991). According to the proposed model, in-country adjustment can be viewed as comprising three dimensions. General adjustment (refers to the psychological comfort relating to factors of the host cultural environment such as weather, living conditions and food) is one of them (Black et al., 1991). The other two dimensions are interaction adjustment, which refers to adjustment to different communication styles in the host cultures and to communication with host country nationals, and work adjustment, which refers to the psychological comfort involving different work values, expectations and standards (Black et al., 1991). This theoretical framework of socio-cultural adjustment has been
supported and validated by a number of researchers (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005) and was found to be a highly suitable research model for this study.

Despite Black et al.’s (1991) model being supported by the literature of cultural adjustment with a sufficiently large number of empirical studies to allow for two meta-analyses (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003), previous research on international cultural adjustment has focused on the adaptation of expatriates from dissonant cultures—those that vary significantly—with particular emphases on Western expatriates’ experiences when relocated from ‘low context’ to ‘high context’ environments. However, this study, in contrast, has employed Black et al.’s (1991) model to analyse SIE adaptation across similar cultural contexts. Key findings of the research may be that the model is applicable even in these circumstances and perhaps more surprisingly that these SIEs face some of the same challenges experienced by their Western expatriate counterparts.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Recently, with the demands of social and economic development, higher education in Saudi Arabia has greatly expanded significantly across all academic disciplines. There has been a boom in the number of colleges, universities and students enrolled in higher education. The system of public higher education in Saudi Arabia has expanded from eight universities in 2004 to 25 universities in 2009, which are geographically distributed in the regions (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). The education in Saudi Arabia, like the overall Saudi economy, is heavily reliant on foreign skilled workers. However, the number of Saudi teachers’ proportionately in the overall educational system has grown significantly (Ministry of Education, 2011).
In 1993, it was expected that two-thirds of the intermediate-level and secondary-school teachers, three-quarters of the elementary teachers and more than half of the vocational-school teachers would be Saudis (Rugh, 2002). For this purpose, much effort has been made to train the native people of Saudi Arabia. The educational trends of Saudi Arabia have had an enhanced prominence in the society over the last three decades since the government’s focus on science, diversification, privatisation, English training and sending students and academics abroad to receive education (Al Sadaawi, 2010).

New schools and more branches of the post-secondary institutions have been opened since the educational institutions are required to enrol a large amount of students (Rugh, 2002). Branches have been opened by all Saudi universities except for the Islamic University of Medina and the King Fahd University. Technological and scientific subjects are being stressed by all universities due to the supply and demand labour market complexities presenting problems within the Saudi economy (Al Sadaawi, 2010).

To illustrate the labour market problems, Saudi airlines and Saudi Aramco are government-owned airlines, which require a skilled workforce, and for this purpose training programmes have been initiated (Al-twaijry, Brirley & Gwilliam, 2003). Computer literacy is also an essential ability that is being taught in private centres throughout the nation (Rugh, 2010).

The medium of instruction being used in the classroom is English and the use of this language is increasing day by day (Rugh, 2010). The 21st century clearly demands the learning and use of this language in all areas of education as well as business. At first,
this language was being taught in male schools from the age of 12 and, in 2002, the Minister of Education decided to reduce the age to nine years (Rugh, 2010). An issue that is found in the Arab nations is that with the growing trend of vocational and technical schools along with regional branches and issues with enrolments, many of the students prefer to study in Saudi Arabia (Rugh, 2002).

Private institutions have gained popularity throughout the nation recently (Al Sadaawi, 2010). Before, from kindergarten to grade 12, only a few private institutions existed, which were owned by Saudi business families in the Eastern Province and Jidda (Al Sadaawi, 2010). Permission was granted by the government for these business families to open such schools provided the curriculum being followed reflected government institutions. Recently, the government has allowed the opening of private post-secondary institutions (Al Sadaawi, 2010). After this step, many private institutions were formed, including the Prince Sultan College in Riyadh for males and females, a business college for males in Jidda, the College of Tourism in Abha and Effat College and Dar al Hikma College in Jidda, both for females (Rugh, 2002). A science college in Riyadh and Taif along with a college in Baha was to be created by the year 2002 (Rugh, 2002).

This led to the growth in recruitment of expatriate academics, which occurred at the same time as new universities and colleges were established (Ministry of Education, 2010). This expansion aimed to cope with the increasing demand for higher education (Ministry of Education, 2010). This development in the higher education sector represents the need for building and developing the human resource knowledge and skills, which in turn is considered a strategic investment for the Saudi nation (Ministry of Education, 2010). As a result, there remains an urgent demand to hire, train and
attract qualified expatriate academics to work in higher education to fill this gap and fulfil the country’s developmental plans (Ministry of Education, 2010).

In this research, the concept of adjustment among SIE academics in some universities in Saudi Arabia will be discussed. The SIE academics’ adjustment in higher institutions is analysed and discussed in this research thesis, including the reasons for the trend of SIE and the motivation of these academic teachers to engage in such assignments. Specific focus and emphasis is devoted to the expatriates’ adjustment experiences, particularly the issues that academic expatriates encounter within their host country, their cultural adjustment issues and the role of cultural distance (novelty) and the other major issues they face that are mainly family- and gender-related. In addition, the previous career issues that these academic expatriates have experienced will also be discussed in detail in this research paper.

One of the major problems this research study has identified is the overwhelming focus on the concept of organisation or traditional expatriates, which pertain to the individual workers specifically selected, trained and sent by their companies to fulfil international assignments. This is in contrast to the very few and limited discussions on the case of SIEs, the individuals who opt to work in a different country either for permanent migration purposes or for a short-term career exploration (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Richardson & McKenna, 2006). There is a lack of published research on the experiences of SIEs and it is an area of modest growth in contemporary research (Carr, Inkson & Thorn, 2005; Richardson, 2006; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). As a result of the wide interest and common practice of organisational expatriates or workers who have been sent by their employing bodies to foreign assignments (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011), there is more literature that describes and discusses this type of expatriation trend in
contrast to SIEs. It remains a neglected area within the field of expatriation for many scholars and researchers (Carr, Inkson & Thorn, 2005; Richardson, 2006; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009).

The interesting issue is that SIE also has its own sub-classifications, and in relation to the context of this study, the sub-classifications are identified as either ‘academic’ or ‘non-academic’ (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). According to Selmer and Lauring (2010), there has been an increased focus on academic SIEs in the recent years as more and more teachers, professors and faculty members decide to go on a self-expatriation process in order to experience a new working environment within a different country (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010). Nevertheless, a very limited body of discussion exists on the actual experiences of SIE academics as most of the discussion of expatriation still revolves around the traditional concept or what is called the organisational type of expatriation (Al Ariss & Özbilgin, 2010).

Based on a study conducted by Selmer and Lauring (2009), the sudden growth or increase in the trend of academic SIEs was brought about primarily by the increased demand of the different universities and the various tertiary institutions actively searching for a new pool of academic talent needed globally. Given this high level of demand, more and more academics (faculty) have chosen to be employed by foreign companies and ultimately move into or migrate to the countries where they chose or may choose to continue their teaching professions or careers (Carr, Inkson & Thorn, 2005; Richardson, 2006; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Selmer & Lauring, 2009). As argued by Selmer and Lauring (2010), the academic SIEs are in a better bargaining position given the high demand for the skills and the scarcity of the people who are able
to accomplish their functions as well as offer the same sets of skills that they are capable of offering.

Despite the seemingly high rate of importance of studying the concept of SIE, particularly the case of academic SIEs, most scholars and researchers still fail to acknowledge the fast-rising trend of this increasing dimension of expatriation within the education sphere—particularly universities (Selmer & Lauring, 2009). This is seen in the limited amount of resources that explore the existence of the trend of academic SIEs and the very limited amount of discussion of the fast-rising trend of academic SIEs, which is said to be of primary importance given the ever-increasing number of teachers and faculty that are leaving their home countries to find better and perhaps more highly paid professional and career opportunities outside of their home countries (Carr, Inkson & Thorn, 2005; Richardson, 2006; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Selmer & Lauring, 2009).

Nevertheless, one-third of the expatriates who are working in Saudi Arabia leave their jobs before completing their experience (HSBC, 2012). This particular survey shows that 34 per cent of expatriates are seeking to exit the host country (HSBC, 2012). Despite the strong economic income of the expatriates and job opportunities compared to their home country, they consider quality of life and adaption to the new environment are less likely to happen (HSBC, 2012).

The problems higher education institutions face in Saudi Arabia is recruiting and retaining SIE academics. This is a twofold problem. People that move to another country for work and find that they have difficulties adjusting experience hardships and disappointment when deciding to resign their post. From an institution perspective it is very costly to recruit people given the air fares, accommodation and relocation expenses paid (and this may include spouses and children) as a part of the recruitment processes.
only to have to replicate this process when a person opts to leave their employment as the expectation was not realised.

The added problem is that there is limited academic commentary with in the literature on the problem of recruiting and retaining academics employed in Saudi Arabian universities that are underpinned by research to reduce the problems that may occur. The limitations in the previous research have been addressed by stating that there is very little research undertaken in terms of employing expatriate in any field in Saudi Arabia as outlined in section 1.1.

1.3. Significance of the Study

This section covers the practical and theoretical contributions as key aspects of the study’s significance.

The significance of this research study, as stated above, is that it focuses on a major concern, being that very few and limited amounts of resources delve into the fast-rising trend of academic SIE. Despite the ever-increasing number of SIEs in various parts of the world, discussion remains limited despite the importance of this topic (Carr, Inkson & Thorn, 2005; Richardson, 2006; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). As Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen and Bolino (2012) state, ‘interest and research in all of these global work experiences have been escalating over the past decade. Yet we are not aware of any published efforts to summarize and review this body of research’ (p. 1283). Given this significant concern, this research study intends to emphasise the fact that there is a need for researchers and scholars to increase the volume of studies on the rising trend among academics and teachers in general in relation to SIE adjustment as an aspect of
expatriate employment on a global basis and in individual countries, such as Saudi Arabia, the subject of this study.

There is also an increasing need to research the adjustment experience issues being typically encountered by SIE academics. By identifying what drove these SIE academics to explore career opportunities abroad and at the same time determining the adjustment issues and problems that these SIE academics experienced, this study is able to an extent to predict the likelihood of success or failure of trends surrounding SIE among academics. Learning and discovering the trends of expatriation is quite important given the demand to recruit competent and highly skilled professionals who choose to work abroad for better career opportunities (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010; Aryee & Stone, 1996).

This study seeks to increase research and up to date recommendations for organisations like those in Saudi Arabia who are dependent on a SIE labour force. In order to stay more competitive in attracting talented people there is an urgent call for organisations in Saudi Arabia to develop human resource policies that enable them to retain their talented employees considering the large costs associated with employee turnover (Achoul, 2009). In addition, the results of the study could be added to the body of knowledge, and human resource managers in higher education would gain a better understanding of the factors influencing more successful expatriate adjustment among those who self-initiate. This study is significant, because it may help institutions identify critical academics problems and develop best practices for academics adjustment. It may also reduce costs as replacing academic vacancies incur significant expenses. Such information can potentially improve the chances of successful adjustment and, therefore, overall workplace performance.
1.4. Study Objectives

This study has the following objectives:

- to study the relationship between non-Saudi faculty members’ adjustment and cultural distance at two Saudi Arabian universities
- to investigate the relationship between non-Saudi faculty members’ cultural adjustment and previous experience
- to investigate the effect of demographic variables on non-Saudi faculty members’ adjustment
- to study the role of cultural distance and previous experience on non-Saudi faculty members’ adjustment.

By examining these objectives, the thesis will provide insights into the relationship between cultural distance and previous work experience and SIE academics’ adjustment in Saudi Arabia. Also, it will provide data about the relationship between current managerial practices and SIE academics’ adjustment. Thus, this thesis aims to make a significant contribution to the body of literature within this field of inquiry.

1.5. Research Questions

The present study has two main questions and two sub-questions. The main questions are:

1. What is the influence of cultural distance on SIEs’ cultural, interactional, work adjustment and overall adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?
2. To what extent is Black et al.’s (1991) research model applicable to SIE academics in terms of cultural, interactional and work adjustment in Saudi Arabia?

The sub-questions are:
1. Do demographic variables (gender, language, marital status, age, religion, higher education status) present significant differences to SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia?
2. What is the influence of previous work experience on SIEs’ cultural, interactional and work adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?

1.6. Thesis Structure

This research study examines and explores SIE within the context of university academics making firm commitments to develop their careers in a foreign country. In addition, the core focus of the discussion will be centred on the adjustment experiences and issues being typically encountered by the SIE academics within the host country where they have decided to stay for a relatively long period of time for purposes of work. In part the study is prompted due to a concern that research in relation to SIE academics is generally lacking, but more so in Saudi Arabia (Bozionelos, 2009; Selmer & Lauring, 2009).

This research study will first begin with a detailed discussion of the concept of expatriation in the general context. The focus of the discussion will be on the traditional or organisational type of expatriation that is quite commonly discussed in the majority of literature concerning corporate expatriates. Alongside the discussion of the concept
of expatriation, the factors and major reasons why expatriates accept international assignments and duties will also be addressed. In addition, the adjustment issues that these ‘traditional’ expatriates commonly experience will also be presented in this section of the research.

The next section of the research will then focus on the concept of SIE. This research will delve into the various reasons why some people opt for a SIE vocational experience, including their motivations for living and working in a different country other than their home country. Case studies of people who experienced the actual SIE process will also be cited. The adjustment period of these SIEs will also be discussed in detail, including the key issues related to SIEs’ adjustment that they typically encounter as they pursue their work goals within a totally different working environment and culture.

The final section of the thesis focuses on the experiences of SIE academics based on the survey findings. The research details will examine the different reasons why some academics opt for a SIE vocational experience to work in a different country other than their own home country. Examples from other research on academics who experienced the actual SIE experience will also be cited. An added core focus will be the adjustment period that these SIE academics have experienced. The specific adjustment issues that the SIE academics have encountered within the process of pursuing their work goals in another working environment and culture will also be covered in detail.

There are four chapters following this introductory chapter. In Chapter 2, a view on the related literature and a developed theoretical foundation for the study is developed and outlined. In Chapter 3, a discussion of the methodology and research design that were used is detailed. In Chapter 4, a presentation of results and statistical analysis of the
study data is presented. In Chapter 5, a discussion of findings obtained from the statistical analysis with the related literature is undertaken. Finally, in Chapter 6, a conclusion of the study is drawn and suggestions for further research are provided.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

To an extent, the literature review is a summary of the theorists commenting on this field of inquiry. However, this goes beyond pure summarisation. ‘It focuses on a specific topic of interest’ [being research on SIEs], including ‘a critical analysis of the relationship among different works and relating this research to’ this field of research (Mongan-Rallis, 2006). This chapter is a review of literature that has reference to this study in relation to culture, to provide a commentary and background on SIE academics’ career and social challenges that relate to various factors that include, resignation and turnover of SIE academics, job satisfaction (or dissatisfaction), retention, cultural distance, expatriation and expatriation “theories.”

Basically the literature outlined in this chapter provides information on motivations, obstacles and cultural issues that relate to the potential complexities SIE academics working in a different cultural setting, being Saudi Arabia, may face there any variables that were added to Black’s study?

2.2. Academics’ Job Satisfaction

According to Thompson (2010), academics’ satisfaction can be influenced by the way schools operate in consideration of certain concerns of the faculty members, such as professional recognition, personal rewards and the support received by the teaching personnel from the institution. Faculty members want these things so they can feel positive about their work and get motivated to perform their jobs effectively (Herzog,
2010). These are just some of the more common concerns of faculty members related to their responsibilities, which are handled by schools in different ways (Herzog, 2010).

The relationship dependency between academics’ satisfaction with their jobs and retention in higher education was shown by a study conducted by Herzog (2010). Analysing data collected from the National Study of Post-Secondary Faculty (NSOPF) by the National Centre for Education Statistics (NCES) and using a Pearson’s correlation and a multiple regression analysis, Herzog found a strong positive relationship with the employment satisfaction variables and a negative relationship with the instructional satisfaction variables on retention. Herzog also reached the conclusion that intent to stay is influenced more by employment-related measures such as salary, benefits, career choice and decision-making authority that is allowed to the faculty members than instruction-related measures such as institutional support for teaching improvement, equipment and facilities, workload and technology.

Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008) claimed that there was an important need for school administrators to develop a clear understanding of satisfaction and retention, pointing out that the existence of significant relationships between pay satisfaction, organisational commitment, reduced turnover intentions of faculty members in educational institutions. The great importance of institutional support was cited by Dee (2004). A study of academics in an urban, public research university conducted by Dee and Daly (2006) also found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment influenced their intent to stay.

Administrative relations and support, professional priorities and rewards and quality of benefits and services have been identified by Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) as the three
dimensions of academics’ satisfaction. The extent of their engagement in work, their sense of regard for the institution and their personal sense of their own wellbeing are the dimensions of academics’ morale. The authors stated that the intent of faculty members to leave is determined strongly by these factors. Likewise, the feelings of faculty members, according to Johnsrud and Rosser (2002), who studied academics in the United States, determine to a large part academics’ intent to stay or leave an institution. Faculty members who feel respected, valued and supported are not inclined to leave. Their determination to stay will also be stronger with sufficient involvement in decision-making and with a positive working relationship and communication with the administration.

Johnsrud (2002) noted that improving the understanding of various aspects of academics’ working life in colleges and universities and the ability to explain the needed characteristics was a critical aspect of higher education research and related to job satisfaction (Hagedorn, 2000), teaching and research productivity (Fairweather, 2002), the role of stress in academics’ working life (Thompson & Dey, 1998), satisfaction of women and minority academics (Olsen, Maple & Stage, 1995) and pay equity (Toutkoushian & Conley, 2005). Periodicals in higher education have also covered tenure and academic freedom, equity and diversity among members of the academy and the role and effect of non-tenure academics in addition to scholarly popular interest in questions and issues associated with academics work life. The quality, performance and persistence of faculty members determine programme quality and student learning and skill development (Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005).

Most educational institutions today are concerned with retaining academics; however, full retention is not the best course of action, according to Tracy (2004), having noted
the benefits of some staff turnover. The consensus is that the school must retain the best teachers (Tracy, 2004). The school should strive for an optimal level of retention, which means that ‘fresh blood’ must be infused continually into academia, because new perspectives are introduced to the teaching-learning methods in the institution; otherwise, burnout will creep into the ranks of the academics who will grow older, and no recruitment of younger people will limit succession planning.

Companies also consider retention of key employees as one of their biggest concerns (Nankervis, Compton, Baird & Coffey, 2011). However, not much appears to have been done to study it as an important subject in HRM and entrepreneurship literature (Hayton, 2003). This view is also held by Cardon and Stevens (2004), who assert that the retention of organisational culture and intellectual capital is not given much attention by most growth-oriented companies.

The rate of employee turnover was the subject of a study undertaken on 47 high-growth small firms by Kemelgor and Meek (2008) in the United States. They found that very low annual voluntary turnover rates (0 to 2 per cent) were observed in companies that engaged in creating a positive work environment, provided employees more freedom and flexibility, offered ample employee involvement and opportunities for growth. Most of the companies were also transparent regarding compensation and benefits and constantly held dialogues with their employees and provided support to them. Conversely, higher turnover rates exceeding 10 per cent for the same period were found in firms that did less of said activities.

Several studies have determined qualities that tend to increase the levels of academics’ satisfaction. Hagedorn’s (2000) study of academics in US showed that the older, tenured,
full professors were the most satisfied faculty members, which strongly shows that among academics in higher education, overall satisfaction increases over time. Boice (2000), however, pointed out that overall older professional academics’ satisfaction is low and continues to decline.

Fuming and Jiliang (2007) cited the following as some of the best practices in universities for academics’ retention: increasing salary, improving working conditions, reducing exam stress, reducing class size, improving teaching conditions, increasing channels of promotion, increasing opportunities for professional development, improving the teacher ranking system, improving occupational opportunities, encouraging democratic decision-making and improving coaching of younger teachers.

Solem and Foote (2004) added the following as some of the best practices in academics’ retention: increasing professional development for new academics, increasing opportunities to attend conferences, improving teaching load, increasing the number of mentors for graduate students, improving the graduate teaching experience and improving support from the chairperson. Rosse and Levin (2003) encouraged administrators to provide academics with institutional identity information, including the mission, supply location, community, expectations and evaluation procedures to properly prepare them for their jobs.

Research from the industry can help administrators in higher education improve employee satisfaction. Studies undertaken by Fuming and Jiliang (2007), Huang and Hsiao (2007) and Tian and Pu (2008) revealed that the level of employee satisfaction can be improved by enhanced working conditions, the commitment by employers to employees and maintaining employment in one location. Employee satisfaction is positively influenced by improved working conditions, as shown by a study undertaken
by Huang and Hsiao (2007) on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. They had 3,037 employees participating in the survey. They found that the most important predictor of commitment was job characteristics, essentially stating that in terms of retention, job characteristics are more important than employees’ satisfaction. Further, organisational satisfaction can be improved when employees see that their employers are committed to them. In a study with 413 respondents on hotel employee satisfaction in China, Tian and Pu (2008) found improvement in employee satisfaction when turnover was reduced by the employer. Employee satisfaction also improved customer satisfaction (China, Tian & Pu, 2008).

### 2.3. Turnover of Academics—Attrition

In educational institutions, the attrition of academics—turnover—which can be voluntary or involuntary, occurs regularly. Ambrose et al. (2005) stated that institutions may benefit by the departure of academics in light of positive and necessary developments, such as getting new faculty members with fresh ideas.

Job satisfaction, work life balance and individual characteristics are the basic issues involved in the faculty member turnover rate (Roseer, 2004). If the individual academic is not satisfied with their job and faces issues in the work environment, it is expected that voluntary turnover is likely to be the outcome.

Academic turnover may be induced by any number of factors—race, gender, family responsibility, citizenship status or any other demographic issue, or a combination of these factors including academics working in a minority circumstance (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). It is observed that minority or women faculty members have a higher
turnover rate before their tenure as opposed to males (Zhou & Volkwein, 2004). They believe they will not be considered for promotion. Apart from race and gender, it has been observed that age and marital status also has a vast effect on the turnover rate (Ambrose et al., 2005). Married academics and young faculty members had high turnover rates since they had many issues while considering a job transfer.

Professional factors have been divided into two groups according to Zhou and Volkwein (2004). In the first group, there is job experience, professional training, academic rank, seniority, career by age and tenure status under the human capital measures title. The second group is productivity, which includes research productivity, community service and teaching load. Turnover intention is highly influenced by academic ranks, tenure status, as well as the job experience of the faculty member. Non-tenured academics are found to leave the job earlier. A negative relationship exists between the length of time and career age of faculty with the turnover intention.

Demographic variables—age and gender—combined within three interrelated dimensions of morale and the perceptions of the academics’ work life are responsible for the turnover rate in academics (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). Johnsrud and Rosser (2002) stated that the three dimensions are institutional and relate to sense of well-being and engagement in work. Alternatively, the perceptions that are also linked to academic turnover include administrative relations and support, quality of benefits and services, professional workload and rewards, standard of living and support services (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002).

Various experiences such as stress, workload and burnout affect faculty members in higher institutions of learning. According to Kingston-Mann and Sieber (2001), faculty
members are also vulnerable to substantial teaching loads and responsibilities, the weight and time consuming aspect of community-based research and disproportionate professional service responsibilities expectations. Such workplace stressors, according to Sanderson, Phua and Herda (2000), may affect the academics’ job satisfaction and cause staff members to consider leaving the institution or higher education entirely. Some degree of turnover cannot be avoided and, in certain cases, be beneficial; however, high rates of academics’ turnover may tarnish the image of an institution and adversely affect the quality of its instruction.

The intent of academic members to stay may be influenced by chairpersons in educational institutions. This was one of the findings of Al-Omari (2007) in a study that looked into several variables in the interactions of chairpersons and faculty members. The findings indicated that such frequent interactions directly and indirectly wield an influence of the attitudes and behaviours of faculty members towards their work and the institution.

A study was undertaken by Al-Omari, Qablan and Khasawneh (2008) to test a hypothesised model of the relationships between work environment variables, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions of faculty members. They found that autonomy, communication openness, distributive justice, role conflict and workload significantly influenced intent to stay (Al-Omari et al., 2008). The academics were also motivated to stay by job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Al-Omari et al., 2008). However, their intent to stay was weakened when they learned of the availability of other job opportunities (Al-Omari et al., 2008). Gender and academic rank were not found to have a statistically significant total effect on intent to stay (Al-Omari et al., 2008).
Ryan et al. (2009) identified certain factors as indicators for academics’ intent to leave. These include a perceived lack of support, being in a difficult discipline situation, and a perceived lack of being suited to the requirements of the institution, stress of raising a family, not having a spouse or partner and dissatisfaction with certain aspects of the teaching job. With a good understanding of academics’ intent to leave and the examination of factors that minimise or eliminate undesirable academic turnover, educational institutions invest considerable resources to recruit competent teaching personnel, provide adequate institutional support and administer an attractive compensation system (Ryan et al., 2009).

The relationship between the academics’ structural expectations and intent to resign was examined by Dee (2004) using the results of a survey conducted by the National Opinion Research Centre. He pointed out that structural expectations such as autonomy, support for innovation and collegial communication influenced retention. The results showed that faculty members were more inclined to remain in employment when their values and expectations were adequately realised (Dee, 2004). Richman et al. (2008) found that turnover was reduced and mental health, resilience, productivity, effectiveness, satisfaction and engagement were improved when flexibility in the workplace was increased.

2.4. Academics’ Retention

Employee retention is a critical issue as it has both a direct and indirect effect on organisations regardless of size, particularly on cost. One can determine the cost of turnover in such terms as operational disruption, lost productivity, as well as the cost
involved in recruiting, hiring and training new personnel, according to Mansell et al. (2006). Wright and Bonett (2007) estimated a loss of close to $250,000 upon the departure of an employee making an annual income of $90,000. The undesired departure of an employee also affects the performance of the organisation. Bassi and McMurrer (2007) asserted that management overall is increasing its understanding that the right treatment of employees is the foundation of a strong, long-lasting advantage of an enterprise against its competitors.

An enterprise can have a more competent workforce by undertaking HRM initiatives that take into account three components of employee behaviour: namely, attraction, retention and development (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Employee retention can also be improved by other factors such as good management, job satisfaction and stability in the workplace (Wright & Bonett, 2007). Employee retention should always be a matter of concern to the company as the loss of people can be equivalent to the loss of knowledge (Somaya & Williamson, 2008).

Peterson (2005) has found that employee retention is receiving a lot of attention in high-growth business organisations, most likely because people are still the most valuable asset in any organisation. Thus, any organisation can expect to achieve its goals and objectives mainly by effectively implementing appropriate employee strategies to retain the competent employees to improve organisational performance. The problem of not being able to keep competent employees is preventing many organisations from achieving desired levels of performance (Cascio, 2003; Heneman & Judge, 2003).

The identification and examination of what to do to keep competent employees is needed. One strategy is having an adequate reward system as this helps motivate the
personnel to pursue higher performance (Gomez-Mejia & Balkin, 1992). According to Heneman and Judge (2003), however, the following must be present in the rewards system:

1. Rewards must be meaningful: Organisations must provide rewards that are large and unique such that the difference could be noticeable for it to be meaningful. Any reward that is not meaningful or substantial is not likely to motivate employees and retain them in the employment of the organisation.

2. Organisations must keep to the rewards promised its employees: If employees must be motivated by rewards, the organisation itself must keep to the rewards it promised. The failure to do so will create crisis of confidence between the employees and the organisation in terms of its inability to make them believe in whatever it says in the future. Once workers realised that whatever the organisation says is different from what it actually carries out, the tendency is for them to want to look elsewhere for another employment.

3. The organisation’s reward systems must be fair and just: Once employees of an organisation recognise that the reward systems put in place by the organisation is fair and just, the tendency is for them to want to work hard to earn the rewards. If, conversely, the staff observes that the organisation’s reward systems are not fair and just, discouragement may set in and could even lead to sudden resignation of some from the employment of the organisation.

It was further argued by Heneman and Judge (2003) that the reward systems of the organisation must be matched to the preferences of the employees, because this match is what leads to job satisfaction and organisational performance, which shows that employee retention strategies and organisational performance are related. On this matter, Lather and Goyal (2003) asserted that a person with a high level of job satisfaction
holds a positive attitude towards the job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his or her job holds a negative attitude about the job. It does not mean, however, that reward systems will automatically motivate personnel to stay in their jobs as there is a need to evaluate reward systems periodically and make the necessary adjustments to keep them consistent with the desires and aspirations of the personnel balanced within the goals and productivity of an organisation (KPMG, 2012).

A study on organisational behaviour by Holtom et al. (2005) showed a relationship between dissatisfaction, labour turnover and performance in the organisation. This can mean that the departure of workers from an organisation to work elsewhere due to their dissatisfaction with the personnel policies and practice of the organisation may create a situation where competent applicants would not consider applying for employment with that organisation (Holtom et al., 2005). This will prevent that organisation from hiring experienced people and succeeding in business, because it may be forced to hire less competent people (Holtom et al., 2005).

Boyne et al. (2003) highlighted that management must keep abreast of every piece of information on performance, because this is about the only way by which they can ascertain whether their organisations are improving, deteriorating or stagnant. This will also enable them to determine what is to be done to improve the chances of the organisation to survive and grow. Institutions have better health and vitality if they focus on employee retention and satisfaction (Boyne et al., 2003).

Keeping qualified faculty members for extended periods in the higher education community can be a cause of concern because of evidence that shortages are appearing and the current academics employment model does not appear to be working effectively.
For example, Bataille and Brown (2006) noted that academics are aging and that the number of qualified academics in the future is decreasing, as shown by their findings in 2005 in the US that the percentage of academics 55 years and older exceeded 50 per cent. The factors behind this shortage are increased retirement, increased enrolment, lack of qualified academic candidates and inability to retain academics (Murray & Cunningham, 2004). Added factors may also include competition for talent in the broader industry but a big concern is worldwide competition for talented academics.

Rau-Foster and Dutka (2004) commented that it is difficult to find qualified and effective faculty members. Their statement is based on their finding that approximately 30,000 full time community college faculty members will retire in the United States by 2011. This means that replacing the vacancies will be difficult as the number of persons interested in becoming faculty members is insufficient to meet the anticipated demand. August and Waltman (2004) stated that it may be even more difficult to find qualified women candidates in the future. As a result, some institutions will need to take extreme measures to remain in operation. According to Piercy et al. (2005), some institutions may lower their standards for hiring.

A study on how to create an effective workplace was done by Jacob, Bond and Galinsky (2008). They concluded that the retention of employees increased when the following six critical factors, which are important to both the employers and the employees, are present: supervisor support, learning opportunities, autonomy, co-worker team support, workplace flexibility and involvement in decision-making. To arrive at this conclusion, Jacob et al. (2008) used data from a 2002 national survey that studied 3,504 employees using a cross-sectional phone survey.
Several compelling best practice studies related to academics’ retention in higher education have been outlined. Bataille and Brown (2006) as well as Hagedorn (2000) claimed that providing a supportive culture, establishing an effective reward system and creating specialised programmes to improve retention are some of these best practices. Examples of supportive roles that can be undertaken by administrators were being highly committed to academics, getting department chairs to give more time to academics development and instituting a transparent review and evaluation system in the US, according to Theall (1999). Examples of extrinsic rewards that can be provided to academics in colleges and universities include sabbaticals, merit pay, promotion and tenure (Bataille & Brown, 2006; Hagedorn, 2000); conversely, a few examples of intrinsic rewards include autonomy, intellectual interchange and working with students (O’Meara, 2005). Specialised programmes to improve academics’ retention may result in reducing the number of complaints among academics alongside increasing the number of tenured academics (Bataille & Brown, 2006).

2.5. Cultural Distance

The international business literature has often used cultural distance, culture novelty, culture toughness and culture barriers synonymously (Hofstede, 1980; Torbiörn, 1982; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Black et al., 1991; Dowling, Festing & Engle, 2008). Cultural distance is defined as the differences in culture between two or more different groups of people (Edmond, 2002). It is also the extent to which national culture compares and contrasts with the culture of the host (Riusala & Suutari, 2004). Cultural distance affects the performance and interaction of business partners from various national cultures as well as expatriate adjustment, technology transfer, corporate overseas expansion strategy and control in international business ventures (Briscoe &
Schuler, 2004). Thus, cultural distance can be used to determine the potential sources of friction due to differences in culture that may hinder organisations from reaching their goals or human targets. Cultural distance is also one of the determinants of the adaptation of expatriates and consequently, their performance while working in foreign countries (Bryson, 2008).

The globalisation that is witnessed in the world today means that organisations, businesses and countries have to engage in business with others of different societal value systems and consequently different cultures (Gelade, 2003). Even within countries, culture is usually not homogeneous within its boundaries and it takes different kinds of forces to create nationalism and a shared culture (Riusala & Suutari, 2004). National cultural values are created and reinforced by the government through the management of the economy, politics, education and the recommended national languages, which poses problems for organisations that do not originate in the specific country and even more for organisations that exist in various countries (Parker, 2003). Cultural distance usually has a bigger role to play in the course of international interactions in business as opposed to corporate or organisational cultures (Whitley, 2000).

Expatriates find it difficult to adjust in countries that are culturally different from their own. It becomes easier for expatriates if the culture is similar even if the country is distant from their home country (Peltokorpi, 2008). Local networks in terms of friends and business colleagues may be difficult to form and be a hindrance if the culture is different (Manev & Stevenson, 2001). Many of the locals are also not ready to understand and accommodate the cultures of the expatriates that make it more difficult for them to adjust (Manev & Stevenson, 2001). Language barriers are often a factor that limits the interpersonal interactions between the two parties. Power distance, an issue
found usually in the less-developed nations, is also a hindrance for these expatriates. In Saudi Arabia, expatriates have been reluctant to mingle with the locals due to vast cultural differences; however, expatriates in other nations were found to be more comfortable (Feldman & Thomas, 1992).

It is difficult for a person to adjust in a nation with a different culture rather than one with a similar cultural setting (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011; Peltokorpi, 2008; Redmond, 2000; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). For example, a study was conducted on 169 expatriates in 12 different countries and they clearly stated that adjustment and interaction both suffered due to the cultural distances present in the country (Parker & McEvoy, 1993). It has been observed by Redmond (2000) in a classical study that the cultural difference is the actual intervening factor inhibiting intercultural communication ability and increases stress levels among expatriates. A paper-pencil survey was conducted in Japan covering 110 expatriates (Peltokorpi, 2008). The research outcome concluded that positive influence on cross-cultural adjustment (Peltokorpi, 2008). Another survey of 148 expatriates stated that in Japan there exists cultural distance and job satisfaction is highly affected by cross-cultural adjustment (Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011). Rosser (2004) addressed that hiring new academic staff is costly but if the turnover is high it can become very costly. Costs are also increased when teaching is disrupted, student mentoring is partly abandoned, and money is devoted to advertising again and undergoing the careful selection processes and procedures (Rosser, 2004).

However, other studies found that cultural similarity could be as difficult to adjust to as cultural dissimilarity (Jun & Gentry, 2005; Selmer, 2007; Selmer & Lauring, 2009). Investigating expatriate academics in Nordic countries and the Netherlands, Selmer and Lauring (2009) found that a similar culture could be as difficult to adjust to as a
dissimilar cultural. In another study, a comparison of American business expatriates in Canada (similar culture) and Germany (dissimilar culture) did not reveal any difference in their extent of adjustment (Selmer, 2007). Jun and Gentry (2005) conducted a study on the role of cultural similarity and personal fit in expatriates’ performance in Korea and found no effect of cultural similarity in expatriate adaptation.

2.5.1. Organisational Culture in International Human Resource Management

Organisational culture with regards to HRM has been investigated by experts from disciplines such as sociology, organisational psychology and management among others. From an organisational perspective, culture is the commonly held and constant beliefs, attitudes and values that are found among employees in an organisation (Sun, 2008).

Culture is a factor that affects every aspect in the practice of HRM such as selection, recruitment, feedback, evaluation, coaching and exit interviews. Thus, the national culture of a country and the organisational culture within a company influence their HRM practices and, therefore, most HRM practices are culture-bound (Martins & Terblanche, 2003).

It is generally accepted that culture affects the management practices of any organisation that is found in that country and as such, HRM cannot be divorced from culture (Evans, Pucik & Barsoux, 2002). It is believed that every culture in the world and in organisations today has developed its own insights as far as HRM is concerned through their own unique experiences in the course of history (Grieves, 2000).
The origin of culture in an organisation is often the founder influenced by his or her philosophies (Sun, 2008). Such cultural influences are developed and affect the human resources department and are a major factor influencing the hiring criteria in relation to new employees (Sun, 2008). The leadership and the management, including the HRM of the organisation, may reinforce this culture or they may not; this is determined by how they choose to socialise new employees in the organisation (Sun, 2008).

Culture in the practice of HRM has become a critical skill for organisations in the face of international integration of businesses in the world today. Analytic frameworks and broad thematic interpretations is part of the body of knowledge that is geared towards understanding of human resource issues globally. Culture in the course of international human resources is known to be affected by management, strategies, business, geographical location and employees (Dowling et al., 2008).

The practice of HRM in Saudi Arabia is similar to those in developing countries (Debrah & Budhwar, 2004). The Saudi system is governed by an Islamic monarchy, where Islam forms all the aspects of the political, cultural, economic and social fabric of the society (Mellahi, 2007). Therefore, the legal system of Saudi Arabia is derived from the Holy Qur’an rather than any secular constitution. In the area of HRM, there are five model attributes that affect the policies and practices in the country according to two prominent theorists in this field. They are: the structure of economy, the political environment, the structure of labour market, national human resource development strategy and national culture (Debrah & Budhwar, 2004).
2.6. Saudi Arabia—Background Context

Saudi Arabia, also known as the kingdom of Saudi Arabia or المملكة العربية السعودية al-Mamlakah al-’Arabiyah as-Su’udiyah in Arabic, is the biggest country in Western Asia and the second largest country in the Arabian peninsula by virtue of its surface area, 2,149,690 km² (Lacey, 2009). The kingdom of Saudi Arabia is bordered by Jordan to the north, Iraq to the north-east, Kuwait, Qatar and the UAE on the east, Oman to the south-east, Yemen to the south and the Red Sea to the west (Lacey, 2009).

The country is divided into 13 administrative divisions that are known as provinces or manatiq idāriyya (singular mintaqah idariyya), which are: Al Bahah (or Baha), whose capital is Al Bahah city; Northern Border, whose capital is Arar; Al Jawf (or Jouf), whose capital is Sakaka city; Al Madinah, whose capital is Medina; Al Qasim, whose capital is Buraidah; Ha’il’s capital Ha’il City; Asir’s capital Abha; Eastern Province’s capital Dammam; Al Riyadh’s capital Riyadh city; Tabuk, whose capital is Tabuk city; Najran, whose capital is Najran city; Makkah, whose capital is Mecca, and Jizan, whose capital city is Jizan city (Bin Laden, 2005).
Figure 2.1. Map of Saudi Arabia showing the administrative divisions and neighbouring countries. Source: Lacey (2009)

2.6.1. Population and Demographics

The population of Saudi Arabia according to the census results of April 2010 was 27,136,977 people (Ministry of Planning and Economy, 2012). Among these, more than 18,000,000 were nationals of Saudi Arabia, whereas the rest were non-nationals, including illegal immigrants and expatriates (Turchin, 2007). However, the country is considered sparsely populated. The majority of the population were nomadic until the 1960s, but today it is estimated that 85 per cent of the population is urbanised and now settled (Birdseye & Hill, 1995). The proportion of people that are aged between zero and 14 years in the country is 29.4 per cent, whereas the population of people aged 65 years and above is slightly over 3 per cent (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007). Most of the inhabitants
of the country are considered of working age, being 15 to 64 years old, and comprise 67.6 per cent of the population, which is an economic advantage to Saudi Arabia (Anwar, 2003). At birth, the sex ratio is 1.05 males/females; at below 15 years of age, 1.04 males/females; at 65 years and above, 1.03 males/females, and that of the population in general is 1.17 males/females (Al-Rajhi, Altman, Metcalfe & Roussel, 2006).

The country’s population growth rate is high at 1.536; 2.35 children is the average fertility rate in the country (Shoult, 2006). The death rate in the country is 3.33 deaths for every 1,000 people, whereas the birth rate is 19.34 births for every 1,000 people (Jones, 2007). For infants, there are 16.73 deaths for every 1,000 live births, 19.19 male children deaths in every 1,000 live births and 14.14 female children deaths for every 1,000 live births (Fouad, 2004). The life expectancy at birth is 73.87 years on average; the male life expectancy at birth is 75.9 years and that of females is 71.93 years. The net migration rate in the country is 0.64 immigrants for every 1,000 people in the population (Lippman, 2004).

Figure 2.2. Population pyramid of Saudi Arabia in 2010. Source: Turchin (2007)
There are no figures that are available concerning the population in relation to religious practice in Saudi Arabia as the government does not carry out the study in the course of census but it is estimated that majority of the Muslim population (about 85 per cent-90 per cent) are Sunni Muslims whereas Shiites are 10 per cent to 15 per cent of the Muslim population (Doherty, Klenert & Manfredi, 2007).

Figure 2.3. Estimated population of Saudi Arabia in 2025. Source: Turchin (2007)

2.6.2. Saudi Culture and Society

This section provides basic details of Saudi Arabian cultural aspects that an SIE would experience when moving to a vocational trip in Saudi Arabia. The word ‘culture’ has over 150 definitions in the world today depending on the context within which the word is being used (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007). The three most common uses of the word ‘culture’ are usually in reference to: excellence of taste in fine arts and humanities
among others, which is also known as high culture; an integrated pattern of human knowledge, belief and behaviour that depends upon the capacity for symbolic thought and social learning; and a set of shared attitudes, values, goals and practices that characterises an institution, organisation or group (Etta, Asira & Offiongan, 2011). In this case, the word culture will be used to refer to the integrated pattern of knowledge, belief and behaviour arising from symbolic thought and learning with reference to the people that live in Saudi Arabia, and to the set of attitudes, goals, values and practices that are found in the institutions and organisations in Saudi Arabia (Shoult, 2006).

The word culture will also be used to refer to organisational culture that is the shared assumptions that individuals in the same situation gain, develop or create in a bid to endure problems of external adaptation and internal integration (Jones, 2007). In this case, this type of culture will be the culture that is prevalent among the employees of Saudi organisations, both expatriates and citizens in the country (Doherty et al., 2007). National culture refers to the set of shared values, beliefs and assumptions that are learned in early childhood and that enable differentiation of people in different societies, whereas cultural value dimensions refers to the empirically determined criteria through which national cultures differ (Schuler & Rogovsky, 1998). These are: power distance, uncertainty avoidance and individualism/collectivism and masculinity/femininity, according to Hofstede (1980).

The main language that is used in Saudi Arabia is Arabic and it is the official language (Looney, 2003). There are three variants of the language that are spoken in the country: Hejazi Arabic, Nejdi Arabic and Gulf Arabic. The large populations of immigrants entering the country largely speak their own languages (Pudelko, 2006). Asian and Arabic expatriates widely use Tagalong, Urdu and Egyptian Arabic, whereas Western
nationals mainly use English, but other SIEs such as German, French and Italian people commonly use their native languages (Woodall, 2005). It is important to note that Arabic is the medium of instruction in the course of religious lessons, partly because the language has changed very little in centuries. However, there is a difference between the Arabic that is spoken in urban areas and the Arabic that is spoken in rural areas (Thompson & Keating, 2004).

The main religion of the kingdom of Saudi Arabia is Islam and it is practiced by most Saudis, except the very few if any who may subscribe to faiths such as Hinduism and Christianity (Riusala & Suutari, 2004). However, the US State Department claimed in 2010 that freedom of religion is not recognised nor respected by the authorities in Saudi Arabia. In spite of the existence of about a million adherents of faiths other than Islam, who are mostly expatriates, no other faith may be practiced in the country and places of worship other than mosques may not be erected (Bryson, 2008). All people in Saudi Arabia are expected to observe the holy holidays of Islam but are not permitted to observe their own religious festivals (Bryson, 2008). Apostasy and proselytising are crimes under Islamic law (Parker, 2003). Islam is the basis of all aspects of the lives of the people of Saudi Arabia, such as personal issues, politics, governance, economics and law among others (Bryson, 2008). Mecca, Saudi Arabia, is the birthplace of Islam and is the destination for Islam pilgrims all over the world (Sledge, Miles & Coppage, 2008).

Muslims are obliged to pray five times a day and to fast regularly. The timetable for prayers for each day is usually published in local newspapers (Saleh & Kleiner, 2005). Ramadan is strictly observed in the country with fasting, which culminates into the holiday of Eid Ul Fitr. Many businesses are affected by this strict observance of prayer
times. For example, most businesses are closed or operate at irregular hours during Ramadan and their weekends are Thursdays and Fridays (Shoult, 2006).

The family and the tribe are viewed as the basic units of the society and are, therefore, treasured. Saudi families are large but they have very close relationships with one another; responsibility for family is taken very seriously in the country. People derive assistance from families and already established social networks and, therefore, nepotism is viewed very favourably in the country (Khatri & Budhwar, 2002).

Men greet women as well as one another by shaking hands, whereas women hug and kiss close women friends (Lippman, 2004). Men and women that are not related do not greet each other in public and whenever Saudis greet one another, they spend some time engaging in small talk. As far as gifts are concerned, Saudis are not particular about receiving gifts from others. However, men do not receive flowers and are not encouraged to give flowers as gifts, but women may give or receive flowers to and from other women. Alcohol is not allowed in the dominant Muslim religion and should, therefore, not be offered as a gift, and gifts are not opened when received; they are opened and viewed much later (Fouad, 2004).

Saudis, aside from work, will only associate with expatriates in hotels and restaurants until they know them well enough to invite them to their homes. While in hotels, women are encouraged to only entertain women while men entertain men only; where an event comprises both men and women, members of each gender are assigned to two separate rooms (Hyunho, 1991). When an expatriate is invited to a Saudi home, it is better to remove shoes, dress conservatively, arrive on time, accept the prized pieces of the meal and talk very little in the course of the meal (Anwar, 2003).
As far as business etiquette and protocol are concerned, it is important to observe the unspoken rules of relationships and communication, business meeting etiquette, business negotiation and dress etiquette (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007). A Saudi sponsor is necessary upon entrance into the country to facilitate easy movement of the expatriate. In the course of conversation, Saudis are known to stand very close to the expatriate as personal space is not valued as much as in Western societies. In addition, Saudis prefer to associate with honest and truthful people and, therefore, they may seem intrusive in this quest (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2007). The Saudis are offended by immodest dressing and so it is advisable for expatriates to dress conservatively (Hyunho, 1991).

Decisions in business settings are made slowly and the society is so bureaucratic it sometimes takes several layers for approval and several visits to accomplish a task (Shoult, 2006). The citizens of Saudi Arabia are tough negotiators and due to the hierarchy in organisations, decisions are made by the highest ranking officials but are easily overturned (Whitley, 2000).

Studies have been carried out in Saudi Arabia in relation to culture and organisations. A prominent study by Bjorn and Abdulrahim (1993) focused on culture and management in Saudi Arabia. The culture of Saudi Arabia was analysed with reference to Hofstede’s (1980) four dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and masculinity. The participants in this study were master of business administration (MBA) students in Saudi Arabia as well as their co-workers. The purpose of this study was to discuss the Saudi culture with reference to effective management behaviour, intuition and organisational structures. The application of American management
theories in Saudi Arabia was assessed as well. This study established that despite Saudi Arabia being a ‘typical’ Muslim country, it scores very high on power distance.

Saudi Arabia is a land of contrasts as far as the lifestyles of the society are concerned. The country has modernised intensely in the last decade and this is attested to by the state of the art infrastructure, health and educational facilities; the country is one of the few in the world that is able to offer medical and educational services free of charge to its citizens (Turchin, 2007). In addition, the economy of the country is considered buoyant, enabling foreign businesses as well as individual citizens to prosper and manage to acquire and utilise their wealth in the country (Al-Rajhi, Al Salamah, Malik & Wilson, 2012; Khatri & Budhwar, 2002).

However, as all this was unfolding in the 1990s, the largely Muslim country found itself in a dilemma that was brought by the new-found economic prosperity and stability (Looney, 2003). This dilemma centred on how the country would preserve its cultural and moral values while at the same time experiencing their new-found wealth (Looney, 2003). The country was interested both in maintaining the traditional cultural practices as well as the wealth and technology that were and are still viewed as ‘Western’ attributes (Pudelko, 2006).

There are various ways in which the culture of Saudi Arabia differs sharply with the culture of the Western countries especially (Al-Rajhi, Al Salamah, Malik & Wilson, 2012). Foreigners in Saudi Arabia often find that the laws and regulations in the country are markedly different from the laws of Western countries (Dowling et al., 1994). Laws are derived from the Qur’an, the holy book in Islam, and the resultant system is known as sharia (Early, 1987). The kingdom is exclusively Islamic and Islam governs every
aspect of the lives of the citizens. In addition, practice of other religions in public is disallowed. Non-Muslims are expected to observe Muslim festivals such as Ramadan, including fasting. The Saudi Arabians follow the lunar calendar of 12 months, which is short of 10 or 11 days in comparison to the Gregorian calendar that is used in most countries (Lacey, 2009).

2.6.3. Saudi Higher Education

When Saudi Arabia became a nation in 1932, education was only available in a few Islamic schools but today education is available at all levels at no cost to the citizens (Simmons, 2005). The Supreme Committee for Educational Policy, established in 1963, is responsible for other aspects that oversee the education in the country, such as the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Higher Education, the general organisation for technical education and vocational training, as well as the Ministry of Defence and Aviation, Presidency of the National Guard and the Ministry of Labour (TURCHIN, 2007).

Higher education in Saudi Arabia is now widely available and responsible for training professionals such as doctors, engineers and pharmacists. Humanities and social sciences are also offered by the institutions of higher learning (Madawi, 2002). The duration of higher education in humanities and social sciences is between four and five years, whereas the duration of higher education in medicine, engineering and pharmacy among others is six years (Whitley, 2000).

The King Saud University, established in 1957 in Riyadh, was the first university in the country as well as in the Arabian Peninsula that sought to meet the shortage of skilled
workers in the country and was, therefore, not limited to religious studies (Briscoe & Schuler, 2004). In Saudi Arabia, higher education has been receiving special attention from the national government. Established in 1975, the Ministry of Higher Education provides support for the universities and colleges in the country. It is responsible for policy-making and planning for higher education, supervising and monitoring the private and the governmental universities. Sixty articles were presented in the Royal Decree No. M/8 of 1993 issued by the Higher Education and Universities Regulations. These articles contained all the required information regarding the postgraduate and undergraduate university education systems. The basic requirement of the universities was to establish a cultural and scientific education system that abides by all Islamic injunctions (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007). Scientific research, social services, publications, translations along with the university and postgraduate education is essential within these universities (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007).

The Royal Decree states that universities and other higher education institutions shall have a council to be cited as the Higher Education Council (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007). Each university shall have a council to be named the University Council. The Minister of Higher Education should lead the council of each university. He is responsible for controlling the implementation of the state educational policy in the field of higher education, the control and the implementation of this law and the related regulations in the current available universities and those to be established later on. All universities subjected to this law shall be attached to the Minister of Higher Education and come under the minister’s supervision.

The university policy implementation, financial and administrative affairs of the university along with budget and future plans are all the responsibility of the Ministry of
Higher Education or the University Council (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007). Research study and publications are managed by the scientific council present in each university (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007). Councils are required to implement and control all policies and regulations present in the institution, along with making new proposals and managing the budgets (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007).

However, the numbers of professionals that graduate from the institutions of higher learning are less than what the country requires in its hungry labour market (Anwar, 2003). Engineering graduates are less than a fifth of the required numbers and the country is in need of 60,000 pharmacists, yet the universities only provide 100 graduates every year (Shoult, 2006). The rest of the vacancies such as science and technology, health, agriculture, engineering, biotechnology, nanotechnology and information technology are largely taken up by expatriates (Lippman, 2004).

The system of higher education in Saudi Arabia has expanded from eight universities in 2004 to 25 universities in 2009, which are geographically distributed in the regions (Al-Ohaly, 2009). This expansion, which was originally sought by King Abdullah’s vision towards developing higher education, aims to address the increasing demand for higher education. This development in the higher education sector represents the need for building and developing the human resource knowledge and skills, which in turn is considered a strategic investment for the Saudi nation (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010).

More than 70 per cent of the students in Saudi Arabian institutions of higher learning are pursuing studies in the fields of humanities and social sciences (Pudelko, 2006). In 2005, King Abdullah endorsed a policy to send Saudi citizens to Western universities to
pursue undergraduate and postgraduate programmes on government scholarships (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). The students were sent to Canada, the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, Switzerland, France and Germany.

In 2004, an ambitious effort to expand and reform higher education in Saudi Arabia was initiated. As a strategic move, the budget of the Ministry of Higher Education was nearly tripled to $15 billion, much of which was spent on opening more than 100 new colleges and universities to meet the demand of the country’s economic and social development and the rapid growth of the number of students, researchers and faculty members, as shown in Table 1.1 below. In addition, the Ministry of Higher Education has lifted a decades-old ban on private institutions, offering free land and more than $10 million towards scholarships and building costs for these colleges and universities.

Table 2.1

Rapid Growth and Expansion of Higher Education Institutions in Saudi Arabia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Numbers by year</th>
<th>Percentage increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public universities</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public colleges</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University hospitals</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private universities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private colleges</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All newly enrolled students in post-</td>
<td>136,723</td>
<td>214,572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secondary education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Higher Education (2010), annual report for the year 2009/2010
Table 1.1 shows the rapid growth of higher education in Saudi Arabia between 2002 and 2006. As the above table illustrates, all infrastructural development has doubled and some even tripled in a very short time period to absorb the increasing number of students and to accelerate the cycle of social, educational and economic development.

As a further element and as the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques, King Abdullah, the King of Saudi Arabia, has provided the enormous sum of $10 billion of his own money to establish a graduate-level science and technology university, instantly making it the sixth-wealthiest university in the world (Krieger, 2008). The King has put the project of this new King Abdullah University of Science and Technology under the direction of Dr Ali Al-Naimi, the Saudi Minister for Petroleum and Mineral Resources. With the King as patron and his large endowment and an independent board of trustees, the university has an unprecedented level of independence, but with much work and expectation lying ahead. The university opened in September 2009 and organises its research around interdisciplinary centres rather than the single-discipline departments of most universities, a luxury enabled by the absence of undergraduates. The first centres focus on subjects like biosciences, materials science and engineering, energy and the environment and applied mathematics and computational science.

Recently, with the demand of social and economic development, higher education in Saudi Arabia has greatly expanded to cover all areas of Saudi Arabia. It has achieved a rapid boom in the number of colleges, universities and students enrolled in higher education. In these higher education institutions, males and females are taught separately. The number of female students in higher education exceeds the number of males (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). In the academic year of 2008 to 2009, for instance, the number of females reached 410,595 students, whereas males were only
256,067, as shown in Table 1.2. However, as they advance in their postgraduate studies, the number of males exceeds the number of females (Ministry of Education, 2011). In post-bachelor’s degree studies, the male/female ratio was double: two males per female (Ministry of Education, 2011). This may be because the social norm and complex in Saudi Arabia values and encourages females, in particular, to get married and give full commitment to starting a stable family—a family within which, incidentally, females enjoy a pre-eminent role (Pudelko, 2006).

Table 2.2

*Number of Male and Female Students at Various Levels of Higher Education in the 2009 Academic Year*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of study</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before bachelor</td>
<td>29,974</td>
<td>37,502</td>
<td>67,476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>220,887</td>
<td>366,508</td>
<td>587,395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>2,962</td>
<td>1,094</td>
<td>4,056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>5,589</td>
<td>4,442</td>
<td>10,031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>1,965</td>
<td>1,049</td>
<td>3,014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>256,067</td>
<td>410,594</td>
<td>666,661</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Higher Education (2010), annual report for the year 2009/2010

As the above table clearly shows, the number of females at the bachelor’s degree level exceeded the number of males. Yet, the number of males seeking postgraduate studies noticeably exceeded the number of females.

In Saudi Arabian higher education, as Saudi Arabia is a place economically attractive to foreigners, the number of non-Saudi citizens, mostly from other Arabic-speaking
countries, working as faculty members in higher education have increased since 2004 (Al-Ohaly, 2009). In various higher education institutions, the shortage of Saudi citizens as staff and faculty members is huge, especially among females, as shown in Table 1.3. Moreover, the ratio of academics to students has been estimated as 1:20, which is a large ratio compared to that of developed international higher education systems, particularly in the health and science fields (Al Ankary, 1998). As a result, there is an urgent demand to hire, train and attract qualified staff to work in higher education to fill this gap and fulfil the country’s developmental plans.

Table 2.3

Number of Saudi and Non-Saudi Faculty Members at Saudi Arabian Higher Education Institutions in 2003 to 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic rank</th>
<th>Saudi</th>
<th>Non-Saudi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate professor</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant professor</td>
<td>2,109</td>
<td>583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>1,106</td>
<td>1,049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>1,771</td>
<td>1,514</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministry of Higher Education (2010), annual report for the year 2009/2010

A significant trend in the rapid development of higher education in Saudi Arabia was the establishment of University of Ha’il and Al Jouf University as the first institutions in the northern region, which were created by Royal Decree on 7 June 2005 and were seen as a part of the King’s vision. In 2006, the Royal Decree considered the establishment of the University of Tabuk, which enhanced the educational capacity in the area. As the King’s strategic vision sees the investment of people as one of the
priority objectives, the Northern Borders University was established in 2007 (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). The educational institutions have lifted student enrolments by providing various choices of disciplines in comparison with the number of students prior to 2005. In 1998, Ha’il Community College (HCC) was developed by the University of Ha’il. This college was sponsored by the King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (KFUPM) and offered a three-year degree programme in electronics engineering and instrumentation, computer systems and business administration. After a few years, bachelor’s degree programmes were being offered for three years in the fields of management information systems, applied electrical engineering and computer science (University of Ha’il, 2010). In 2010/2011, it was found that over 25,000 students were enrolled in the seven colleges.

In addition, Saudi Arabia seeks to move from an oil-based economy to a knowledge-based economy, having identified the need for qualified researchers in all aspects of the economy, technology and science (Looney, 2003). It is for these two reasons that the government has unveiled a research initiative dubbed ‘Aafaq’ or Horizons that will be conducted for 25 years (Whitley, 2000). Its purpose is to increase the educational opportunities available to women, boost scientific research and resolve the lack of science professionals in the country (Saleh & Kleiner, 2005). The initiative will be based in the KFUPM and will undertake research on admission and capacities of the local universities, job markets, cost and financing, infrastructure, management and organisation, education, graduate education and community services among others (Saleh & Kleiner, 2005).

The growing number of faculties is part of the growth of Saudi universities, which is linked to the investment of higher education resources in the country by putting an
amount of $4 billion in 2009 as the budget for 25 universities (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010). The strategic investment of higher education in Saudi Arabia requires a sustainable environment. Hiring expatriates to work in higher education is essential to meet the high demand of the expansion of tertiary education. As a result of the growing number of expatriates, foreign staff have become an asset and an advantage to higher education success in Saudi Arabia. The country’s welfare and development in this globalised world is largely dependent on academic SIEs.

There are no departments that are exclusively reserved for expatriates in Saudi Arabia and, consequently, no special expatriate faculties in the universities in the kingdom. However, employment for individuals that are not citizens of the country is different from that of the country’s citizens with regards to the duration of employment, payment, hiring and firing procedures (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007). These procedures are determined by the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Higher Education Council General Secretariat. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Higher Education Council General Secretariat Regulations for Non-Saudi Recruitment in Universities Issued by the Higher Education Council, Resolution No. (3/4/1417 H), is the most recent document that guides the recruitment of foreigners in Saudi Arabia’s universities and is composed of several key articles (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007).

Article 1 of the document defines expatriate, residence, year, month and personal contact. Article 2 of the same document outlines the kinds of employees that are affected by the regulation, whereas article 3 simply states that individual universities have the freedom to expand articles 1 and 2. Article 4 defines the conditions that must be present before a foreigner is employed in a Saudi institute of higher learning, whereas article 5 defines the conditions that an expatriate must satisfy before securing
employment in a Saudi institution of higher learning. Articles 6 and 7 define the time and duration of the contract, as full-time employment is not offered to foreigners in the country’s institutions of higher learning, just to mention a few. The document contains over 55 articles (Ministry of Higher Education, 2007).

### 2.7. Expatriation

As stated previously, expatriates are a significant part of many higher institutions in the Middle East and the UAE, as a neighbouring country, has become particularly reliant upon foreign academics (Schoepp, 2010). For this reason, the motivation to remain or leave an institution can be influenced by such factors as the pull of family back home (Richardson & McKenna, 2006) or the opportunities of spousal employment and adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Richardson, 2006). Schoepp (2010) stated that opportunities to enjoy life in other countries have developed and expatriate scholars have benefited by global employment wherever their skills can be used. However, the majority of the UAE’s population consists of expatriates and in public education all academics in 2010 comprised expatriates (Schoepp, 2010).

Expatriation is one way people move across national borders but it is a phenomenon that is becoming bigger and affecting the global economy (Richardson & McKenna, 2006). An expatriate is a person who stays in another country to earn a living and does not intend to remain there (Holopainen & Bjorkman, 2005). They do not seek complete assimilation with the host culture, because their stay is temporary (Richardson & McKenna, 2006). Expatriates are seen as part of the host society but remain separate from it in many ways. In developing nations, Richardson and McKenna (2006) stated
that Western expatriates enjoy distinct privileges as they play a big part in economics, education and administration of the host nation.

The considerable increase of business globalisation has led to the focus on managing international operations as well as expatriate employees (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). Due to this, an increasing number of studies have focused on expatriate literature over the past decade (Hechanova et al., 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Takeuchi, 2010). Thus, the overwhelming majority of the studies have focused mainly on organisational expatriation, which refers to employees assigned by their parent companies to a host country (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). However, a paper by Inkson, Arthur, Pringle and Barry (1997) developed a new understanding of the subject when they distinguished the expatriate assignment from the overseas experience. In their research, Inkson et al. (1997) identified four ways by which the two types of expatriation can be classified as initiative, goals, funding and career type. In the case of initiation, overseas experience is personally motivated, while an expatriate assignment is driven by the employer. Regarding goals orientation, expatriate assignment goals are often limited and oriented for a project, whereas overseas experience objectives are more likely to be concerned with personal development. Companies and organisations usually fund the overseas assignments while personal savings is the source of overseas experience for SIEs (Inkson et al., 1997). For career enhancement, expatriate assignments are often driven by organisations with an intention to develop their staff skill development as opposed to SIEs who are also looking for development of vocational and personal skill but within a boundary-less career structure (Inkson et al., 1997). SIEs will not return to the major organisation like their counterparts who are employed with a company and moved to different parts of the world (Inkson et al., 1997).
2.7.1. Self-initiated Expatriates

SIE refers to someone who chose to leave their homeland to live or work in another country, usually for a long period (Vance, 2005). According to Peltokorpi and Froese (2009), recent findings suggested that better adjustment to life in a host country is experienced by SIEs than those assigned by their employers. For example, Suutari and Brewster (2000) found in their research involving 400 Finnish engineers on overseas assignments that the SIEs were keenly interested in internationalism and many wanted to escape from the poor employment situation in their home countries. Their study suggested that the percentage count (33 per cent) of expatriates deciding to work abroad was much larger than had previously been thought. This means that the increasing number of SIEs was fostered by the global economy, and that individual self-interest in personal career development is a primary reason why individuals accept a foreign assignment (Vance, 2005).

Selmer and Lauring (2010) examined the inherent demographics of 428 SIE academics from 60 countries who were employed in 35 universities in five northern European countries. The researchers found that half of the respondents who opted for expatriation expressed varied reasons for doing so to those expressed by older persons and women (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). Dickmann, Doherty, Mills and Brewster (2008) also saw career development as a major factor in the decision of expatriates to accept an overseas work contract.

The growing number of SIEs is one of the opportunities taken by global organisations seeking to fill international positions and to enlarge candidate application at a lower expense compared with traditional expatriation (Selmer & Lauring, 2010). However,
there is a shortage in the empirical literature on how SIEs adjust themselves in the new host environment as well as HRM issues facing organisations (Inkson et al., 1997; Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Jokinen, Brewster & Suutari, 2008). A need for increased research in this area is needed to expand the current investigations and extend its scope (Hu & Xia, 2010; Selmer & Lauring, 2010).

As far as expatriation on the basis of initiative is concerned, various studies have attempted to compare self-expatriation versus company-expatriation using an array of research methods. Certainly, there are huge differences between these two types of expatriation. For one, organisational expatriates involve employees who are sent to be based on overseas assignments, with their jobs arranged for them by their own companies prior to leaving their home organisation, thus representing a ‘softer landing’. This is in contrast to the SIEs, who initiate their international assignments, selecting which country to go to and the specific language and cultural training they want to undergo (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

Another huge difference between the organisational expatriates and the SIEs is the compensation packages and benefits that they may acquire from the companies they serve (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010). The typical case among the organisational expatriates is that their compensation packages are fixed by the company that sent them back to their home countries, while the compensation packages received by the SIEs result mostly from their own negotiations with their own employers (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010). Even the duration of expatriation between the organisational expatriates and the SIEs differ significantly (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010). For example, in the case of organisational expatriates, it is quite common for their time to be
restricted within a period of three to five years depending on the contract they signed with their employers (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010). Conversely, the SIEs choose their own time restrictions depending on how long they intend to stay in the country as well as the period indicated in the contract they signed with their international employers (Lee, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

In their seminal article on self-selecting expatriate academics, which appears to be one of the first qualitative studies in this field, Richardson and McKenna (2002a) studied the motivations and experiences of 30 British academic expatriates in universities in New Zealand, Singapore, Turkey and the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The findings of this study continue to be the main source of information and scholarship on IAEs. Even Selmer and Lauring’s (2010) recent study on the relationship between age and gender and reasons for expatriation was predicated on conceptualisations and findings from Richardson and McKenna’s (2002b) study.

A study by Biemann and Andresen (2010) sought to establish if SIEs and assigned expatriates are essentially in the ‘same career’, meaning same occupation such as nurse, engineer, teacher, academic, chemist and so forth, by analysing the differences between the two groups of foreign employees (SIEs and traditional expatriate) in executive and managerial positions. The main focus of this study was whether the two groups had the same reasons for working abroad in terms of career aspiration, orientation and the differences in their career management. This study involved 159 respondents that completed online questionnaires that were administered in German and consisted of questions referring to psychological constructs and the participating managers’ career histories (Biemann & Andresen, 2010). This study showed that SIEs began their careers at a relatively younger age in comparison to assigned expatriates, they had higher
organisational mobility and expected better benefits from the experience and that their careers in the future. Biemann and Andresen (2010) made two key findings. The first was that career orientated SIEs were found to be stable as opposed to the second finding, where the decrease in stability of career with progressing age as far as assigned expatriates were concerned was significantly less (Biemann & Andresen, 2010). However, this study was based on self-reports and was cross-sectional in design, which made it difficult to outline causal relationships and increased the risk of common method bias.

An aspect that may escape notice is that SIEs who are employed can and do suffer from aspects of dissatisfaction as they are underemployed and seek added work. This aspect also applies to the research of academics in this study. Underemployment among SIEs is an issue amongst groups of workers and has not been exhaustively studied (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). To begin with, underemployment refers to the attitudes of individuals that the jobs that they have currently have are inferior or of lower quality in comparison to other jobs in the market as they are not fully employed (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). This in return is thought to influence the attitudes and behaviour of employees with regards to the extent of job satisfaction, job involvement, feelings of being unappreciated, low mental health and the absence of career roots (Inkson, Arthur, Pringle & Barry, 1997). A study by Crowley-Henry (2007) involved 302 SIEs who were working in 39 different organisations. According to this study, lack of job autonomy, job suitability, job variety and the failure of a job description to consider the psychology of the employee all contributed to the dissatisfaction of underemployment among the SIEs. As a result of the underemployment of these employees, various negative attitudes were observed such as negative work attitudes that in turn are detrimental to the achievement of the organisations’ goals and objectives, leading to many resignations.
Crowley-Henry (2007). This is an important point as it has some reference with underemployed academics who responded to the survey. This aspect will be referred to in the findings and discussion chapters subsequently within this research.

Another aspect of SIE that has been studied is the cross-cultural adjustment. Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) focused on SIEs as well as assigned expatriates in establishing the trends, similarities and differences in the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates. The study involved 179 respondents in Japan and it was established that SIEs are better adjusted to the general aspects of their host countries and have better relationships with the citizens of the host country in comparison to the assigned expatriates. This has been attributed to SIEs having more motivation and interest in the foreign country as their decision to expatriate was their own in comparison to assigned expatriates who are sent to foreign countries by their organisations (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009).

### 2.7.2. Expatriation Adjustment

The term ‘expatriate adjustment’ is synonymous with acculturation, cross-cultural adjustment and international adjustment, which refers to expatriate psychological comfort and familiarity with different foreign environmental aspects (Black, 1988). Takeuchi et al. (2005) expanded the description as the degree of ease or difficulty that expatriates have with life or work issues in a host country. As a time-related process, expatriate adjustment is linked to the process of uncertainty reduction and change through the feeling of harmonisation and comfort with the new culture (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Torbiörn, 1982).
Expatriates who are open to the host culture can be culturally adjusted and able to accept new behaviours, norms and rules to their removal moves based on their home culture (Caligiuri, 2012). In contrast, maladjusted expatriates tend to experience anxiety towards the host culture and may even believe that the host people are plotting to make life worse for them (Richards, 1996). Expatriates who have a limited adjustment to the host culture gain negative work-related consequences such as lower job satisfaction and job performance (Naumann, 1993).

Early models by different researchers have explored the procedures of expatriate adjustment and have been developed to clarify the steps of acculturation. One of the popular models is the U-curve of the cross-cultural adjustment model, which is based on the work of Lysgaard (1955). Basically, the attitude of the SIEs is high, it dips when they are confronted with a new environment and as time develops and they acclimatise to a new culture, the dip subsides and a rising spirit occurs. While this may be older research, it represents an interesting and useful model.

To be more specific the U-curve model consists of four phases to describe the process of the cross-cultural adjustment process of expatriate employees or sojourners within a host culture (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Lysgaard, 1955). The first phase is called the honeymoon once the individual has arrived in a foreign culture (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1962), which happens during the first weeks up to two months when expatriates are attracted to all the new and interesting aspects of the culture (Adler, 1986). The second phase is culture shock, when an individual experiences frustration and lack of sufficient understanding of the host nation and its people (Adler, 1986; Church, 1982). Perhaps it has resonance with ‘future shock’ as described by Toffler (1971), where a personal individual perception is that they are experiencing excessive change in a time frame that
is too brief and induces problems. The third stage been described as the adjustment period, when an individual can gradually adapt, appreciate and reflect the norms and values of the host culture (Harris & Moran, 1989). Finally, the individual begins to conduct themselves in a culturally aware manner, which refers to the ability to participate effectively in the new culture (Oberg, 1960).

Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1962) extended the U-curve and formulated the W-curve hypothesis with multiple highs and lows. They reported that another shock may be experienced when returning home. They believed that since sojourners had to learn new socialisation skills to cope with the foreign environment, they would often find themselves at odds, to a degree, with their home culture (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1962). Thus, culture shock that is experienced while adjusting to a foreign culture is mirrored by re-entry shock experienced by the returning sojourner (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1962). Early models of expatriate adjustment, such as Lysgaard’s (1955) U-curve adjustment model, Oberg’s (1960) model of culture shock and Guthrie’s (1975) learning model, tended to apply the theory to various groups as immigration, refugees and sojourners return. These models lack consensus across studies as the appropriate theoretical framework for adjustment and lack the agreement of key constructional definitions; however, they are useful studies for reflection on research devoted to this field.

Black and Stephens (1989) added new theoretical ground by stating that socio-cultural adjustment should be viewed as a multidimensional concept. Black (1988) and Black et al. (1991) categorised the adjustment of socio-culture into three facets: general, work and interaction adjustments. General adjustment refers to the psychological comfort the expatriate experiences with regards to issues of living in the host cultural environment,
which includes weather, food and living conditions. Work adjustment refers to the degree of the adjustment that is related to different work values, expectations and standards. Interaction adjustment is related to the degree of comfort to different communication styles and interpersonal communication the expatriates feel when interacting with host country nationals. According to Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005), the adjustment model proposed by Black et al. (1991) has instigated and galvanised a large body of supporting evidence in term of its efficacy. The socio-cultural adjustment is the most influential and often-cited theoretical treatment of expatriate experiences and it can be considered a context-specific reflection of the stressor-stress-strain sequence (Mendenhall, Kuhlmann, Stahl & Osland, 2002; Hechanova et al., 2003).

The expatriate experience, whether it is self-initiated or organisational, can be quite beneficial to all parties concerned. However, many researchers identified the problem that the expatriation failure rate is quite high, which affects organisations considerably through direct and indirect costs (Black et al., 1991; Harvey & Wiese, 1998; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2004). The high failure rate, which is defined by terminating the international assignment prematurely, was found to be due to poor job performance and/or personal problems (Forster, 1997). Failure to adjust to the foreign environment has been cited as one of the most important reasons for unsuccessful expatriation (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998).

For example, Black and Gregersen (1991) and Punnett (1997) estimated that an average cost incurred by organisations due to an expatriate failure ranged somewhere within a range of $50,000 to $200,000 for every individual employee. Clearly, international organisations can incur a big loss for each case of expatriate failure, not to mention the equally obvious multiple effect. From the perspective of individual SIEs, the cost of the
failure may also prove to be quite extensive not only from the negative ‘expatriate psychology’ perspective but also from the perspective of their spouses and families (Takeuchi, 2010; Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen & Bolino, 2012). In many cases, negative expatriate experiences and failures lead to poor self-esteem among these individuals as well as negative attitudes towards future professional experiences when stepping outside the ‘sanctuary’ an enterprise or company may provide in a different culture and a country (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall & Stroh, 1999).

According to Aryee and Stone (1996) and Zheng and Lamond (2010), there is strong evidence showing that many expatriate employees do not finish their overseas assignments, which points to retention failure on the part of the organisations that employed them. Of the many possible factors and reasons that may have influenced these expatriate employees’ decision to return home, it was the difficult adjustment and transition period of the expatriate employees and family-related matters that appeared to be the most common (Black et al., 1991; Zheng & Lamond, 2010). It has been noted that expatriate employees place a high premium on their psychological wellbeing, and related issues have an effect on considerations relating to potential or actual plans to return home (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). It should be noted that Zheng and Lamond (2010), in their research focusing on corporations in the greater Chinese region and Asia, claim that buoyant economies affected staff turnover, as did organisational culture and domestic issues. The key issue that Zheng and Lamond (2010) pointed to in their research was that staff turnover in MNCs was very poorly researched, which complements the research findings in this paper.

Howe-Walsh and Schyns (2010) argue that the primary reason why some expatriates prematurely returned was because the organisations that send expatriates fail to consider
the myriad of issues that employees may face when they migrate. Without the support of their employers, expatriate employees experience a level of alienation that induces thoughts of returning their home country (Aryee & Stone, 1996; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Such cases of expatriate failures do not only happen in the field of corporate businesses, as Zheng and Lamond (2010) showed, but also in the academic field, according to Richardson (2006).

Hechanova et al. (2003) investigated reasons why organisations had considerable difficulty in attracting and retaining qualified candidates for international assignments. Profitable organisations to Hechanova et al. (2003) were able to afford the costs in circumstances where the expatriation experience failed. On the side of the individuals who apply for positions in these organisations, the cost of the failure can have enormous effects beyond mere money as the effect is not only from the negative expatriate psychology perspective, but may extend to the spouse and family, poor self-esteem as well as a negative attitude towards considering future job offers and associated experiences (Black et al., 1999).

2.7.3. Expatriates' Family Adjustment Issues

Despite the fact that the subject of expatriate adjustment has been widely covered in research by various authorities, there have been limited studies concerned with the effects on the family of the expatriate in relation to his or her adjustment in the foreign country as well as the perspective of their spouses (Biemann & Andresen, 2010). It is estimated that around 86 per cent of expatriates are accompanied by their spouses as well as children while on foreign assignments (Scullion & Brewster, 2001). Therefore, the family unit in terms of happiness or unhappiness is a very critical factor that affects
the stay of the expatriate as well as his or her effectiveness as far as international assignments are concerned (Selmer, 2002). Bearing in mind that the cost of hiring expatriates is usually more than five times the costs incurred when hiring locals, it is important for the expatriate to perform well and this is partly influenced by his or her family and how family members adjust to living in the new country (Selmer, 2002).

As far as Western citizens living and working in non-Western countries are concerned, it has been proven that time is very important in relation to the adjustment where families may be involved (Shaffer, Harrison & Gilley, 1999). The time before the family departs from its native country and the time when the family first arrives in the foreign country are of the utmost importance in influencing the adjustment of the family as a whole and, consequently, the adjustment and success of the expatriate (Torbiörn, 1982). The new academic experience that is presented to children is also a factor when relevant (Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007). Expatriates whose families fail to adjust well in the foreign land have been found to be less enthusiastic and less likely to consider foreign assignments in the future (Biemann & Andresen, 2010).

Problems arising with the expatriates’ family have been the most common cause of failure of expatriates as well as the causes for repatriation before the assignment is complete (Crowley-Henry, 2007). This is mostly attributed to poor adjustment of their families or to a lack of adjustment towards the transportation, food, healthcare and education systems that are found in the host country (Crowley-Henry, 2007).

Children feature as an important part of the overall adjustment of an expatriate (Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007). The number of children that an expatriate has, as well as their ages, is important determinants of the adjustment of his or her family to the
new environment (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). Research has revealed that successful expatriates normally have fewer and younger children and that the more children in the family unit and the older they are, the higher the chances of failing in an international assignment due to family adjustment issues (Inkson et al., 1997). This is usually attributed to the high adaptability of the younger children in comparison to older children and it is thought that older children are usually less willing to accompany their parents on international assignments (Collings, Scullion & Morley, 2007). However, a reverse process may be a key issue as the children will have grown and developed in another culture (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010). When facing repatriation they may encounter problems adjusting to the ‘foreign’ culture they experience in the country of their origin on their return (Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010).

The education of children is normally a problem for most expatriates regardless of which country they obtain employment in (Shen & Jiang, 2011). Children, upon their arrival in a new country, will experience language and school problems in varying degrees as a result of being in a new social and cultural environment (Shen & Jiang, 2011). The kind of education available is of utmost importance to expatriates, most of who are usually well qualified (Richardson, 2006). Expatriates often prefer large cities as it is possible to access various schools that may have international systems of learning and that are considered very high calibre (Richardson, 2006).

Another factor that affects the adjustment of the expatriate’s family is the location where an expatriate is posted (Collings et al., 2007). Some countries may be preferable in comparison to others and once in a country there are specific locations such as towns and cities that are preferred, thus presenting the possibility of added complexities, including a will to leave (Torbiörn, 1982). Bigger cities and towns are usually preferred
by expatriates for the availability of a wide range of quality services as far as education, health care and recreation facilities among others are concerned (Sappinen, 1993). Bearing this argument in mind, expatriates, their spouses and their families normally prefer developed countries as opposed to developing countries (Kim & Froese, 2012). It is for this reason that a number of foreign assignments are declined by the expatriate and their families as they do not want wish to live at lower standards than the standard to which they are accustomed (Takeuchi, Yun & Russell, 2002). This is especially so in relation to a range of fundamental factors such as family ties, friendship, quality of the housing and furniture, food, climate and socio-cultural events (Scullion & Brewster, 2001). The other aspect that influences the expatriates’ decisions as far as location is concerned is the presence of other expatriates from their own country. To Kim and Froese (2012), this is particularly important as far as the wives of male expatriates are concerned as it is the source of a social network in a foreign land and is a way in which stress may be reduced.

Another factor that broadly affects the success of the expatriate while on a foreign assignment is work-family conflict as an aspect of work/life balance (Parker & McEvoy, 1993). Conflict(s) within the expatriate’s family may be apparent when the time designated to the fulfilment of one role is causing the other roles to be neglected, when the stress or strain of work, for example, prevents the execution of another family obligation role at a time when the expatriate is attempting to come to grips with the complex demand of one role while spending too much time on work in contrast to family (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). The ‘spill over’ concept theorises that striking a balance from one set of roles to another, such as work or family, is complex and they can become inseparable, causing constant conflicts that are experienced by expatriates as far as fulfilment of their roles at work and in the family are concerned (Scullion &
Brewster, 2001). Work-family conflict is normally experienced when the demands for the roles at work and with the family are incompatible whereby the fulfilment of one role makes it impossible to fulfil the other role (Kraimer, Wayne & Jaworski, 2001). The resultant conflict between work and family may be responsible for poor marital adjustment and inadequate role performance among other undesirable outcomes (Feldman & Tompson, 1993). This may occur even though family is often touted as a potential factor that reduces the levels of stress (Feldman & Tompson, 1993).

Work-family conflict is, however, inevitable for expatriates with families due to the large amount of time devoted to learning the new job, business environment, social interactions and people among other things, thus reducing the amount of time available to the expatriate to spend time with their families (Evans et al., 2002). This conflict increases with an increase in the demands of work and/or family (Evans et al., 2002). Conversely, while marriage may be responsible for inter-role conflict, it also may be a source of support and alleviation of stress (Evans et al., 2002). There is no ‘one size fits all’ concept as families may act as a social support system and help expatriates to reduce their levels of stress in some circumstances and, conversely, the lack of these support systems is a cause of stress for any employee all over the world and may often affect performance negatively (Birdseye & Hill, 1995).

To add another important finding, most expatriate families are faced with the ‘dual-career couple’s dilemma’. Dual-career couples are unions whereby both spouses are employed and psychologically committed to their jobs and 70 per cent of expatriate couples are said to be in such unions (Dowling, Schuler & Welch, 1994). Relocation of dual-career couples is usually problematic for domestic transfers but it is safe to assume that it is significantly more challenging when faced with international relocation.
because relocation to a foreign country requires that one of the spouses leaves their current job (Kraimer et al., 2001). Women are usually most affected as the majority of expatriates are men (Kraimer et al., 2001). Women view this as a sacrifice whose consequences are loss of business contacts, self-esteem, financial and personal independence, which may lead to emotional problems such as personal stress (Bonache, Brewster & Suutari, 2001) or, as Birdseye and Hill (1995) claimed, stress and conflict between spouses. Kraimer et al. (2001) considered that three options normally available to such couples may include: the assignment might be refused by the assigned employee, the spouse could quit his or her job, or the employer as a condition of the expatriate’s tenure has to secure the spouse another job in the country where they are relocating. However, dual-career expatriates have been found to experience more stress as the work roles may duplicate and are likely to magnify the conflict experienced in their households (Kraimer et al., 2001).

2.8. Model of Expatriate Adjustment

There are various models of expatriate adjustment that have been presented by scholars in a bid to explain the phenomena. Examples include the Aycan (1997), Black et al. (1991) and the Parker and McEvoy (1993) models. The research model employed by Black et al (1989) is the most widely and frequently used study of expatriate adjustment and has been widely tested, hence the wide support that it enjoys (Takeuchi, 2010). There were no variables added to Black et al (1989) study in the theoretical framework as this model has been implemented and replicated as the literature based on this model has concluded that it is a research analytical tool that is extremely accurate (Takeuchi, 2010). The model proposed by Black and colleagues (1991) suggests that job-related and organisational factors are central. Determinants within this model are related to
anticipatory adjustment as well as in-country adjustment. Anticipatory adjustment factors are related to the time prior to the movement of the employee from the country of origin to the foreign country, whereas in-country adjustment refers to adjustment of the expatriate once in the foreign country. Adjustment of the spouse and the expatriate’s family are considered non-work adjustment but they agree that the adjustment of the family and that of the spouse augurs well for the adjustment of the expatriate. The extent or the method through which the expatriate’s family affects his or her own adjustment is, however, not defined by this model, which was not tested empirically. This Black et al. model, when used by researchers, has been modified and expanded and adjusted in a variety of ways in order to suit researchers’ needs pertaining to particular studies.

2.8.1. Anticipatory Factors

According to the Black et al. (1991) model, one set of inputs to adjustment is anticipatory, that is, before the expatriates depart for the international assignment. Black et al. (1991) stated that the inclusion of anticipatory adjustment in this model is important, because if there are appropriate anticipatory adjustments, the actual adjustment to the new international setting will be easier and quicker. Black and colleagues separated these adjustment factors into two categories: language ability (fluency in the host country language) and previous overseas assignments (prior experience in living and working abroad). As an earlier study showed (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985), knowledge of the host language contributed positively to facilitating all aspects of an expatriate’s environment, thus supporting Black et al.’s (1991) theory. Similarly, Nicholson and Imaizumi (1993) argued that the easy way to obtain the necessary information pertaining to daily work and non-work activity is by being
proficient in the host country language. According to Black et al. (1991), previous international experience plays an important role in facilitating all dimensions of adjustment.

### 2.8.2. In-Country Factors

The second set of predictors in the model of Black et al. (1991) includes four in-country factors: individual factors, job factors, organisational factors and non-work factors, outlined and explained below.

#### 2.8.2.1. Individual Factors

Self-efficacy and relationship skills play an important role in all forms of adjustment (Black et al., 1991). The concept of self-efficacy, building on research along similar lines by Bandura (1977), can be defined as the belief in an individual’s own ability to implement an assignment or plan of action. Expatriates with high global self-efficacy persist in demonstrating newly learned behaviours, while negating the occurrence of negative feedback through sound interpersonal skills: effectively, they use the ongoing experiences as a form of learning to improve their adjustment (Black et al., 1991). The term of relational skills, based on Black et al. (1991), refers to a repertoire of tools and techniques that could enhance and assist the formation of interpersonal connections. Expatriates obtain the necessary information and behaviour-relevant feedback in the host culture through those connections (Black et al., 1991). Interaction with the host nationals is positively affected when the relational skills are greater (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). These tools and techniques provide mechanisms through which
expatriates gain knowledge of what is tolerated and not tolerated in the host culture (Black et al., 1991).

### 2.8.2.2. Job Factors

The nature of expatriate assignments typically involves new operations, the means for completing tasks and increased responsibilities. Expatriates often act in accordance with policy and procedural issues that relate to their former employing organisation (Gregersen & Black, 1992). They may experience conflict with their new organisation as they make assumptions that former work practices applied (Gregersen & Black, 1992). Under these circumstances, Black et al. (1991) have characterised these factors as role clarity (exact understanding of position requirements), role discretion (decision-making autonomy), role novelty (differences between the host and native country work roles) and role conflict (incompatible cues regarding job expectations). In contrast to individual factors that are posited to relate to all three facets of adjustment, Black and colleagues (1991) intended that job factors relate only to the facet of work adjustment.

### 2.8.2.3. Organisational Factors

According to the Black et al. (1991) model, in-country adjustment also includes organisational factors within the host country. Black et al. (1991) classified these factors into two categories, which included organisational socialisation and culture. Organisational socialisation refers to the process by which an individual fits in or becomes adjusted to a new role in an organisation and learns the content such as the position description, processes, procedures, targets and general performance issues to develop a grasp of the information necessary for adjustment (Lueke & Svyantek, 2000).
Black et al. (1991) addressed the idea that socialisation can be discussed in terms of both tactics and content. Reynolds (2005) expounded that socialisation would occur in two contrasting forms. The first form is when the expatriate would be expected to accept the job role as is, with little to no flexibility in being able to shape that role to individual preferences or behaviours; the second form is when the expatriate would not only be encouraged but expected to create change.

Organisational culture stresses three factors: organisation culture novelty, social support and logistical help. Black et al. (1991) pointed out that organisational culture novelty would be proposed only regarding work adjustment. Additionally, the inclusion of social support in the new organisation, by both supervisors and colleagues, would also provide valuable information regarding acceptable behaviours and practices in the workplace through which uncertainty could be reduced. Logistical help is the third factor in organisation culture that has a contrasting effect on adjustment when compared to the two factors described above. Logistical help describes non-work aspects of the international assignment such as housing, shopping and schools for dependent children. Therefore, the more increased levels of logistical support the expatriate would receive the more reduction on uncertainty, which facilitates adjustment in those non-work facets of adjustment; that is, interaction and general adjustment.

2.8.2.4. Non-work Factors

The final category of factors that influence expatriate adjustment relates to the non-work arena. Black et al. (1991) identified two external job variables that may affect adjustment, namely culture novelty and family/spouse adjustment. The degree of cultural distance between the cultural norms and values of the expatriate’s home country
and those of the host country increases; thus, a greater degree of effort to eradicate this conflict is required.

Black et al. (1991) proposed that there would be a positive relationship between the amount of cultural distance and the degree of adjustment to be made by the expatriate. If the expatriate is accompanied by a spouse and children to the host environment, another potential source of uncertainty is the spouse and family. If the spouse and children are unable to adapt to the overseas environment, their maladjustment may spill over and affect the expatriate’s own level of work and non-work adjustment (Reynolds, 2005).

As stated, one of the key questions in this research is to assess the applicability of Black et al.’s (1991) model when applied to SIE in Saudi Arabia, while Black et al. (1991) focused their research on traditional Western people being placed on international work assignments. The Black et al. model has been validated again and again in the literature in the context of Western expatriates. As the model has been widely supported, it was compelling to research the model and use it to validate it in terms of non-traditional expatriates (SIEs) and in a Saudi Arabian cultural context. Previous research on international cultural adjustment has focused on the adaptation of expatriates from dissonant cultures, with particular emphases on Western expatriates’ experiences when relocated from ‘low context’ to ‘high context’ environments (Selmer, 2006). Black et al.’s model has been largely derived from such studies. This study, in contrast, has employed Black et al.’s model to analyse SIE adaptation across similar cultural contexts. Key findings of the research are that the model is applicable even in these circumstances as will be shown in more detail within the discussion chapter. As Selmer (2006) has argued, ‘the degree of cross-cultural adjustment should be treated as a multidimensional concept’ related to ‘learning and acquisition of social skills’ (p. 351), culture, language
and social interaction to outline various dimensions applicable to a host culture where expatriates relocate.

Selmer (2006) has stated that Black et al. (1991) made a distinction between three dimensions of in-country adjustment and that Black et al.’s concept of socio-cultural adjustment covers socio-cultural aspects of adjustment and it has been supported by a series of empirical studies in a Western context.

This current study uses Black et al.’s (1991) theoretical framework of international adjustment to test the model in another cultural context to examine the effects on academic SIEs experiences and adjustment in Saudi Arabia.

2.9. Research Hypotheses

In order to answer the study questions, there are several null hypotheses addressed. However, the null hypothesis (abbreviated as \(H_0\)) is a hypothesis which the researcher tries to disprove, reject or nullify. The 'null' often refers to the common view of something, while the alternative hypothesis is what the researcher really thinks is the cause of a phenomenon (Dean & Illowsky, 2009). Despite this, many researchers neglect the null hypothesis when testing hypotheses, which is poor practice and can have adverse effects (Shuttleworth, 2008). The common view of SIEs is that they may have considerable difficulty in adjusting to the Saudi Arabian culture. The null hypothesis was adopted to express the view that this common view was incorrect. The findings indicate that of the 14 null hypotheses six were rejected. Null hypotheses may be adopted when the facts are to be revealed through the quantitative research (Shuttleworth, 2008).
In relation to Black et al (1989) research model the hypothesis was that its quantitative design was applicable in the United States’ culture as well as the Saudi Arabian culture. The research will show that this hypothesis was correct signalling a major finding in the research.

\(H_{01a}\): There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ cultural adjustment.

\(H_{01b}\): There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ interactional adjustment.

\(H_{01c}\): There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ work adjustment.

\(H_{01d}\): There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ overall adjustment.

\(H_{02a}\): There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ cultural adjustment.

\(H_{02b}\): There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ interactional adjustment.

\(H_{02c}\): There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ work adjustment.

\(H_{02d}\): There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ overall adjustment.

\(H_{03a}\): There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on gender.

\(H_{03b}\): There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on language.

\(H_{03c}\): There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on marital status.

\(H_{03d}\): There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on age grouping.
\textbf{H_o3e}: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on religion.

\textbf{H_o3f}: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on higher education status.

\textbf{H_o4}: Levels of previous work experience and cultural distance do not significantly predict SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment.

2.10. Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed literature that is relevant to the topic at hand—expatriate adjustment. The subject of SIEs has been outlined with a specific focus on the studies that have been carried out on similar and non-similar cultures, noting the lack of academic commentary and other research pertaining to the expatriate experience more broadly.

The state and development of higher education in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia with regards to its crucial role in social and economic dimensions has been commented upon within this literature review and has revealed that despite the progress achieved within the last two decades, the higher education system in Saudi Arabia still has many challenges to achieve to fulfil the vision and aspirations of the country. Challenges include turnover, satisfaction and retention of academics within higher education in contest with the culture in general, cultural distance and the related factors that affect expatriation for individuals and families such as stress, familiarity, lifestyle, living conditions and social connections. HRM within Saudi Arabia has also been discussed in general terms.
Expatriation and adjustment using Black et al.’s (1991) model for studying expatriation has been reviewed as it provided a useful theoretical framework to discuss SIEs, expatriate success and the family adjustment issues where relevant as reflected in the research outlined later in this study. The reasons and controversy for expatriate failure and, conversely, expatriate success, have been explored extensively in this literature review as the foundation for the outcomes from the qualitative research outlined in the findings chapter, and as the foundation for how the primary data gels and contrasts with the data outlined.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the research methodology encapsulates how the study is conducted, outlining and explaining the rigid and in depth strategies and step-by-step procedures adopted to collect the data to address the research question and collecting essential information to address the purpose of the study. This chapter outlines the concepts and procedures that were employed in the conduct of the quantitative research, especially the scientific research with an attempt to correct or avoid misconceptions in certain phenomenon. The systematic order and procedure is important in order to arrive at valid and reliable conclusions and recommendations.

This quantitative research represents a substantial body of knowledge through a survey of 235 SIEs to investigate and develop new knowledge and provide a critical commentary on how the information contrasts and compares with the literature in the field within the subsequent discussion/findings chapter.

The quantitative research in the broad field of expatriate research has investigated and developed new knowledge, and is, as the AQF (2013) stated, ‘an original contribution’ in this field of work, reflecting ‘critically on (the) theory and practice’ (p. 17). While the literature review chapter ‘has evaluated existing knowledge and ideas’ (AQF, 2013, p. 17) pertaining to expatriate research knowledge and ideas, this research methodology chapter undertakes an account of ‘systematic investigation’ to create a foundation to ‘reflect on theory and practice to generate original knowledge … applicable to this specific field of work or learning … to present cogently a complex investigation of
originality … and to communicate results to peers and the community’ (AQF, 2013, p. 17) through the methodology design of this study.

3.2. Research Design

This research study, in part, replicates a much lauded earlier empirical study, Black et al.’s (1991) model of expatriate adjustment. The initial design of the research was to apply a mixed-method approach with the specific decision to use a sequential technique, which consisted of two phases namely quantitative and qualitative. Therefore, the quantitative phase commenced and data was gathered using a questionnaire. Conversely, the qualitative component was not undertaken as the participants declined. Circumstances indicate that they were concerned that participation may have some adverse consequences despite ethical confidentiality being assured. Nevertheless, this study employed a survey on the targeted sample that was comprehensive and informative. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) maintained that qualitative research may result in persons responding to questions with comments that may not surface in a survey. Unfortunately, this aspect of the research did not materialise and in a sense provides an added insight into the culture as perceived by SIEs. Given this circumstance, this quantitative-based research follows the same design as Black et al.’s (1991) model, with the key difference being the use of a previously untested sub-population of SIE academics currently teaching at universities in Saudi Arabia.

Creswell (2009) argued that research methods can be grouped into quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches. This involves the forms of data collection, analysis and interpretation that are proposed for a study (Creswell, 2009). A quantitative study design using a cross-sectional survey method was used based on appropriateness to the
issues under investigation. According to Creswell (2009), a quantitative approach is one in which the investigator employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data.

The instrument used in this research, a questionnaire, was designed to obtain information from respondents by using structured closed- and open-ended questions (Schneider, 2003). The questionnaire is considered a major method of data collection (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). Normally, respondents tend to complete closed-ended questions more often than open-ended ones (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). Open-ended questions enable a researcher to demonstrate that importance should be attached to answering the rated questions. In open-ended questions, respondents may consider the length of time spent answering questions. However, this could affect the state of enthusiasm for completing the questionnaire. Schneider (2003) maintained that fixed-response items have the advantage of having a limited number of responses, simplifying the respondents’ task and researcher’s analysis.

The strengths and weaknesses of surveys in general are addressed by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) and are described briefly as follows.

Strengths of a questionnaire:

- perceived anonymity
- considered to be inexpensive
- quick turnaround
- moderately high measurement validity for well-constructed and well-tested questionnaire
- for closed-ended items, data is considerably easy
- low dross rate for close-ended questionnaire
• highly recommended to be short.

Weaknesses of a questionnaire:

• need validation
• possibility of missing data
• respondents may not answer all questions
• open-ended questions may result in unclear answers
• in the case of open-ended items, analysis is time consuming.

These strengths and weaknesses outlined by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) were of varying relevance to this study’s context. For example in terms of strengths, anonymity was assured, it was inexpensive, the return of surveys was average with some time lags but attained a very high (85.5 per cent) return rate indicating a well-constructed and well-tested questionnaire underpinned by closed-ended items to ensure data capture was “considerably easy,” with a low discard rate (dross).

The weakness of the questionnaire in this study was very limited but it, like all studies of this type needed validation. There was no missing data detected and respondents answered most questions and in cases where this did not occur (nine) the surveys were discarded. As stated above all questions were closed to ensure analysis was both accurate and able to be done within a short time frame.

3.3. Population

The target population of this study is expatriate academics of the northern areas of Saudi Arabia. The reason behind selection of this area was due to the low number of expatriates and tourists (Sababhi, 2012). The area was not well-known by expatriate
academics until 2005, when the University of Ha’il was established (University of Ha’il, 2010). Saudi Arabia is divided into 13 provinces, and the northern area is comprised of four provinces, namely Ha’il, Al Jouf, Tabouk and Northern Borders (University of Ha’il, 2010). The area is sub-divided into two groupings: the near north, which consists of Ha’il and Northern Borders provinces, and the far north, which consists of Al Jouf and Tabouk provinces. Universities were established in each province to address government policy by providing higher education in the area (University of Ha’il, 2010). This challenge led the new universities to recruit expatriate academics, which shaped 85 per cent of the total academic population in the area (University of Ha’il, 2010).

Table 3.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic institution</th>
<th>Loc.</th>
<th>No. of faculty n.</th>
<th>No. of faculty m. in loc.</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Al Jouf University</td>
<td>Far North</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 University of Tabuk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>400</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Northern Borders University</td>
<td>Near North</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>1,100</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 University of Ha’il</td>
<td></td>
<td>800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>2,000</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,000</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. Loc. = location of university; No. of faculty n. = number of foreign faculty members in each university; no. of faculty m. in loc. = number of foreign faculty members in each location; Per cent = percentage of number of foreign faculty members in each location. Source: Ministry of Higher Education (2010)

As shown in Table 3.1, the total population of the expatriate academics in the Northern Saudi Arabian area was 2,000 members working in four universities. The near north
scored 55 per cent of the population with 1,100 members. The University of Ha’il had 800 foreign academics, while the Northern Borders University had 300 staff. The far north had 45 per cent of the population as Al Jouf University and University of Tabuk had 500 and 400 members, respectively.

3.3.1. Minimum Adequate Sample Size

For hypotheses testing, the adequate sample size has been determined by taking into consideration the following values that were set by the researcher:

1. Alpha value ($\alpha$): the probability of incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis.
2. Power (1-$\beta$): the probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis.
3. Effect size ($\eta^2$): ‘the strength of the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable’ (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2008).

From Cohen’s (1988) table, the required sample size for testing mean differences between two groups or more is 64 for each group, which in this study translates into 128 faculty members in total at $\alpha = .05$ with a medium effect size ($d = .50$) and power (.80). The mean is defined as the average of the numbers being a calculated ‘central’ value of a set of numbers.

G*Power 3.1 software has been used to determine the required minimum sample size for testing the hypotheses based on determining the type of statistic, effect size, alpha level and statistical power (1-$\beta$). For $t$-test, the minimum sample size is 134 faculty members. For ANOVA (analysis of variance), the minimum sample size is 159 faculty members. Finally, 107 cases are needed to test linear multiple regression. The result of these computations is shown in figures 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3.
Figure 3.1. G*Power input and output for computing required sample size for t-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis:</th>
<th>A priori: Compute required sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Input:</td>
<td>Tail(s) = Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effect size d = 0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α err prob = 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Power (1–β err prob) = 0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Allocation ratio N2/N1 = 1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output:</td>
<td>Noncentrality parameter δ = 2.8389613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Critical t = 1.9780988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Df = 132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sample size group 1 = 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sample size group 2 = 80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total sample size = 134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actual power = 0.8046333</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.2. G*power input and output for computing required sample size for ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis:</th>
<th>A priori: Compute required sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Input:</td>
<td>Effect size f = 0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α err prob = 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Power (1–β err prob) = 0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of groups = 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output:</td>
<td>Noncentrality parameter λ = 9.937500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Critical F = 3.0540042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Numerator df = 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Denominator df = 156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total sample size = 159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actual power = 0.8048873</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 3.3. G*Power input and output for computing required sample size for linear multiple regression

As discussed earlier, Table 3.2 explains the adequate sample sizes based on previous methods. The sample size from Cohen’s table is 128. Moreover, 134, 159 and 107 participants is required sample size as illustrated by the G*Power software based on the type of statistic. A summary of the required sample size is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of formula used</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cohen’s table</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G*Power for t-test</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G*Power for ANOVA</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G*Power for regression</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One-hundred-and-fifty-nine (159) cases were chosen as the required sample size for this study. Hence, the researcher is convinced that this minimum sample size is appropriate
for this study. However, the sample size surveyed in the actual study is 235 faculty members, which is more than sufficient for test hypotheses (n = 159).

### 3.3.2. Sampling

Sampling refers to the process of selecting suitable respondents or participants for inclusion as a representative of the entire population (Schneider, 2003). The process of choosing who will participate is considered an essential part of the research, because inappropriate sampling and selection endangers the integrity, results and outcome of the research (Schneider, 2003). Researchers rarely survey the entire population because the cost of a census is too high and saturation nigh on impossible (Schneider, 2003). The three main advantages of sampling are that the cost is lower, data collection is faster, and since the data set is smaller, it is possible to ensure homogeneity and to improve the accuracy and quality of the data (Schneider, 2003).

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) claimed that proportional stratified cluster sampling is considered appropriate in cases of large populations, which can be classified as units or groups. The proportional stratified cluster sampling aligns with a process of dividing the population into homogeneous subgroups in order to yield a systemic random sample in each subgroup (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

In this study, the selection of expatriate academics was based on proportional stratified cluster sampling. The four universities were located in two areas (far north and near north), which were considered units and each unit included two universities. The number of participants obtained in each selected division was determined based on the identified minimum sample size (n = 159). The required sample size of each stratum
was selected based on the proportional size of the population of each location. To predict the required number of participants in each stratum or unit the percentage of each study location was multiplied by the sample size (159). Table 3.3 displays the required sample for each location based on their proportional size.

Table 3.3  

Summary of Required Sample for Each Location Based on Their Proportional Sizes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>No. of faculty members</th>
<th>Per cent of sample</th>
<th>Min. sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Far north</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near north</td>
<td>1,100</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 159 foreign faculty members who comprised the sample in this study were randomly selected. The researcher obtained the expatriate academics contact details list from the Al Jouf University and University of Ha’il research department and deanship of faculty affairs, achieving appropriate ethical clearance from all the universities, including the researcher’s supervisory university. The faculty members were selected randomly from the provided lists. The provided lists included the name, university ID number and name of the university for all expatriate faculty members. The procedure for selecting each sample members was manually performed by choosing the fifth number of each list (e.g. fie, 10, 15 and so on), to ensure that the sample number of each region was met. Figure 3.4 explains the procedure for selecting the sample.
3.4. Setting of the Study

As stated above, the target population of this study was expatriate academics from four universities in the northern region of Saudi Arabia. The four universities are: University
of Ha’il, Al Jouf University, University of Tabuk and the Northern Borders University. The area was considered unexplored to expatriate academics as the first establishment of a university was in 2005 compared with other areas that have had universities several decades before. Two universities were selected to be studied in this research: the University of Ha’il and Al Jouf University. The researcher met a number of obstacles while seeking ethical approval from universities as each has its own requirements. These obstacles included lack of formal channels to submit approval forms, delays in responding that took up to four months and administrative policies.

An understanding of the participating universities is considered important to understand the focus of the research. Some relevant details of the universities are as follows. The higher education institutions that have recently emerged have some similarities in their discipline objectives, offering free education in different fields, and vary in their numbers of students. In north-central Saudi Arabia, nearly 600 km north-west of the city of Riyadh is the University of Ha’il, situated in the city of Ha’il. Many campuses exist inside the city of Ha’il and one new campus is under construction in the north of Ha’il City. It is spread over an area of 9,000,000 square meters. The university was sponsored by the KFUPM, commencing in 1998 as a community college known as HCC. It was officially established by Royal Decree on 30 Rabi II, 1426H (7 June 2005). At that point in time, it offered three-year associate degree programmes in computer systems, business administration and electronics engineering and instrumentation. At a later time, three bachelor’s degree programmes in computer science, applied electrical engineering and management information systems were offered by the HCC.

Presently, five colleges exist within the university. They are the College of Engineering, College of Computer Science and Engineering, College of Medicine and Medical
Sciences, College of Sciences and the Community College. English is used as a medium of instruction and the vision is to become the first corporate university in the entire Middle East region. The university believe in continuous development by using innovation and technology as tools to keep up with the 21st century. The university enrolment has grown to more than 25,000 students and the number of academics is 1,200, providing a healthy ratio of 20.8 academics per student (University of Ha’il, 2010). The university records reveal that expatriate academics are 80 per cent of the total staff and 100 per cent in some departments, like medicine and maths science (University of Ha’il, 2010).

In 2005, in Al Jouf city, the Al Jouf University was created. Their basic aim was to achieve distinction in scientific research study. Four campuses were established, which are Tabarjal, Dawmat Al Jandal, Sakaka and Al Quryyat. As of the academic year 2009 to 2010, 576 full time academics were being offered to 19,000 students (ratio one academic per 33 students) attending the university. A wide range of majors are being offered in the 10 colleges of Al Jouf University. The 10 colleges are the College of Education for female students at Sakaka, the College of Education for female students at Dawmat Al Jandal, the College of Science, the Al Quryyat Community College, the Sakaka Community College, the Tabarjal Community College, the College of Applied Medical Sciences, the College of Engineering, the College of Medicine and the College of Education for male students. Expatriates make up nearly 82 per cent of the 1,600 academic members and are usually from Arabic nations.
3.4.1. Ethical Consideration

The research was conducted with consideration of the Australian National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). For this reason, approval from the Business College Human Ethics Advisory Network (BCHEAN) at RMIT University was obtained prior to the collection of data from participants (see Appendix A). As a required step by BCHEAN, the researcher received approval from administrative research departments in the participating universities (see Appendix B). The researcher followed the RMIT research guidelines by anticipating potential ethical considerations that may occur during or after the study. The researcher confirmed that information was used for research purpose only and secured and maintained the participants’ confidentiality. Therefore, the researcher is conversant with the essential anonymity of participants and the confidentiality required and is a conscientious observer of these worthy ethical protocols. The researcher maintained the anonymity of participation by avoiding name and identification information on the questionnaire. Questions that participants would answer did not reveal the identity or link answers to departments or colleges. Privacy of participants was not invaded. Academics who participated were not coerced to take part in the study.

The research included a plain language statement that stressed and assured the anonymity of participants (see Appendix C). The statement covered the self-determination principle by emphasising that participants had the right to determine voluntarily whether to participate or not. It also indicated that they had the right to withdraw at any time without consequences. Moreover, the research did not offer money or other kinds of gifts or rewards.
The data was kept in a secure place in different locations for the purpose of confidentiality. The researcher and the researcher’s supervisor only had access to the data. The researcher did not report information publicly that could identify participants. At the same time, no information that could identify participants was recorded on the questionnaires. In addition, the research did not reveal any kind of information about participants.

3.5. Pilot Study

The purpose of the pilot study had three main aims: the first was to statistically test the reliability of the survey instrument to be used in the study, the second was to gain some initial perspective for improving the project and assessing its feasibility, and the third was to establish if it yielded valid results in the analysis of data. An invitation letter was sent to 45 participants from the same population to take part in the pilot study. This letter included a plain language statement and a bilingual version of the questionnaire (Arabic and English). The total number of responses was 38 valid questionnaires, as shown by Table 3.4.
Table 3.4

*Pilot Study Responses*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire condition</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sent</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responses</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invalid questionnaires</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6. Data Collection

The research design allowed the researcher to invite participants who met the research criteria at the participating universities. A total of 277 expatriate academics were invited to participate and complete the study questionnaire to ensure the reliability of the data. To avoid problems such as questionnaires not reaching their destined addressees or prospective participants being uncooperative and not willing to complete their questionnaires, the researcher decided to use the oversampling technique. Bartlett et al. (2001) suggested that when utilising the oversampling technique, a researcher should consider the anticipated return rate based on prior research experience. Therefore, the estimated return rate was applied to adjust the minimum sample size and to calculate how many responses should be added. However, it was considered that 74 per cent was the anticipated return rate. This estimation of the responses percentage rate was based on a related study conducted by Bhuian and Al-Jabri (1996), which employed a questionnaire to study the relationships of work-related attitudes, job characteristics and demographics concerning SIEs in Saudi Arabia. Based on that, the researcher adjusted the sample size to 277 expatriate academics. The calculation of the sample size was obtained by \((0.74 \times 159 = 118)\) and adding the result.
to the minimum sample size of the study (n = 159). Consequently, the number of the questionnaires was 277 distributed to expatriate academics.

The invitation was made by sending a letter to the selected expatriate academics internal mailbox. The letter included a plain language statement and a bilingual version of the questionnaire (Arabic and English). The plain language statement provided information to respondents regarding the purpose of the study, time needed to complete the survey and how to contact the researcher or supervisor if needed. The participants were asked to return the completed questionnaires to the temporary designated researcher’s mailbox. Respondents were informed also about the assurance of their confidentiality and securing all collected data. Participants were given a two-week timeframe to return the completed survey. Initially, the participants showed a low response rate of nearly 30 per cent. Thus, the researcher considered the timing, and as it was the mid-term exam period, a follow-up reminder letter was sent two weeks later to encourage those who had not responded. The following research procedures were followed in order to complete the collection of data:

2. Obtaining contact details of all faculty members of the participating universities (4–25/5/2011).

3. Sending an invitation letter by post to selected faculty members informing them that they have been chosen to participate in this study (3/6/2011).

4. Sending a reminder letter to the selected faculty members to complete and return the questionnaire (30/6/2011).

5. Participants completed and returned questionnaires to researcher’s internal mail boxes (15–7/2011).

6. Participating universities were informed that data collection was completed and asked to close assigned mailboxes (15–7/2011).

Figure 3.5. Research procedures of data collection
3.7. Research Questionnaire

This research was a partial replication of previous empirical tests of the Black et al. (1991) model of expatriate adjustment study. A constructed measurement scale was applied in this study using Black and Stephens’ (1989) questionnaire/scales. Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) refer to Black and Stephens’ (1989) questionnaire/scales as the most often used measurement of expatriate adjustment and its deployment has provided substantial amounts of evidence regarding expatriate adjustment (Hechanova et al., 2003; Mendenhall et al., 2002).

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first part deals with socio-demographic data gathered through close-ended questions. In the second part, there were 14 items that measured expatriates’ cultural, interactional and work adjustment. Seven items focused on cultural adjustment, which in the original study (Black et al, 1991) scored .82 reliability. Four items measured interaction adjustment with a .89 reliability score. The last three items of the second part measured work adjustment with a reliability score of .91 in the original study (Black et al., 1991). The last part of the questionnaire was the cultural distance scale, which consisted of eight items. In the original study (Black et al., 1991), the scale reported an acceptable reliability level for this scale with .64 (see Appendix C).

3.7.1. Measures

As this study was semi-replicating earlier empirical tests of the Black et al. (1991) model of expatriate adjustment, previously constructed measurement scales used in testing this model were also administered in the present study. These individual instruments were combined into one final survey instrument (see Appendix C for the
The first part was to measure the demographic profile of the respondents. The second measure was adjustment of expatriate academics and was measured by a scale consisting of 14 items, which were divided into three subscales: cultural (seven items), interactional (four items) and work (three items). The respondents were asked to answer on a 7-point likert scale. The third measure was the cultural distance between expatriate academics’ own cultures and host culture (Saudi culture) and was measured by a scale of eight items. Figure 3.5 below show the conceptual model of this study.

Figure 3.6. Conceptual model
3.8. Profile of the Participants of This Study

3.8.1. Response Rate

The response rate was identified as the actual number of returned questionnaires. The percentage response rate articulated the number of valid returned questionnaires selected to participate. It is considered an important figure that determines the confidence in the survey results. An invitation letter, which contained the questionnaire, was sent to a total of 277 expatriate academics who worked at University of Ha’il and Al Jouf University during the data collection period.

A total of 248 of the 277 questionnaires issued were received by the researcher. The questionnaires were examined before data for analysis was collected. As a result, 11 returned questionnaires were rejected; eight respondents did not complete the questionnaire and three of the respondents (oddly) were identified as Saudi Arabian nationals, so had to be rejected. N = 237 formed the total valid number of returned questionnaires, therefore, resulting in an adjusted response rate of an excellent response rate of 85.5 per cent. This satisfied the requirement of testing the hypothesis at a 95 per cent confidence level (Uttl, 2005).

The response rate was higher than the research expected which may be based on three possible reasons. The first one was that the sample was professional academics who may understand the importance of doing research and the responsibility of individuals toward this aspect of higher education. The second reason may be that respondents found the topic of the research interesting given its high relevance to them being the actual SIE academics as the focus of the research. The third one is an issue of possible conjecture: informants were given the option of undertaking face-to-face qualitative
interviews and for reasons that are not fully known totally rejected this option and this may have induced them to take the softer option, as they perceived it, to complete the survey. This could be a research project in itself to prove why this actually occurred.

### 3.8.2. Demographics Profile

The demographics profile was analysed by utilising descriptive statistics. The demographic variables in this research included: participants’ university, age, gender, country of origin, native language, marital status, religious status, highest degree held, number of previous jobs held and number of years at the current employment.

### 3.8.3. Participants' University

The total number of valid participants as stated above was 237 from the two participant universities: the University of Ha’il and Al Jouf University. The respondents from University of Ha’il accounted for 117 respondents forming a percentage of 49.4 per cent, while the remaining 120 respondents were from Al Jouf University, which is an equivalent of 50.6 per cent of the total respondents as shown in Table 3.5 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ha’il</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>49.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al Jouf</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>237</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.8.4. Age

The distribution of respondents’ ages was as follows: (N = 86) 36.3 per cent of the respondents were between 25 to 35 years of age, (N = 120) 50.6 per cent of the respondents were between ages 36 to 50, (N = 29) 12.2 per cent were aged between 51 to 60 years of age and two participants aged above 60 years of age. Table 3.6 summarises this information on the frequency and percentages in terms of the respondents’ ages.
Table 3.6

**Age Group Profile**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25–35</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36–50</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51–60</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>237</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.8.5. Gender

The gender profile of the respondents for this research consisted of considerably more male respondents than female respondents. There were 38 female respondents, which represented 16 per cent, and 199 male respondents, which represented 84 per cent of the total sample. Table 3.7 indicates the frequency and percentages in terms of gender profile of the respondents.

Table 3.7

**Gender Profile**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>237</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.8.6. Country of Origin

The survey showed that the respondents were from 16 different nationalities. The nationality with the highest frequency was Jordan, with a percentage of 31.5 per cent (N = 63). Jordan was closely followed by Egypt as the nationality with the second highest frequency with 31 per cent (N = 62). Sudan (11 per cent), India (5 per cent) and England (4 per cent) were ranked the third, fourth and fifth, respectively. The nationalities with the least frequency were Algeria, North Ireland, Libya and Yemen, with one respondent each. Table 3.8 indicates the frequency and percentages in terms of country of origin profile of the respondents.

Table 3.8

Country Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of origin</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Ireland</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Country of origin | Frequency | Per cent |
--- | --- | --- |
Yemen | 1 | 0.5 |
South Africa | 2 | 1.0 |
Libya | 1 | 0.5 |
Palestine | 2 | 1.0 |
**Total** | **200** | **100.0** |

### 3.8.7. Spoken Language

The majority of the respondents spoke Arabic as their first language, aggregating to 81.4 per cent (N = 192) of the sample population. The English language was the second highest first spoken language with 9.7 per cent of the total sample (N = 23). The remaining 21 respondents were grouped under other native languages, which represented 8.9 per cent of the total sample. Table 3.9 indicates the collective frequency and percentages in terms of native language profile among the respondents.

Table 3.9

*Language Profile*

| Native language | Frequency | Per cent |
--- | --- | --- |
Arabic | 192 | 81.4 |
English | 23 | 9.7 |
Others | 21 | 8.9 |
**Total** | **236** | **100.0** |
3.8.8. Marital Status

From the population sample of 248 respondents, 145 (61.2 per cent) were married with their family present, 52 (21.9 per cent) were married without family being present and 40 (16.9 per cent) respondents were single. Table 3.10 shows this information indicating the frequency and percentages in terms of the marital status profile among the respondents.

Table 3.10

*Marital Status Profile*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married with family</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>61.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married without family</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>237</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.8.9. Religion

From the total sample, 94.5 per cent (N = 224) of the respondents were Muslims while the remaining 5.5 per cent were non-Muslims. Table 3.11 shows the frequency distribution and percentages in relation to the religion profile of the respondents.
Table 3.11

*Religion Profile*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religious status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>94.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Muslim</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>237</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.8.10. Highest Degree Earned

All the respondents had achieved higher education, which for purposes of this research was categorised into a doctorate, master or bachelor’s degree and others. The distribution for the highest level of education attained was as follows: 59.1 per cent (N = 140) held a doctoral degree, 27 per cent (N = 64) held a master’s degree, 13.5 per cent (N = 32) held a bachelor’s degree and only one respondent fell into the others category. Table 3.12 summarises the information on the frequency and percentages in relation to the highest academic degree earned profile among the respondents.

Table 3.12

*Highest Degree Profile*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest degree earned</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>59.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>237</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.8.11. Previous Jobs Held

The number of respondents with previous overseas experience of more than two years was N = 96 (40.7 per cent). Those with no previous experience as expatriates were N = 59, which is equivalent to a quarter of the sample. Participants who had one and two previous experiences were N = 31 (13.1 per cent) and N = 50 (21.2 per cent), respectively. Table 3.13 summarises this information on the frequency and the percentages in relation to the previous overseas experience profile of the respondents.

Table 3.13

*Previous Experience Profile*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of previous jobs held</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No previous job held</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One year experience</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two years’ experience</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than two years</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>40.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>236</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.8.12. Number of Years at Current Job

The period for which the respondents held their positions was sub-divided into four parts, which were; zero to five months, six to 11 months, one to two years and more than two years. The distribution was as follows: N = 75 (31.6 per cent) respondents had held their current jobs for more than two years, N = 74 (31.2 per cent) respondents reported that they had been there for six to 11 months, N = 65 (27.4 per cent)
participants had been in Saudi for one to two years and N = 23 (9.7 per cent) respondents had held their position for a period of five months and below. Table 3.14 summarises the respondents’ information, giving the frequency and percentages in terms of their expatriation period in Saudi Arabia.

Table 3.14

*Period of Work Profile*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current work period</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0–5 months</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6–11 months</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–2 years</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than two years</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>237</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**3.9. Quality of Data**

For the purpose of obtaining accurate results intended to be used in decision-making and planning, data quality is required. Therefore, data from respondents are required to be captured in a way that is precisely reported. In order to secure the quality of the reported data, validity and reliability were set and established by the researcher using a number of techniques. These techniques involved validity and reliability measurements, which will be explained in detail in next sections.
3.9.1. Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure (Uttl, 2005). It is vital for a test to be valid in order for the results to be accurately applied and interpreted (Uttl, 2005). Validity can be determined in number of ways that demonstrate the relationship between measures and the behaviour intended to measure (Uttl, 2005).

Although the study instrument has been previously authored and, as discussed earlier, tested, to underpin this research a field test was conducted again to ensure the survey was easily understood and devoid of any potential misinterpretation to maximise clarity. A group of five expatriate academics, who had similar characteristics to the study population, were invited to participate. Only three participants agreed and completed the field study.

First, the participants were given a package containing the study plain language statement, invitation letter, and the questionnaire with follow-up questions. These questions focused on whether the plain language statement was comprehensive, the instructions were stated clearly, the layout of the questionnaire was sensible, the questions were easy to understand, the questions were in a sequential order, and that the time to answer the questionnaire was adequate. Also, participants were asked to write any comments, and they did not recommend any changes.

The English version of the survey was accurately translated to Arabic as an option given that the majority of those surveyed were from Arabic countries. As there is no single perfect technique for translating an instrument, a variety of methods were used by the researcher. These included a back to back translating method (Arabic to English and English to Arabic) to translate the questionnaire, the plain language statement and
invitation letter. This method was used to ensure the process of replication of content was accurately translated to Arabic language and as identical as possible to the English version.

The researcher was able tocompetently translate English to Arabic, having worked as an English teacher for four years and holding a master’s degree in this field. Additionally, an expert in the field of translation was recruited to ensure the translation matched the English version. A comparison was made between the expert translation draft and the one that the researcher made by himself. This was to investigate comprehensively if there were any significant differences between the two different versions of the questionnaires. If the process was not undertaken in an accurate way, this could affect the study results and lead to unreliable findings. However, the researcher found no significant differences between either the English or Arabic version participants chose to use. Based on that observation and the careful steps taken, it is fair to claim that the validity of the translation was achieved and reflected an accurate and meaningful result.

3.9.2. Construct Validity

Construct validity insures that the theoretical concepts that a study attempts to measure are adequately and accurately assessed (Khadra & Rawabdeh, 2006). Therefore, the construct validity was examined using factor analysis. Principal components analysis was applied in this study. Principal component analysis can be described as ‘a multivariate technique that analyses a data table in which observations are described by several inter-correlated quantitative dependent variables and its goal is to extract the important information from the table, to represent it as a set of new orthogonal variables
called principal components and to display the pattern of similarity of the observations and of the variables as points in maps’ (Abdi & Williams, 2010, p. 433).

The principal components analysis consisted of three consecutive steps. The first step of the procedure involved checking the suitability of the data for factor analysis, which can be achieved by using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s tests for each scale (Leech et al., 2008). Based on the eigenvalues (isolated values), the next step was to determine the smallest number of factors that would be extracted (Leech et al., 2008). The eigenvalues represent the variance explained by the factor and only those factors that show eigenvalues greater than one are retained for the fourth analysis by using scree graph (Pallant, 2001). In this case, the scree graph was used to demonstrate the inflection point when the shape became horizontal and the factors occurring above the inflection point should be retained. The last step of the principal components analysis was to determine which items cluster together as a group by rotating the factors. Values of factor were accepted when loadings were .30 or greater (Leech et al., 2008). Results of the conducted factor analysis for the respective utilisation and competence scales are summarised in the next section.

### Table 3.15

**KMO and Bartlett’s Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling adequacy</th>
<th>0.870</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity</td>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above Table 3.15 indicates the KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity. The minimum suggested value for the KMO is .60 and, as shown, the computed KMO is 0.870. The computed KMO should be near or close to one; therefore, it indicates that the factor analysis will yield a reliable factor. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity evaluates the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. An identity matrix includes all of the diagonal elements are one and all of diagonal elements are zero. The computed p-value of .000 is highly significant; therefore, the factor analysis is appropriate from a statistical analytical perspective.
Table 3.16

*Result of the Extraction of Common Factors in Socio-cultural Adjustment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Percentage of variance</th>
<th>Cumulative percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>40.10</td>
<td>40.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>54.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td>63.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The explanation of terms used in Table 3.16 is:

**Factors**—the number of variables and initial factors are the same in factor analysis. Only the first three factors have been retained for the purpose of the study and rest of the 11 factors have been ignored.

**Eigenvalues**—the variances of factors are known as eigenvalues. The variables are standardised, since the factor analysis was conducted over the correlation matrix. The total variance is equal to the number of variables, which is 14, and each variable has a variance of one.

**Total**—the eigenvalues are presented in this column. The highest eigenvalue and the most variance are present in the first factor. The next factor will consist of the remaining variance and so on. This shows that each successive factor will have lesser variance levels.

**Percentage of variance**—the per cent of total variance for each factor is presented in this column.
Cumulative percentage—keeping an account of the preceding and current factors, the cumulative percentage of variance is presented in this column. The third row shows a value of 63.305, which states that the first three factors together make up 63.305 per cent of the total variance.

With eigenvalues greater than 1.00, it is possible to extract three factors. Using a socio-cultural adjustment scale, factors have been extracted and presented in Table 3.16. It is observed that Factor 1 accounted for 40.10 per cent of the variance, Factor 2 accounted for 14.44 per cent of the variance and Factor 3 accounted only for 8.80 per cent of the variance. Hence, the total variance of the three factors is 63.31 per cent.

![Figure 3.7: Scree plot](image)

The eigenvalue against the factor number is observed in the scree plot graph. The values of Figure 3.5 are present in the table above in the first two columns. The line is almost flat after the third factor since each successive factor is smaller than the previous of the total variance. Only those factors above the inflection point were retained. As can be deduced from the plot, factors 1, 2 and 3 accounted most for the variance and occurred above the point of inflexion and were, therefore, to be retained.
The Varimax rotation method was used to assist in the interpretation of the factors; this simple rotation yielded meaningful item groupings. Values of factor loadings .30 or above were accepted based on the rule of thumb by Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006), as shown by Table 3.6.

Table 3.17

*Rotated Factor Loadings and Eigenvalues for Three Factors of the Socio-cultural Adjustment Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA1</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA2</td>
<td>.765</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA3</td>
<td>.665</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA4</td>
<td>.640</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA5</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA6</td>
<td>.493</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA7</td>
<td>.453</td>
<td>.313</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA8</td>
<td></td>
<td>.834</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA9</td>
<td></td>
<td>.794</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA10</td>
<td></td>
<td>.774</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA11</td>
<td></td>
<td>.762</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalues</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent of variance</td>
<td>40.10</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>8.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The rotated solution indicated that Factor 1 comprised items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7, which measures cultural adjustment. Factor 2 included four items, namely 8, 9, 10 and 11, which measures interactional adjustment, and Factor 3 comprised items 12, 13 and 14, which measures work adjustment.

In short, factor analysis has confirmed that the socio-cultural adjustment scale is a multidimensional instrument. It consists of three dimensions as hypothesised by the researcher. All the items have loaded on its postulated dimensions.

### 3.9.3. Reliability Measures

If the same result is observed repeatedly, the test is considered reliable (Traub & Rowley, 1991). Reliability is a consistency of measure (Traub & Rowley, 1991). For instance, if an introversion trait is to be measured, the test should provide the same result repeatedly to be reliable. Reliability may only be estimated, it cannot be calculated exactly (Traub & Rowley, 1991). To find the gauge, test-retest reliability the survey should be conducted at two different points of time (Traub & Rowley, 1991). The consistency of the test can be measured by analysing the changes in quality or the measurement of construct (Traub & Rowley, 1991).
Table 3.18

Reliability of the SIEs’ Cultural, Interactional and Work Adjustment Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjustment Scale</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Living conditions in general</td>
<td>57.69</td>
<td>179.746</td>
<td>0.649</td>
<td>0.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing conditions</td>
<td>57.68</td>
<td>182.261</td>
<td>0.582</td>
<td>0.874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>57.37</td>
<td>184.016</td>
<td>0.535</td>
<td>0.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>57.68</td>
<td>179.898</td>
<td>0.565</td>
<td>0.875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of Living</td>
<td>57.86</td>
<td>185.563</td>
<td>0.440</td>
<td>0.881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment/recreation facilities &amp; opportunities</td>
<td>59.65</td>
<td>180.045</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>0.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health care facilities</td>
<td>58.81</td>
<td>179.198</td>
<td>0.549</td>
<td>0.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socializing with Saudi nationals</td>
<td>58.90</td>
<td>175.669</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with Saudi nationals on a day-to-day basis</td>
<td>58.32</td>
<td>175.498</td>
<td>0.649</td>
<td>0.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with Saudi nationals outside work</td>
<td>58.99</td>
<td>175.765</td>
<td>0.615</td>
<td>0.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking with Saudi nationals</td>
<td>58.50</td>
<td>176.425</td>
<td>0.607</td>
<td>0.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My specific job responsibilities</td>
<td>56.55</td>
<td>191.527</td>
<td>0.441</td>
<td>0.880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance standards and expectations of my job</td>
<td>57.06</td>
<td>185.848</td>
<td>0.482</td>
<td>0.879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisory responsibilities</td>
<td>57.18</td>
<td>185.294</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>0.877</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Presented in Table 3.18 is the reliability testing of the instrument on the SIEs’ cultural, interactional and work adjustment scale as a whole without segregating the three subdomains using Cronbach’s alpha. Lee Cronbach in 1951 introduced an alpha by providing statistics measure of the internal consistency or reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

The overall reliability of the instrument is .883, which is enough to consider that the instrument is highly reliable. The items on ‘Cost of living’, ‘my specific job responsibilities’ and ‘Performance standards and expectations of my job’ had the lowest computed correlation within the entire scale (.440, .441 and .482, respectively). However, as with the item identified in the adjustment scale, no consideration was made as to dropping these items from the scale until reliability testing could be performed.
based on the results of the pilot study outcomes. In addition, the instrument if the items are deleted, noticed that the Cronbach’s alpha changed to .881, .880 and .879, respectively. Specifically, the items, ‘Housing conditions’, ‘Food’, ‘Shopping’, ‘Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities’, ‘Health care facilities’, ‘Socialising with Saudi nationals’ and ‘My supervisory responsibilities’ had slightly higher reliability estimates than those previously discussed. The computed correlation within the entire scales of the aforementioned items are .582, .535, .565, .538, .549, .597 and .524, respectively. The computed reliability estimates of the Cronbach’s alpha of the items are .874, .876, .875, .876, .876, .873 and .877, respectively. In addition, the remaining four items had a computed correlation within the entire scale of the highest correlation coefficient estimates ranging from .607 to .649. These are the items on ‘Living conditions in general’, ‘Interacting with Saudi nationals on a day-to-day basis’, and ‘Interacting with Saudi nationals outside work ’and‘ Speaking with Saudi nationals’ Specifically, the computed Cronbach’s alpha for item on ‘Living conditions in general’ is .871, for the item ‘Interacting with Saudi nationals on a day-to-day basis’ is .871, for the item, ‘Interacting with Saudi nationals outside work’ is .872 and for the item ‘Speaking with Saudi nationals’ is .873.

Table 3.19

Reliability of the SIEs’ Cultural Adjustment Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Adjustment</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Living conditions in general</td>
<td>25.83</td>
<td>49.915</td>
<td>0.717</td>
<td>0.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing conditions</td>
<td>25.83</td>
<td>50.126</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td>0.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>25.81</td>
<td>51.764</td>
<td>0.617</td>
<td>0.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>25.82</td>
<td>49.523</td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td>0.818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of Living</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>52.222</td>
<td>0.520</td>
<td>0.836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment/recreation facilities &amp; opportunities</td>
<td>27.80</td>
<td>51.024</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>0.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health care facilities</td>
<td>26.95</td>
<td>51.480</td>
<td>0.509</td>
<td>0.839</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Encapsulated in Table 3.19 is the test determining the reliability of the sub-domain under the adjustment scale, which is the cultural adjustment. In previous research, the seven-item scale for cultural adjustment showed an acceptable overall level of reliability with an alpha result of .76. This result compared favourably with reliability results in published research of .82 (Black & Stephens, 1989). The individual items, ‘Cost of living’ and ‘Health care facilities’, showed low levels of correlation with the entire scale (.38 and 0.34, respectively). However, as with the item identified in the culture novelty scale, no consideration was made to drop these items from the scale until reliability testing could be performed based on the results of the full study, in which a much higher sample size was achieved.

In comparison with the previous results of reliability, the computed Cronbach’s alpha in the cultural adjustment scale is .85, which shows a higher result of reliability estimates compared with the previous studies (Hechanova et al., 2003; Mendenhall et al., 2002). Specifically, ‘Living conditions in general’ had a computed correlation coefficient within the entire scale of .717 with a computed Cronbach’s alpha of .807; Item 2, ‘Housing conditions’, had a correlation coefficient within the entire scale of .704 with a Cronbach’s alpha of .809; Item 3, ‘food’ had a computed correlation coefficient of .617 with a Cronbach’s alpha of .822; the items on ‘Shopping’, ‘Cost of living’, ‘Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities’ and ‘Health care facilities’ had a computed correlation within the entire item scale of .638, .520, .539, .509, respectively. The computed Cronbach’s alpha for the said items were .818, .836, .834 and .839, respectively. The scale on the cultural adjustment scale is highly reliable and there was no reason to drop any item.
Table 3.20

Reliability of the SIEs’ Interactional Adjustment Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interactional Adjustment</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socializing with Saudi nationals</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>22.511</td>
<td>0.779</td>
<td>0.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with Saudi nationals on a day-to-day basis</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>23.582</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>0.879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with Saudi nationals outside work</td>
<td>11.69</td>
<td>22.598</td>
<td>0.804</td>
<td>0.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking with Saudi nationals</td>
<td>11.21</td>
<td>23.061</td>
<td>0.778</td>
<td>0.877</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Presented in Table 3.20 is the reliability estimates computed in the SIEs’ interactional adjustment scales. It is shown that the reliability estimates of the interactional adjustment scale is .90, which is much higher than the reliability estimates computed in the previous study by Black et al. (1991). However, this instrument has four items, unlike the previous, which has only three items. The three-item interaction adjustment scale showed a strong level of reliability with a reported alpha of .83. This result was comparable to earlier research that reported an alpha of .89 (Black & Stephens, 1989). All individual items on this scale showed acceptable to strong levels of reliability.

The correlation of each interactional adjustment scale has been established through the use of data from Table 3.20. The entire scales ranges from .77 to .80 with a corresponding Cronbach’s alpha reliability of .867 to .879. Specifically, the item on ‘Socialising with Saudi nationals’ had a computed correlation coefficient estimate of .779 and had a corresponding Cronbach’s alpha of .876; Item 2, ‘Interacting with Saudi nationals on a day-to-day basis’ had .771 correlations within the entire scale and had a corresponding reliability of .879. The computed correlation in the item ‘Interacting with Saudi nationals outside work’ is .804 within the entire scale and the computed Cronbach’s alpha reliability is .867; last, the computed correlation coefficient
within the entire interactional adjust scale for the item on ‘Speaking with Saudi nationals’ is .778 with Cronbach’s alpha reliability estimates of .877.

Table 3.21

Reliability of the SIEs’ Work Adjustment Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Adjustment</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My specific job responsibilities</td>
<td>10.65</td>
<td>6.854</td>
<td>0.521</td>
<td>0.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance standards and expectations of my job</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>5.488</td>
<td>0.553</td>
<td>0.632</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisory responsibilities</td>
<td>11.30</td>
<td>5.709</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td>0.600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The test of reliability for the SIEs’ work adjustment scales is presented in Table 3.21. This Table shows that the computed reliability estimate using the Cronbach’s alpha reliability is .72, which is sufficient to conclude that the scale is reliable.

Previous reliability estimates on the same work adjustment scale composed of three items for work adjustment reported an acceptable level of reliability with an alpha of .79 (Black & Stephens, 1989). This result was slightly lower than earlier reports of reliability at .91 (Black & Stephens, 1989). However, the reported alpha of .79 is still well within the acceptable levels of reliability (Black & Stephens, 1989). All individual items on this scale showed acceptable to strong levels of reliability. Although the computed reliability of .72 for the current research has lesser value of reliability, still we can conclude that the instrument falls within the acceptable level of reliability. Specifically, the item ‘My specific job responsibilities’ had a computed correlations within the entire scale of 0.521 with a Cronbach’s alpha of .671; .553 is the computed correlation coefficient within the entire scale for the item ‘Performance standards and expectations of my job’, with a Cronbach’s alpha reliability estimate of .632; and last,
the item on ‘My supervisory responsibilities’ had a computed correlation coefficient within the entire scale of .575 and has a computed Cronbach’s alpha reliability of .600.

Table 3.22

Reliability of the Cultural Distance/Novelty Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural Distance/Novelty</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item-Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Everyday customs that must be followed</td>
<td>19.83</td>
<td>31.037</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General living conditions</td>
<td>19.99</td>
<td>30.972</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>0.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using health care facilities</td>
<td>20.24</td>
<td>31.475</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td>0.797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation systems used in Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>21.33</td>
<td>32.127</td>
<td>0.480</td>
<td>0.806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General living costs</td>
<td>20.43</td>
<td>32.652</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td>0.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Available quality and types of foods</td>
<td>19.87</td>
<td>32.030</td>
<td>0.533</td>
<td>0.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate</td>
<td>20.65</td>
<td>32.644</td>
<td>0.430</td>
<td>0.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General housing conditions</td>
<td>20.08</td>
<td>32.281</td>
<td>0.555</td>
<td>0.795</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s alpha results for the test shown in Table 3.22 in the items specifically relating to cultural distance are reliable. In Table 3.22, the computed reliability estimates for the cultural distance is .82, which can be considered acceptable as the item on the scale again reflects a sound level of reliability. In contrast to the previous conduct of reliability by the previous researchers, the eight-item cultural distance scale showed a strong overall reliability value for Cronbach’s alpha with a score of .88. This score favourably compared with those previously reported in published research, which ranged from .78 to .88 (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Shaffer et al., 1999; Takeuchi et al., 2002; Van Vianen et al., 2004). The computed reliability for the cultural distance is incomparable with the reliability estimate conducted by Black et al. (1991), Shaffer et al. (1999), Takeuchi et al. (2002) and Van Vianen et al. (Rau-Foster & Dutka, 2004). The individual item ‘Everyday customs that must be followed’ showed a low level of correlation with the entire scale (.32).
Table 3.22 shows that there are three items in the scale with the lowest correlation coefficient within the entire scale; however, there remains insufficient evidence to drop the items since the reliability scores of the items still comply with the acceptable level of reliability. The item ‘General living conditions’ has the highest computed correlation coefficient within the entire scale of .698 and has a Cronbach’s alpha reliability estimate of .777. The items ‘Everyday customs that must be followed’, ‘Using the health care system’, ‘Transportation systems used in Saudi Arabia’, ‘General living costs’, ‘Available quality and types of food’, ‘Climate’ and ‘General housing conditions’ had a corresponding correlation coefficient within the entire scale of .597, .544, .480, .487, .533, .430 and .555, respectively. The computed Cronbach’s alpha for the item ‘Everyday customs that must be followed’ is .789; the computed Cronbach’s alpha for the item ‘General living conditions’ is .777; the computed Cronbach’s alpha for the item ‘Using health care facilities’ is .797, and there is .806 for the Cronbach’s alpha reliability estimate for the item ‘Transportation system used in Saudi Arabia’. The computed Cronbach’s alpha for the item, ‘General living costs’ is .804; for the ‘available quality and types of foods’ is .798; for the ‘climate’ is .814 and the Cronbach’s alpha reliability estimate for the item ‘General housing conditions’ is .795.

3.10. Data Analysis

For the purpose of this study, the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) computer programme for Windows was used. In all tests of the hypotheses, the 0.05 confidence level was used for determining statistical significance. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used in the study. Frequency distributions tables were
constructed to portray the findings in tabular forms. This system can be used to collect, tabulate, analyse and present the data in a more systematic way and for ease in visualisation of analysis. Percentages were also computed and can be seen in the frequency distribution to get the percentage allocation of each item. Weighted mean was also used to get the level of the answers of the participants on each item. To test the significant relationship when data were ordinal, the Spearman rho and Pearson correlation tests were used. The statistical tools applied to this particular study were enumerated and discussed carefully for clearer understanding and relevance to the study undertaken. Independent t-tests and ANOVA were also used to test if there were significant differences between the three or more variables. In addition, simple linear regression was applied to examine the model of this study. The instrument was administered by the researcher and hand-scored following the administration and scoring guidelines set forth by the research instrument.

Specifically, to describe the profile of the participants, frequency and percentages were used. Mean and standard deviations were also calculated if necessary. To describe the responses of the participants to the factors or instruments developed by Black and Stephens (1989), a weighted mean, mode and/or standard deviations was applied. To answer the inferential questions in the study or the exploratory questions, a Spearman rho test, independent t-test for two groups of variables and ANOVA test were used for three or more groups of variables used.

3.11. Normality Testing

Statistical testing requires that the data may be assessed for normality, and in the case of parametric testing it is not only a prerequisite but a required assumption (Giles &
Kipling, 2003). If this assumption is not present, the statistician or the researcher should not carry out the test and the counterpart for the non-parametric statistics should be used (Giles & Kipling, 2003). Numerical testing like the Shapiro-Wilks test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test should be used for normality testing (Giles & Kipling, 2003).
Table 3.23

**Normality Testing for the Overall SIEs’ Socio-cultural Adjustment Based on the Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic characteristics</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic df Sig.</td>
<td>Statistic df Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.048 199 .200</td>
<td>0.993 199 .531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0.118 38 .200</td>
<td>0.954 38 .116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>0.062 192 .074</td>
<td>0.994 192 .571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>0.101 23 .200</td>
<td>0.940 23 .182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0.146 21 .200</td>
<td>0.934 21 .166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married with family</td>
<td>0.066 147 .200</td>
<td>0.993 147 .745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married without family</td>
<td>0.096 52 .200</td>
<td>0.954 52 .041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>0.066 38 .200</td>
<td>0.973 38 .486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age Group</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–35</td>
<td>0.059 86 .200</td>
<td>0.992 86 .886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 = 50</td>
<td>0.062 120 .200</td>
<td>0.991 120 .649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51–60</td>
<td>0.131 29 .200</td>
<td>0.956 29 .255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>0.260 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religion</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>0.053 224 .200</td>
<td>0.994 224 .446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Muslim</td>
<td>0.154 13 .200</td>
<td>0.954 13 .658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic characteristics</td>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest Degree Earned</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>0.118</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table presents the results from two well-known tests of normality, namely the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test. The Shapiro-Wilk test is more appropriate for small sample sizes (< 50 samples) but can also handle sample sizes as large as 2,000.

Table 3.23 presents the different demographic characteristics of the respondents wherein their overall SIE socio-cultural adjustment has been placed in normality testing. Included in the demographic characteristics are the gender, language, marital status, age group, religion and highest degree earned. The computed p-value for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for the demographic profiles is greater than 0.05, which means it is not significant. It is concluded that the data are approximately normal distributed. The same findings are yielded when the Shapiro-Wilks test is used, with no traces of non-normality. Therefore, the independent t-test, ANOVA and other statistical tests like the Chi-square can be used to answer the problems posed for investigation. The assumption of normality has been met and, therefore, such tests are very much appropriate.
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter contains the presentation of the results from the research detailing the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the 248 academics (of which 237 were valid) who responded to the survey. The first section of this chapter opens with the presentation of the profile of the participants of this study. It then covers information on the response rate in relation to the number of questionnaires issued. Demographic details such as the participants’/informants’ university is provided, plus age, gender, country of origin, native language, marital status, religion, highest degree held, number of previous jobs held and number of years at the current employment.

The second section in this chapter discusses the participant’s responses to each of the items in the questionnaire developed by Black and Stephens (1989)—see Chapter 3. Broadly, this questionnaire aimed to measure the adjustment of expatriates as outlined fully in Chapter 3. Data transformation is conducted in this section and the scales and levels derived are outlined with clear illustrations using charts and commentary. The third section explains the inferential analysis of the relationships and differences and this term is defined below. The research questions are used in this last part to show the analysis and what correlation was formed between the independent variables and the dependent variables.
**4.2. Data Transformation**

A transformation of data was conducted to explain important factors pertinent to this study. Considering this an important step, data obtained from respondents would be classified into three categories, namely high, moderate or low adjustment levels. In order to achieve a proper scale categorisation, a few procedures needed to be completed. These procedures were determining the minimum and maximum score for each scale, identifying the range of each scale or dimension, calculating the interval width (class interval) and arranging the scores into the appropriate and validated categories according to the labelled levels (Gaur & Gaur, 2009).

Determination of the minimum and maximum score for each scale was the first step. Two values were defined when collecting the minimum and maximum score, which were the lowest and highest values dependent on the Likert scale. However, the overall adjustment had a seven-point Likert scale, with one and seven as the minimum and maximum scores, respectively. Conversely, the overall cultural distance had a five-point Likert scale, with one and five as the minimum and maximum scores, respectively.

**Table 4.11**

*Minimum and Maximum Score for Each Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Likert scale</th>
<th>Minimum score</th>
<th>Maximum score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall adjustment</td>
<td>7 points</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall cultural distance</td>
<td>5 points</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second step was identifying the range of each scale. This was achieved by calculating the difference between the maximum and minimum score for each
dimension as shown in the formula below. Table 4.12 shows the range obtained for each scale. Range = maximum score to minimum score.

Table 4.12

*Range Calculation for Each Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Maximum score</th>
<th>Minimum score</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Adjustment</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Cultural Distance</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third step was the determination of the interval width (class interval) of each scale, which was achieved by dividing the scores into three equal size groups as high, moderate and low. As a result, the range value of each group was divided by the number of categories (high, moderate and low) in order to calculate the interval width. The following expresses the formula of the interval width and Table 4.13 expresses the range and the interval width of each scale. Interval width = the range of each scale ÷ 3.

Table 4.13

*Interval Width for Each Scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>The range max to min</th>
<th>Interval width</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall adjustment</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall cultural distance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* The quotient is calculated to the nearest integer.

Last, dividing each scale based on its interval width came as the final step. Based on the classified categorises, scores that were below 25 per cent were considered low level,
scores ranging from 25 per cent to 75 per cent as moderate level and those above 75 per cent were categorised as high level.

Table 4.14

*Indication of Levels by Score Categorisation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score category</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above 75 per cent from the score</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 25 per cent and 75 per cent from the score</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 25 per cent from the score</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of these levels had two boundaries: a lower and an upper level boundary. The value of the minimum score was considered the beginning for identifying the lower boundary of the low level. The upper boundary was obtained as follows: Upper boundary = minimum score + interval width.

The value of the upper boundary in the low level formed the lower boundary of the second level (moderate). Using the formula above, the upper level for the moderate level was determined. To determine the lower and upper boundaries for the high level, a similar process is carried out for the moderate level. Last, the scores were categorised according to levels for each dimension as illustrated in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15

*Categorisation of Scores According to Dimension Levels*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall adjustment</td>
<td>1–3</td>
<td>3.01–5.01</td>
<td>5.02–7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3. Descriptive Analysis of Socio-cultural Adjustment

The socio-cultural adjustment that the expatriate academics surveyed experienced constituted a dependent variable. This adjustment of expatriate academics was measured by a scale consisting of 14 items, which were divided into three subscales: cultural (seven items), interactional (four items) and work (three items). The mean for each sub-scale was determined by adding the scores of the items and dividing it by the number of these items for each sub-scale. The minimum score obtained from the respondent was 1.0, while the maximum score was 7.0. Scores considered in the low level had a mean ranging from 1.0 to 3.0, those in the moderated level of adjustment had a mean ranging from 3.01 to 5.01 and the high level of adjustment had mean scores ranging between 5.02 and 7.0.

The descriptive analysis of the socio-cultural adjustment scale provides valuable information in favour of expatriate academics’ cultural, interactional and work adjustment. The overall socio-adjustment of expatriate academics yielded a mean score of 4.45, which is a value in the moderate level of adjustment. This was interpreted to mean that expatriate academics adjusted at a moderate level as two-thirds came from Jordan and Egypt, which are neighbour countries. Table 4.16 indicates that the work adjustment sub-scale mean was 5.52, which is a value in the high level of adjustment. However, the cultural adjustment and interactional adjustment sub-scale means were 4.40 and 3.80, respectively, which fell within the moderate levels of adjustment.
Table 4.16

Means and Standard Deviations of the Socio-cultural Adjustment Sub-scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjustment scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural adjustment</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional adjustment</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work adjustment</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall adjustment</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further descriptive analysis is presented in Table 4.17 concerning means and standard deviations of the respondents self-reporting from the participating universities regarding socio-cultural sub-scale items. The analysis included seven items for the cultural adjustment sub-scale, four items for the interactional adjustment sub-scale and three items for the work adjustment sub-scale. Most of the cultural adjustment sub-scale items scored a mean at the moderate level of adjustment. The computed mean of 5.10 for the ‘Food’ item was the highest in the moderate level. The other items in the moderate level were ‘Living condition in general’, ‘Housing condition’ and ‘Shopping’, with a mean score of 4.79 each. However, the item ‘Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities’ had a low level of adjustment with a mean of 2.83.

Items of the interactional adjustment sub-scale had a moderate level of adjustment with the item ‘Interacting with Saudi nationals on a day-to-day basis’ having the highest mean of 4.15. Noticeably, all means of the work adjustment sub-scale items were above 5.02, which in sequence represented a high level of adjustment. The item ‘My specific job responsibilities’ had the highest scored mean of 5.91.
Table 4.17

*Cultural, Interactional and Work Adjustment Means and Standard Deviations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjustment scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural adjustment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living conditions in general</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing conditions</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>1.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of Living</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health care facilities</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.766</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interactional adjustment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialising with Saudi nationals</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with Saudi nationals on a day-to-day basis</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interacting with Saudi nationals outside work</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking with Saudi nationals</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work adjustment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My specific job responsibilities</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>1.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance standards and expectations of my job</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>1.549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisory responsibilities</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>1.468</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.4. Descriptive Analysis of Cultural Distance**

The cultural distance of the expatriate academics constituted an independent variable for the study—cultural distance being the extent to which the culture of the home country varies from that of the host country (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1984). The cultural
distance between expatriate academics’ own cultures and host culture (Saudi culture) was measured by a scale of eight items. The mean was determined by adding the scores for the items and dividing by the number of these items for the whole scale. The minimum and maximum score obtained was 1.0 and 5.0, respectively. Scores that were considered low level cultural distance had a mean ranging from 1 to 2.33, the moderated level cultural distance had a mean ranging from 2.34 to 3.67, while the high level cultural distance had a mean ranging between 3.68 and 5. The descriptive analysis of the cultural distance scale provides valuable information in favour of level of distance between expatriate academics’ culture and the host culture. The overall cultural distance scale for expatriate academics had a mean score of 2.90, which fell in the moderated level of cultural distance as shown in Table 4.18. This appears be an indication that the expatriate academics surveyed may have extensive cultural similarities emanating from their home country that are reflected in the host culture.

Table 4.18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjustment scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall cultural distance</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further descriptive analysis of cultural distance is presented in Table 4.19 concerning means and standard deviations with the respondents self-reporting each item that described similarities and differences between the home and Saudi culture. The item ‘Everyday customs that that must be followed’ had a highest computed mean score of 3.38 with a standard deviation of 1.211. The computed mean for the ‘General living conditions’ was 3.21 with a standard deviation of 1.093. The computed mean score for the item ‘Using health care facilities’ was 3.00 with a standard deviation of 1.220. The
computed mean for the item ‘Transportation systems used in Saudi Arabia’ was 1.90 and standard deviations of 1.261, which can be used as an indicator of lack of a proper public transportation system in Saudi in comparison to what the expatriates have in their home countries.

Table 4.19

*Cultural Distance Means and Standard Deviations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural distance/novelty</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Everyday customs that must be followed</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General living conditions</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using health care facilities</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation systems used in Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General living costs</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Available quality and types of foods</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General housing conditions</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.137</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.5. Inferential Analysis

The results of the analysis are presented in a manner that is based on the research questions postulated in the previous chapter. In order to obtain the most accurate results, the SPSS was used for analysis. The purpose of analysing data in any study is to describe the data in meaningful terms. Statistics help to answer important research questions and it is the answers to such questions that foster understanding of the field and topic of study. This research has developed an understanding and use of the ‘tools’ suitable for this particular research study, accounting for the variables identified, the
design of this particular study and the number of statistical techniques available to analyse the data.

To determine whether there is a strong correlation existing among the variables, a Pearson Product-Moment correlation was applied for the analysis of the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Cohen’s (1988) guidelines were used to interpret the magnitude of the relationship as shown in the Table 4.20. Independent variables having a small strength relationship (r < .29) were eliminated from the multiple regression analysis based on Cohen’s guidelines.

Table 4.20

*Guidelines to Interpret the Strength of Correlation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation coefficient (r)</th>
<th>Strength of relationship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>r = .10 to .29</td>
<td>Small strength</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r = .30 to .49</td>
<td>Medium strength</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r = .50 to 1.0</td>
<td>Large strength</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Cohen (1988, p.120)

4.6. Research Question 1

What is the influence of cultural distance on SIEs’ cultural, interactional, work and overall adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?

The first research question was designed to determine the relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ cultural, interactional, work adjustment and overall adjustment. There were four null hypotheses formed in this question:
H₀₁ₐ: There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ cultural adjustment.

H₀₁₉: There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ interactional adjustment.

H₀₁₇: There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ work adjustment.

H₀₁₅: There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ overall adjustment.

Three underlying assumptions must be addressed before running the correlation analysis, which includes scale of measurement, normality and linearity. The variables scores were the five-point and the seven-point Likert scale. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), a five-point Likert scale and above should be treated as the interval. This way, the first assumption was automatically fulfilled. The second assumption of normality distribution data was met by all variables. The values of skewed data for cultural distance, cultural adjustment, interactional adjustment and work adjustment were .132, -.04, .166 and -.859, respectively, all of which were between +1 and -1. Leech et al. (2008) asserted that the skewed data value should remain below +/- 1 for a variable to be at least approximately normal. Hence, there was no need for transformation of the variable. The distributions of all four variable scores were considerably normal. In addition, the linearity assumption was checked using the matrix scatter plots for all variables in this question. There was no curve shape appearing in the matrix, which indicated that the linearity assumption was met for all variables.

In order to test the hypothesis on the relationship between cultural distance and sociocultural adjustment factors (e.g., cultural, interactional and work adjustment), the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient test was conducted to determine the nature and the direction of the relationship between the dependent and independent
variables. The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation for both dependent and independent variables are shown in Table 4.21.

First, the correlation matrix revealed that there was a negative and significant relationship between the cultural distance and the SIEs’ cultural adjustment ($r = -0.529$, $p = .001$). Based on this result, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis, $H_{0a}$ (there is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ cultural adjustment) was accepted. The strength of the relationship between cultural distance and the SIEs’ cultural adjustment was considered strong ($r \geq 0.50$) (Cohen, 1988).

Second, the correlation matrix also revealed that there was a negative and significant relationship between the cultural distance and the SIEs’ interactional adjustment ($r = -0.336$, $p = .001$). Based on this result, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis, $H_{0b}$ (there is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ interactional adjustment), was accepted. Based on Cohen’s (1988) guidelines, the strength of the relationship between the cultural distance and the SIEs interactional adjustment was considered of medium strength ($0.30 \leq r \geq 0.49$).

The third key point is that the computed Pearson product-moment correlation value for the work adjustment and cultural distance was -0.248 with a p-value of 0.001. This suggested that the relationship between the two variables was negative. Thus, null hypothesis $H_{0c}$ (there is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ work adjustment) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis, $H_{2c}$ (there is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ work adjustment), was accepted. The strength of the relationship between the cultural distance and the SIEs’ work adjustment
was considered small (.10 ≤ r ≥ .29) (Cohen, 1988). Finally, there was also a negative and significant relationship between the cultural distance and the SIEs’ overall adjustment (r = -.505, p = .001). Based on this result, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis, H_o,2d (there is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ overall adjustment), was accepted. The strength of the relationship between cultural distance and the SIEs’ cultural adjustment had to be considered large (r ≥ .50) based on Cohen’s (1988) guidelines.

Table 4.21

Pearson’s Correlation Coefficients for Correlation between the Cultural Distance and the Socio-cultural Adjustment Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-initiated socio-cultural adjustment</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural adjustment</td>
<td>-.529*</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional adjustment</td>
<td>-.336*</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work adjustment</td>
<td>-.248*</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall adjustment</td>
<td>-.505*</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. **p<.01, two-tailed

4.7. Research Question 2

What is the influence of previous work experience on SIEs’ cultural, interactional and work adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?

The second research question was designed to determine the relationship between previous work experience on SIEs’ cultural, interactional, work adjustment and overall adjustment. There were four null hypotheses formed in this question:
**H₀2a:** There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ cultural adjustment.

**H₀2b:** There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ interactional adjustment.

**H₀2c:** There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ work adjustment.

**H₀2d:** There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ overall adjustment.

The purpose of research question two was to determine if there was a significant association that existed between the previous work experience and the SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment among the participants within this study in terms of the cultural adjustment, interactional adjustment and work adjustment. A Spearman rho statistic test was used to determine the significance of relationship between the variables. Spearman’s rho is a measure of a linear relationship between two variables. It differs from Pearson’s correlation in that the computations are done after the numbers are converted to ranks (Uttl, 2005).

The relationship between the previous job held and the overall self-initiated socio-cultural adjustment was examined and the Spearman’s rho was calculated to yield the results, \( r_s (234) = -0.026, p = 0.688 \), which indicated no significant relationship between previous job held and the overall adjustment. The correlation coefficients for the other variables were: between the previous job held and the cultural adjustment \( r_s (234) = -0.071, p = 0.281 \), for the interactional adjustment \( r_s (234) = 0.060, p = 0.359 \) and for work adjustment \( r_s (234) = 0.019, p = 0.774 \). The p-value computed for the said adjustment scales was greater than the threshold value of 0.05. This indicated that the
null hypothesis was accepted and concluded that there was no significant relationship existing between the previous job held and the cultural adjustment, interactional adjustment and work adjustment as shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22

*Spearman Rho Test results of Relationship between Previous Work Experience and the Socio-cultural Adjustment Factors*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural adjustment</td>
<td>-0.071</td>
<td>0.281</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional adjustment</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work adjustment</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall adjustment</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>0.688</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.8. Research Question 3**

Do demographic variables (gender, language, marital status, age, religion, higher education status) present significant differences to SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?

The third research question was designed to determine the differences between sets of demographic variables and SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment. There were six null hypotheses formed under this question:

**H₀,3a**: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on gender.
$H_{0b}$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on language.

$H_{0c}$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on marital status.

$H_{0d}$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on age grouping.

$H_{0e}$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on religion.

$H_{0f}$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on higher education status.

The aim of this question was to determine if there was a significant difference in the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on the demographic characteristics such as gender, language, marital status, age group, religion and higher education status. An independent t-test was used to test the difference in the mean between the two groups of variables such as gender and religion. ANOVA was used to test the difference in the mean of more than two groups of variables as shown in Table 4.23.
Table 4.23

*Test of Difference in the Overall SIEs’ Socio-cultural Adjustment Based on the Demographic Characteristics*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic characteristics</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Test statistic</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>4.4888</td>
<td><strong>T</strong> = 1.331</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.2453</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>4.4456</td>
<td><strong>F</strong> = 0.096</td>
<td>2,233</td>
<td>0.909</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5374</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.4129</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.4517</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>4.4918</td>
<td><strong>F</strong> = 1.118</td>
<td>2,234</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.2633</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5421</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.4497</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age group</td>
<td>4.3300</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.5308</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.3155</td>
<td><strong>F</strong> = 4.039</td>
<td>3,233</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td><strong>Significant</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.6800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.4497</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>4.4542</td>
<td><strong>T</strong> = 0.271</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>0.786</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.3738</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education status</td>
<td>4.5451</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.2241</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.4553</td>
<td><strong>F</strong> = 1.684</td>
<td>3,233</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.3600</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.4497</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.8.1. Gender

The computed mean score for gender of the participants was 4.4888 for the males and 4.2453 for the females. This yielded a t-statistic value of 1.331 with 235 degrees of freedom and a p-value of 0.18. As a result, the null hypothesis was accepted and a
conclusion made that there was no significant difference in the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on gender of the participant.

4.8.2. Language

For the language of the respondents, the computed mean score of the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment to the Arabic language was 4.4456, the survey for English language speakers yielded 4.5374 and for the other language speakers the result was 4.4129, which resulted in an F-value of 0.096 with degrees of freedom of two and 233. The computed p-value was 0.909, which led to accepting the null hypothesis and concluding that there was no significant difference between the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustments when the participants are grouped according to languages.

4.8.3. Marital Status

The computed mean score of the marital status of the participants in the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment was 4.4918 for ‘Married with family’, 4.2633 for ‘Married without family’ and 4.5421 for ‘Single’, which resulted in a computed F-ratio statistic of 1.118 with computed degrees of freedom of two and 234. The computed p-value for the marital status was 0.329, which justified accepting the null hypothesis. This indicated that there was no significant difference existing in the mean of the different groups of marital status regarding the score in the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on marital status.
4.8.4. Age Group

Looking at the age group of the participants, the computed mean score of the group of persons aged from 25 to 35 years was 4.3300, 4.5308 for persons in the 36 to 50 age group, 4.3155 for the 51 to 60 age group and 6.6800 for 61 years regarding the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment. The computed mean for the different age groups resulted in an F-value of 4.039 with degrees of freedom of three and 233. The computed p-value for the age group of the respondents was 0.008, which led to the rejection of the null hypothesis and conclusion that there was a significant difference in the mean score of the different age groups on the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment. Since the significant difference was noticed, the Scheffe test post hoc analysis was used. The Scheffe test post hoc analysis key finding based on this study’s research results was that the age group of respondents aged over 60 years of age was significantly different from other age groups.

4.8.5. Religion

For the religion of the respondents, the computed mean score of the Muslims in the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment was 4.4542 and 4.3738 for the non-Muslims. Both mean scores yielded a t-statistic of 0.271 with a degree of freedom of 235. The mean score computed for the Muslims and non-Muslims was 0.786, which was higher than the threshold value of 0.05. Since the computed p-value was greater than the threshold value of 0.05, the null hypothesis was accepted and it was concluded that there was no significant difference in the mean score of the participant’s religion in the overall SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment.
4.8.6. Higher Education Status

Last, the computed mean score in the SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment based on higher education status of the doctorate degree holders was 4.5451, master’s degree holders was 4.2241, bachelor’s degree holders was 4.4553 and for the single other degree holders it was 5.3600. The computed mean score resulted in an F-ratio statistic of 1.684 with degrees of freedom of three and 233. The computed p-value was 0.171, which was greater than the threshold value of 0.05. This led to the acceptance of the null hypothesis, concluding that there was no significant difference in the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on higher education status.

4.9. Research Question 4

To what extent is Black et al.’s (1991) research model applicable to SIE academics in terms of cultural, interactional and work adjustment in Saudi Arabia?

The null hypothesis (H₀4) was formulated to guide this investigation:

H₀4: Levels of previous work experience and cultural distance do not significantly predict SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment.

As shown in the above postulation, initially the researcher had hypothesised that the two independent variables may predict SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment. However, the correlation analysis revealed that previous work experience was not significantly related to the socio-cultural adjustment variable. For this reason, this variable was not subjected to further analysis. Consequently, simple linear regression was used to answer this question. According to Leech et al. (2008), simple linear regression is more appropriate
when the researcher plans to make a prediction for one variable over another. The assumption of normality has been met for two variables: cultural distance and overall socio-cultural adjustment.

The value of the correlation coefficient (r) in the model explains the relationship between the observed value of socio-cultural adjustment and its predicted value so that if the possible value of r approaches one, the predictor can predict the dependent variable. It can be observed from Table 4.24 that the r value of socio-cultural adjustment was .505, which suggested that the predictor (cultural distance) sufficiently predicted the socio-cultural adjustment.

Table 4.24

*Simple Linear Regression on Predictor of Overall Socio-cultural Adjustment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>$r^2$</th>
<th>$\delta r^2$</th>
<th>F Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural distance</td>
<td>.505</td>
<td>.255</td>
<td>.252</td>
<td>$F (1,235) = 80.4, p &lt; .001$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The squared multiple correlation ($r^2$) provided information about the amount of variance of the dependent variable explained by the independent variable. In the case of this model, the obtained $r^2$ was .255 [$F (1,235) = 80.4, p < .001$]. This value indicated that 25.5 per cent of the variance in socio-cultural adjustment could be explained by the cultural distance. According to Cohen (1988), this constitutes a small effect. The remaining 74.5 per cent of the variance known as the residual variance was not accounted for in the regression model and measured 1- $r^2$.

ANOVA tests whether the model in the regression analysis was significantly better at predicting the outcome than using the mean as a ‘best guess’. Table 4.24 shows that the
computed p-value for the model was .001, which was generally less than the threshold value of 0.05, hence suggesting that the final model significantly improved the ability to predict the outcome variable. In other words, the cultural distance variable significantly predicted overall socio-cultural adjustment.

In order to determine the individual contribution of certain variables in the model, beta weight (β) was tested, as shown in Table 4.25. In the simple linear regression, β value means the association between the independent variable and dependent variable. In this study, the relationship between an individual’s cultural distance and an individual’s socio-cultural adjustment was -.51, which means that as the individual’s cultural distance increased, the individual’s socio-cultural adjustment decreased. Table 4.25 also provides the t value and level of significance for the independent variable, indicating whether the variable is significantly contributing to the equation predicting the overall socio-cultural adjustment from the predictor or not. The β weight for cultural distance measures -.51 and is significant at an alpha level of .01. This means that the cultural distance variable contributes significantly to overall socio-cultural adjustment at a level of significance of .01.

Table 4.25

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE. B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural distance</td>
<td>-.67</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.51</td>
<td>-8.97**</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>11.2**</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The value of the constant B was the y axis intercept; in other words, B value is the value of y when x = 0. In this study, the constant B was 2.5, which can be interpreted to mean
that when there is no difference between the individual’s culture and Saudi culture (i.e., when \( x = 0 \)), the model predicts that 2.5 units in the individual’s cultural adjustment will be changed. In addition, Table 4.25 provides a B value for the cultural distance variable \((b_1)\). It is the slope of the best-fit line or regression line, which represents the rate of change in y axis for one unit change in x axis.

Figure 4.1. Predictor of socio-cultural adjustment; **p<.01

Using the un-standardised coefficients labelled ‘B’ in the Table (4.25), a regression equation was founded. The equation consists of the constant, cultural distance and a residual value:

\[
(\hat{Y}) = 2.5 - .67 (CD) + e
\]

where:

\( \hat{Y} \) = Predicted socio-cultural adjustment scores

Constant = 2.5

CD = Cultural distance

\( e \) = Residual

The regression equation shows that for every unit of increase in cultural distance, the socio-cultural adjustment rate will decrease by .67 units. With this regression equation, it is possible to predict individual socio-cultural adjustment scores. For example, if the
cultural distance between an individual’s culture and Saudi society culture is one (‘Very different’ as measured by the scale of this study), the socio-cultural adjustment score is predicted to be 1.83, which means the individual will be considered a person who has not adjusted to the new culture or is experiencing difficulties (as measured by the scale of this study). Figure 4.2 displays the regression line based on the equation.

\[
\hat{Y} = 2.5 - 0.67 \times CD
\]

\[
\hat{Y} = 2.5 - 0.67 = 1.82
\]

Figure 4.2. The regression line based on the equation of the predictor of socio-cultural adjustment

4.10. Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to present the statistical analysis of the collected data for further interpretation. The sample for this study was SIE academic staff working in two universities in Saudi Arabia. Descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted in order to determine SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment experiences and factors that might be
significant. Demographics were discussed using descriptive statistics. The analysis of participants’ demographics showed that two-thirds were above 36 years old, men were the dominant gender, two-thirds came from two neighbouring countries with the majority speaking Arabic, nearly two-thirds were married with family and respondents were mostly Muslim. A doctoral qualification was the most frequent qualification and three-quarters of the validated respondents had previous experience.

The research revealed, in relation to the first research question, that there was a negative and significant relationship between cultural distance and the SIEs’ cultural adjustment and interactional adjustment. The relationship between cultural distance and the SIEs’ work adjustment was also negative, but it was considered weak—thus being an almost negligible outcome. Overall, the relationship between cultural distance and the SIEs’ overall adjustment was negative and the strength of this relationship was significant.

In relation to the second question, the research revealed that there was no significant relationship existing between the previous job held and the cultural adjustment, interactional adjustment and work adjustment. The results revealed that there was no significant difference in the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on gender, language, marital status and religion, hence answering the third question. However, there was a significant difference in the mean score of the different age groups on the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment. Last, the correlation analysis revealed that previous work experience was not significantly related to the socio-cultural adjustment variable. However, cultural distance could be used sufficiently to predict the socio-cultural adjustment.
In relation to the inferential analysis, the aggregated data revealed that four of the 13 alternative hypotheses were fully supported and one alternative hypothesis was partially supported. The cultural distance independent variable was found to be significantly related to the three dependent variables and overall socio-cultural adjustment. Interestingly, the computed mean for the control variable, age groups, might be influential on the three facets of socio-cultural adjustment.

Findings of the present study provide rich material as a basis for examining the research questions. Further discussion and implications of these and other results in this chapter are presented in the next chapter.

Table 4.25

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tested Hypothesis</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$H_o1a$: There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ cultural adjustment.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_o1b$: There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ interactional adjustment.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_o1c$: There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ work adjustment.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_o1d$: There is no relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ overall adjustment.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_o2a$: There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ cultural adjustment.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_o2b$: There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ interactional adjustment.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$H_o2c$: There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ overall adjustment.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
work adjustment.

| $H_0 2d$: There is no relationship between previous work experience and SIEs’ overall adjustment. | Accepted |
| $H_0 3a$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on gender. | Accepted |
| $H_0 3b$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on language. | Accepted |
| $H_0 3c$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on marital status. | Accepted |
| $H_0 3d$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on age grouping. | Rejected |
| $H_0 3e$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on religion. | Accepted |
| $H_0 3f$: There is no significant difference in SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on higher education status. | Accepted |
| $H_0 4$: Levels of previous work experience and cultural distance do not significantly predict SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment. | Rejected |
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This chapter presents an analysis of the results of the study and discusses how the results, when taken together, answer the overall question as well as present a commentary on how the findings agree with or contrast from the extensive expatriate adjustment literature cited in the literature review.

The chapter highlights the overall effect and importance of the present study. For purposes of clarity, the chapter is sub-divided into the following sections: the introduction, which is a brief overview of the area of research, summary of the research findings, the discussion, analysis and critical reflection. In this chapter, the researcher uses findings from Chapter 4 to make the necessary correlations with existing knowledge in Chapter 2 on the relevant literature and studies by commenting on the degree to which this research gels with the literature. The practical application in the real environment/setting is also discussed in relation to the findings and claims made based on this research.

The major findings of this research were: firstly, SIEs who come from a similar culture, that is, Arabic countries, tended to have higher levels of ease in adjustment to socio-cultural conditions in Saudi Arabia. Secondly, notions of ageism need to be set aside as academics who were 60 years of age, or older, were the group who adjusted with the greatest ease by a considerable margin. To be more specific age was positively correlated with socio-cultural adjustments as shown in the literature and this research. Thirdly the research revealed that the majority of the expatriates adjusted moderately as two-thirds came from neighbouring countries, that is, Jordan and Egypt, to Saudi Arabia:
these neighbouring countries share many aspects of culture with Saudi Arabia, which makes eases adjustment.

5.1. Study Overview

As a result of the globalisation of their activities, professionals in many spheres are increasingly engaged in international travel. One of the significant developments of such international mobility is the tendency for professionals in various fields to leave whatever career position they hold in their own countries and migrate to a different country for employment purpose—the phenomenon called SIE. This phenomenon is facilitated on two fronts. On the demand side, employers are seeking to recruit internationally, either because of a local skills shortage or in a bid to attract the most talented and skilled. On the supply side, there are plenty of people who are looking for career opportunities overseas for various reasons such as better salaries and working conditions, career development or simply the desire to try something new.

SIEs are those who decide or intend to either migrate permanently or for an extensive period to another country to work, in contrast to those who simply go on a ‘career break’ to spend a relatively shorter time abroad. Another characteristic of the SIEs is that these individuals are people who initiate their expatriation effort and actively seek a position in another country through their own efforts (Lee, 2005; Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Selmer & Lauring, 2010; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010; Ariss, 2010), as opposed to the organisational expatriation where a business organisation (e.g., MNC) may send one of its own employees to work in another country, where the particular organisation has its own interests (Biemann & Andresen, 2010; Crowley-Henry, 2012).
The work described in this thesis is concerned with one group of SIEs, namely the SIE academics. According to Selmer and Lauring (2010), recent years have seen a sudden growth, worldwide, in the trend of academic SIEs, brought about primarily by the increased demand of the different universities and the various tertiary institutions to actively search for a new pool of academic talents. Given this high level of demand, more and more academics have chosen to be employed by foreign educational institutions and ultimately settle in or migrate to their chosen country to continue their academic careers (Selmer & Lauring, 2009; Carr, Inkson & Thorn, 2005; Richardson, 2006). However, this strategy does pose risks to both parties—the employer and the expatriate employee. One of the determining factors of success or failure of a SIE recruitment process has been identified as the ability of the prospective SIE to adjust to both work-related and general life outside the work environment in the host country (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009). The work described in this thesis addresses some of the ‘adjustment’ aspects of SIE, as applied specifically to SIE academics employed by institutes of higher education in Saudi Arabia.

Therefore, a survey was conducted on the SIE academics’ experiences as they engaged in their careers in Saudi Arabia, with the aim of identifying the factors that influence their adjustment as well as the problems they face in their new environment. The goals of the study also included the feasibility of the results being used to predict the likelihood of success or failure of the SIE trend. In that regard, the work sought insights into the relationship between cultural distance, previous work experience and SIE academics’ adjustment in Saudi Arabia. It also provides data linking the relationship between current managerial practices and SIE academics’ adjustment.
The research was based on a survey of a sample of SIE academics to answer the following specific questions:

1. What is the influence of cultural distance on SIEs’ cultural, interactional, work adjustment and overall adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?

2. What is the influence of previous work experience on SIEs’ cultural, interactional and work adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?

3. Do demographic variables (gender, language, marital status, age, religion, higher education status) present significant differences to SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia?

4. To what extent is Black et al.’s (1991) research model applicable to SIE academics in terms of cultural, interactional and work adjustment in Saudi Arabia?

5.2. Summary of Research Findings

The findings of this research, based on the aforementioned four questions, can be summarised as follows. The first research question was designed to determine the relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ cultural, interactional, work adjustment or overall adjustment. The results indicated a significant negative relationship between the cultural distance and both the SIEs’ cultural adjustment and interactional adjustment. The relationship between cultural distance and the SIEs’ work adjustment was also negative but was comparatively weaker. The relationship between cultural distance and the SIEs’ overall adjustment was negative and the strength of this relationship was significant.

The second question was designed to determine the relationship between previous work experience on SIEs’ cultural, interactional, work adjustment or overall adjustment. This
research revealed that there was no significant relationship existing between the previous jobs held and the cultural adjustment, interactional adjustment or work adjustment, as the variables had a p-value greater than the 0.05 threshold on the Spearman rho statistic test used as a measure of linear relationship.

The third research question was designed to determine the differences between a set of demographic variables and SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment. The demographics variables used in this research were: participants’ university, age, gender, country of origin, native language, marital status, religious status, highest degree held, number of previous jobs held and number of years at the current employment. The results obtained from an independent t-test revealed that there was no significant difference in the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on gender, language, marital status and religion. However, there was a significant difference among the mean scores of different age groups on the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment.

The fourth question examined whether the combination of cultural distance and previous work experience could predict SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment in Saudi universities. The correlation analysis revealed that previous work experience was not significantly related to socio-cultural adjustment. However, with a value of the correlation coefficient (r) as .505 (Table 4.24), cultural distance could be used as a sufficient predictor of the socio-cultural adjustment.

5.3. Discussion and Analysis

This part of the chapter discusses the findings and results made in relation to the existing literature as discussed in Chapter 2 of the thesis. It also presents the
contribution of this research to the existing knowledge and further substantiates and validates the position held by the research proponent. For purposes of clarity, the researcher intends to discuss first the demographic analysis before venturing at large into the analysis of the questions as used in the thesis.

5.3.1. Descriptive Analysis

The descriptive analysis of the socio-cultural adjustment scale provides valuable information on the expatriate academics’ cultural, interactional and work adjustment. The overall socio-adjustment of expatriate academics showed a mean score of 4.45, which falls within the moderate level of adjustment. In other words, the SIE academics did not experience much difficulty in adjusting to the conditions of the host country. Several factors are likely to contribute to this easy adjustment. Two-thirds of the respondents were from either Egypt or Jordan—two of Saudi Arabia’s neighbouring countries. These countries share very similar cultures in terms of language, religion and the general social customs. This means that the respondents do not face language barriers, enabling easy association with the Saudis because they share similar interests and knowledge, whether about religion or any other subject such as sport, music and literature, for example. Another possible explanation is that almost 95 per cent of the participants were Muslims who often share similar lifestyles, especially with spiritual practices, regardless of their country of origin.

Consideration of the individual cultural adjustment sub-scale items too indicated a moderate level of adjustment. The ‘Food’ item scored the highest mean of 5.10, which means SIEs can adjust easily to whatever food types are available in Saudi Arabia. The items of ‘Living condition in general’, ‘Housing condition’ and ‘Shopping’ shared the
next most moderate mean score of 4.79. This means that SIEs were comfortable with
the living conditions in Saudi Arabia and found them to be affordable and were able to
adjust easily. It was observed that most of the parameters under cultural adjustments
scored high on the mean scale, especially those that pertain to housing, living conditions,
food, shopping and cost of living. The exception was access to recreation and
entertainment, which registered 2.83 on the mean scale. The latter is an indication that
the respondents were unable to practice or find entertainment/recreation facilities and
opportunities within Saudi culture. It is conceivable that being a highly conservative
Muslim country, the opportunities for entertainment and related activities can be limited
in Saudi Arabia when compared with a more relaxed situation in the respondents’
respective countries of origin.

On the basis of interactional adjustment, it can be seen also that ‘Socialising with Saudi
nationals’, ‘Interacting with Saudi nationals on a day-to-day basis’, ‘Interacting with
Saudi nationals outside work’ and ‘Speaking with Saudi nationals’ all registered high on
the scale with an average of 3.80, which means SIEs can interact with local people
stress-free. This too can be related to the fact that the majority of the respondents came
from neighbouring Arab states, which made language and communication with the
Saudi nationals easier for most of them. It is to be understood that language is a primary
tool for interpersonal level communication, and so this makes dealing with Saudi
nationals relatively easy for them.

Noticeably, all means of the work adjustment sub-scale items were above 5.02, which
suggested a high level of adjustment. In the parameters that concerned work
adjustments, notably questions that pertain to ‘My specific job responsibilities’,
‘Performance standards and expectations of my job’ and ‘My supervisory
responsibilities’ all registered a high mean score posting of 5.52, which means that work-related adjustments also were not a problem area for these academic expatriate respondents. The item ‘My specific job responsibilities’ had the highest scored mean of 5.91. The high level in work adjustment can be attributed to the favourable conditions in the work environment, which enhance the respondents’ work adjustment. The researcher is thus inclined to analyse this in terms of the respondents’ educational qualifications and previous work experience. Since these expatriates possess high levels of academic preparation owing to the fact that a considerable number of them possess doctorates or master’s degrees, it is expected and the survey results show that they are capable of handling such a stressful workload. Their previous job experience may also be a factor aiding in their enhanced work adjustment tendencies. Perhaps, they were exposed to high pressure situations in their previous academic positions and thus the familiarity was helpful in the adjustment.

The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Peltokorpi and Froese (2009), where SIEs are better adjusted to the general aspects of their host countries and have better relationships with the citizens of the host country, in comparison to the organisation-assigned expatriates. This could be attributed to the fact that SIEs have more motivation and interest in the foreign country as their decision to expatriate was their own, in comparison to assigned expatriates, for whom the decision was made by their organisations. In the case of the respondents, the decision to stay is not only borne out of their own will as SIEs but more so by the level of cultural similarities that the majority of the respondents have with the host country Saudi Arabia.

To sum up, the mean scores were obtained in all three facets of adjustments, namely cultural, interactional and work. Relatively, all were considerably high, which as
previously postulated can be correlated to a degree of cultural similarity and the proximity of their countries of origin to Saudi Arabia.

The cultural distance of expatriate academics constituted an independent variable. The cultural distance between expatriate academics’ own cultures and the host culture (Saudi culture) was measured by a scale consisted of eight items. The descriptive analysis of the cultural distance scale provided valuable information on the magnitude of distance between expatriate academics’ own culture and the host culture. The overall cultural distance scale of expatriate academics showed a mean score of 2.90, which was considered a moderate level of cultural distance. This represents a circumstance where SIEs find Saudi culture very similar to their original cultures. This once again can be attributed to the Arabic cultural affiliation by the majority of the respondents in the study. In cultural distance, one item that turned out to be low in the mean analysis was transportation, which suggests the existence of a considerable disparity with the mode of transportation in the host country from that of the respondents’ countries of origin.

5.4. Research Questions

In this part of the discussion, an inferential analysis of the results is carried out. This is effectively carried out by stating and critically analysing the outcomes of the research questions.

5.4.1. Influence of Cultural Distance on Adjustment in Saudi Arabia
The first question was: **What is the influence of cultural distance on SIEs’ cultural, interactional, work adjustment and overall adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?**

Through the utilisation of the Pearson product-moment correlation for the dependent variables and independent variable, it was observed that the correlation matrix revealed that there was a negative and significant relationship between the cultural distance and the SIEs’ cultural adjustment \((r = -.529, p = .001)\). Based on this result, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis (there is a relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ cultural adjustment) was accepted. This means that there is a relationship that exists between cultural distance and the cultural adjustment of the SIE academics.

Second, the correlation matrix also revealed that there was a negative and significant relationship between cultural distance and the SIEs interactional adjustment \((r = -.336, p = .001)\). Based on this result, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis (there is a relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ interactional adjustment) was accepted.

With reference to the other hypothesis in the first question, it can be deduced that the computed Pearson product-moment correlation value for the work adjustment and cultural distance was \(-.248\) with a \(p\)-value of 0.001. It suggested that the relationship between the two variables was negative. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis (there is a relationship between cultural distance and SIEs’ work adjustment) was accepted, suggesting that there existed a negative relationship between work adjustment and cultural distance. This means that expatriates would be able to
adjust easily to work-related conditions if the cultural distance between the host country and the country of origin is considerably smaller.

Finally, there was also a negative significant relationship between the cultural distance and the SIEs’ cultural adjustment \( (r = -0.505, p = 0.001) \). Based on this result, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis (There is a relationship between cultural distance & SIEs’ overall adjustment) was accepted. The strength of relationship between cultural distance and the SIEs’ cultural adjustment had to be considered large \( (r \geq 0.50) \) based on Cohen (1988) guidelines. It is arguable or safe to assume that these two parameters are intrinsically related because, as the research within this thesis suggests, the smaller the cultural distance, the easier the process of cultural adjustment can be made.

These results are in agreement with Peltokorpi (2008), who in a similar study concluded that people who live and work in culturally similar countries are less stressed than those in culturally distant countries and they are likely to adjust more easily to those countries that share a similar culture. Conversely, several studies have found that people migrating from dissimilar cultures find it more difficult to adjust to the conditions of the host country (Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Redmond, 2000; Froese & Peltokorpi, 2011). This means that SIEs who come from close cultures to Saudi Arabia would adjust more easily than individuals from highly distinctive cultures.

However, the findings of the current study do not support a few of the other studies, which found that cultural similarity could be as difficult to adjust to as cultural dissimilarity. Investigating expatriate academics in Nordic countries and the Netherlands, Selmer and Lauring (2009) found that similar cultures could be as difficult
to adjust to as dissimilar cultures. A comparison of American business expatriates located in Canada (similar culture) and Germany (dissimilar culture), in another study, showed no significant difference in their extent of adjustment (Selmer, 2007). And in this case, cultural distance may actually have posed a lesser effect because Arab countries can be generally taken as culturally affiliated with one another, so the cultural distance and its adverse effects are actually minimised.

5.4.2. Influence of Previous Expatriate Work Experience on Adjustment to Saudi Arabia

The second research question was: What is the influence of previous work experience on SIEs’ cultural, interactional and work adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?

The results of the survey indicated the following: when the relationship between the previous job held and the overall self-initiated socio-cultural adjustment was examined, the Spearman’s rho was calculated, \( r_s (234) = -0.026, p = 0.688 \), which means that there is no significant relationship between previous job held and the overall adjustment. This means that previous international experience did not affect the cultural, interactional and work adjustments of the expatriates. This can be taken to mean that previous job assignments did not affect the level of adjustment of the respondents within the survey.

However, these findings oppose numerous previous studies showing that previous experience has a strong effect on socio-cultural adjustment but not referring to the Saudi Arabian context (Black, 1988; Shaffer et al., 1999; Hechanova et al., 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Lee, 2005). In the original work of Black et al. (1991), the factor
of previous work experience proposed to have an effect on work adjustment, cultural adjustment and interaction adjustment. This inconsistency within the literature may be due to the fact that the majority of the surveyed SIEs had multiple previous work experiences. This means that the adoption of total life style and the expectation of career path for SIEs are higher than traditional expatriates, which were the focus of the literature. In this regard, it is also important to consider the environment in which the respondents had their previous experience. For instance, if a person originally from a Western country has had a few years’ experience in a neighbouring Arabic country they may not find Saudi Arabia much different and find adjustment easier.

5.4.3. Role of Gender, Language, Age, Marital Status, Religion and Level of Education on Adjustment

The third question was: **Do demographic variables (gender, language, marital status, age, religion, and higher education status) present significant differences to SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia?** The results are analysed individually as follows.

5.4.3.1. Gender

Based on the research findings from this study, there was no significant difference in the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustment based on gender of the participant. This means that Saudi Arabia can open its doors to more qualified female faculty members as opposed to the currently male dominated job environment with no effect on the expatriates’ adjustment.
Interestingly, Myers and Pringle (2005) claimed that the literature suggests significant
that men were more likely to adjust in work-related skills and interpersonal
communication than women in wide-ranging cultural environments. Researchers
suggested that men may be more likely to report more short-term and instrumental
relationships (Suutari & Brewster, 2000; Myers & Pringle, 2005). The inconsistency of
the present findings may be due, however, to a small sample size of females and,
therefore, caution must be applied, as the findings might not be applicable to other
circumstances.

5.4.3.2. Language

From this research it appears that there was no significant difference existing between
the SIEs’ overall socio-cultural adjustments when the participants were grouped
according to languages. This supports the earlier claim based on the survey that those
expatriates who actually speak the same language as the host country may actually have
an easier time adjusting in the acculturation process. This finding is in agreement
with Bhaskar-Shriniwas et al. (2004), who found that language skills were less important
in less-developed host countries than in advanced economies.

5.4.3.3. Marital Status

Marital status of the SIE academics in Saudi Arabian universities was not found to
significantly affect their socio-cultural adjustments. In the current study, about 83 per
cent of the respondents were married. It is estimated that about 86 per cent of
expatriates all over the world are accompanied by their spouses as well as children
while on foreign assignments (Scullion & Brewster, 2001). Based on that, it is reasonable to assume that a majority of the SIEs included in the study had their spouses in Saudi Arabia. That is likely to be a positive influence on the process of adjustment. This gains support from research by Alshammari (2012), which concluded that no significant differences existed between the married with family, married without family and the single expatriates and the level of socio-cultural adjustment.

However, it is important for the expatriate to perform well in the new environment. The task becomes easier when his/her family is there to support them and they collectively adjust to living in the new country (Selmer, 2002). Problems arising with the expatriates’ family have been the most common cause of failure of expatriates as well as the cause for repatriation before the assignment is complete. This is mostly attributed to poor adjustment of families or to lack of adjustment towards the transportation, food, health care and education systems that are found in the host country (Crowley-Henry, 2007). In the current study, marital status may have no effect on cultural adjustment, which can be ascribed to the fact that SIEs’ marital situations are unique and may vary based on individuals.

5.4.3.4. Religion

Results did not show a significant effect of the participant’s religion in the overall SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment. This meant that expatriates in Saudi Arabia know how to respect religion, especially the non-Muslims, and at the same time, there can be no problem as well in this regard as the majority of the respondents were Muslim practitioners. The religion differences and similarities of the expatriates and the host must be taken into consideration in order to understand the findings’ generalisability.
(Pearson, Hammond, Heffernan & Turner, 2012). This result, therefore, needs to be interpreted with caution as the majority of the respondents, 95 per cent, were Muslims.

5.4.3.5. Higher Education Status

Higher education status has no effect on surveyed SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment, according to the results of the present study. This can be understood in such a way that higher level of learning actually plays no role on cultural adjustment of the host country.

This result differs from a similar study by Reynolds (2010) on SIE academics in the UAE; the conclusion was that education level shows a significant influence on the degree of cultural adjustment. More specifically, those SIEs who reported holding a master’s or higher level degree had higher levels of cultural adjustment than those holding a bachelor’s degree. Intuitively, one would expect a positive relationship between levels of education and the ease of handling life situations. For example, a higher level of education is usually associated with greater experience and a greater capacity for reasoning, which could aid in making sense of the new cultural environment. Another possible explanation could be that the obtainment of graduate-level education indicates a deeper and more sophisticated professional skill set that would promote greater professional self-assurance, thus increasing the expatriate’s self-confidence in dealing with unfamiliar environments.

However, the lack of an effect of level of education in the present study may be due to the confounding effect of similarity between SIEs’ and Saudi culture and may represent career satisfaction.
5.4.3.6. Age

The age of the SIE academics was found to have a significant relationship with the socio-cultural aspects of adjustment. Previous research on expatriates’ cultural adjustment provides some support for the influence of individual factors such as age (Hechanova et al., 2003; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). Other studies in relation to age and its influence on SIEs, including Hagedorn (2000), have suggested that the older, tenured, full professors are the most satisfied faculty members, which strongly shows that among academics in higher education, overall satisfaction increases over time. Boice (2000), however, pointed out that overall academics’ satisfaction is down and continues to decline. These findings further support the idea that older SIEs may find Saudi culture an opportune and appropriate place to work and live.

5.4.4. Applicability of Black et al.’s Model in Saudi Context

The fourth and last question for this research was: To what extent is Black et al.’s (1991) research model applicable to SIE academics in terms of cultural, interactional and work adjustment in Saudi Arabia?

The purpose of this enquiry was to determine whether cultural distance and previous work experience, when combined together, were able to predict the socio-cultural adjustment of SIEs employed in Saudi universities. The answer as posited was positive only for cultural distance, with previous work experience having no influence, as shown by the linear regression formula.
Reynolds (2005) has suggested that the influence of some of the factors on the Black et al. (1991) model of expatriate socio-cultural adjustment may need to be re-evaluated in describing the socio-cultural adjustment of SIEs because of the possible shift in their importance in the latter situation. The results of this study support that theory. For example, several studies have shown previous work experience to be a significant anticipatory factor of influence on traditional expatriate adjustment. Yet, the results of the present study did not corroborate that general finding. It is likely that the influence of this factor is situation-dependent, with both the characteristics of individuals and the host work environment playing significant roles. In the present study, no attempt was made to analyse the data in terms of the location of previous expatriate experience. If the experience was had in a culture similar to that of the host country, there would have been some degree of acculturation already, which hence would explain the finding of no correlation with socio-cultural adjustment.

5.5. Theoretical Implication

The fourth research question was aimed at gaining an insight into the subject by a comparison of the hypothesis testing of this study with previously reported research on traditional expatriates. An additional purpose of the exploratory analyses included in the present study was to make a judgement on the applicability of the research model developed Black et al. (1991) in its current form, in explaining the socio-cultural adjustment experiences of SIEs. For example, regression analysis conducted on the control variables in this study indicated that, besides the factors tested as independent variables in this study, other factors such as age also have an influence on the socio-cultural experiences of SIEs. Indeed, factors such as age have often been found to be influential in the socio-cultural adjustment of traditional expatriates (Church, 1982;
Hechanova et al., 2003; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). In light of such observations, it may be suggested that the Black et al. (1991) model as it is currently formulated might need to be expanded to include other factors of predictive potential as well.

The development of Black et al.’s (1991) model has been largely based on data on the adaptation of expatriates from dissonant cultures, particularly of Western expatriates’ experiences when relocated from ‘low context’ to ‘high context’ environments. This study, in contrast, analysed SIEs’ adaptation across similar cultural contexts. Nonetheless, it was seen that the application of Black et al.’s (1991) model was suitable even in these circumstances, perhaps suggesting certain commonalities between the SIEs in this study and their Western expatriate counterparts, as far as the challenges experienced in adjustment are concerned.

However, the present findings do support the conclusion that many facets of the SIEs’ experiences are different enough from that of traditional expatriates to warrant further studies, specifically on this sub-population of expatriates. Tentatively, it appears that a greater variance exists not only in individual characteristics of SIEs but also in how those characteristics play a role in the socio-cultural adjustment experiences of SIEs. Despite the evidence coming directly from the present study, and indirectly from Selmer and Lauring (2009), that the Black et al. (1991) model of socio-cultural adjustment can explain some of the adjustment experiences of SIEs, consideration of certain other factors, such as the significance of previous work experience, shows the need for further evaluation of the model. For example, as this study did not test the Black et al's (1991) model in its entirety, it will be prudent to examine whether other factors currently included in the model could go further in explaining SIEs’ socio-cultural adjustment.
This study does add to the literature on 'expatriate adjustment' in relation to the application of Black et al.’s (1991) model in a non-western culture. The key point here is that Black et al.’s (1991) shows that it can be successfully extended beyond western culture to yield valid results.

5.6. Recommendations

This part of the thesis provides the practical grounds for the implementation of the findings and conclusions that were arrived at as a by-product of conducting the research. This section discusses the implications of the research for the different stakeholders that are affected by the study, specifically the SIE academics. In the same manner, the implications for the enhancement of current theories/study framework that were used in the study, specifically Black et al.’s 1991 framework, may also be enhanced.

The following highlights the recommendations that can be made as a result of this study. First, the analysis of the data obtained from the SIE respondents revealed that the socio-cultural adjustments were relatively easier for them since most came from Arabic countries, which may not be the case for the non-Arabs and non-Muslims who were currently employed as SIE academics in Saudi Arabia in the two universities used for the study. Therefore, it is important that the universities used in the study make conscious efforts aimed at making the conditions and job-related situations conducive for the non-Arabic academic expatriates working in these universities mentioned and others in Saudi Arabia. If the Saudi Arabian universities wish to attract and retain the best academics, it is important that the socio-cultural adjustments of the non-Arab expatriates are properly and appropriately assisted within a core HRM function. Simply stated, in circumstances where expatriates perceive the host country as being hostile and
unjust, they will leave the employment and this will increase the turnover and exacerbate recruitment costs (Forstenlechner, 2010). It is arguable that word of mouth may be operative and result in fewer academics contemplating expatriate opportunities given that the academic community has quite well-developed opportunities to communicate.

In line with this, the researcher would recommend that a special department is created under the guidance and counselling departments of the universities to assist the expatriates from other nationalities in the acculturation process. The universities and the government may also give incentives or rewards to non-Arab SIEs, taking into consideration their qualifications. The researcher also recommends that the expatriates be given specific tasks like heading a particular area in their field of specialisation so that their overall leadership and managerial skills can be utilised. The researcher believes as a result of this research that if SIEs are given more organisational responsibilities, they will feel more valued due to importance and thus more committed to the university. In addition, more activities that strengthen the acculturation processes should be provided to the SIEs, such as sponsored trips around the country or at least to the nearby cities.

Teambuilding activities can also be undertaken to strengthen camaraderie and team effort on the part of the expatriates in Saudi Arabia. For the majority of the SIE academics who are of Arab descent, acculturation is also important as there are cultural patterns that are still unique to Saudi Arabia. Another recommendation is increasing the variety of recreation activities provided by the university, as this was one parameter that scored low in the cultural adjustment variable.
An added recommendation that may resonate is hiring SIEs from different nationalities and grouping them accordingly in clusters and then building bridges to a more homogenous workplace. The researcher recommends this to comprehensively minimise the factors that may induce decisions by expatriates to leave their current posts because of socio-cultural adjustment reasons. This recommendation requires the universities to openly publish their openings and vacancies and specifically invite expatriates from countries with a proven track record of academic and research excellence, such as the United States, Finland, Japan, Singapore, Taiwan and Australia among others. In this way, they may be able to hire academic expatriates from these nationalities and they can be grouped together so that the process of acculturation may not be as complex as they would still be among several people with the same cultural background.

Another recommendation is to provide more financial and monetary rewards, especially for those who retain their current positions. An example of this is having a promotion scheme for the SIEs based on their experience as well as academic preparation. Prospects of career development and growth make retention possible and in turn reduce turnover. The researcher thus recommends an improved psychological contract by assuring security in terms of employment at an early opportunity when the normal HRM checkpoints are obvious. This recommendation emanates from the findings in the study where age actually turned out to be significantly correlated with the adjustment process. The researcher believes that offering tenure status at an earlier stage will induce SIEs to remain for longer periods enabling them to carefully plan career moves or even retirement with assurity. This can be done especially for those within the age range of 25 to 38, which the researcher believes to be a group within academia that view employment and careers in a different way and may opt for other posts in other universities to forge careers.
The salary can be incrementally increased periodically on a shorter basis (for example, every six months as opposed to yearly) in contrast to Saudi citizens because the goal is to attract and retain the best possible faculty members, which is consistent with the purpose being initiated by the university and the government of Saudi Arabia as a whole. Many countries seeking to attract expatriates usually offer attractive compensation, which means that in terms of compensation, expatriates are satisfied (Warneke & Schneider, 2011).

This research also has several recommendations for the SIE academics in general. First, the expatriate must have a well-defined career plan laid down. They must be able to know and understand the reason and purpose of becoming an academic expatriate. The researcher thus believes that the decision to stay should be based on their own set of intrinsic motivations because the university or the government provides many policy inducements for retention and promotion, which is important to foster the desire to stay and be part of the organisation.

It is also recommended for universities to hire and retain SIE academics respecting and as much as possible replicating responsibilities and status they held in their previous post. The research showed that previous experience was not sufficiently acknowledged, thus impeding to some degree the expatriate’s adjustment. Use of skills and experience with planned integration of staff within universities needs to be improved for reasons of productivity and effective utilisation of staff skills and experience regardless of where staff hail from, thus minimising problems associated with cultural distance.
More effective and easier measures of enabling academic expatriates to bring their families in Saudi Arabia must be adopted. For the government, the researcher recommends further strengthening of policies that can help elevate the current status of higher learning in the country.

5.7. Suggestions for Future Research

This study has made an important contribution to the body of knowledge through the focus on SIEs in Saudi Arabia. Nevertheless, further research should be conducted in this area to add valuable knowledge on a local or global scale. First, more research in this field in other areas of Saudi Arabia, for example the southern area, would provide more insight into the adjustment of SIEs. This study has its limitations and broadening the study may result in a wider range of recommendations to mediate a softer landing for SIEs attempting adjust to a host culture. Future research in this area may focus on the qualitative approach. This would help in investigating in depth and additional aspects not addressed within this research or other quantitative studies that may be undertaken. An example of this could be obtaining valuable information from academic SIEs leaving their jobs.

Another suggestion for the continuing research is to include the family factor by focusing on the presence of children during expatriation, and more research should be conducted on the effect of the family presence or absence on SIEs adjustment during expatriation. Further, the adjustment of a large sample of expatriate women requires an added focus to understand socio-cultural adjustment and to also use the talents of more female academics.
It would be useful to do research in this field in other areas of Saudi Arabia. The Southern Area for example would provide added insight into the adjustment of SIEs. This may assist in investigating the role of geographical and location factors as key issues related to SIE’s adjustment. In addition, more research could be conducted in different industries such as the health care sector, construction companies as well as small and medium enterprises which may lead for a heightened understanding of what supporting initiatives assists expatriates in adjusting successfully.

In any case, this study does provide evidence in support of the suggestion that perhaps the model should include additional factors, and/or perhaps additional layers of quality of factors and time should be added. These extra considerations could be useful not only in explaining SIE adjustment, but also in improving the model’s predictability of traditional expatriate adjustment experiences.
CHAPTER 6: Conclusion

This thesis presented the results and analysis of research on the phenomenon of self-initiated academic expatriation. It considered the adjustment of SIEs to Saudi socio-culture patterns. SIE academic expatriation has become prevalent, especially in Saudi Arabia as the government embarked on a plan to vastly improve higher education outputs in the country and required skilled academic to staff its higher education sector. To achieve the objectives of this plan, the government has undertaken such efforts as infusing a vast capital and financial outlay to build higher education institutions and attract competent faculty members who would be part of the workforce. Given these government education policies, where SIE academics are recruited and fail to adjust to the host country - namely Saudi Arabia – it is important to isolate the reasons why as an aspect of appropriate human resource management.

This study was important as it researched key aspects that impacted on the reasons why SIE academics were retained or alternatively opted to resign presenting a concern for the individuals and also the recruiting institution given the cost of recruiting staff from other countries.

The major findings of this research were: firstly, SIEs who come from a similar culture, that is, Arabic countries, tended to have higher levels of ease in adjustment to socio-cultural conditions in Saudi Arabia. Secondly, notions of ageism need to be set aside as academics who were 60 years of age, or older, were the group who adjusted with the greatest ease by a considerable margin. To be more specific age was positively correlated with socio-cultural adjustments as shown in the literature and this research. Thirdly the research revealed that the majority of the expatriates adjusted moderately as two-thirds came from neighbouring countries, that is, Jordan and Egypt, to Saudi Arabia:
these neighbouring countries share many aspects of culture with Saudi Arabia, which makes eases adjustment.

Other findings of notable interest are that the demographic profile of the respondents, particularly gender, language, religion, marital status and higher education levels, were not significantly related to their socio-cultural adjustments.

Another key finding was the model used by Black et al (1989) to examine adjustment to culture in a western context was an appropriate quantitate research model when applied to the Saudi Arabian context.. In other words the model has the potential to measure cultural adjustment in varying cultures as well as similar cultures.

Research needs to solve problems. Based on the research I have gained an insight into the adjustment Higher Education institutes need to make to ease the adjustment, cultural and otherwise of SIE academics and information gained form this research will be employed to make changes to benefit both the institutions and the SIEs. This will take time but is necessary.

6.1. Limitations

As is the case with any research, this study faced several limitations: some were anticipated and others were not. The initial design of the research was to apply a mixed-method approach with the specific decision to use a sequential technique, which consisted of two phases, namely quantitative and qualitative. Therefore, the quantitative phase was commenced and data was gathered using a questionnaire. Conversely, the
qualitative component was not undertaken as the participants declined to participate in face-to-face semi-structured interviews. This was not anticipated. It was a limitation as there are cases, well reported in the qualitative literature, that claim that individuals are likely to express information that may not be induced through a survey.

Circumstances indicate concerns that participation may have some adverse consequences despite ethical confidentiality being assured. This may however have induced a residual benefit as it is likely to have impacted on a very high rate of survey returns – 85.5 per cent. The study relied on a single survey on the targeted sample, which provided an in depth understanding of the relationship among the variables, but the question remains whether the results, analysis, findings and conclusion would have been richer with the added qualitative research dimension.

An added limitation was that the target population was limited to four institutions of higher education in the northern area of Saudi Arabia. Although this narrow selection of the study population could provide data that can be generalised, a larger population of SIE academics in other areas of Saudi Arabia would be a limitation worthy of resolving to test this research in larger survey population. More to add, the sample of this study were mainly non-westerns. However, it would have been interesting to have a sample that was split evenly between westerns and non-westerns- the results may have been different.

Finally, this study was conducted using a self-reporting questionnaire and there was no additional data collected from other perspectives, such as spouses or supervisors. Thus, the application of a one-dimensional study had its drawbacks as commentary form spouses and the cultural adjustments that faced and potential pressures on the SIE
academics would be a useful insight – however this needs to be the subject of additional research.


University of Ha’il. (2010). *Booklet about University of Ha’il.* Ha’il: University of Ha’il.


Appendix A

Plain Language Statement

Project Title:
The Adjustment of SIEs Academics in Higher Institutions in Saudi Arabia

Investigator:
Hammad Alshammari (PhD Candidate - School of Management, RMIT University, hamm.alshammari@rmit.edu.au)

Supervisors:
- Associate Professor Alan Nankervis, PhD, School of Management, RMIT University, alan.nankervis@rmit.edu.au Phone: +(61 3) 9925 1650
- Dr. Alan Montague, School of Management, RMIT University, alan.montague@rmit.edu.au Phone: +(61 3) 9925 5653

Dear Prospective participant,
You are invited to participate in a research project being conducted at RMIT University. This information sheet describes the project in straightforward language or ‘plain English’. Please read it carefully and be confident that you understand its contents before deciding whether to participate. If you have any questions about the project, please ask the investigator.

Who is involved in this research project? Why is it being conducted?
This research is being conducted by Hammad Alshammari as a requirement for the award of a PhD in the Discipline of Management, RMIT University, Australia, under the supervision of Associate Professor Alan Nankervis and Dr. Alan Montague. The research has approval of your university and RMIT University Ethics committee.

Why have you been approached?
As non-Saudi academic, you have been approached to participate in this study.
What is the project about? What are the questions being addressed?

You have been invited to respond to a survey in order to determine the impact of cultural adjustment on expatriate retention. You may also respond to a request to participate in a face-to-face interview by personally contacting the researcher through email. Your participation in both the survey and the face-to-face interview is completely voluntary and would be greatly appreciated.

If I agree to participate, what will I be required to do?

You should find a questionnaire attached to this plain language statement that has been distributed by internal mail by your department. After reviewing this plain language statement you are requested to complete demographic questions and the survey, which will take 15–20 minutes. The survey will include open-ended and multiple choice questions. This survey will be anonymous and participants have the right to withdraw from the study at any time. Questionnaires will be completed in your own time and you will be required to submit the completed questionnaire in a sealed return mail to the researcher temporary mail box.

If you wish to participate in the face-to-face interview that will be voice recorded you will be required to sign a consent form for purpose of confidentiality. The face-to-face interview will take around 30–45 minutes. Participants in the face-to-face interview will be asked about the result from the survey and what they think about the cultural adjustment and whether there are any barriers or enhancing factors to be retained in your university. Interview data will be confidential and audio-recordings will be transcribed by the researcher using a code and not your name or any identifiable data.

What are the risks or disadvantages associated with participation?

There are no risks associated with your participation in this research project. All responses will remain confidential, be reported as group data and will have no influence on your employment.

What are the benefits associated with participation?

It is hoped that this project will help to identify barriers to achieve non-Saudi academics’ adjustment and retain them. Also, the project will draw the attention of the role of cultural distance on expatriate academics adjustment. At the end of the study, results will indicate whether improvement needed in the
managerial practices to facilitate and ease the expatriate adjustment and retention. This study will add to the existing body of knowledge regarding expatriate adjustment.

**What will happen to the information I provide?**

All information gathered as part of this research will be securely stored for a period of 5 years in the School of Management, RMIT University. The data can only be accessed by the researcher and supervisors. After 5 years, the data will be destroyed. The data collected will be analysed and the results may be published in academic journals or conferences without, including any personal information that has the potential to identify either you or your university.

**What are my rights as a participant?**

Your participation in this research is voluntary. As a participant, you have the right to withdraw your participation at any time; have any unprocessed data withdrawn and destroyed, provided it can be reliably identified and provided that so doing does not increase your risk; and have any questions answered at any time.

Due to the nature of this data collection process, I am not obtaining written informed consent unless you elect to be interviewed.

**Whom should I contact if I have any questions?**

If you have any questions regarding this research, please contact the researcher hamm.alshammari@rmit.edu.au or his supervisors at the following addresses alan.nankervis@rmit.edu.au and alan.montague@rmit.edu.au

Yours Sincerely

Hammad Alshammari

PhD candidate

hamm.alshammari@rmit.edu.au

Any complaints about your participation in this project may be directed to the Executive Officer, RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee, Research & Innovation, RMIT, GPO Box 2476V, Melbourne, 3001. The telephone number is (03) 9925 2251. Details of the complaints procedure will also be available from this address.
Appendix B

Invitation Letter

Dear Faculty Member,

I am in the process of conducting my PhD research in Human Resource Management at RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia. I am conducting a research study into barriers and facilitators of expatriate faculty to adjust to the public higher education institutions in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. It is hoped that this research will provide practice, policy, and procedural recommendations for all of the institutions.

As expatriates are the reliant majority of faculty in the public higher education system in the KSA, this research is of vital importance. To investigate these issues, I am asking you to participate as an expatriate faculty member. Your opinions and feedback are extremely important since you are the ones who ultimately shape and mold much of higher education in the KSA.

If you decide to volunteer, you are asked to complete this survey. The survey should take no longer than approximately ten minutes to complete. At the end of the survey, you will also be asked if you would be willing to participate in a short follow up interview to investigate further any emerged aspects. If you agree, you will need to contact me through my email.

Thank you for your participation,

Hammad Alshammari

hamm.alshammari@rmit.edu.au
Appendix C

Questionnaire

Part one: Demographics

The purpose of this section is to provide some needed demographic information to assist in the analysis and then development of recommendations for this research. Please make a selection for each of the following questions:

1. What is your age?
   a. 25-35
   b. 36-60
   c. 61+

2. What is your gender?
   a. Male
   b. Female

3. What is your country of origin?

4. What is your native language?
   a. Arabic
   b. English
   c. Other

5. What is your marital status?
   a. Married with a family
   b. Married without family (family at home-country)
   c. Single

6. What is your religious status?
   a. Muslim
   b. Non-Muslim

7. What is the highest degree you have earned?
   b. Master’s (M.A., M.Sc., M.Phill., M.Ed., M.B.A., etc)
   c. Bachelor’s (B.A., B.Sc., B.Ed., B.Comm., etc)
   d. Other

8. How many previous jobs have you held outside of your home country?
   a. 0 (This is my first job)
   b. 1
   c. 2
   d. 3+

9. How long have you been working for your current employer?
   a. 0-6 months
   b. 6-11 months
   c. 1-2 years
   d. More than 2 years
**Part Two: Survey Questionnaire**

Please rate the following statements based on your experiences living and working in the Saudi Arabia. Provide only one response to each statement. There are no right or wrong responses. Do not spend too much time on any one statement; rather please choose your responses based on your initial reaction to the statement.

Please indicate your adjustment status related to each item statement below. Select the rating scale point that best describes how you feel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very Unadjusted 1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>Very Adjusted 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
1. Living conditions in general | | | | | | |
2. Housing conditions | | | | | | |
3. Food | | | | | | |
4. Shopping | | | | | | |
5. Cost of living | | | | | | |
6. Entertainment/recreation facilities & opportunities | | | | | | |
7. Health care facilities | | | | | | |
8. Socializing with Saudi nationals | | | | | | |
9. Interacting with Saudi nationals on a day-to-day basis | | | | | | |
10. Interacting with Saudi nationals outside of work | | | | | | |
11. Speaking with Saudi nationals | | | | | | |
12. My specific job responsibilities | | | | | | |
13. Performance standards and expectations of my job | | | | | | |
14. My supervisory responsibilities | | | | | | |

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جاءت النتائج الإيجابية ل-API

فيسًا لم نقييم القيود في الأغلب من خلال إقامتكم وعملكم في المملكة العربية السعودية. فقط قد يوضع تقييم مرير واحد لفئة لا يوجد أي إجابة منصبة أو مهارة. لا تقم بذكر وقت مطول في إجابة مفردة واحدة في المفردة الثانية.

فيسًا لم يوضع مدى تأكيدك مع كل شراء من الفئات التالية. اختيار التقييم الذي يتضمن مع إجابتك.
Please indicate your assessment of the similarities or differences in the following items in Saudi Arabia when compared to your home country. Select the rating scale point that best describes how you feel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very Different</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Very Similar</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Everyday customs that must be followed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. General living conditions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Using health care facilities</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Transportation systems used in Saudi Arabia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. General living costs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Available quality and types of foods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Climate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. General housing conditions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate your assessment of your intent to stay or leave your current position. Select the rating scale point that best describes how you feel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very Disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Very Agree</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I plan to leave this university as soon as possible.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave this university before retirement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I would be reluctant to leave this university.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I plan to stay in this university as long as possible.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix D

Data Collection Approval
سلام الله

سعادة الملحق الثقافي باستراليا
الدكتور علي بن محمد البشري

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته
جامعة حائل تهديكم تجاهنا: ونفديكم بأن المحاضر/حماد خميس الشمري قد أكمل جميع البيانات الخاصة بدراسته وقد أكمل مدة 90 يوم في جمع البيانات من أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعة.

ويثمنا على طلب المحاضر قدمت له هذه الشهادة.

وتقبلوا سعادتكم وافر التحية والتقدير...

عميد شؤون الأساتذة والموظفين

د. مسلم خير الله الشمري

حائل- المملكة العربية السعودية - هاتف: 36309597، فاكس: 36309597
Hail - Saudi Arabia Tel: 06-5310036 - Fax, 06-5310299
Appendix E

Ethics Committee Approval

RMIT BUSINESS
COLLEGE HUMAN ETHICS ADVISORY NETWORK
(BCHEAN)

Application for Approval of Research Project

SUMMARY & APPROVAL

Project Title: Adjustment of Self-initiated Expatriate Higher Education Academics in Saudi Arabia- What Management Practices can be developed to Increase Retention in a Globally Competitive Market

Principal Investigator: Hammad Alshammari

Project Category: Low Risk

School Name: Management

Contact Telephone Number: 0422298826

Email Address: hamm.alshammari@rmit.edu.au

BUSINESS COLLEGE HUMAN ETHICS ADVISORY NETWORK USE ONLY:

Date Application Received: 23 March 2011

Business College Human Ethics Advisory Network Register No: 1000257

Period of Approval: 6 April 2011 to 1 March 2014

Comments / Provisos: N/A

The Business College Human Ethics Advisory Network assessed the Project as Low Risk

Signature: [Signature]

Date: 6 April 2011

Professor Roslyn Russell, BCHEAN Chair
Appendix F

Survey Author Consent

From: ‘Stephens, Greg’ <g.stephens@tcu.edu>
To: E82763@ems.rmit.edu.au
Date: 3/5/2011 12:28 am
Subject: RE: PhD student seeking you permission to use expatriate adjustment scale

Please consider this my permission to use the expatriate adjustment and culture novelty measures that Dr. Black and I adapted for our 1989 article ‘The Influence of the Spouse on American Expatriate Adjustment and Intent to Stay in Pacific Rim Overseas Assignments’ in the Journal of Management.

Greg Stephens

~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~
Gregory K. Stephens, Ph.D.
Texas Christian University
TCU Box 298530
2900 Lubbock Ave.
Fort Worth, TX 76129
Tel: (817) 257–7548
URL: http://sбуweb.tcu.edu/stephens
M.J. Neeley School of Business
It’s More Than Business. It’s Personal. ™
Dear Dr. Stephens

My name is Hammad Alshammari and I am in the process of conducting my doctoral research in Management at RMIT University, Australia. I am conducting a research study into expatriate academics adjustment and retention in the public higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia. It is hoped that this research will provide practice, policy, and procedural recommendations for all of the institutions management as well as staff. To investigate these issues, I am asking you to use the expatriate adjustment and culture novelty measures that you used on the following publication:


Thank you and looking to hear from you,

Best regards

Hammad Alshammari
Appendix G

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Culture
Culture can be described as shared norms, values and modes of behaviour that characterise a group of individuals (Schein, 1993).

Cultural distance
Cultural distance is the extent to which the culture of the home country differs from that of the host country (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1984).

Expatriate adjustment
Expatriates shall be called adjusted to a facet if they are effective in their dealings in the new environment, perceive themselves as adequately knowledgeable about the local environment, and feel neutral or positive emotions overall (Haslberger & Brewster, 2009).

Self-initiated expatriate
‘Individuals who initiate and usually finance their own expatriation and are not transferred by organisations. They relocate to a country of their choice to pursue cultural, personal, and career development experiences, often with no definite time frame in mind’ (Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen & Bolino, 2012, p. 1286). A person who has chosen to leave their homeland usually for a long period of time to live or work in another country, rather than being sent by their company (Vance, 2005).